

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BURNOUT AND EMPLOYEE OUTCOMES: THE  
MODERATING ROLE OF PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SATISFACTION AND  
ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

By

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## **Abstract**

Burnout in the workplace has increased over time across all industries and geographies. When employees experience burnout, they typically give in to psychological as well as physical strain, whereas the consequences for their organisations include higher rates of absenteeism and turnover. Faculty members working in universities are also susceptible to burnout and the challenges they encounter with regards to burnout are unique. To better understand the potential levers available to managers to address employee burnout, this study examines the relationship between burnout, organisational commitment (OC), and performance appraisal satisfaction (PAS) among faculty members of two public universities in Saudi Arabia and the effects that these factors have on job satisfaction and job performance. Drawing on Ability, Motivation and Opportunity framework and Job Demand-Resources model, a mixed method approach is employed utilising 213 survey responses and 23 semi-structured interviews.

The results indicate that burnout is negatively related to job satisfaction, but that there is no relationship between burnout and job performance. Meanwhile, PAS is positively related to job satisfaction but is unrelated to job performance. By contrast, OC was found to be positively related to both job satisfaction and job performance. Importantly, PAS positively moderates the burnout-to-job satisfaction relationship, whereas it negatively moderates the burnout-to-job performance relationship. Similarly, OC had the effect of positively moderating the effect of burnout on job satisfaction but no effect on the burnout-to-job performance relationship. The responses received during the interviews suggested that performance appraisals fail to deliver enhanced performance in the workplace in the absence of appropriate penalties for individuals who underachieve and incentives for faculty members to outperform such as recognition and opportunities for professional development. The findings regarding the need for enhanced resources to mitigate burnout and enhance the job satisfaction and performance of faculty members will be of interest to higher education policymakers and to line managers.

**Keywords:** Burnout, Performance Appraisal Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment, Employee Outcomes, Saudi Arabian Public Universities

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### **List of abbreviations**

AMO	Ability, Motivation and Opportunity
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
HR	Human Resource
HRM	Human Resource Management
JD-R	Job Demands-Resources
KAU	King Abdulaziz University
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
OC×BO	Organisational Commitment × Burnout
PAS×BO	Performance Appraisal Satisfaction× Burnout
PSAU	Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University
PSM	Public Service Motivation
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences

## **Chapter 1. Introduction**

### **1.1 Research background**

Burnout is experienced when an individual is overworked or experiences stress whilst working over an extended period of time, resulting in them becoming emotionally and/or physically exhausted (Jackson et al. 1986). Burnout is an important consideration for those involved with human resource management (HRM) owing to the fact that it is closely associated with both job performance and the well-being of employees (Cheng et al. 2023). At a time when many people are faced with onerous job demands and inadequate resources, growing numbers of workers are at risk of experiencing burnout (Maslach et al. 2001; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004). Burnout afflicts employees in all industries and in the public as well as the private sector (Demerouti et al. 2001).

Competition between organisations means that employees are increasingly likely to be required to work in fast-paced environments, manage greater workloads and function under competitive pressures (Bartram et al. 2023). In addition to negatively affecting the physical and mental health of employees (Peterson et al. 2008; Maslach and Leiter 2016), burnout also has a negative impact in terms of how they perform (e.g., Wright and Cropanzano 1998; Gomes et al. 2022) and how satisfied they are in their work (e.g., Dolan 1987; Iverson et al. 1998; Shepherd et al. 2011). Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that burnout contributes towards absenteeism (e.g., Schaufeli et al. 2009b; Petitta and Vecchione 2011) and imposes additional costs on employers by increasing staff turnover (e.g., Schaufeli et al. 2009b; Rajendran et al. 2020). The previous literature has examined burnout in a range of industries but public sector employees and the unique challenges they experience (e.g., excessive workloads, limited resources and considerable administrative duties) have been largely overlooked, without focusing specifically on developments within universities. In addition, there remains a paucity of literature investigating burnout in non-Western countries. There is a clear need for organisations to reduce the incidence of burnout but this requires better knowledge of the factors influencing the phenomenon (Lei et al. 2021).

Changing managerial practices combined with the adoption of market-oriented policies (Ball 2012) have resulted in universities around the world undergoing extensive transformations in recent years (O'Keefe and Courtois 2019). This transition has resulted in the creation of neoliberal universities and a radical change in what is expected from faculty members (Ball 2012). Growing numbers of universities are implementing performance-driven models, prioritising productivity, competitive rankings and accountability (Ball 2012; Lund 2020). Whilst the intention has been to improve efficiency at a time when universities are competing on a global stage, the practical implications mean that faculty members are confronted with more onerous work demands in terms of their output of high-impact research, administrative duties and lecturing (Ball 2012; Lund 2020).

These developments have had a marked effect, most notably on faculty members' job satisfaction and mental health. The erosion of traditional academic values, coupled with onerous workloads have resulted in faculty members being increasingly likely to report feeling burnt out, a reduction in job autonomy and heightened levels of stress (Bryson 2004). There has been a noticeable transition away from autonomy and other core principles because universities used to demonstrate a shared sense of mission, mentorship and collaboration but these values have largely been replaced by competitive priorities such as individualism instead of collective effort, resource allocation and competitive rankings (Bryson 2004). Faculty members are increasingly likely to have their performance measured using metrics such as scholarly collaboration or publication counts (Ball 2012). Notably, these developments have not taken place exclusively at universities in the West because such practices are now commonplace around the world, including in Arab countries (Jafar and Knight 2020).

Faculty members confront various challenges, however, including the conflicting needs to publish high-quality research on a regular basis whilst also lecturing to large class sizes (Winefield et al. 2014). Concerted efforts have been made by researchers since the mid-1980s to clarify how workplace demands affect faculty members' well-being (Gmelch et al. 1986; Gillespie et al. 2001; Watts and Robertson 2011). Some of that research has specifically addressed the effects of

burnout and concerns have been expressed regarding the adverse effects of work intensification on health (Kyriacou 1987; Watts and Robertson 2011). To date, school teachers have received considerable attention, with it only being in recent years that research has started to be conducted regarding the effects on faculty members in universities (Zábrowská et al. 2018). It used to be assumed that those working in universities were exposed to low levels of stress but that no longer appears to be the case (Kinman 2001; Zábrowská et al. 2018). The previous assumption that those working in universities benefited from a low-stress environment stems from the autonomy they were afforded to determine their own research and lecturing schedules. In addition, their workloads were not excessive, providing ample time for personal development and to conduct research. Furthermore, universities were typically perceived as being collegial, providing supportive and collaborative environments. The transformation that has been witnessed in higher education can be attributed to numerous factors such as the widespread use of performance metrics, the ranking of outputs and the marketisation of education (Ball 2012; Lund 2020). This has coincided with a period in which faculty members' workloads have increased owing to economic pressures and funding cuts. Furthermore, the traditional academic work ethos has also been impacted by the global shift towards neoliberalism which prioritises accountability, competition and ever-greater efficiency (Ball 2012; Lund 2020).

Indeed, there is growing evidence that occupational stress is becoming an increasing problem for academics around the world (Kinman 2001). For instance, faculty members are increasingly likely to be working extended hours as job demands expand at a time when the allocation of resources is failing to keep pace. Faculty members also report issues with poor communication channels, excessive administrative duties and difficulties striking a good work-life balance (Kinman 2001). Notably, there is evidence in the previous research to indicate that the problem of burnout among faculty members is becoming ever more widespread (e.g., Watts and Robertson 2011; Zábrowská et al. 2018; Asfahani 2024).

The previous literature indicates that almost half of those employed in the public sector report experiencing burnout (Golembiewski et al. 1998 and Miao et al. 2024).



Therefore, the current research sets out to empirically establish how the employee outcomes of faculty members working at public universities in Saudi Arabia are affected by burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment. These elements are of particular relevance owing to the significant effect they have on the efficacy of the organisation and the well-being of individuals. Those working in academia are particularly susceptible to burnout because onerous job demands can leave them feeling dissatisfied and exhausted, thereby adversely affecting their job performance (Skaalvik and Skaalvik 2017). Satisfaction with the performance appraisal process is important in terms of its effect on employee outcomes and how it reflects on the university (Ismail and Rishani 2018). organisational commitment is a factor of interest owing to the fact that a university's performance and success benefit from having employees who are committed (Farid et al. 2015). In addition, the current study aims to determine the ability of performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment to moderate the burnout-employee outcome relationship, thereby making a significant contribution to the existing body of knowledge.

## **1.2 Significance of the study**

There are three primary reasons why the current research is of significance. Firstly, it clarifies the extent to which those working in the public sector are affected by burnout. Secondly, it enhances understanding of employee outcomes which have significant effects on both employees and their organisations. Thirdly, the research fills numerous gaps that have been identified in the previous literature with regards to burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment.

### **1.2.1 Impact of burnout in the public sector**

Since the late-1980s, practitioners, academics and members of the public have all started to recognise the adverse effects of burnout (Schaufeli et al. 2009a). To date, the majority of the research conducted into burnout has focused on the private sector, whilst developments in the public sector have been largely overlooked. Consequently, relatively little is known about the ways in which burnout manifests in the public sector or the efforts that are taken to address it, despite the fact that the

public sector has distinct resource limitations, bureaucratic structures and administrative workloads (Eldor 2018). Such issues influence the nature of the workplace and impose pressures unlike those experienced in the private sector. For instance, a lack of resources (especially a lack of financial resources or personnel) can result in members of staff facing excessive workloads with inadequate support, thereby presenting a source of stress. Meanwhile, bureaucratic systems are inflexible and impose rigid rules which can result in members of staff feeling powerless and frustrated. Finally, excessive administrative duties can result in the job becoming emotionally and mentally draining (Eldor 2018). Consequently, it is necessary to have a good grasp of these matters to be able to effectively address burnout in public sector organisations.

Recently published research concerning public administration has taken this further by considering burnout in terms of structural vulnerabilities. For instance, it has been suggested that public servants working in frontline positions are more susceptible to experiencing stress because they are typically required to perform their roles in settings where they experience emotional strain, where there is ambiguity regarding their role and there are a lack of institutional safeguards (Davidovitz 2024). Such vulnerabilities are both systemic and psychological, associated with managers becoming increasingly demanding at a time when the protection afforded to members of staff are being eroded. Davidovitz's (2024) analysis could conceivably be applicable to faculty members in public universities because they are subjected to inflexible performance systems, support structure that are highly constrained and expectations are frequently contradictory. Working in such an environment can become emotionally demanding and is indicative of the general vulnerabilities experienced by those working in the public sector.

In addition, there is a perception that those employed by the government will be willing to go above and beyond to serve the public. Indeed, faced with spending cuts and staff shortages, it is common practice around the globe for public servants to work extended hours for no additional pay and to do so whilst being under-resourced (Esteve et al. 2017; Potipiroon and Faerman 2020).

Such challenges assume an additional dimension in the context of public universities. The faculty members in these universities are public sector workers, meaning that they are subjected to both the pressures associated with the public sector and also the stressors experienced by those in academic posts. When faced with research expectations, excessive lecturing demands, heavy administrative duties and inadequate resources, such demands can result in burnout. When faculty members experience burnout, there can be significant negative effects for their university in terms of productivity, sick leave and the quality of education provided (Alves et al. 2019). Consequently, there is a clear need to investigate the effects of burnout in the context of public sector universities.

### **1.2.2 Importance of employee outcomes**

The importance of job satisfaction and job performance as employee outcomes with regards to organisational behaviour and human resources has previously been recognised by Kim et al. (2017). When seeking to enhance the effectiveness of those working in the public sector, it is necessary to give careful consideration to their job satisfaction (Brunetto and Farr-Wharton 2002). Research states that employees who are satisfied are less likely to take time off sick, as well as being more time-effective when in work and less likely to consider switching to a different employer (Spector 1994; Brunetto et al. 2012). Similarly, job performance has a significant impact on those working in public administration in terms of their efficiency and effectiveness (Bright 2007).

The current research sets out to establish how burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment affect the employee outcomes of job satisfaction and job performance. Job satisfaction and job performance are prominent topics in the literature concerning burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment. In this study, these variables are explored in relation to their predictors (as discussed in Chapters 2 and 3).

The significance of these findings is not limited to research concerning academia because job satisfaction and job performance are influential in determining success at both the organisational and individual levels. At the organisational level, job

performance helps to achieve stated targets and enhances both operational efficiency and productivity (Kareem and Hussein 2019), whereas job satisfaction boosts morale, enhances teamwork, reduces turnover and promotes employee commitment (Lamber and Hogan 2009). Meanwhile, at the individual level, job performance helps to realise personal goals and satisfy expectations, whereas job satisfaction motivates employees and enhances their well-being.

Such findings will be of particular relevance to employees and managers with regards to organisational practice (Kovjanic et al. 2012). The results from the previous literature in the public sector are summarised in Table 1.1 and suggest that these affect outcomes at both the organisational and individual levels. For instance, the previous research indicates that there is a significant relationship between job performance and organisational effectiveness (Kareem and Hussein 2019). Meanwhile, it has been reported that there is a significant positive association between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Mwesigwa et al. 2020), employee engagement (Brunetto et al. 2012), turnover intention (Bright 2021), job involvement (Wegge et al. 2007) and job performance (Kim 2005; Dizgah et al. 2012).

The recognition that both job satisfaction and job performance are important is in accordance with the focus of the current research. job performance concerns the efforts that workers make to realise the goals of their organisation and their observable achievements, whereas job satisfaction helps to create a positive workplace and promotes employee engagement (Lamber and Hogan 2009). Both job satisfaction and job performance make a significant contribution towards organisational success, linking the behaviour of the individual to the wider organisation-level targets. The current research seeks to clarify the influence that burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment have on job satisfaction and job performance, which are known to have a significant effect on the effectiveness of organisations and the well-being of employees.

**Table 1.1:** Summary of the previous research concerning both employee and organisation outcomes

<b>Author(s)/Year</b>	<b>Country</b>	<b>Findings</b>
Kim (2005)	South Korea	Job satisfaction and the performance of government organisations are significantly positively related.
Wegge et al. (2007)	Germany	There is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and job involvement among civil servants.
Park and Kim (2009)	South Korea	The job satisfaction of nurses working in government hospitals is significantly negatively related to their turnover intentions.
Pitts (2009)	USA	Job satisfaction is positively related to the organisational performance of federal employees
Nimalathan and Brabete (2010)	Sri Lanka	Job satisfaction and job performance are significantly positively related.
Brunetto et al. (2012)	Australia	The job satisfaction of police officers is significantly positively related to employee engagement.
Chih et al. (2012)	China	There is a significant positive relationship between the job satisfaction of Republic of China Air Force officers and their organisational commitment
Dizgah et al. (2012)	Iran	The job satisfaction and job performance of those working in the public sector are significantly positively related.

Muterera et al. (2018)	USA	Job satisfaction and organisational performance are significantly positively related in county governments.
Kareem and Hussein (2019)	Iraq	Employee performance and organisational effectiveness in public universities are significantly positively related.
Mwesigwa et al. (2020)	Uganda	The job satisfaction and organisational commitment of academic staff working in public universities are significantly positively related.
Bright (2021)	USA	The job satisfaction of federal employees is significantly negatively related to turnover intention.
Demircioglu (2023)	Australia	The job satisfaction of those working in the Public Service Commission is significantly positively related to their affective commitment.

### 1.2.3 Gaps in the literature

There is a clear need to better understand the practical implications of burnout for those working in the public sector and such information will also be of interest to their employing organisations but a further contribution that the current research makes is that it fills several gaps in the existing literature. Notably, the current study not only fills gaps in the burnout literature but also in the performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment literatures. For instance, whilst various efforts have previously been made to study burnout in diverse sectors, little attention has been paid to its effects on the job satisfaction and job performance of faculty members working at public universities in Arab countries.

Secondly, combined efforts have been made in the previous literature to establish how employee outcomes are influenced by performance appraisal satisfaction but researchers have failed to consider the possibility that performance appraisal

satisfaction could serve as a moderator in the relationship between burnout and employee outcomes. Therefore, the current study fills this gap by setting out to establish the ability of performance appraisal satisfaction to serve as a buffer against the adverse effects of burnout in the previously overlooked context of public higher education.

Thirdly, whilst it has previously been established that organisational commitment is a significant determinant of employee outcomes, it remains unclear whether it has the ability to buffer against the negative effects of burnout, especially among faculty members in academia. The current research considers the moderating effect of organisational commitment, thereby helping to fill this knowledge gap and providing insight into its ability to maintain job satisfaction and job performance when faculty are experiencing the negative effects of burnout.

Fourthly, whilst the previous literature has considered the effects that burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment have on employee outcomes, the current study is the first to investigate these relationships in the context of the Saudi public sector. Whilst the body of research concerning the relationship between burnout and employee outcomes continues to grow across a range of sectors, it has overwhelmingly focused on developments in the US (e.g., Wright and Cropanzano 1998; Mulki et al. 2006), Asia (e.g., Rutherford et al. 2011; Hur et al. 2015), Europe (e.g., Gomes et al. 2022) and Africa (e.g., Rughoobur-Seetah 2023), with no previous study having examined Saudi public universities. Similarly, there is a large body of research concerning the relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and employee outcomes in a variety of industries in the West (e.g., Ellickson and Logsdon 2002; Jawahar 2006; Kuvaas 2006; Krats and Brown 2013), whereas there is a paucity of research concerning the nature of this relationship in public sector universities, especially in Arab countries.

Fifthly, the organisational commitment -employee outcome relationship has been extensively studied across diverse industrial settings in the West (e.g., Ting 1997; Park and Rainey 2007) and Asia (e.g., Yao and Wang 2006; Fu and Deshpande 2014). In contrast, little effort has been made in the previous literature to investigate

this topic in the context of universities, especially in Arab countries. Therefore, the current research makes a valuable contribution by helping to establish the influence of burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment on faculty members working at Saudi public universities.

Finally, the current research sets out to overcome the problem of burnout in public universities by examining the capacity for performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment to help the public sector alleviate burnout's negative effects. In particular, the research considers whether burnout's adverse effects on job satisfaction and job performance could be mitigated by utilising these resources in order to improve the job satisfaction and job performance of faculty members. This entails the application of reputable frameworks. Most notably, the effect that organisational practices have on the job satisfaction and performance of employees can be established by applying Ability, Motivation and Opportunity (AMO) framework. Indeed, this approach is applied in the current research to investigate how these outcomes are affected by organisational commitment and performance appraisal satisfaction using data for faculty members working at public universities in Saudi Arabia. In addition to AMO framework, the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model is also applied to interpret how job demands (e.g., a heavy workload) and job resources (e.g., performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment) interact. The choice of this method helps to ensure that the research illustrates how public universities can utilise their available resources to help their faculty members avoid the adverse effects of burnout.

### **1.3 Research context: Saudi Arabia**

Located in the Middle East, Saudi Arabia is a member country of the Gulf Cooperation Council (Al-Mawali 2015). Occupying the majority of the Arabian Peninsula, Saudi Arabia sits at the crossroads between Asia, Europe and Africa (Ministry of Foreign Affairs [no date]). The dominant religion in the country is Islam (Nevo 1998) and the values and beliefs of the religion influence all areas of society, including family life, healthcare provision, education and employment (Al-Shahri 2002).



Saudi Arabia recognises the value of an educated population and has invested heavily in the education system, making both primary and secondary school free for all to attend, whilst subsidising higher education courses (Alamri 2011). The philosophy of Islam is prevalent throughout the education system but schooling also reflects the country's cultural norms, with segregation on the basis of gender being standard practice.

#### **1.4 Higher education system in Saudi public universities**

The Saudi government fully funds higher education in the country and universities are state-owned (Al-Eisa and Smith 2013). As such, faculty members in these universities are public servants paid from the public purse. Saudi universities come under the centralised control of the Ministry of Education (Altwijri 2023) and this control extends to the responsibilities and roles of faculty members. Under this model, the universities benefit from a secure financial footing, albeit that this comes at the expense of limited institutional autonomy in much the same way as other public services (Lebeau and Alruwaili 2022).

Being structured centrally, governed by the Ministry of Education, affects various processes in these universities such as managerial support mechanisms, how workloads are distributed and the systems that are in place to conduct performance appraisals. Only a very small proportion of higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia are privately owned, with the public universities operating a governance model that reflects national objectives and oversight by the state. The practical implications of this structure include that faculty members face particularly excessive workloads and lack professional autonomy (Watts and Robertson 2011). Importantly, the situation is exacerbated by the underlying global trends of intensified work and higher academic expectations (Watts and Robertson 2011), both of which are playing out in Saudi Arabia.

Whilst the attention paid by researchers to workplace practices in higher education has increased over time, the situation in Saudi Arabia's public sector institutions has been largely overlooked. Therefore, the current research helps to fill this gap, focusing on the effects of burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and

organisational commitment. This is achieved by analysing faculty members' experiences as public servants in a workplace that is centrally governed by the state.

### **1.5 Research objectives**

The following objectives will be realised by the current study:

1. Establish the nature of the relationships between burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment and employee outcomes among faculty members at public universities in Saudi Arabia.
2. Comprehensively review the previous literature concerning burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment and employee outcomes at public universities in Saudi Arabia.
3. Establish the ability of performance appraisal satisfaction to moderate the burnout-employee outcomes relationship.
4. Establish the ability of organisational commitment to moderate the burnout-employee outcomes relationship.
5. Test the hypothesised relationships in the conceptual framework by collecting and analysing both qualitative and quantitative data.
6. Establish the practical and theoretical implications of the findings and make recommendations for those conducting future research on this topic.

### **1.6 Research questions**

The following research questions will be answered in order to help realise the stated objectives:

1. What is the relationship between burnout and employee outcomes in Saudi public universities?
2. What is the relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and employee outcomes in Saudi public universities?

3. What is the relationship between organisational commitment and employee outcomes in Saudi public universities?
4. Does performance appraisal satisfaction moderate the relationship between burnout and employee outcomes in Saudi public universities?
5. Does organisational commitment moderate the relationship between burnout and employee outcomes in Saudi public universities?

### **1.7 Research methodology**

The current study has been conducted in accordance with the positivist research paradigm. In order to realise the stated research objectives, a descriptive cross-sectional design was employed and the target population was faculty members at public universities in Saudi Arabia.

More specifically, a convenience sample of faculty members employed at two public universities in different regions of the country was utilised for the research. The decision was taken to use a convenience sample because of the difficulties obtaining permission to undertake research of this nature and the ability to gain ready access to the selected institutions. The participants were chosen on the basis that they were willing to take part and available when required, thereby ensuring that this approach was appropriate given the time constraints imposed on the current research. Primary data were obtained using a questionnaire which was written in English and subsequently transcribed into Arabic. Initially, the questionnaire was tested on six faculty members as part of a pilot study conducted at King Abdulaziz University (KAU). Based on the responses and recommendations of these six faculty members, several alterations were made to the questionnaire and it was then back-translated into English to ensure that the original meaning had not been lost. The amended questionnaire was ultimately completed by a total of 213 faculty members employed at the two public universities. Once the completed questionnaires had been received, the validity of the constructs was tested, as was the quality of the data. In order to determine the statistical significance of the findings, the responses were subjected to multiple linear regression tests.

In addition to the survey, qualitative data were obtained to provide greater insight as well as to augment the initial findings of the research. The decision was taken to apply snowball sampling, whereby those who are interviewed are asked to recommend other suitable participants (Wellington 2015). Applying this approach resulted in a good gender split among the participants, which is important given the strict policy of gender segregation that applies in educational settings in Saudi Arabia. A total of 23 semi-structured interviews were undertaken and the resulting qualitative data were subjected to thematic analysis.

### **1.8 Structure of the thesis**

In addition to the current chapter, there are seven further chapters which help to address the stated research objectives. **Chapter Two** provides insight into the burnout-employee outcomes relationship. Having introduced the concept of burnout, the chapter provides details of the AMO framework and JD-R model which have dominated the previous literature concerning the relationship between burnout and employee outcomes. In addition, Chapter Two provides details of previous studies concerning the relationship between burnout and both job satisfaction and job performance. Having reflected on the findings of the previous literature, hypotheses are developed in each section.

**Chapter Three** introduces the concepts of performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment and provides insight into why they may influence employee outcomes. In addition, the chapter considers the possibility that these factors may be able to moderate the relationship between burnout and employee outcomes. Finally, testable hypotheses are proposed based on insight gleaned from the previous literature.

**Chapter Four** provides details of the methodology used to test the various hypotheses. This chapter links the conceptual framework devised for the current research to the empirical findings presented in the chapters that follow. In addition, context is provided regarding public universities in Saudi Arabia and the ethical considerations associated with the current research are explained.

**Chapter Five** profiles the demographics of those who returned completed questionnaires and conducts descriptive analysis of the survey data. In addition, the data's reliability is also examined, with Pearson correlations being used to establish whether or not the independent and dependent variables are likely to be connected.

