



R.T.
NIGDE OMAR HALISDEMİR UNIVERSITY
SOCIAL SCIENCES INSTITUTE
DEPARTMENT OF BUSSINESS ADMINISTRATION

**THE IMPACT OF INTRINSIC MOTIVATION AND EMPLOYEE
ENGAGEMENT ON IN-ROLE AND EXTRA-ROLE PERFORMANCE:
A RESEARCH ON THE PUBLIC ENTERPRISES POST AND TELECOM OF
KOSOVO**

DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

**Prepared by
Sejdi HOXHA**

**NİĞDE
January, 2020**

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Supervisor : Prof. Dr. Fatih ÇETİN
Member : Prof. Dr. Haluk KORKMAZYÜREK
Member : Assoc. Prof. Dr. İrge ŞENER
Member : Assoc. Prof. Dr. Mehmet DEMIRAL
Member : Assist. Prof. Dr. Murat GÜLER

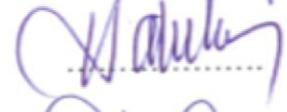
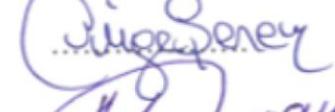
NİĞDE
January, 2020

ONAY SAYFASI

Prof. Dr. Fatih ÇETİN danışmanlığında Sejdi HOXHA tarafından hazırlanan "The Impact of Intrinsic Motivation and Employee Engagement on In-Role and Extra-Role Performance: A Research on the Public Enterprises Post and Telecom of Kosovo" adlı bu çalışma jürimiz tarafından Niğde Ömer Halisdemir Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, İşletme Anabilim Dalı'nda Doktora Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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JÜRİ :

Danışman : Prof. Dr. Fatih ÇETİN / 
Üye : Prof. Dr. Haluk KORKMAZYÜREK / 
Üye : Doç. Dr. İrge ŞENER / 
Üye : Doç. Dr. Mehmet DEMİRAL / 
Üye : Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Murat GÜZAK / 

ONAY :

Bu tezin kabulü Enstitü Yönetim Kurulu'nun Tarih ve sayılı kararı ile onaylanmıştır.

Doç. Dr. Emin Hüseyin ÇETENAK
Enstitü Müdürü

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I declare with full responsibility that my doctoral thesis: "The impact of intrinsic motivation and employee engagement on in-role and extra-role performance": a research on the post and telecom of Kosovo, is written by myself in accordance with scientific and academic rules. Any material taken from third-party sources is referred to by academic rules.

Date 03/12/2019
Seidi HOXHA

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read "S. Hoxha", is written over a white rectangular box. The signature is stylized and includes a long horizontal stroke at the end.

ABSTRACT

THE IMPACT OF INTRINSIC MOTIVATION AND EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT ON IN-ROLE AND EXTRA-ROLE PERFORMANCE: A RESEARCH ON THE PUBLIC ENTERPRISES POST AND TELECOM OF KOSOVO

Sejdi HOXHA

PhD Thesis, Department of Business Administration

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Fatih ÇETİN

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The main purpose of this study is to examine the effect of intrinsic motivation and employee engagement on in-role and extra-role performance. The study sample consisted of 394 employees among different sections of Post and Telecom of Kosovo. The relationship between study variables was investigated by correlation and hierarchical regression analyses. The results revealed that relatedness, which is one of the sub-dimensions of intrinsic motivation has a positive effect on in-role performance whilst the findings showed that other sub-dimensions such as autonomy and competence have no significant effect on in-role performance. Regarding the effects between intrinsic motivation and extra-role performance, the findings proved that all intrinsic motivation sub-dimensions (autonomy, competence, and relatedness) have a positive effect on extra-role performance. As per the effects between intrinsic motivation and employee engagement, the results demonstrated that autonomy and competence have a positive effect on vigor which is a sub-dimension of employee engagement while relatedness doesn't have a positive effect on vigor. The results also showed that all intrinsic motivation sub-dimensions have a positive effect on dedication and absorption. Moreover, the results proved that all the sub-dimensions of employee engagement (vigor, dedication, and absorption) have a positive effect on in-role and extra-role performance. Finally, the relationship between intrinsic motivation, employee engagement, in-role and extra-role performance together with their sub-dimensions are discussed and further suggestions are presented.

Key Words: Intrinsic motivation, Employee engagement, In-role and Extra-role performance, Kosova.

ÖZET

İÇSEL MOTİVASYON VE İŞE TUTULMANIN ROL İÇİ VE ROL DIŞI PERFORMANSA ETKİSİ: KOSOVA POSTA VE TELEKOM KAMU İŞLETMELERİ ÜZERİNE BİR ARAŞTIRMA

Sejdi HOXHA

Doktora Tezi, İşletme Bölümü

Danışman: Prof. Dr. Fatih Çetin

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Bu çalışmanın amacı içsel motivasyon ve işe tutulmanın rol içi ve rol dışı performansa olan etkisini incelemektir. Araştırmanın örneklemini Kosova Posta ve Telekom'un farklı birimlerinden 394 çalışandan oluşmaktadır. Araştırma değişkenleri arasındaki ilişkiler korelasyon ve hiyerarşik regresyon analizleriyle araştırılmıştır. Sonuçlar, içsel motivasyonun otonomi ve yetkinlik alt boyutlarının değil, yalnızca ilişkililik alt boyutunun rol içi performansla aynı yönlü ve anlamlı ilişkisinin olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. İçsel motivasyonla rol dışı performans ilişkisinde ise bulgular tüm içsel motivasyon alt boyutlarının (otonomi, yetkinlik ve ilişkililik) rol dışı performans ile aynı yönlü ve anlamlı ilişkilerini göstermiştir. İçsel motivasyon ile işe tutulma arasındaki etkilerde ise otonomi ve yetkinliğin işe tutulma alt boyutlarından dinç olma üzerinde aynı yönlü ve anlamlı etkilerinin olduğu, ancak ilişkililiğin anlamlı bir etkisinin olmadığı belirlenmiştir. Ayrıca sonuçlar tüm içsel motivasyon alt boyutlarının adanma ve kendini kaptırma alt boyutları üzerinde anlamlı ve aynı yönlü etkilerinin olduğunu göstermiştir. Tüm bunlara ilaveten, bulgular işe tutulmanın tüm alt boyutlarının (dinç olma, adanma ve kendini kaptırma) rol içi ve rol dışı performans üzerinde anlamlı ve aynı yönlü etkilerinin olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Sonuçta, içsel motivasyon, işe tutulma ve rol içi ve rol dışı performans arasında elde edilen ilişkiler tartışılmış, gelecek çalışmalara tavsiyeler sunulmuştur.

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Undertaking this PhD has been a long-lasting experience that required commitment, willingness, and patience to successfully overcome the difficulties and challenges that you encounter during this phase. Thereupon, this dissertation paper would have not been impossible without the guidance, help, advice and the suggestions of some individuals to whom I want to express my sincere and special gratitude.

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Nigde, January 2020

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INDEX OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

OCB: Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

SDT: Self-Determination Theory

CFA: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

TLI: Tucker Lewis Index

CFI: Comparative Fit Index

DF: Degree of Freedom

GFI: Goodness of Fit Index

NFI: Normed Fit Index

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, employee motivation is considered among the most important issues towards achieving organizational success. Meanwhile, as competition between organizations increases within a dynamic global environment, the maintenance of a motivated working work-force remains one of the main duties of human resources management. Motivation consists of two main components known as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is the inner and natural tendency of an individual to exercise the abilities and knowledge to achieve the potential and optimal challenges (Deci & Ryan, 1985). This motivation arises from inner tendencies that can orientate and motivate the behavior without the presence of limitations or rewards. Extrinsic motivation is one's motivation to do something, to be certain that some extrinsic purposes are achieved or some of the imposed extrinsic limits are accomplished (Hennessey & Amabile, 2005).

Another crucial concept related to motivation is employee' engagement in the workplace. Employee engagement is a relatively new concept and not that discussed and studied compared to employee motivation. Kahn (1990) used the term "employee engagement" to describe a psychological state of an employee, whilst he/she accomplishes the work obligation in the organization. Further, Kahn (1990) characterizes these three psychological conditions with physical aspects, cognition, and emotion. According to Kahn, these three levels are activated to enact a level of engagement.

This study examines the effect of motivation and employee engagement in work performance. When the employees are motivated and committed they are more likely to have better performance and to contribute to organizational targets. The first chapter of the research involves the problem, purpose, importance, contribution, limitations and study's suggestion. In the second chapter, the concepts of intrinsic motivation and its sub-dimensions: autonomy, competence, and relatedness are discussed. The third chapter focuses on presenting and discussing the issue of employee engagement in the workplace as well as engagement's sub-dimensions

(vigor, dedication, and absorption). Whereas the fourth chapter elaborates job performance; in-role and extra-role performance, specifically. Previous data related to the research variables are discussed in detail within the fifth chapter. The model and the methods of research for the variables that compose the research content are explained within the sixth chapter. The last part presents the findings that are elaborated within other research findings.

1.1. RESEARCH PROBLEM

Motivation has been elaborated as a theoretical concept and explained through several motivational theories. Numerous studies have assessed and evaluated employee motivation in various ways. Motivation is explained with the intensity, determination and continual employee's willingness to achieve personal and organizational purposes. The fact that an individual's personal goals are consistent with organizational goals is demonstrated by the accurate orientation of motivation.

On the other hand, the employee's engagement is a very important issue nowadays, an engaged employee at his/her job is the one who maximizes the job satisfaction and makes the maximum contribution to achieving the organization's objectives. The key components that are evaluated to measure the level of employee engagement at work are vigor, dedication, and absorption. When the employee possesses these three components in his workplace he is considered to be maximally engaged in his / her workplace.

Performance is the effort and behavior of the employee in line with organizational goals towards achieving personal goals. Measuring employee performance and their potential is important for the organization and human resources. For the organization, performance is an acceptable standard of achievement depending on one's competencies in line with business objectives. Based on these explanations, employee performance is one of the major issues that researchers focus on the management and organizational area, and this interest is becoming increasingly important. In particular, the growing competitive environment requires the identification of all factors that influence performance.

Job performance is of particular importance both in research and in organizations, especially nowadays that business development is taking place at a fast pace. Job performance is often conceived as a multidimensional construct, according to (Murphy & Shiarella, 1997; Sonnentag & Frese, 2002; Sonnentag, Volmer, & Spychala, 2008), whilst the most commonly recognized and examined dimensions of job performance are in -role and extra-role performance. The type of performance known as in-role performance is very essential for organizations as it gives an evaluation of how well employees perform the tasks assigned to them according to their job descriptions. As opposed to in-role performance, extra-role performance is known as a type of performance where employees exceed their job descriptions. This type of engagement is defined as "individual contributions at the workplace that transcend contractually rewarded tasks and achievements" (Organ & Ryan, 1995, p. 775).

Examples of such behaviors include the help and assistance people give when they cooperate with others, sometimes following inappropriate organizational procedures and rules and protecting organizational objectives (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Recent developments, with a focus on the field of psychology, accelerate in-role and extra-role performance research. This perspective focuses on enhancing people's development potential while investigating the personal potentials that performance evokes, in turn, aiming to discover the mechanisms that activate this potential.

Based on the so-far research conducted out nationally, no clear explanation has been given about the relationship of these variables, so this study focuses on the impact that intrinsic motivation and employee engagement have on job performance. This curiosity emerges as a research question on how intrinsic motivation and employee engagement will impact in-role and extra-role performance in Kosovo's context and culture.

1.2. PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

The main purpose of this study is to reveal the effect of intrinsic motivation and employee engagement on in-role and extra-role performance. Although the relationship between motivation and engagement on performance has been addressed

in several ways, this study addresses the sub-dimensions of intrinsic motivation and employee engagement on in-role and extra-role performance. Corresponding studies that investigate these sub-dimensions and variables could not be found among national and international literature.

Moreover, it is of special importance to investigate such a relationship between these variables in the context of Kosovo. Furthermore, based on the literature gap, this study's main research purpose is focused on the questions of how much intrinsic motivation and employee engagement impact job performance. To reveal this interrelation, the data were collected from the employees who work on different positions in the Post and Telecom of Kosovo.

1.3. THE IMPORTANCE OF RESEARCH

Motivation is the process that incites the behavior and it can't be measured directly or by observance. Usually, it can be used as a tool to predict individual behavior at the workplace and varies among individuals as it is combined with abilities and environmental factors and affects their performance. The motivation given at the workplace has crucial importance on employee engagement and performance and as it is the key to the institutions and organizations to understand this importance and create environments where the employees are motivated.

Nowadays, the ability to work individually as a team member with high creativity, initiative, responsible, capable and willing to deliver and adapt to the new ideas are the markets' needs. Motivation and performance are the variables that determine success in every activity and goal we set ourselves in different situations at work and in every life process.

Motivation and performance are two closely linked concepts. So far, many researchers have found out that people who are more motivated in the workplace exhibit better performance. If employees of institutions achieve sufficient motivation levels, their satisfaction will be higher, and this will also directly affect their performance at work. Being motivated means being influenced to deliver high performance. Motivation, engagement, performance and a strong relationship between them is the key to the high or low productivity of institutions or organizations and this

is evident in public companies, in cases where their basic needs are not met, starting from the basic ones up to the highest needs, employees show significantly lower productivity at work.

The importance of the concepts of motivation, engagement, and performance is noteworthy for the researchers as well as practitioners. Three dissertation papers that tackle the relationship between motivation and performance are found in the Albanian literature. However, they do not scrutinize the effect of employee engagement in performance. On the other hand, the role of intrinsic motivation and employee engagement in performance is an issue that hasn't been tackled in Kosovo. For this reason, this dissertation paper examines intrinsic motivation and employee engagement on in-role and extra-role performance and thus this examination will be of special importance towards filling this gap and contributing to the national and international field.

1.4.LIMITATIONS OF RESEARCH

The objectives and several limitations are presented below:

- The purpose of the research was to test the effect of intrinsic motivation and employee engagement in the Post and Telecom of Kosovo. The data were collected only from the two mentioned above enterprises. Even though the other public enterprises that were not involved in this study, comprise a different study sample related to the institutions' function, job-position, and institutional politics.
- The study didn't involve all employee positions such as the drivers and other employees working on the terrain.
- Although a detailed explanation was offered to the participants regarding how to fill the questionnaires, however, some of the questionnaires' alternatives were left empty. This has impinged collecting full information based on the fact that some of the employees involved as the study sample considered these questionnaires as a threat to their workplace.

1.5.GENERAL HYPOTHESES OF THE RESEARCH

The main hypothesis created in the research field are ranked below (the detailed sub-hypotheses are presented in the research part):

H1: Intrinsic motivation has a positive effect on in-role performance.

H2: Intrinsic motivation has a positive effect on extra-role performance.

H3: Intrinsic motivation has a positive effect on employee engagement.

H4: Employee engagement has a positive effect on in-role performance.

H5: Employee engagement has a positive effect on extra-role performance.

CHAPTER 2

INTRINSIC MOTIVATION

In this chapter, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and some other types of motivation are studied. Also, the self-determination theory which explains intrinsic motivation. This chapter also discusses the subdimensions, antecedents, and consequences of intrinsic motivation.

2.1. SELF DETERMINATION THEORY

Self Determination Theory (SDT) offers a large amount of empirical and theoretical evidence on human motivation drives. Based and created by Deci and Deci — with theoretical roots in Psychology — its framework represents a wide utilization and a theoretical extension among different scientific fields and life domains (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009, Edmunds, Ntoumanis, & Duda, 2006). Principally, SDT examines how the human behavior is driven from different biological, social and cultural components, that is to say, how these components come together in either elevating or diminishing human motivation towards personality growth. Adhering to the principles of Positive Psychology, SDT approaches human motivation from an organismic dialectical viewpoint, namely that people share innate basic needs toward growing but these inborn propensities coexist with external agents that sometimes impede, foster or comprise the social, cognitive or even the professional development.

Deci and Vansteenkiste (2004) describe human beings as inherently proactive, having inside them the potential to control inner and external factors rather than being controlled and directed by them. As described by Deci and Ryan (2017) Self Determination Theory ‘critically inquires these factors, both intrinsic to individual development and within social contexts, that facilitate vitality, motivation, social integration and well-being, alternatively, those that contribute to depletion, fragmentation, antisocial behaviors, and unhappiness’

As a psychological theory that aims to understand motivation and behavior drift, SDT tackles the psychological variables that operate in individuals and concomitantly investigates how behavioral outcomes are affected also by external influences (Ryan & Deci 2017). A large amount of studies within this macro theory

of motivation, provide scientific point view into the depths of psychological and personal growth and give answers to mechanisms and factors that lay under human behavior (Olafsen, 2016) as well as emphasize how the deprivation of basic psychological needs will manifest into psychopathology and stagnation (Ryan, Deci, & Vansteenkiste, 2016).

Hence, SDT has human needs on its focus as there are psychological needs that need to be satisfied to maintain well being. Therefore, as a reformulated theory, SDT is an empirically based psychological theory and a consilient field that expands and comprises on other disciplines such as philosophical theories, comparative biology, psychophysiology and evolutionary perspectives among others (Ryan & Deci, 2002). SDT theoretical roots commence from Humanistic Approach of Goldstein, and Positive Psychology (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000, Rogers, 1963) and behaviorist perspectives of Skinner's behaviorism theory and Hull's drive theory. Many viewpoints that SDT shares, such as self-growth or well-being lay account on former classical disciplines and Psychology. However, by exceeding the simple hypothesis and by also bringing into picture the negative factors that might slow down or diminish human growth and fulfillment, SDT goes beyond classical principles because it provides a dialectical approach by addressing the multiple negative components that operate in thwarting individual's motivation towards personal functioning (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

Its conceptual foundation emerges from the basic idea that humans share a natural tendency towards growth and self-actualization by bringing at play three core organismic principles that need to be satisfied: autonomy, competence and relatedness. Building on Deci and Ryan (2002), explicates the universality of SDT framework around many different contexts: "A central concern in SDT is, therefore, how these universal features of our human nature, specifically our basic needs, are differentially expressed and satisfied across cultures, impacting both individual and social wellness and integrity." (Ryan & Deci, 2002: 51).

Another essential part of SDT theory is its focus in interpersonal situations that support or oppose one's motivation. SDT closely investigates proximal social contexts - parent and child relationship, classroom and workplace settings (Ryan & Deci, 2011) and brings into view the many factors that shape and impact motivation

and human behavior. Moreover, it searches through cultural, political, and economic conditions as they affect basic human need satisfactions and the developmental and social assets they foster. Over the years, SDT has used experimental and field observations to understand the required conditions between need satisfaction and optimal functioning (Garcia, Leo, Gonzales-Poenca, Sanchez-Miguel & Mouratidis, 2014; Gillet, Lafrenière, Huyghebaert & Fouquereau, 2015). A large body of literature on motivation at work (Lian, Ferris & Brown, 2012) have pointed that effective performance and satisfaction at the workplace are directly interrelated with motivation motives.

On the studies conducted by the authors Deci and Ryan, SDT is represented as a significant theory regarding the human motivation that has an extensively positive impact in many areas of human interaction and activities e.g., family, health, education, virtual worlds and even in the realm of work and management. This theory notes that an employee's well being is highly affected by the level and type of motivations. Furthermore, the theory emphasizes different kinds of motivations which have a different effect in terms of their function. As a macro theory of motivation which is further distinguished in six other theories, SDT elaborates various aspects that are drivers of human motivation. It is noteworthy that five out of these theories, which will be also elaborated further in this article, are closely related to the currencies and the climate in the workplace environment. (Deci & Ryan 1985, Ryan & Deci 2017).

2.2. INTRINSIC MOTIVATION

One of the classic definitions from Deci (1975) defines intrinsic motivation as a spontaneous activity that is carried out for inner satisfaction rather than external factors or separable rewards - a person who engages in a task for inherent satisfaction is said to be intrinsically motivated.

Classical studies have demonstrated that from birth and onward, human beings show innate organismic capacities to learn and create (Greenspan, 1979) by being innately interested and moved by the task (Piaget, 1971). Accordingly, (Pinder, 2011) describes that intrinsically motivated behavior is carried out for its sake and has enough reason to be a persistent behavior. Seminal authors who have developed and

expanded the research on intrinsic motivation topics are Deci and Ryan. However, the roots of treating the topic, date from early animal life observation. With his early experiments with animals, Groos (1899) presented the idea that animals play and explore their environment exclusively due to inherent pleasures. Along, Woodworth (1958) in his book 'Dynamics of Behavior' exploring with his behavior-primacy theory, pointed out several similar ideas that activities are done because they are inherently rewarding. White (1959) acknowledged that principally, organisms get engaged in different playful and exploratory experiences without aiming at external rewards. Later on, behavioral and operant theories drifted the focus on explaining all behaviors in terms of reinforcement and external compensations. The research on intrinsic motivation is directly interrelated with two Psychology perspectives: that of the Psychoanalytic approach (Freud, 1917) and Behavioral theory (Hull, 1943) that share the same underlying idea that behavior is performed in order to reduce inner tension. However, with the advent of later theories, these assumptions were put down as inadequate. A vast of studies within experimental research demonstrated these assumptions to be empirically different. Reinforcement studies revealed that most animals were exploring their surroundings to manipulate objects and find farther stimulation and not to reduce inner tension (Berlyne, 1966).

Across recent research, Flavell, Miller & Miller (2002) examined past studies and examples of the seminal works of Piaget on how children are interested to learn and manipulate their environment utterly due to finding it interesting. Moreover, since these external stimuli are not easily deciphered from kids themselves, they have a sheer curiosity to explore and give meaning to their acts, therefore be motivated to continue playing until they somehow make their experiences meaningful.

Another interesting exploration concerning intrinsic motivation is the relation between the activity and the person himself. Several authors have defined intrinsic motivation in the sense that a task can be interesting while the other terminology is presented based on the satisfaction the task engagement and involvement causes in the person (Baard, Deci & Ryan, 2004).

Intrinsic motivation has dwelled amid many concepts attempting to define it. A large body of research has defined or conceptualized intrinsic motivation in different ways, albeit, among classic literature, there are two measures that have been

mostly used. Deci's studies (1971) highlight classical investigations of intrinsic motivations based on behavioral measures that were referred to as "free choice" measures. In line with these experiments, the participants were exposed to a task, followed then by external conditions and various distractions in order to see the persistence of their behavior. Thereon, the experimenter explained to participants to not continue on the task any further and leaves them alone in the experimental room. Following this activity, they were offered then some time for a 'free choice' moment, namely, whether they wanted to continue doing the task or not. According to the results, the more time they spent with the given task, the more they got intrinsically motivated and engaged, therefore, their behavioral persistence increased. Different scientific investigations and experimental studies usually measure the nature of the behavior by using specific target tasks (e.g. Ryan, 1982; Harackiewicz, 1979). Intrinsic motivation can also be read as a volitional activity that is pervasive in human beings' nature and signifies an important cognitive, physical and social component for one's well-being.

Drawing upon the seminal studies of Deci and Ryan - conjointly with other approaches of self-reports of interest and the enjoyment of the activities from participants - the research for intrinsic motivation has been widely extended.

2.3. COGNITIVE EVALUATION THEORY (CET)

Natural growth based on organismic principles is a central theme of SDT, therefore, the Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET) is the first developed mini-theory of SDT. CET emerged during the 70s and 80s and was developed to organize and consolidate the results of the research on how the environment affects intrinsic motivation. Its main tenets explain the factors that diminish or facilitate intrinsic motivation, especially dealing with the ways rewards, evaluations and external responses impact innate tendencies - later named as intrinsic motivation.

CET helped generate interpretations about intrinsic motivation driven by conducting research mainly in laboratory experiments. The assumption of SDT is that intrinsic motivation is an innate inclination that has evolved. The main factors that cause intrinsic motivation have been developed and selected by humans throughout their evolution. Nevertheless, the assumption is that these intrinsic motivation drives

are boosted by specific social events and contexts. Hence, CET deals with the events and effects that cause the intrinsic motivation to enhance or diminish.

CET was first presented during the '70s (Deci, 1975) and was further elaborated in the early '80s (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 1980a; Ryan, 1982; Ryan, Mims, & Koestner, 1983). As a theory, it has ever since set the ground for highly accurate empirical research. CET examines both the psychology behind how social context affects the outcomes of intrinsic motivation and the personality traits of humans that associate with these motivators. Furthermore, CET elaborates on the effects of processes that cause the intrinsic motivator to enhance and the ones that diminish it. It argues that perceiving autonomy and competence is fundamental to the enhancement of intrinsic motivators. Intrinsic motivation cause the perception of belonging and connection and they play a key role for a human to be able to create social interactions easier.

In 1971 Deci conducted research where he created to groups who were going to work with a puzzle. One of the groups was notified that they will receive a reward of \$1 for each puzzle solved, whereas the other group was just told to solve the puzzle without any reward for their work. The experiment results were surprising for many behaviorists who didn't expect that the group who wasn't receiving any rewards performed better and showed higher intrinsic motivation for solving the puzzle. Deci (1971) made another field experiment with a college newspaper office where the writers were periodically paid for writing headlines and he reported how the intrinsic motivation diminished after the withdrawal of the reward contingency. Contrary to previous experiments where participants were rewarded after they successfully completed a task, Deci (1972) experimented also with cases when the participants were rewarded without being asked to complete a task or do an activity but only for showing up. This experiment proved that monetary reward doesn't always decrease the intrinsic motivators, instead the effect of the reward was closely related to the way there were administered and experienced, as CET (Deci & Ryan, 1980) ultimately postulated.

In the experiment conducted by Lepper, Greene, and Nisbett (1973), one of the groups was rewarded after they completed the task they had been given without being promised any reward. As a result, the intrinsic motivation of the participants

wasn't undermined by the rewards they didn't expect to get. To support this experiment further, a study by Ross (1975) showed that as long as the reward is not emphasized, it does not affect diminishing the intrinsic motivation. He created two groups of children and used marshmallows as a reward. However, only one group was aware of the marshmallows and they put the marshmallows out of sight for the other group. The intrinsic motivation was decreased only for children who knew about the reward. The experiment reinforced the supposition that for a reward to have a negative effect it had to be announced before asking for a task to be finished.

The assumption of SDT is not that social-contextual events "cause" intrinsic motivation — on the contrary, intrinsic motivation is understood as an evolved and inherent human propensity. The ultimate causes of intrinsic motivation, that is, lie in the selective advantages this propensity yielded in human prehistory. Yet we began with the belief that this inherent propensity could either be enhanced or diminished by social-contextual factors. Accordingly, CET focuses upon the proximal conditions that facilitate, maintain, and enhance intrinsic motivation alternatively, diminish and undermine it. CET was introduced in the 1970s (Deci, 1975) and refined during the early 1980s (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 1980; Ryan, 1982; Ryan, Mims, & Koestner, 1983), and yet its core elements have remained largely intact and empirically well supported since that time.

CET represents both social psychology of intrinsic motivation (as it specifies how social inputs and contexts affect intrinsic motivation and the processes and outcomes associated with it) and a personality perspective, in that it specifies a core aspect of human nature and its unfolding. In its most general form, CET argues that events that negatively affect a person's experience of autonomy or competence will diminish intrinsic motivation, whereas events that support perceptions of autonomy and competence will enhance intrinsic motivation. The theory further argues that both competence and autonomy satisfaction is necessary to sustain intrinsic motivation because intrinsic motivation is most robust in a context of relational security and can be enhanced by a sense of belonging and connection, CET suggests that relatedness also plays a role in conducting intrinsic motivation's occurrence, especially for activities that have a social element.

2.4. EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION - ORGANISMIC INTEGRATION THEORY (OIT)

Extrinsic motivation involves all human behaviors that aim at desired outcomes. A behavior that is extrinsically motivated expresses a performance or activity that is done in order to achieve extrinsic outcomes. Although Gerhart and Fang (2015) claimed that SDT presented extrinsic motivation as something bad for human activities, representative studies within SDT have pointed out that forms of instrumentality can bring functional regulation that sometimes deflates, enhance or does not affect intrinsic motivation at all (e.g., Deci 1972). As described above, intrinsic motivation is a construct that describes behaviors that are carried for the pleasure of the activity itself, thus, extrinsic motivation contrasts intrinsic motivation for putting meaning in external factors - instrumental value (Vroom, 1964).

Almost every activity that needs engagement is not an interesting activity that can be carried only and due to the behavior itself. Therefore, a central concern on the motivational dynamics in the workplace is to bridge the gaps between motivation and the lack thereof. In SDT terms: how to regulate behaviors as far as they become activities that derive from the sense of having internalized and integrated these values, and the behavior carried out is done without external pressure and has a sense of self-regulation (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

SDT proposes that the degree of autonomy of an extrinsically motivated behavior can vary to a large extent. Many other different frames of research (Deci & Ryan 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000) view extrinsically motivated activities as unvaryingly not autonomous. When presenting examples, SDT uses classroom settings to answer how extrinsic motivation of intentional behaviors might vary on autonomy component and activities that contain external control: if a student does his homework due to the fear of parental punishments, he is engaging in the activity to avoid the punishment. In the same way, a student who listens and does the homework because of extrinsic rewards, such as a gift (or other instrumental values), is extrinsically motivated to do so rather than being innately interested.

Several activities, whether social or interpersonal, cannot always be interesting and intrinsically motivated since we live in contexts that demand from us to adapt to

norms and other social practices. Organismic Integration Theory - another sub theory of SDT - answers to motives that make people engage in behaviors or activities that are not enjoyable on their own. OIT presents the different ways of assimilating extrinsically motivated behaviors, that is, integrating social regulations and as described by Deci and Ryan this theory examines how social factors and interpersonal circumstances promote or hamper the processes of internalization and integration towards regulating these behaviors (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

As acknowledged by many authors (Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Deci, 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2000) the process of internalization is described as appropriating a belief, attitude or a regulation whereas integration embodies a transformation of regulation to that point that it emanates from the sense we have for our self. The process of internalization is understood as the assimilation and integration of social components with the existent innate values within the individual. OIT distinguishes four regulatory mechanisms of making extrinsically motivated behaviors as our own. Each one of them presents ways how individuals internalize values and just as CET, it specifies internal perceived locus of causality - some of these processes are perceived as autonomous whereas others as controlled.

According to Ryan and Deci, external regulation presents the most studied concept of extrinsically motivated regulation and it implies behavior that is regulated based and controlled by rewards or punishments. By controlling the behavior by external factors people behave in certain ways towards desired outcomes such as rewards or avoiding sanctions or punishments. Classical studies of operant theory (B. F. Skinner, 1953) only accept this kind of regulation although later studies showed that this type undermines intrinsic motivation (Howard, Gagné, Morin & Broeck, 2016). Moreover, externally regulated behaviors imply poor perseverance and persistence and are supposed to be contingency dependent (Deci & Ryan, 1985). An example of this kind of regulation is an employee who plays video games in the working place and is threatened by his/her managers to be punished if he/she will be caught. Even though the employee might play at times, he/she will not engage in such activity with the fear of being caught. In cases of managerial constant control, the employee will show ongoing restraint from the activity.

Another type of extrinsic motivation is presented as an introjected regulation containing a kind of internal regulation that comes as a feeling that needs to be avoided in order to not feel guilty or anxious. Introjection is primarily based on self-esteem contingencies and has affective results such as worth, guiltiness or shame - all interconnected with projection (Ryan & Deci, 2017). When individuals regulate through introjection, they seek approval for their behavior using mechanisms that sometimes are not true but perceived. Situational components can facilitate this process, notably, factors that increase the involvement of ego, make the person more conscious and offer some critical self-evaluation (Nicholls, 1984; Ryan, 1982). The above-mentioned example of the employee who now has introjected the behavior to not play video games, might continue to show resistance in order to not feel ashamed or self-critical and also gets positive managerial feedback.

Another form of extrinsic motivation that falls somewhere between taking into account all forms of extrinsic motivation is regulation that comes through identification. In this type, an individual has accepted the importance the behavior conveys, therefore, as a consequence has accepted this regulation as her/his own. The employee now has grasped the meaning of not playing video games in the working place - whether or not he/she is being controlled by the boss - and sees it as a value for her/himself. Regulation that happens through identification is more volitional than external or introjected regulation for individuals are perceiving and giving meaning to the importance that this value they are internalizing entails for them.

Finally, integrated regulation or integration is the base of the most autonomous extrinsic motivation. To achieve integration means to fully introject and assimilate regulations to the sense of self (Vansteenkiste & Lens & Deci, 2006) by bringing congruent new behaviors to the current values and beliefs. The more one modifies and internalizes an activity to the sense of the self, the more that extrinsically motivated behavior transforms in a self-determined behavior.

Nevertheless the uncountable examples of how one is motivated, sometimes an individual might not find an activity interesting or be intrinsically or externally motivated. The state of not having or showing intentions to act or engage in performance is known as amotivation. According to Ryan's description (1995), a person who feels amotivated does not value an activity and neither does he feel

competent to do so or that it will complete with a positive result. Therefore, an amotivated behavior involves a kind of non-intentionality that both includes perceived incapability towards a positive outcome and a lack of interest to act.