**Chapter Six** examines the main findings derived from the quantitative data with reference to the stated hypotheses. The data are subjected to multiple linear regression analysis, providing insight into the direct and moderation effects among the variables when controlling for other potentially important influences.

**Chapter Seven** examines the findings derived from the qualitative data, thereby enabling the relationships identified based on the quantitative data to be clarified.

**Chapter Eight** concludes the research by setting out the findings in relation to the context of the study. In addition, the chapter gives thought to the practical implications of the findings and identifies the contributions that have been made to the existing body of research. Finally, the limitations associated with the current research are identified and recommendations are made for those conducting future research in this area.

## **Chapter 2. Burnout and employee outcomes**

Guest (2002) stresses the importance of employee outcomes when conducting investigations concerning HRM because an organisation's staff are its most valuable asset and these people are also the essence of the organisation. What is more, of all the various employee outcomes, two factors that are frequently used to gauge the success of an organisation are job satisfaction and job performance (McNeese-Smith 1999). Such outcomes have important implications in any sector but they are particularly relevant for those working in higher education because they are typically required to handle heavy administrative duties and excessive workloads, both of which can result in burnout. Consequently, there is a need to establish how job satisfaction and job performance are affected by such challenges in order to better understand the role that burnout plays in determining employee outcomes. The aim of this chapter is to establish the theoretical and empirical basis for examining the impact of burnout on employee outcomes. First, an overview of the concept of burnout is provided. Next, the specific case of burnout in academia is introduced. This is followed by a presentation of the AMO framework and the JD-R model, which are the main theories that have dominated the literature concerning the relationship between burnout and employee outcomes. Finally, the main empirical studies that have examined the relationship between burnout and the employee outcomes of job satisfaction and job performance are reviewed. Study hypotheses are developed after a review of the related literature in each relevant section.

## 2.1 Burnout

Employees across the world may periodically experience the negative effects of over-work and job strain. When these effects become overwhelming, they are said to be experiencing burnout. Freudenberger (1974) was the first to use the term burnout, describing it as a feeling of physical and mental exhaustion resulting from the demands of the job being excessive, thereby sapping an individual's strength and energy. Subsequently, Maslach and Jackson (1981) determined that burnout is an emotional response to external stressors that cause employees faced with challenging work conditions to experience this psychological state. Maslach and Jackson (1981) identified three dimensions of burnout: *emotional exhaustion* (EE) refers to a feeling of emotional overextension and the depletion of emotional resources; *depersonalisation* (D) refers to the development of sceptical beliefs about people; and *reduced personal accomplishment* (RPA) refers to a tendency to assess oneself in a negative light, especially in terms of one's contribution at work. Furthermore, these components were used to develop the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) which is referred to as the 'gold standard' for measuring burnout (Pantaleoni et al. 2014) and is widely used to gauge the extent of burnout (Pantaleoni et al. 2014; Halbesleben and Demerouti 2005). Alternative definitions of burnout have been suggested but the above definition has been the most prominent to date in the burnout research (O'Connor et al. 2018) and there is almost universal recognition among researchers that feeling emotionally exhausted is a core component of burnout (Seidler et al. 2014).

Feeling emotionally exhausted causes members of staff to choose to become emotionally distanced from their colleagues as a coping mechanism, which results in depersonalisation. Moreover, employees who are both exhausted and feeling depersonalised are likely to see that their personal accomplishment has been greatly reduced, possibly due to them feeling ineffective in their role or because their effectiveness has been objectively reduced. In contrast however, Lee and Ashforth (1996) argue that reduced personal accomplishment does not correlate with emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation. Indeed, Lee and Ashforth (1996) do not believe that there is any place for this in concepts of burnout. Meanwhile,

Halbesleben and Demerouti (2005), who were responsible for developing the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory, assert that the burnout model only concerns two factors (emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation) and they stress that any reduction in personal achievement is attributable to an individual's personality and is unrelated to burnout. Be that as it may, extensive use is made of the MBI's three-factor structure in the empirical literature (e.g., Gorter et al. 1999; Poghosyan et al. 2010).

The current study focuses on the three dimensions of employee burnout, namely emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal achievement because they are linked to the employee outcomes under investigation. Furthermore, the validity of the three-dimensional model is well-established in the literature (Bria et al. 2014). Thus, it is necessary to examine how the three dimensions of burnout affect faculty members' outcomes.

## **2.2 Burnout in academia**

There is growing concern regarding the negative effects of burnout across various sectors of the economy but its effects in academia are especially pronounced because faculty members are subjected to unique expectations and demands (Han et al. 2020; Urbina-Garcia et al. 2020; Whitsed et al. 2024). Indeed, there is a large body of evidence to suggest that burnout is a particular problem among faculty members (e.g., Lackritz 2004; Ghorpade et al. 2011; Watts and Robertson 2011; Byrne et al. 2013; Sabagh et al. 2018; Záborská et al. 2018; Koster and McHenry 2023). Faculty members face competing demands for their time because they are required to present lectures, undertake research and perform administrative tasks (Han et al. 2020). However, the effects of this already heavy workload can be exacerbated in the event that there are large class sizes, poor training and a lack of administrative support, which can collectively result in academics experiencing feelings of frustration and powerlessness that ultimately contribute to burnout (Pines 2002; Asimeng-Boahene 2003).

It is apparent from the empirical literature produced around the world, for instance in Africa, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and China, that those working in higher



education establishments are increasingly affected by burnout (Taris et al. 2001; Asimeng-Boahene 2003; Kinman et al. 2006; Zhang 2007).

There are certain aspects of the role that result in academics being particularly susceptible to burnout including a poor work-life balance, excessive workload, poor communication, poor management, and lack of recognition and reward (Winefield et al. 2003; Tytherleigh et al. 2005). Indeed, burnout is widely cited as a reason why many faculty members leave the profession before they are due to retire (Yedidia et al. 2014).

The situation is made worse by the fact that expectations are especially high in academia and yet the available resources are severely limited because it is typically the case that faculty members will be required to sustain the delivery of high-quality teaching whilst also securing funding and publishing research in a competitive landscape and in a limited timeframe (Winefield et al. 2003; Han et al. 2020). When faculty members in public sector universities in Saudi Arabia are confronted with onerous teaching workloads in the absence of effective recognition or rewards systems (Parveen 2013), they are less likely to participate in development and training initiatives (Othayman 2021).

### **2.3 Theories concerning the relationship between burnout and employee outcomes**

The current research utilises two theoretical frameworks (AMO framework and the JD-R model) that have been extensively employed in the previous literature. These frameworks are employed to provide insight into how burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction, organisational commitment, and employee outcomes are related in the context of those working at public universities in Saudi Arabia. These frameworks both derive from human resource management and organisational psychology but the insight they provide is distinct. AMO framework considers performance when assessing the effects that organisational practices and appraisal systems have on how individuals perform. Meanwhile, the JD-R model offers a means of interpreting how contextual resources help to buffer against the adverse effects of burnout, as well as helping to better understand burnout's antecedents.

### **2.3.1 Ability, motivation and opportunity framework**

Among the most notable theories regarding the relationship between HRM practices and employee outcomes is AMO framework which was developed by Appelbaum et al. (2000). AMO framework suggests that managers can enhance the performance of employees by positively affecting their ability to perform (A), motivating them to perform (M) and giving them the opportunity to perform (O) (Boxall and Purcell 2016).

Therefore, AMO framework states that employees' opportunities, motivations and skills collectively determine how their organisation performs. Furthermore, employee performance benefits from the following: 1) having the necessary skills and knowledge to do what they are required to do (ability); 2) being appropriately incentivised and having a genuine interest in the work (motivation); 3) a supportive and well-resourced workplace that provides scope for expression (opportunity to participate) (Boxall and Purcell 2011).

HRM practices have a significant effect on these AMO variables (Boxall and Purcell 2011). Similarly, Appelbaum et al. (2000) state that certain high-performance work practices (HPWPs), which are a subset of HRM practices, are particularly influential in motivating employees, improving their skillset and providing an opportunity to contribute. Key sources of motivation are a good wage and performance-related pay. Meanwhile, employees' skills can be improved through effective training, selection and recruitment policies. Finally, the opportunity to contribute can be strengthened when employees are involved in decision-making processes and given a sense of autonomy (Appelbaum et al. 2000).

The AMO framework asserts that each of these elements are influenced by high-performance human resource (HR) practices, thereby enhancing outcomes for employees. For instance, it is possible that employees will be more motivated and better able to identify opportunities if their appraisals are transparent and fair, offer feedback that is constructive, and tie in the assessment findings to opportunities helping individuals to develop professionally. In contrast, in the event that employees regard their appraisals to have no practical implications or to be

unrelated to what happens in their working day, they are unlikely to find the process to be motivating.

### **2.3.2 Job demands-resources model**

Among the various models used to anticipate the outcomes and antecedents of burnout in the previous literature, the JD-R model has been widely used (Demerouti et al. 2001) and continues to be widely utilised to categorise predictors of burnout in academic research (Sciepora and Linos 2024). According to Demerouti et al. (2001, p. 501), *job demands* are “those physical, social or organisational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort.” Owing to the fact that job demands typically involve continual effort, there is a psychological or physical cost, thereby creating the possibility of workers becoming emotionally exhausted (Demerouti et al. 2001). Examples of job demands include high levels of work pressure, role overload, work-home conflict and poor environmental conditions (Bakker et al. 2003; Bakker et al. 2004; Bakker and Demerouti 2007). However, Demerouti et al. (2001) suggest that *job resources* are the organisational, social, psychological and physical elements of a job that: (a) encourage personal development; (b) reduce or buffer the adverse effects of job demands; and (c) help to realise work-related targets.

Job resources can be located at various levels within an organisation including the task level (e.g., autonomy, importance of the task, the need for various skills, performance feedback); work organisation level (e.g., engagement in the decision-making process, having a clearly defined role); interpersonal level (e.g., the climate in which the team operates, support from fellow workers or supervisors); and the organisational level (e.g., having a secure job, opportunity for career progression, financial rewards) (Hackman and Oldham 1976; Bakker et al. 2003). It is assumed that burnout will be exacerbated when resources are lacking, whereas any negative effects associated with burnout will be diminished when resources are plentiful (Demerouti et al. 2001; Schaufeli and Bakker 2004). Consequently, if an organisation is to increase the likelihood that employees experience positive outcomes, it must enhance the available job resources.

In the current research, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment are investigated as two key variables that could moderate the effect of burnout on employee outcomes. These two variables are closely aligned with the conceptualisation of job resources specified by the JD-R model and they provide valuable insight into the effect that workplace conditions have on employees. organisational commitment refers to how loyal and emotionally attached employees are to their organisation, offering a degree of protection against the negative effects of excessive job demands on burnout, whilst at the same time helping to maintain elevated levels of job satisfaction and job performance. Meanwhile, burnout's effects on job satisfaction and job performance can similarly be mitigated by performance appraisal satisfaction if employees value the feedback they receive and recognise the need for the process. Both organisational commitment and performance appraisal satisfaction are analysed as moderators, thereby extending the standard JD-R framework to establish the effect they have on the relationship between demands and the main employee outcomes. Integrating these variables better positions the research to delve into the dynamics of stress in the workplace and the available support systems in the universities under investigation.

Complementary perspectives are afforded by applying both the AMO framework and JD-R model, thereby making a valuable contribution to the conceptual basis of the current research. Indeed, combining these frameworks in a dual-theoretical approach provides more detailed insight into the burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment experienced by faculty members. The JD-R model is able to explain how heavy workloads and other job demands cause burnout to develop. In addition, it well-suited to recognise how the job resources of performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment serve as buffers against such adverse effects. Utilising AMO framework provides additional depth by demonstrating the ability of these variables to improve employees' abilities, motivations, and opportunities, thereby contributing to performance. For example, employees may be less likely to experience burnout if they are satisfied with their performance appraisal, thereby helping to demonstrate how such performance appraisal satisfaction can be a job resource (JD-R), whilst also yielding useful

feedback, recognition, and opportunities that improve performance (AMO). When employees are committed to their organisation, they perceive that they belong and that their work has purpose, thereby helping to avoid burnout (JD-R), whilst simultaneously making them more motivated (AMO).

By applying both of these models, it is possible to better understand how excessive demands impose psychological costs, whilst structural support has the effect of sustaining satisfaction and performance. Given that those working in academia typically face contradictory expectations because of their need to teach, conduct research, and perform admin duties, all whilst working in settings where rewards and the support of management are lacking, such insight is of considerable importance. By applying both JD-R and AMO, it is possible to triangulate the results. By doing so, insight can be provided regarding the means by which burnout develops, what steps can be taken to help buffer against burnout, and the potential for appraisal systems and other institutional practices to influence the satisfaction and performance of faculty members.

## **2.4 Linking burnout and employee outcomes**

The focus in this section is on the specific relationships between burnout and the employee outcomes of job satisfaction and job performance. In this section, a brief discussion of each outcome is provided and the main studies that have examined their relationships with burnout are presented. At the end of this section, there is an evaluation of these studies.

### **2.4.1 Job satisfaction**

Job satisfaction is among the most extensively investigated matters in the field of organisational research (Vilela et al. 2008; Mostafa and Gould-Williams 2014). Job satisfaction is recognised as being the most important attribute among employees from both a practice and research perspective (Saari and Judge 2004). However, scholars define job satisfaction in various ways (Mudor and Tooksoon 2011). The most widely endorsed definition is that of Locke (1976, p. 1304), who defines it as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience.” Similarly, Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller (2012, p. 347) offered the

following definition: an “evaluative state that expresses contentment with, and positive feelings about one’s job.” Robbins (1998) offered the following definition: the general attitude that a person has to their work role, whilst Spector (1997) suggested that it is simply the degree to which a person enjoys or dislikes their work. In essence, an employee’s job satisfaction refers to how they perceive their role in the workplace and its various features (Spector 1997; Park et al. 2003). At the most fundamental level, those individuals with good job satisfaction express positive feelings about their work, whereas those who are dissatisfied express negative opinions (Robbins 1998).

The empirical literature refers to job satisfaction from two distinct perspectives: global and specific. The global perspective focuses on overall satisfaction with the job, whereas the specific perspective is concerned with particular elements of a job (e.g., working conditions, remuneration and relations with fellow workers and managers) (Spector 1997). The specific perspective is regarded as being less valuable than the global perspective owing to the fact that it makes it more difficult to differentiate between job satisfaction and the factors contributing to job satisfaction (Vandenabeele 2013). Accordingly, and in accordance with prior HRM research (e.g., Gould-Williams and Mohamed 2010; Messersmith et al. 2011), this study adopts the global view of job satisfaction, as advocated by Spector (1997).

Previous studies have concluded that the following characteristics are positively related to job satisfaction: well-being (e.g., Brunetto et al. 2012), engagement (e.g., Shacklock et al 2014), leadership style (e.g., Mwesigwa et al. 2020) and organisational commitment (e.g., Ting 1997; Elçi et al. 2007), Conversely, a negative relationship has been established between work overload and job satisfaction (e.g., Chen et al. 2004; Gould-Williams et al. 2014), emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction (e.g., Karatepe and Tekinkus 2006; Mulki et al. 2006; Karatepe and Uludag 2007)

#### **2.4.2 Studies linking burnout and job satisfaction**

An area of organisational behaviour that is attracting considerable attention among researchers is the burnout- job satisfaction relationship which is known to

significantly affect organisational life (Zhang and Feng 2011; Dinibutun 2023). The empirical literature suggests that those who experience burnout are likely to be dissatisfied in their work.

A negative relationship between burnout and job satisfaction has been reported in studies in different parts of the world. Lee and Ok (2012) examined the impact of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment on job satisfaction for 309 customer-contact hotel employees and managers in the USA. Using structural equation modelling, they found that emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment were all negatively associated with job satisfaction. Furthermore, they noted that a cause of job dissatisfaction is the loss of energy and the psychological strain that result from feeling emotionally exhausted. When members of staff feel depersonalised, they treat customers in an impersonal way which, in turn, causes them to feel less competent and that they are struggling to achieve what they need to do, thereby adversely affecting their job satisfaction. Reduced personal accomplishment causes employees to believe that they are not sufficiently competent or successful, further reducing job satisfaction. Therefore, burnout has a detrimental effect on any positive feelings about work, thereby adversely affecting job satisfaction. Hur et al. (2015) examined the relationship between emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction for 286 retail bank employees in South Korea. Using a structural equation model, they found that emotional exhaustion has a negative effect on job satisfaction. They attributed this to employees feeling emotionally exhausted, so that they felt unable to engage meaningfully in their tasks and typically resulted in them being dissatisfied and frustrated.

Using a structural equation model, Mulki et al. (2006) found that a high level of emotional exhaustion leads to lower job satisfaction when studying 208 employees who provide healthcare and social benefits to a large metropolitan county in the USA. They stated that when employees experience emotional exhaustion, they typically become frustrated, helpless and struggle to deliver what is demanded of them. As a result, their job satisfaction suffers and they become discontented with their workplace. When employees are emotionally exhausted, they become less

passionate about their work and they start to perceive their job in a negative light, thereby adversely affecting their job satisfaction.

Shepherd et al. (2011) examined the relationship between the three dimensions of burnout and job satisfaction for 234 salespeople from various organisations (industrial categories included retail, services, wholesale, and manufacturers of consumer and industrial goods) in the USA. Using structural equation modelling, they found that burnout's various dimensions have differing impacts on job satisfaction, with the most significant predictor being emotional exhaustion. They stated that emotional exhaustion is not only the first stage of burnout but also the stage that has the greatest effect, directly weakening job satisfaction by reducing the motivation and energy levels of employees, thereby resulting in them struggling to approach their work in a positive way (Shepherd et al. 2011). These effects are particularly evident for those working in jobs that are client-centred (e.g., sales), where chronic stress can result from heightened levels of customer-oriented ambiguity and role conflict, thereby exacerbating any feelings of being emotionally exhausted. Conversely, the second stage of burnout, depersonalisation, is not significantly related to job satisfaction and this may be due to the fact that it is a coping mechanism for managing the emotional exhaustion and stress resulting from having a stressful job (Shepherd et al. 2011). This coping mechanism may result in employees becoming psychologically distant from their duties or their clients, thereby not directly affecting job satisfaction in the short-term. Rather, it can enable employees to manage their emotional resources (e.g., psychological energy or capacity) by alleviating emotional demands without directly affecting their general job satisfaction. The final stage of burnout is a reduced personal accomplishment which has a negative relationship with job satisfaction. Employees feel less satisfied if they believe they have failed and feel less competent. Shepherd et al. (2011) stressed that emotional exhaustion is a key factor associated with the initiation of burnout.

Using structural equation modelling, Karatepe and Tekinkus (2006) discovered that emotional exhaustion had a significant negative impact on the job satisfaction of 363 frontline bank employees working at 23 banks in Turkey. The authors reported that



emotional exhaustion significantly negatively affects front-line bank employees' job satisfaction. This was attributed to the continual need to engage with customers which can become emotionally draining and make it difficult to enjoy the role. In addition, the research noted that the problem is exacerbated by rigid schedules and excessive workloads, leaving limited scope for employees to strike a positive work-life balance. Therefore, it was concluded that job satisfaction suffers as a result of emotional exhaustion, particularly among those whose jobs are stressful and require considerable responsibility. Similarly, using structural equation modelling, Karatepe and Uludag (2007) showed that emotional exhaustion was negatively related to job satisfaction when studying a sample of 655 frontline employees at hotels in Northern Cyprus. This observation may be attributable to the specific demands associated with the hospitality sector. Those who work in customer-facing roles frequently report that they experience stress because of the need to continually deliver high service levels and resolve customers' issues. Employees in such roles are required to carefully manage their emotions and exhibit a positive attitude, regardless of whether they may be tired or stressed. When experiencing such feelings over an extended period of time, employees will start to feel drained, thereby adversely affecting their job satisfaction. Moreover, feelings of exhaustion can be compounded by onerous workloads and extended work hours, making it challenging for employees to deliver what is expected of them. Karatepe and Uludag (2007) identify the demanding nature of jobs in the hospitality sector as a significant factor influencing the negative effect that emotional exhaustion has on job satisfaction.

Rathi and Lee (2016) studied a sample of 250 hotel and restaurant workers in India, with regression analysis results indicating a significant negative relationship between emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. When workers experience emotional exhaustion, their mental energy declines, resulting in negative perceptions regarding their role. Such feelings are particularly prevalent among those working in the hospitality sector because employees are typically required to manage their emotions in order to deliver what is expected of them, thereby

resulting in them feeling emotionally exhausted and adversely affecting job satisfaction.

Table 2.1 below provides a summary of the empirical studies concerning the link between burnout and job satisfaction. It briefly presents the name(s) of the author(s), the name of the country where the research was undertaken, the sample size, the direct relationship confirmed, the research method, whether the research was undertaken in the private or public sector, the measure of burnout and job satisfaction, and the findings arrived at.

**Table 2.1:** A summary of empirical studies concerning the link between burnout and job satisfaction

Author(s)/ Year	Country	Sample size	Direct relationship confirmed?	Research method	Sector (public/private)	Measure of burnout	Measure of job satisfaction	Findings
Karatepe and Tekinkus (2006)	Turkey	363	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Private	Eight-item subscale for emotional exhaustion of the MBI (Maslach and Jackson 1981)- feeling at the end of the rope, drain, used up, fatigue, frustration, burnout and work-related strain	Eight-items were used from (Hartline and Ferrell 1996)- satisfaction with job, coworkers, supervisors, organisational policies, support, salary, and career advancement opportunities	Emotional exhaustion had a significant negative impact on job satisfaction
Mulki et al. (2006)	USA	208	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Public	Seven-items of emotional exhaustion was assessed with a MBI (Maslach and Jackson 1981)- feeling at the end of the rope, drain, used up, fatigue,	Three-items were used form (Spector 1985)- overall job satisfaction	A high level of emotional exhaustion leads to lower job satisfaction

						frustration and burnout		
Karatepe and Uludag (2007)	Turkey	655	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Private	Eight-item subscale for emotional exhaustion of the MBI (Maslach and Jackson 1981)- feeling at the end of the rope, drain, used up, fatigue, frustration, burnout and work-related strain	Eight-item derived from (Hartline and Ferrell 1996)- overall job, pay, support given to frontline employees, hotel's policies, opportunities for advancement, customer and supervisor	Emotional exhaustion was negatively related to job satisfaction
Shepherd et al. (2011)	USA	234	Mixed	Quantitative (survey)	Private	Three dimensions of burnout. The MBI (Maslach and Jackson 1981)- (22-items)	Three-item presented by (Netemeyer et al. 1997)- overall satisfaction with work	Emotional exhaustion had a direct and significant relationship with job satisfaction; reduced personal accomplishment is responsible for lower levels of job satisfaction. However, depersonalisation did not appear to have an impact on a salesperson's job satisfaction

Lee and Ok (2012)	USA	309	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Private	Three dimensions of burnout. The MBI (Maslach and Jackson 1986)- (17-items)	Three-item from Cammann et al. (1979)- overall job satisfaction	Emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment were negatively associated with job satisfaction.
Hur et al. (2015)	South Korea	286	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Private	Four-items to measure emotional exhaustion were adapted from Maslach and Jackson (1981)- work-related strain, emotional drain and frustration	Four-items based on Brown and Peterson (1994) and Brashear et al. (2003)	Emotional exhaustion had a negative effect on job satisfaction
Rathi and Lee (2016)	India	250	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Private	Nine-items were applied to measure emotional exhaustion subscale of MBI (Maslach and Jackson 1989)	A short version of the job satisfaction scale devised by Brayfield and Rothe (1951)- five-items such as satisfied with present job.	Emotional exhaustion is significantly negatively related to job satisfaction.

Table 2.1 summarises the conclusions that have been arrived at. Extensive research has been conducted to examine the burnout- job satisfaction relationship in various sectors. The previous research has consistently reported that the most significant contribution is made by emotional exhaustion (Karatepe and Tekinkus 2006; Mulki et al. 2006, Karatepe and Uludag 2007; Hur et al. 2015; Rathi and Lee 2016). When workers are emotionally exhausted, they struggle to engage meaningfully and they feel drained, resulting in them becoming dissatisfied and frustrated (Karatepe and Tekinkus 2006; Karatepe and Uludag 2007; Rathi and Lee 2016). Data for the banking and hospitality sectors reveal that emotional exhaustion is exacerbated by the need to work irregular schedules and when facing excessive workloads, thereby eroding job satisfaction.

In contrast, mixed findings have been reported in the previous literature regarding depersonalisation. Lee and Ok (2012) studied hotel workers and reported that their job satisfaction suffered as a result of depersonalisation because it erodes their sense of achievement and competence. Conversely, when Shepherd et al. (2011) analysed data for salesmen, they concluded that depersonalisation's relationship with job satisfaction was insignificant, thereby indicating the possibility that those working in highly stressful roles may use depersonalisation as a means of coping. It is possible that depersonalisation's relationship with job satisfaction differs based on how emotionally demanding the role is. For instance, those working in hospitality are dealing directly with customers and, therefore, require emotional engagement, so it is likely that depersonalisation will have the effect of eroding their sense of satisfaction and achievement. Meanwhile, emotional detachment could help those working in sales to cope when faced with stressful situations and, therefore, it may not have a direct effect on their job satisfaction.

The diverse results concerning depersonalisation suggest that the burnout-job satisfaction relationship differs depending on the profession. It is possible that occupational characteristics or the context influence the nature of the effect. Therefore, it may be that support systems, autonomy, emotional demands or other moderating variables affect the relationship's direction or strength. Indeed, the previous literature identifies inconsistencies which demonstrate the need to consider

potential boundary conditions when researching burnout's relationship with job satisfaction.

The previous literature consistently indicates that reduced personal accomplishment is negatively related with job satisfaction. According to Shepherd et al. (2011) and Lee and Ok (2012), when workers suffer a decline in their sense of reduced personal accomplishment, their job satisfaction declines because they feel less competent and successful. Having observed those working in sales roles, Shepherd et al. (2011) found that sense of achievement is eroded by role conflict and ambiguity. Meanwhile, Lee and Ok (2012) reported that hospitality workers are more likely to feel inadequate and a sense of failure because of elevated service expectations. Collectively, these conclusions indicate that job satisfaction is significantly influenced by all three dimensions of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment.

It is the pressures and demands that faculty members experience that explain the nature of burnout's relationship with job satisfaction. Burnout manifests when employees face excessive workloads over an extended period of time and they are required to operate with insufficient resources (Sari 2004; Sabagh et al. 2018). When faculty members experience burnout, they become stressed and this makes it challenging for them to find their role satisfying, ultimately resulting in them perceiving their workplace negatively (Sabagh et al. 2018). For example, when confronted with the need to balance competing responsibilities, adhere to deadlines and handle excessive workloads, faculty members are likely to become frustrated and fatigued (Skaalvik and Skaalvik 2011; Lei et al. 2021). Such strain means that the role is unlikely to be fulfilling, thereby adversely affecting job satisfaction.

Based on the empirical studies regarding the relationship between burnout and job satisfaction, the current study proposes the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 1a: Burnout is negatively related to job satisfaction.*

### 2.4.3 Job performance

Among the main work-related behavioural outcomes is job performance. This is an individual's output stated in terms of the quantity and quality expected from each worker in a specific job (Chang and Chen 2011). Indeed, it is because its importance to organisations is so widely recognised that it has received such extensive coverage in the empirical research and many attempts have been made to better understand the factors influencing how employees perform. Table 2.2 summarises some of the many definitions of job performance that have previously been suggested:

**Table 2.2:** Job performance definitions

1	Murphy (1989)	Volitional behaviours and actions by employees that either positively or negatively affect the ability to realise the organisation's goals.
2	Borman and Motowidlo (1997)	The activities of employees that help the organisation to achieve its core activities.
3	Rotundo and Sackett (2002)	The actions of individual employees that are within their personal control and go some way towards realising the goals of their organisation.
4	Carlson et al. (2011)	The expected obligatory work behaviour of employees in an organisation which is compensated by the employer's system of rewards.
5	Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller (2012)	Expectations of what should be achieved by those in a formal role to help improve the effectiveness of the organisation.
6	Zablah et al. (2012)	An employee's contribution as a result of performing the duties associated with their work role and their contribution to the organisation's effectiveness.



The above definitions suggest that job performance is determined by the actions of employees when undertaking a formal role that contributes to the organisation's specified goals. This demonstrates the importance of job performance because it is directly related to the realisation of the organisation's goals. For this reason, considerable effort has been expended by researchers in an attempt to better understand the factors that affect job performance. Previous research suggests that job performance is largely governed by employees' perceptions (Vigoda-Gadot 2007; Cropanzano et al. 2017).

Job performance has been referred to as a multidimensional domain (Viswesvaran and Ones 2000; Rotundo and Sackett 2002) because the additional role behaviours that comprise this domain are also influential in determining how well an organisation functions (Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1997). Such performance dimensions have been referred to as organisation citizenship behaviours (OCB), counter-productive behaviours (CWB) and task performance (Kaplan et al. 2009). Be that as it may, task performance is the only one of these dimensions that concerns how well an employee performs their role and this is associated with how the activities of that role relate to the core functions of the organisation (Borman and Motowidlo 1997). As such, it is an element of the employee's job description (Kaplan et al. 2009). The alternative OCB dimension refers to employees' behaviours that are in excess of what the role strictly requires and this contributes towards the more general functioning of the organisation (Lee and Allen 2002). Meanwhile, CWBs relate to the behaviours of employees that contravene organisational norms because they "threaten the well-being of the organisation and/or its members" (Robinson and Bennett 1995, p. 556). When referring to task performance, the majority of researchers use the term job performance because task performance entails the element of a person's job description that directly helps to realise the organisation's goals (Carlson et al. 2011; Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller 2012; Zablah et al. 2012). The current study uses this same assumption regarding job performance being related solely to task performance.

#### **2.4.4 Studies linking burnout and job performance**

Despite the fact that the previous research has confirmed the negative relationship between burnout and both organisational commitment and job satisfaction, thereby resulting in heightened levels of absenteeism and employee turnover, surprisingly little attention has been paid to the relationship between burnout and job performance in the empirical literature (Bakker et al. 2004).

Whilst there is a lack of research concerning the effect that burnout has on job performance, the previous literature has extensively investigated the emotional exhaustion dimension of burnout. In doing so, previous researchers have firmly established that emotional exhaustion adversely affects job performance.

The majority of the empirical literature considers the main dimension of burnout to be emotional exhaustion (Wright and Cropanzano 1998) because it is known to contribute towards feelings of being mentally drained. For instance, Wright and Cropanzano's (1998) longitudinal study of 52 social welfare workers drawn from a large city on the west coast of the USA used regression analyses and found that job performance suffers as a result of emotional exhaustion because the available resources are lacking (e.g., autonomy, engagement in the decision-making process, training and social support). Sun and Pan (2008) conducted a study with 119 employees from a private garment company in China. Using regression analysis, their evidence showed that emotional exhaustion was negatively related to job performance, with employees who experience emotional exhaustion being less able to invest the necessary energy into their duties, resulting in more mistakes, delayed reactions and less effort being expended, thereby adversely affecting job performance. Similarly, Hur et al. (2015) examined the relationship between emotional exhaustion and job performance for 286 retail bank employees in South Korea. Applying structural equation modelling, they found that emotional exhaustion had a negative effect on job performance. They attributed this relationship to the feelings of continual stress as well as the extreme energy and time demands, which make it difficult to deliver what is being asked. Gomes et al. (2022) also applied structural equation modelling and reported a significant negative relationship

between burnout and job performance when studying 1,682 police officers in Portugal. Gomes et al. (2022) found that when workers suffer burnout, they typically become less engaged and, consequently, their job performance suffers. They noted a high level of burnout among police officers and attributed this to their work being both highly stressful and highly pressured.

On the other hand, three studies could find no relationship between burnout and job performance. Using structural equation models, Rutherford et al. (2011) showed that emotional exhaustion did not have a significant impact on the job performance of 213 South Korean private employees. Rutherford et al. (2011) suggest that may be the result of contextual factors (i.e., variables that were unmeasured). Tourigny et al. (2013) studied data for a total of 197 nurses working at three large hospitals in China in an attempt to establish the extent to which their job performance is affected by emotional exhaustion. Interestingly, it was concluded that emotional exhaustion is not significantly related to job performance, possibly because the stringent rules and regulations in nursing mean that performance is maintained even when nursing staff experience stress or exhaustion. Consequently, it is more challenging to identify the effect that emotional exhaustion has on job performance. Similarly, Rughoobur-Seetah (2023) found no evidence of burnout affecting job performance when applying structural equation modelling to study a total of 197 service sector workers in casinos, bars, restaurants, hotels, retail shops and banks in Mauritius. This finding may be indicative of the pressure that service workers feel to continue delivering high levels of performance despite being physically and mentally exhausted. If employees are to retain their job and earn a wage, there is pressure for them to meet the high expectations of their employers. Indeed, the labour market in Mauritius is highly competitive and the prevailing economic instability means that employees are keen to retain their job. In such a scenario, it is understandable that some employees will seek to protect themselves against this stress by becoming emotionally disconnected from their work (Rughoobur-Seetah 2023). In practice, this means that they focus their efforts on performing their duties without becoming personally attached to their work. As a result, a minimum level of performance at

work is maintained but this may be at the cost of their home life and personal relationships

Table 2.3 provides a summary of the empirical studies concerning the link between burnout and job performance. It briefly presents the name(s) of the author(s), the name of the country where the research was undertaken, the sample size, the direct relationship confirmed, the research method, whether the research was undertaken in the private or public sector, the measures of burnout and job performance, and the findings arrived at.

**Table 2.3:** A summary of empirical studies concerning the link between burnout and job performance

Author(s)/ Year	Country	Sample size	Direct relationship confirmed?	Research method	Sector (public/ private)	Measure of burnout	Measure of job performance	Findings
Wright and Cropanzano (1998)	USA	52	Yes	Quantitative (Survey)	Public	Emotional exhaustion was measured based on the nine items adopted from the MBI (Maslach and Jackson 1986)- sample items include emotional drain and fatigue	Employee performance was measured with a one- item, global rating of performance- (In reflection, how has this employee performed during the previous six months?)	Emotional exhaustion was associated with job performance
Sun and Pan (2008)	China	119	Yes	Quantitative (Survey)	Private	Nine-item emotional exhaustion scale (Maslach Burnout Inventory 1986)- sample items include emotional drain, fatigue and burnout	A four-item scale by Farh and Cheng (1999). Examples include: "this worker delivers their job assignments as expected" and "This worker consistently performs as expected."	Emotional exhaustion was negatively related to job performance
Rutherford et al. (2011)	South Korea	213	No	Quantitative (Survey)	Private	Emotional exhaustion was used three items in an adapted scale	Four items based on Pettit et al. (1997)- perceived	Emotional exhaustion did not have a significant impact on job performance.

						based on the work by MBI (Maslach and Jackson 1981)-burnout, fatigue and feel used up	supervisor evaluation, quantity and quality of performance through self-assessment	
Tourigny et al. (2013)	China	197	No	Quantitative (Survey)	Public	Emotional exhaustion was measured using MBI (Maslach and Jackson 1986)	Tsui et al.'s (1997) 11 items were used to measure performance. An example is: 'Aim to deliver more than the minimum requirement.'	Emotional exhaustion's effect on job performance was insignificant
Hur et al. (2015)	South Korea	286	Yes	Quantitative (Survey)	Private	Four-items to measure emotional exhaustion were adapted from Maslach and Jackson (1981)-work-related strain, emotional drain and frustration	Five items adapted from Liao and Chuang (2004)	Emotional exhaustion had a negative effect on job performance
Gomes et al. (2022)	Portugal	1,682	Yes	Quantitative (Survey)	Public	The 22 items of MBI (Maslach and Jackson 1996) addressing three dimensions of burnout	A four-item instrument develop by Staples et al. (1999) and adapted by Rego and Cunha (2008)-self-reported individual	Burnout is significantly negatively related to performance

							performance. The scale captures notions of managerial assessment, the quality of the work, effectiveness and peer evaluations of productivity.	
Rughoobur-Seetah (2023)	Mauritius	197	No	Quantitative (Survey)	Private	Maslach and Jackson's (1981) three dimensions of burnout (19 items)	7 items from Rodwell et al.'s (1998) scale. The scale is used to gauge various elements of the role including pride in performance, personal standards, effort and the quality of the work.	The relationship between burnout and job performance is insignificant

Several conclusions can be arrived at based on the reported findings presented in Table 2.3 which can guide the development of a hypothesis regarding the effects of burnout on job performance. Two studies showed that emotional exhaustion does not have a significant impact on job performance (Rutherford et al. 2011; Tourigny et al. 2013). The main reason for these mixed findings may be that several studies only examined the relationship between one dimension of burnout (emotional exhaustion) and job performance. Rughoobur-Seetah's (2023) study was the only one to suggest that burnout's relationship with job performance was insignificant. The aim of the current study is to investigate the relationship between overall of burnout and job performance. However, the majority of the empirical literature reported that emotional exhaustion has a negative impact on job performance.

On balance, it can be concluded that there is general agreement in the previous literature regarding burnout's relationship with job performance. There are numerous factors that may be able to explain these consistent findings. Firstly, a key element of burnout is emotional exhaustion, which results in employees feeling mentally drained so that they find it challenging to remain motivated and to concentrate on what they are required to do. Consequently, they experience difficulty delivering what is demanded of them. Secondly, numerous research studies have examined particularly stressful professions (e.g., police, nursing and the service sector) where excessive workloads, inadequate resources and emotional demands establish a clear link between burnout and performance. Thirdly, applying Maslach's Burnout Inventory or other validated measurement tools helps to ensure that the results produced are reliable and can be compared across studies.

Whilst there is a general consensus, there are certain inconsistencies with regards to emotional exhaustion which indicate that burnout's relationship with job performance differs depending on the organisational context and profession. The impact that burnout has on performance may be governed by professional autonomy, performance expectations or the ability to access support. Therefore, it is necessary to test moderation effects because of the potential for them to condition burnout's effect on job performance.



It is the negative effects of work-related stress that faculty members experience over an extended period of time that explains the nature of the relationship between burnout and job performance. When employees are faced with excessive workloads and insufficient resources, they are susceptible to experiencing burnout which, in turn, can adversely affect their job performance (Winefield et al. 2003). In order to effectively manage their administrative duties, supervise students, publish research and present lectures, faculty members must be able to focus and apply consistent pressure. Faculty members who experience burnout are likely to find that their ability to concentrate and their energy levels suffer, thereby adversely affecting their job performance (Asfahani 2024).

These findings are able to offer information in the context of customer-facing and highly demanding professions but little is known about such matters in academia and public universities in particular. Those working in academia may not be motivated by monetary reward or personal gain because they may instead be motivated to deliver a benefit for society. This underpins the notion of public service motivation (PSM), which concerns how certain individuals are motivated by the prospect of serving in public organisations (Perry and Wise 1990). PSM can help to overcome the negative effects of burnout (Kim 2018; Zhang and Liu 2024), ensure that the workplace reflects employees' personal goals (Bright 2007; Zhang and Liu 2024), and make people more tolerant of bureaucratic features (Scott and Pandey 2005; Zhang and Liu 2024).

Based on the empirical studies regarding the relationship between burnout and job performance, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 1b: Burnout is negatively related to job performance.*

Extensive efforts have been made in the previous literature to investigate the relationships between burnout and both job satisfaction and job performance in a variety of countries and sectors. Burnout's main dimension, emotional exhaustion, has consistently been shown to significantly predict job dissatisfaction. When employees are emotionally exhausted, they lack energy, resulting in them feeling frustrated and drained and making it more difficult for

them to engage with their work in a positive way (Mulki et al. 2006; Lee and Ok 2012; Hur et al. 2015).

The dynamics of each industrial sector are unique because of their specific demands and conditions and this affects the burnout- job satisfaction relationship. For example, the effects of burnout are amplified for those in customer-facing roles because of the need for staff to regulate their emotions. Previous research concerning hotel workers in Turkey and India reveals that the need to maintain a positive attitude when feeling stressed has the effect of simultaneously eroding job satisfaction and exacerbating emotional exhaustion (Karatepe and Tekinkus 2006; Rathi and Lee 2016). In much the same way, Karatepe and Uludag (2007) and Hur et al. (2015) report that bank staff in Korea and Turkey become emotionally exhausted as a result of their rigid schedules, excessive workloads and the need to interact with customers, resulting in them becoming dissatisfied with their jobs. By examining the specific challenges associated with different industries, it is possible to demonstrate how burnout manifests in nuanced ways in various industries.

Burnout's relationship with job performance is more nuanced and also more dependent on the specific context. Numerous studies conclude that burnout is significantly negatively related with job performance because of the adverse effects on workers' focus and energy levels (Wright and Cropanzano 1998; Sun and Pan 2008), whereas others report that the relationship is insignificant (Tourigny et al. 2013; Rughoobur-Seetah 2023). Tourigny et al. (2013) studied data for nurses and found that strict regulations and safeguards help to maintain a minimum level of performance, even when they experience emotional exhaustion. In contrast, Gomes et al. (2022) reported that police officers have high-pressure roles which mean that when they experience burnout, they are likely to become disengaged and demotivated, thereby adversely affecting job performance. These conflicting results indicate that the relationship between burnout and job performance is influenced by coping mechanisms, professional standards and the organisational context.

Whilst there is an extensive body of previous research, it is apparent that there are gaps in the knowledge base. For instance, much of the previous literature has been conducted in the private sector and is based on quantitative methods

(surveys), thereby making it challenging to establish the mechanisms driving these relationships. In addition, most of the previous literature focuses on the dimension of emotional exhaustion because of the ability to measure its effect on employee outcomes. Meanwhile, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment have been largely overlooked, especially in the context of the public sector. Importantly, very few studies have investigated all three dimensions of burnout (e.g., Gomes et al. 2022; Rughoobur-Seetah 2023). The current study seeks to provide a general appreciation of burnout's overall effect on job satisfaction and job performance by utilising a global measure. This qualitative method provides greater insight into the effects that burnout has on job satisfaction and job performance.

## **2.5 Evaluation of studies linking burnout and employee outcomes**

Apart from one study (Wright and Cropanzano 1998) which used a longitudinal design, all of the studies shown in this section are cross-sectional in design. Additionally, all of the studies presented in this section employed a quantitative methodology and used surveys to collect data. The majority of the studies employed structural equation modelling (e.g., Mulki et al. 2006; Rutherford et al. 2011; Lee and Ok 2012; Hur et al. 2015), whilst three studies used regression analysis (Wright and Cropanzano 1998; Sun and Pan 2008; Rathi and Lee 2016).

In terms of the sector, the majority of the empirical literature concerning burnout and employee outcomes has studied organisations in the private sector (e.g., Karatepe and Tekinkus 2006; Rutherford et al. 2011; Hur et al. 2015), whereas only a small number have investigated organisations in the public sector (e.g., Iverson et al. 1998; Wright and Cropanzano 1998). However, no studies have been conducted in public higher education. As the current study focuses on Saudi public higher education faculty members, it will help to determine the generalisability of these findings to the context of teaching and research professionals working in higher education.

In terms of the location, the majority of the research examining the relationship between burnout and employee outcomes was undertaken in developed economies, whereas relatively little attention has been paid to developing

economies. Similarly, most of the studies have been conducted in the USA (e.g., Wright and Cropanzano 1998; Mulki et al. 2006; Lee and Ok 2012). Some studies have been conducted in Turkey (e.g., Karatepe and Tekinkus 2006), a few in Asian countries, such as China (e.g., Sun and Pan 2008) and South Korea (e.g., Rutherford et al. 2011), African countries such as Mauritius (e.g., Rughoobur-Seetah 2023) and in Australia (Iverson et al. 1998). However, no studies have been conducted in Arab countries.

## **2.6 Chapter conclusion**

This chapter has outlined the concept of burnout. Burnout may be defined as the feeling of psychological exhaustion that emanates from job-related pressures. Burnout has three distinct dimensions, namely: emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment. This chapter has also discussed the two theories that have dominated the literature concerning the relationship between burnout and employee outcomes: AMO framework and the JD-R model.

The current research utilises two theoretical frameworks (AMO framework and the JD-R model). AMO framework considers how job performance is promoted or hindered by behavioural and structural conditions. More specifically, it offers the means to interpret how institutional practices affect faculty members' sense of commitment and response to appraisals. Meanwhile, the JD-R model provides insight into how excessive job demands can cause people to experience burnout, as well as how it is possible to buffer against these effects by utilising performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment as job resources.

Finally, this chapter presented the main studies that have linked burnout to employee outcomes. Overall, the studies suggest that burnout is negatively related to employee job satisfaction and job performance. However, the majority of these studies have been conducted in developed economies, with very few studies conducted in developing economies. Thus, further research is needed to better understand the effects of burnout on the outcomes of employee in developing economies. This is what the current research aims to explore by

examining the effects of burnout on the outcomes of employees in Saudi public universities.

In the following chapter there is a discussion the performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment concepts. In addition, it is demonstrated how these concepts relate to employee outcomes.

### **Chapter 3. Performance appraisal satisfaction, organisational commitment and employee outcomes**

The previous chapter has shown that burnout is usually negatively related to employee outcomes. The aim of the present chapter is to provide insight into the concepts of performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment and demonstrate how these two variables are associated with job satisfaction and job performance and how they may play a role in the relationship between burnout and employee outcomes. This chapter provides an overview of both concepts. It also presents the main studies concerning the link between performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment and employee outcomes. The moderating roles of performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment on the relationship between burnout and employee outcomes will also be discussed.

#### **3.1 Performance appraisal**

Of the various HR practices, performance appraisal is arguably one of the most beneficial owing to the fact that it offers the potential to improve the performance of employees and its structured framework provides constructive feedback in a way that enhances performance by helping to identify areas requiring improvement, whilst also acknowledging previous achievements (Fletcher 2001; Boswell and Boudreau 2002; Kuvaas 2006; Judge and Ferris 1993).

Unsurprisingly, performance appraisal has been the subject of extensive research by those concerned with the psychology of the workplace (Fletcher 2002). Over time, it has become common practice for performance appraisals to become incorporated into HR practices and it is now widely regarded as a broad term referring to various ways in which organisations evaluate their workers, ensure they are competent to perform their duties, improve performance and determine what rewards are due (Fletcher 2001). As such, performance appraisal is now far-removed from the initial practices of evaluating employees and applying psychometric tests (Fletcher 2001; Levy and Williams 2004). Over time there has been a shift towards developmental performance appraisal which seeks to make the workforce more effective by increasing the skill base, making employees more experienced and improving attitudes to enhance employee performance (Boswell and Boudreau 2002).

Much has been written on the subject of performance appraisal but, as yet, there is no single definition that encompasses all of the various scientific aspects and opinions. Performance appraisal, according to Murphy and Cleveland (1995), is the measurement of the effectiveness of workers through identified objective criteria. In fact, this is regarded as a broad general definition of performance appraisal. A more specific definition was offered by Abu-Doleh and Weir (2007) who suggested that performance appraisal is the evaluation of employees in the workplace against expected standards. Another definition offered by Chiang and Birtch (2010) suggests that performance appraisal is a rational, systematic and objective manner for organisations to manage workers' performance. Suliman (2001) noted that a methodical description of an employee's job-related strengths and deficiencies is called performance appraisal. According to Fletcher (2001), the term performance appraisal implies that an administration aims to evaluate and judge employee performance in order to nurture their proficiency, enhance performance and allocate bonuses.

It is apparent from the definitions provided above that there is not a single all-encompassing definition that addresses all aspects of performance appraisal. However, a definition should ideally incorporate the main aspects and features. As such, Murphy and Cleveland (1995) suggest that the process of undertaking performance appraisals should entail each of the following elements: (i) an individual whose performance is being rated against a set of pre-agreed standards; (ii) an individual responsible for rating the performance of others; (iii) the filling out of an evaluation form; (iv) a series of processes to legitimise the act of conducting performance appraisals.

Therefore, a performance appraisal is a formal procedure whereby the performance of employees is evaluated along with their capacity to carry out the responsibilities required by their role over a certain timeframe to confirm that an individual employee's skillset and qualifications are appropriate for what the job entails, as set out in their job description and agreed standards.

Performance appraisals have also been referred to by researchers as performance measurement systems, performance reviews, performance measurements and performance evaluations. Table 3.1 summarises the widely used terminologies surrounding performance appraisals.

**Table 3.1:** Terms used to label performance appraisals

<b>Terminology</b>	<b>Studies</b>
Performance appraisal	Vallance (1999)
Performance measurement	Micheli and Neely (2010)
Performance evaluation	Luo et al. (2022)
Performance review	Smith (1995)
Performance measurement system	Garengo et al. (2005)

### **3.1.1 Performance appraisal satisfaction**

Organisations need to focus on performance appraisal satisfaction because this is closely related to the effectiveness of performance appraisals (Jawahar 2006). Indeed, if careful attention is not paid to performance appraisal satisfaction, there is a distinct possibility that employees will perceive the process negatively (Daley 1986), thereby potentially rejecting the performance appraisal system to such an extent that it ultimately fails (Ismail and Gali 2017). This is especially pertinent in academia, where the appraisal process is typically considered to lack consistency and is associated with unnecessary bureaucracy. In this context, satisfaction offers a means to evaluate both the implementation of appraisals as well as how employees perceive them.

The current research is not solely concerned with how appraisal systems are designed and operated. Rather, it examines faculty members' satisfaction with their appraisals because it is their satisfaction that determines how employees judge the process. As Meyer et al. (1981) stated it is often the case that appraisals are used to achieve numerous aims but their efficacy can suffer if these goals conflict in practice. Rather than focusing on the intended purpose of appraisals, analysing satisfaction provides insight into how faculty members perceive and interpret their appraisals. This is an appropriate approach to take when studying developments at public universities in Saudi Arabia because there is a distinct possibility that performance appraisals have accompanying policies but they are not implemented consistently or effectively applied. Therefore,



satisfaction can be used to infer how useful, transparent, and fair the appraisal system is.