The figure below shows the classification of motivation within OIT. As seen from the illustration, part of the OIT examination of motivation also includes amotivation. Bandura (1986) who explained motivation as a unitary term, described only the distinction of motivation and amotivation. The least autonomous kind of extrinsic motivation is the category of external regulation that refers to behaviors that are carried in order to receive external rewards and these controlled behaviors have an external perceived locus of causality (EPLOC; deCharms, 1968). Another important distinction between motivation and SDT is that of autonomous motivation and controlled motivation.

The first one involved the elaborated concept of intrinsic motivation, a type of extrinsic motivation which is internalized. Being autonomously motivated underpins the motivated behaviors that result from one's interest in the activity itself (if an employee stays at the workplace in longer hours to finish a task) because he is already regulated and has self-integrated the activity. The former one, involves external regulation that comes from being determined and managed by external factors.

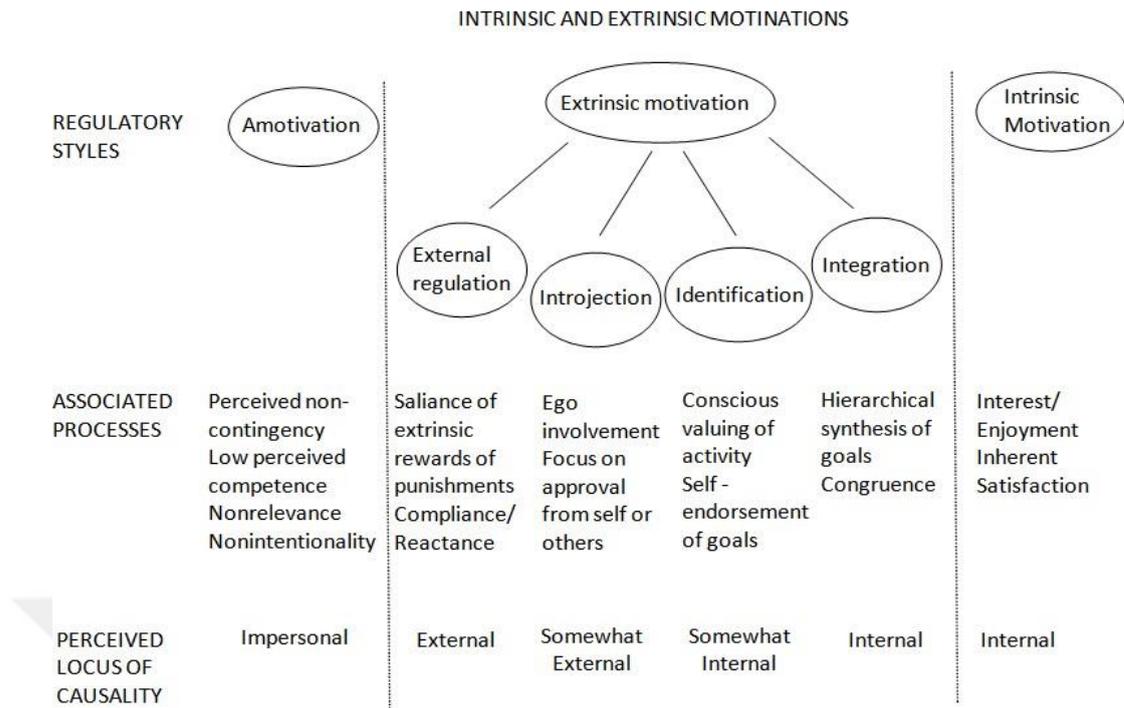


Figure 1. The distinction of different kinds of motivation First, amotivation which is a complete lack of needing to act. Second, extrinsic motivation and its subdivisions and the right part of the figure which represents the invariant acts of the human being (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

2.5. BASIC PSYCHOLOGICAL NEEDS

There are three basic psychological needs such as autonomy, competence, and relatedness that must be satisfied for employees in order to be intrinsically motivated.

2.5.1. The concept of Needs

The model of the Self Determination Theory describes what optimal human functioning requires and also what it means to be optimally optimized. SDT unfolds its hypothesis on three main components also known as basic psychological needs that need to be supported in order to ensure human prosperity. Accordingly, if any of these needs - autonomy, competence, and relatedness - is not satisfied or complemented so will the well-being, integration, and satisfaction of that person be. Therefore, as a theory of human development, SDT defines and elaborated the concept of needs

differently from previous traditions. By seeing needs as universal and essential requirements for one to be integrated and to function well, it brought into light a way of presenting needs as demand that must be satisfied and its neglect manifests itself with psychopathological consequences.

On the traditional research of motivation, we spot two streams of thoughts that employed and explained the concept of needs - a concept that later turned to be the main principle upon which many theories were constructed. Within the field of experimental psychology, Hull (1943) proposed the triangle of understanding the behavior by relating it to the basic needs of the organism and the external factor and environment's conditions linked to them. His basic idea was that humans have a set of physiological needs that are innate, such as the need for food, based on the deficits of non-nervous-system tissue. Accordingly, these needs make the organism active towards action and drive it to satisfy these needs in order to remain healthy. These "drives" are key factors toward healthy and normal psychological functioning, therefore they need to be met in order to avoid their reduction which disrupts the optimal and systematic functioning of the individual (Hull, 1943; Spence, 1956).

The main critique addressed to drive theory was the lack of meaningful account for some sets of behaviors such as curiosity or other playful activities that do not request or have any link with drive reduction. These attempts for suchlike supposition generated the concept of intrinsic motivation and the basic psychological needs (White, 1959).

Murray's work (1938) extended the domain of explaining human needs by presenting them at a psychological level and not a physiological one. In defining needs, Murray comprises almost everything that moves human beings to action but is not necessarily defined as a need, even though they move one towards accomplishing goals and ambitions (eg. desires, greed). According to his broad definition, needs are primarily acquired and not innate:

"A need is a construct (a convenient fiction or hypothetical concept) that stands for a force (the physio-chemical nature of which is unknown) in the brain region, a force that organizes perception, apperception, intellection, conation, and action in such a way as to transform in a certain direction an existing, unsatisfying situation" (pp. 123–124).

As noted, Hull and Murray's definitions differ in need's conceptualization. Hullian approach sees needs as inborn, whereas Murray's addresses the needs as acquired. If we compare SDT perspective accordingly to both traditions, we see that the framework of SDT assembles something from both concepts - with psychological needs that comply with Murray (1938) and seeing basic psychological needs as innate (Hull, 1943).

When defining "needs" we also need to take an account White (1959) who avoided the usual need definition and specified it in a contra light with drive theories. He presented the idea that behaviors that promote competence fulfill intrinsic drives to deal with the environment. His perspective laid the ground for further scientific investigation on human needs (Deci, 1975; Ryan, 1995; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

2.5.2. The Nature of Needs in SDT

Self-determination theory specifies basic psychological needs to be crucial for human development and wellness (Ryan & Deci, 2017). In elaborating three basic needs of competence, autonomy, and relatedness, they elucidate it as an empirically based and organismic-dialectical theory that contrasts the previous Murray and Hullian tradition - that despite nebulous framework for the present research - provide a useful metatheoretical ground to compare the concepts with. Within Hullian interpretation, the common link lays at needs being described as innate, whilst at Murray approach that defines needs as something not inherent within human nature, SDT resembles describing needs as psychological and not physiological propensities. As mentioned by several studies (Baard, Deci & Ryan, 2004; Grolnick, Gurland, DeCoursey & Jacob, 2002) the three identified basic needs are crucial to human integrity and can be explained in functional terms and organismic perspective (Deci & Ryan, 2001; Deci & Ryan, 2000).

In the case of comparing three basic needs of well-being (from SDT framework) with these of Murray tradition, SDT asserts that there can be many instances when human beings achieve personal and psychological integrity without fulfilling the needs for power or greediness. On the contrary, there are numerous studies (Edmunds, Ntoumanis & Duda, 2006; Lian, Ferris & Brown, 2012; Greguras & Diefendorff, 2010) that show that a healthy personal and social development seeks

three needs, that of autonomy, competence, and feeling related to others. Simply put, all of the three needs are required (without excluding even one) to attain psychological satisfaction. Further, it supposes that human beings will be actualized when the proper sustenance is met and will have unhealthy outcomes under conditions that do not support and thwart human growth.

At the functional level, SDT notes that the optimal development of a person happens under conditions that enable need fulfillment, and expects that human beings will experience unhealthy states when under conditions that diminish or inhibit psychological satisfaction. The line that marks the difference with traditional ways of defining needs and SDT framework, is the organismic paradigm that built upon the integrative and coordinative aspects of one's wellbeing.

2.5.3. Autonomy

As elaborated above, basic psychological needs must be satisfied in order for one to be and feel content. The basic needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness, mentioned in SDT are believed to be objective on their own in the sense that their fulfillment or deprivation has and effects on one's growth and wellness. Whether these needs will be deprived or satisfied will lead to visible decrements in their development, irrespective of the culture and people's beliefs (Chen, Vansteenkiste, et al., 2015). Thus, according to Deci and Ryan's investigations, these needs apply in different cultures and around all workplace environments.

The first of the basic needs triplet described within STD is autonomy, described as the need to regulate and endorse the actions and the values of one's work, even if the task might be given by others. As a way of functioning, it is interrelated with feelings of congruence, integration, and volition (Ryan, 1993; Shapiro, 1981). Autonomy refers to the harmony between one person's behavior and its willingness to carry it out (Ryan & Connell, 1989). However, the concept of autonomy should not be confused with the term of heteronomy which is the opposite. Autonomy doesn't underpin independence or independent behaviors which can be understood either as autonomously or heteronomously driven (Chirkov, & Kim, 2005; Ryan & Lynch, 1989). When one acts with an autonomous sense, one gets involved in an activity unconditionally and that behavior is self-endorsed, compatible and harmonious with

one's interests. Meanwhile, one experiences incongruous and inconsistent feelings when one does what conflicts one's voluntariness.

2.5.4. Competence

The second basic need within SDT is competence - a very researched concept also within psychology (Bandura, 1989; White, 1959). The concept of competence alludes to the sense of feeling effective and a master of one activity, profession or career within a context. A person who feels competent is referred to as being effective among social contexts, expresses his/her ideas and talents (Deci & Moller, 2005; Ryan & Moller, 2016). From simple and everyday activities to complex tasks people need to feel competent in order to be successful and grow (Deci & Moller, 2005). However, if individuals are prohibited to extend their skills and develop their mastery, the competence will deplete: contexts that thwart it by constant negative comments and feedback, comparisons, and destructive criticism. Another basic psychological need - present in human beings from early childhood - is the necessity to belong and share importance to other people around. On the contrary, when people feel isolated and invaluable to others and this need is left unmet it causes serious psychological impoverishment (Deci & Ryan, 2017).

2.5.5. Relatedness

Relatedness is almost synonymously linked to the feeling of belonging and being significant for the other person, approval, acceptance within the dynamics of relationship (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). A vast of studies have been long concerned with the relationships, relatedness and human connection (Bowlby, 1979, Deci & Ryan, 2000, Weinstein & Ryan, 2010) and the reciprocity in caring for each other (Deci, La Guardia, Moller, Scheiner, & Ryan, 2006). Thus, similarly to feeling related to others is the feeling of being responsive to the other one (Deci & Ryan, 2014) and being an important member of the group by contributing and delivering the appointed tasks.

Numerous studies (Mayr, 1982; Olafsen, 2016; Koestner, Ryan, Bernieri & Holt, 1984) showed scientific evidence that these three basic needs are crucial and

strongly linked not only for optimal functioning but for the whole individual well-being. Moreover, at whatever time, any of the above mentioned needs are not met or thwarted, individuals will react on non-healthy ways and fall in psychopathological disorders or behaviors (Cicchetti & Toth, 2009). Therefore, a supportive and positive environment in the workplace is required in order for the employees to feel competent, autonomous and related to others. Need satisfaction is crucial to positive personal outcomes as it also relates to a wide range of results that are valued by the workplace and institutions.

So not unexpectedly, when the employees feel that the organization they work for facilitates towards their need satisfaction, the benefits will be dual and the workers will feel more competent have more space to be creative and perform extra-role tasks (Guntert, 2015), enlarge their commitment (Collie, Shapka, Perry, & Martin, 2016) and have a more positive attitude for their work (Spehar, Forest, & Stenseng, 2016; Vallerand, 2015). To conclude, need satisfaction and support will show positive and useful benefits for the employees, the employer, and the organization's general outcomes.

Supporting the needs of the employees not only affects their well-being and their motivational dynamics but also enhances organization' benefits. One of the most influential work related components is the employees' perception of their manager. SDT provides a framework that supports basic needs fulfillment and also provides scientific guidance on how to support and sustain basic needs that not only optimize motivation but also develop it further (Rigby & Ryan, 2018). Recent research on motivational dynamics within the working place shows that professional training focusing on fostering the basic needs not only improves motivation but also contributes to further engagement of the employees (Loew & O'Leonard, 2012; Ryan & Deci, 2017).

2.6. MANAGERIAL SUPPORT FOR BASIC NEEDS

Earlier studies on self-regulation (Nix, Ryan, Manly & Deci, 1999) proved that if managers were directed towards creating autonomy-supportive conditions, their employees were more likely to report satisfaction and an overall trust within the organization. Directing managers are a key factor that either facilitates or thwarts

basic needs. Subsequently, they affect their performance and influence higher motivated behavior and engagement. As reported by (Baard et al., 2004) if employees perceive their managers to enhance their basic needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness, their involvement and their contribution to the workplace will increase. When explaining managerial support for basic needs, we adhere to evidence-based studies that show that managers who are trained in enhancing basic employee needs in the workplace, result to develop higher levels of engagement rather than in the groups where managers were not trained in need support skills (Hardré & Reeve, 2009). Additionally, the research has shown that a high amount of managerial support also impacts a higher level of organization profitability (Fleming, Coffman, & Harter, 2005) as well as higher and significant client satisfaction (Preenen, Oeij, Dhondt, Kraan, & Jansen, 2016).

Consequently, the organization's focus on need support offers a way of improving employee engagement and shows that autonomy-supportive contexts help the employee towards being self-motivated. Research on managerial support also has shown that influences of supportive environments represent crucial factors in promoting and facilitating motivation of the employees (Olafsen, Halvari, Forest & Deci, 2015) and is also connected with self-regulation, psychological well being and other work-related operations; (Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, Soenens, & Lens, 2010) is associated with lower anxiety levels (Senécal, Vallerand, & Guay, 2001) and affects one's self-esteem (Baard et al., 2004).

Another study with 287 participants from Norway, showed that employees' perception of managerial support and social-contextual factors impact employees' performance and other job characteristics (Williams, Halvari, Niemiec, Sørebo & Westbye, 2014). Subsequent examples that have supported this model of SDT, have yielded the importance of a positive climate and how it predicts employees' satisfaction (Deci, Ryan, Gagné, Leone, Usunov, Kornazheva, 2001).

In consonance with the SDT approach, the previously mentioned experiments show the importance of need-supportive environments and the multiple ways how organismic healthiness and the process of internalization are easily facilitated and enhanced when the conditions for basic need satisfaction are met.

2.7. ANTECEDENTS OF SDT

Although the research on employees' motivation profiles and its determinants is noted to be of a small amount, the existent research has evidenced that employees that show more autonomous motivated profiles were envisaged by a substantial fulfillment of three basic psychological needs of competence, autonomy, and relatedness and as well as maintained higher positions within organization's hierarchy (Graves et al, 2015). These findings correspond with the SDT, which translated in workplace terms, suggests that the environment and work factors that support the satisfaction of three basic needs are crucial to the well being of the employees (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and that a well-defined job structure, organization, and other positive work-related characteristics, indeed impact and are associated with autonomous motivation (Gillet, Gagne, Sauvagere, Fouquereau, 2013).

Accordingly, the SDT framework has provided a framework that explains how the fulfillment of the basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness is crucial for the occurrence of these favorable outcomes. Specifically, as the theory elaborates, individuals who engage in work-tasks that they find important influences the occurrence of introjected motivation and external motivation as well as impacts their feelings of relatedness and competence (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Job autonomy of the employees was found to be positively related to commitment and other organizational results and also work engagement. The shown autonomy at the workplace provides employees certain freedom to perform accordingly to their own arrangements and decisions as well as design their own assignments and improve their skills-whether personal or professional (Balkar, 2015).

Other cases related to studies that show antecedents of the SDT show that individual differences predict work-related behaviors (Deci and Ryan 2000; Gagné and Deci 2005). An example of employees' needs for autonomy at the workplace, found relevance to individual differences that are linked with how they perceive the effectiveness of time and how they manage to work effectively (Van Yperen et al. 2014). Job stressors and job demands also yield evidence regarding the fulfillment of the employees' needs. Bakker, Demerouti, and Euwema (2005) examined how various demands on the work-place impact on the sprout of employee' burnout. Over

1000 teachers that were involved in the study reported that the lack of job resources - such as social support, autonomy, and professional feedback - induced burnout.

On broad terms, education also is a predictor of how much employees will be engaged and meet well-being. Moreover, education also affects performance and has a positive relationship with task performance. Further, the cognitive capacity facilitated the process of understanding the knowledge pertaining to a specific task (Hunter, 1986).

2.8. CONSEQUENCES (OUTCOMES OF SDT)

According to studies of Gagne and Deci (2005), in-role and extra-role performance vary and are impacted by motivational profiles. Within the work domain research, there has been a blurry line on understanding controlled motivation affect employees' performance. Moreover, authors such as (Howard et al, 2016) addressed the importance these forms of motivation have in promoting positive workplace results. Other studies drawing on Self-determination theory, showed that high autonomously motivated profiles tend to produce better personal results on their prosperity (Van den Broeck et al, 2008) and better performance (Hayenga & Corpus, 2010). To conclude, the limited studies demonstrate that autonomous factors are more influential than external factors in regulating employees' behavior. Therefore, the organizations should focus on promoting self-driven profiles rather than boost employees with external incentives (Gerhart and Fang 2015).

The studies that present the consequences of fulfilling the SDT factors and its main basic needs show that satisfying autonomy, competence, and relatedness orients employees to feel less exhausted (Van den Broeck et al. 2008). Gillet, Fouquereau, Forest, Brunault, and Colombat (2012) examined the satisfaction and the frustration of the three main psychological needs on organizational employees. The study showed that the fulfillment of three needs (autonomy, competence, and relatedness) generated better prosperity as well as feelings of eudaimonia and a sense of hedonic well-being. On the contrary, the frustration of these needs provided the employees with a lower degree of prosperity.

In their research on workaholism, Andreassen et al. (2010) found that satisfaction of employees' basic psychological needs on the job led to greater enjoyment of their work and to their being less driven—that is, less compelled—by internal and external controls. One of the relatively few workplace studies that examined both basic need satisfaction and autonomous motivation indicated that, as predicted by the SDT, employees who felt greater need satisfaction on the job also displayed greater autonomous motivation and effort expenditures (De Cooman, Stynen, Van Den Broeck, Sels, & De Witte, 2013).



CHAPTER 3

ENGAGEMENT

In this chapter, the concept of Employee engagement by different authors has been explained, furthermore, the various theories of engagement have also been explained. This chapter also discusses the sub-dimensions, antecedents as well as consequences of engagement.

3.1. EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

Self Determination Theory-based research has shown that employees who manage to be more involved with the tasks they carry out, also tend to experience a wider amount of psychological and physical welfare. Conversely, individuals who are not engaged and show a lack of motivation will show lesser signs of well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Concerning workplace engagement, researchers and academics from Gallup Company spent over 30 years conceiving and measuring engagement (Harter & Schmidt, 2000).

The research was based on quantitative and qualitative analysis and after then the studies on employee engagement have been extensively growing and cited among academia (Goodard, 1999; Blyton & Turnbull, 2004; Emmot, 2006) helping the organizations towards understanding the complexity of the phenomena and improving it. Nowadays, the concept of employee engagement is largely utilized among organizational, behavioral and other related disciplines (Sonnetag, 2003; Wilson, 2004) and has gained much importance in the recent years within the fields of management of human resources (Gubman, 2004), communication (McDonalds, 2002; Shaw, 2005), policymaker strategies (Lockwood, 2007) and business (Attridge, 2009), among others. The section below discusses the definition, theories, sub-dimensions and continues with the antecedents and outcomes of employee engagement.

Employee engagement term was primarily coined by the renowned professor William Kahn in 1990. Henceforth, its usage is broader practically and theoretically. Generally, the term refers to the involvement and passion employees' show in

achieving organizational aims and targets. Moreover, it is a powerful predicative whether the individual performance will reach positive outcomes (Markos & Sridevi, 2010) and individual results as loyalty, productivity and other results on employee performance will thrive. The seminal paper of Kahn (1990) accentuated the lack of attention from researchers on finding out how people tend to occupy certain roles and the ways employees are present during their role performance. According to Kahn (1990), people engage to varying degrees in their roles whether psychologically, cognitively, or physically. These three components of affective, cognitive and behavioral aspects employees display on their engagement, surges up their morale in being fully motivated in engaging themselves towards their job-concomitantly, leading to higher productivity and intended organizational product.

The affective component regards the employee' feelings and attitudes towards the workplace, organization, and leaders. The cognitive component involves beliefs workers share for each other, their supervisors and the physical and psychological conditions at work while the physical aspect concerns the used energy to perform and achieve their targeted aims within their roles.

The three-sub dimensional term of Kahn's employee engagement was later on defined as the passion an individual has for his/her job (Truss, Soane, Edwards, Wisdom, Croll, & Burnett, 2006). Kahn adhered his large work on engagement, based on the previous concepts of Goffman (1991) according to who people are attached or detached with their roles in varying ways. Kahn proposed that there needed to be a holistic concept so it could explain the complexity of individual and work purposes. To elaborate on the concept, he developed his terminology revising previous studies from sociologists (Merton 1997), psychologists (Freud, 1922) and motivation theories (Maslow 1954) in order to present the ways how individuals engage with their group members. When introducing the concept of employee engagement, Kahn (1990) was interested in scrutinizing how much employees involve themselves in their work-role performance. His most quoted definition "the harnessing of organization members" (p, 694) evinces the multi-faceted commitment required from employees in order to attain organizational objectives.

During the development of the concept, Kahn delved into three psychological conditions that accordingly were crucial and necessary to be met in order for an

individual to be engaged with the task. Hence, in order for an employee to be properly engaged three requirements of meaningfulness, safety and availability must be met. The mentioned concepts are associated with job components and other elements that move one towards achieving success and avoiding distractions. Likewise, the Gallup organization presented another popular depiction of the concept where engagement was elucidated regarding the bond between the supervisors and employees who fulfill their duties and together stimulate engagement. Correspondingly, Schaufeli and Bakker (2010) outlined engagement addressing the psychological conditions that occur together with transforming the individual energy into behavioral investment.

As the above explanations highlight, the intermingling aspects of engagement point to an emotional and intellectual affiliation between the individual passion with the organization's plans and intentions. As put forward by prior research (Bakker, Demerouti, & Sanz-Vergel, 2008; Reissner and Pagan 2013) an engaged individual shows behavioral investment and activation in his/her role, striving to achieve job success, while contrariwise a disengaged individual is a threatening component that not only discourages but also de-motivates others. Copious research has clarified that the intention to turnover is reduced when bigger commitment levels and engagement are present in an individual's behavior (Maslach et al., 2001; Saks, 2006).

Further, up-to-date descriptions and explanations of the employee engagement have evolved primarily from the business industries, psychology and other human source consulting works of literature. Harter et al. (2002) comprehensive research influenced in increasing the interest in employee engagement while the study from Saks (2006) was a leading drift in scrutinizing the antecedents and outcomes of employee engagement, defining it as a construct that involves all three Kahn's components.

Another explanation of employee engagement was presented by Czarnowsky (2008) who defined it as the emotional and mental engagement of an employee who strives to contribute to the success of their employer. Other found terminology for employee engagement was presented as the positive attitudes that employees share for their organization; and the two-way connection and relationships they create with their employers in order to sustain and develop engagement (Robinson, Perryman & Hayday, 2004). While the studies on engagement were expanding, other related terms

of fulfillment and satisfaction with the work, job commitment, or individual contributions begin to flourish.

Consequently, Fernandez (2007) brought forward the difference between these concepts and that of engagement, demonstrating that the job satisfaction of an individual does not correspond to engagement since supervisors cannot depend on employee satisfaction in order to attain success. Moreover, the term reflects a small segment of engagement while engagement itself is a broader concept that revolves around commitment and desire to invest and foster organization success (Macey & Schneider, 2008). The engagement concept is a topic that is a prevailing organizational issue among researchers. Further, it is a crucial component that predicts positive results such as performance, commitment, and royalty but also organizational outcomes that produce a positive influence on the organization such as success and customer satisfaction.

3.2. CONCEPTUAL EVOLUTION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ENGAGEMENT THEORIES

Several theorists have plunged into the concept of Employee Engagement to address important terms and explain key term definitions. Although many different theories exist, in academic literature there are five key theories that encompass the workplace relations of the employees: Needs Satisfying Approach (Kahn, 1990), Burnout Antithesis Approach (Maslach and Leiter, 1997), Multidimensional Approach (Saks, 2006), Satisfaction-Engagement Approach (Harter et al., 2002), and Job Demands-Resources Model (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008). These approaches will be shortly elaborated below.

3.2.1. Needs satisfying approach

Kahn's 1990 research presented the term of engagement to put forward the involvement of the workers within the job and different tasks, and ever since the application of the term and later on the engagement theory has been most cited among literature (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001; Brim, 2002, Rich, Lepine & Crawford, 2010). As a construct that emerged in the 90s, it casts an in-depth research of the previous frameworks of theories of job stress (Thoits, 1991), workplace

emotions (Hochschild, 1979) and job design (Truxillo, Cadiz, Rineer, Zaniboni & Fraccaroli, 2012) and other job related behavioral and performance issues (Smith & Berg, 1987; Shantz, Alfes, Truss & Soane, 2013). The study of Kahn comprises an ethnographic study of finding out how employee experiences with different work variables were influencing how much they put effort to involve with the given work obligations.

The research constituted of various individuals engaged in their work tasks: 32 employees, 16 professionals of the financial field, and 16 camp counselors - who were tested on various variables such as role clarity, the satisfaction of the manager, resource availability, etc. By considering and involving the use of the self in the task role, Kahn defined the term of employee engagement as an extent upon intrinsic-extrinsic continuum (1990), meaning that he took into account not only the involvement of oneself in the process of working but also tackled the relations with others and how one could be engaged in various ways by using physical, emotional or cognitive schemes. Concerning this three-level operation of an employee, Kahn (1990) suggested three domains of meaningfulness, safety, and availability that impact work performance. When conceptualizing the three above mentioned terms, for 'meaningfulness' Kahn (1990) garnered a two-way definition of this variable by presenting it as an element that is influenced by how well employees perform and what value they add to the organization, but also accentuated that feedback factor is an important facet that shows the significance an employee receives from the organizational structure.

The ability of an employee to show the skills and help out the organization, without showing fear, negative self-evaluation or thinking about one's career, was put forward as the concept of 'safety' (Kahn, 1990). Safety, has to do with involving the three dimensions of being engaged psychologically, emotionally, and cognitively in trusting the job and the process. Moreover, it presents the involvement of the three elements in trusting the process of the task, environment and supervisors' feedback - and also revolves around knowing how to manage what is expected and what needs to be delivered. Availability deals directly with possessing all the needed resources for completing what is required within a work context (Kahn, 1990).

Kahn suggested that in order for this variable to be met from the employees, they need to be offered the right tools for finishing the tasks successfully. The range of things that could be classified as 'availability' involve items and other resources that are found and facilitate the completion of a task. May, Gilson, and Harter (2004) are among preeminent scholars supporting three of Kahn's concepts to be important in employee engagement. May et al. study suggested that engagement was positively connected with meaningfulness, availability, and safety. Prior research has also put an empirical foundation on the positive relationship between engagement and job-related characteristics such as value congruence (Rich et al., 2010), self-evaluation (Holbeche & Springett, 2003), and other organizational behavior (Wilson, 2004; Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004). Another study by Shuck (2010) also indicated that the presence of an affective environment has a positive association with employee engagement.

3.2.2. Burnout-Antithesis Approach

Different studies have explored the relationship between employee engagement and burnout (Cole, Walter, Bedeian, & O'Boyle, 2012). The employees experience burnout when they can no longer feel attached and engaged with their jobs. Maslach & Leiter (1997) defined burnout as a negative psychological state; as the erosion of job engagement. Engagement has also been defined as a state that is positively related to affection and healthy states, activating the employee and boosting their pleasures (Maslach et al., 2001). Practically, employees who experience burnout feel exhausted and their job seems unpleasant as well as not important to them (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Moreover, their energy transforms in exhaustion, cynicism, and overall effectiveness, while the main components of engagement (employee involvement and energy) are the straight opposites of burnout components. The aforementioned theory proposed that burnout and engagement are part of a larger continuum (Maslach et al., 2002). Among the base components of burnout, exhaustion is defined as the desiccation of the employee resources such as emotional ones. Further, an exhausted employee will show signs of tiredness and fatigue that stems from overloading and work overcharge.

The second aspect refers to cynicism which addresses the employee attitude of distancing the self from his job and also establish a negative position towards his

workplace. Lastly, the lessening of efficacy explains the competence loss, dealing with the past and evaluating work achievements and success, as negative. A version of MBI named Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey, MBI-GS, was designed to be applied across professions that did not include contractual agreement and it was suitable to measure burnout in these occupations. However, the three main elements of burnout were defined differently and in wider terms and also addressing job relationships (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Further studies supported the structure of MBI (Scheurs, & Schaufeli, 1999; Schutte, Toppinen, Kalimo, & Schaufeli, 2000) showing that the MBI components have an association and could be empirically differentiated.

Moreover, the relationship between the three dimensions was strong, especially between depersonalization and exhaustion, which in turn, made Schaufeli et al. (2002) present these two components as burnout base. Built on this research on MBI-GS, Schaufeli et al. (2003) developed Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) and were able to identify the causes of engagement and results and also explain the engagement role in the processes that are linked with the overall employee well-being. The carried research with UWES presented evidence that engagement is related negatively with burnout. An expansion of studies in burnout - that was done as a critique to Maslach and Schaufeli findings - showed that this approach towards engagement leaves out the concepts brought from Kahn (1990), focusing mainly on the absences of the emotional and bodily burnout while leaving behind mental processes such as cognitive states that affect engagement. Shirom (2007) proposed that the previously presented models helped on differentiating employee engagement from other similar constructs such as that of commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990) or flow concept (Hooker & Csikszentmihalyi, 2003) and offering better support for empirical evidence (Shirom, 2003; Wefald, 2008).

3.2.3. Burnout and Work Engagement: The JD–R Approach

Attempting to understand and convey more about the burnout state - which refers to the stress, exhaustion, and a mental distance from the workplace - the JD-R model was presented as a means of delving more into these phenomena that decrease work and personal efficacy. Since burnout and engagement are strong predictors for

outcomes of an organization and, the employee, the concept of engagement was later involved in this approach, described as a fulfilling condition characterized by three psychological aspects of vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). While burnout among employees is caused by the presence of minimum job demands and resources, employee engagement is linked with job demands too (Bakker, Demerouti, & Sanz-Vergel, 2008). This model included two central facets found in a job setting: requirements among job demand defined regarding the aspects that demand mental and physical states that are stable and have the exact costs. Such things at the work could be considered the overwork or job conflicts or low energy.

Conversely, job resources involve the activities that facilitate in achieving functional goals, reduce psychological stress, and overall growth. What the JD-R model does, is integrating both processes in order to see what they spark in the employee especially in terms of burnout. According to the model, when increasing positive assets, the organization precludes burnout and enhances employee wellbeing and engagement. Previous work has supported the scheme of the JD-R model (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009; Hakanen, Bakker & Schaufeli, 2006; Bakker & Arnold, 2016). Empirical support was also found when comparing how work requirements and job resources could affect employee engagement and burnout (Demerouti, Schaufeli & Van Rhenen, 2009) or involving leadership traits in JD-R model as they are important indicators for preventing burnout (Schaufeli et al., 2001) also promoting three basic principles of autonomy, relatedness and competence needs (Van den Broeck, 2010; Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, Soenens, & Lens, 2010). An article by Schaufeli (2017) claims that the Job Demands-Resources model is fittable and may assist as the guiding system for the organizational improvement and development processes that endeavor to boost engagement and prevent burnout. The JD-R model can also be implemented in several organizations because of an extensive variety of job characteristics, personal features, and other outcomes. Further, this strategic approach is a valuable sell-asset model for it combines health strategies towards lessening job stress and HR-approaches of boosting motivation and work engagement. Moreover, as a validated model (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014) supported by scientific adherence, its frame offers explanations over the job characteristics, leadership management, and other outcomes. Moreover, it is a practical model that can be adapted by organizations

toward stimulating the resources that facilitate engagement and, reducing job demands that cause employee burnout.

3.2.4. Satisfaction-Engagement Approach

Harter, Schmidt, and Hayes (2002) built their proposal on engagement based on the previous ideas for individual satisfaction, involvement and, work enthusiasm. The satisfaction- engagement approach has been cited among studies as a significant ground (Schaufeli, 2013) for employee engagement. Built upon the positive psychology principles and developed by Gallup researchers that proposed the terminology of engagement to be interwoven with the involvement and satisfaction of the employee and the work enthusiasm as well (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002). Consequently to the findings, employee satisfaction and employee engagement are associated with organization outcomes - generalized among different organizations. This statistical investigation of a large measurement of job satisfaction deducted it to 12 elements that now are known as Gallup 12 and explain job satisfaction.