It has previously been claimed that it is not the design of a performance appraisal system that determines how successful it will be but, rather, it is its perceived use and the way in which it is executed (DeNisi and Murphy 2017). Indeed, there is a marked difference between developmental performance appraisal systems which suggest appropriate training and provide feedback in an attempt to promote the growth and development of employees (Levy and Williams 2004; Kuvaas 2006) and between control-oriented performance appraisal systems which seek to impose organisational norms and deliver compliance. Appraisals that are control-oriented typically entail observing task behaviours and measuring outcomes so that workers are held to account for their productivity (Townley 1997; Gilliland et al. 2010). This helps to deliver a standardised approach but this can come at the cost of markedly lower satisfaction and reduced autonomy, especially in academia if the approach is regarded as being unnecessarily bureaucratic and incompatible with professional values.

Satisfaction with the performance appraisal largely depends on how employees react to their appraisal. Keeping and Levy (2000) recognise the importance of examining employee reactions, noting that this information is of interest to HR practitioners and also that in theory there is a relationship between employees' reactions and the success of performance appraisals. Nevertheless, this remains a largely overlooked research topic. Similarly, Murphy and Cleveland (1995) observed that management research has neglected to investigate the way in which employees respond to performance appraisal. In addition, there is a considerable distinction between the interest that practitioners have in performance appraisal systems and the interest of researchers (Keeping and Levy 2000). The interests of researchers typically lie in the accuracy of ratings, rating errors and other psychometric rating features, whereas the interests of practitioners tend to lie in the reactions of employees and other similar practical features (Murphy and Cleveland 1995). Whilst it is true that considerable progress has been achieved with regards to the reactions of employees, especially concerning satisfaction with performance appraisals (Levy and Williams 2004; Ismail and Gali 2017), there remain researchers who believe that

insufficient studies have been conducted into this matter (Boswell and Boudreau 2000).

Although the current research focuses on appraisal satisfaction, it is necessary to recognise that it is rarely the case that performance appraisal systems are introduced in isolation. It is typically the case that the previous literature concerning high-performance work systems that performance appraisal is investigated as one element of the various HR practices (e.g., employee involvement, rewards, and training) (Huselid 1995; Boxall and Macky 2009; Jiang et al. 2012). Therefore, it is important to consider the possibility that if appraisal is isolated, this could result in notable interdependencies being overlooked. Be that as it may, Kuvaas (2006) and Jawahar (2006) have shown that studying certain practices individually can be beneficial, especially with regards to employees' perceptions of these practices and how they influence job performance and satisfaction. Given that HR practices are typically executed inconsistently and in a fragmented manner in Saudi public universities, this approach is especially relevant (Alqahtani and Ayentimi 2021). Therefore, the current research considers appraisal satisfaction as a construct in its own right offering insight into the lived experiences of faculty members.

Therefore, the main aim of the current study is to build on the existing body of knowledge concerning faculty members' satisfaction with performance appraisals and to examine it in a Saudi Arabian context. In particular, this research will explore the relationships between faculty members' satisfaction with performance appraisals and the employee outcomes of job satisfaction and job performance. The next section focuses on the empirical evidence concerning the connections between performance appraisal satisfaction and employee outcomes.

### **3.1.2 Performance appraisal satisfaction and employee outcomes**

Performance appraisal satisfaction contrasts, broadly speaking, with employee outcomes in that the former is a measure of how employees' experience with an appraisal process influences how positive their reaction to it may be, whereas the latter defines a range of outcomes that an organisation may expect to be influenced by employees' experiences. Despite being closely related, the two

concepts are quite distinct as a result of what they are used for. Employee outcomes are the measurable outputs of employees' behaviours and attitudes influenced by practices in the work environment (Kehoe and Wright 2013). Job satisfaction can be either positive or negative and concerns how workers feel about their role (Spector and Fox 2003), whereas job performance concerns the extent to which workers realise the targets of their organisation and achieve the responsibilities associated with their role (Carlson et al. 2011).

This section reviews the main studies that have examined the relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and the employee outcomes of job satisfaction and job performance. At the end of this section, there is an evaluation of these studies.

### **3.1.2.1 Studies linking performance appraisal satisfaction and job satisfaction**

Job satisfaction is frequently studied in the broader HRM literature (Brief and Weiss 2002). Job satisfaction research has traditionally examined outcome satisfaction facets such as pay, benefits, promotions, supervision, work itself, co-workers and working conditions (Blau 1999). In contrast, relatively little attention has been paid to how job satisfaction is influenced by performance appraisals. For example, Pettijohn et al. (2001a) studied the relationship between performance appraisals and job satisfaction. Using regression analyses, they found that characteristics of the appraisal process such as openness to discussion, appraisal formality and the fairness of appraisals were significantly related to job satisfaction. Therefore, this suggests that the way appraisals are carried out and the extent to which they are perceived to be transparent and fair significantly affects job satisfaction. Kampkötter (2017) utilised a German socio-economic household longitudinal survey which was conducted on an annual basis with 10,453 participants covering a wide range of occupations and industrial sectors, finding that formal performance appraisals have a positive and highly significant effect on job satisfaction. This indicates that there is a perception among employees that performance appraisals are useful, with a positive association between appraisal usefulness and job satisfaction. More specifically, job satisfaction benefits from appraisal feedback. Kaya et al. (2010) explored the influence of eight HRM activities on the job satisfaction of 346

employees at 19 banks in Turkey. Using regression analysis, they discovered that performance appraisal had an insignificant impact on job satisfaction because it was perceived that the appraisal process was unfair, thereby limiting the ability of appraisals to increase job satisfaction.

A small number of studies have directly examined the importance of appraisal satisfaction. Using Pearson correlation analysis, Krats and Brown (2013) concluded that a positive relationship exists between employee performance appraisal satisfaction and job satisfaction for unionised employees in a North American mining organisation in the USA. They stated that there is an association between performance appraisal satisfaction and the perception that the process facilitates career development, offers recognition, generates feedback, helps to clear up any misunderstandings regarding performance, fosters confidence between employees and leaders, reveals weaknesses and strengths, and ensures mutual understanding of what constitutes effective performance. Such elements of the appraisal process help to create a workplace that is highly supportive, thereby benefiting job satisfaction. Similarly, Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) using regression analysis confirmed a strong positive relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and job satisfaction for a sample of 1,227 municipal government employees in the USA. Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) identified numerous factors that contribute towards performance appraisal satisfaction: feedback, usefulness, accuracy and timeliness. Collectively, these factors influence the extent to which employees regard the process to be equitable and fair, two factors which are known to be positively associated with job satisfaction. Jawahar (2006) studied 112 employees at a US not-for-profit organisation, revealing a significant positive relationship between satisfaction with the feedback received during performance appraisals and job satisfaction. Jawahar (2006) suggested that when employees are satisfied with the feedback they receive from their appraisals, this increases their sense of their standing in the organisation as well as their sense of self-worth, thereby giving them a more positive attitude towards their role and enhancing their job satisfaction.

Table 3.2 provides a summary of the empirical studies concerning the link between performance appraisal and job satisfaction. It briefly presents the name(s) of the author(s), the name of the country where the research was undertaken, the sample size, the direct relationship confirmed, the research method, whether the research was undertaken in the private or public sector, and the measures of performance appraisal and job satisfaction.

**Table 3.2:** A summary of the empirical studies concerning the link between performance appraisal and job satisfaction

Author(s) /Year	Country	Sample size	Direct relationship confirmed?	Research method	Sector (Public/Private)	Measure of performance appraisal	Measure of job satisfaction	Findings
Pettijohn et al. (2001a)	USA	185	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Private	Characteristics of the appraisal process (perceived fairness, formality of the process, openness to discussion)	job satisfaction scale developed by Wood et al. (1986), consisting of 14 items- satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with variety, satisfaction with information and satisfaction with closure	Openness to discussion, appraisal formality, fairness of appraisal were significantly related to job satisfaction
Ellickson and Logsdon (2002)	USA	1,227	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Public	Five aspects of performance appraisal (perceived accuracy, timeliness, amount of feedback, perceived consequences, and usefulness)	Single measure of job satisfaction- "How satisfied are you with your job overall?"	A strong positive relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and job satisfaction
Jawahar (2006)	USA	112	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Public	Scale developed by (Russell and Goode 1988). Four-items. Examples include "I was	14 items from Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1980). Among the examples are: "My work	Satisfaction with appraisal performance had a significant effect on job satisfaction

						pleased with the feedback received in the appraisal” and “After my last appraisal, I was fully aware of how well I was doing at work.”	gives me a real sense of accomplishment” and “My future with this institution looks secure.”	
Kaya et al. (2010)	Turkey	346	No	Quantitative (survey)	Private	Six- items develop from (Rogg et al. 200; Ahmad and Schroeder’s 2003) - effectiveness, standardisation, feedback, employee development, promotions and pay, employees’ competence and result of employees	Five- items adopted from Heinonen ve Korvela (2003). - employee happiness, value of work, importance of responsibilities	Performance appraisal had an insignificant effect on job satisfaction
Krats and Brown (2013)	USA	408	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Private	Used scale of appraisal satisfaction adapted from previous measures (Greller 1978; Mount 1984; Latham and Seijts 1997; Tziner et al. 2000). 11 items. Examples include: “The ratings my	Scale adapted from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) developed by Lofquist and Dawis (1969) assessed overall job satisfaction. Four items. Among the	A positive relationship exists between employee performance appraisal satisfaction and job satisfaction

						supervisor gave me are fair,” “The system for rating my performance was clearly explained to me” and “Following the review, I had a good idea of how well I was performing.”	examples were: “On balance, I find my current role satisfying” and “When I do a good job, this is recognised.”	
Kampkötter (2017)	Germany	10,453	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Public and private	Frequency, feedback and monetary consequences	Single measure of job satisfaction- overall job satisfaction	Formal performance appraisals have a positive and highly significant effect on job satisfaction



There is considerable evidence presented in the previous literature to suggest that performance appraisals significantly influence job satisfaction, with the main determinants including developmental focus, transparency and fairness. When studying workers in the US, Pettijohn et al. (2001a) concluded that job satisfaction improved when performance appraisals were regarded as being transparent and fair. Meanwhile, analysis of workers in Germany by Kampkötter (2017) indicated that job satisfaction was enhanced by the perception that performance appraisals help to understand development and performance. Further support for this relationship was provided by Krats and Brown (2013) who studied unionised employees at a mining firm in the USA and concluded that job satisfaction benefits from appraisals that are clearly communicated, fair and apply a developmental approach. Meanwhile, Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) studied municipal workers and reported that when feedback is constructive, accurate and timely, employees are likely to consider the process to be fair, thereby enhancing their job satisfaction. Furthermore, Jawahar (2006) noted that satisfaction with the feedback received enhances employees' attitudes towards their work and their self-worth, thereby promoting job satisfaction.

Kaya et al. (2010) reported sharply contrasting results when studying bank employees in Turkey, concluding that if the appraisal process is perceived to be unfair, they are less likely to enhance job satisfaction. This lends weight to the belief that organisational and cultural contexts influence performance appraisal satisfaction's relationship with job satisfaction. On balance, the evidence from the previous literature stresses the need for appraisal systems to be well-structured to improve job satisfaction, especially when they seek to promote transparency, fairness and developmental feedback.

The previous research concerning the relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and job satisfaction has yielded contradictory results, particularly in different professional settings. Therefore, it is possible that appraisal satisfaction's effect on job satisfaction could be influenced by institutional norms, the clarity of communication or the managerial approach. Notably, now that such contingencies have been identified, this helps to justify the decision taken in the current research to test moderating variables.

In the context of academia, there is a particularly strong relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and job satisfaction. The number of empirical studies that have been conducted in academia remains limited but it is possible to draw insight from other professions. For example, Krats and Brown (2013) concluded that performance appraisal satisfaction is related to efforts to promote career development, as well as recognition and the provision of feedback. These elements help to produce a workplace that is supportive, thereby benefiting job satisfaction. Meanwhile, Jawahar (2006) reported that job satisfaction improves when employees are satisfied with the feedback they receive. In the context of academia, performance appraisals provide a valuable opportunity to receive career development advice, recognition and constructive feedback. In the event that faculty members consider performance appraisals to be supportive of their career aims, they are more inclined to report that they are respected and valued, thereby benefiting their job satisfaction.

Based on the empirical studies concerning the relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and job satisfaction, the current study proposes the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 2a: Performance appraisal satisfaction is positively related to job satisfaction.*

### **3.1.2.2 Studies linking performance appraisal satisfaction and job performance**

Employees are an important asset for organisations (Schraeder and Jordan 2011) because they have the ability to influence organisational effectiveness (Sharma and Sharma 2017). If organisations are to compete effectively, it is necessary for the performance of employees to improve (Biswas and Varma 2011). Consequently, many organisations invest sizeable sums in initiatives designed to enhance the performance of employees, including career plans, developmental centres and training (Hameed and Waheed 2011). Importantly, evaluations of performance that form part of an employee's appraisal have been shown to have a significant impact on the effectiveness of employees and improve how they perform (Gibbons and Kleiner 1993; Sharma and Sharma 2017). Performance appraisal is arguably the most critical HR practice, despite

being a notable source of dissatisfaction among employees regarding whether the process is fair and effective (Shrivastava and Purang 2011). Importantly, if there is a perception that performance appraisals are prone to bias, this will make it considerably more difficult for organisations to make decisions ethically (Maas and Torres-González 2011), typically resulting in employees being dissatisfied with the entire process (Sharma and Sharma 2017). Indeed, previous research has identified a relationship between employees being dissatisfied with how performance appraisals are undertaken and negative outcomes regarding the commitment of employees and the rate of employee turnover (Dusterhoff et al. 2014), thereby adversely affecting how employees perform (Fu and Deshpande 2014; Wong et al. 2015). Despite this, remarkably little effort has been made in the empirical literature to establish ways in which the performance appraisal system could help to enhance how employees perform (DeNisi and Pritchard 2006). This could explain why the majority of organisations ignore the effect that the performance appraisal system has on the performance of employees and instead focus on the impact it has on the efficiency of the wider organisation (Sharma and Sharma 2017). Among the most notable challenges when seeking to enhance performance is the need to put in place an effective performance appraisal system (Harrington and Lee 2015). As such, further research is required in this area so that employees become more accepting of performance appraisal systems and so that the effect on employee performance can be better understood.

The relationship between performance appraisals and job performance has been examined in only a few studies, offering mixed results. For example, using regression analysis, Pettijohn et al. (1999) concluded that effective performance appraisals (measured in terms of using suitable appraisal criteria, using appraisals to determine remuneration, and the frequency of appraisals) enhance job performance in retail sales companies in the USA. Li et al. (2023) concluded that supervisory developmental feedback was positively related to job performance in a sample of 230 employees in China. Kuvaas (2006) surveyed 593 employees from 64 Norwegian banks and, using regression analysis, found that there was no relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and job performance. Kuvaas (2006) posited that whilst employees may be satisfied

with the appraisal process, this does not necessarily mean that they will perform their job any better. Rather, it is the individual's skills and abilities that determine how they perform their job-specific tasks, in addition to external variables including the design of their work and access to technology. Such variables directly influence the ability to perform tasks and they are not influenced by performance appraisal satisfaction. For this reason, it is quite possible that an individual's satisfaction with the appraisal process will have no bearing on how they perform their job.

Table 3.3 provides a summary of the empirical studies concerning the link between performance appraisals and job performance. It briefly presents the name(s) of the author(s), the name of the country in which the research was undertaken, the sample size, the direct relationship confirmed, the research method, whether the research was undertaken in the private or public sector, the measures of performance appraisal and job performance, and the findings arrived at.

**Table 3.3:** A summary of the empirical studies concerning the link between performance appraisals and job performance

Author(s)/ Year	Country	Sample size	Direct relationship confirmed?	Research method	Sector (Public/Private)	Measure of performance appraisal	Measure of job performance	Findings
Pettijohn et al. (1999)	USA	185	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Private	The use of appraisal findings to determine rewards, the frequency of appraisals and the extent to which the results of appraisals are discussed (Anderson and Oliver 1987; Oliver and Anderson 1994; 1995; Cravens, et al. 1993; Morris, et al. 1991	Self-rating of performance in terms of profitability to sales, rank in sales force and a composite measure of sales performance	When the appraisal process is used to improve sales performance, the results will be higher levels of sales
Kuvaas (2006)	Norway	593	No	Quantitative (survey)	Private	The measure of employees' satisfaction with performance appraisal was developed based on previous work (Meyer and Smith 2000). It was based on a total of seven items regarding how workers perceive the commitment of their organisation to undertaking developmental performance appraisals; how comprehensive and useful the feedback is; and workers' general satisfaction with the appraisal process.	A total of six measures were applied to measure work performance (Brockner et al., 1992; May et al., 2002). Among the items were "I deliver the highest quality of work" and "I make a conscious effort to put my full effort into my work."	Performance appraisal is insignificantly related with job performance

Li et al. (2023)	China	230	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Private	Scale developed by Zhou (2003) (three-items). Examples include: "The information my supervisor offers helps me to enhance my task performance," During the feedback process, my supervisor is keen to ensure that I improve and learn," and "I regularly receive developmental feedback from my supervisor."	Scale developed by Methot et al. (2015) (five- items). For example: "This employee undertakes activities that have a direct effect on how their performance will be interpreted."	Supervisory developmental feedback is positively related to job performance
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There is a general consensus in the previous research that performance appraisal is significantly positively related with job performance. Such a relationship was reported by Pettijohn et al. (1999) who reported that the appraisal process helps to drive an increase in sales when studying shopworkers in the US, whereas Li et al. (2023) concluded that developmental feedback from supervisors enhances the performance of employees. Conversely, when studying employees at Norwegian banks, Kuvaas (2006) found that job performance cannot be improved as a result of appraisal satisfaction alone, suggesting that external factors (e.g., individual skills and task design) are influential.

It is possible to draw upon the findings of Li et al. (2023), Kuvaas (2006) and Pettijohn et al. (1999) to provide insight into how performance appraisal satisfaction is likely to be related to the job performance of faculty members. Pettijohn et al. (1999) concluded that job performance benefits when appraisals are conducted on a regular basis and use criteria that are clearly understood. Therefore, using measurable outcomes (e.g., research and teaching achievements) could prove beneficial. Meanwhile, Kuvaas (2006) reported that performance appraisal satisfaction is insignificantly related to job performance, thereby suggesting that the performance of task-specific jobs does not improve simply because faculty members are satisfied with the appraisal process. Instead, job performance may be influenced by external variables such as institutional support or access to resources. Finally, Li et al. (2023) noted the performance benefits from the developmental feedback provided by supervisors. Therefore, it may be that appraisals in universities should seek to offer actionable and constructive feedback that specifically refers to faculty members' academic duties to improve job performance.

The inconsistent results indicate that performance appraisal satisfaction's relationship with job performance differs depending on the setting. Notably, it is possible that the presence of moderating variables may influence the relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and job performance. For instance, Kuvaas (2006) demonstrated that the strength of the relationship can be affected by intrinsic motivation and other factors. The recognition of these boundary conditions justifies the decision taken in the current research to test moderation effects,

particularly in academic settings because it is known that multifaceted institutional demands affect job performance.

Based on the empirical studies concerning the relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and job performance, the current study proposes the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 2b: Performance appraisal satisfaction is positively related to job performance.*

Much of the previously literature concludes that performance appraisal benefits job satisfaction. Krats and Brown (2013) make the case that employees are more inclined to trust their organisation if the appraisal process is equitable, thereby contributing towards job satisfaction. This relationship is also influenced by goals being clearly communicated and the provision of developmental feedback. Indeed, Jawahar (2006) and Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) stated that the factors influencing performance appraisal satisfaction are feedback, usefulness, accuracy and timeliness which, in turn, contribute towards job satisfaction.

In contrast, performance appraisal satisfaction's relationship with job performance is not so clear-cut. Both Li et al. (2023) and Pettijohn et al. (1999) suggest that clear goals and developmental feedback promote improvements in job performance. However, Kuvaas (2006) concluded that task-specific performance does not necessarily improve simply because employees are satisfied with the appraisal process. Rather, Kuvaas (2006) suggests that task-specific performance is more likely to be influenced by work design and each employee's individual capabilities.

Notably, the majority of the previous literature has relied on quantitative methods when investigating these relationships. Quantitative methods are useful for providing statistical insights but they are ill-suited to capture the contextual and subjective aspects of people's experience of performance appraisals, especially in universities which present a unique setting.

The current research addresses the shortcomings identified with quantitative methods by applying a mixed methods approach featuring both quantitative and



qualitative methods. Furthermore, by examining faculty members at Saudi universities, the research considers a context in which performance appraisal satisfaction and employee outcomes are influenced by organisational and cultural factors, thereby making a valuable contribution to the previous literature. The current research sets out to reveal how performance appraisal satisfaction affects job satisfaction and job performance. By drawing upon qualitative data, the current research complements the quantitative methods applied in the empirical literature.

### **3.1.2.3 Evaluation of studies linking performance appraisal satisfaction and employee outcomes**

Apart from one study (Kampkötter 2017) which used a longitudinal design, all of the studies discussed in this section are cross-sectional in design. Additionally, all of the studies presented in this section employed quantitative methodologies and used surveys to collect the data (e.g., Pettijohn et al. 1999; Ellickson and Logsdon 2002). All of the studies used regression analysis to test the main hypotheses (e.g., Pettijohn et al. 1999; Ellickson and Logsdon 2002; Kuvaas 2006; Li et al. 2023).

The majority of the empirical literature concerning performance appraisal satisfaction and employee outcomes has studied organisations in the private sector (e.g., Pettijohn et al. 2001a; Kuvaas 2006; Kaya et al. 2010; Krats and Brown 2013), whereas only a small number have investigated organisations in the public sector (e.g., Ellickson and Logsdon 2002; Jawahar 2006), with only one study examining organisations in both sectors (e.g., Kampkötter 2017). However, no studies have been conducted in the context of public higher education. Owing to the fact that the current study focuses on Saudi public higher education faculty members, it will help to determine the generalisability of these findings to the context of teaching and research professionals working in higher education.

In terms of location, the majority of the studies examining the relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and employee outcomes were undertaken in the USA (five); three studies were conducted in European countries including Germany (one) and Norway (one); only two studies were conducted in Asian countries, including China (one) and Turkey (one); with none having been conducted in Africa.

Because the current study focuses on Saudi public higher education, it will help to determine the generalisability of these findings.

Regarding the measure of performance appraisal satisfaction, multiple measures of performance appraisals have been employed by the different studies presented in this section. Some studies measured characteristics of the appraisal process (e.g., Pettijohn et al. 2001a; Kaya et al. 2010; Kampkötter 2017), whilst only three studies directly measured performance appraisal satisfaction (Ellickson and Logsdon 2002; Kuvaas 2006; Krats and Brown 2013). One study measured supervisor developmental feedback (Li et al. 2023) and one study measured satisfaction with feedback (Jawahar 2006). The current study will use a measure of performance appraisal satisfaction based on prior work (Kuvaas 2006). In doing so, the construct validity of the performance appraisal satisfaction will be tested for university faculty in the Saudi context.

### **3.2 Organisational commitment**

Academics and practitioners have both been interested in the topic of workplace commitment (Cohen 2006; Xerri et al. 2015). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001, p. 301) suggest that organisational commitment is a term used to refer to “a force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets.” They continue by stating that there are various forms of commitment associated with the workplace including organisational commitment, job commitment, occupational/career commitment, supervisor and co-worker commitment. Table 3.4 summarises the various definitions that have been offered for workplace commitment.

**Table 3.4:** Definitions of workplace commitment

Type of commitment	Definition
Organisational commitment	An employee's psychological association to their organisation (Meyer and Herscovitch 2001).
Job commitment	The degree of psychological attachment a person experiences to their work role (Meyer and Herscovitch 2001).
Co-worker commitment	The degree of emotional attachment a person experiences to their work colleagues (Torka and Schyns 2010).
Occupational/career commitment	The degree of psychological attachment a person experiences in relation to their chosen profession (Meyer and Herscovitch 2001).
Supervisory commitment	The degree to which a person appreciates their supervisor and values the efforts they go to (Vandenberghe et al. 2004; Chughtai 2013).

Organisational commitment is the focus of the current study for two main reasons. First, according to Meyer and Allen (1997), organisational commitment is the most mature form of commitment and, therefore, it is possible that the knowledge that has been amassed in relation to organisational commitment can be deployed to enhance our appreciation of other types of commitment. Second, organisational commitment can be used to anticipate future organisational outcomes and its relevance extends to a large percentage of employees in a given organisation (Yao and Wang 2006).

Essentially, organisational commitment is interpreted as the degree of attachment an employee experiences in relation to their employing organisation (Bartlett 2001). These workers identify with their institution and, therefore, they have a desire to remain at that organisation for the foreseeable future (Brunetto et al. 2013). Mowday et al. (1979, p. 226) offer an overarching definition of organisational commitment: “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and

involvement in a particular organisation.” This was subsequently expanded upon by Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 67) who incorporated a psychological aspect by referring to organisational commitment as a “psychological state” determining the relationship between employees and the organisation that employs them and whether those employees wish to continue their employment. Again, this was expanded upon by Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller (2012, p. 349) who suggested that organisational commitment goes beyond employment to include “an affective attachment to the organisation, internalisation of its values and goals, and a behavioural desire to put forth effort to support it.”

Organisational commitment and its correlations with numerous situational variables, attitudes and actions of employees have been studied by organisational researchers for several decades (Bateman and Strasser 1984). Numerous studies in the empirical literature have concluded that organisational commitment influences organisational citizenship behaviour (e.g., Paré and Tremblay 2007; Liu and Cohen 2010; Jo and Joo 2011, Chih et al. 2012; Karabay 2014; Obedgiu et al. 2017; Pingping and Huang 2019). In addition, previous studies have concluded that a positive relationship exists between commitment and employees’ attitudes towards organisational change (e.g., Chih et al. 2012; Yousef 2017). Conversely, research has confirmed that a negative relationship exists between commitment and the intentions of employees to seek employment elsewhere (e.g., Schwepker Jr 2001; Wong et al. 2001; Paré and Tremblay 2007; Jehanzeb et al. 2013).

### **3.2.1 Dimensions of organisational commitment**

Arguably the most notable framework concerning organisational research is Allen and Meyer’s (1990) three dimensions of organisational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1990) state that the three elements of organisational commitment are affective, continuance and normative commitment. Affective commitment (AC) concerns the emotional attachment workers feel towards their organisation; continuance commitment (CC) relates to the costs that employees associate with the process of switching to an alternative organisation; and normative commitment

(NC) is a sense of feeling obliged to remain with the current organisation (Meyer and Allen 1991).

Despite much of the previous literature considering organisational commitment to be a multi-dimensional construct, a global measure is applied in the current research to gauge the general commitment of faculty members. Such a method suits the stated objectives of the current research, which seek to establish how faculty outcomes are affected by organisational commitment, rather than seeking to explore each dimension in isolation. The use of a global measure is appropriate because it helps to establish the overarching relationship between commitment and employee outcomes.

### **3.2.3 Organisational commitment and employee outcomes**

When workers are committed to their organisation, they typically have an emotional attachment to it, they identify with their institution and are highly loyal (Allen and Meyer 1990; Brunetto et al. 2015). The current research further expands our understanding of the relationship between organisational commitment and employee outcomes by developing and testing hypotheses for public sector institutions, specifically university faculty at Saudi universities. This section discusses the main studies that have examined the relationship between organisational commitment and the employee outcomes of job satisfaction and job performance. At the end of this section, there is an evaluation of these studies.

#### **3.3.3.1 Studies linking organisational commitment and job satisfaction**

Organisational commitment has consistently attracted considerable attention among those researching HRM and organisational behaviour (Park 2020). If those working in the public sector are highly committed, it is likely that they will remain in their post for an extended period of time, be more satisfied in that role, produce work of a high standard and consistently deliver good performance (Park 2020; Park and Rainey 2007). It has been reported in the empirical literature that those working in the public sector who are committed to their organisation will strive to deliver the best possible outcome for that organisation, even if they are not provided with the resources that would normally be required to perform the role (Potipiroon and Ford 2017). In

addition, organisational commitment is widely regarded as a factor that determines how effective a particular organisation is (Moon 2000).

The relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction has been confirmed in many studies. For example, Ting (1997) studied the determinants of job satisfaction for federal government employees in the USA. Using regression analysis, they found that organisational commitment had a significant effect on job satisfaction owing to the fact that it helps to ensure that employees are closely aligned with the aims and goals of their organisation, thereby promoting job satisfaction. Similar results were reported by Park and Rainey (2007) who examined the effects of three dimensions of federal employees' organisational commitment (affective, normative and continuance) on job satisfaction in the USA. Using multiple regression analysis and a structural equation model, they found that affective and normative commitment had a statistically significant and positive effect on job satisfaction. When workers are affectively and normatively committed, they are more likely to report higher levels of satisfaction with their superiors, colleagues, workplace and jobs. They concluded that these types of commitment are closely aligned with participation and equity which are normative and intrinsic values associated with the public sector that are associated with greater job satisfaction. In addition, Park and Rainey (2007) find that continuance commitment is not significantly positively related to job satisfaction, possibly because the nature of continuance commitment is calculative, with the main reason why members of staff remain with their organisation being that they consider the cost of leaving to be too great and not because they derive satisfaction from their work.

Similarly, Elçi et al. (2007) explored the effect of organisational commitment on job satisfaction in middle-sized manufacturing organisations in Kocaeli, Turkey. They discovered that organisational commitment was positively associated with job satisfaction because employees are aligned with their organisation's goals and values, thereby helping to enhance job satisfaction and create a positive workplace.

Park (2020) investigated the direct effects of satisfaction among supervisors at the Ministry of Personnel Management of the Republic of Korea. Using correlation

analysis, they showed that organisational commitment had a direct, positive relationship with job satisfaction because workers who have high levels of organisational commitment are more likely to be closely aligned with the values and goals of their organisation, resulting in them being more satisfied.

In Indian public sector enterprises, Saha and Kumar (2017) studied 712 workers, revealing a significant positive relationship between affective commitment and job satisfaction. They attributed this to workers responding positively to their managers being appreciative of their efforts, resulting in positive emotions about the role, hence, improved job satisfaction. Moreover, using structural equation modelling to study workers at private and public hospitals in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Dinc et al. (2018) investigated the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction among a sample of 274 nurses. By doing so, they concluded that both normative and affective commitment are significantly positively related to job satisfaction and they suggested that this may be because workers feeling a sense of obligation and emotional attachment towards their organisation, thereby increasing their job satisfaction. In contrast, it was found that continuance commitment was unrelated to job satisfaction, possibly explained by workers remaining with their employer because they believe that there are no better alternatives available, thereby conferring no improvement in job satisfaction.

Table 3.5 provides a summary of the empirical studies concerning the link between organisational commitment and job satisfaction. It presents the name(s) of the author(s), the name of the country in which the research was undertaken, the sample size, the direct relationship confirmed, the research method, whether the research was undertaken in the private or public sector, the measure of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and the findings arrived at.

**Table 3.5:** A summary of the empirical studies concerning the link between organisational commitment and job satisfaction

Author(s)/Year	Country	Sample size	Direct relationship confirmed?	Research method	Sector (Public/Private)	Measure of organisational commitment	Measure of job satisfaction	Findings
Ting (1997)	USA	30,838	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Public	Latent construct of organisational commitment.	Overall job satisfaction	Organisational commitment had a significant effect on job satisfaction
Elçi et al. (2007)	Turkey	253	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Private	A four-item scale used by Hartline and Ferrell (1996); Netemeyer et al. (1997); Babin and Boles (1998); Ackfeldt and Coote (2005)	A three-item scale developed by Schwepker (2001)	Organisational commitment was positively associated with job satisfaction
Park and Rainey (2007)	USA	6,957	Mixed	Quantitative (survey)	Public	Three dimensions of organisational commitment: affective, normative and continuance. (13-items). Among the examples are: "My responsibilities in my current role are	Six-item factor score. Examples include: "Generally, I am satisfied with the managers who oversee my immediate supervisor" and "On reflection, I	Affective commitment and normative commitment had a statistically significant positive effect on job satisfaction, whereas continuance commitment had an insignificant positive effect on job satisfaction



						important” and “I find my work meaningful.”	have job satisfaction.”	
Saha and Kumar (2017)	India	712	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Public	Affective commitment Developed by Allen and Meyer (1991)- (eight-items). For instance: “If I were to spend the rest of my career with my current institution, that would suit me very well.”	15-item- developed by Warr et al. (1979)- intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction	Affective commitment and job satisfaction are positively related
Dinc et al. (2018)	Bosnia and Herzegovina	274	Mixed	Quantitative (survey)	Public and private	18-item - developed by Meyer and Allen (1997) included three organisational commitment components	Three-item developed by Fu and Deshpande (2014)- overall job satisfaction	Normative and affective commitment are positively related to job satisfaction, whereas continuance commitment had no correlation with job satisfaction
Park (2020)	South Korea	187	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Public	Organisational commitment scale developed by extracting relevant items from Mowday	Three items were extracted from the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey	Organisational commitment had a direct positive relationship with job satisfaction

						<p>et al. (1979) and Allen and Meyer (1990). General organisational commitment was represented by five items and examples include: "I have an emotional attachment to this university" and "When I tell people that I would for this institution, I feel a sense of pride."</p>	<p>(FEVS). Among the examples are: "On balance, I', satisfied with my role."</p>	
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From Table 3.6, it is possible to make a number of notable observations. Two studies indicate mixed results regarding the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction, reporting that both normative and affective commitment are positively related to job satisfaction, while there is no relationship between continuous commitment and job satisfaction (Park and Rainey 2007; Dinc et al. 2018). However, the rest of the empirical literature reports a positive relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction. The lack of consistency in the results, especially continuance commitment's relatively weak relationship with job satisfaction, indicates that the prevailing context affects how commitment relates to job satisfaction. Continuance commitment is not concerned with an individual's emotional bonds but instead derives from the costs they associate with any decision to leave. Therefore, it is possible that continuance commitment is not as effective as normative commitment or affective commitment at promoting satisfaction. Such differences indicate the possibility that institutional culture, organisational support or other moderators affect these relationships.

The job satisfaction of faculty members is significantly influenced by their organisational commitment. Those faculty members who are highly committed to their organisation typically feel closely connected to their university and believe that the tasks they perform help to contribute towards the institution's values and aims. In turn, being closely aligned to the university promotes a positive attitude towards the workplace in general (Levin 2006). When faculty members are committed, they are more likely to consider their contribution to be meaningful and report higher levels of job satisfaction. Because they are committed, the bond they feel with the institution improves their perception of their role, thereby bolstering their positive sentiment towards their academic duties.

Based on the empirical research concerning the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 3a: Organisational commitment is positively related to job satisfaction.*

### **3.3.3.2 Studies linking organisational commitment and job performance**

Over time, the empirical literature has paid greater attention to the commitment of employees to their organisations. This is because managers and business analysts recognise the need to enhance performance whilst retaining employees who create value (Steers 1977). In addition, employees who are committed typically outperform those who are not (Mowday et al. 1974). It has also been reported that commitment provides a good indication of how effective an organisation is (Steers 1975).

The empirical literature has repeatedly confirmed a positive relationship between organisational commitment and job performance. One of the first research papers to explore how the performance of front-line managers relates to continuance commitment and affective commitment was undertaken in a food manufacturing company in Canada (Meyer et al. 1989). Using correlation analysis, they found that affective commitment was positively related to job performance, whereas continuance commitment was negatively related to job performance. They attributed affective commitment positive relationship with job performance to the identification and emotional attachment workers feel towards their employer, which can result in them expending greater effort in their role. Meanwhile, they suggested that continuance commitment negative relationship with job performance may be due to workers remaining with their employer because of the costs they anticipate if they were to leave. Consequently, such workers are unlikely to be highly engaged, thereby resulting in subdued performance. Using a structural equation model, Anton (2009) reported that workers with a high level of affective commitment had a higher level of performance for a sample of private employees from one bus company and one water supply company in Spain. Therefore, it is possible that when employees have an affective link with their organisation, they may choose to take on additional duties or improve their performance to help realise their organisation's goals. Similarly, Swalhi and Zgoulli (2017) found in their study of 343 employees working within French small and medium-sized enterprises that there was a positive and significant relationship between affective commitment and job performance. They argue that employees respond to their organisations demonstrating goodwill and

fairness by showing affective commitment, ultimately resulting in them performing to a higher standard.

The relationship between organisational commitment and job performance has also been attracting increasing attention in Asia. In a Chinese insurance company, using structural equation modelling, Fu and Deshpande (2014) showed that organisational commitment had a significant direct impact on job performance. They make the case that workers exhibiting a heightened level of organisational commitment when organisational goals are aligned with workers' personal goals, are likely to be particularly effective and focused, thereby improving their job performance.

Using regression analysis, Hendri (2019) found that organisational commitment had a significant effect on the performance of 130 employees of an oil palm plantation in West Kalimantan, Indonesia. Hendri (2019) reported that heightened levels of organisational commitment are associated with improved job performance because of the values and goals of their organisation, resulting in improved performance.

Sharma and Dhar (2016) studied six public healthcare institutes and using a structural equation model, they found that affective commitment is positively related to job performance. They attributed this to workers who were emotionally attached to their organisation contributing more, thereby improving their performance. Using regression analysis, Chang and Chen (2011) showed that affective commitment was positively related to the job performance of 97 hair salon owners and 284 hairdressers in Taiwan. They explained that when employees were affectively committed to their organisation, they were highly dedicated and involved.

Employees exhibiting such attitudes may then outperform because their performance is consistent with the expectations of the organisation and they make more effort with their work. Napitupulu et al. (2017) applied data for 250 civil servants in Indonesia in a structural equation model, revealing evidence that affective commitment is significantly positively related to job performance. They asserted that workers demonstrating affective commitment will be more likely to expend greater effort in an attempt to help realise organisational goals, thereby resulting in them performing to a higher standard. Similarly, Kim (2014) found in his study of 293 employees who work in one of the industrial complexes in South Korea

that affective commitment positively impacted employees' in-role performance. The researcher suggested that there is a collectivist organisational climate in south Korea which results in workers tending to prioritise the goals of their organisation rather than their individual goals because they are keen to preserve the organisation's unity and harmony. Because of this culture, workers are more likely to become emotionally attached to their organisation, thereby promoting affective commitment. Consequently, the associated increase in affective commitment results in individuals performing to a high level. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, in both public and private hospitals, Dinc et al. (2018) tested the impact of the three dimensions of organisational commitment on job performance in a sample of 274 nurses. Using a structural equation model, they concluded that continuance commitment is significantly positively related with job performance. Furthermore, they suggested that the high rate of unemployment in the country may explain this finding because employees are reluctant to resign from their job because there are few alternatives. Therefore, fear of being made redundant could encourage employees to perform to the best of their abilities. In contrast, neither affective commitment nor normative commitment were found to be significantly related to job performance. Again, this could be reflective of the challenging labour market in the country because employees remain in their post, not because they are committed to the role but out of necessity. This has the effect of weakening the relationship between both affective commitment and normative commitment and job performance.

One study explored the effect of organisational commitment on job performance in the context of Turkey. Using regression analysis, Elçi et al. (2007) showed that organisational commitment is positively associated with job performance in middle-sized manufacturing organisations in Kocaeli, Turkey. They argued that employees who are committed are more likely to make the effort needed to help realise the organisation's stated aims, thereby improving job performance.

Table 3.6 provides a summary of the empirical studies concerning the link between organisational commitment and job performance. It presents the name(s) of the author(s), the name of the country in which the research was undertaken, the sample size, the direct relationship confirmed, the research method, whether the

research was undertaken in the private or public sector, the measures of organisational commitment and job performance, and the findings arrived at.

**Table 3.6:** A summary of the empirical studies concerning the link between organisational commitment and job performance

Author(s)/Year	Country	Sample size	Direct relationship confirmed?	Research method	Sector (Public/Private)	Measure of organisational commitment	Measure of job performance	Findings
Meyer et al. (1989)	Canada	114	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Private	Eight-item affective commitment and continuance commitment scale reported by Allen and Meyer (1987) and McGee and Ford (1987)	District managers gauged the performance of unit managers using six criteria: i) performing routine tasks; ii) adherence to operational procedures and policies; iii) management and training of unit personnel; iv) verbal communication and the compilation of written reports; v) accounting and administration practices; vi) public relations	Affective commitment is positively related to job performance, whereas continuance commitment is negatively related to job performance
Elçi et al. (2007)	Turkey	253	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Private	A four-item scale used by Hartline and Ferrell (1996), Netemeyer et	Two-item scale developed by Goris et al. (2003)	Organisational commitment is positively associated with job performance



						al. (1997), Babin and Boles (1998), Ackfeldt and Coote (2005)		
Anton (2009)	Spain	261	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Private	Affective commitment scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1984), Allen and Meyer (1990)- seven items	A single item. Self-reported measure of performance is common in the literature (Meyer et al. 1993; Milkovich and Boudreau 1994; Saks 1995)	Workers with a high level of affective commitment had a higher level of performance
Chang and Chen (2011)	Taiwan	284	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Private	Six-item affective commitment scale developed by Meyer et al. (1993)	Employee productivity and sales volume as individual job performance measure. Adopted from Arthur (1994) and Huselid et al. (1997)	Employee affective commitment is positively related to job performance
Fu and Deshpande (2014)	China	476	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Private	18-item scale proposed by Meyer and Allen (1991)	Three-item: peer-, supervisor- and self-rated performance over the previous twelve months.	Organisational commitment has a significant direct impact on job performance
Kim (2014)	South Korea	293	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Private	Six items adapted from the questionnaire originally	Seven-item measure based on Williams and Anderson (1991). Among the	Affective commitment positively affects employees' in-

						developed by Allen and Meyer (1990)	examples are: "I undertake all of the duties, in accordance with my job description" and "I perform all of my duties to a sufficient standard."	role performance
Sharma and Dhar (2016)	India	349	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Public	Affective commitment scale developed by Meyer et al. (1993)	Six-item scale developed by Singh et al. (1996). Among the items used in this scale are: "How do you rate your performance against that of your fellow workers?" and "How consistently do you achieve your goals?"	Affective commitment is positively related to job performance
Napitupulu et al. (2017)	Indonesia	250	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Public	Six items of affective commitment developed by Allen and Meyer (1990)	Seven items developed by Neal (2001), including ability to communicate and interact, work knowledge, responsibility and work quality	Affective commitment significantly positively affects job performance
Swalhi and Zgoulli (2017)	France	343	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Private	Five-item Meyer and	Seven-item scale developed by	Affective commitment is

						Allen (1997) scale	Williams and Anderson (1991)	positively related to job performance
Dinc et al. (2018)	Bosnia and Herzegovina	274	Mixed	Quantitative (survey)	Public and private	18-item - developed by Meyer and Allen (1997) included three organisational commitment components	The items that Fu and Deshpande (2014) proposed: peer-, supervisor- and self-rated performance over the previous twelve months.	Affective commitment and normative commitment are not related to job performance, whereas continuance commitment is correlated with job performance
Hendri (2019)	Indonesia	130	Yes	Quantitative (survey)	Private	Four indicators of organisational commitment. Typical examples include: workers' confidence when seeking to deliver the organisation's goals and how keen they are to remain with their organisation.	Applies the performance indicator, which is established using the following factors: i) Capacity to help subordinates to develop. ii) Capacity to manage relationships. iii) Capacity to make effective decisions. iv) Capacity to plan. v) Sense of achievement. vi) Teamwork.	Organisational commitment has a significant effect on employee performance

							vii) Honesty and integrity. viii) Realisation of work goals.	
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From Table 3.6, two notable insights are provided into organisational commitment's relationship with job performance, with significant variation based on the context. Dinc et al. (2018) conducted research in private and public hospitals in Bosnia and Herzegovina which revealed mixed results. More specifically, they observed that affective and normative commitment were both insignificantly correlated with job performance, whereas continuance commitment was significantly positively related with job performance. Conversely, Meyer et al. (1989) studied workers at a food manufacturing plant, concluding that there was a significant positive relationship between affective commitment and job performance, whereas continuance commitment was significantly negatively related with job performance. Such contrasting conclusions indicate that the industrial sector and the organisational setting can influence how each type of commitment affects job performance. However, it is important to note that when reviewing the empirical literature as a whole, there is a general consensus that organisational commitment is significantly positively related with job performance, albeit that its effects may be governed by the organisational context and the specific form of commitment. Inconsistencies in the findings, particularly regarding how performance is affected by certain types of commitment, suggest that wider organisational or contextual factors may affect the effect that organisational commitment has. Commitment's relationship with job performance could be affected by perceived support, role expectations or institutional culture. This justifies the decision to investigate moderation effects in the context of public universities in Saudi Arabia.

The job performance of faculty members is influenced by their organisational commitment. When faculty members are highly committed to their institution, they are likely to be more dedicated to their professional activities and perform to a higher standard (Smeenk et al. 2008). Moreover, when faculty members are highly committed, their efforts are more likely to be closely aligned with the goals of their university, thereby resulting in them making a meaningful contribution to the success of the institution. organisational commitment results in faculty members forming strong connections with their university and this enhances their performance across all of their various responsibilities (Smeenk et al. 2008).

The current research makes a valuable contribution to the existing body of literature because it addresses notable gaps in different ways. Firstly, the current research focuses its attention on public universities in Saudi Arabia, which is an under-researched area. By doing so, the research improves our appreciation of how commitment manifests in a non-Western setting. Secondly, the current research combines quantitative and qualitative methods to establish faculty members' nuanced perceptions. In contrast, the previous literature overwhelmingly relies on quantitative methods. Therefore, the application of a qualitative approach enables the mechanisms by which organisational commitment influences job satisfaction and job performance to be examined more deeply. Taken together, these contributions help to fill contextual and methodological gaps, offering a more comprehensive and richer appreciation of how organisational commitment affects job satisfaction and job performance in public universities.

Based on the empirical studies, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 3b: Organisational commitment is positively related to job performance.*

### **3.3.3.3 Evaluation of studies linking organisational commitment and employee outcomes**

All of the empirical literature has employed a quantitative methodology and used surveys to collect data (e.g., Elçi et al. 2007; Park and Rainey 2007; Fu and Deshpande 2014; Napitupulu et al. 2017). Most of the studies have used regression analysis to test the main hypotheses (e.g., Elçi et al. 2007; Hendri 2019), whilst a few studies employed structural equation modelling (e.g., Anton 2009; Fu and Deshpande 2014; Kim 2014) and a few studies have used only correlation analysis (e.g., Park 2020). One study applied both regression analysis and structural equation modelling (Park and Rainey 2007).

In terms of sector, the majority of the empirical literature concerning organisational commitment and employee outcomes has studied organisations in the private sector (e.g., Meyer et al. 1989; Elçi et al. 2007; Fu and Deshpande 2014; Kim 2014; Hendri 2019;), whereas only a small number have investigated organisations in the public sector (e.g., Ting 1997; Park and Rainey 2007;

Sharma and Dhar 2016; Napitupulu et al. 2017). One study examined organisations in both sectors (Dinc et al. 2018).

In terms of location, the majority (ten) of the studies examining the relationship between organisational commitment and employee outcomes were performed in Asian countries, including China (two), South Korea (two), Turkey (two), India (two), Indonesia (two) and Taiwan (one), whilst three studies were conducted in European countries, including Spain (one), Bosnia and Herzegovina (one) and France (one), with three studies undertaken in the USA. Research was also undertaken in Canada, (one), Spain and Mexico (one).

Regarding the measure of organisational commitment, multiple measures of organisational commitment have been employed by the different studies presented in this section. The current study measures organisational commitment using the three dimensions developed by Allen and Meyer in combination to obtain a global measure of the overall feelings of organisational commitment among university faculty members in the Saudi context.

### **3.3 Moderating role of performance appraisal satisfaction on the relationship between burnout and employee outcomes**

Extensive efforts have been made in the previous literature to examine the relationship between burnout and both job satisfaction and job performance. The overwhelming majority of these previous studies conclude that burnout is negatively related to both job satisfaction and job performance. However, the previous literature has failed to establish how this relationship is affected by performance appraisal satisfaction. Therefore, the current study sets out to establish whether performance appraisal satisfaction is able to moderate the negative effects of burnout on employee outcomes.

Numerous studies have concluded that both job satisfaction and job performance suffer as a result of burnout. For instance, Dolan (1987) studied healthcare workers in Ireland and concluded that burnout adversely affected job satisfaction. Meanwhile, Ninaus et al. (2021) utilised Austrian data for those working in private media firms, public universities and also from a general online panel and similarly reported that job satisfaction suffered as a result of burnout. Furthermore, Karatepe and Uludag (2008) studied data for those in customer-

facing roles in Turkish hotels and found that job satisfaction declined when staff became emotionally exhausted (a key element of burnout).

Burnout also has a detrimental effect on job performance. Gomes et al. (2022) studied Portuguese police officers and found that the negative effect that burnout has on job performance was exacerbated when working in highly stressful situations. Moreover, those who experienced burnout were also more inclined to be dissatisfied and aggressive, thereby further reducing their performance. The consistent reports in the literature that burnout adversely affects job satisfaction and job performance emphasise the need for steps to be taken to actively mitigate these effects.