These analyses were carried out at an organizational group level, based on the indicators that managers and leaders thought to have importance and consider to be relevant. However, the empirical evidence concerning the relationship between engagement and job satisfaction (Schneider et al., 2003) and the academic assumption that Gallup Q12 will lead towards higher levels of job satisfaction, followed by a positive organizational performance is still open to research and discuss. There is no doubt, however, that the Gallup Q12 survey (Harter et al., 2002) offered some indicators for the association between higher results on both this measure and the organizational performance. A positive connection was also found between the self-efficacy of managers and employee engagement (Luthans & Peterson, 2002). Moreover, the study linked profitability and individual' engagement. Finally, the importance of the earlier discussed studies (Harter et al., 2002; Salanova, Agut, & Peiro, 2005; Wagner & Harter, 2006) lays upon uncovering the findings that highlighted the importance of building a psychological climate that fosters employee engagement (Brown & Leigh, 1996) and their well-being (Rath & Harter, 2010).

3.2.5. Multidimensional Approach - Saks (2006)

Proceeding towards his approach, Saks' perspective stems from a multicomponent approach, supposing that the engagement of an employee develops on the principles of a social exchange model, suggesting that states of engagement are particular. He went further on defining the engagement concept as a construct that involves all components that impact role performance: emotional, cognitive and behavioral aspects (Saks, 2006). In this approach, the interrelation of organization and employee success depends on the resources provided to the employee. Accordingly, if the organization does not offer enough resources, the employees will fail to complete their tasks (Christian & Garza, 2011), will tend to withdraw (Kühnel, Sonnentag & Westman, 2009) and not feel attached with their roles (Koch & Steers, 1978).

According to Saks (2006) the more an organization offers in terms of economic, emotional, and social resources, the more an employee will contribute and the more will they feel obliged to bring more and engage their 'selves' in the tasks. Saks (2006) acknowledges the importance of involving other concepts such as organizational support perception, commitment, and supervisor support to be important mediators in individual job engagement. In his study (Saks, 2006) with 102 students that work and were participating in a course at a Canadian university, the findings supported previous research highlighting employee engagement has a positive connection with job satisfaction and characteristics and the level of perceiving the support stemming from the organization. Based on the premises of cognitive and emotional perspective as well as behavioral performance, other studies (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974; Rothbard (2001)) suggested that engagement is manifested accordingly with the three above mentioned aspects, paralleling also the previous findings from Kahn (1990), Schaufeli et al. (2002).

3.3. THE SUB-DIMENSIONS OF EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

As elaborated above, job engagement presents a multidimensional state of an employee rather than a specific state. Moreover, employee engagement revolves around the affective and cognitive state, which is pervasive and persistent in its nature (Schaufeli et al., 2001). As a condition, it has an organizational purpose that lays on

one's commitment and continuous enthusiasm involving both behavioral and attitudinal aspects (Mills, 2012) related to the absence or presence of one's self in work (Berkel et al., 2011). As a state, employee engagement is also associated with positive fulfilling conditions (Kanste, 2011) including three crucial constituents as behavioral aspects defined as vigor, emotional component (dedication) and the cognitive component (absorption). These three dimensions of Employee Engagement have been widely cited (Cartwright & Holmes, 2006) and elaborated (Wefald & Downey, 2008) as crucial and critical concepts that yield a better understanding of employee and job outcomes.

Vigor is defined as the motivation to work with volumes of energetic potential and the ability to engage with the task and show persistence at work despite potential obstacles. Further, it has also been presented as mental resilience and willingness to face various work difficulties.

Shirom (2003) explained vigor in terms of experiences that are related to an affective nature regarding the responses towards the job aspects. Accordingly, when describing vigor the term is concentrated on it as a state and not an individual mood but the employee's physical vitality, cognitive, and emotional energy. Hence, the conceptualization of vigor is closely related to the engagement due to the affective conditions that are inter-connected to the characteristics of the work-place. However, Katwyk, Fox, Spector, & Kelloway (2000) don't define vigor as an affective state which has led many researchers to move towards a more comprehensive approach. Further, the affective individual responses to the ongoing job interplays and job characteristics that involve a variety of other responses such as material and social aspects are also constitutive parts of vigor.

According to Lazarus (1999), the feelings of vigor are also related with the individual evaluation of the job resources and demands as well as what is available to cope with within the work-context. In this elaboration, vigor is presented with the cognitive assessments of the employees regarding their developments and moving towards their goals - an elaboration which can also be found on the theory of regulated behavior (Carver & Scheier, 1998).

Dedication refers to the strong involvement of an employee which is followed by feelings of being enthusiastic and feeling significant, while Absorption presents a

total immersion from an employee in his/her work and not being capable to separate oneself from the work responsibility (Maslach et al., 2001).

Dedication has been conceptualized as an element of engagement and is mainly related to how and what extent an individual is able to feel involved to that point that he/she identifies with the work-place and the level of job- importance attribution to the image of one-self (Brown, 1996).

Absorption people showing a strong sense of absorption usually have a sensation of time passing away quickly because they are plunged in the work process. Absorption has been partly associated with the flow theory (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990) where one becomes fully engaged and absorbed with the work and is characterized to have attention, a clear head and unification of one's mind and body (Duran, Extremera, & Rey, 2004).

Absorption has been presented as a concept related to the psychological immersion and individual attachment with the workplace (Maslach et al., 2001), as a definition, it overlaps with other acts such as being attentive, attached and concentrated at the work-place. Such concepts have been presented by Kahn (1992) as a psychological presence at the work-setting.

3.4. ANTECEDENTS OF ENGAGEMENT

3.4.1. Individual psychological states

The father of studies on engagement hinted that psychological safety, availability, and meaningfulness are three conditions that must be sufficient for the workers to be performing and completing their tasks successfully (Kahn, 1990) and also to be more dedicated. Moreover, Kahn (1990) maintained the idea that individual features affect whether an employee will be engaged or not. This proposal was the base for building up other studies that scrutinized how individual psychological states were related to successful behavioral outcomes (Reeve, 2001). May et al. (2004) supported the findings by acknowledging that the above-mentioned conditions are crucial to job engagement because workers that are enhanced by their workplace will meet up these three criteria. According to literature, individual traits

impact and prewise employee engagement (Furnham, Mosen & Ahmetoglu, 2005; Oslon, 2005). Personal differences in one's self-evaluation, one's conscientiousness and features of personality such as proactivity and positive affect seem to predict employee engagement (Saks & Gruman, 2011, Bledow, Schmitt, Frese, & Kuhnel, 2011).

Moreover, the employees showing a potency of self-efficacy characteristics and optimism predict and intercede engagement and job resources (Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009). The field of studies was focused also on investigating how individual features impact employee engagement (Macey & Schneider, 2008). In this study, the researchers suggested that workers that have diligence, an autotelic and proactive personality and an overall positive affect toward the conditions they work in, encompasses some of the antecedents of engagement (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Another tenet of this study was the proposal that workers will focus their energy on meaningful behaviors aiming at being rewarded - a process followed by commitment, gratification and a sense of participating in their job. This study also filled up previous features such as self-evaluation and perceived support from the organization to be among the employee engagement antecedents..

Several studies (Heuven et al., 2006; Del Libano et al., 2012) highlighted that the three personal and psychological attributes are of crucial importance for the engagement as well as they have a positive association with engagement concept: personal resources, self-efficacy, and resilience. In other words, the perception a worker has for their personal attributes and strengths impacts their engagement. Xanthopoulou et al. (2009), in another more complex study, showed that personal sources and work engagement are reinforcing while another conducted study (Balducci et al., 2011) proposed that positive features were positively linked, while negative features were negatively related with engagement. Some other investigations have highlighted that some factors such as enjoying the work and showing situational motivation; being able to identify their emotions, having centrality, and psychological control followed with affective involvement are positively linked with one's engagement and success (Mendes and Stander 2011; Anaza and Rutherford 2012). Based on Maslow's hierarchical concept of needs, Shuck et al (2010) brought another parallel for the scheme of employee engagement. According to their findings, a worker that is inner driven for self-fulfillment and seeks emotional satisfaction rather

than rewards, employees will strive towards reaching their full potential in their workplace. Overall, the field of research on individual psychological states that affect engagement yields over the personal dispositions such as self-efficacy, high personal orientation and focus together with proactive features to be present as moderators for a worker to be successful in his organization (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008; Reeve, 2001).

3.4.2. Experienced job design related factors

Research on job design offers a shred of clear empirical evidence between the relation with job-related characteristics and positive results (Loher, Noe, Moeller, & Fitzgerald, 1985). Furthermore, findings suggest that the resources and job-models interfere positively with the organizational results (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004) and that certain job conditions are associated with desirable outcomes and a greater intensity of employee motivation and overall achievement and fulfillment (Fried & Ferris, 1987). Previous studies have also demonstrated that a safe and supportive work environment with good conditions such as a good leader, united team and positive surroundings, impact in motivating the workforce and contribute to job results (Islam & Shazali, 2011) while other factors such as food supplies, alter the task engagement and enhances their morale.

The conducted research by Hackman and Oldham (1980) proposed that restructuring, analyzing and reforming job-related design increases the scope of motivating the employees. Moreover, the main idea of redesigning job design lays in improving and conducting the workers on their job, which on the other hand increases their level of fulfillment and job-satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Based on this study, Kahn (1990) continued delving into how psychological meaningfulness can be reached only when the features of the task and obligations provide a return of the engagement of the self with the task. Simply, put a task that provides a challenging aspect allows the employees to use their skills and gives them space to make important contributions to the organization they work in. Also, job tasks that allow employees to share their ideas and make contributions, presents an incentive for the workers to engage themselves more (Kahn, 1992) and make themselves present. May et al. (2004) proposed that work enrichment presents a mediator

between engagement and meaningfulness and also meaningfulness mediated the connection between job enrichment and one's engagement.

Further, other characteristics of the job such as autonomy and feedback are also linked with burnout (Maslach et al., 2001) as employees feel that their engagement with the job will bring positive outcomes, they develop a sense of investing more from their energy and bring contributions which in turn, reflects personal and group positive results. Other job-related characteristics such as colleague and supervisory support and also constant feedback and autonomy have been presented as mediators between engagement and resources of job, expect the study of Ouweneel, Le Black, Schaufeli, & van Wijhe (2012) that did not show any significant relation. However, the vast of engagement studies acknowledge that employees who are part of a setting with challenging job demands and tasks will sense and feel compelled to bring more and engage with greater levels of commitment (Fried & Ferris, 1987).

3.4.3. Perceived leadership and management

The leadership is thought to be a central component that influences engagement. Moreover, the organization's leaders are seen and perceived as the crucial agents and factors for the working place. Moreover, for the employees, the leaders obtain and are the representation of the organization they work on. According to Chen, Tsui, & Farh (2002) supervisors and the relationships they have with their workers designate the tasks and stipulate the projects and awards. The work-related relationships with colleagues and organization's leaders and supervisors are interlinked with three conditions of meaningfulness, safety, and availability as well (Kahn, 1990; Werner, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998).

According to Chen, Tsui, and Farh (2002), supervisor and employee relations are the passkey to assigning projects, delivering certain honors, and prizes and the key to the practices of employee training. Different studies have tackled the issue of leadership and management behaviors. The exploration was focused on finding - or whether there is - a connection on how more leadership positive traits affect employee engagement. A recent study from Karatepe (2012) presented that supervisory support and engagement were positively linked, while positive relationships were also found

between job engagement and transformational leadership (Tims, Bakker, & Xanthopoulou, 2011). Some other cross-sectional studies found that authentic direction and management from the leaders are connected with engagement among the employees (Wang & Hsieh, 2013).

Researchers have also optimally scrutinized how to conceptualize the mood contagion process of the leaders and how it affects individuals in their work setting (Neumann & Strack, 2000). Similarly, Sy, Côté & Saavedra (2005) conducted a study aiming to reveal how moods of the leader affect self-managing groups. According to the findings, the certain moods of the leaders were transferred to other members of the workgroup. Therefore, the workers whose leaders showed a positive mood, experienced higher levels of positive energy and mood, whether individuals that experienced negative signs of moods from their leaders showed less positive mood.

Another cross-sectional research concerning leadership traits was conducted by Sulea, Fischman & Filipescu (2012). They investigated the ways how leader mistreatment towards their employees, affect their engagement in their work. The findings suggest that there is a negative connection between some leadership features such as abusive leadership (incivility or indignity) with employee engagement (Sulea et al., 2012).

3.4.4. Organizational and team factors

A considerable amount of employee's effort is determined by the support he/she perceives from the supervisor and the organization he works in. As elaborated above, enhancing the organization and work conditions improves employee engagement and organizational outcomes. An employee that perceives and experiences support from his work, will engage more in his tasks (Rich et al., 2010) and will neglect it if his needs are not met (Agarwal & Bhargava, 2013). Another aspect of work such as identification with the work is also positively related to one's engagement (Karanika-Murray, Duncan, Pontes & Griffiths, 2015).

Moreover, the overall positive or negative climate is an indicator of whether the engagement will bloom or stuck. Supervisor and employee communication, trust, and cooperation also yield the growth for engagement (Barnes & Collier 2013)

whether harassment on the workplace or job relation conflicts will diminish engagement (Cogin & Fish 2009). These studies, among others, demonstrate that organizational commitment is key in defining not only engagement but also the fulfillment of the psychological needs of the workers. Other features of work that were classified as meaningful comprised of work that is perceived to have a strong social impact, self-actualizing work, a job that offers a logic of achievement, a job that lets one to fulfillment of life goals and values and work that prompts one's belief in accomplishing their primary occupation objectives within their organization (Fairlie, 2011). Finally, as Kahn (1990) proposed, a supportive team and management built on healthy interpersonal work relations promote and facilitate employees' safety in their workplace. Moreover, correspondingly with the principles of social exchange theory, other team factors that are of crucial importance are leader's openness and support to make workers not be afraid to try new ways of solving problems (May et al., 2004) and be reciprocally obliged to care about the workplace and its prosperity.

3.4.5. Organizational interventions or activities - HRD practices

Human Resource Development is a special department within an organization that improves and develops effective and productive functioning of the organization, by increasing human capacities, knowledge and proficiency (Swanson & Holton, 2009). These organizational interventions are development programs that involve training, improving management practices; new and easier ways of working. Several studies have revealed a positive relationship among employees' experiences and these interventions (Carter et al., 2010; Reissner & Pagan 2013).

The scope of the fields that are covered by these interventions includes and exceed the improvement of the work quality, career development, management, formal, and informal team training, etc. Whilst, by being able to investigate, train, and collect the data from employees, an organization can avail and continue developing further strategies for the company's growth and welfare. Schaufeli and Salanova (2010) tackled training programs and professional advancement to be related positively with the growth of individuals and their development, as well as nourishing the engagement among employees. According to them, an employee is not static but rather flowing in the workplace, constantly learning new skills for the organization to

be successful and have a competitive nature (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2010). Other researchers that scrutinized organization interventions such as Shuck and Rocco (2014), also evince the enhancement of engagement to strive from workplace learning programs, training programs, and other related career potentials. Moreover, they presented these interventions as critical in expanding professional skills, strengthen professional relationships and augmenting employees' engagement.

Further, interventions such as forum theatre and mindfulness training, have a positive impact, based on the findings that employees experienced these interventions to be positive and fostering their development (Brummelhuis et al., 2012). As elaborated, organizational interventions are a key element in making employees more engaged. As proposed by Shuck and Rocco (2014) each organization has to discuss and be open with their employees, for their matters and issues - especially their needs, career development, capacity building, and their overall progression, for these interventions are crucial employees engagement antecedents.

In a closer look, the above mentioned studies and also other studies (Shirom, 2007; Reio & Callahan, 2004) suggest that antecedents of job design, psychological states, the perception of leaders and supportive climate of the organization are connected positively with higher amount of individual's engagement. On the other hand, signs of negative antecedents on the workplace such as harassment, incivility or an abusive supervisor will lead to lower employee engagement.

3.4.6. Workplace environment

Workplace environment wraps the employees' surrounding where they spend a considerable amount of time working (Chapins, 1995) and according to the studies, its overall setting and conditions influence the workforce - affecting their engagement both positively (Humphries, 2005) and negatively (Hameed & Amjeed, 2009). It is an organizational aim for each company to provide a safe workplace and offer secure designs that foster employee engagement and progressive job processes. Conversely, employees that face problems in their workplace settings, whether in organizational or physical factors, tend to have a decreased task performance and depleted productivity (Ratanjee, 2005; James, Swanberg & McKechnie, 2007).

Workplace characteristics that share crucial importance for fostering employee engagement include natural lighting and a good audible condition (Humphries, 2005; Marquardt & Geerts, 2004). Moreover, the types of furniture that provide comfort are associated with decreasing employee stress and influencing overall health (Dilani, 2004) while appropriate temperature, good windows, and proper airflow also influence positive outcomes in employee behaviors and overall performance (Kweon & Tyler, 1998). Shuck et al. (2010) yielded the significance of having a secure environment at the workplace to be a factor that assures employees (Burke, 2005) and these workplace resources help employees to work effectively (Saks, 2006). Altering the social conditions of the workplace, such as adapting the communication strategies, developing a code-dress are also seen as considerate factors in improving one's engagement (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007) while adapting the workplace according to employee's needs, has been identified as another factor that impacts the employee flexibility and comfort (ASID, 1999).

Another workplace environmental factor related to job productivity is the lack of noise at the office. The lack of noise in the workplace impacts the employees to boost their efficiency and decreasing stress (Bruce, 2008). When considering the open office space construct, its relation to employee engagement shows to make workers feel more engaged at equal levels with their supervisors, co-workers and facilitates their productivity (Uzee, 1999). In conclusion, the above-mentioned research suggests that work setting affect the workers and their performance. Finally, safe and good physical conditions at the workplace will foster healthy practices while the absence of an unsafe environment will deplete employee engagement.

3.4.7. Supervisor and co-worker relationships

As Kahn (1990) acknowledged, employee engagement in cognitive, emotional and physical terms, the organization should provide stable relationships for these criteria to be manifested by the workers at their workplace (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; May et al., 2004; May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004). A prior investigation by May et al. (2004) delved into workers and supervisor relationship, by highlighting the impact the overall employee conditions at the workspace have on employees, accounting psychological and physical states. The employee relations with leaders and other

workers will not only foster psychological meaningfulness but also improve their friendship and reciprocal appreciation (May et al., 2004).

Within academia, much attention has been paid to the supervisor relationships. The perceived support from the employees affects the states of safety feelings (Edmondson, 1999) fosters the creativity of the employees (Deci et al., 1989) and will increase their availability when perceived supervisors support (Rothmann & Welsh, 2013). Various levels of workplace relationships not only impact workers but also organizational outcomes (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Conversely, the supervisor is a crucial agent to the workplace and to the organization, as he/she offers the door to providing support and safety for the employees. On the other side, when met with the needs of comfort, an employee will tend to work for the organizational outcomes (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006).

Two theories that help out on understanding supervisor and employee relationship dynamics are the Social Identity Theory and Social Exchange Theory. Social identity theory puts forward the organizational and relational identification (Sluss & Ashforth, 2008) to be two components interwoven with organizational concepts that are important for the employee success stemming from the supervisor relationship, whilst the second one presents concepts of putting reciprocal trust and creating a good supervisor-employee relationship (Graen & Uhl-bien, 1995). Indicating the theories, good supervisor and employee relationship induces individuals to feel that the organization is showing attention and support to them. Accordingly, a good relationship between them will impact positively also three states of psychological meaningfulness, safety, and availability.

3.5. OUTCOMES OF EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

3.5.1. Task Performance

While job performance is presented as a group of activities that generally impact organizational thrift and progress, performance is also known as a complex concept and, according to the researchers, it is a multi-dimensional term too (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). According to Borman and Motowidlo (1993) task performance happens within the job performance scope and is marked with smaller

assignments that facilitate important employee and organization's projects. Moreover, task performance also involves all the employee activities carried out in order to enhance company outcomes (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). At a general viewpoint, the activities that comprise task performance are those that transform materials into organization services and functions (Motowidlo et al., 1997).

Task performance also includes all the activities that need to be done from the employee, according to the job contract (MacLeod & Parent, 1998). Task performance behaviors are static and are found among different given jobs as established and central (Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991). This is related to three psychosomatic components of physical, emotional, and cognitive efforts that employees put and invest in their roles. Therefore, the engaged employees work with a higher intensity for longer periods of time, they pay more attention to and are more focused on responsibilities as well as they are more emotionally connected to the tasks that constitute their role. Overall, studies on task performance have shown a positive relationship between engagement and task performance (Yeh 2012). Yalabik (2013) findings presented engagement to be positively linked to job performance. Another meta-analysis study by Christian, Garza, and Slaughter (2011) also showed a positive relationship between employee engagement and task performance. Among other studies, there was found a positive relationship also between employee engagement and other performance results such as the performance of the team, the loyalty of the customer and the care quality (Salanova et al., 2005; Van Bogaert, Kowalski, Weeks & Clarke, 2013).

3.5.2. Individual Morale

The concept of employee morale offers numerous terms and involves several aspects. Although many studies have related it with job satisfaction (Baehr & Renck, 1958) supervision and needs theories (Allport, 1994; McLeod, 2007), when defining morale, Guba (1958) revolves it around the idea that an engaged employee uses his dispositions in order for the organization to be successful also reach its objectives. Moreover, he involves cognitive and affective components that are shown on one's morale. Zeitz (1983) tested what causes morale and what causes employee satisfaction by gathering data from 2.335 supervisors in 12 different organizations. According to

the findings, morale is a collective construct linked with the emotional and affective response towards the organization, while satisfaction is a function derived mostly from structure perception. The most used definition of employee morale was offered recently by Peterson (2008) as in here 'morale is a cognitive, emotional, and motivational stance toward the goals and tasks of a group. It subsumes confidence, optimism, enthusiasm, and loyalty as well as a sense of common purpose' (p 21).

Morale is also defined as the overall well-being of employees, in their workplace (Woodruffe, 2006). Moreover, when taking into account the studies, the outcomes of morale are inspected under the perceptions of wellbeing and attitudes of the job. Psychological health is another outcome associated positively with the morale one shows in its workplace (Freeney & Fellenz, 2013) while negatively related to employee non-engagement, poor health results (Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006) and finally related negatively with burnout (Buys & Rothmann, 2010). Other investigations on individual morale found a link between engagement and general life satisfaction (Shimazu, Schaufeli, Kubota & Kawakami, 2012) while a positive connection was evident between engagement and positive affect (Kühnel et al., 2009).

3.5.3. Extra-role Performance

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) presents the individual behavior which sometimes is indirectly acknowledged - or not - from the supervisors, but comprehensively contributes and enhances an organization's outcomes (Organ, 1988). Its practical importance lays in the efficiency it brings to the organization (Organ, 1997) and the transformation it entails for organizational resources. The set of activities it involves includes helping other co-workers completing their tasks, facilitating the work process by carrying extra-role performance and promoting overall effective operation. By partaking beyond formal role demands, an employee provides and ensures the completion of the extra-role contingencies, creating a synergy of interdependence with other co-workers (Smith, Organ & Near, 1983) which in turn strengthens the organization's input. Rurkkhum and Bartlett (2012) presented more scientific materials that support the hypothesis of the relationship between employee engagement and OCB components such as courtesy, altruism, and conscientiousness.

Furthermore, according to empirical evidence, as engagement outcomes, OCB produce positive results on the organization and impact on other beneficial job behaviors (Alfes, Truss, Soane, Rees, & Gatenby, 2010) and exhibit positive connection with engagement (Rich et al., 2010). OCB is classified into two sets of sections: organization-oriented organizational citizenship behavior and individual-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. The focus of the first category is the organization. For instance, models of the first category involve informal behaviors an employee undertakes for maintaining the rules of the work, requesting permission when one cannot be present at the work and other by-choice activities for the company. By going beyond the given job requirements, an employee volunteers for the organizational benefits and effectiveness without aiming at rewards. The second category focuses on employee behaviors that directly help the individual but contributing to the company in indirect ways. These employee gestures include assisting other employees in completing their tasks, covering colleagues, showing interpersonal support when needed, etc. According to Chen et al. (2002), the aforementioned groups have been acknowledged to be similar to the concepts of altruism (I-OOCB) and obedience/ compliance (O-OOCB).3.5.4. Organizational performance

Among the research conducted for Employee Engagement, the concept of organizational performance lacks a standard definition. Not having an established definition, Venkatraman and Ramanujam (1986) put forward a simple explanation of organizational performance as the outcomes that are based on the organization's finances, paralleling the monetary goals of the organization. Additionally, Dyer and Reeves (1995), demonstrated how to measure organizational performance. According to their study, there are four measurements for this concept: the outcomes of human resources, the outcomes of the organization, the outcomes of financial accounting and capital market outcomes. Other studies define Organizational performance as fulfilling the objectives of their organizations between different stakeholders Vries, Johne, & Voordt, 2008). Various scientific articles that examine the engagement matter, the central point of discussion lays in elucidating the nature of the relationship between employee and the organization he/she is engaged in. Several researchers have presented empirical evidence that the engagement and effort put from the employee are interlinked with the outcomes of the organization.

Employee retention and productivity, safety, customer loyalty, and overall productivity, are among others, positive organizational performance outcomes (Coffman, 2000). As the studies suggest, when examining factors that foster engagement, the average finances are another important determinant that facilitates its growth (Towers Perrin Talent Report, 2003) and increases customer satisfaction (Hewitt Associates, 2004). Concomitantly, employees disengaged from their workplace bring damage and disadvantages to their companies.

The company downturn will manifest in several factors such as employee settling and spinning (when employees do not show commitment or do not make changes to the workplace) and will put down customer satisfaction (Perrin Report, 2003). Further, organizational performance is connected also with the way employees feel in their workplace (Truss, Shantz, Soane, Alfes & Delbridge, 2013). Engaged employees show stable emotions and are attached to their company, show signs of voluntary involvement, have initiatives that go beyond the actual contract (Cartwright & Holmes, 2006). Studies conducted by Harter et al. (2000, 2002) suggested a relationship between engagement, productivity, the satisfaction of the customer, profit, as well as employee turnover (Harter et al., 2002; Harter, 2000). Accordingly, the success of an organization is directly and significantly associated with building the right climate and environment to support employee engagement.

CHAPTER 4

PERFORMANCE

History of job performance development along with main sub-dimensions such as in-role and extra-role job performance has been studied within this chapter. Furthermore, the antecedents and outcomes of job performance have been discussed.

4.1. JOB PERFORMANCE

Over the years, job performance has spurred interest in several disciplines as an individual and pivotal concept that affects the organization (Borman, White, Pulakos, & Oppler, 1991; Borman & Brush, 1993). Although research has offered a concept-distinguishment and has provided the main predictors that cause the occurrence of these activities, complete-comprehensive research is still vacant amid scientific examination (Deadrick & Gardner, 2008). Nevertheless, due to its multifaceted dimensions, job performance has gained noteworthy attention (Bates, 1999), and numerous endeavors have been undertaken in order to provide its conceptual base (Organ, 1988, Campbell, 1990; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

4.1.1. Conceptualization of Job Performance

Numerous aggregation of studies has been revising job performance (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000; Dalal, 2005; Díaz-Vilela, Rodríguez, Isla-Díaz, Díaz-Cabrera, Hernández-Fernaud, & Rosales-Sánchez, 2015) over the last few years. As a construct that obtains many dimensions, it presents a complex and latent concept that has attained research attention within organizational and industrial psychology, human resource management, and workplace context principally. Further, the investigation on job performance has broadened from the classical approach: from examining it as a concept related to set-up tasks to acknowledging it within the multiple dynamics of job settings (Wagner & Rush, 2000). This shift in approach has increased and changed viewpoints of job performance, illustrating other job-related elements such as relationship, interdependence and performance uncertainties - that before weren't taken into account (Ashford, 1986; Borman & Brush, 1993).

Job performance is a critical variable for the organization. Its importance sets on the organization's operation and functioning (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), success (Pushpakumara & Wijewickrama, 2008), and presents a pointer of employee self-efficacy (Gist & Mitchell, 1992) and is an indicator for better professional opportunities. Furthermore, job performance is an essential indicator for a prospective future, potential success and job promotion (VanScotter, Motowidlo, & Cross, 2000).

As a concept constituted by several components, performance is labeled under two of its hallmarks: its behavioral aspect and the anticipated outcome resulting from it (Díaz-Vilela et al., 2015), both associated closely with each other at the workplace (Campbell 1990). The behavioral part covers the employees' actions towards achieving the appointed goals and tasks whilst the outcome part involves the consequences and results of employees' behavior. Nevertheless, the multi-componential conceptualization of job performance is also shaped by other factors, making this convergence even more difficult for evidence. According to the studies (Organ, 1988; Sonnentag & Frese, 2002), this overlap is also impacted by other determinant factors such as contextual circumstances, cognitive abilities and, employees' personality.

Regarding this polarity, Campbell (1990) conceptualized job performance by considering goal-oriented organization behaviors. Accordingly, job performance is explained with actions rather than in terms of outcomes involving behaviors that assist the organization's success; and finally, job performance is seen as a multifaceted term. When defining job performance, many studies have presented a systematic analysis of the current frameworks. As mentioned above, Campbell (1990) was among the first researchers to present a definition regarding job performance, proposing eight formats of job performance (job-specific task proficiency, oral and written communications, demonstrating effort, personal discipline, team and peer performance, supervision and, management and administration). Additional definitions also set on the multi conceptualization of this phenomenon. For instance, Viswesvaran and Ones (2000) presented ten dimensions of job performance: (1) quality of work, (2) the knowledge for the job, (3) communication, (4) productivity, (5) effort, (6) interpersonal skills, (7) leadership traits, (8) administrative skills, (9) showing compliance and (10) accepting authority. However, different scientific

structures propose that elements that aggregate job performance vary among different job contexts (Sonnetag & Frese, 2002).

Among the to-date definitions, job performance is also addressed as an organization's required value that is supposed to happen within intermittent episodes of time (Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997). When considering this classification, job performance is understood as a behavior attribute or property that is expected to happen over a course of time.

As many studies have suggested (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994) the positive or negative effects a behavior causes in an organization are displayed through beneficial or unbeneficial organizational results. These organizational consequences - whether positive or negative - are determined by the behavior and its value. Chu & Lai (2011) acknowledged that the set of behaviors that employees carry out in a specific duration of time are incidental and many-sided and that the same set of behavior sometimes can generate positive organizational results while in some cases, due to external determinants, it might cause adverse outcomes. In line with this point of view, Weiss & Cropanzano (1996) suggested that employees encounter different situations during their work-day. Affective Events Theory (AET) explains that employee experiences impact their emotional and affective conditions and, consequently change their job performance. Empirical evidence from longitudinal studies (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, & Muraven, 1998; Fisher, 2002) shows that employees with positive feelings at their workplace have bigger job satisfaction and performance whilst employees that showed negative moods and feelings had a decrease in their overall performance.

Previously presented frameworks have also expanded on the multidimensionality of job performance (Hogan and Hogan 1989; Viswesvaran, 1993). Four dimensions of performance among jobs were presented by Murphy (1990), who defined the constructs within these four aspects. The first dimension - that of downtime behavior - refers to employee actions that are related to unfavorable behaviors such as being late, showing tardiness and being absent from a work-day. The second dimension that of task performance refers to delivering the designated roles and tasks, whilst interpersonal behaviors address the employee's effort to facilitate and assist colleagues, possessing a teamwork approach, and showing

prosocial behaviors. Finally, hazardous behaviors that are counterproductive and diminish the organization's goals comprise the dimension of destructive behaviors.

Contrasting Campbell's suggestions, Bernardin and Beatty (1984) determined performance with the evidence of results that were generated from an activity. Further, this definition involved a succession of some other dimensions (timeliness, supervision need, interpersonal influence, quantity, quantity, and cost-effectiveness) and external limitations that impacted job performance and that are not necessarily always required for employee activity. According to Bernardin & Russell (1998), in order to understand these dimensions and their functions, their interrelatedness should be considered. Researchers have also tackled the interrelationship of job performance with other relevant terms. When elaborating on the concept, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) suggested that job performance is related to task performance - a concept that focuses on prolific employee activities within the prescribed role.

The present-day researches have also presented how other aspects influence job performance. Individual characteristics such as experience, skills, knowledge, and other personal attributes concomitantly together with conditions of the workplace which include feedback on the performance, job-environment, job-facilities as well as other expectations (Green & Heywood, 2008). When discussing various dimensions of job performance, they should be distinguished from the concept itself, although their usage is interchangeable (Amarneh, Abu Al-Rub, & Abu-Rub, 2010).

Researchers have elaborated on job performance as an intended employee activity that aims to outcomes and has individual motives and persistence (Deadrick & Gardner, 2008; Bendassolli, 2012). Consequently, this intentional activity is also influenced by socio-cultural circumstances, employee cognitive abilities and demographic structures that, altogether, impact employee performance in various ways.

4.1.2. Multidimensionality of Job Performance

Conceptualized as the sum of aggregated employee activities that are brought to the organization both straightforward and in indirect ways (Campbell, 1990) this definition of job performance involves the behavioral aspect since most of the

employee's behaviors are voluntary (Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010). Further, since job performance is a concept that dwells on multi-terms (Viswesvaran, Schmidt, & Ones, 2002) focusing on the behavioral realm eases the identification of other performance types (Eppler, Honeycutt, Ford, & Markowski, 1998) and is also important for scientific elaboration.

Based on many discussions on scientific fields (Pickle & Friedlander, 1967; Organ, 1998; Kline & Sulsky, 2009) researchers agree on the manifold nature of job performance (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). However, the research on job performance has advanced the conceptualization of this job-phenomenon, there is still space to scrutinize its antecedents and activities related to this job-phenomenon (Sonnentag & Frese, 2002). While advancements have been made and organizational dynamics change on a daily basis, the many dimensions of job performance are changing likewise (Ilgen & Pulakos, 1999). However, there exists a general groundwork on how its dimensions are distinguished.

The elementary categories of job performance are known to be the task and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Further, other scholars have enlarged these scientific assumptions by adding other categories: those that deal with adaptive performances (Pulakos, Arad, Donovan, & Plamondon, 2000) and performances that abbreviate organizational capacities known as counterproductive behaviors (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Lastly, another significant dimension of job performance presented as organizational citizenship performance (OCP) describes inner-driven behaviors that employees undertake silently in order to boost their organizational outcomes (Organ, 1988).

Task performance is the fundamental identified category of performance that involves the set of responsibilities that are ascribed to be carried out for an employee. This set is usually performed through certain technical and cognitive employee abilities (Conway, 1999), and it involves a contract based on which employees are expected to fill their responsibilities. However, the required tasks usually go beyond providing contractual arrangements. This set of behaviors, when employees are engaged in dynamic settings that demand to adapt to contextual duties is known as adaptive performance. Involving adaptation and a certain efficiency to deal with unexpected situations such as new transformations or another job-related restructuring

(Hesketh, & Neal, 1999). Along with the ability to show adapting behaviors, research has also identified another construct of job performance known as contextual performance, that is, some prosocial activities or extra-role performances described under employee's engagement to make the workplace a better work-setting (Viswesvaran, & Ones, 2000). Even though this set of activities is not prescribed or mentioned in the contract, according to Brief and Motowidlo (1986), the mentioned above behaviors are in favor of the individual and beneficial for the organization for they stem from there and are a sign of interaction while performing their preferred role. Further, these activities are carried out in order to encourage and improve members of the organization and its group as well.

Moreover, such behaviors are good indicators to promote member's welfare and the spirit of the group (Motowidlo, & Van Scotter, 1994). They also help co-workers adapt to various roles (Borman, & Schmit, 1997). According to the author Bergeron (2007), contextual performance ought to constitute other elements such as the determination, the aspect of commitment, and being determined. Coleman and Borman (2000), suggested that such behaviors happen to make organizational changes since their nature is in accordance with assisting, being enthusiastic, and needs constant co-workers cooperation, which in turn is beneficial for both parts and creates a culture within the organization.

As presented in the studies, all aforementioned behaviors contain several activities that involve employees' ability to perform and adapt to different work-situations, that are not always prescribed and as such need interpersonal relations to build the vitality of the organization. The section below presents and elaborates shortly each of these constructs by explaining their definitions and their main constituents.

4.2. THE CONCEPT OF IN-ROLE PERFORMANCE

As different employees share different responsibilities and positions in an organization, so are the roles they occupy and the assigned tasks. Literature that followed the behaviors in the workplace context, presented several points on what constitutes the main behavioral elements of the employees: from showing to the workplace, finishing the duties that foster the organizational goals (Werner, 1994) to

creating collegial network and supporting co-workers in need, research has tackled the various ways, an employee can be present in his/her work. Although numerous, research has classified these behaviors in two main categories that describe individual and organizational performance: in-role (Vey & Campbell, 2004) and extra-role performances (Hui, Law, & Chen, 1989).

In-role employee behaviors have been defined as the crucial and expected set of activities an employee must undertake in order to successfully complete organizational targets. Being core organizational values, they are contradictory arrangements made between the leader and the worker, thus also known as arbitrary performances (Organ, 1997). Considering that these core behaviors involve the “role” concept, they are undoubtedly brought to life from principles of societal expectations (Vandyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995), connotating that they occur based on a role that needs to be met within a smaller workplace setting (Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994).

The concept of in-role performance is measured and evaluated constantly by the organization's (Ghiselli and Brown, 1955) which usually use several categories such as the ways they rate their employees, evaluating their work-quality and quantity, recording their absenteeism, etc. The main field of criteria used to evaluate employee IRB - that of the supervisor - usually fails to communicate and seize the truthfulness of one's performance since what a supervisor might measure might not partake employee's real behavior (Wexley and Yukl, 1984). According to Murphy and Cleveland (1995), despite being mistakable on their evaluation nature, supervisor measurement of employee's effectiveness and performance continues to be among the leading evaluative models. Moreover, these evaluations are crucial in making decisions and reward systems (Werner, 1994).

According to Katz (1982), an employee whose performance is effective to the organization is related to other crucial activities such as employee's determination to preserve the identity of the organization, an employee of an organization has to show inter-dependency when completing individual or organizational duties and to be able to partake in other job-activities that go beyond the prescribed job role.

4.2.1. Theoretical Framework of In-Role Performance

Job performance' fundamental categories involve the completion of formal job roles known as in-role performance and voluntary activities that go farther than required as formal activities known as extra-role performance (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Whether discretionary or prescribed, employee behaviors entail certain roles, which in turn are crucial to understand and interpret employee activities (Katz & Kahn, 1978).

The concept of role, which stems from the theatre - has been defined as a series of employee expected behaviors assigned by a structured organizational set (Stryker & Burke, 2000) that refer to organizational norms (Allen & Van de Vliert, 1984). Consistent with the premises of role theory, these organized social structures play a significant function in roles themselves and also employees who maintain these roles (Biddle, 1986). Further, the role theory contrasting previous ones presents the dynamics of employee personal characteristics within the social context they occur. Thus, individual traits are influenced by external factors, making performance a conjunction of both sides. Moreover, role theory assumes expectation to be the main role generator and that employee cognitive and personal features are as crucial for roles that employees occupy.

Conceived in the early 60s, role theory granted scientific discovery into processes that influence employee states at the workplace, whether psychological or physical (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn & Rosenthal, 1964). Based on the fact that the job-setting dynamics evolve every day, then presented role theory served more like a generic theory (Winship & Mandel, 1983), which would later develop into organizational role theory (Parker & Wickham, 2005) and an exploratory base for its multidimensionality.

Another conceived theory that provides explanations is identity theory (Stets & Burke, 2000), which explains other insights into employee roles focused not on the role themselves but their saliency and how it impacts the behavioral aspect. In the account of external rewards, identity theory elaborates the premises that when an employee gets rewarded for a certain task, they will get more engaged and show better job engagement. This agent is also known as the reciprocity norm (Wayne,

Randel, & Stevens, 2002). The psychology behind identity theory lays in presenting the ways how employees use inner systems and control locus to select certain information. The more a piece of specific information triggers employee behavior, the more the employee will execute that behavior, therefore, the behavior will become more salient (Thoits, 1991). Usually, this set of behaviors become salient over time, which makes them more internalized and more meaningful for the employees.

According to this theory, employees derive meaning from the roles they occupy. Moreover, one organization can detect the needed behavior and make it more salient for its employees.

4.2.2. In-role performance as task performance

Dimensions of in-role performance have shifted over the crossing of years (Locke & Latham, 1990; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). In the current literature, several interdependent constructs that affect - directly or indirectly - job performance, sometimes enhancing it and sometimes not. The behaviors that comprise in-role performance include the main set known as task performance, which is related to core activities that are needed to enhance the core organizational targets (Griffin, Neal, & Neale, 2000) as well as boost other activities.

Each work activity and employee performance is directed to completing the in-role or extra-role assignments, where the completion of the assigned duties is identified as task performance (Locke & Latham, 1990; Schmidt & Hunter, 1992). However, when describing task performance, a group of researchers has investigated it by bridging it with contextual performance - a concept that revolves around activities and fosters the given duties. When defining task performance, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) considered it as a series of formal job activities that directly or indirectly impact the professional base of the organization. Accordingly, these principal behavioral distinctions, demand the fulfillment of the core job technical aspects which involve converting specific elements into organizational products and are known as formal work constituents. The above-mentioned concepts are also important indicators that differentiate task performance from other job performance dimensions. It is essential to note that what is known as formal requirements varies among different jobs (Campbell, McHenry, & Wise, 1990; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002)

and is also associated with the efficacy and individual employee performance. Simply put, completing a task performance is exclusively particular according to the nature of the job, while contextual performance holds consistency among different jobs.

The activities that constitute it revolve around completing a diverse set of tasks such as planning and coordinating (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), following the organizational plans (Borman & Brush, 1993), and more importantly, performing behaviors that centralize the customer needs (Anderson & King, 1993).

When describing what core task behaviors entail, several explanations on literature examination exist (Campbell et al., 1990; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). Prominent researchers on job performance have related these behaviors as part of the job that is translated into a monthly salary rewarding system (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Others have described in-role behaviors as the routine of eight hours per day (William & Anderson, 1991), whilst IRB has also been acknowledged as doing the tasks given by the supervisors (Ployhart, Schneider, & Schmitt, 2005).

As employees are important for organizational development, among the literature and elaborations of task performance exists a proposition that views it by connecting its segments with organizational services. According to Werner (1994), task performance presents a part of a formal form of the organization that is associated with all series of behaviors that make an impact towards producing good deeds and other services. According to this description, part of this elaboration is the employee's demonstration of behaviors that might also bring indirect assistance to foster its main organizational targets.

As a multifaceted concept of job performance that deals primarily with employees' technical core skills, it is interrelated and enhanced by other contextual behaviors that will be elaborated hereinafter.

4.2.3. Antecedents of in-role performance

A comprehensive amount of studies predict a set of in-role performance antecedents. Principally, research has shown that cognitive abilities (Hunter, 1986), training success (Ghiselli, 1973), job knowledge (Hunter, 1983), and other personality traits (McCrae, 1992) highly affect in-role performance.

The principal dimensions of in-role performance hand out activities that are related to the ability to perform the given tasks. The before described behaviors that fall in the category of task performance involve the contractual arrangements made between the supervisor and his/her employees. This activity has two aspects: completing technical and administrative activities and leadership related to task assignments.

The activities that are anticipated to happen within job performance are those that have a nature of preparation and organization, using one's ability and skills to perform daily tasks and being able to use analytical business evaluation. These behaviors present sub-dimensions of performance that is supposed to take place within the technical and administrative assignments. Whereasthe other dimension, that of leadership task performance involves activities that are directed to the supervisors who show commitment to performing strategic objectives, endorsing the required standards of performance that have to be met (Kellet, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2002). Moreover, they motivatethe group through productive and positive critiques and recognize their efforts (Tripathy, 2014). As proposed, personality traits are crucial job-performance antecedents. Five personality traits or factors also known as the big five (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience) highly influence and predict the in-role performances among different job settings (John, 1990). Among the mentioned factors, conscientiousness is proven to be the main predictor of task performance (Barrick, Parks, & Mount, 2005).

Other factors such as employee involvement in the task, is also considered to be the main incentive for task performances since they boost the identification (Kanungo, 1982) and is related to other characteristics of the job such as satisfaction coming from completion of a task, the significance it entails and participation (Brown, 1996). Further studies also support the idea that the more involved an employee is, the more he/she will engage and deliver in-role performance tasks (Lawler, 1986; Dubinsky & Hartley, 1986). Work involvement is also considered to spur employee motivation and leading to increased amounts of in-role behaviors. A recent study conducted by Chughtai (2008) suggested that work commitment and involvement is a significant indicator of individual performance. Moreover, the author presented that job involvement increases the commitment to organizational levels.

Other crucial antecedents of in-role performance found among literature are employees' mental capacities and abilities. Task performances demand particular information and knowledge on how to handle specific task requirements. According to Conway (1999), assigned tasks require the utilization of technical expertise and familiarity to complete the task successfully as well as being able to multitask when several duties need to be delivered.

Literature grants numerous examples of how collegial assistance facilitates the process of task behaviors by offering their help and by giving professional recommendations (Zhou & George, 2001) and providing relevant support that explains and simplifies their tasks (Ducharme & Martin, 2000). According to Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman (1970), co-workers also enhance the understanding of certain tasks ambiguity when confusion arises.

4.3. THE CONCEPT OF EXTRA-ROLE PERFORMANCE

The benefits of the extra role performance are increasingly important in improving the productivity and efficiency of the organization. The outcomes of this behavior can make a significant impact when it is operated at an organizational or individual level. The extra-role performance that is focused on the greater good of the organization serves to enhance the effectiveness of the team and is categorized as compliance.

The behavior focused on individual benefits that contribute to the organization, aiming to achieve profitable organizational behavior is categorized as altruism (Williams & Anderson, 1991). As the paper mentions, organizations strive to give space to their employees in order to make their efforts successful. This idea is also supported by Smith, who was a seminal figure with her research that helped broaden the understanding of organizational citizenship behavior. Smith studied in depth the Hawthorne experiment and the outcomes of that research. Striving to develop her study further, she conducted some interviews with managers in manufacturing companies in the south of Indonesia. She asked them about the behaviors they expect from their employees, but are not able to ask them to do, as the reward they can give is not material just oral. Her findings showed that the praises to

the employees affected their performance by showing an increment of efficiency and effectiveness.

Moreover, Smith developed measurements for the organizational citizenship behavior such as “work on time in the morning or after the lunch break,” “help colleagues to complete the work when they are absent”, “voluntarily complete the tasks out of the official work requirements”, amongst others. Williams and Anderson (1991) explored the differences between altruism and compliance. Using the structural equation model to analyze data, their study helped proved the previous research done. As noted before, the organizational citizenship behavior is a reflection of a set of behaviors that involve compliance, showing signs of integrity and by being an active part of the process.

4.3.1. Theoretical Framework of Extra-Role

The discussion on the theories of supplementary work behaviors is bounded on relationships vis managers and their employees. When discussing the dynamics that follow up this process, this paper mentioned several examples of the importance of this set of extra-role performances for the organization. Within this line, the literature has provided theories that yield the nature of this employee-leader-coworkers relationship in order to inquire about its foundation. Katz and Khan (1966) with their organization theory proposed to compose OCB within a system that is open drawing in from Barnard (1928) theory of collaborative system to be later preceded by Maise (1965) who presented all of these behaviors to occur within a strict series of relationship that shares a rigid structure. Accordingly, if an employee lacks an arrangement of duties and has no supervisor guidance and leadership, it will tend to not contribute to the organization (Maise, 1965). Simply put, employees will not put extra effort, if the organizational structure doesn't show a cooperative nature.

Blau (1992) presented a perspective of how some of the exchange within the context of the workplace shifts with time. As described, employees perform their duties which in turn are not inseparable from other interactions that occur at that time. Adhering to social exchange agents, Blau elaborates that when an employee gets further contributions by the organization he/she works in, positive feelings of delivering more and going beyond the given duties arise (Blau, 1992). In this case,

leaders and their behaviors mediate in this process by showing their support and by enhancing certain organizational policies. However, the process is dual, since seeing that their employees are exceeding their in-roles with the extra workforce, initiates reciprocity among leaders of the organization.

Later theories adhered to roles and the self-elements attached to the roles employees occupy (Grube and Piliavin, 2000). According to the tenets of role identity theory, which is crucial for understanding behaviors that exceed in-role performance, role identities are good indicators for they accentuate the relationships of the group (Kahn et al., 1964) and describe the expectations stemming from these roles (Finkelstein & Penner, 2004). Subsequently, this theory also elaborates on how employees internalize other's employees' roles and what to expect from collegial roles. In line with this, studies have suggested that employees will engage in extra-roles due to external influence and motivation which in turn facilitates the process of preserving one's account and reputation among the group (Grant & Mayer, 2009). By internalizing a certain prosocial role, employees also get to integrate a positive-person or to be known as good employees which in turn, affects their behavioral and cognitive processes (Terry & Hogg, 1996). When presented as such, according to meet group expectations employees are incited to act and deliver extra-role performances (Finkelstein & Penner, 2004), and might as well, internalize the concept of themselves as a prosocial-citizen. As claimed by this theory, the more an employee will perform extra-role behaviors, the more the chance that he/she will appropriate that behavior as his/her identity (Penner et al., 1997; Bolino, 1999).

4.3.2. Extra-role performance as Citizenship behaviors

Performances that go beyond core given tasks, fall in the group of extra-role activities that are undertaken from members and workers of the firm (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). The sub-dimensions of this category of job performance, are principally initiated in a working context (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), which are focused on interpersonal interactions and undertaken to benefit the person or the group they are directed to. The dimensions of extra-role performance include a larger amount of behaviors than that of in-role behaviors and various sets that comprise these subdimensions.

Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Pane, and Bachrach (2000) provided several themes that consist of extra-role behaviors and are found in the working setting. Accordingly, they added numerous helping activities that occur between co-workers in order to facilitate the arising problems. Sacrificing personal interests for the benefit of the organization is known as sportsmanship and has also been mentioned as a part of these behaviors. Further concepts such as loyalty have also been identified as a theme for supporting the firm, whilst compliance presents the idea of how much an employee has internalized and accepted organizational rules and targets. This set also involves complying with the rules when no supervisor or coworker is around (Emami, Alizadeh, Nazari, Darvishi, 2012).

Another sub-component labeled under civic values presents the willingness and determination of the employees to participate in meetings and discussions, thus being part of organizational developments (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997).

Given these dimensions, literature has presented such activities to be proactive ones that help the individual and other co-workers to not only affect the organization but also occupying the role that of fulfilling by taking initiatives that prevent the organization risks. Five of these dimensions will be elaborated below, together with their theoretical underpinnings.

4.3.2.1. Organizational Citizenship Performance

Literature refers to all positive oriented behaviors that occur in the workplace as Organizational Citizenship Performance (OCB). This multifaceted set of employee discretionary performances antecedents comprises the silent undertaken duties that go beyond job requirements (Barbuto, Brown, Wilhite, & Wheeler, 2001) and contribute immensely in employee and organizational success. Organ (1988) was among the first researchers attempting to bring forward a concept proposition for OCB, considering it a vital component for organization outgrowth that allows maximized employee performance to occur in the workplace. The studies of Organ also enlarged the research on the concept which led not only to a better conceptualization of OCB but also augmented the research on other segments as its antecedents (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Walz & Niehoff, 1996) and its positive relationship with other positive

organizational factors, that before had an inaccurate scientific presentation (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2005).

The employees' disposition to improve their organization by showing extra job-effort denotes a multi-folded process (Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994). As a helpful behavior, OCB is not incited by supervisors. Neither do the employees who exhibit such prosocial behaviors, await for a reward, although supervisors acknowledge this activity by promoting, supporting and reaching their employees (Organ, 1988). Studies present OCB as an intrinsically self-motivated behavior (Organ & Ryan, 1995) undertaken by employees that have a sense of belonging, feel affiliated with the organization and strive toward achievements and their competence.

During the years, researchers have attempted to build the OCB concept by relating it with other job dimensions and behaviors. Van Dyne et al. (1994) defined OCB as an intended beneficial behavior that aims to organizational development and is mainly related to extra-role behaviors that are focused on organizational purposes. In line with this, Borman and Motowidlo (1997), related the OCB with the concept of contextual behavior which is associated with operations that go beyond the given task and involve voluntary activities.

Another realm of understanding the OCB nature was suggested by McClelland (1961) who scrutinized it as behavior driven by individual motives. According to this viewpoint, OCB has three dimensions: power, achievement and affiliation motives. The aspect of power involves controlling their actions and their work, as well as their colleagues' activities. The motive of achievement pushes employees to successfully complete their tasks, to perform excellently and seek challenges and contests. Lastly, the affiliation motive involves building and managing collegial relationships.

As a positive work-activity, Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) labeled OCB under altruistic and compliant behaviors. The dimension of altruism is related to providing assistance and facilitating others' needs. Whilst the other category of general compliant behavior is linked with doing the right things at the workplace.

Although the debate on OCB conceptualization continues, the researchers are in accordance that the multi-facets of this citizenship performance lay on positive and beneficial organizational outcomes (Walz & Niehoff, 1996; Wagner & Rush, 2000).

Thereafter, OCB has a positive relationship with organizational performance (Cardona, Lawrence, & Bentler, 2004) and is interlinked with other job-related-behaviors and dimensions that will be discussed subsequently.

4.3.2.2. Contextual Performance

As emphasized above, contextual performance is a consistent phenomenon across different jobs. Studies have highlighted that employee performance demands more than just oriented tasks (George & Brief, 1992; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). Further, besides completing the required duties, employees engage in indirect activities that facilitate the completion of organizational core tasks. The nature of these contributions sustains the psychological-social context (Van Dyne et al., 1995) and collegial cooperation improves the organization (Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

Literature has provided several concepts of contextual performance that similarly to the aforementioned taxonomy share a multidimensional nature. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) based their definition on the behavior itself - linking it with coworkers-cooperation, the relationship with the supervisors and customers and secondly associated it to performances that showed stamina and manifesting employee effort. Further, interpersonal assistance and work commitment were also acknowledged as compositions of contextual performance (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996) whilst personality characteristics were shown to be influential on contextual behaviors (Organ & Ryan, 1995).

Furthermore, Organ (1988) separated contextual behaviors into two groups, those that serve at the current moment and impact the organization's function such as OCB, spontaneous activities and other prosocial behaviors (George & Brief, 1992; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). At the same line, the other group involves behaviors that are activated and driven by employees which aim at advancing job base and other job-related processes.

As several studies suggest, employees' passion is translated into extra-efforts that they show when performing the non-required task and showing collegial cooperation. This employee determination, as the model by Campbell (1990) has proposed, includes a variety of jobs that are not prescribed in the contract and lead to

performing contextual performances (Kahn, 1990). Described also as behavior that embraces the spirit of the team, it also wraps other relational aspects such as sharing their concerns and making organizational problems visible (William, Swee-Lim, & Cesar, 2005). Employees that undertake contextual behaviors are also tended to bring happiness on their workplace (Cohen, & Bailey, 1999) and sustaining the passion and the enthusiasm (Boyt, Lusch, & Naylor, 2001) supporting colleagues and most importantly not letting the organization down (Coleman, & Borman, 2000).

4.3.2.3. Personal initiative

Various performances undertaken by employees start with self-initiative that are characterized by certain determination of managing job-obstacles (Fay & Frese, 2000). As noted by Frese, Kring, Soose, and Zempel (1996), personal initiatives present pro-active behaviors oriented towards bigger pro-organizational goals with their grounds on the self and not other authority or agent. As an extra-role behavior, it implies that Personal Initiative (PI) is not an assigned task so its construction is based on the targets set by the employee.

Research on this set of activities has focused on self-starting initiatives that help workers to create a goal that is distinguishable from the usual set of organizational tasks (Fay & Frese, 2000). However, it is noticed that any activity that employees take at the working-space is somehow related to organizational big goals. Therefore, when accounting PI as an extra-role behavior, the literature refers to some psychology that follows that act and is not the equivalent to in-role behaviors. Fay and Frese (2000) have referred to this distance as a psychological extend. For the behavior to be IP, it must foster the organization as a self-initiative and not derived from the leader's or supervisor's conversations in the office. Further, the behavior is PI if it presents an attempt that has a big psychological gap stemming from what is being discussed in the workplace.

The personal initiative has its base of what compounds such behaviors. In order for a behavior to be PI, it must include the features of actions that are proactive in their nature (Frese et al., 1996). Employees who are such initiators always have to control future suggestions and produce job-plans that counteract the occurrence of obstacles and problems that might occur. Thus, they are proactive agents for the

organization that at times might face their leader's rejection of their ideas. If the employee is persistent in showing the prepared strategy despite denial, then that makes that employee an initiator (Speier & Frese, 1997).

Conclusively, an employee shows personal initiative when being persistent and determined to do so. At times, these prosocial behaviors that benefit the organization involve acts of rebellion directed to the leaders or other members of the office. Persistence and pro-organizational goals are what makes a behavior to be PI and not another job-related activity.

4.3.2.4. Adaptive Performance

In a comprehensive view, adaptive performance encompasses all employee behaviors addressing workers' capacity to adapt to the dynamics and other complex work conditions (Austin, Villanova, Kane, & Bernadin, 1991; Hesketh & Neal, 1999). Onward, adaptive behaviors imply changing and modifying employees' duties accordingly to new terms and certain job demands (Pulakos, Arad, Donovan, & Plamondon, 2000). In line with these suggestions, an employee that engages with adaptive behaviors shows abilities to withstand to ambiguous and unusual work contexts that are not in line with every-day routine (Ashford, 1986). Such situations cover up a variety of conditions that stem from organizational innovations, priority and job source development and dealing successfully with emergent work-situations (Weiss, 1984).

Pulakos et al. (2002) suggested that employees' adaptivity to come up with innovative answers in order to handle problematic situations, is an indicator of successful adaptive performance that has investigated the ability to solve emerging problems as well. Another important interpersonal component found among work settings are the dynamics that entangle team projects. Employees that show good interpersonal behavioral skills adapt easier than the contrary. According to Bowen and Waldman (1999), intersocial versatility is a crucial factor in developing customer trust, enforcing contact, and improving interpersonal relationships. Moreover, socio-cultural flexibility is needed in a dynamic environment where an employee has to work across a diverse nationwide or worldwide setting (Noe & Ford, 1992) involving

here personality traits such as openness and respecting different cultural opinions (Charbonnier- Voirin & Roussel, 2012).

Numerous scholars have mentioned several behaviors that comprise this kind of job performance. Whether concerning individual phenomena or organizational conditions, adaptive performance comprises not only the above-mentioned behaviors but also hard work conditions such as the uncomfortable workplaces, inadequate climate conditions or noise (Fiedler & Fiedler, 1975).

Conclusively, for many organizations, successful adaptive performances are a strong asset that allows several employee skills to be appraised by the organization and to help the organization adjust and develop further.

4.3.2.5. Counterproductive Behavior

Despite the fact that most of the employees engage in positive behaviors benefiting their organizations, however, at times, some employees might perform against the rules and the organizational advantage. This set of behaviors is another well-defined construct of job performance that is presented under behaviors that affect the organization negatively. Distinguished also as “deviant behaviors” this set of counterproductive activities are intentional and infringe the standards and rules of the organization (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), whilst the accidental behaviors that might harm members or the organization, are not involved in the definition of counterproductive work behavior.

Paul & Wanek (1996) enlisted a list of three unproductive behaviors that happen at the workplace: damaging the property, abusing with substances and, showing violent behaviors at the workplace. Moreover, this set of behaviors is taken into account also from supervisors when assessing their employee job performance (Orr, Sacket, & Mercer, 1989). Employee deviance has also been described under behaviors that are associated with personality traits and harm the organization’s prosperity (Hollinger, Slora, & Terris, 1992). For instance, poor self-regulation and discipline (Campbell, 1990) aggressiveness signs (Borman & Brush, 1993) sabotage (Horning, 1970) or other activities that hurt other colleagues (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

Counterproductive behaviors are less familiar in workplace settings compared to other behaviors, but when occurring they have negative and serious consequences for the organization (Cohen, 2018) and are harder to deal with. The first set of these behaviors, labeled as ineffective behaviors are hard to discover at the workplace and once discovered, supervisors are challenged to find what incited the behavior thus making it difficult to prevent it in the future (Meyer, Kay, & French, 1965). Another form of CPB is absenteeism which is described as not going to the workplace. Two types of absenteeism follow this model: when employees justify their absenteeism and when employees don't have any reasons for not showing up at the workplace (Kohler & Mathieu, 1993). Studies on absenteeism have brought several gender examples on how women tend to not show up more often than man, due to their dual child-house care (Steel & Rentsch, 1995). Lastly, researchers have also tackled the employee tendency to turnover - described under employees' decision to quit the job (Jackofsky, 1984).

Conclusively, intention to turnover and forms of absenteeism are the most recurrent counterproductive sets, whists violent and maltreatment behaviors, followed with sexual harassment acts were less frequent models present in the workplace (Jex & Britt, 2014).

4.4. ANTECEDENTS OF EXTRA-ROLE PERFORMANCE

Researchers have established the main antecedents of ERP (George 1991; Kelley and Hoffman 1997; Bettencourt and Brown 2003) unfolded on several mentioned cases that incite this kind of performance. Investigation on extra-role performance antecedents has settled down on long-standing studies that centered on individual attitudes and supervisor traits (Smith 1983; Organ 1988) and continued expanding on other leadership activities (Podsakoff 1990; Williams, 1993). The current literature examines four main antecedents to extra-role performances and its forms: those that are related to individual features (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965) those of the characteristics of the task (Brown, 1996) organizational components (Koys, 2001) as well as leaders and their performance (Hollander, 1985). Subsequently, the then-main causes of extra-role behaviors brought up characteristics of the employees such as morale (Kahn & Katz, 1952) to be associated with satisfaction and how employees perceived fairness and supervisor stemming from their leaders. Moreover, the

elements that comprise the morale of an employee are the most important factors that cause citizenship employee behavior.

Research has shown morale to be linked also with further components that are part of personality traits and indirectly, rather than directly cause extra-role behaviors (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Behaviors as such, are caused by signs of agreeableness, positive or negative signs of affect and the component of conscientiousness, that together are good predictors that build up the relationship between colleagues and supervisors.

When considering employee mental abilities, role perceptions have been determined as another predictor associated with activities that involve extra-role behaviors. Even though not that abundant, the studies have found that the way employees perceive conflict and ambiguity in their roles is negatively associated with the presence of such performances, whilst facilitation and clarity in their roles are associated positively with the appearance of citizenship activities (Chahal & Mehta, 2010).

Shanteau (1992) has presented the variable of task characteristics to be related to the fact of whether or not an employee will undertake behaviors that go beyond in-role behaviors. Accordingly, different kinds of tasks and their characteristics, they are strongly connected with extra-role behaviors - OCB respectively. Further, task characteristics are also positively related to personality traits such as altruism, prosocial behaviors, which in turn boost extra-role behaviors. Studies have also found out a positive relationship between OCB and task characteristics, when given feedback on employees' performance and when employees performed duties that they find intrinsically pleasing. Whereas, tasks that are followed up with a daily-routine process, were found to have a negative relationship with citizenship behaviors.

Various antecedents are related to the characteristics of the organization (Hu & Liden, 2011) known as organizational characteristics. These series of antecedents have a mixed nature and do not show consistency with extra-role behaviors. However, some of their features such as cohesiveness of the group showed a positive relationship with signs of altruism, courteous acts and the factor of conscientiousness. Among these acts, conferring altruistic behaviors was closely related to employee perception of organizational care and support.

Leaders themselves are the crucial antecedent of extra-role employee behaviors, for they determine and impact the appearance of OCB (Zaccaro, Rittmas, & Marks, 2001). Leader's acts of showing support have a strong relationship with citizenship behaviors whilst influencing almost every other form of extra-role behaviors. According to Bass (1985), getting employees to perform extra-duties and exceed organizational anticipations is directly related to leaders showing traits of leadership. As social exchange theory suggests, there is a certain reciprocity norm appearing in the relationship between OCB and leadership traits (Graen and Scandura, 1987), particularly a supportive leader may influence the presence of extra-role behaviors through the aforementioned norm. Further, as studies suggest, if an employee will accept personal care from the leader, she/he will put additional work in the organization to assist the head of the firm. Other forms such as rewards - contingent ones - also impact the occurrence of extra-role performances (Ryan, Mims, & Koasnter, 1983), however, this antecedent needs further research in the future.

Research on OCB antecedents has not left behind personal and personality traits. Among them, the perception is very fundamental for contextual behaviors to appear. If an employee feels and senses that he/she is being handled justly by the organization, and perceives a sense of support stemming from it, they will undertake behaviors that are not part of given duties and that increase organizational success. Surprisingly, information and trust had a significantly strong relationship with OCB (Farh, Tsui, Xin, & Cheng, 1998) whereas a strong relationship was found among various work attitudes, leadership performance, task variable, and OCB (Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010) whilst a moderate relationship was found between employees education and citizenship behaviors (Ng & Feldman, 2009).

Citizenship behavior is prone to change depending on reward contingencies. When members of the team are conscious of the rewards the company gives based on their performance evaluation, there will be a major boost to their organizational citizenship behavior. Organization leaders who manage rewards contingencies based on employees' performance simultaneously with organizational citizenship behavior will experience an increase of citizenship behavior manifestation. This occurring pattern is not indicative of Organ's definition of organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1988), it is verifiable through MacKenzie et al. (1991, 1993, 1999) and Werner's (1994) research findings. The research shows that organizational citizenship

behavior plays a role in the decision-making process for rewards allocation. Moreover, employees themselves might consider organizational citizenship behavior as a constituent of performance. Hence, they put effort into improving both performance and citizenship behavior believing that it leads to a higher chance for rewards. These findings are supported by Robinson and Morrison's research (1994), which demonstrates that organizational citizenship behavior is most of the time anticipated to be taken into consideration.