There is growing recognition that performance appraisal satisfaction is an important job resource that contributes towards job satisfaction and job performance. The evidence presented in the previous literature suggests that performance appraisal satisfaction brings about greater clarity, enhances fairness and yields constructive feedback, all of which benefit employee outcomes. For instance, Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) studied municipal government workers in the US and concluded that performance appraisal satisfaction is positively associated with job satisfaction because it helps to ensure that people are treated equitably. Similarly, Jawahar (2006) studied workers at not-for-profit organisations in the USA and found satisfaction with performance appraisal feedback to be associated with improved job satisfaction. Jawahar (2006) suggested that when employees are satisfied with their performance appraisal feedback, this has a positive impact on their standing in the organisation and their sense of self-worth, thereby enhancing their job satisfaction. Krats and Brown (2013) studied the responses of those working at a private mining organisation in Canada and attributed the positive relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and job satisfaction to the developmental focus of the appraisal and the association with being treated fairly. When employees regard the appraisal process to be fair and targeted at improving their career development, they are more likely to report being satisfied with their job and the appraisal process. Furthermore, Li et al. (2023) found evidence that when supervisors offer developmental feedback, this is significantly positively related with task performance.



The previous literature also indicates that performance appraisal satisfaction is associated with improvements in job performance. Li et al. (2023) reported that there is a significant positive correlation between developmental feedback and job performance, thereby showing that actionable and constructive feedback helps to influence employees. They state that developmental feedback encourages employees to behave in a way that reflects the expectations of their organisation. Such feedback is informational and seeks to alter developments in the future, thereby enthusing employees to enhance how they perform.

There is also evidence to suggest that performance appraisal satisfaction helps to mitigate burnout's adverse effects. Brown and Benson (2003) concluded that emotional exhaustion (a key element of burnout) was significantly lower among those who declared themselves to be satisfied with the performance appraisal process. When the appraisal process is considered to be fair, it helps to protect against the emotional strain that results when an individual experiences burnout, thereby prompting employees to believe that they are being treated fairly and supported. Therefore, it is possible that performance appraisal satisfaction has direct effects on burnout.

It is possible to interpret the way in which the burnout-employee outcomes relationship is moderated by performance appraisal satisfaction using the JD-R model. The JD-R model asserts that it is a combination of insufficient job resources and excessive job demands that are responsible for burnout.

Performance appraisal satisfaction helps to protect against the adverse effects of burnout by offering employees greater transparency, fairness and better feedback regarding their jobs. Moreover, AMO framework asserts that workers' performance improves when they are given an opportunity to contribute (e.g., effective support and transparent systems), they are motivated to participate (e.g., fairness and recognition), and they are able to perform their duties (e.g., feedback). Being satisfied with the performance appraisal could contribute towards each of these elements, helping to ensure that employees are satisfied and able to perform to a high standard, even if they experience burnout. Hence, utilising both AMO framework and the JD-R model helps to more comprehensively explain how burnout's effect on performance can be moderated

by performance appraisal satisfaction, in addition to enhancing satisfaction as a result of greater support, recognition, and fairness.

It is possible that performance appraisal satisfaction contributes towards developmental focus and fosters fairness, thereby making employees more resilient to burnout and contributing towards job satisfaction and job performance, even when experiencing high levels of burnout. Given the heavy workloads that faculty members in public Saudi universities face (Muramalla and Alotaibi 2019), there is a clear need to better understand this moderating role. Therefore, the current research seeks to contribute towards the existing body of knowledge by investigating the ability of performance appraisal satisfaction to mitigate the adverse effects of burnout on job satisfaction and job performance. Consequently, based on the above discussion, the following hypotheses will be tested:

*Hypothesis 4a: Performance appraisal satisfaction moderates the negative relationship between burnout and job satisfaction.*

*Hypothesis 4b: Performance appraisal satisfaction moderates the negative relationship between burnout and job performance.*

### **3.4 Moderating role of organisational commitment on the relationship between burnout and employee outcomes**

Whilst the previous HRM literature has largely failed to investigate the potential for organisational commitment to moderate the relationship between burnout and employee outcomes, it is an area of significant theoretical importance. Numerous studies have concluded that burnout negatively affects both job satisfaction and job performance. For instance, Corbeanu et al. (2023) employed a meta-analysis to demonstrate that emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment all influence the effect that burnout has on job performance. Meanwhile, Boamah et al. (2017) studied a sample of recently-graduated Canadian nurses and found that their job satisfaction suffered due to burnout resulting from insufficient staff numbers and work-life interference. Further support for these findings was provided by Appelbaum et al. (2019) who reported that the job satisfaction of surgeons suffered when they experienced

burnout as a result of factors associated with workload and autonomy. It was suggested that their job satisfaction suffers because these factors influence how burnout and organisational support are perceived. They suggest that the burnout experienced by surgeons in the USA is exacerbated by the environmental demands they are subjected to, thereby adversely affecting their job satisfaction. Evidence has also been presented to indicate that the adverse effects of burnout can be effectively mitigated by organisational commitment. For instance, when studying data for nurses and doctors working at a Turkish public tertiary health institution, Tosun and Ulusoy (2017) found evidence that organisational commitment is negatively correlated with burnout. Therefore, this indicates that organisational commitment offers a form of psychological protection against the negative effects of burnout. Meanwhile, Kalliath et al. (2000) studied healthcare professionals and reported that organisational commitment is inversely related with emotional exhaustion, thereby emphasising the ability to moderate burnout by fostering loyalty to the workplace. This infers that those working in stressful workplaces may be able to mitigate burnout if they demonstrate organisational commitment. Research conducted by Lambert et al. (2017) indicated that there is a significant relationship between affective commitment and a sense of personal achievement because the process entails actively embracing the organisation's goals and making the necessary effort to bring them about. When people demonstrate affective commitment, they are more likely to believe that they are able to help realise the organisation's goals, thereby giving them a sense of achievement. In contrast, those who feel a sense of continuance commitment are more likely to report feeling emotionally exhausted and a sense of depersonalisation because their bond of obligation is the result of their sunk investments. If employees feel unable to leave their organisation as a result of necessity, they are more likely to experience psychological strain and a sense of frustration. Over time, this can manifest in feelings of being emotionally exhausted, causing them to treat people impersonally and demonstrate callous attitudes. These findings are in accordance with those of Voci et al. (2018) who studied healthcare professionals in two private institutions in Italy and reported that there was a negative association between affective commitment and burnout owing to the security and meaning that results from affective commitment. When

individuals are emotionally attached to their organisation and feel a sense of belonging, this is able to effectively offset the negative effects of burnout.

Extensive efforts have been made by researchers to establish the effect that organisational commitment has on job satisfaction and job performance.

Camilleri and Van Der Heijden (2007) utilized data for 1,217 public officers in Malta to investigate how job performance was affected by organisational commitment. They were able to establish that organisational commitment was significantly related to job performance owing to the fact that they involve employees feeling a sense of loyalty and emotional attachment. Similarly, Park (2020) studied employees working for the Ministry of Personnel Management in South Korea and concluded that there was a positive association between organisational commitment and job satisfaction owing to the fact that the goals and values of employees with elevated levels of organisational commitment are likely to mirror those of their institution, thereby giving them greater job satisfaction. This lends weight to the belief that organisational commitment is able to serve as an effective buffer against the adverse effects of the challenges encountered in the workplace, thereby helping to improve employee outcomes.

Whilst a considerable proportion of the previous literature is based on data relating to those working in healthcare facilities and the public sector, the findings are likely to be applicable to educational settings. Faculty members working at public universities in Saudi Arabia are likely to be susceptible to burnout because of their limited resources, onerous workloads and high performance expectations. It is possible that these faculty members will derive emotional strength from their Affective commitment, thereby helping them to mitigate the adverse effects of burnout. When faculty members are emotionally connected to their universities, they typically have a clear sense of direction and feel reassured that their efforts are helping to realise the university's long-term goals. Crucially, being emotionally committed helps them to cope with the challenges and pressures they face, thereby ensuring that they avoid becoming emotionally exhausted. Therefore, emotional strength offers protection against burnout. Conversely, those who feel a sense of continuance commitment are significantly more likely to feel burnt out because the obligation to remain in their post is likely to exacerbate their disengagement and emotional exhaustion.

It is possible to interpret the way in which organisational commitment moderates the burnout-employee outcomes relationship using the JD-R model. In this context, organisational commitment is a job resource that is capable of counteracting the negative effects of burnout, thereby resulting in employees maintaining high levels of job satisfaction and job performance.

AMO framework asserts that employees are more satisfied and better able to perform when they are given opportunities to contribute (e.g., autonomy, time, and support), motivated to participate (e.g., committed to their organisations), and ability (e.g., the necessary skills, concentration, and energy). Therefore, individuals may be more motivated if they are committed to their organisation but this sense of commitment will only help to mitigate the effects of burnout if they are given sufficient opportunity and they have the capacity to work effectively. AMO framework complements JD-R model through the suggestion that the ability of organisational commitment to moderate the negative effects of burnout depend on whether the opportunity and capacity to engage persist when subjected to strain.

Therefore, based on the above discussion, the following hypotheses will be tested:

*Hypothesis 5a: Organisational commitment moderates the negative relationship between burnout and job satisfaction.*

*Hypothesis 5b: Organisational commitment moderates the negative relationship between burnout and job performance.*

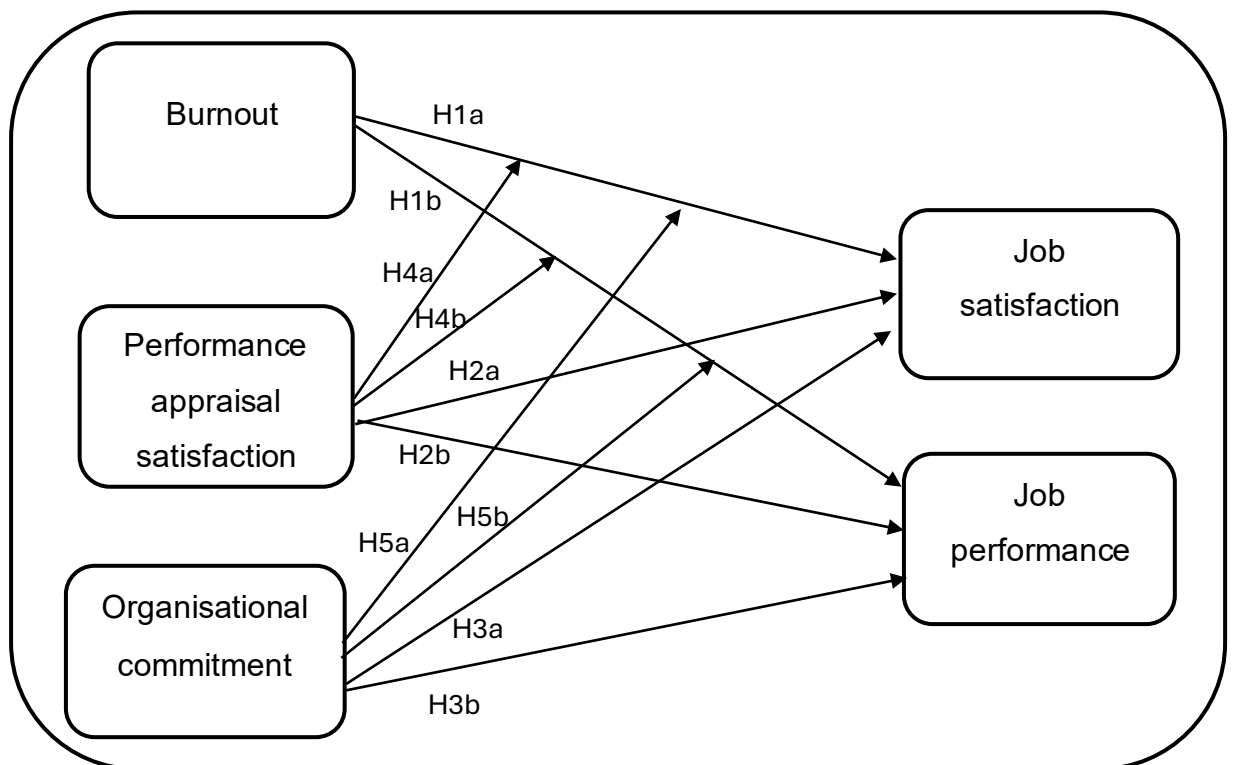
### **3.5 Chapter conclusion**

This chapter has thoroughly examined the relationships between performance appraisal satisfaction, organisational commitment and both job satisfaction and job performance. Initially, the chapter reviewed performance appraisals, before reviewing organisational commitment. The review of the previous literature revealed evidence that both performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment are significantly positively related to employee outcomes. Crucially, however, the overwhelming majority of this previous literature was conducted in developed economies, with few attempts having been made to test these relationships in developing economies. Therefore, the

current research set out to fill this knowledge gap by establishing the effect that both performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment have on faculty members' job satisfaction and job performance at public universities in Saudi Arabia.

In addition, the review indicated that both performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment may be able to effectively moderate the burnout-employee outcome relationship. However, no previous attempt had been made in the previous literature to test the ability of performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment to influence burnout's relationships with job satisfaction and job performance. Consequently, the current research sets out to contribute to the existing body of knowledge regarding burnout's relationship with employee outcomes.

Table 3.7 presents summaries of the hypotheses being tested in the current research, while Figure 3.1 introduces the hypothesised model. The following chapter presents details of the methodology employed in the current study to test the stated hypotheses.



**Figure 3.1:** Conceptual model of the study

**Table 3.7:** Summary of the study hypotheses

<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>Description</b>
1a	Burnout is negatively related to job satisfaction
1b	Burnout is negatively related to job performance
2a	Performance appraisal satisfaction is negatively related to job satisfaction
2b	Performance appraisal satisfaction is negatively related to job performance
3a	Organisational commitment is negatively related to job satisfaction
3b	Organisational commitment is negatively related to job performance
4a	Performance appraisal satisfaction moderates the negative relationship between burnout and job satisfaction
4b	Performance appraisal satisfaction moderates the negative relationship between burnout and job performance.
5a	Organisational commitment moderates the negative relationship between burnout and job satisfaction
5b	Organisational commitment moderates the negative relationship between burnout and job performance.

## **Chapter 4. Methodology and research design**

Details of the selected methodology are provided in this chapter. This provides a roadmap for the collection and analysis of the data needed to test the hypotheses proposed in the previous chapters. First, the research paradigm for this study is described, as well as the study's ontological, epistemological and methodological points of view. Following the description of the research design, Saudi public universities serve as the context for the current research investigation. Next, the methods for the data collection and sampling design are chosen. Furthermore, there is a discussion of the methodological biases relevant to quantitative research. Finally, the selected methods for analysing the data and addressing the relevant ethical considerations are examined.

### **4.1 Paradigm for this research**

The study is guided by a paradigm, approach and methodological stance that is positivist. Due to the fact that the research examines the relationships of burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment with the employee outcomes of faculty members at Saudi public universities, faculty members from two universities are selected to comprise the sample population. To guide the analysis, research questions are posed that can help test the series of hypotheses backed by the resulting quantitative data. Deeper probing of those results requires qualitative data-gathering as well in order to better understand the quantitative findings. This research therefore incorporates quantitative and qualitative data integrated under a positivist-led mixed method approach to triangulate the main quantitative findings using more than one method of data collection.

Positivism is chosen as the research paradigm because of its alignment with the selected methodology for the study of objective truths in the physical world, which requires the collection of quantitative data. Such data can reveal observable trends that may support established theories, lead to generalisable conclusions, enable the testing of hypotheses and produce repeatable outcomes so that other researchers can reliably replicate the tests and results. While the research and its quantitative focus lends itself to a positivist direction, the value of the qualitative perspectives is also an important part of the data gathering



process. Not only has this consideration led to an exploration of the mixed methods approach (described in greater detail below) but it also provides the foundation for the rationale of how such an approach is to be accomplished within a positivist paradigm.

To underscore how qualitative methods will, in this way, support this positivist approach, special attention will be paid, for example, to modelling semi-structured interview questions. Therefore, qualitative data gathering methods are undertaken with the view of adding a deeper contextual dimension to the results yielded by the quantitative methods. Consequently, the methodology and research design needed to carry out the study were arrived at after careful analysis of the following considerations for building a strong approach for this research.

## **4.2 Research paradigm**

Kuhn (1962) asserts that research paradigms essentially comprise scientists and researchers' beliefs regarding how best to address and understand particular research problems. According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), research paradigms represent the specific means by which a researcher's belief system is guided. Paradigms are frameworks of worldviews, assumptions and ideas which influence how research is undertaken (Grant and Giddings 2002). Grix (2002) states that there are various ways in which paradigm elements can be defined but it is possible to consider a paradigm as comprising three parts: the methods employed (methodology), the nature of knowledge (epistemology) and the understanding that the researchers have of the nature of reality (ontology). The importance of considering these elements when undertaking social science research is stressed by Popkewitz et al. (1979) owing to the fact that they give inquiries definition and shape.

According to Saunders et al. (2019), the various research paradigms are pragmatism, interpretivism, critical realism and positivism. The philosophical stance of positivism entails the production of law-like generalisations based on observations of social reality. Positivism entails the application of scientific empirical methods to acquire clear and reliable knowledge based on 'objective' independent data (Saunders et al. 2019). Meanwhile, critical realism asserts that

our experience and knowledge reflect proxies of the real world and not necessarily what happens in reality (Saunders et al. 2019). Furthermore, the philosophical approach of interpretivism seeks to study society and people based on the meanings they produce. The aim of interpretivism is to draw upon cultural influences, varied opinions and people's lived experiences to gain a thorough appreciation of social contexts (Saunders et al. 2019). Finally, the research philosophy of pragmatism does not take a firm stance regarding what constitutes proper research (Saunders et al. 2019). Advocates for pragmatism believe that research can be of value if appropriate research questions are posed and if concepts and findings support action (Sekaran 2003). The four paradigms are compared in Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1:** Comparison of the research paradigms

Aspect	Positivism	Critical realism	Interpretivism	Pragmatism
<b>Ontology</b>  <b>(nature of reality)</b>	Independent, external and real. Ordered, granular and a single reality (universalism).	Multi-layered/stratified reality (real, actual and empirical). Structures that are independent and objective, utilising causal mechanisms.	Drawing upon language and culture to socially construct a rich and complex ontology. Various realities, interpretations and meanings. Fluctuation in practices and processes.	External, rich and complex. 'Reality' is the result of ideas. Fluctuation in practices, experiences and processes.
<b>Epistemology</b>  <b>(what constitutes acceptable knowledge)</b>	Causal explanation, numbers, law-like generalisations, scientific approach, measurable and observable facts.	Knowledge is historically situated. Contribution is causal historical explanations. Social constructions are facts.	It is overly simplistic to rely on concepts and theories. Contributions are worldviews and new understandings. Focus on interpretations, perceptions, stories and narratives.	Knowledge's practical meaning in particular contexts. Knowledge and theories are 'true' if they facilitate successful action. Contribution is focused on practices, problems and relevance problem-solving as well as informed future practice.
<b>Methodology</b>  <b>(approach to research)</b>	Usually deductive. Quantitative analysis. Large, highly structured samples.	Retroductive approach. Various types of data and methods to suit subject matter. Emerging agency and pre-existing structures analysed using details, historically situated approach.	Usually inductive. Small sample size. Detailed qualitative analysis.	Based on research questions, various methods are utilised: quantitative, qualitative, multiple, mixed and action research. Focus on outcomes and solutions.

**Source:** Saunders et al. (2019)

It is necessary to select a paradigm before undertaking research because it offers a clear perspective on phenomena and how the research process is best able to represent those phenomena.

#### **4.2.1 Ontology**

Ontology refers to the “study of being” Crotty (2020, p.10). Denzin and Lincoln (2005) suggest that ontology reveals possible lines of investigation concerning reality’s nature as well as the role that people play in the world. All research starts out from ontology (Grix 2002) because it affects every aspect of the research process.

Ontology concerns what constitutes social reality and what the nature of reality is. It is important to understand your ontological position owing to the fact that it influences the choice of research question and methodology, as well as how the results are interpreted (Grix 2002).

Ontologies typically seek to establish if reality merely derives from the thoughts of people or is in fact independent of human experience and consciousness.

Considering this, Bell et al. (2019) defined two main ontological approaches: objectivism, which distinguishes between reality and what people believe; and constructivism, which regards reality as being socially constructed. For instance, it is possible that an objectivist will make the case that hierarchies and other organisational structures are real entities whose function is independent of the people who comprise them (Bell et al. 2019). In contrast, constructivism asserts that reality is formed by people’s actions and perceptions. For example, constructivism regards the culture of an organisation to be evolving and dynamic, influenced by employees’ interpretations and shared experiences (Saunders et al. 2019).

An objectivist ontology is applied in the current research and, therefore, it is assumed that burnout performance appraisal satisfaction, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and job performance are all measurable realities capable of being analysed free from any prior perceptions. The reason for selecting an objectivist ontology stems from the stated objectives of the research and its design, which focus on identifying relationships among faculty members in Saudi universities that can be generalised to similar organisations.

The current research's objectivist stance is entirely aligned with its quantitative element. Standardised measurement tools are used to operationalise burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and job performance. All of these phenomena are regarded as being observable and stable entities. The selection of such an approach enables hypotheses to be tested and statistically significant relationships to be identified. Individual interpretations are typically emphasised in qualitative research, whereas the current research applies an objectivist approach by drawing upon a qualitative element, examining themes to provide explanations for the quantitative findings. The aim is to identify shared themes capable of enabling the quantitative findings to be explained, instead of seeking to establish how individual faculty members construct their understanding of such phenomena.

In order to make the research design coherent and consistent, the current research applies objectivism in both elements. Whilst the phenomena being investigated are undoubtedly complex, the research seeks to arrive at conclusions that are actionable and reliable and which will be of practical use to policymakers, university managers and those working in HRM departments who have an interest in delivering improvements in job satisfaction and job performance.

#### **4.2.2 Epistemology**

It has previously been stated that epistemology provides the means to interpret how it is that people know what they do (Crotty 2020). Whereas ontology is concerned with the nature of reality, epistemology seeks to identify how to acquire knowledge about that reality (Saunders et al. 2019). Positivism and social constructionism are the most widely applied epistemological approaches utilised by social science researchers (Thomas 2004) and are examined in greater detail below.

Positivism has emerged from empiricist and rationalist philosophies and this method is sometimes referred to as being 'scientific' (Mertens 2020, p.12). Positivism considers the world to comprise various items derived from nature that it is possible to measure and observe. It is typically the case that research of this type seeks to establish cause and effect. Consequently, there is an association between an

objectivist ontology and positivism. When applying positivism in the social world, it is necessary to assume that it is possible to use the same approach as when investigating the natural world to potentially reveal a causal explanation (Mertens 2020). As such, when conducting positivist research, the aim is to establish what effect a range of variables have on the outcomes observed. Efforts to identify and operationalise the factors used to measure certain social phenomena are prioritised. In addition, research of this nature involves establishing the relationships between these social phenomena. There is an assumption with positivism that such relationships are deterministic and causal, and that such relationships can be determined by applying statistical analysis (Creswell and Creswell 2018).

It is possible to refer to positivism as deductive owing to the fact that its aim is often to draw on existing ideas to develop and test hypotheses and answer research questions (Mertens 2020). Positivist approaches place considerable emphasis on theories that offer descriptions of the world and it is possible to test these to either corroborate them or refine them, thereby helping to enhance our grasp of how the world functions. Therefore, when applying positivism, there is a considerable reliance on deductive reasoning to develop, test and refine theories and generalise findings (Saunders et al. 2019). When applying a positivist epistemology, researchers consider the consequences of theories and this is achieved by testing the associated hypotheses (Bryman 2007). Deductive logic operates in accordance with scientific standards, which demand that variables be clearly identified and that their associations to one another and the subjects of the study be independent of the researchers (Ghauri and Gronhaug 2002). Considerable value is assigned to quantitative data and it is necessary to have a sufficiently large sample in order to generalise the findings to a wider population (Bryman 2006).

Given how integral existing theories, hypothesis-testing and faculty member-governing social and organisational structures are to this research, it became clear that social constructionism was not going to be the best approach to help guide it. The purpose of social constructionist methods is to interpret how people experience the world (Cohen et al. 2018). Moreover, it is how the participants perceive a particular situation that determines how a phenomenon is understood (Creswell and

Creswell 2018). For this reason, social constructionism is not overly reliant on pre-existing theory and instead tends to form theories based on what has been experienced. Social constructionism, while less concerned with understanding specific societal rules governing how people behave is more focused on how the interactions between people under those conditions can be interpreted as determining how the social world actually functions (Bryman 2016). Constructionism focuses on knowledge's subjective and socially constructed nature but the current study applies a positivist approach to offer objective insight and measurable outcomes to help answer the stated research questions.

Among the most commonly applied positive research methods employed in social science research are surveys, experiments and quasi-experiments owing to the fact that they are replicable, objective and can be used to test hypotheses in controlled settings (Thomas 2004). Such approaches are closely aligned with the positivist paradigm's generalisable conclusions, causal relationships and quantifiable data. Therefore, they are well-suited to the use of empirical evidence to investigate social phenomena.