CHAPTER 5

INTERACTION BETWEEN VARIABLES

In this chapter, the interaction between the variables of the study such as intrinsic motivation to in-role performance, intrinsic motivation to extra-role performance, employee engagement to in-role performance and employee engagement to extra-role performance are analyzed. These variables have been analyzed and discussed in the context of Kosovo.

5.1. STUDIES ON THE INTERACTION BETWEEN INTRINSIC MOTIVATION AND IN-ROLE PERFORMANCE

As several studies have addressed, both intrinsic and external motivation influence and mediate the employees' performance (Bowles & Polanía-Reyes, 2012), and according to this empirical evidence motivation is associated with positive organizational results. The empirical relationship between motivation and performance has been examined and noted by early theoretical scientists such as Maslow's theory of the hierarchy of needs (1954), Skinner's theory of reinforcement (1953), the expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), Goal-Theory by Locke and Latham (1979), Deci & Ryan's Self-Determination Theory (1985). The tenets of these earlier theories have provided a considerable extent of the research between motivation and performance. However, due to the vastness of their concepts, we will focus on presenting recent findings that exclusively examine the relationship between motivation and performance in various settings.

Recent studies such as Kiruja & Mukuru (2018) inquired about the relationship between motivation and employee performance by focusing on public institutions of technical training in the state of Kenya. The study involved a sample size of 315 selected managers, department leaders as well as teachers and non-teachers who underwent a Likert-scale questionnaire aiming to find the motivation effect on their performance while managers and department leaders were interviewed too. The results of the study revealed that employees' performance of this institution is influenced positively by their motivation with statistically significant results ($p\text{-value} < 0.05$).

Another qualitative study on how motivation influences the performance of employees conducted by Qadir, Saeed, & Khan (2017), used motivation as an independent variable while performance and organizational goals were dependent variables. Specifically, the study was carried out in public universities of Peshawar, among faculty affiliates, with a sample size of 513 participants where 150 were given 5 Likert-point and close-ended questionnaires. Based on correlation and regression analysis, the results indicated that motivation has a significant effect on performance as well as organizational results. Moreover, the results showed that there is a positive relationship between motivation and performance.

Muogbo (2013) explored the impact employee motivation has on organizational performance. The nature of the study was descriptive and obtained a cluster sample of 103 participants chosen from 17 organizations across Anambra, Nigeria. The analysis of the study revealed that employee motivation and organizational performance are related. The findings yielded the importance of rewards on motivating and enhancing employee's commitment and performance and also remuneration was found to be a feasible performance predictor among the firms.

The goal of this research carried out by Shahzadi, Javed, Pirzada, Nasreen, & Khanam (2014) was to find out what factors influence the motivation of the Pakistani employees and what is the effect of their motivation on their performance. The researchers collected data with a self-administered questionnaire from 160 public and private school teachers. The variables included employee motivation, performance, intrinsic rewards and employee perceived training effectiveness. The outcome of this study showed that there was a significant and positive relationship between the employee's motivation and performance. Moreover, this study also found out that intrinsic rewards have a significant positive relationship with the performance of the employee and motivation. It also concludes that the employee perceived training effectiveness is negatively related to their motivation.

Bellé (2013) tested the relationship between public service motivation known as PSM and job performance. The nature of the study was a field experiment carried out in Italy, among 90 nurses working in National Health Services. To investigate the job performance- PSM interplay and two other factors - the exposure to contact with beneficiaries and interventions of self-persuasion. The results of the study revealed

that the persistence of the participants, their output, vigilance and, productivity was positively affected by both treatments. Moreover, baseline public service motivation was a factor that strengthened these inquired effects. Finally, an increase was caused in PSM by both conditions, which in turn, served as a mediator between self-persuasion and the positive beneficiary contact effects on job performance.

Kuranchie-Mensah & Amponsah-Tawiah (2016) used the job satisfaction model to empirically examine motivation impact on employee performance. The study utilized the qualitative and quantitative exploratory methods and involved a sample of 248 employees among gold-mining industries in Ghana, in order to test their policies and other related factors of motivational mechanisms and approaches that are adopted by their firms. The findings suggested that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation impact employees - with an emphasis on payment as the best motivational aspect. The satisfaction of the employees led to improved performance.

Joo, Jeung, & Yoon (2010) examined the effects of job autonomy, intrinsic motivation, and core self-evaluations on the perception of employees' of their in-role work performance. The research involved 283 employees as the study sample and was carried out in Korean companies. Based on findings, employees who scored higher in self-evaluations and intrinsic motivation were shown to perceive higher in-role job performance. Further, the relationship between job performance and core self-evaluations was partially mediated by intrinsic motivation, was a full mediator of the relationship between job autonomy and job performance. Overall, the findings suggest that job-related factors and personality traits are contributors to the intrinsic motivation of the employees as well as their performance in the workplace.

Cerasoli, Nicklin, & Ford (2014) unfolded the discussion of whether motivation predicts performance by 9 meta-analysis studies that were conducted and involved more than a four decades review focusing on whether the presence of extrinsic rewards diminishes intrinsic motivation. By focusing on the previous research, the study presented the relationship between performance, intrinsic motivation and, extrinsic incentives. Two moderators were used as the study reference: the quality versus the quantity of performance type and incentive contingency; the saliency of direct and indirect performance. The findings indicated that motivation is a durable performance predictor and whether incentives were

presented, intrinsic motivation importance to performance endured its position. Moreover, incentives related directly to performance, intrinsic motivation showed less importance, but it predicted unique variance in performance quality. Incentives were shown to be a better predictor for the performance quantity. However, regarding the performance, intrinsic motivation and incentives were simultaneous and not antagonistic.

As the research shows, the motivational factors highly influence employee performance. It is the organization's aim and priority to ensure that its employees are suited and are provided with the necessary sources towards accomplishing their in-role or extra-role tasks. The public enterprise of Post and Telekom of Kosovo has around 3600 employees to date and provides postal and payment services, telecommunication services across the Republic of Kosovo.

In line with addressing the relationship between intrinsic motivation and employee performance, both in-role, and extra-role performance, we have developed two hypotheses in order to examine whether competence, autonomy and relatedness affect performance among the employees who work in the public enterprises of Post and Telecom of Kosovo. Further, due to the lack of studies that examine motivational factors in employee' performance in the context of Kosovo, we have developed H1 and H2:

The hypothesis regarding intrinsic motivation and In-role performance

H1: Intrinsic motivation has a positive effect on in-role performance

H1a: Competence need has a positive effect on in-role performance

H1b: Autonomy need has a positive effect on in-role performance

H1c: Relatedness need has a positive effect on in-role performance

The hypothesis regarding intrinsic motivation and extra-role performance

H2: Intrinsic motivation has a positive effect on Extra-role performance

H2a: Competence need has a positive effect on Extra-role performance

H2b: Autonomy need has a positive effect on Extra-role performance

H2c: Relatedness need has a positive effect on Extra-role performance

5.2. STUDIES ON THE INTERACTION BETWEEN INTRINSIC MOTIVATION AND EXTRA-ROLE PERFORMANCE

Shu (2015) explored the impact of leadership - both authoritarian and authentic - on work engagement amongst Chinese employees in Taiwan. Moreover, the study presented the effect of intrinsic motivation between engagement and leadership. The purpose of the research was to tackle the relationship and also to investigate the significance motivation has in leadership behaviors, as well as improve the bi-cultural Chinese worker's engagement. The study used the snowball sampling technique among 350 subordinate supervisors and applied SDT (Self Determination Theory) as the theoretical framework since its tenets elaborate on the ways intrinsic motivation affects engagement, performance or overall employee satisfaction. The results of the regression analysis showed that styles of leadership such as obedience were negatively linked to subordinates' engagement whilst the authentic style of leadership was related positively with work engagement. In line with SDT, the results showed that intrinsic motivation enhanced the positive relationship between the style of leadership that is authentic whilst buffers the reverse influence of authoritarian leadership on engagement.

Another study examining intrinsic rewards and their impact on engagement were conducted by Jacobs, Renard, & Snelgar (2014), focusing on the retail industry in a South African context. Using a quantitative method of research, the participants were selected with purposive sampling where 181 questionnaires were used as the sample for further analysis. Intrinsic motivation was conceptualized as meaningfulness, choice, competence, and progress whereas engagement was defined as dedication, vigor, and absorption. The Work Engagement Profile (WEP) was utilized in order to measure intrinsic motivation, while The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) was used to measure engagement. Further, the study aimed to research the impact of additional variables such as age and gender on intrinsic rewards and engagement. The results of the study presented evidence that when employees are given intrinsic rewards on a high level, they are more willing to be dedicated. WEP factors of intrinsic rewards had a positive and significant correlation with all three UWES factors of job engagement. The study presented statistically significant differences based on which results to be related positively with

engagement and competence. Gender differences were found to be significantly related only to competence - women showing a higher level of competence.

Tan, Lau, Kung, & Kailsan (2019) tested the intrinsic motivation mediating role as well as engagement role on the openness to experience and creativity relation. To examine this linkage, the variables were tested separately as in finding the indirect influence that openness has on creativity from motivation, from engagement and through motivation and creative process engagement afterward. With a sample of 200 students of Malaysian universities, the study showed that participants who scored high on openness reportedly had high levels of motivation. High levels of employee motivation, in turn, increased activities that were connected with creative processes. Conclusively, openness and creativity linkage within the workplace is mediated by creative engagement and intrinsic motivation.

Putra, Chi, & Lio (2017) conducted a study that investigated how extrinsic and intrinsic motivations affect work engagement in hospitality workers. The sample of this study included 143 people from 17 different restaurants in the US. Based on the results of this study, intrinsic motivation seems to have a very important role in an employee's engagement in their job. Additional findings suggested that the appearance of extrinsic motivation didn't influence intrinsic motivation. The study suggests that it is very important that employers understand that creating a comfortable environment for their employees will enlarge their intrinsic motivation, which would make employees more engaged at work in return.

Bakker & Bal (2010) tested the prediction that the teacher's weekly resources of the job such as physical, social or organizational ones have a positive relationship with their weekly engagement and in turn, that engagement is a predictor of work engagement based on a week level. Aiming to examine whether this engagement has a positive impact on the job resources of the next week, 54 Dutch teachers underwent weekly questionnaires for five weeks. Accordingly, the study results revealed that the display of autonomy, development opportunities as well as supervisors' exchange in week bases had a positive relationship to week-engagement and also was positively linked with week job performance. The momentary engagement was also found to have a positive linkage with next week's job resources.

In order to test whether intrinsic motivation impacts engagement we have developed the hypothesis (H3) regarding intrinsic motivation and employee engagement:

H3: Intrinsic motivation has a positive effect on employee engagement

H3a: Competence need has a positive effect on employee engagement

H3b: Autonomy need has a positive effect on employee engagement

H3c: Relatedness need has a positive effect on employee engagement

5.3. STUDIES ON THE INTERACTION BETWEEN EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT AND IN-ROLE PERFORMANCE

Reijseger, Peeters, Taris, & Schaufeli (2017) investigated the relationship between employee performance (in-role performance, extra-role performance, and counterproductive behaviors) and work engagement by examining how this relationship is mediated through open-mindedness. Two samples were used to test the hypothesis: a homogenous (N= 541) and a heterogeneous sample (N=308) of employees working in the factory of food processing, retail, and other related services. The model of mediation showed that there is a direct positive relationship between extra-role performance and in-role performance with engagement and also through open-mindedness effect. A positive relationship was also found between open-mindedness and in-role and extra-role performance, whilst engagement and counterproductive behaviors weren't related either positively or negatively. The counterproductive performance was found to be related positively with open-mindedness, whilst a direct negative linkage was found between open-mindedness with engagement and high levels of counterproductive employee performance.

When investigating employee engagement and its relationship with performance Shimazu, Schaufeli, Kamiyama, & Kawakami (2015) examined two work investment types: workaholism and engagement. Furthermore, they studied their relationship with job performance and employee well being. The study was conducted in Japan and had a sample of 1,196 participants. The results of this research presented that work engagement and workaholism had a weak and positive relationship, whereas workaholism was linked with an enhancement on unhealthiness and life-

satisfaction decrease. On the other hand, work engagement was significantly linked to increased satisfaction and work performance and, decreasing in unhealthiness. However, workaholism wasn't found to be linked significantly with a decrease in one's work performance.

Karatepe (2013) examined and proposed a model to investigate whether job engagement operates as a mediator of the effects of high-performance work practices on performance and extra-role customer services. The research was conducted in Romania context and involved a small sample size of 10 frontline employees and 5 hotel managers. The relationships were measured with LISREL 8.30 with the usage of SEM - structural equation modeling. According to regression analysis, the results implied that work engagement functions as a full-mediator of the effects of high-performance work practices. Moreover, the HPWPS availability displayed by rewards, empowerment or employees' training appraisal increased the engagement of the employee at the workplace, whilst such high practices of performance at work precipitated performance outcomes - job and extra-role performance.

Job crafting from employees has proven to be positively related to job performance and that coming through the engagement of employees at the workplace. The study of Tims, Bakker, Derks, & Van Rhenen (2013) tackled this relationship by hypothesizing that teamwork crafting is related positively to the performance of the team through the engagement of the team-work. The study was carried out among 525 employees on 45 teams performing health services. The study's findings were in line with the hypothesis; team job crafting and employees' performance showed an association through paths of sequential mediation. Specifically, job crafting was associated with performance in both the team and individual levels. Finally, additional findings of this current study showed support of previous studies that the team-behaviors and employees' feelings are linked with the ways how employees feel and perform at the workplace.

Another study carried out by Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) aimed to answer the primary question regarding the impact of work engagement on employee performance. The analyzed data comprised of 587 participants across a variety of organizations and industries revealed that work engagement had a small effect on employee performance. Work engagement was marked by dedication, vigor, and

absorption, as well as self-reported by using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-17) whilst performance, was conceptualized by in-role performance and assessed by colleagues and managers using a job performance measurement established by Williams and Anderson. The study used confirmatory factor and usefulness analysis and reported that work engagement had a semi-partial correlation with self-rated, supervisor rated and co-worker rated performance.

Ismail, Iqbal, & Nasr (2019) explored the relationship between job performance and employee engagement and tested whether creativity is a mediator between these two variables. The study was conducted in Lebanon, with a sample size of 186 participants. Bootstrapping methods drawing from analysis of mediation revealed that the relationship between employee engagement and job performance was fully mediated by creativity. Employee engagement also had a significant and positive effect on job performance.

Two hypotheses were developed to examine the effect of employee engagement on in-role and extra-role performance:

The hypothesis regarding Employee engagement and In-role performance

H4: Employee engagement has a positive effect on in-role performance

H4a: Vigor has a positive effect on in-role performance

H4b: Dedication has a positive effect on in-role performance

H4c: Absorption has a positive effect on in-role performance

The hypothesis regarding Employee engagement and Extra-role performance

H4: Employee engagement has a positive effect on Extra-role performance

H4a: Vigor has a positive effect on Extra-role performance

H4b: Dedication has a positive effect on Extra-role performance

H4c: Absorption has a positive effect on Extra-role performance

5.4. STUDIES ON THE INTERACTION BETWEEN EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT AND EXTRA-ROLE PERFORMANCE

Sedaghat, Abedin, Hejazi, & Hassanabadi (2011) tested a model that predicted and explained the impact of motivational elements on cognitive engagement and achievement. These elements involved the perceived ability, instrumentality as well as achievement goals. The study's sample was constituted of 1371 junior students of high school drawn with cluster sampling from 19 high schools across Tehran.

According to the findings, the analyzed data strongly supported the given model; academic achievement and cognitive engagement were predicted by perceived ability and instrumentality as well as achievement goals (where perceived ability and deep strategy use were positive and significant predictors of achievement, whilst achievement was predicted negatively and significantly by shallow energy as well as performance goal). The learning goal was found to be the only component that did not predict achievement. The perceived instrumentality and performance goals predicted shallow energy while learning goals and the perceived ability predicted deep strategy.

The purpose of the study conducted by Kuvaas & Dysvik (2009) was to investigate various aspects of work performance, such as the perceived investment in the workers' development as well as intrinsic motivation. The study that was led in Norway, involving 826 employees working on organizations showed that intrinsic motivation was a mediator of work investment and a mediator between the perceived investment and employee development. Additional findings of this research yielded that intrinsic motivation also moderated not only this relationship but also organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). This moderation had a positive relationship only for the employees that showed high levels of intrinsic motivation.

Furrer & Skinner (2003) investigated the role of relatedness as a self-system based source of academic motivation and performance. This longitudinal study was carried out with 641 children who completed self-reported questionnaires on their relatedness with social partners, their control in the academic field as their percept it and, engagement versus disaffection in the class. As expected, regression analysis showed that student's engagement was impacted by relatedness to parents, educators, and peers. Moreover, relatedness was linked to being a contributor to their emotional

engagement. When comparing gender, the study revealed that boys reported a lower relatedness than girls but their relatedness to their teachers was a more important engagement predictor for boys.

In line with the studies that tackle the dynamics of how selected aspects of motivation impact employee engagement and their performance, Ferinia, Yuniarsi, & Disman (2016) tested this relationship in Adventist hospital organizations in Indonesia among 435 nurses working in 4 different hospitals. The results revealed that satisfaction had a significant and positive influence on the need for achievement, performance had a significant and positive influence on the need for achievement, whilst, advocacy also had a positive and significant on satisfaction and that advocacy significantly and positively influenced performance.

Podlog, Gustafsson, Skoog, Gao, Westin, & Alricsson (2015) examined several SDT motivation types to see whether they mediate basic need satisfaction (relatedness, competence, and autonomy) and athlete engagement. The examined mediators to test this relationship were intrinsic motivation, external and identified regulation as well as amotivation. The study sample involved skiers from Sweden with 192 participants, aged from 15-20 years old. According to the mediation analysis findings, all four tested regulations were partial significant mediators between autonomy-support relationships. The regulations also completely mediated the relationship between engagement and relatedness - expect that of external regulation. The competence-engagement association was partly mediated by intrinsic motivation and identified regulation.

In addition, the following Research Questions have been developed:

RQ1: Are there any differences in terms of performance (In-role & Extra role)? According to demographical variables such as gender, marital status, education, organization, tenure, position?

5.5. STUDY VARIABLES IN THE CONTEXT OF KOSOVA

The following chapter will present the methodology of applying the study's variables such as motivation, engagement and employees' performance at work, in the

context of Kosovo and our case study, the application of the variables in the public companies of Post and Telecom of Kosovo.

The delivery of postal services in Kosovo dates back from 1950, when the Post, Telephone and Telegraph of Kosovo (PTT) was established, which later had operated in the system of Post and Telecom of Kosovo (PTK). Following the last war in Kosovo, which occurred in 1998 and 1999, Post and Telecom of Kosovo restarted their activities in May 2000 continued their activities of providing and delivering services based on UNMIK regulation No.12/99. In August 2012, the Government of the Republic of Kosovo made a decision and established the Post of Kosovo as a central public enterprise which was autonomous of Telecom of Kosovo and, currently these two companies operate as independent providers of services to consumers and businesses.

The Post of Kosovo develops its activities throughout the territory of Kosovo. This activity is delivered by 1039 employees in 137 post offices, expanded in all settlements of the Republic of Kosovo. Post of Kosovo currently offers several types of services such as the sale of mobile and fixed telephony services, international money transfer services, payment services of all varieties as well as the distribution of social schemes, and all sorts of postal services within and abroad the country. Through the quality raise of postal services and expansion of the range of other commercial services, the Post of Kosovo has a mission to be recognized for quality and reliability not only in the region but exceeding it by meeting the European Union's quality and standard requirements. Moreover its vision is to provide postal and other commercial services to citizens, businesses, institutions, as well as several organizations in the local and international market, by providing high standard and innovative services in step with market demands, along with the latest developments in information technology.

Telecom of Kosovo is another company that operates in the entire territory of Kosovo. This activity is carried out by 2500 employees assigned in all settlements of the Republic of Kosovo and are in charge of duties and responsibilities, according to their employment contract. Telecom of Kosovo is a company that provides numerous types of services such as mobile and fax telephony services, internet, television services, as well as other information technology services to consumers and

businesses. The Telecom of Kosovo mission is ‘To always be at the forefront of providing superior communication services that improve the lives of all Kosovars through the passion of our people and the use of the most up-to-date technology’, while its vision is ‘To be a driving force in enhancing the nation's prosperity and enriching the lives of all Kosovars’.

Post and Telecom of Kosovo have drafted internal enterprise policies that deal with employee motivation, job engagement, and job performance. Regarding the employee’s motivation and commitment at work, these companies have developed internal documents that motivate and engage their employees in delivering the financial targets as well as accomplishing the objectives and goals of these enterprises.

Regarding the employee’s performance, these companies have drafted policies that encourage the employees to deliver good job results. Moreover, these enterprises measure employee performance over a period of 3 months through software that has a performance management system. At the beginning of every 3 months, each employee is assigned with performance evaluation objectives and afterward his/ her performance is estimated based on the percentage of achievement of these objectives. Employees who show good performance at work are usually rewarded by companies with position advancement and other forms of motivation.

Study Findings from Albanian Authors Fatma Jakupi (2015), Marinela Teneqexhi (Polena) (2016), from the research on published studies in Kosovo within the field of human resources and organizational behavior for employee motivation, engagement, and performance at work, it is concluded that the literature is limited.

However, based on the literature research on the application of these variables in Albania, we have managed to identify 3 papers that are related to some of the variables of this study. The findings of these 3 studies are listed below. Specifically, studies include the factors that have influenced teachers' job satisfaction, the key factors of internal and external motivation (determining their significance) for employees, as well as building the relationships that exist between employee motivation, job satisfaction and work engagement in the public and private sector, through a mathematical model. The factors that influence employee engagement in the context of communication and organizational culture. By studying and

scrutinizing the findings listed above, we can conclude that this database serves to deepen the studies of the above factors in other employment sectors as well as to compare the findings of future studies that may be carried out in these sectors.

“Factors Influencing Job Satisfaction of Primary Education Teachers in Albania” by Fatmir Bezati (2012).

1. “Healthy Practices of Organizational Culture and Communication in Support of Employee Engagement” by Fatma Jakupi (2015).
2. “The Impact of Motivation and Satisfaction on Employee Engagement” by Marinela Teneqexhi (Polena) (2016).

The study “Factors Influencing Job Satisfaction of Primary Education Teachers in Albania”, by Fatmir Bezati, among others, aimed:

a) To measure the relationship between the general level of the teacher’s satisfaction and demographic characteristics of primary education teachers, in Albania such as age, gender, seniority in education, and the level of education.

b) To measure the relationship between the general satisfaction level of primary education teachers and the characteristics of the school and classroom, such as school location, teaching cycle and class size.

The population of this study was primary education teachers in Albania. In terms of the measurement of the overall level of satisfaction, this study showed that teachers are satisfied with the above-average with their work. Regarding the research question of what is the magnitude of the influence of different factors related to teacher performance on overall satisfaction level, the study data show that: the lowest correlation is the one between salary and job satisfaction and the highest correlation at the moderate level is that between problematic student behavior and job satisfaction. Moreover, the study shows there are also moderately positive correlations between school management, collegial relationships and job satisfaction. Meanwhile, there is a positive, weak but statistically significant correlation between physical working conditions and job satisfaction. The study also measured the relationship between the general satisfaction level of primary education teachers and the demographic

characteristics of teachers such as gender, age, seniority in education, level of education, and various aspects related to teacher performance in school.

Regression results showed that two variables reveal 5.6% of the variance of teachers' overall job satisfaction. It was found that the number of students in the classroom statistically significantly predicts overall job satisfaction, followed by school location. Further, the study did not show a statistically significant difference in the level of overall satisfaction between males and females. Satisfaction comes with increasing age. Teachers with more experience in education are more satisfied than teachers with less experience. Between the level of job satisfaction and the tendency to quit, there is a substantial, statistically significant, negative correlation. The lower the level of job satisfaction, the higher the tendency to quit. The results of the study also show that men are more likely to be fired than women. Younger age groups have a higher tendency to be fired than older age groups. Teachers with less seniority at work tend to be more likely to leave than teachers with more seniority at work.

The study “Healthy Practices of Organizational Culture and Communication in Support of Employee Engagement” by Fatma Jakupi, aimed to examine the role of organizational culture and communication practices in employee engagement. This study concluded that organizational culture has a statistically significant impact on employee engagement in the financial system. Organizational communication has a statistically significant impact on employee engagement in the financial system. Organizational communication has an impact almost twice as great as organizational culture in predicting employee engagement. The study concluded that there were differences in the engagement of employees with different demographic profiles (such as gender, education, and experience in the organization) and the activity they performed, except for gender, which was an element that did not affect work engagement. Employees with higher levels of engagement were employees of insurance companies. The research also concluded that gender does not affect employee engagement. Finally, education level, age, and work experience have a positive impact on employee engagement, whilst lower and middle managers resulted in higher engagement rates than senior managers.

The study “The Impact of Motivation and Satisfaction on Employee Engagement” by Marinela Teneqexhi (Polena) aimed at identifying the key factors of

internal and external motivation (by determining their importance) for employees as well as to build the relationships that exist between motivation, satisfaction and job engagement of employees in the public and private sectors through a mathematical model. Therefore, 383 public and private sector employees in the Korça Prefecture participated in this study. Specifically, 59.5% (228) of the study participants were employees of the public sector, and 40.5% (155) of them were private-sector employees. From the study of factors ranking by sector classification (public, private), the salary was the most important rated motivating factor in both sectors (10), whilst the least important was the supervisor's assistance in personal problems (1). Another classification of employees was made according to the current position in the organization (managers and non-managers). The factor rankings results showed that both groups of employees there were no differences in the rankings of the most rated and least rated factors. The most important motivating factor was salary (10), job guarantee (9), and the least important was the supervisor's assistance in personal problems (1). The following results obtained from the correlation relationships between the independent variables of this study by Pearson's correlation coefficient, the correlation between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is stronger in the public sector ($r = 0.507$) compared with that in the private sector ($r = 0.159$). The correlation between motivation and job satisfaction is stronger in the public sector ($r = 0.704$) than in the private sector ($r = 0.434$). Finally, regression models revealed more significant impacts of motivation and satisfaction variables on job engagement in the public sector rather than in the private sector.

We conclude that this paper is unique and one of its kind in Kosovo and, believe that the scientific findings of this study will serve for further research on the application of these variables in different institutions of the Republic of Kosovo.

CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD

Within this chapter, the population and sampling of the research study, as well as access to the respondents, have been explored and explained. On the other hand, the research model and study hypotheses have been built. Furthermore, the questionnaires of the study identified and performed confirmatory factor analysis, correlation analysis, descriptive statistical analysis, regression analysis, and difference analysis.

6.1. RESEARCH POPULATION AND SAMPLING

For this study, the research population represents employees of public companies Post and Telekom of Kosovo. The sampling frame has been defined from the list of employees who are employed in the Post and Telekom of Kosovo. The data were collected from the responding companies' headquarters in collaboration with the general management and HR department of each company after getting the required permissions from the managers. Both companies Post and Telekom of Kosovo responded positively to the research.

6.1.1. Sample Size

Determining the sample size is a rather critical and diverse task (Kalleberget *et al.*, 1990). If the size of the sample is minor than the planned size may lead towards fewer convergence, inappropriate results and minor exactness of constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2003). Alternatively, if the size of the sample is too large, it might be time-consuming, and expensive to obtain the data (Zikmund, 2002; Hair *et al.*, 2003; Bryman and Bell, 2011). Therefore, it is critical to determine the size of the sample which could provide generalized and reliable results for the entire population.

This study uses the sample size determined by following the guidelines of Krejcie and Morgan (1970). Both of them published an article for determining the sample size to be representative of a given population. According to Krejcie and Morgan, if the total population is 4000 participants, then the sample size would be a

minimum of 351. As the population of this study was 3,728, the researcher distributed 1,193 questionnaires through the HR departments of the respective companies. We used a convenience sampling methodology in conjunction with our research purpose. For each of the companies, an equal number of 596 questionnaires were distributed, regardless of employees' demographics. Finally, the number of returned valid questionnaires from the participants was 394, or a return rate of 33.89 % from the targeted population.

6.1.2. Access to Respondents

As discussed earlier, the data were collected from the respondents in cooperation with HR managers of respective companies. In this regard, initial contact was made with HR managers of the public companies in Kosovo, notifying them about the purpose of the study and the manifold positive impact of this study to various stakeholders in respective public companies. The HR managers of the companies were informed that besides the contributions in the scientific aspect, this study can provide benefits for companies in general and management and employees in particular. Subsequently, the communication was maintained with HR managers of the respective companies who contacted the respondents and managed the distribution and collection of the questionnaires.

Initially, it was organized a meeting with the Directors of all departments with whom the questionnaires were discussed in detail, then each of them distributed the questionnaires to the employees of their departments. After the employees have completed the questionnaires, they have handed over the closed envelopes to their directors. Then all the departments sent the questionnaires to the Human Resources Department.

6.2. RESEARCH MODEL AND THE HYPOTHESES

A model has been created to reveal The Impact of Intrinsic motivation and Employee Engagement on in-role and extra-role Performance. In the model, Intrinsic motivation is the independent variable, Employee engagement is both an independent and dependent variable based on the related hypotheses, and In-role and Extra-role

Performance are the dependent variables. The model used in the research is shown in Figure 2.

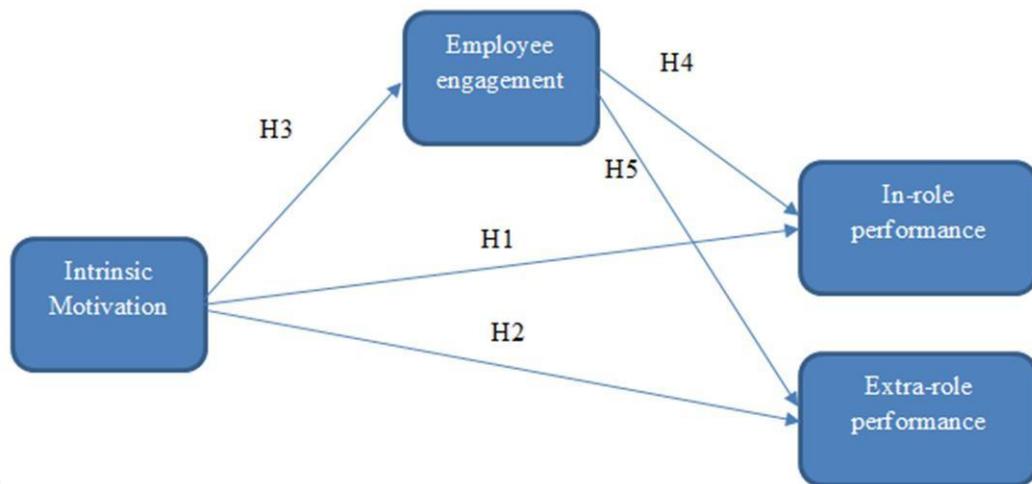


Figure 2. Research Model

Research hypotheses are as follows:

- **The hypothesis regarding Intrinsic motivation and In-role performance**

H1: has positive effect on in-role performance

H1a: Competence need has a positive effect on in-role performance

H1b: Autonomy need has a positive effect on in-role performance

H1c: Relatedness need has a positive effect on in-role performance

- **The hypothesis regarding Intrinsic motivation and Extra-role performance**

H2: Intrinsic motivation has a positive effect on Extra-role performance

H2a: Competence need has a positive effect on Extra-role performance

H2b: Autonomy need has a positive effect on Extra-role performance

H2c: Relatedness need has a positive effect on Extra-role performance

- **The hypothesis regarding Intrinsic motivation and Employee engagement**

H3: Intrinsic motivation has a positive effect on Employee engagement

H3a: Competence need has a positive effect on Employee engagement

H3b: Autonomy need has a positive effect on Employee engagement

H3c: Relatedness need has a positive effect on Employee engagement

- **The hypothesis regarding Employee engagement and In-role performance**

H4: Employee engagement has a positive effect on in-role performance

H4a: Vigor has a positive effect on in-role performance

H4b: Dedication has a positive effect on in-role performance

H4c: Absorption has a positive effect on in-role performance

- **The hypothesis regarding Employee engagement and Extra-role performance**

H5: Employee engagement has positive effect on Extra-role performance

H5a: Vigor has a positive effect on Extra-role performance

H5b: Dedication has a positive effect on Extra-role performance

H5c: Absorption has a positive effect on Extra-role performance

In addition, the following Research Questions have been developed

- *RQ1: Are there any differences in terms of performance (In-role & Extra role)? According to demographical variables such as gender, marital status, education, organization, tenure, position?*

6.2.1. Instruments

6.2.1.1. Demographics scale

The first scale in the questionnaire was designed to assess some demographic variables as shown in Appendices 1. Specifically, the respondents were asked about their age, gender, marital status, educational background, name of the organization, current tenure in the organization, and job position in the current organization.

The reason behind exploring demographic variables is that they are possible controlled variables for this study and they need to be taken under consideration while conducting the analysis. Demographical characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, education, organization, tenure, and job position are correlated with our dependent variables such as In-role and extra-role performance. Also, these

demographic variables were included in this research, aiming to answer the following research question: “Are there any differences in job performance (In-role & Extra role) according to demographical variables such as gender, marital status, education, position, tenure?”

6.2.1.2. Intrinsic motivation Scale

For measuring Intrinsic motivation we have developed a scale following the (Deci, Ryan, Gagné, Leone, Usunov, & Kornazheva, 2001; Ilardi, Leone, Kasser, & Ryan, 1993; Kasser, Davey, & Ryan, 1992). In their study, Intrinsic motivation was constructed into three functions; (1) Autonomy; (2) Competence; and (3) Relatedness. The scale consists of 21 items that assess the extent to which employees experience the satisfaction of their three intrinsic needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness in their job. This scale was based on one used by Deci and Ryan, (1993) which had reported reliabilities above .89 for all three dimensions. The distribution of items to dimensions is shown in Table 1.

We have translated this scale from English language to Albanian language using the method developed by Brislin et al. (1973). The translation method used in this process consists of the first translation of the target language, evaluation of the first translation, re-translation to the source language, re-evaluation of the translation and referral to expert opinions (Brislin, 1986: 137). In the first step, the scale changed into translated from English to Albanian independently by two professionals whose level of target language was the mother tongue. In the second step, independent translations had been performed right into a single textual content via examining the combined theoretical meaning and understandability with the aid of a university lecturer within the field of HRM. Within the third step, the translation scale has been translated back into the source language by means of specialists whose degree of English is professional proficiency. The translations obtained within the fourth step were checked and compared to the authentic scale with the scale received from the interpretation process and the essential corrections were made. In the last step, an HRM researcher who has Ph.D. was asked to make a general assessment of the scale in terms of its suitability of theoretical content and adequacy of meanings of items. The evaluation of the scale resulted in positive feedback.

Table 1. Multidimensional Intrinsic motivation Scale

Multidimensional Intrinsic motivation Scale		
1	I feel like I can make a lot of inputs to deciding how my job gets done. Unë besoj që mund të jap një kontribut të madh për të vendosur se si mund të kryhet puna ime.	Autonomy
2	I feel pressured at work. Unë ndihem nën presion kur jam në punë	
3	I am free to express my ideas and opinions on the job. Unë ndihem i lirë të shpreh idetë dhe mendimet e mia kur jam në punë.	
4	When I am at work, I have to do what I am told. Kur jam në punë, me duhet të bëj atë që më është thënë.	
5	My feelings are taken into consideration at work. Ndjenjat e mia merren në konsideratë në punë.	
6	I feel like I can pretty much be myself at work. Ndihem sikur mund të jem vete- vetja ime në punë.	
7	There is not much opportunity for me to decide for myself how to go about my work. Nuk kam shumë mundësi që të vendos vetë se si të bëj punën time.	
8	I do not feel very competent when I am at work. Unë nuk ndihem shumë kompetent kur jam në punë	Competence
9	People at work tell me I am good at what I do. Kolegët e punës me thonë që unë jam i mirë në atë që e bëjë.	
10	I have been able to learn interesting new skills on my job. Unë kam qenë në gjendje të mësoj aftësi dhe shkathtësi të reja dhe interesante në punën time.	
11	Most days I feel a sense of accomplishment from working. Shumicën e ditëve ndiej një ndjenje mirënjohje (arritje) nga puna që e bëjë	
12	On my job I do not get much of a chance to show how capable I am. Në punën time unë nuk kam shumë mundësi për të treguar se sa i aftë jam.	
13	When I am working I often do not feel very capable. Kur unë jam duke punuar, shpesh nuk ndihem shume i shkathët.	Relatedness
14	I really like the people I work with. Me pëlqejnë njerëzit me të cilët punoj	
15	I get along with people at work. Unë shoqërohem kaloj mirë me njerëz kur jam në punë.	
16	I pretty much keep to myself when I am at work. Unë kryesisht shmangem dhe rri vetëm kur jam në punë.	
17	I consider the people I work with to be my friends. Unë i konsideroj njerëzit me të cilët punoj si shokët e mi.	
18	People at work care about me. Njerëzit në punë kujdesen për mua.	
19	There are not many people at work that I am close to. Nuk ka shumë njerëz në punë me të cilët ndjehem i afërt.	
20	The people I work with do not seem to like me much. Njerëzit me të cilët punoj, nuk më duan shumë	
21	People at work are pretty friendly towards me. Njerëzit në punën time janë shume miqësorë ndaj meje.	

The scale questions were prepared for obtaining the data and the participants were asked to circle the number that best fits their opinion, regarding the application of intrinsic motivation in their organization. All items used a five-point rating scale labeled by (1) Never, (2) Rarely, (3) Sometimes, (4) Very often, and (5) Always. The design of the questionnaire is shown in Appendix 1.

Confirmatory factor analysis was performed by using SPSS AMOS 23 statistics program for validity of the multidimensional Intrinsic motivation scale. For CFA maximum likelihood estimation method was employed with following the results of the explanatory factor analysis. The fit indices used for the interpretation of the values obtained from the analysis are shown in Table 2, (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Müller, 2003: 52, Marsh & Hocevar, 1985; 567). According to Hu and Bentler (1998), the referent indexes for the goodness of fit model are as follows: Ratio of Chi-square to Degree of Freedom (χ^2/df), The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI).

Table 2. Fit Indices of Confirmative Factor Analysis

Statistics	Perfect fit	Acceptable fit
χ^2/df	$0 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 2$	$2 < \chi^2/df \leq 5^*$
RMSEA	$0 \leq RMSEA \leq .05$	$.05 < RMSEA \leq .08$
TLI	$.95 \leq TLI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq TLI \leq .95$
CFI	$.95 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq CFI \leq .95$

χ^2 =Chi-Square; df=Degree of Freedom, RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index, According to Schermelleh-Engel, K., Moosbrugger, H., & Müller, H. (2003), *Marsh & Hocevar, (1985), ** Hu & Bentler (1998)

In the first step, we examined the original 21-item structure of the scale. The results of the first CFA analysis of the original scale (from Table 3, $\chi^2 = 1170.491$, $p < .000$, $df = 186$, $\chi^2/df = 6.293$, $RMSEA = .116$, $TLI = .691$, $CFI = .726$) show that the values are not acceptable for confirming the proposed structure based on fit limits in Table 2. Therefore the modification values recommended by the program are examined. In the light of these values, it is revealed that items 5 (“*I feel pressured at work.*”), 8 (“*I am free to express my ideas and opinions on the job.*”), 11 (“*When I am*

at work, I have to do what I am told”), 20 (“There is not much opportunity for me to decide for myself how to go about my work”), 6(“I get along with people at work”),7(“I pretty much keep to myself when I am at work”),15(“ People at work care about me”),16(“There are not many people at work that I am close to”),18(“The people I work with do not seem to like me much”),19(“When I am working I often do not feel very capable”), 14(“On my job I do not get much of a chance to show how capable I am”)and 3 (“ I do not feel very competent when I am at work”) which are causing inconsistency, were not understood adequately by the respondents. Hence, we modified the factor structure. After these modifications, the model fit statistics reached acceptable levels for the confirmation (Table 3).

Table 3. CFA results of the Intrinsic motivation Scale

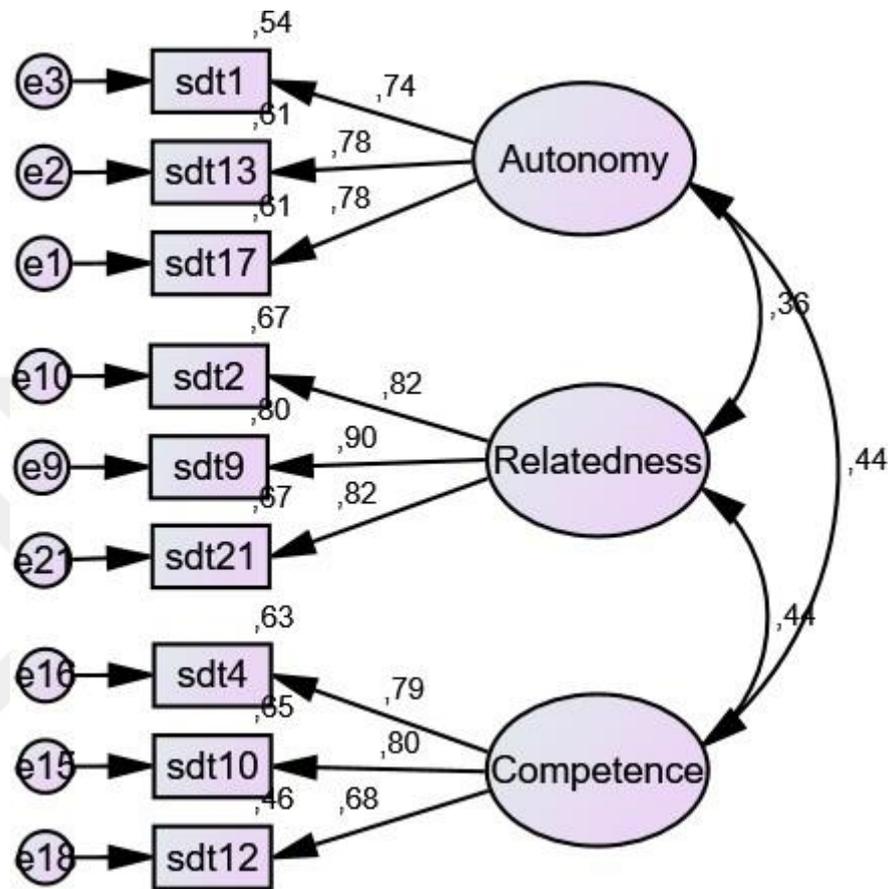
	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Original model	1170.491	186	6.293	.116	.691	.726
Modified model	64.637	24	2.693	.066	.961	.974

χ^2 =Chi-Square; df=Degree of Freedom, RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index

In the interpretation of the results from the modified model in the second row in Table 3, the ratio of chi-square statistics to degrees of freedom (χ^2/df) was found as 2.693. In the case of Goodness Model (Hoe 2008: 78), especially in cases where the number of samples exceeds 200, other compliance values are examined in the light of the recommendations that there is not a very healthy reference. The mean square root of the approximate errors (RMSEA) .06; the Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) value was found to be .96 and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) was found to be within the acceptable range of .97. Based on the provided values from the first modified model, it is seen that the model has reached the desired fit index values.

The correlation coefficients between the factor loadings and the factors obtained by taking the factor structure as a result of the analysis are shown in Figure 3. When the shape is examined, it is seen that the factor loadings of the dimensions formed as a result of confirmatory factor analysis vary between .46 and .80. These

results indicate that the data obtained in the study confirmed the 3-factor structure of the multidimensional Intrinsic motivation scale. Thus, sufficient evidence is provided for the structural validity of the scale.



Note: The values near to the two-headed arrows show the correlations, the values near to the one-headed arrows show the factor loadings, and the values near the rectangles show the proportion of the variances explained by items.

Figure 3. Factor Structure of the Intrinsic motivation Scale.

For the reliability of the scale Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were found as .80 for Autonomy .88 for Relatedness, and .79 for Competence sub-dimension. The total scale coefficient for Intrinsic motivation scale was .83 and these values showed the reliability of the scale (Table 4).

Table 4. Reliability test for Intrinsic motivation scale

Sub dimension	Cronbach's Alpha	N of items
Autonomy	.809	3
Relatedness	.880	3
Competence	.797	3
Total scale	.830	9

6.2.1.3. Employee engagement Scale

For measuring the Employee engagement we have developed a scale following the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), (Schaufeli, Salanova, et al., 2002), who developed the scales with 24 items, but after psychometric evaluation, 7 unsound items were eliminated, so the total of 17 items remained in three sub-dimensions. In our study, we have used a shortened version of the Engagement Scale based on Schaufeli and Bakker (2003), which comprises of 9 items scales. This scale measures the Employee engagement scale in 3 dimensions. The scale consists of 9 items grouped into three dimensions: Vigor, Dedication, and Absorption. The Multidimensional Employee engagement Scale is presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Multidimensional Employee engagement Scale

Multidimensional Employee engagement Scale		
1	At work, I feel I am bursting with energy. Në punë, unë ndihem me plot energji.	Vigor
2	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous. Në punë, unë ndihem i fuqishëm dhe energjik.	
3	When I get up in the morning, I feel I like going to work. Kur zgjohem në mëngjes, ndiej kënaqësi për të shkuar në punë.	
4	I am enthusiastic about my job. Unë jam entuziast për punën time.	Dedication
5	My job inspires me. Puna ime më inspiron.	
6	I am proud on the work that I do. Jam krenar për punën që bëjë	Absorption
7	I feel happy when I am working intensely. Ndhem i lumtur kur punoj intensivisht.	
8	I am immersed in my work. Unë jam i angazhuar në punën time.	
9	I get carried away when I am working. Ndhem i lumtur dhe koha me ecën shpejte kur jam duke punuar.	

We have translated this scale from the English language to Albanian language using the method developed by Brislin et al. (1973). The translation method used in this process consists of the first translation of the target language, evaluation of the first translation, re-translation to the source language, re-evaluation of the translation and referral to expert opinions (Brislin, 1986: 137). In the first step, the scale changed into translated from English to Albanian independently by two professionals whose level of target language was the mother tongue. In the second step, independent translations had been performed right into a single textual content via examining the combined theoretical meaning and understandability with the aid of a university lecturer within the field of HRM. Within the third step, the translation scale has been translated back into the source language by means of specialists whose degree of English is professional proficiency. The translations obtained within the fourth step were checked and compared to the authentic scale with the scale received from the interpretation process and the essential corrections were made. In the last step, an HRM researcher who has Ph.D. was asked to make a general assessment of the scale in terms of its suitability of theoretical content and adequacy of meanings of items. The evaluation of the scale resulted in positive feedback.

For the scale questions prepared for obtaining the data, the participants are asked to circle the number that best fits their perception regarding the application of Employee engagement in their organization. A five-point rating scale labeled by (1) Never, (2) Rarely, (3) Sometimes, (4) Very Often, and (5) Always. The design of the questionnaire is shown in Appendix 1.

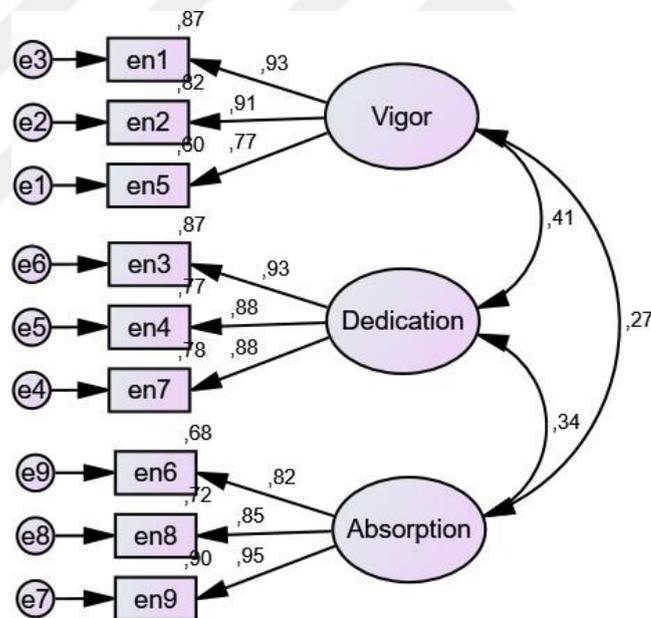
For the validity of the scale, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted using Amos 23 program. The maximum likelihood estimation method was employed for the estimation. We examined the original 9-item structure of the scale. The results of the first CFA analysis of the original scale (from Table 6, $\chi^2 = 80.325$, $p < .000$, $df = 24$, $\chi^2/df = 3.347$, $RMSEA = .077$, $TLI = .968$, $CFI = .979$). Based on the provided values from the first model, it is seen that the model has reached the desired fit index values.

Table 6. CFA results of the Employee Engagement Scale

	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Original model	80.325	24	3.347	.077	.968	.979

χ^2 =Chi-Square; df=Degree of Freedom, RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index

The correlation coefficients between the factor loadings and the factors obtained by taking the factor structure as a result of the analysis are shown in Figure 4. When the shape is examined, it is seen that the factor loadings of the dimensions formed as a result of confirmatory factor analysis vary between .62 and .90. These results indicate that the data obtained in the study confirmed the 3-factor structure of the multidimensional Employee engagement scale. Thus, sufficient evidence is provided for the structural validity of the scale.



Note: The values near to the two-headed arrows show the correlations, the values near to the one-headed arrows show the factor loadings, and the values near the rectangles show the proportion of the variances explained by items.

Figure 4: Factor Structure of the Employee engagement Scale

For the reliability of the scale, Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were found as .90 for Vigor, .90 for Dedication, and .90 for Absorption sub-dimension. The total

scale coefficient for the Employee engagement scale was .85 and these values showed the reliability of the scale (Table 7).

Table 7. Reliability test for Employee engagement scale

Sub dimension	Cronbach's Alpha	N of items
Vigor	.902	3
Dedication	.902	3
Absorption	.905	3
Total scale	.855	9

6.2.1.4. In-Role and extra-role Performance Scale

For measuring the in-role performance and extra-role performance we have developed a scale following the Organ (1983), Graham (1986), Organ (1988), O'Reilly and Chatman (1986). The multidimensional Job performance scale consists of 21 items and measures the Job performance scale in 2 dimensions: In-role performance and extra-role performance. The multidimensional Job performance scale is shown in Table 8.

Table 8. Multidimensional Job performance Scale

Multidimensional Job performance Scale		
1	Adequately completes assigned duties. Përfundoni detyrat e caktuara në mënyrë adekuate.	In-role Performance
2	Fulfils responsibilities specified in job description. Unë përmbushë përgjegjësitë e specifikuar në përshkrimin e vendit të punës.	
3	Performs tasks that are expected of him/her. Unë kryej detyrat të cilat priten të kryhen nga ana ime	
4	Meets formal performance requirements of the job. Unë përmbushë kërkesat formale të performancës në punë.	
5	I Engage in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation. Unë angazhohem në aktivitete të cilat ndikojnë në mënyrë direkte në vlerësimin e performancës sime në punë.	
6	Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligates to perform. Unë i neglizhoj aspektet e punës për të cilat jam i obliguar ti kryej	
7	Fails to perform essential duties. Unë dështoj t'i kryej detyrat themelore.	

8	Helps others who have been absent. Unë i ndihmoj kolegët e punës të cilët kanë munguar në punë.	Extra-role Performance
9	Helps others who have heavy workloads. Unë i ndihmoj të kolegët e punës të cilët janë të mbingarkuar me punë.	
10	Assists supervisor with his/her work (when not asked). Unë e ndihmoj mbikëqyrësin me punën e tij/saj (edhe kur nuk kërkojnë ndihmë)	
11	I Take time to listen to co-workers problems and worries. Unë gjej kohë për të dëgjuar problemet dhe shqetësimet e kolegëve të punës.	
12	I go out of way to help new employees. Unë angazhohem përtej obligimeve të mia për të'i ndihmuar punëtorët e rinjë të ndërmarrjes.	
13	Takes a personal interest in other employees. Unë tregoj një interesim personal për të ndihmuar të tjerët.	
14	I Pass along information to co-workers. Unë ndaj informacione me kolegët e punës.	
15	My attendance at work is above the norm. Ardhja ime në punë është është përtej kontratës (normës) së punës.	
16	I give advance notice when I am unable to come to work. Unë i njoftoi paraprakisht kur nuk mund të vijë në punë.	
17	I take undeserved work breaks. Unë marr pauza të pa merituar në punë.	
18	I spend great deal of time with personal phone conversation. Unë kaloj një kohë të gjatë duke biseduar në telefon për çështje personale.	
19	I complain about insignificant things at work. Unë ankohe për gjëra të cilat janë të pa rëndësishme në punë.	
20	I conserve and protect organization property. Unë ruaj dhe mbroj pronën e organizatës.	
21	I adhere to informal rules devised to maintain order. Unë ju përmbahem rregullave jo-formale për të ruajtur rendin në ndërmarrje.	

The scale above was translated from the English language to Albanian language using the method developed by Brislin et al. (1973). The translation method used in this process consists of the first translation of the target language, evaluation of the first translation, re-translation to the source language, re-evaluation of the translation and referral to expert opinions (Brislin, 1986: 137). In the first step, the scale changed into translated from English to Albanian independently by two professionals whose level of target language was the mother tongue. In the second step, independent translations had been performed right into a single textual content

via examining the combined theoretical meaning and understandability with the aid of a university lecturer within the field of HRM. Within the third step, the translation scale has been translated back into the source language by means of specialists whose degree of English is professional proficiency. The translations obtained within the fourth step were checked and compared to the authentic scale with the scale received from the interpretation process and the essential corrections were made. In the last step, an HRM researcher who has Ph.D. was asked to make a general assessment of the scale in terms of its suitability of theoretical content and adequacy of meanings of items. The evaluation of the scale resulted in positive feedback.

For the scale questions prepared for obtaining the data, the participants are asked to circle the number that best fits their perception regarding the application of Employee engagement in their organization. A five-point rating scale labeled by (1) Never, (2) Rarely, (3) Sometimes, (4) Very Often, and (5) Always. The design of the questionnaire is shown in Appendix 1.

For the validity of the scale, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted using Amos 23 program. The maximum likelihood estimation method was employed for the estimation. The CFA results of the original scale ($\chi^2 = 568.009$, $p < .000$, $df = 188$, $\chi^2/df = 3.021$, $RMSEA = .072$, $TLI = .718$, $CFI = .748$) show that the values are not acceptable for confirming the proposed structure based on fit limits in Table 2. Therefore the modification values recommended by the program are examined. In the light of these values, it is revealed that items 6, (“*Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform*”), 7 (“*Fails to perform essential duties*”), 7 (“*Helps others who have been absent*”), 16 (“*Gives advance notice when unable to come to work*”), 17 (“*Takes undeserved work breaks*”), 18 (“*Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversation*”), 19 (“*Complains about insignificant things at work*”), 20 (“*Conserves and protects organization property*”), 21 (“*Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order*”). which are causing inconsistency, were not understood adequately by the respondents. Hence, we modified the factor structure. After these modifications, the model fit statistics reached acceptable levels for the confirmation (Table 9).

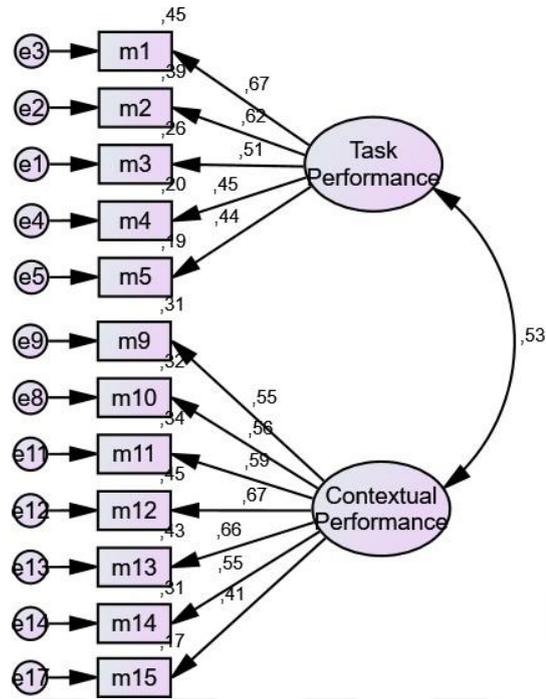
Table 9. CFA results of the Job performance Scale

	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Original model	568.009	188	3.021	.072	.718	.748
Modified model	137.518	53	2.595	.064	.885	.908

χ^2 =Chi-Square; *df*=Degree of Freedom, RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index

In the interpretation of the results from the modified model in the second row in Table 9, the ratio of chi-square statistics to degrees of freedom (χ^2/df) was found as 2.595. In the case of Goodness Model (Hoe 2008: 78), especially in cases where the number of samples exceeds 200, other compliance values are examined in the light of the recommendations that there is not a very healthy reference. The mean square root of the approximate errors (RMSEA) .06; the Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) value was found to be .88 and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) was found to be within the acceptable range of .90. Based on the provided values from the first modified model, it is seen that the model has reached the desired fit index values.

The correlation coefficients between the factor loadings and the factors obtained by taking the factor structure as a result of the analysis are shown in Figure 5. When the shape is examined, it is seen that the factor loadings of the dimensions formed as a result of confirmatory factor analysis vary between .17 and .45. These results indicate that the data obtained in the study confirmed the In-role and extra-role scale. Thus, sufficient evidence is provided for the structural validity of the scale.



Note: The values near to the two-headed arrows show the correlations, the values near to the one-headed arrows show the factor loadings, and the values near the rectangles show the proportion of the variances explained by items.

Figure 5: Factor Structure of the Intrinsic motivation Scale

For the reliability of the scale, Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were found as .66 for In-role performance .76 for Extra-role performance sub-dimension. The total scale coefficient for Inr-role and Extra-role performance scale was .78 and these values showed the reliability of the scale (Table 10).

Table 10. Reliability test for Job performance scale

Sub dimension	Cronbach's Alpha	N of items
In-role performance	.663	7
Extra-role performance	.767	14
Total scale	.768	21

6.2. DATA ANALYSIS

6.2.1. Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics of the data are shown in Table 11. The results from the analysis below indicate that the mean age of participants was 41.99, with a standard deviation of 10.06 years. When the mean of tenure of participants was considered, it was found that the average tenure was 11.96 years with a standard deviation of 8,05years.

Before revealing the relationships between variables, it is necessary to reveal the forms of distributions of variables and to see if they are normally distributed. The determination of data distribution results from the calculation of skewness and kurtosis. The Skewness and Kurtosis values should be as close to zero as possible, however, a small departure from zero is not a problem, as long as the Measures are not too large compared to their Standard Error. The following analysis shows that the age is between (.450 and -.261), gender (.118 and -1.995), marital status (-.891 and -1.212), education (.246 and -.666), workplace (.346 and -1.389), tenure (1,122 and .592) and job positions (.187 and -1.386). In other variables the values of skewness range between -.806 and 1.131 and the values of kurtosis range between -.861 and .446.

Table 11. Descriptive Statistics of Variables: Minimum and Maximum, Mean and Standard Deviation.

	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Age	394	40.0	24.0	64.0	41.99	10.06	.36	-.80
Gender	393	1	1	2	1.62	.48	-.48	-1.77
Marital Status	385	1	1	2	1.88	.33	-2.31	3.39
Education	393	3	1	4	2.08	.76	.22	-.44
Tenure	394	39	1	40	11.96	8.05	1.57	2.40
Position	393	10	1	11	4.71	3.17	.70	-.57
Place	394	6	1	7	3.08	2.20	.48	-1.32
Vigor	394	2.33	2.67	5.00	4.64	.47	-.96	-.02
Dedication	394	2.00	3.00	5.00	4.69	.47	-1.16	.13
Absorption	394	2.00	3.00	5.00	4.69	.46	-1.17	.17
Autonomy	394	2.00	3.00	5.00	4.56	.49	-.79	-.32
Relatedness	394	2.00	3.00	5.00	4.55	.51	-.65	-.95
Competence	394	2.00	3.00	5.00	4.60	.47	-.797	-.45
Task Performance	394	1.80	3.20	5.00	4.71	.32	-1.09	1.18
Contextual Performance	394	1.86	3.14	5.00	4.47	.39	-.63	.10

Table 11 shows that the skewness and kurtosis values of all the variables of the study are within the normal distribution values between -1.96 and +1.96.

6.2.2. Correlation Analysis

After the normality test, correlation analysis was performed to determine whether there was a relationship between the variables and the direction and strength of the relationship. Correlation analysis results are shown in Table 12.

When the table is examined for the demographics, age have positive correlations with, marital status ($r = .317, p < .01$), tenure ($r = .671, p < .01$), place ($r = .190, p < .01$) and competence ($r = .160, p < .01$). Gender has positive relations with education ($r = .135, p < .01$) and job position ($r = .383, p < .01$). Marital status has positive relations with tenure ($r = .251, p < .01$) and job position ($r = .123, p < .05$). Education has a negative relation with tenure ($r = -.155, p < .01$) and place ($r = -.223, p < .01$), autonomy ($r = -.108, p < .05$), relatedness ($r = -.157, p < .01$) and contextual performance ($r = -.133, p < .01$). Furthermore Education has a positive relation with job position ($r = .224, p < .01$). Tenure has positive relation with place ($r = .186, p < .01$) and negative relation with absorption ($r = -.120, p < .05$). Job position has negative relation with place ($r = -.279, p < .01$). Place has positive relation with autonomy ($r = .103, p < .05$) and contextual performance ($r = .130, p < .01$).

On the other hand, when the control variables are examined, we can see that Autonomy has positive relation with relatedness ($r = .309, p < .01$), competence ($r = .3072, p < .01$), vigor ($r = .348, p < .01$), dedication ($r = .302, p < .01$), absorption ($r = .164, p < .01$), task performance ($r = .212, p < .01$) and contextual performance ($r = .334, p < .01$). Relatedness has positive relation with competence ($r = .380, p < .01$), vigor ($r = .235, p < .01$), dedication ($r = .211, p < .01$), absorption ($r = .142, p < .01$), task performance ($r = .189, p < .01$) and with contextual performance ($r = .394, p < .01$). Competence has a positive relation with vigor ($r = .350, p < .01$), dedication ($r = .374, p < .01$), absorption ($r = .284, p < .01$), task performance ($r = .322, p < .01$) and contextual performance ($r = .376, p < .01$). Vigor has a positive relation with dedication ($r = .372, p < .01$), absorption ($r = .270, p < .01$), task performance ($r = .365, p < .01$) and contextual performance ($r = .316, p < .01$). Dedication has a positive relation with absorption ($r = .314, p < .01$), task performance ($r = .406, p < .01$) and contextual performance ($r = .310, p < .01$). Finally, task performance has a positive relation with contextual performance ($r = .389, p < .01$).

Table 12. Correlation Matrix

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Age	1							
2 Gender	.064	1						
3 Marital Status	.317**	.029	1					
4 Education	-.097	.135**	-.007	1				
5 Tenure	.671**	.037	.251**	-.155**	1			
6 Position	-.035	.383**	.123*	.224**	-.075	1		
7 Place	.190**	.007	.005	-.223**	.186**	-.279**	1	
8 Autonomy	-.066	.015	-.039	-.108*	-.027	-.052	.103*	1
9 Relatedness	-.087	-.007	-.009	-.157**	-.017	-.060	.040	.309**
10 Competence	-.160**	-.087	-.098	-.068	-.090	-.095	.017	.372**
11 Vigor	-.083	-.051	-.031	.009	-.069	-.025	.014	.348**
12 Dedication	-.063	.010	.085	.010	-.079	.077	.034	.302**
13 Absorption	-.070	.000	.004	.031	-.120*	.018	.034	.164**
14 Task Performance	.013	.003	.008	.007	-.34	.019	.004	.212**
15 Contextual Performance	.026	-.010	-.045	-.133**	-.058	-.049	.130**	.334**

*p < .05

** p < .01

Table 12. Correlation Matrix (cont'd)

	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1 Age							
2 Gender							
3 Marital Status							
4 Education							
5 Tenure							
6 Position							
7 Place							
8 Autonomy							
9 Relatedness	1						
10 Competence	.380**	1					
11 Vigor	.235**	.350**	1				
12 Dedication	.211**	.374**	.372**	1			
13 Absorption	.142**	.284**	.270**	.314**	1		
14 Task Performance	.189**	.322**	.365**	.406**	.393**	1	
15 Contextual Performance	.394**	.376**	.316**	.310**	.386**	.389**	1

*p < .05

** p < .01

6.2.3. Regression Analysis

The hierarchical regression analysis was performed to determine the variables that affect the job performance of the Post and Telecom of Kosovo employees. Hierarchical regression is a statistical method of testing hypotheses and exploring the relationships between a dependent variable and several independent or mediating variables. Hierarchical regression means that the independent variables are not entered into the regression simultaneously, but sequentially. In our case, in the first stage (Model 1), a hierarchical regression analysis was used to examine the relationships between the demographic variables such as age, gender, marital status, education, organization, tenure and job position. Subsequently, the second step (Model 2), our independent variables (Intrinsic Motivation and Employee Engagement) were entered into the analysis separately for determining their distinct effects on our dependent variable as Job Performance.

The statistics obtained as a result of the hierarchical regression analysis regarding the relationship between our independent variable Intrinsic motivation (sub-dimensions: autonomy, relatedness, and competence) and our dependent variable Job performance (sub-dimension: variable In-role performance) are given in Table 13. The hypotheses related to the model are:

- *H1: There is a positive relationship between Intrinsic Motivation (autonomy, relatedness, and competence) and In-role performance.*

Looking at the results of the regression analysis presented in Table 13, in the first step (Model 1), none of the demographic variables has any relationship to In-role performance. This model does not show any significance ($F = .660$, $p > .05$) and explained 1.2% of the total variance of In-role performance. In the second step (Model 2), when the sub-dimensions of the independent variable Intrinsic Motivation were included in the regression analysis, education ($\beta = .132$, $p < .05$) showed a positive relationship to In-role performance. Concerning the H2a, only relatedness ($\beta = .055$, $p < .05$) sub-dimension is positively related to In-role performance. Second model is significant ($F = 5,574$, $p < .01$) and explained 13.1% of the total variance of In-role performance. These results indicated that H2a is partly supported.