One notable distinction between social constructionism and positivism is the fact that the former is heavily reliant upon inductive reasoning. Inductive reasoning suggests that it is possible to generalise an event or a series of repeated instances (Malhorta et al. 2017). Moreover, considerable emphasis is placed on examining how humans' actions are related to humans' meanings (Bryman 2016). However, this requires a sound grasp of the context of the topic being studied as well as acknowledgement that the researcher performs a fundamental role in the process of conducting the research (Guba and Lincoln 1994). Therefore, qualitative data are required when applying inductive reasoning and such an approach works best when flexible research structures are utilised to enable the research to be responsive once the investigation is underway (Saunders et al. 2019). That said, it became evident that to fulfil the objectives of the current study, it would be fruitful to collect qualitative data in alignment with a positivist approach because the goal is primarily to test established theories and hypotheses deductively rather than create new ones inductively.

Therefore, qualitative data (interviews) will be used in this research to explore what might explain the result of hypothesis testing in more depth.

#### **4.2.2.1 The research's epistemological stance**

Epistemology is concerned with the nature of knowledge, the ways in which knowledge can be obtained and the means by which it can be validated (Saunders et al. 2019). A positivist epistemology is applied in the current research, emphasising measurement, objectivity and the testing of hypotheses. Given that the research seeks to establish the nature of the relationships between burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and job performance in Saudi universities, positivism is an appropriate choice. A positivist stance will make it possible for the AMO framework and the JD-R model to be tested by collecting and analysing quantitative data.

Furthermore, because the current research seeks to identify causal relationships and arrive at findings that can be generalised, positivism is well-suited. The JD-R model is typically employed in positivist frameworks owing to its focus on employee outcomes, resources, job demands and other quantifiable constructs. Studies using the JD-R model typically involve statistical methods being applied so that hypotheses can be tested and correlations established. In much the same way, AMO framework provides an approach that is measurable and structured, relating the performance of employees to HR practices via three distinct elements: ability, motivation, and opportunity. Both AMO framework and the JD-R model fit into the quantitative approach adopted in the current research, helping to gauge the nature and strength of the relationships between the selected variables.

Applying a positivist stance in the current research enables the ability of organisational commitment and performance appraisal satisfaction to moderate the burnout-employee outcomes relationship to be tackled systematically. By utilising quantitative surveys and undertaking statistical analyses, the findings will be generalisable and reproducible, thereby satisfying the stated aim of generating evidence-based insight capable of improving how universities function.



Management and business research sometimes applies the alternative epistemological stance of social constructionism which focuses on experiences being subjectively interpreted as well as the co-construction of meaning. Social constructionism could be applied in the current research to investigate the perceptions that faculty members have with regards to burnout, organisational commitment or performance appraisal satisfaction, as well as the effects that cultural norms and social interactions have on these perceptions.

However, despite the fact that social constructionism offers the ability to better understand the meaning of subjective experiences, it is not well-suited to the stated aims of the current study which seeks to measure and objectively analyse the relationships between different indicators of people's experiences. Whereas positivism is concerned with hypothesis testing and identifying patterns that can be generalised, the focus of social constructionism is on insights that are specific to certain contexts and which are localised and, therefore, the application of such an approach could make it difficult to achieve the aim of producing empirical, theory-driven research that contributes towards the wider body of knowledge.

However, it is important to recognise that whilst positivism is an appropriate choice for the current research, it has limitations that need to be acknowledged. For instance, there is the possibility that positivism could result in complex phenomena being oversimplified by focusing only on measurable constructs, thereby presenting the risk that faculty members' subjective, nuanced experiences could be overlooked. Oversimplification is a particular concern when conducting research in management or business because of the important role played by contextual and individual factors.

It is for this reason that a qualitative phase is included in the current research. By doing so, it is possible to examine themes relating to faculty members' experiences of their workplace in greater detail. Applying a mixed-methods approach offers an opportunity for the quantitative phase's objective findings to be complemented by the nuances and richer detail afforded by the qualitative analysis.

The methodological design of the current research has been directly informed by the positivist stance. This includes the utilisation of quantitative survey data to help test

the hypotheses and ensure that the key constructs can be operationalised. Important aspects of positivism are objectivity and replicability, both of which are facilitated by conducting statistical analysis. Combining qualitative and quantitative insights offers a complementary approach, thereby giving the conclusions derived from the findings greater context and depth.

Due to the fact that the current research sought to produce generalisable findings and test theoretical relationships, the selection of positivism is appropriate. In contrast, social constructionism is not as well-suited to realise the stated aims of the current study, despite its ability to effectively examine the meanings given to subjective experiences. Rather, the most appropriate epistemological stance for the current research is positivism owing to its ability to yield actionable insights, its focus on replicability and objectivity, and its close alignment to the AMO framework and JD-R model.

#### **4.2.3 Methodology**

In selecting a suitable methodology which encompasses these epistemological considerations, the design of this study had to be based on not only guiding principles but also the best options to implement the research. A methodology sets out the selected research strategy, drawing upon epistemological and ontological principles and specifying how the research will be carried out (Sarantakos 2013). As such, it details the procedures, principles and practices by which the research is to be conducted (Marczyk et al. 2005). When undertaking research, there are two main methods that can be selected: quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative methods involve collecting and analysing numerical data to provide an objective assessment of social realities (Wilson 2014). The latter places more focus on meanings and social practices than on the analysis of numerical data (Sarantakos 2013).

The methods applied in quantitative research typically derive from scientific research and there is frequently an association between a positivist epistemology and objectivism as an ontology (Marvasti 2004; Sarantakos 2013; Bell et al. 2019). It is often the case that quantitative research will involve the use of tests based on inferential statistics which seek to establish correlations between variables, test

hypotheses and identify causal relationships. In particular, social science research often involves surveys being conducted as a quantitative method.

In contrast, qualitative research sets out to interpret social practices and seeks meaning (Sarantakos 2013). Moreover, qualitative research assumes that there is a continual process whereby social reality is formed (Bryman 2016). Rather than attempting to apply a scientific approach, qualitative research seeks to interpret social developments from the perspective of subjectivist ontology and social constructionist epistemology (Bell et al. 2019). Among the most widely utilised qualitative approaches are observing individuals, examining personal records, and semi-structured and unstructured interviews (Thomas 2004). However, it has previously been established that both quantitative and qualitative methods have their limitations, which is partly why evaluation of the overall research design led to the adoption of a mixed methods approach. Table 4.2 presents a list of the advantages and disadvantages associated with quantitative and qualitative methods and these are discussed further below.

**Table 4.2:** Advantages and disadvantages of quantitative and qualitative methodologies (Trumbull and Watson 2010; Creswell 2015)

<b><i>Methodology</i></b>	<b><i>Advantages</i></b>	<b><i>Disadvantages</i></b>
<b><i>Quantitative</i></b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Clarity: Numerical data are easily understood</li> <li>-Objectivity: Scales and tests used to collect data</li> <li>-Reliability and validity of data: Measurements are available</li> <li>-Conclusions can be made based on large populations</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Lacks focus: Numbers are not always well-suited to</li> </ul>

<b>Qualitative</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Efficient means of analysing the data</li> <li>-Relationships among the data is easily explored</li> <li>-Likely causes and effects can be examined</li> <li>-Conducive to controlling bias</li> <li>-People typically prefer to deal with numbers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>representing what the research intends to measure</li> <li>-Difficulty interpreting the data: Numerical data do not offer detailed descriptions</li> <li>-Impersonal and dry</li> <li>-Makes no attempt to log what the participants say</li> <li>-Does not seek to establish the context of those participating</li> <li>-Primarily driven by the researcher</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Data richness: Collected data offer a thorough insight and comprehensive understanding</li> <li>-Quality: The data typically reflect what they are intended to</li> <li>-Interesting data: People are unlikely to be enthusiastic about work counts (they are more inclined to discuss their</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-The reliability and validity of the findings is not established</li> <li>-Limited ability to generalise the findings</li> <li>-Yields soft data rather than numerical data</li> <li>-Relatively small sample sizes</li> <li>-Relatively subjective</li> <li>-Relies on the insight of those taking part and this means that any expertise the researcher may have is not exploited</li> </ul>

opinions rather than work counts)

- Provides a detailed account of the opinions of a relatively small sample

- Reflects the voices of those who took part

- Enables the experiences of those who took part to be appreciated in the relevant context.

- Reflects the opinions of those who took part, rather than being influenced by the researcher's opinions

- Many people enjoy hearing the stories that others have to tell

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This research analyses the relationships between burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction, organisational commitment and employee outcomes among faculty members at Saudi public universities. The research will yield quantitative data from survey responses, data that can lead to generalisable conclusions about the causes and adjacent influences on the rates of burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment, along with their relationship with employee outcomes (job satisfaction and job performance). Responses may point to confirmation of hypotheses that hold across a large sample population of participants. However, a focus on quantitative data alone may limit the ability to more thoroughly analyse how the variables relate to each other. Qualitative data analysis would therefore help the study to overcome this limitation because a deeper dive into a subset of the faculty

responses and motivations would create a richer, more enhanced picture of what the quantitative numbers had begun to reveal about the research questions and hypotheses.

Moreover, the fact that the opinions and reflections of participants assume greater importance at the heart of qualitative analysis means that it may reveal meaningful explanations of how and why the contexts of participants have influenced the results. By exploring these contexts among a small sub-sample of Saudi faculty, it will be possible to take advantage of the qualitative approach to understand not only the voices and opinions of participants but also gain further insight into the quantitative data concerning burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and job performance. A qualitative approach alone would pose obstacles with regards to reliability and validity because it is impractical to draw generalisable conclusions from a small number of faculty interviews. However, by starting with the advantages of the quantitative approach towards the breadth of data and then complementing with the advantages of the qualitative approach towards enriching the understanding and context of a representative sub-sample, it is possible to compensate for the disadvantages of each approach.

#### **4.2.3.1 Definition of and rationale for the mixed methods approach**

It was Campbell and Fiske (1959) who were the first to report having used a mixed methods methodology in a formal manner when they suggested that there was value in applying two methodologies when analysing a phenomenon. Subsequently, Webb et al. (1966) advocated combining different methodological approaches to ensure that the findings could be interpreted with greater certainty. Indeed, it was Webb et al. who referred to triangulation when applying different methodologies. Denzin (1978) then conceptualised triangulation and developed it further, proposing four distinct types of triangulation that combined quantitative and qualitative approaches: methodological triangulation (using various methods when investigating a research problem); theory triangulation (using several theories when interpreting study findings); investigator triangulation (using two or more researchers); data triangulation (using numerous sources for a study).

In the intervening period, mixed methods have become increasingly popular as a means of complementing the established quantitative and qualitative approaches (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2009). Advocates of mixed methods approaches suggest that the combination of methodologies provides reassurance that the conclusions are reliable and valid, thereby reducing the possibility that they are merely a methodological artefact (Bouchard 1976). Consequently, it is possible to consider the mixed methods approach as the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods in order to validate the findings and achieve a better understanding about a phenomenon than would otherwise be possible if relying solely on either a qualitative or quantitative methodology.

Definitions of the mixed methods approach typically emphasise that quantitative and qualitative methods are combined to better understand a topic of interest. According to Green et al. (1989), mixed methods methodologies utilise one or more qualitative methods as well as one or more quantitative methods when collecting and analysing data. Likewise, Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) consider a mixed method methodology to be one that combines quantitative and qualitative approaches. Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) go further, claiming that combining quantitative and qualitative approaches when collecting and analysing data affords greater insight than would be achieved if relying on either one in isolation. Meanwhile, it is arguably Johnson et al.'s (2007) definition that has received the greatest number of citations in the previous literature. Having studied a total of 19 mixed method definitions, Johnson et al. (2007) suggested that:

*Mixed methods research is the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration (p.123).*

It is apparent from Johnson et al.'s (2007) definition that the mixed methods methodology entails both quantitative as well as qualitative data being collected and

analysed, utilising perspectives from each type of method to provide a comprehensive assessment of the topic being researched.

Various rationales have been suggested in the empirical literature to justify the use of mixed methods approaches. The advantage that is most frequently cited is that they afford a better understanding of the topic being investigated than could be achieved if relying on quantitative or qualitative methods alone (Creswell and Plano Clark 2018). Triangulation offers the ability to enhance the validity of a conclusion by drawing comparisons between the outcomes of the quantitative and qualitative analyses (Jick 1979; Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998).

It is important to note, however, that there are other benefits that can be realised when opting for a mixed method methodology. For example, Greene et al. (1989) stated that a mixed methods methodology offers: 1) greater depth and range when conducting an inquiry; 2) greater potential to reveal contradictions which could result in the research questions being reframed; 3) scope for the results of one method to help develop the results of the other method; 4) complementarity by enabling the findings to be clarified, illustrated and elaborated. According to Collins et al. (2006), there are four main benefits associated with employing a mixed methods approach: there is a greater likelihood of the findings being significant; the data treatment will benefit from greater integrity; improved instrument validity; and participant enrichment (checking whether the participants are suitable to be featured in the research). Furthermore, Bell et al. (2019) argued that simultaneously using quantitative and qualitative methods is able to facilitate each other owing to the fact that it is possible for processual as well as static features (processual features align with qualitative methods where dynamic processes can be interpreted, while static features are those that can more easily be measured with quantitative methods) to be analysed. In addition, this methodology enables various elements of a phenomenon to be explored.

Therefore, the current research employs a mixed methods methodology to examine the relationships between burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment and the outcomes of those employed by Saudi public



universities. This decision has been taken in anticipation of realising the benefits set out above. This provides an opportunity to apply the AMO framework and JD-R model in Saudi Arabia. By applying a quantitative methodology, it is possible to test theories and amend them and potentially to generalise the findings. Meanwhile, a qualitative methodology offers the potential to achieve a deeper understanding regarding the quantitative analysis of the relationships between burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment. It is possible that the findings of the qualitative research will reveal the mechanisms responsible for the observed results and provide a better understanding of why burnout is or is not affected by other influences. The methodologies complement each other: quantitative analysis helps to establish the overarching patterns in the application of theories, whereas qualitative analysis offers greater insight into the quantitative findings and helps to clarify them. What is more, mixed methods are better able to reveal contradictory findings while expanding the range and depth of an inquiry.

#### **4.2.3.2 Positivist stance when applying a mixed-methods methodology**

Combining quantitative and qualitative methods has become possible and advantageous (Thomas 2003; Tashakkori and Teddlie 2009; Creswell and Creswell 2018). According to MacKenzie and Kipe (2006), paradigms do not specify that a certain methodology needs to be applied and, therefore, in the case of most paradigms, both quantitative and qualitative methods should be employed. Acknowledging this, the current study assumes that it is possible to apply quantitative and qualitative methods with no adverse effect on the research paradigm's integrity.

The epistemology of positivism considers the world in an objective manner, testing reality by means of scientific methods. For this reason, quantitative methodologies dominate positivist investigations. That is not to say that there is no place for qualitative research in positivism, however. When a qualitative methodology is embedded in a positivist epistemology, a narrative is often used in order for the results to be clarified (Creswell et al. 2006). Consequently, research based on positivism can be effectively supported by a qualitative methodology.

The current research draws upon positivism and the primary research is quantitative in nature. Applying a quantitative methodology will therefore make it possible to establish how the variables in the AMO framework and JD-R model relate to each other using a large sample so that the findings can be generalised. To complement this approach, a qualitative methodology is also applied in order to offer some clarification of the relationships that emerge.

### **4.3 Research design**

The research design encompasses an overarching roadmap to help link the findings in the empirical study to the research problem (Ghauri et al. 2002; Iacobucci and Churchill 2018). It represents an outline of how the data will be obtained and analysed, thereby making it possible to effectively accomplish the stated research goals (Wilson 2014).

It is necessary to select a suitable research design which is capable of addressing the stated aims and answering the research questions whilst adhering to the research philosophy (Saunders et al. 2019). This can be achieved in one of two ways: a deductive approach or an inductive approach.

When a deductive approach is applied, it is necessary to develop a theoretical and conceptual framework before undertaking an empirical investigation (Gill and Johnson 2010). The deductive approach typically entails proposing hypotheses grounded in established theory and then testing these hypotheses by employing a suitable methodology (Wilson 2014; Bryman 2016). Deductive reasoning is applied in order to either confirm or reject the variables' causal relationships and it is necessary to utilise a comprehensive methodology so that the research can be repeated in alternative settings in future (Gill and Johnson 2010). Moreover, the deductive approach is grounded in scientific principles, thereby requiring the individual undertaking the research to be independent from it (Ghauri and Gronhaug 2002; Saunders et al. 2019).

In contrast, inductive approaches entail the collection and subsequent analysis of data with the aim of developing a theory. Gill and Johnson (2010) state that unlike the deductive approach, the theory is yielded as a result of the act of undertaking the

research. The inductive approach is likely to be better suited to circumstances in which data are relatively inaccessible or there is a limited body of knowledge regarding the subject matter under investigation (Saunders et al. 2019). The decision has been taken to apply a deductive approach in the current research because there is sufficient theory and evidence within the empirical literature to enable hypotheses on research questions and variables to be formulated and tested.

When conducting a mixed methods investigation, a particular type of design has to be chosen and this needs to be justified to demonstrate that it is the optimal approach to provide answers to the research questions and tackle the research problem (Creswell and Plano Clark 2018). Green et al. (1989) state that there are five distinct mixed method research designs: expansion, initiation, development, complementarity and triangulation. The purpose of triangulation research is to apply various methods to ensure that the results are sufficiently robust. Meanwhile, complementarity research involves the use of two types of methods so that the results can be elaborated, illustrated and elucidated. Development research entails an initial method being applied to help formulate and direct another method. Initiation research is undertaken in order to explore a paradoxical topic about which very little is known or that involves a unique perspective by either reformulating questions or using questions as the basis for developing a conclusion. Finally, expansion research applies various methods to particular parts of the inquiry, thereby extending the type and scope of the investigation. The current study applies a complementarity approach, initially involving a quantitative questionnaire, followed by qualitative semi-structured interviews so as to confirm and expand upon the initial findings.

With regards to priority, it is necessary to establish at the outset when applying a mixed methods approach whether equal weighting is assigned to both quantitative and qualitative methods or if one of these is to be assigned greater weight (Molina-Azorin 2012). As a result, it is possible for a mixed methods approach to be dominated by either the quantitative method, the qualitative method or it could be truly mixed (Johnson et al. 2007). What is more, there is a need to confirm the optimal way in which the methodologies can be implemented. For instance, a mixed methods approach could be implemented simultaneously or sequentially (Bainbridge

and Lee 2014). Simultaneous implementation entails the methodologies being implemented at the same time, whereas sequential implementation involves each methodology being implemented one at a time.

These are the main factors to consider with regards to a mixed methods typology. There are various typologies but a significant proportion apply the notations developed by Morse (1991) to refer to the means of implementation and which methodology dominates. Morse's (1991) typology denotes the dominant methodology using capital letters (QUAN or QUAL), whereas lowercase letters are used for the complementary methodology (quan or qual). Simultaneous implementation is denoted using a plus sign (+) but in the event that the methodologies are to be implemented one after the other, this is denoted by an arrow ( → ) symbol.

Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) utilised these notations to specify the following three core research designs: *Convergent designs* apply quantitative and qualitative methodologies with each carrying the same weight. Data are collected concurrently and independently and then merged before being interpreted. Convergent designs provide a better grasp of the topic being investigated or corroborate quantitative scales. Meanwhile, *explanatory designs* start with quantitative research and subsequently gather qualitative data with the intention of expanding and explaining the quantitative observations in more depth. Finally, *exploratory designs* are employed to arrive at initial ideas about a particular matter and then test the data so that they can either be confirmed or rejected. Exploratory designs prioritise qualitative data; analysing that data first and then testing the findings by quantitative means and arriving at generalisations. Table 4.3 compares the available research designs when applying mixed methodologies.

**Table 4.3:** Available research designs for mixed methods (Morse 1991; Creswell and Plano Clark 2018)

Design	Notation	Description	Ideally suited to	Priority
Convergent design	QUAN + QUAL	Quantitative and qualitative data collected simultaneously but analysed separately before the findings are brought back together	Developing a comprehensive appreciation of a particular phenomena	Equal emphasis
Explanatory sequential design	QUAN → qual	Collect and analyse the quantitative data before collecting and analysing the qualitative data	Ensuring the findings based on the quantitative data are understood and suitably explained	Quantitative dominant
Exploratory sequential design	QUAL → quan	Collect and analyse the qualitative data before collecting and analysing the quantitative data	Ensuring the initial qualitative findings are tested and generalised	Qualitative dominant

A sequential explanatory design has been selected for the current research. It was necessary to collect and analyse the quantitative data before starting to collect and analyse the qualitative data in order for the quantitative findings to be brought into

sharper focus. The current study seeks to enable related theories to be tested and, therefore, the results are tested and generalised using a quantitative methodology. Analysis of the quantitative data offered a general overview of the issue and then the quantitative findings were refined having analysed the qualitative interview data from those who had returned completed questionnaires.

With regards to the time orientation of research, it is possible to implement it either cross-sectionally or longitudinally. Cross-sectional research utilises samples of larger populations at a specified moment (Bryman 2016). In contrast, longitudinal research involves data being collected across two or more time periods (Bryman 2016).

Therefore, this may incur additional financial cost and will require more time to undertake. For these reasons, cross-sectional research is more widely employed than longitudinal research in the empirical literature. It was considered that the best option for the current study was a cross-sectional approach because it involves data being collected about certain factors within a single timeframe (Malhorta et al. 2017). When undertaking cross-sectional research, the data are selected because they are believed to represent a particular population (Creswell and Plano Clark 2018; Iacobucci and Churchill 2018) and it is possible to collect the data in a time-efficient manner at relatively little financial expense (Levin 2006). Finally, the majority of research undertaken concerning the public sector is cross-sectional and, accordingly, this provides greater scope for the conclusions to be generalised (Bryman 2016).

#### **4.4 Research context: Saudi public universities**

The Saudi state pays a lot of attention and dedicates considerable resources to higher education (Al-Khathlan 2020). The Ministry of Education (2022) currently oversees 29 public universities throughout Saudi Arabia. This study focuses on two public universities: King Abdulaziz university (KAU) in the western region and Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University (PSAU) in the central region of Saudi Arabia. These particular institutions represent Saudi public universities in the higher education sector, providing undergraduate and postgraduate education and offering the same subjects as most other Saudi public universities. However, KAU is one of the oldest universities in the country and has a large number of students, whereas PSAU is one

of the most recently established universities with fewer students. These institutions are considered to be truly representative of public universities in the country with respect to the fact that all Saudi public universities apply gender segregation except one university, namely, King Abdullah University of Science and Technology (KAUST) which has no gender segregation policy.

#### **4.4.1 King Abdulaziz University**

KAU was founded in 1967 as a private university but it achieved sustained growth from 1974 onwards after becoming a public university under government control and the organisation subsequently benefited from the financial resources of the state as well as enhanced logistical and organisational support (KAU 2021). KAU awards a range of qualifications ranging from diplomas to doctoral degrees in 185 different subjects (Al-Youbi et al. 2020). In addition to its 28 faculties, KAU also operates 24 research and educational services centres, 9 deanships, 5 specialist institutions and 28 centres of excellence (Al-Youbi et al. 2020). In the academic year 2021-2022, KAU ranked amongst the top 150 universities worldwide based on the Shanghai International Classification (Shanghai Ranking [no date])<sup>1</sup>.

The programmes offered by KAU have collectively been awarded 37 international accreditations (King Abdulaziz university [no date]) and among these are the Global Congress on Dental Education (DentED), the American Board of Engineering Technology (ABET), the Canadian Council on Hospital Accreditation and the American Council of Occupational Education (COE). Furthermore, there are currently fifty cooperation agreements between KAU and other universities around the globe and eighty accreditation agreements with UK, US, Australian, Japanese, Canadian, Spanish, Chinese and Argentinian universities. These cooperation agreements effectively serve as encouragement for KAU to provide excellent academic results and to invest in ways that benefit the university's students and staff.

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<sup>1</sup> <https://www.shanghairanking.com/institution/king-abdulaziz-university>

#### **4.4.2 Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University**

Having only been established in 2009, PSAU is among the newest universities in Saudi Arabia but its geographical reach is among the largest in the country, extending to 18 colleges in the governorates of Wadi Al-Dawasir, Al- Suliyl, Al-Aflaj, Hotat Bani Tamim, Al-Dilam and Al-Kharj (Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz [no date]). Based on the 2020 Web-of-Science-ISI classification, PSAU moved up three places to sixth in terms of the Saudi university rankings (PSAU 2021). Meanwhile, in both 2021 and 2022, PSAU ranked fifth according to the SCOPUS for scientific publishing among Saudi universities (PSAU 2022). Furthermore, the QS rankings place PSAU in the top 90 universities in the Arabic-speaking countries (QS World University Rankings [no date]).<sup>2</sup>

To investigate the relationship between burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment and employee outcomes at Saudi public universities, a questionnaire was circulated and semi-structured interviews were undertaken to provide insight into faculty members' opinions on those matters.