The findings showed that among other Intrinsic Motivation sub-dimensions, the only relatedness increases the In-role performance.

Table 13. The impact of Intrinsic Motivation on In-role performance

Variables	Model -1-				Model -2-			
	B	S.H.	β	Sig.	B	S.H.	β	Sig.
Age	.002	.002	.063	.389	.004	.002	.114	.099
Gender	-.007	.037	-.010	.858	.005	.035	.007	.895
Marital Status	.016	.053	.017	.763	.024	.050	.025	.628
Education	.038	.023	.091	.091	.055	.022	.132	.011
Tenure	-.003	.003	-.076	.285	-.003	.003	-.071	.294
Position	-.001	.006	-.009	.885	.002	.006	.017	.763
Location	.003	.008	.024	.667	.000	.008	.002	.970
Autonomy					.065	.034	.101	.065
Relatedness					.035	.033	.055	.035
Competence					.192	.038	.279	.192
R		.110 ^a				.361 ^b		
R ²		.012				.131		
Adjusted. R ²		-.006				.107		
ΔR^2		.012				.118		
F		.660				5,574		
ANOVA (Sig.)		.706 ^b				.000 ^c		
<i>Dependent Variable In-role performance</i>								

The statistics obtained as a result of the hierarchical regression analysis regarding the relationship between our independent variable Intrinsic motivation (sub-dimensions: autonomy, relatedness, and competence) and our dependent variable Job performance (sub dimension: variable Extra-role performance) are given in Table 14. The hypotheses related to the model are:

- H2: *There is a positive relationship between Intrinsic Motivation (autonomy, relatedness, and competence) and Extra-role performance.*

Looking at the results of regression analysis presented in Table 14, in the first step (Model 1), from the demographic variables, age ($\beta = .151$, $p < .01$) and location ($\beta = .120$, $p < .01$) has positive relationship to Extra-role performance, while education ($\beta = -.129$, $p < .05$) and tenure ($\beta = -.202$, $p < .05$) have negative relationship to Extra-role performance. This model does not show any significance ($F = 3,096$, $p > .05$) and explained 5.5% of the total variance of Extra-role performance. In the second step

(Model 2), when the sub-dimensions of the independent variable Intrinsic Motivation were included in the regression analysis, only age ($\beta = .221, p < .05$) showed positive relationship, while tenure ($\beta = -.200, p < .05$) showed negative relationship to Extra-role performance. Concerning the H2b, autonomy ($\beta = .145, p < .01$), relatedness ($\beta = .250, p < .01$), and competence ($\beta = .222, p < .01$) sub-dimensions are positively related to Extra-role performance. Second model is significant ($F = 13,015, p < .01$) and explained 26% of the total variance of Extra-role performance. These results indicated that H2b is fully supported.

The findings showed that all three sub-dimensions of Intrinsic Motivation (autonomy, relatedness, and competence), increase the Extra-role performance.

Table 14. The impact of Intrinsic Motivation on Extra-role performance

Variables	<i>Model -1-</i>				<i>Model -2-</i>			
	B	S.H.	β	<i>Sig.</i>	B	S.H.	β	<i>Sig.</i>
Age	.006	.003	.151	.035	.009	.002	.221	.001
Gender	-.007	.045	-.009	.870	-.001	.040	-.002	.971
Marital Status	-.043	.064	-.036	.504	-.044	.057	-.037	.445
Education	-.067	.027	-.129	.015	-.030	.025	-.057	.229
Tenure	-.010	.003	-.202	.004	-.010	.003	-.200	.001
Position	-.001	.007	-.007	.904	.003	.006	.026	.611
Location	.021	.010	.120	.028	.016	.009	.093	.056
Autonomy					.115	.039	.145	.003
Relatedness					.193	.038	.250	.000
Competence					.189	.043	.222	.000
R		.234 ^a				.510 ^b		
R ²		.055				.260		
Adjusted. R ²		.037				.240		
ΔR^2		.055				.205		
F		3,096				13,015		
ANOVA (Sig.)		.003 ^b				.000 ^c		
<i>Dependent Variable Extra-role performance</i>								

The statistics obtained as a result of the hierarchical regression analysis regarding the relationship between our independent variable Intrinsic motivation (sub-dimensions: autonomy, relatedness, and competence) and our dependent variable Employee Engagement (sub-dimension: vigor) are given in Table 15. The hypotheses related to the model are:

- *H3a: There is a positive relationship between Intrinsic motivation (autonomy, relatedness, and competence) and vigor.*

Looking at the results of the regression analysis presented in Table 15, in the first step (Model 1) none of the demographic variables has any relationship to vigor. This model does not show any significance ($F = .780, p > .05$) and explained 1.4% of the total variance of vigor. Similarly, in the second step (Model 2), when the sub-dimensions of the independent variable Intrinsic Motivation were included in the regression analysis, none of the demographic variables has any relationship to vigor. Concerning the H1a, only autonomy ($\beta = .250, p < .01$) and competence ($\beta = .196, p < .01$) sub-dimensions are positively related to vigor. The second model is significant ($F = 7,817, p < .01$) and explained 17.4% of the total variance of vigor. These results indicated that H1a is partly supported.

The findings showed that among other Intrinsic Motivation sub-dimensions, autonomy and competence increase the vigor.

Table 15. The impact of Intrinsic Motivation on Vigor

Variables	<i>Model -1-</i>				<i>Model -2-</i>			
	B	S.E.	β	<i>Sig.</i>	B	S.E.	β	<i>Sig.</i>
Age	-.002	.003	-.044	.546	.001	.003	.013	.851
Gender	-.070	.055	-.071	.208	-.063	.051	-.065	.213
Marital Status	.001	.080	.001	.991	.008	.073	.005	.916
Education	-.003	.034	-.004	.935	.032	.031	.051	.307
Tenure	-.003	.004	-.048	.502	-.002	.004	-.042	.518
Position	-.001	.009	-.009	.883	.002	.008	.016	.771
Location	.011	.012	.050	.370	.003	.011	.015	.777
Autonomy					.240	.050	.250	.000
Relatedness					.082	.049	.088	.093
Competence					.202	.055	.196	.000
R		.120 ^a				.417 ^b		
R ²		.014				.174		
Adjusted. R ²		-.004				.152		
ΔR^2		.014				.160		
F		.780				7,817		
ANOVA (<i>Sig.</i>)		.604 ^b				.000 ^c		
<i>Dependent Variable Vigor</i>								

The statistics obtained as a result of the hierarchical regression analysis regarding the relationship between our independent variable Intrinsic motivation (sub-dimensions: autonomy, relatedness, and competence) and our dependent variable

Employee Engagement (subdimension: dedication) are given in Table 16. The hypotheses related to the model are:

- *H3b: There is a positive relationship between satisfaction of basic needs (autonomy, relatedness, and competence) and dedication.*

Looking at the results of regression analysis presented in Table 16, in the first step (Model 1), from the demographic variables only marital status ($\beta = .117$, $p < .05$) has a positive relationship to dedication. This model does not show any significance ($F = 1,501$, $p > .05$) and explained 2.7% of the total variance of dedication. Similarly, in the second step (Model 2), when the sub-dimensions of the independent variable Intrinsic Motivation were included in the regression analysis, only marital status ($\beta = .128$, $p < .05$) showed a positive relationship to dedication. Concerning the H1b, only autonomy ($\beta = .184$, $p < .01$) and competence ($\beta = .321$, $p < .01$) sub-dimensions are positively related to dedication.

Table 16. The impact of Intrinsic Motivation on Dedication

Variables	Model -1-				Model -2-			
	B	S.H.	B	Sig.	B	S.H.	β	Sig.
Age	-.002	.003	-.036	.623	.001	.003	.024	.713
Gender	-.028	.054	-.029	.609	-.009	.049	-.010	.850
Marital Status	.167	.078	.117	.033	.183	.071	.128	.010
Education	-.007	.033	-.011	.838	.022	.030	.036	.465
Tenure	-.005	.004	-.091	.199	-.005	.004	-.083	.200
Position	.012	.009	.080	.176	.016	.008	.108	.044
Location	.015	.012	.073	.187	.009	.011	.041	.420
Autonomy					.173	.048	.184	.000
Relatedness					.020	.047	.022	.667
Competence					.325	.053	.321	.000
R		.165				.452		
R ²		.027				.204		
Adjusted.. R ²		.009				.182		
ΔR^2		.027				.177		
F		1,501				9,501		
ANOVA (Sig.)		.165				.000		
<i>Dependent Variable Dedication</i>								

The second model is significant ($F = 9,501$, $p < .01$) and explained 20.4% of the total variance of dedication. These results indicated that H1b is partly supported.

The findings showed that among other Intrinsic Motivation sub-dimensions, autonomy, and competence increase the dedication.

The statistics obtained as a result of the hierarchical regression analysis regarding the relationship between our independent variable Intrinsic motivation (sub-dimensions: autonomy, relatedness, and competence) and our dependent variable Employee Engagement (sub-dimension: absorption) are given in Table 17. The hypotheses related to the model are:

- *H3c: There is a positive relationship between the satisfaction of basic needs (autonomy, relatedness, and competence) and absorption.*

Looking at the results of regression analysis presented in Table 17, in the first step (Model 1), from the demographic variables only tenure ($\beta = -.173$, $p < .05$) has a negative relationship to absorption. This model does not show any significance ($F = 1,321$, $p > .05$) and explained 2.4% of the total variance of absorption. Similarly, in the second step (Model 2), when the sub-dimensions of the independent variable Intrinsic Motivation were included in the regression analysis, only tenure ($\beta = -.169$, $p < .05$) showed a negative relationship to absorption. Concerning the H1c, only competence ($\beta = .231$, $p < .01$) sub-dimension is positively related to absorption. The second model is significant ($F = 3,826$, $p < .01$) and explained 9.3% of the total variance of absorption. These results indicated that H1c is partly supported.

The findings showed that among other Intrinsic Motivation sub dimensions, only competence increases the absorption.

The statistics obtained as a result of the hierarchical regression analysis regarding the relationship between our independent variable Employee engagement (sub-dimensions: vigor, dedication, absorption) and our dependent variable Job performance (sub-dimension: In-role performance) are given in Table 18.

Table 17. The impact of Intrinsic Motivation on Absorption

Variables	Model -1-				Model -2-			
	B	S.H.	β	Sig.	B	S.H.	β	Sig.
Age	.002	.003	.045	.531	.004	.003	.084	.231
Gender	-.038	.052	-.041	.465	-.024	.051	-.026	.636
Marital Status	.034	.076	.024	.658	.044	.073	.031	.553
Education	.006	.032	.009	.862	.023	.031	.038	.473
Tenure	-.010	.004	-.173	.015	-.009	.004	-.169	.015
Position	.003	.008	.018	.759	.005	.008	.038	.506
Location	.016	.011	.076	.168	.013	.011	.062	.253
Autonomy					.048	.050	.053	.334
Relatedness					.033	.049	.037	.496
Competence					.227	.055	.231	.000
R		.155 ^a				.306 ^b		
R ²		.024				.093		
Adjusted. R ²		.006				.069		
ΔR^2		.024				.069		
F		1,321				3,826		
ANOVA (Sig.)		.239 ^b				.000 ^c		
Dependent Variable Absorption								

The hypotheses related to the model are:

- *H4: There is a positive relationship between engagement (vigor, dedication, absorption) and In-role performance.*

Looking at the results of regression analysis presented in Table 18, in the first step (Model 1) none of the demographic variables has any relationship to In-role performance. This model does not show any significance ($F = 660, p > .05$) and explained 1.2% of the total variance of In-role performance. In the second step (Model 2), when the sub-dimensions of the independent variable Employee engagement were included in the regression analysis, only education ($\beta = .093, p < .05$) showed a positive relationship to In-role performance. Concerning the H3a, vigor ($\beta = .221, p < .01$), dedication ($\beta = .242, p < .01$), and absorption ($\beta = .258, p < .01$) sub-dimensions are positively related to In-role performance. The second model is significant ($F = 14,847, p < .01$) and explained 28.6% of the total variance of In-role performance. These results indicated that H3a is fully supported.

The findings showed that all three sub-dimensions of Employee engagement (vigor, dedication, absorption), increase the In-role performance.

Table 18. The impact of Employee engagement on In-role performance

Variables	Model -1-				Model -2-			
	B	S.H.	β	Sig.	B	S.H.	β	Sig.
Age	.002	.002	.063	.389	.002	.002	.069	.266
Gender	-.007	.037	-.010	.858	.015	.032	.023	.632
Marital Status	.016	.053	.017	.763	-.017	.046	-.018	.704
Education	.038	.023	.091	.091	.039	.019	.093	.045
Tenure	-.003	.003	-.076	.285	3,231E-5	.002	.001	.989
Position	-.001	.006	-.009	.885	-.003	.005	-.031	.547
Location	.003	.008	.024	.667	-.003	.007	-.024	.610
Vigor					.148	.032	.221	.000
Dedication					.164	.034	.242	.000
Absorption					.180	.033	.258	.000
R		.110 ^a				.535 ^t		
R ²		.012				.286		
Adjusted. R ²		-.006				.267		
ΔR^2		.012				.274		
F		.660				14,847		
ANOVA (Sig.)		.706 ^b				.000 ^c		
<i>Dependent Variable In-role performance</i>								

The statistics obtained as a result of the hierarchical regression analysis regarding the relationship between our independent variable Employee engagement (sub-dimensions: vigor, dedication, absorption) and our dependent variable Job performance (sub-dimension: Extra-role performance) are given in Table 19. The hypotheses related to the model are:

- *H5: There is a positive relationship between engagement (vigor, dedication, absorption) and Extra-role performance.*

Looking at the results of regression analysis presented in Table 19, in the first step (Model 1), from the demographic variables, age ($\beta = .151$, $p < .01$) and location ($\beta = .120$, $p < .01$) have positive relationship to Extra-role performance, while education ($\beta = -.129$, $p < .05$) and tenure ($\beta = -.202$, $p < .05$) have negative relationship to Extra-

role performance. This model does not show any significance ($F = 3,096$, $p > .05$) and explained 5.5% of the total variance of Extra-role performance.

In the second step (Model 2), when the sub-dimensions of the independent variable Employee engagement were included in the regression analysis, only age ($\beta = .151$, $p < .05$) showed positive relationship, while education ($\beta = -.129$, $p < .05$) and tenure ($\beta = -.132$, $p < .05$) showed negative relationship to Extra-role performance. Concerning the H3a, vigor ($\beta = .191$, $p < .01$), dedication ($\beta = .137$, $p < .01$), and absorption ($\beta = .279$, $p < .01$) sub-dimensions are positively related to Extra-role performance. The second model is significant ($F = 12,539$, $p < .01$) and explained 25.3% of the total variance of Extra-role performance. These results indicated that H3b is fully supported.

The findings showed that all three sub-dimensions of Employee engagement (vigor, dedication, absorption), increase Extra-role performance.

Table 19. The impact of Employee engagement on Extra-role performance

Variables	Model -1-				Model -2-			
	B	S.H.	β	Sig.	B	S.H.	β	Sig.
Age	.006	.003	.151	.035	.006	.002	.151	.018
Gender	-.007	.045	-.009	.870	.016	.040	.020	.687
Marital Status	-.043	.064	-.036	.504	-.071	.058	-.059	.224
Education	-.067	.027	-.129	.015	-.067	.024	-.129	.006
Tenure	-.010	.003	-.202	.004	-.006	.003	-.132	.037
Position	-.001	.007	-.007	.904	-.003	.006	-.021	.682
Location	.021	.010	.120	.028	.014	.009	.079	.107
Vigor					.158	.041	.191	.000
Dedication					.115	.042	.137	.007
Absorption					.241	.042	.279	.000
R		.234 ^a				.503 ^b		
R ²		.055				.253		
Adjusted.R ²		.037				.232		
ΔR^2		.055				.198		
F		3,096				12,539		
ANOVA (Sig.)		.003 ^b				.000 ^c		
<i>Dependent Variable Extra-role performance</i>								

6.2.4. Difference Analyses

Based on our research question we explored any possible demographic differences in Job performance (In-role and Extra-role) Therefore, we have used non-parametric tests such as Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal Wallis tests for the variables which are not providing normality assumptions.

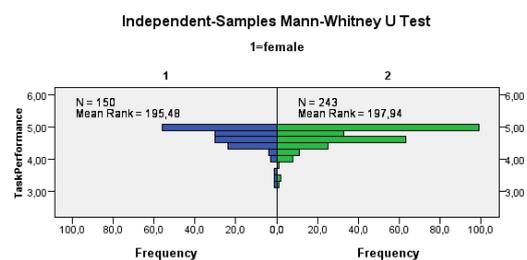
Research Question: *Are there any differences in terms of performance (In-role & Extra role)? According to demographical variables such as gender, marital status, education, organization, tenure, position?*

6.2.4.1. Gender Differences in In-role performance

For determining any significant differences in in-role performance based on gender, we used the independent-samples Mann Whitney U test. While the null hypothesis for this test assumes there are no significant differences between comparing subjects, a significant Mann Whitney U statistics ($p < .05$ or less) indicates a difference between comparing subjects.

Hypothesis Test Summary			
Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1 The distribution of TaskPerformance is the same across categories of 1=female.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	,828	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.



Total N	393
Mann-Whitney U	18.452,500
Wilcoxon W	48.098,500
Test Statistic	18.452,500
Standard Error	1.048,884
Standardized Test Statistic	,217
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	,828

Figure 6 : Mann-Whitney U test results for gender (In-role performance)

Based on the results (Figure 6), Mann Whitney U test statistic is 18.452,500 with $p = .828$), indicating retaining the null hypothesis. So, in this case, there are not significant differences between men and women according to In-role performance.

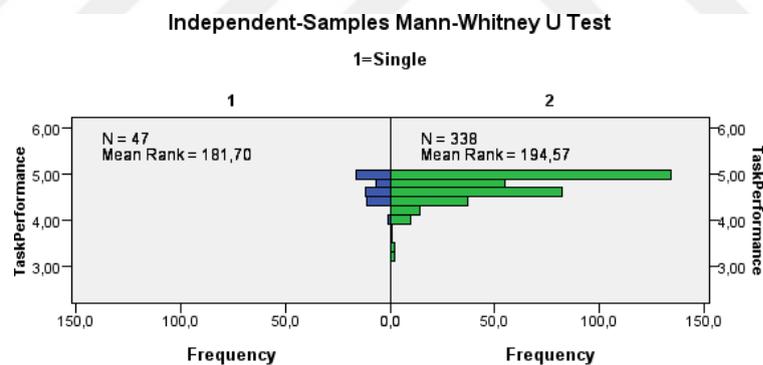
6.2.4.2. Marital Status Differences in In-role performance

For determining any significant differences in in-role performance based on marital status, we used the independent-samples Mann Whitney U test. While the null hypothesis for this test assumes there is no significant difference between single and married participants.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of TaskPerformance is the same across categories of 1=Single.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	,439	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.



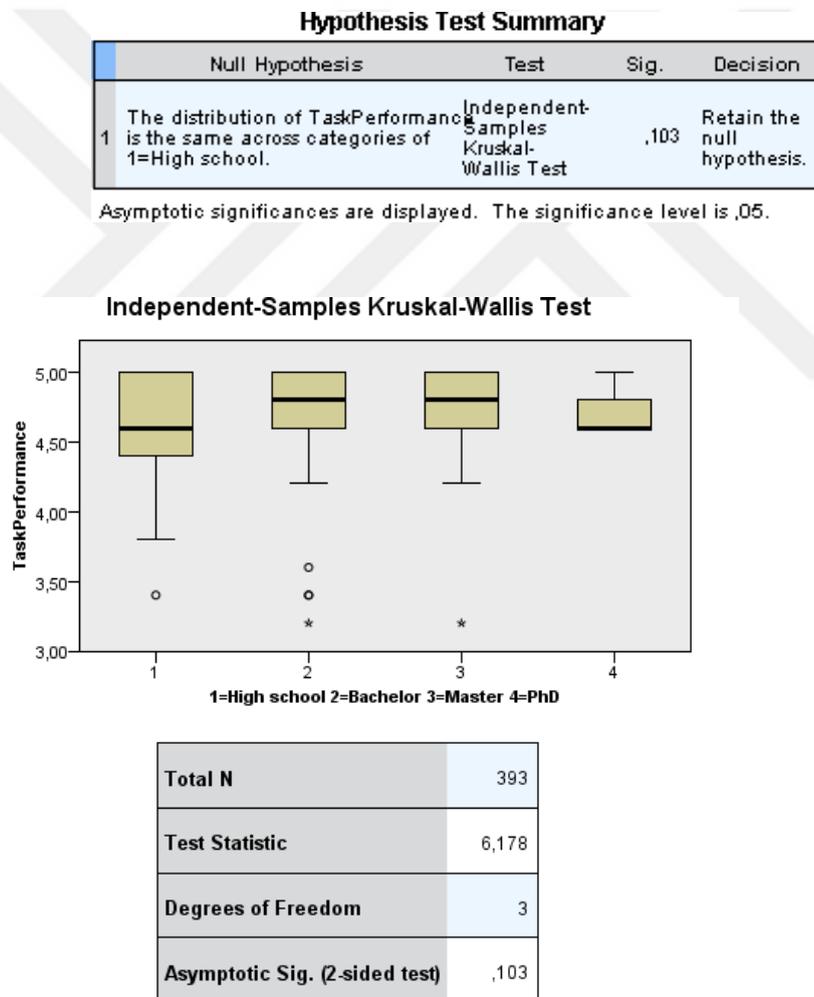
Total N	385
Mann-Whitney U	8.474,000
Wilcoxon W	65.765,000
Test Statistic	8.474,000
Standard Error	685,699
Standardized Test Statistic	,774
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	,439

Figure 7: Mann-Whitney U test results for marital status (In-role performance)

Based on the results (Figure 7) Mann Whitney U test statistic is 8.474 with $p = .439$, indicating retaining the null hypothesis. So, in this case, there is no significant difference between single and married participants according to In-role performance.

6.2.4.3. Education Level Differences in In-role performance

For determining any significant differences in in-role performance based on education level, we used the independent-samples Kruskal Wallis Test. While the null hypothesis for this test assumes there are no significant differences among education levels in terms of in-role performance.



1. The test statistic is adjusted for ties.
2. Multiple comparisons are not performed because the overall test does not show significant differences across samples.

Figure 8: Mann-Whitney U test results for education level (In-role performance)

Based on the results (Figure 8) Kruskal Wallis Test statistic is 6.178 with $p = .0103$, indicating retaining the null hypothesis. So, in this case, there is no significant difference between the education level of participants according to in-role performance.

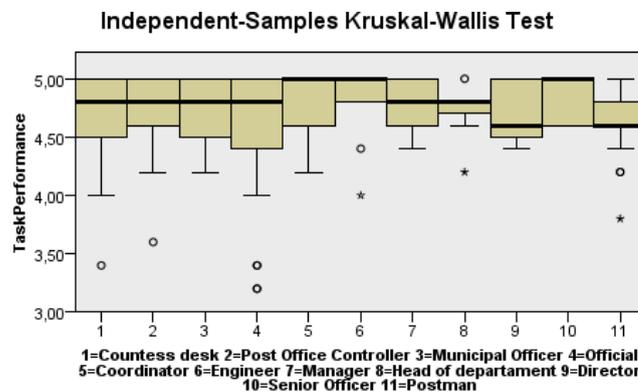
6.2.4.4. Job position differences in In-role performance

For determining any significant differences in in-role performance based on job position (there are 11 different job positions in the sample), we used the independent-samples Kruskal Wallis Test. While the null hypothesis for this test assumes there are no significant differences among 11 different job positions in terms of In-role performance.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of TaskPerformance is the same across categories of 1=Countess desk... 11=Postman.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,166	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.



Total N	393
Test Statistic	14,156
Degrees of Freedom	10
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	,166

1. The test statistic is adjusted for ties.
2. Multiple comparisons are not performed because the overall test does not show significant differences across samples.

Figure 9: Kruskal Wallis test results for the job position (In-role performance)

Based on the results (Figure 9) the test statistic is 14,156 with $p = .166$, indicating retaining the null hypothesis. So, in this case, there is not a significant In-role performance difference among 11 different job positions.

6.2.4.5. Location differences in In-role performance

For determining any significant differences in in-role performance based on location (there are 7 different locations in the sample), we used the independent-samples Kruskal Wallis Test. While the null hypothesis for this test assumes there are no significant differences among 7 different locations in terms of In-role performance.

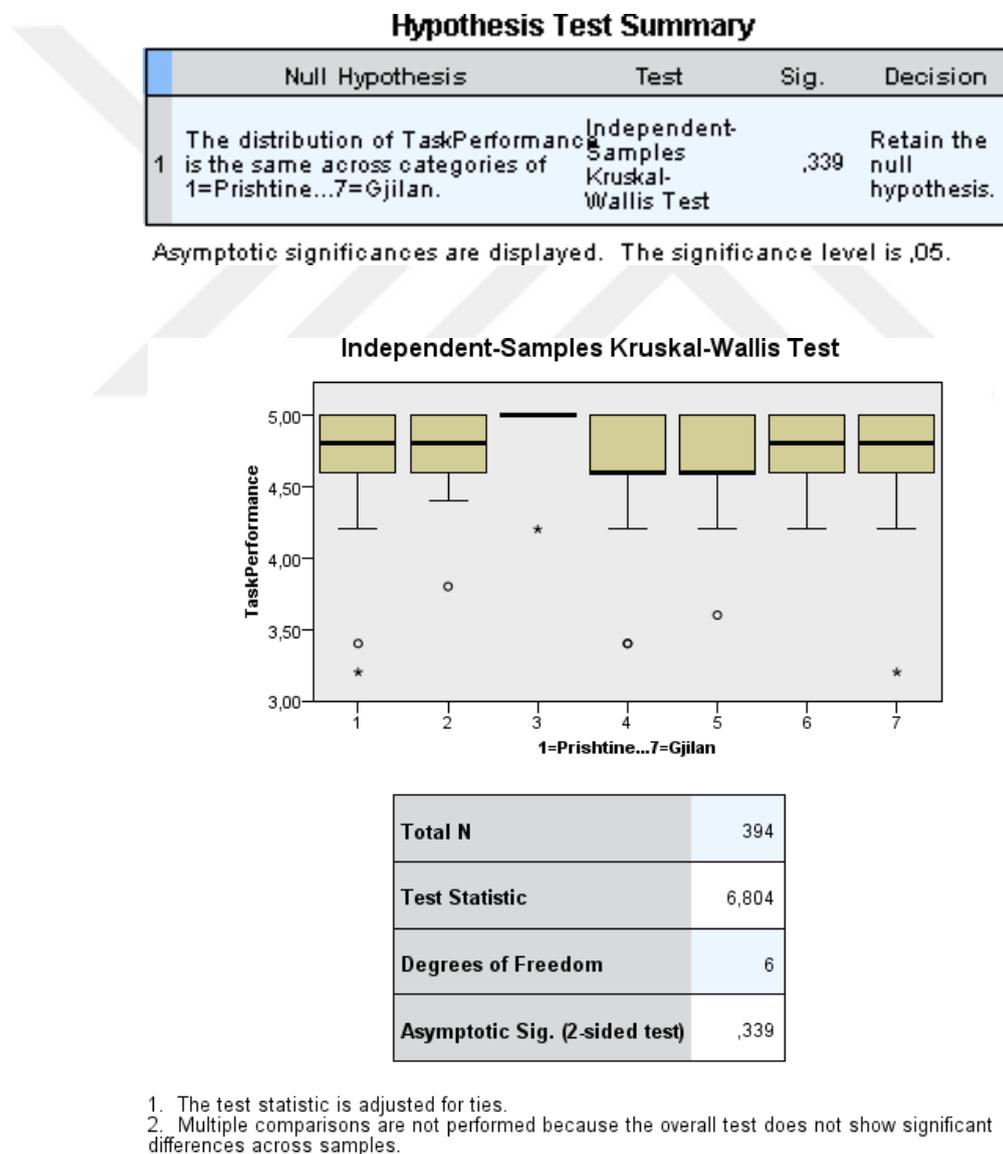


Figure 10: Kruskal Wallis Test results for location (In-role performance)

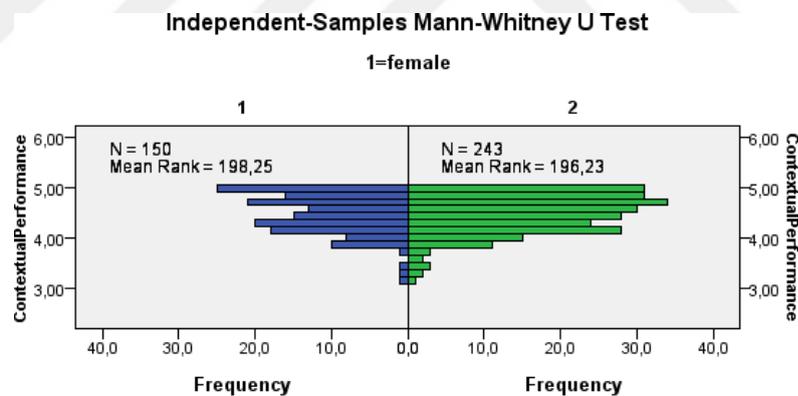
Based on the results (Figure 10), the test statistic is 6.804 with $p = .339$, indicating retaining the null hypothesis. So, in this case, there is not a significant In-role performance difference among 7 different locations.

6.2.4.6. Gender differences in Extra-role performance

For determining any significant differences in extra-role performance based on gender, we used the independent-samples Mann Whitney U test. While the null hypothesis for this test assumes there is no significant difference between men and women participants.

Hypothesis Test Summary				
	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of ContextualPerformance is the same across categories of 1=female.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	,863	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.



Total N	393
Mann-Whitney U	18.038,000
Wilcoxon W	47.684,000
Test Statistic	18.038,000
Standard Error	1.086,661
Standardized Test Statistic	-,172
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	,863

Figure 11: Mann-Whitney U Test results for gender (Extra-role performance)

Based on the results (Figure 11), Mann Whitney U test statistic is 18.038 with $p = .863$), indicating retaining the null hypothesis. So, in this case, there are no significant differences between men and women according to extra-role performance.

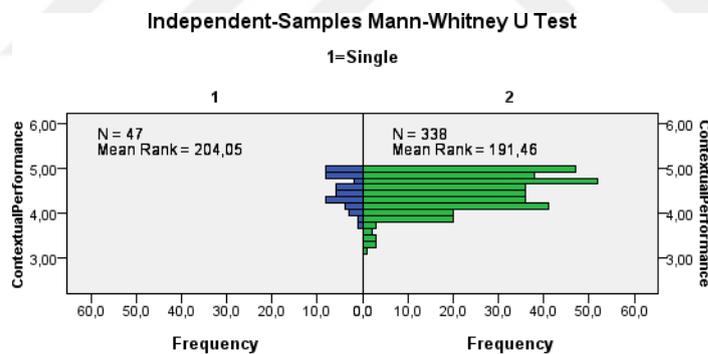
6.2.4.7. Marital Status differences in Extra-role performance

For determining any significant differences in extra-role performance based on marital status, we used the independent-samples Mann Whitney U test. While the null hypothesis for this test assumes there is no significant difference between single and married participants.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of ContextualPerformance is the same across categories of 1=Single.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	,464	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.



Total N	385
Mann-Whitney U	7.423,500
Wilcoxon W	64.714,500
Test Statistic	7.423,500
Standard Error	710,023
Standardized Test Statistic	-,732
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	,464

Figure 12: Mann-Whitney U Test results for the marital status (Extra-role performance)

Based on the results (Figure 12) Mann Whitney U test statistic is 7.423 with $p = .464$, indicating retaining the null hypothesis. So, in this case, there is no significant difference between single and married participants according to extra-role performance.

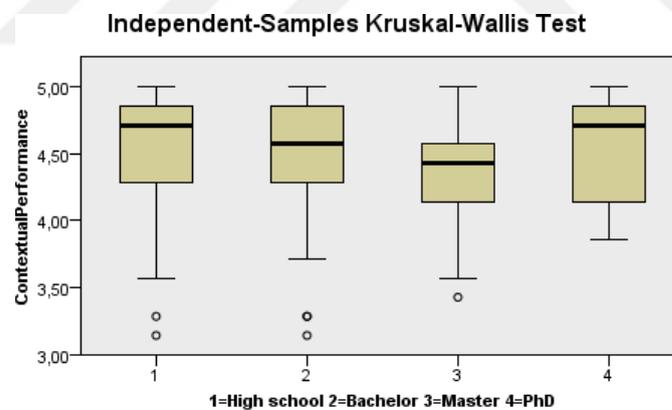
6.2.4.8. Education Level differences in Extra-role performance

For determining any significant differences in extra-role performance based on education level, we used the independent-samples Kruskal Wallis Test. While the null hypothesis for this test assumes there are no significant differences among education levels in terms of extra-role performance.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Contextual Performance is the same across categories of 1=High school	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,001	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.



Total N	393
Test Statistic	15,438
Degrees of Freedom	3
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	,001

1. The test statistic is adjusted for ties.

Figure 13: Kruskal Wallis test results for education level (Extra-role performance)

Based on the results (Figure 13) Kruskal Wallis Test statistic is 15.438 with $p = .001$, indicating rejecting the null hypothesis. So, in this case, there is a significant difference between education level of participants according to extra-role performance. Participants who have master's degree have relatively lower level contextual performance.

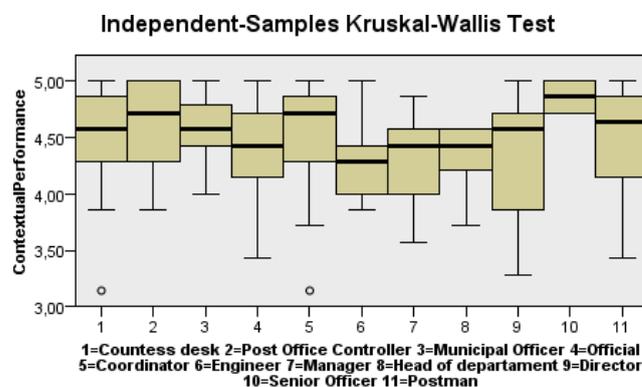
6.2.4.9. Job position differences in Extra-role performance

For determining any significant differences in extra-role performance based on job position (there are 11 different job positions in the sample), we used the independent-samples Kruskal Wallis Test. While the null hypothesis for this test assumes there are no significant differences among 11 different job positions in terms of extra-role performance.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of IntentiontoQuit is independent- the same across categories of 1=BPB 2=RBK 3=BE 4=PB 5=NB 6=TSA 7=BK 8=TIS.	Independent- Samples Kruskal- Wallis Test	,000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.



Total N	393
Test Statistic	35,304
Degrees of Freedom	10
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	,000

1. The test statistic is adjusted for ties.

Figure 14: Kruskal Wallis test results for the job position (Extra-role performance)

Based on the results (Figure 14) the test statistic is 35,304 with $p = .000$, indicating rejecting the null hypothesis. So, in this case, there is a significant extra-role performance difference among 11 different job positions. Participants who are working as senior officer positions are the higher; who are working as engineer position are the lower scores for contextual performance when comparing others.

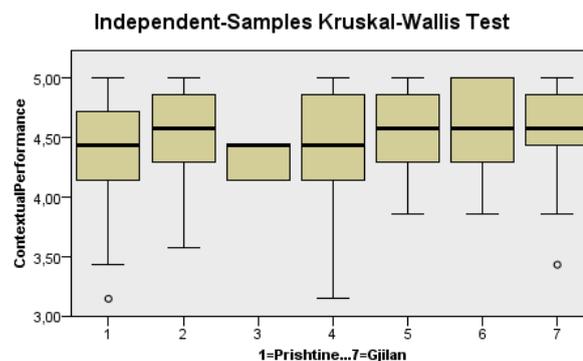
6.2.4.10. Job Location differences in Extra-role performance

For determining any significant differences in extra-role performance based on location (there are 7 different locations in the sample), we used the independent-samples Kruskal Wallis Test. While the null hypothesis for this test assumes there are no significant differences among 7 different locations in terms of extra-role performance.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Contextual Performance is the same across categories of 1=Prishtine... 7=Gjilan.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,084	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.



Total N	394
Test Statistic	11,158
Degrees of Freedom	6
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	,084

1. The test statistic is adjusted for ties.
2. Multiple comparisons are not performed because the overall test does not show significant differences across samples.

Figure 15: Kruskal Wallis test results for location (Extra-role performance)

Based on the results (Figure 15), the test statistic is 11.158 with $p = .084$, indicating retaining the null hypothesis. So, in this case, there is not significant extra-role performance difference among 7 different locations.

6.3. GENERAL HYPOTHESIS RESULTS AND FINDINGS

6.3.1. Hypothesis Results and Findings for Intrinsic motivation and In-role performance Variables

Based on the research model presented in Figure 1, the subject was investigated within the scope of the first hypothesis H1, to reveal the relationship between the sub-dimensions of Intrinsic motivation and In-role performance. In the correlation analysis presented in Table 13, a significant positive relationship was found between the Intrinsic motivation and In-role performance

In explaining this relationship, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted for Intrinsic motivation (sub-dimensions: autonomy, relatedness, and competence) in order to reveal their effects on In-role performance. As a result of the regression analysis performed to calculate the effect of Intrinsic motivation on In-role performance, it was revealed that only relatedness sub-dimension is positively related to In-role performance (Table 13).

Acceptance and rejection of the hypotheses established according to the research model are presented in Table 20. Looking at Table 20, hypotheses related to relatedness sub-dimensions were accepted and the other hypotheses for autonomy and competence were rejected.

Table 20. Acceptance or Rejection of Hypotheses about Intrinsic motivation and In-role performance

Hypotheses		β	p	Accepted or Rejected	
H1: There is a positive relationship between Intrinsic motivation (autonomy, relatedness and competence) and In-role performance	Autonomy	.101	.065	Rejected	Partly Accepted
	Relatedness	.055	.035	Accepted	
	Competence	.279	.192	Rejected	

6.3.2. Hypothesis Results and Findings for Intrinsic motivation and Extra-role performance Variables

In the correlation analysis presented in Table 14, a significant positive relationship was found between the Intrinsic motivation (sub-dimensions: autonomy, competence, and relatedness) and Extra-role performance.

In explaining this relationship, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted for Intrinsic motivation (sub-dimensions: autonomy, competence, and relatedness) in order to reveal their effects on Extra-role performance. As a result of the regression analysis performed to calculate the effect of Intrinsic motivation on employees' Extra-role performance, it was revealed that autonomy, competence, and relatedness have a positive effect and increase the Extra-role performance.

Acceptance and rejection of the hypotheses established according to the research model are presented in Table 21. Looking at H2, autonomy, relatedness, and competence were accepted. Therefore, we can conclude that our H2 hypothesis is fully accepted.

Table 21. Acceptance or Rejection of Hypotheses about Intrinsic motivation and Extra-role performance

Hypotheses		β	p	Accepted or Rejected	
H2: There is a positive relationship between Intrinsic motivation (autonomy, relatedness and competence) and Extra-role performance	Autonomy	.145	.003	Accepted	Fully Accepted
	Relatedness	.250	.000	Accepted	
	Competence	.222	.000	Accepted	

6.3.3. Hypothesis Results and Findings for Intrinsic motivation and Employee engagement Variables

In the correlation analysis presented in Table 15, a significant positive relationship was found between the Intrinsic motivation (sub-dimensions: autonomy, competence, and relatedness) and Employee engagement (sub-dimensions: vigor, dedication, and absorption).

In explaining this relationship, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted for Intrinsic motivation (sub-dimensions: autonomy, competence, and relatedness) in order to reveal their effects on Employee engagement. As a result of the regression analysis performed to analyze the effect of Intrinsic motivation on Employee engagement, it was revealed that autonomy and competence have a positive effect and increase vigor (Table, 15); autonomy and competence have a positive effect and increase the dedication (Table 16); only autonomy have a positive effect and increase the absorption (Table 17).

Table 22. Acceptance or Rejection of Hypotheses about Intrinsic motivation and Employee engagement

Hypotheses		β	p	Accepted or Rejected	
H3a: There is a positive relationship between Intrinsic motivation (autonomy, relatedness and competence) and vigor	Autonomy	.250	.000	Accepted	Partly Accepted
	Relatedness	.088	.093	Rejected	
	Competence	.196	.000	Accepted	
H3b: There is a positive relationship between Intrinsic motivation (autonomy, relatedness and competence) and dedication	Autonomy	.184	.000	Accepted	Partly Accepted
	Relatedness	.022	.667	Rejected	
	Competence	.321	.000	Accepted	
H3c: There is a positive relationship between Intrinsic motivation (autonomy, relatedness and competence) and absorption	Autonomy	.053	.334	Rejected	Partly Accepted
	Relatedness	.037	.496	Rejected	
	Competence	.231	.000	Accepted	

Acceptance and rejection of the hypotheses established according to the research model are presented in Table 22. Looking at H3a hypotheses, related to autonomy and competence sub-dimensions were accepted and the only hypothesis related to relatedness was rejected. Similarly, H3b shows that hypotheses related to autonomy and competence sub-dimensions were accepted and the only hypothesis related to relatedness was rejected. Identically, H3c shows that hypotheses related to autonomy and competence sub-dimensions were accepted and the only hypothesis related to relatedness was rejected. Therefore, we can conclude that our hypotheses H3a, H3b and H3c are partly accepted.

6.3.4. Hypothesis Results and Findings for and Employee engagement and In-role performance Variables

Before explaining the relationship of Employee engagement and In-role performance, it is necessary to explain the correlation between the Employee engagement (sub-dimensions: vigor, dedication, and absorption) and In-role performance Variable. In the correlation analysis presented in Table 18, a significant

positive relationship was found between the Employee engagement (sub-dimensions: vigor, dedication and absorption) and In-role performance.

In explaining this relationship, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted for Employee engagement (sub-dimensions: vigor, dedication, and absorption) in order to reveal the effects on In-role performance. As a result of the regression analysis performed to calculate the effect of Employee engagement on In-role performance, it was revealed that Employee engagement (sub-dimensions: vigor, dedication, and absorption) have a positive effect and increase the employees' In-role performance (Table 18).

The acceptance of the hypotheses established according to the research model is presented in Table 23. Looking at H4 hypotheses, all hypotheses H4a, H4b and H4c were accepted.

Table 23. Acceptance or Rejection of Hypotheses about Employee engagement and In-role performance

Hypotheses		β	p	Accepted or Rejected	
H4: There is a positive relationship between Employee engagement (vigor, dedication, absorption) and In-role performance	Vigor	.221	.000	Accepted	Fully Accepted
	Dedication	.242	.000	Accepted	
	Absorption	.258	.000	Accepted	

6.3.5. Hypothesis Results and Findings for and Employee engagement and Extra-role performance Variables

In the correlation analysis presented in Table 19, significant positive relationship was found between the Employee engagement (sub-dimensions: vigor, dedication, and absorption) and Extra-role performance Variables.

In explaining this relationship, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted for Employee engagement (sub-dimensions: vigor, dedication, and absorption) in order to reveal their effects on Extra-role performance. As a result of the regression analysis performed to calculate the effect of Employee engagement on employees'

Extra-role performance, it was revealed that all sub-dimensions vigor, dedication, and absorption have a positive effect and increase the employees' Extra-role performance.

Acceptance and rejection of the hypotheses established according to the research model are presented in Table 24. Looking at H5, hypotheses H5a H5b, H5c were accepted. Therefore, we can conclude that our H5 hypothesis is fully accepted.

Table 24. Acceptance or Rejection of Hypotheses about Employee engagement and Extra-role performance

Hypotheses		β	p	Accepted or Rejected	
H5: There is a positive relationship between Employee engagement (vigor, dedication, absorption) and Extra-role performance	Vigor	.191	.000	Accepted	Fully Accepted
	Dedication	.137	.007	Accepted	
	Absorption	.279	.000	Accepted	

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In the evaluation section, the research findings are evaluated and the final section of the study is completed. The study hypothesis and the relationships with the variables and the collected findings resulting from the analysis are explained accordingly to the research question and the study purpose. The effects of intrinsic motivation and employee engagement effect on in-role and extra-role performance are explained. Furthermore, the analysis explains the demographic variables and at the end of the chapter, several suggestions are presented for the studies that will be carried out after all the obtained assessments.

7.1. RESEARCH RESULTS

7.1.1. Results and Evaluations on the Findings between Intrinsic motivation and In-role performance

According to the study findings, relatedness is the only sub-dimension of Intrinsic motivation that positively affects in-role performance. Relatedness is almost synonymously linked to the feeling of belonging and being significant for the other person, approved, accepted within the dynamics of that relationship (Baumeister & Leary, 1995).

The results of the study also presented that the sub-dimension of intrinsic motivation (that of autonomy and competence) does not affect positively in-role performance. However, we consider that a better understanding of this interaction will be possible in the future through studies that focus and present a better understanding of these sub-dimensions.

When the relationships between motivation and performance are examined without sub-dimensions, some studies that confirm that there is a significant positive relationship between the employee's motivation and performance (Deci 1971; Meyer et al., 2004; Cerasoli et al., 2014; Kuvaas et al., 2017; Makki and Abid 2017). The study findings are consistent with the previous research.

Literature shows no studies that examine the sub-dimensions of intrinsic motivation (autonomy, relatedness, and competence) or their effect on in-role performance. Considering this gap, we suggest that the results of this study are specific-oriented for the field and may serve for further research that aims to push forward the investigation regarding these sub-dimensions.

7.1.2. Results and Evaluations on the Findings between Intrinsic motivation and Extra -role performance

The findings revealed that all three sub-dimensions of intrinsic motivation (autonomy, relatedness, and competence) positively affects extra-role performance. Deci (1975) defines intrinsic motivation as a spontaneous activity that is carried out for inner satisfaction rather than external factors or separable rewards - a person who engages in a task for inherent satisfaction is said to be intrinsically motivated.

The research examining the effects of sub-dimensions of intrinsic motivation (autonomy, relatedness, and autonomy) on extra-role performance are in lack. Therefore, by analyzing the results and the context of the study we consider the findings are specific and may serve for further examination regarding these sub-dimensions.

When the relationships between motivation and performance are examined without sub-dimensions, studies are showing that there was a significant and positive relationship between the employee's motivation and performance. In addition, the effect of intrinsic motivation on Extra-role performance is consistent with the findings of (Bowles & Polanía-Reyes, 2012; Kiruja & Mukuru 2018; Qadir, Saeed, & Khan 2017; Muogbo 2013; Kuranchie-Mensah & Amponsah-Tawiah 2016).

Although the studies and several other findings have presented that intrinsic motivation positively affects extra-role performance, the distinctiveness of this study consists of measuring and examining these variables for the first time in Kosovo, respectively in the public companies of Post and Telecom of Kosovo where the intrinsic motivation is high for several reasons. The study also shares value for establishing a ground that will serve for further examination and research of these variables in other public or private institutions within the context of Kosovo.

7.1.3. The Results and Evaluations of the Findings between Intrinsic motivation and Employee engagement Variable

One of the findings of the study is that all three sub-dimensions of intrinsic motivation (autonomy, competence, and relatedness) are positively related to vigor which is a sub-dimension of employee engagement. Vigor is defined as the motivation to work with volumes of energy, and the ability to put effort at the task and showing persistence at work despite potential obstacles. Further, it has also been presented as mental resilience and willingness to face various work difficulties (Cartwright & Holmes, 2006). In this respect also this study shows that vigor is positively related to all sub-dimensions of intrinsic motivation.

Another finding of this study is that only autonomy and competence are positively related to the dedication which is a sub-dimension of employee engagement. Dedication refers to the strong involvement of an employee which is followed by feelings of being enthusiastic and feeling significant. The findings in the literature (Jacobs, Renard, & Snelgar 2014) are in line with the current results. The results of the study presented evidence that when employees are given intrinsic rewards on a high level, and they are more willing to be dedicated.

Finally, the study revealed that only autonomy as a sub-dimension of intrinsic motivation is positively affected absorption, which is sub-dimension of employee engagement. Absorption has been partly associated with the flow theory (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990), where one becomes fully engaged and absorbed with the work and is characterized to have attention, a clear head and unification of one's mind and body (Duran, Extremera, & Rey, 2004).

When the relationships between intrinsic motivation and employee engagement are examined without sub-dimensions, studies are showing significant positive relationships. These studies support the current findings (Putra, Chi, & Lio 2017; Tan, Lau, Kung, & Kailsan 2019).

The present study found that the sub dimension of relatedness does not affect the sub-dimensions of the vigor of employee engagement. Furthermore, relatedness and competence, the two other sub-dimensions of intrinsic motivation don't affect absorption. However, we consider that a better understanding of this interaction will

be possible in future research through studies that tackle and focus on these sub-dimensions.

7.1.4. The Results and Evaluations of the Findings between Employee engagement and In-role performance

The study also revealed that Employee engagement and its sub-dimensions: vigor, dedication, and absorption, have a positive effect and increase the in-role performance of the employees. The role of employee engagement was presented by Czarnowsky (2008), who defined it as the emotional and mental engagement of an employee who strives to contribute to the success of their employer and performance.

In the literature, no study examining the sub-dimensions of employee engagement (vigor, dedication, and absorption) on extra-role performance, so we consider these findings are specific and may serve as further research to push forward studies regarding these sub-dimensions.

When the relationships between intrinsic motivation and extra-role performance are examined without sub-dimensions, studies are showing that there was a significant and positive relationship between the employee's motivation and performance. These findings are consistent with current findings made by Reijseger,

Peeters, Taris, & Schaufeli (2017), who investigated the relationship between employee engagement and extra-role performance, and showed that there is a direct positive relationship between employee engagement and extra-role performance.

Additionally, the effect of employee engagement on job performance is consistent also with several other findings (Ismail, Iqbal, & Nasr 2019; Tims, Bakker, Derks, & Van Rhenen 2013; Karatepe 2013).

7.1.5. The Results and Evaluations of the Findings between Employee engagement and Extra-role performance

This study revealed that employee engagement (sub-dimensions: vigor, dedication, and absorption) has a positive effect and increases the employees' extra-role performance. These findings are consistent with current findings made by Reijseger, Peeters, Taris, & Schaufeli (2017), who examined the relationship between

employee performance and extra-role performance, and presented that there is a direct positive relationship between employee engagement and extra-role performance.

Examining the relationships between employee engagement and job performance without sub-dimensions, some studies demonstrated a significant and positive relationship between employee engagement and job performance. In addition, the effect of employee engagement on job performance is consistent with several studies (Ismail, Iqbal, & Nasr 2019; Tims, Bakker, Derks, & Van Rhenen 2013; Karatepe 2013).

Although the findings of the study regarding the positive effect of employee engagement in extra-role performance are the same, a unique characteristic of this study is the measurement of these variables in another culture, in public companies where the employee engagement with extra-role performance was proven to be high for several reasons. Furthermore, this study will provide and serve for further inquiries from other researchers who will test the effect of employee engagement in extra-role performance among other public or private institutions in Kosovo.

7.1.6. Findings for Demographic Variables

This study brings forward another finding related to demographic characteristics and their role in explaining in-role and extra-role performance variables. Characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, education, tenure, job position and the place of the work and their relationship to in-role performance, and extra-role performance are evaluated.

It is found from the difference in analyses that none of the demographic variables involved in this study had any significance to in-role performance.

When demographic variables are analyzed in the context of extra-role performance it is found that participants who have a master's degree have relatively lower level contextual performance.

Within the public sector in Kosovo, there is no special law that enables employees to be promoted in managerial positions accordingly with their educational qualifications. Based on the analysis of this research that was carried out in Post and

Telecom of Kosovo, the study noted that numerous employees who have attained higher scientific degrees than their managers and this, in turn, makes them feel less satisfied and perform lower levels of contextual performance.

Another reason arises from the fact that several employees have attained their master's degrees during the time they've been working on these companies and presented their requests to be promoted on higher managerial positions in accordance with their qualifications. However, due to the enterprises' impossibility to offer such managerial positions has influenced the employees to show lower levels of extra-role performance.

The findings revealed from the different analyses that participants who are working on engineer positions show lower scores for contextual performance when comparing to other positions.

On broad terms, engineers hold the most well-paid positions among all institutions and professions within the public sector of Kosovo. In the case of this study, the findings showed that engineers, especially those of Information Technology show a small difference in their salary compared to other enterprises' employees' which makes them show lower levels of extra-role performance.

Another reason why in this study the engineers show a lower level of extra-role performance is connected to their personal relationships among this category of employees and their managers. The findings of this study prove that the work-relations between engineer employees and their managers were not at the right level.

7.2. POTENTIAL CONTRIBUTIONS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The most important factor that distinguishes this study is the analysis of intrinsic motivation is its three sub-dimensions: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. The original scale consisting of 21 items that measure these three basic needs satisfaction is another critical component that makes this study unique, knowing that other researchers have worked with only 9 items, namely 3 items per subscale. In our case, 21 items have been applied to assess the needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. The Basic Need Satisfaction at Work Scale has been practiced most frequently (Deci, Ryan, Gagné, Leone, Usunov, & Kornazheva, 2001; Ilardi, Leone,

Kasser, & Ryan, 1993; Kasser, Davey, & Ryan, 1992). The Basic Need Satisfaction in Relationships Scale was applied (La Guardia, Ryan, Couchman, & Deci, 2000). The Basic Need Satisfaction in Life Scale is currently being researched.

Another crucial contribution of this study relates to the assessment of intrinsic motivation within the context of the Kosovo region and its culture. This study is the first of its kind to be conducted in this country and therefore, provides a potential contribution for further research in Organizational Psychology, the organizational behavior and especially findings regarding the socio-demographic characteristics of the employees and other systems that operate within the organizations.

Furthermore, the utilized scale for researching intrinsic motivation measures its sub-dimensions in three aspects. When scrutinizing other studies regarding motivation within the regional context, it can be discerned that motivation is measured only in its intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions. Another potential contribution for further analysis is the translation of the scales in the Albanian language, measuring motivation in three dimensions and its adaptation with Kosovo's culture.

Job performance scale which is used to measure two sub-dimensions of in-role and extra-role performance is composed of 21 scales, from which 7 measure in-role performance whilst 14 measure extra-role performance. Regarding this, measuring performance in these two sub-dimensions within the culture of Kosovo is another crucial element of this study that might serve for future investigation.

Additionally, the fact that the part of administering the study is carried in Kosovo, respectively in public companies of Post and Telecom of Kosovo and involved a huge number of participants and various work-positions within these enterprises will also provide a potential contribution for the following research in this domain.

The study also involves the first research feature in the field of addressing the intrinsic motivation sub-dimensions as well as its relationship with other sub-dimensions of engagement and performance. As such, the research aims to facilitate further researcher examination on this topic.

Regardless of the potential contributions, the study has its limitations related to several parts. *Imprimis*, the collection of the data illustrates a limitation of this study.

Second, the combination of factor loadings of some of the items in the confirmatory analysis applied to the scale, which was used for this study, constitutes a methodological limitation in this study. Thirdly, the collected data from the scales used in this study were thought to be perceived as a formal necessity due to the personal perception of the employees involved in this study, university practices and management, organizational identity perception as well as social evaluation results and the variance of the usual method. Fourthly, the results of this study show that the reliability of the scale of In-role performance is moderate, not high.

7.3. SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

Up to date studies that investigate the relationship between intrinsic motivation, employee engagement, and job performance at the national level are not sufficient thus more research is required in the future. Further, it is more than crucial that the following research investigates the sub-dimensions results of intrinsic motivation. Moreover, the understanding of the relationship between intrinsic motivation, engagement, and performance is of a special concern conjointly with explaining the reasons for why and how it is confirmed that this positive relationship exists. Such an explanation and evidence for the relationship between the variables would be brought forward with qualitative research. Furthermore, the research is required to involve several samples among various sectors, whether public or private, in order to prove the validity of the sub-dimensions of intrinsic motivation, engagement and work performance in the national culture.

Since this study does not include a large number of postman, another study would be welcomed which would include more this category of employees who are important in the enterprise.

While the study was conducted, both the Post and Telecom companies were in the salary review phase for all employees and therefore this situation may have had an impact on the results. After a certain period of time, it is suggested that such a study should be conducted in these enterprises to observe the changes after applying the new salaries, the level of motivation and engagement of the employees at work may change after applying the new salaries in these enterprises.

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APPENDIX

Appendix 1. Survey Form

Tema: Kërkesë për pjesëmarrje në hulumtim

Të nderuar Pjesëmarrës,

Ne kuadër te punimit te temës se Doktoratës, unë tani po kryej një hulumtim empirik nën mbikëqyrjen e Prof. Dr. Fatih Çetin nga Universiteti Nigde Ömer Halisdemir në Turqi.

Pjesëmarrja juaj në këtë studim është shumë e çmuar, prandaj, ju lutem që të shpenzoni disa minuta nga koha juaj e çmuar për të marrë pjesë në këtë studim. Pjesëmarrja juaj është plotësisht vullnetare dhe ju mund të tërhiqeni nga ky studim në çdo kohë. Privatësia dhe konfidencialiteti juaj do të respektohet gjatë gjithë kohës dhe në të gjitha rezultatet dhe shkrimet e botuara të këtij studimi.

Për çdo paqartësi apo informacion shtesë që dëshironi të keni në lidhje me këtë studim mund të më kontaktoni në adresën sejdihoxha5@gmail.com, apo te mbikëqyrësi im ne fcetin@ohu.edu.tr, dhe në nr. e tel: +383 45 999 990

Jeni të mirëpritur të jepni kontributin tuaj në këtë studim duke plotësuar pyetësorin ashtu **si e mendoni ju që është** në organizatën tuaj dhe **jo si duhet të jetë**. Faleminderit për përgjigjet tuaja të sinqerta dhe të sakta!

Section A: Demographic questions The following questions concern your position and other personal information. No individual data will be reported.		
1	Mosha juaj	_____ (vjeq)
2	Gjinia juaj	<input type="checkbox"/> Femër; <input type="checkbox"/> Mashkull.
3	Statusi juaj martesor	<input type="checkbox"/> Beqar/e; <input type="checkbox"/> I/e martuar; <input type="checkbox"/> I/e divorcuar; <input type="checkbox"/> I/e ve
4	Edukimi juaj	<input type="checkbox"/> Shkollimi i Mesëm; <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor; <input type="checkbox"/> Master; <input type="checkbox"/> PhD; <input type="checkbox"/> Tjetër (nëse tjetër ju lutem specifikoni) _____
6	Qëndrimi juaj në këtë organizatë	_____ (numri i viteve)

7	Pozita juaj aktuale në këtë organizatë	<input type="checkbox"/> Punonjës sporteli; <input type="checkbox"/> Kontrollor; <input type="checkbox"/> Përgjegjës komunal; <input type="checkbox"/> Zyrtar ; <input type="checkbox"/> Koordinatorë ; <input type="checkbox"/> Inxhinier; <input type="checkbox"/> Menaxher; <input type="checkbox"/> Shef departamenti; <input type="checkbox"/> Drejtor; ; <input type="checkbox"/> Zyrtar i larte; <input type="checkbox"/> Tjetër (nëse tjetër ju lutem specifikoni) <hr/>
8	Lokacioni	Prishtinë <input type="checkbox"/> Mitrovicë <input type="checkbox"/> 3 Pejë <input type="checkbox"/> Gjakovë <input type="checkbox"/> Prizren <input type="checkbox"/> Ferizaj <input type="checkbox"/> Gjilan <input type="checkbox"/>

Looking at the statements below, please rate how much you are presenting a certain behaviour/ or how much this statement is true for you.		<div style="text-align: center;"> 1. Never \longleftrightarrow 5. Always </div>				
		1. Never	2. Rarely	3. Sometimes	4. Very Often	5. Always
1	Përfundoni detyrat e caktuara në mënyrë adekuate.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Unë përmbushë përgjegjësitë e specifikuar në përshkrimin e vendit të punës.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Unë kryej detyrat të cilat priten të kryhen nga ana ime.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Unë përmbushë kërkesat formale të performancës në punë.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Unë angazhohem në aktivitete të cilat ndikojnë në mënyrë direkte në vlerësimin e performancës sime në punë.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Unë i neglizhoj aspektet e punës për të cilat jam i obliguar ti kryej.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Unë dështoj t'i kryej detyrat themelore.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Unë i ndihmoj kolegët e punës të cilët kanë munguar në punë.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Unë i ndihmoj të kolegët e punës të cilët janë të mbingarkuar me punë.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Unë e ndihmoj mbikëqyrësin me punën e tij/saj (edhe kur nuk kërkojnë ndihmë).	1	2	3	4	5
11	Unë gjej kohë për të dëgjuar problemet dhe shqetësimet e kolegëve të punës.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Unë angazhohem përtej obligimeve të mia për të'i ndihmuar punëtorët e rinjë të ndërmarrjes.	1	2	3	4	5

13	Unë tregoj një interesim personal për të ndihmuar të tjerët.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Unë ndaj informacione me kolegët e punës.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Ardhja ime në punë është është përtej kontratës (normës) së punës.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Unë i njoftoi paraprakisht kur nuk mund të vijë në punë.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Unë marr pauza të pa merituar në punë.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Unë kaloj një kohë të gjatë duke biseduar në telefon për çështje personale.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Unë ankoem për gjëra të cilat janë të pa rëndësishme në punë.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Unë ruaj dhe mbroj pronën e organizatës.	1	2	3	4	5
21	Unë ju përmbahem rregullave jo-formale për të ruajtur rendin në ndërmarrje.	1	2	3	4	5
<p>Looking at the statements below that express the way you feel at work. Please read carefully each statement and decide if you feel this way in your work.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1. Never \longleftrightarrow 5. Always</p>		1. Never	2. Rarely	3. Sometimes	4. Very Often	5. Always
22	Në punë, unë ndihem me plot energji.					
23	Në punë, unë ndihem i fuqishëm dhe energjik.					
24	Unë jam entuziast për punën time.					
25	Puna ime më inspiron.					
26	Kur zgjohem në mëngjes, ndiej kënaqësi për të shkuar në punë.					
27	Ndihem i lumtur kur punoj intensivisht.					
28	Jam krenar për punën që bëjë.					
29	Unë jam i angazhuar në punën time.					
30	Ndihem i lumtur dhe koha me ecën shpejte kur jam duke punuar.					

Looking at the statements below that express the way you feel at work. Please read carefully each statement and decide if you feel this way in your work.		1. Never	2. Rarely	3. Sometimes	4. Very Often	5. Always
1. Never \longleftrightarrow 5. Always						
31	Unë besoj që mund të jap një kontribut të madh për të vendosur se si mund të kryhet puna ime.					
32	Me pëlqejnë njerëzit me të cilët punoj.					
33	Unë nuk ndihem shumë kompetent kur jam në punë.					
34	Kolegët e punës me thonë që unë jam i mirë në atë që e bëj.					
35	Unë ndihem nën presion kur jam në punë.					
36	Unë shoqërohem kaloj mirë me njerëz kur jam në punë.					
37	Unë kryesisht shmangem dhe rri vetëm kur jam në punë.					
38	Unë ndihem i lirë të shpreh idetë dhe mendimet e mia kur jam në punë.					
39	Unë i konsideroj njerëzit me të cilët punoj si shokët e mi.					
40	Unë kam qenë në gjendje të mësoj aftësi dhe shkathtësi të reja dhe interesante në punën time.					
41	Kur unë jam duke punuar, shpesh nuk ndihem shumë i shkathët.					
42	Shumicën e ditëve ndiej një ndjenjë mirënjohje (arritje) nga puna që e bëj.					
43	Ndjenjat e mia merren në konsideratë në punë.					
44	Në punën time unë nuk kam shumë mundësi për të treguar se sa i aftë jam.					
45	Njerëzit në punë kujdesen për mua.					
46	Nuk ka shumë njerëz në punë me të cilët ndjehem i afërt.					
47	Ndihem sikur mund të jem vete- vetja ime në punë.					
48	Njerëzit me të cilët punoj, nuk më duan shumë.					

49	Kur unë jam duke punuar, shpesh nuk ndihem shume i shkathët.					
50	Nuk kam shumë mundësi që të vendos vetë se si të bej punën time.					
51	Kolegët e punës me thonë që unë jam i mirë në atë që e bëjë.					



CURRICULUM VITAE

SEJDI HOXHA

Ahmet Krasniqi Blloku 2 B C3 Hy A5 No 20, Prishtinë, Kosova

(00383) 45 999 990

E-mail : Sejdi.hoxha@ushaf.net



PERSONAL INFORMATION

Date of birth	1981
Place of birth	Damanek, DRENAS
Marital status	Married
Child status	2 Children (1 Girl, 1Boy)

WORKING EXPERIENCE

PRISTINA INTERNATIONAL AIRPORT

2008-2009 Member of the Board of Directors

KOSOVO RAILWAYS

2009-2012 Chairman of the Board of Directors

POST OF KOSOVA

2012-2019 Chief Executive Officer

UNIVERSITY OF APPLIED TECHNICAL SCIENCES IN FERIZAJ.

2009-2017 Asistant

2009-2011 Coordinator and Academic Development ECTS

2011-2012 Head of the Department of Industrial Management

2017 Lecturer

2019 (Deputy) Member of the Parliament of Kosovo

EDUCATION INFORMATION

2000-2006 UNIVERSITY OF PRISTINA
Faculty of Mechanical Engineering
Graduated Engineer of machinery

2006-2009 UNIVERSITY OF PRISTINA
Faculty of Mechanical Engineering
Master of technical science
Thesis subject: "Railway transport in Kosova and possibilities for
appliance of integral and multimodal transport technology"

2014- 2016 UNIVERSUM COLLEGE
Faculty of Managment

Master of Management

Thesis subject: "Assesing the impact of project case study automation system of postal office in Kosova (SASP)

2014-2019

NIĞDE ÖMER HALİSDEMİR ÜNİVERSİTES

Social Sciences Institute

PhD, Business Administration

Thesis subject: The impact of Intrinsic Motivation and Employee Engagement on in-role and Extra-role Performance: A Research in Post and Telecom of Kosova

Foreign language		
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2017	TOEFL	78,00 (English)
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