#### **4.5 Data collection methods**

The current research utilises quantitative as well as qualitative data collection methods and thus applies a mixed methods approach. What follows are details regarding the purpose and description of the methods employed, as well as the justification for those choices.

##### **4.5.1 Methods of quantitative data collection**

As previously stated, quantitative methods involve the use of numerical data and this typically entails data being collected by means of secondary sources, surveys or experimentation (Bamberger 2000). Given that the current study is being undertaken against a societal context and in light of the stated aims, it was considered that the best means of collecting quantitative data would be a survey due to the spread and large size of the research population which helps given the time limitations imposed. Creswell and Creswell (2018) state that surveys are data collection methods that

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<sup>2</sup> <https://www.topuniversities.com/universities/prince-sattam-bin-abdulaziz-university>

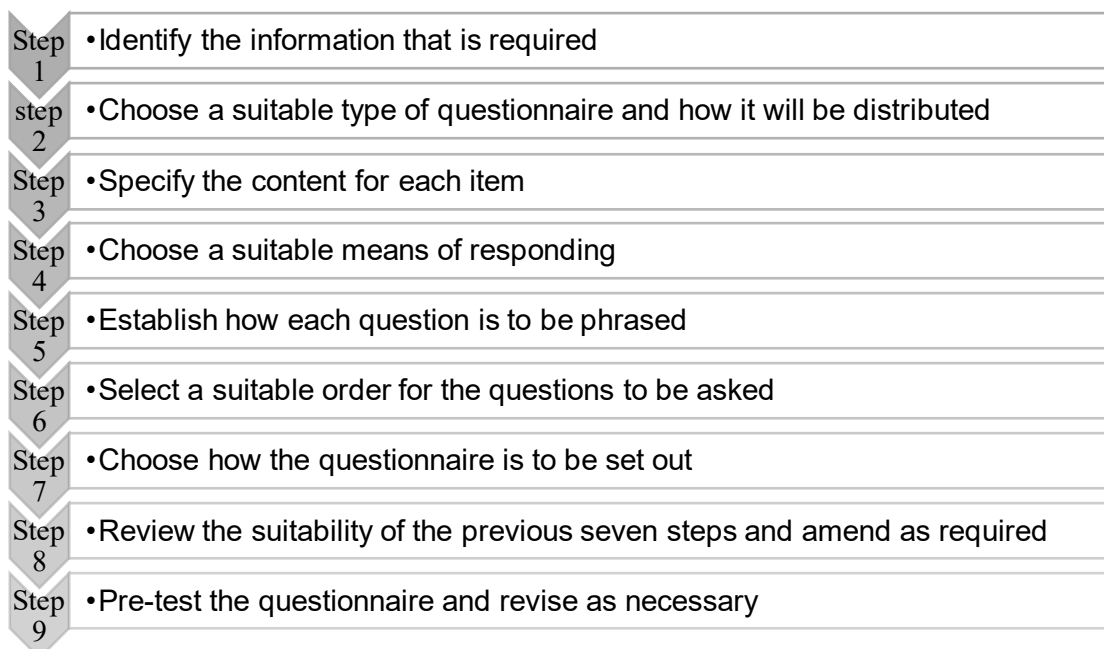


involve using questionnaires to gather information from a sample of the target population. Additionally, the data gathered from the survey can be utilised to clarify and examine the relationships between variables (e.g., burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction, organisational commitment and employee outcomes).

Surveys offer numerous benefits. For instance, they can easily be replicated and they are typically highly structured, thereby facilitating comparisons between the current findings and the results of previous surveys (Saunders et al. 2019). Moreover, because the researcher has no need to meet with the participants in person, there is a reduced likelihood of researcher bias and the participants are able to respond anonymously. In addition, it is possible to code the survey responses and analyse the findings using quantitative methods, thereby yielding inferential as well as descriptive statistics (Saunders et al. 2019). A further benefit is that they provide scope to explore the participants' perceptions and opinions using quantifiable data (Baruch and Holtom 2008). Details of the process through which the questionnaire was developed are presented below.

#### **4.5.1.1 Developing the questionnaire**

A process for developing questionnaires was proposed by Iacobucci and Churchill (2018) and this nine-step approach has been employed in the current study.



**Figure 4.1:** The process of developing the questionnaire (Iacobucci and Churchill 2018)

***Step 1: Identify the information that is required***

When starting to develop a questionnaire, the first step is to recognise what information needs to be obtained. This is undertaken whilst reflecting on the stated hypothesis and how it is anticipated that the concepts being investigated relate to each other. In order to better appreciate the participants' profiles, demographic questions featured in the questionnaire.

***Step 2: Choose a suitable type of questionnaire and how it will be distributed***

Questionnaires were used to obtain the data required to complete the current study. When conducting questionnaire-based research, they can be administered by either the investigator or by the participant (Mitchell and Jolley 2013). When questionnaires are self-administered, the participants complete their responses in the absence of the researcher. Conversely, in the event that the researcher is present when the questionnaires are answered, these are referred to as investigator-administered questionnaires. Irrespective of the approach (investigator- or self-administered), questionnaires enable a large number of participants to be surveyed simultaneously (Mitchell and Jolley 2013). One clear distinction, however, is that participants typically regard self-administered questionnaires as affording a higher degree of anonymity than investigator-administered questionnaires. Anonymity is particularly important if the questions being asked relate to sensitive issues or personal matters (Mitchell and Jolley 2013). For this reason, the decision was taken to utilise self-administered questionnaires in the current research and this was achieved by posting the questionnaires online and enabling individuals to answer by clicking on a link. Every faculty member at the two universities received the link which was sent to their work email account by the Postgraduate Studies and Scientific Research Deanship. The email that they received included a covering letter explaining why the research was being undertaken as well as the rights of those participating.

The decision to distribute the questionnaire online was taken because of the numerous benefits that such an approach affords. Indeed, Evans and Mathur (2005)

suggest that there are as many as 16 benefits associated with the use of online questionnaires, including access to large numbers of people, the ability to receive responses in a timely manner and the cost-effectiveness of this form of distribution. In addition, the ability to automatically code and summarise the responses is not only convenient from the researcher's perspective but also helps to improve data accuracy, thereby minimising the potential for human error.

### ***Step 3: Specify the content for each item***

This process is intended to make certain that the questions presented yield the information required to realise the stated aims. Care must be taken to ask relevant questions and they should be posed in a way that is unambiguous.

Items which had previously been validated in the empirical literature were utilised to measure the study constructs. What follows is an explanation of the approaches for measuring burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, job performance and job demands and resources.

### **Burnout**

Burnout is described by Maslach and Jackson (1981) as a psychological state that manifests itself as an emotional response when experiencing difficult conditions in the workplace involving external stressors. Furthermore, they identify three aspects of burnout: *emotional exhaustion* whereby an employee feels that their emotional capacity is low and they believe they are emotionally overextended; *depersonalisation* which occurs when an individual feels detached, cynical or negative towards other people; and *reduced personal accomplishment* which is associated with a reduced sense of competence and productivity whilst working. It is known that the three dimensions of burnout are associated with employee outcomes and, therefore, these three dimensions are central to the current study. Importantly, previous research has established that this model is valid (Bria et al. 2014). Consequently, there is a need to clarify the ways in which these three dimensions affect the outcomes of faculty members.

Maslach and Jackson (1981) utilised an abridged scale to operationalise the three dimensions of burnout. In total, the dimensions of burnout were measured using nine items drawn from the empirical literature (Iverson et al. 1998). The following items were gauged using a seven-point scale: (1) Never; (2) A few times; (3) Once a month or less; (4) A few times a month; (5) Once a week; (6) A few times a week; and (7) Every day.

***Emotional exhaustion (EE)***

*EE1) My work makes me feel emotionally drained.*

*EE2) By the end of a day spent working, I have no energy for anything else.*

*EE3) My daily work leaves me feeling burned out.*

***Depersonalisation (D)***

*D1) Since starting this role, my approach to other people has become less caring.*

*D2) I am concerned that this work role has made me emotionally detached.*

*D3) I do not really care what happens to some students/colleagues.*

***Reduced personal accomplishment (RPA)***

*RPA1) I believe my work makes a positive contribution to the lives of others.*

*RPA2) I feel good after working closely with my students/colleagues.*

*RPA3) This work role has enabled me to achieve numerous things that are worthwhile.*

The decision was taken to retain the ‘personal accomplishment’ dimension as initially labelled for measuring burnout (Iverson et al. 1998). The decision was then taken to reverse these items’ scores in an attempt to produce reliable analysis and become more closely aligned with the dimension’s intended meaning of reduced personal accomplishment. Applying this approach was consistent with the methods employed in the previous literature.

### ***Performance appraisal satisfaction (PAS)***

Performance appraisal satisfaction refers to how employees respond when presented with feedback when their performance is appraised (Ismail and Gali 2017). This study employed four items of performance appraisal satisfaction from Kuvaas (2006) and three items of performance appraisal satisfaction from Kim and Rubianty (2011). A seven-point Likert scale was employed to gauge these items with a range spanning from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

*PAS1) I am satisfied with the way my university provides me with feedback.*

*PAS2) The feedback correctly reflects how I have performed.*

*PAS3) My university recognises good performance.*

*PAS4) I am kept informed about how well I am doing.*

*PAS5) I receive constructive feedback on my job performance.*

*PAS6) The university provides coaching, training opportunities or other assistance to help me improve my skills and performance.*

*PAS7) Performance appraisal is valuable to myself as well as to my university.*

### **Organisational commitment**

Organisational commitment refers to how employees psychologically associate with the organisation they work for (Meyer and Herscovitch 2001). Allen and Meyer (1990) devised a means of measuring organisational commitment using a model based on the normative, continuance and affective dimensions of commitment. A shortened version of Meyer and Allen's (1991) component model is employed in the current research for the original instrument with only seven items present. Given the length of the final questionnaire, this helped to lighten the respondents' workload. Allen and Meyer (1990) measured the three components of organisational commitment using a scale they developed themselves. Consequently, a seven-point Likert scale was used to gauge the responses to each of the following statements, with a range spanning from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

**Affective commitment**

*AC1) I would be content spending the remainder of my career at my current university.*

*AC2) I regard the university's problems as my personal problems.*

*AC3) I feel a sense of emotional attachment to this university.*

**Continuance commitment**

*CC1) I would be concerned to leave my current role without having an alternative job to start immediately.*

*CC2) It would not be easy to walk away from the university at present even if I had the desire to do so.*

**Normative commitment**

*NC1) It has been instilled in me that I should remain loyal to my university.*

*NC2) In the past, faculty members used to stay at one university without moving to another workplace.*

**Job satisfaction**

Job satisfaction refers to an employee's general attitude whilst performing their duties (Robbins 1998). Job satisfaction was gauged by means of a three-item measure of overall job satisfaction based on the Michigan Organisational Assessment Questionnaire (MOAQ) (Cammann et al. 1979). Numerous studies have previously applied this model (e.g., Spector et al. 1988; Sanchez et al. 1995; Fox and Spector 1999; Spector et al. 2000; Alarcon and Lyons 2011; Bruk-Lee et al. 2013; Gu et al. 2021). A seven-point Likert scale was used to gauge the responses to each of the following statements, with a range spanning from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

*JS1) On balance, I am satisfied with my job.*

*JS2) In general, I like working in my university.*

*JS3) In general, I do not like my job.*

### ***Job performance***

Job performance refers to the amount of output produced by a single employee and the quality of that output (Chang and Chen 2011). This study employed five job performance measures from Lin et al. (2020) and the following items were gauged using a seven-point Likert scale with a range spanning from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

*JP1) The way in which I go about completing my duties is suitable.*

*JP2) I complete all that is required of me, in accordance with my job description.*

*JP3) I take on the duties that my colleagues are expected to perform.*

*JP4) My performance meets the formal requirements specified for my role.*

*JP5) There are essential duties that I fail to carry out.*

The study also considered job demands and resources as control variables to enhance the study's internal validity.

### ***Job demands and resources***

Job demands and resources refers to the organisational, social or physical elements of a job demanding mental or physical effort over an extended period of time (Demerouti et al. 2001), whereas the resources for a job concern the organisational, social, psychological and physical elements of the role (Demerouti et al. 2001).

The questions posed by Mudrak et al. (2018) served as the basis for measuring job demands and resources. The following statements were gauged using a five-point frequency scale whereby 1 indicates 'Never/to a very small extent' and 5 indicates 'Always/to a very large extent.'

*JD-R1) I fail to keep pace with my workload.*

*JD-R2) I fear being unemployed.*

*JD-R3) I dedicate too much of my time to working at the expense of the quality of my private life.*

*JD-R4) I am able to exert influence over my work.*

*JD-R5) My immediate head of department listens to me airing my problems.*

*JD-R6) My colleagues provide me with help and support.*

#### **Step 4: Choose a suitable means of responding**

Both open- and closed-ended questions can be posed in surveys. Whereas closed-ended questions require answers to be selected from a limited number of options, open-ended questions do not have specific response categories (Wilson 2014). The questionnaire used in the current research mainly utilises closed-ended questions but there were also numerous open-ended questions relating to the demographic profiling section.

Asking both types of questions confers benefits because open-ended questions are able to encourage responses that would not otherwise be obtained (Bell et al. 2019). Consequently, the decision was taken to ask open-ended questions in the current research to provide insight into the faculties and departments in which the participants worked. Meanwhile, the benefits associated with closed-ended questions include that they are quicker and simpler to answer, code and analyse (Bell et al. 2019). Moreover, the responses can relatively easily reveal the nature of the relationship between two variables (Bell et al. 2019). Owing to the fact that this study concerns the relationships amongst variables, closed-ended questions are therefore better-suited. One notable disadvantage associated with closed-ended questions is that the respondents may feel compelled to answer all of the questions, even if they disagree but this issue was addressed by giving the respondents the option to leave the question blank.

The majority of the statements required a response based on a seven-point Likert scale, thereby yielding data that can be applied in multivariate and parametric statistical analysis (Sierles 2003). Diefenbach et al. (1993) stated that seven-point Likert scales are accurate and easy to use. Consequently, the decision was taken to utilise a seven-point Likert scale for most of the closed-end responses to the questions. Meanwhile, open-ended as well as multiple-choice questions were asked to glean details regarding the participants' demographic characteristics.



### ***Step 5) Establish how each question is to be phrased***

Great care is required to ensure that each question is carefully phrased (Iacobucci and Churchill 2018). Failure to do so could cause the respondents to either refuse to answer certain questions or provide inaccurate responses, thereby resulting in measurement error. Therefore, the questions posed in the current study applied the principles advocated by Iacobucci and Churchill (2018). For instance, any words whose meaning could be regarded as ambiguous were avoided. Furthermore, the way in which the questions were posed was specific and clear to the reader. There was no use of double-barrelled questions which would require the respondents to offer two responses. Finally, none of the questions were framed in a manner that suggested how the respondents should answer (i.e., no leading questions were asked).

### ***Step 6) Select a suitable order for the questions to be asked***

The ordering of the questions is able to significantly influence the success of the overall research project (Iacobucci and Churchill 2018). For instance, inappropriate ordering of the questions could result in the participants being confused, deter some respondents from completing the survey or introduce bias into the findings (Rea and Parker 2014). The advice issued by Synodinos (2003) and Iacobucci and Churchill (2018) was followed by the current study to ensure that the questions were suitably ordered. In accordance with that advice, the survey began with questions that could easily be understood and answered to make certain that those taking part felt involved and also to boost their confidence. Consequently, the first questions asked the respondents to provide details about their background. Meanwhile, the questions regarding the research variables were grouped into topics, thereby helping to ensure that the responses would be as consistent as possible (Iacobucci and Churchill 2018).

### ***Step 7) Choose how the questionnaire is to be set out***

The way in which a questionnaire is presented can influence how interested a participant will be to provide responses, as well as helping to ensure that the content is easily understandable (Iacobucci and Churchill 2018). The online survey prepared

for the current research was developed using Qualtrics software and it incorporated professional features to enhance its appeal. The questionnaire comprised several sections which helped to make it easy to follow. In addition, the respondents were presented with clearly numbered questions so as to guide them through the process. It is known that people are less likely to complete questionnaires that are excessively long and, therefore, each question featured only simple to understand words and they were as concise as was practicable. Accompanying the questionnaire was a covering letter to provide details of the nature of the research being undertaken as well as providing the researcher's contact details and a reassurance that those taking part would remain anonymous throughout the entire process. Appendix A shows the final English language version of the questionnaire.

***Step 8) Review the suitability of the previous seven steps and amend as required***

It is necessary to review a questionnaire several times whilst it is being formulated (Iacobucci and Churchill 2018). For instance, the questions were re-read to check that they were easily understandable, unambiguous, easily answered and that they did not cause confusion. Finally, the questionnaire was revised one last time to ensure that all aspects had been addressed and it was ready for distribution.

***Step 9) Pre-test the questionnaire and revise as necessary***

Every questionnaire should be pre-tested prior to being used to collect data (Iacobucci and Churchill 2018). Doing so helps to ensure that the questionnaire is of high quality (Synodinos 2003). For example, it may be that mistakes have been made in terms of how the questionnaire has been laid out or how the questions have been worded or ordered (Nelson 1985). An effective means of addressing such issues is to pilot test the questionnaire but because the survey in the current study was being undertaken in a non-English-speaking country, the questionnaire had to be translated into Arabic before being pilot-tested. Details of the process of translating and pilot testing are set out in the following sections.

#### **4.5.1.2 Questionnaire translation**

The decision to translate the questionnaire into Arabic was taken because the respondents were all based in Saudi Arabia and, therefore, it could not be assumed that their knowledge of the English language was sufficient to reliably complete the survey without it first being translated into Arabic. Translation is the process of transferring the expression and meaning of a piece of text into a different language (Crystal 2008). Importantly, great care is required so as to achieve optimal equivalency. Therefore, translation is fundamental to cultural research (Cha et al. 2007). When conducting a questionnaire, the most common method of verifying how accurately it has been translated is Brislin's (1970) back translation (Douglas and Craig 2007). This process entails the blind translation of the original text into the target language. Then, a different translator back-translates the survey back to the original language from the target language. The original and back-translated questionnaires are then compared to determine whether or not they are equivalent. The back-translated questionnaire must be largely identical to the original questionnaire for the target translation to be deemed accurate.

#### **4.5.1.3 Pilot testing the questionnaire**

Questionnaires are pilot tested to identify any areas for improvement that could possibly help to further minimise response errors (Bolton 1993). Pilot-testing involves inviting people from the target population to complete the questionnaire and offer their opinions to those who composed it (Su and Parham 2002). A total of six faculty members at the KAU in Saudi Arabia pilot tested the questionnaire used in the current study. Having answered each of the questions in the survey, these six individuals were invited to identify any areas for improvement and any concerns they had regarding such matters as the instructions given, how the questions were worded or the layout of the questionnaire. This insight yielded several suggestions regarding questionnaire wording and phrasing such as adding a list of universities' names and using the present tense for questions in the job demands and resources section. Based on these suggestions, a few minor amendments were made to make the questionnaire more easily understood.

#### **4.5.2 Qualitative data collection methods**

In an attempt to delve deeper into the research topic, semi-structured interviews were designed for use following the questionnaire. As specified by the sequential research approach, it is necessary to gather and process the quantitative data before starting the process of gathering the necessary qualitative data so that the survey findings can be interpreted more thoroughly.

##### **4.5.2.1 Semi-structured interviews**

Semi-structured interviews are the most commonly applied type of interview method in the empirical literature. A notable advantage associated with this approach is their ability to enable the researcher to have a focused conversation with the interviewee. Whilst a series of questions will have been prepared and a number of themes identified for discussion, the interview process takes the form of a conversation without being rigidly constrained (Bryman 2016). Moreover, it is possible during the interview that the interviewer will ask additional questions, thereby helping to explore the issues under discussion (Saunders et al. 2019). Relative to structured interviews, whereby the interviewees are asked questions in a pre-agreed and mechanical way, semi-structured interviews offer considerably more flexibility (Creswell and Poth 2018).

The conventional approach is for the interviewer to obtain information which reflects the themes identified in the interview guide to generate data for insight that is consistent and suitable for analysis (Saunders et al. 2019). It is typically the case that semi-structured interviews pose open-ended questions with the interviewer referring to certain issues in anticipation that the responses will follow the same line.

Meanwhile, it is the responses to the questions which govern the direction that the interview will take (Gillham 2000). Moreover, it has been suggested that affording interviewees greater freedom regarding the issues being discussed can help to reveal other relevant matters (Bell et al. 2019). In addition, by generating detailed and elaborative data, this approach offers considerable validity (Creswell and Poth 2018).

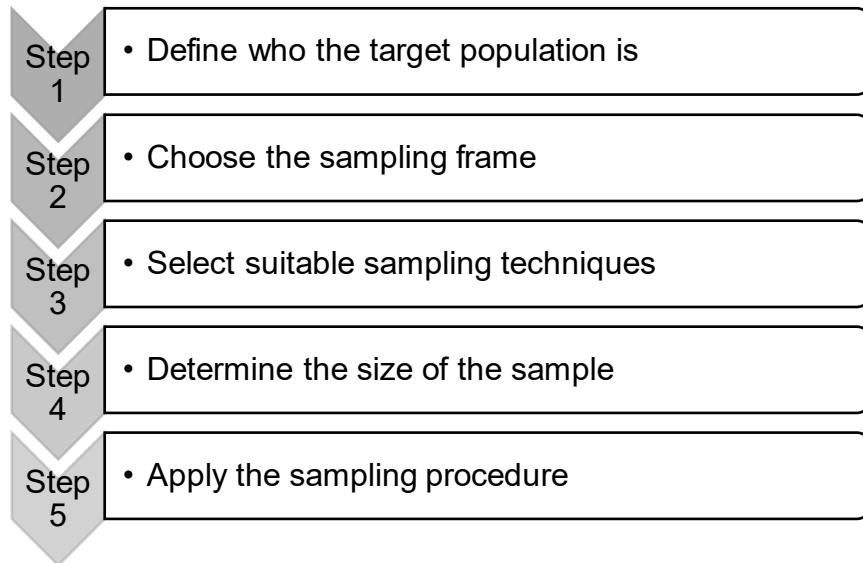
There are numerous reasons for opting to conduct semi-structured interviews for the current research. Regarding the collection of quantitative data, the research

questions have been agreed. Consequently, semi-structured interviews serve as a complementary method because they afford scope to probe in greater detail whilst remaining within the study's established guidelines (Lune and Berg 2017). In addition, the findings from analysing the quantitative data prompt additional questions which could then be addressed in the questionnaire. Consequently, the combination of the survey findings and the questionnaire responses can help to address all of the pertinent matters during the semi-structured interviews. Importantly, because open-ended questions were posed, the participants could offer their opinions with minimal scope for the interviewer to influence their responses (Creswell and Poth 2018). Therefore, it is possible to obtain greater insight about a topic of interest when conducting semi-structured interviews and that is why this approach was selected as a supporting methodology for the current study.

#### **4.6 Sampling design**

A sample is a small group from a larger population who agree to participate in academic research (Malhorta et al. 2017). The financial cost associated with surveying an entire population, coupled with the time constraints imposed mean that sampling is typically necessary (Ghauri and Gronhaug 2002) and this was indeed the case in the current research.

Iacobucci and Churchill (2018) proposed a five-stage process for sample selection and this approach was utilised in the current study. Figure 4.2 introduces this process and a more comprehensive description is provided in the following section.



**Figure 4.2:** Five-stage process for sample selection (Iacobucci and Churchill 2018)

#### **4.6.1 Define the target population**

The target population is a collection of people who have insight about the research topic being investigated and about whom the research will make inferences (Malhorta et al. 2017). When attempting to define a target population, it is important to precisely specify who is included and who is excluded from the sample (Malhorta et al. 2017; Iacobucci and Churchill 2018). With regards to the current research, the target population comprises those faculty members working at the selected universities in Saudi Arabia's central and western regions. A total of 6,961 faculty members were working in the faculties of the two universities.

#### **4.6.2 Choose the sampling frame**

The sampling frame is a series of aspects relating to the target population that the sample is taken from (Malhorta et al. 2017). Therefore, the faculty members of two Saudi universities comprise the sampling frame in this study. More specifically, teaching assistants, lecturers, assistant professors, associate professors and professors at the two universities are the sampling units.

#### **4.6.3 Select suitable sampling techniques**

It is possible to distinguish between probability and non-probability sampling methods (Creswell and Creswell 2018; Bell et al. 2019). When probability sampling is applied, every unit of the target population will be equally likely to be featured in the sample. Probability sampling confers benefits in terms of quality and avoiding bias but it is not always feasible if financial resources are limited, there are time constraints or it is challenging to access all of the participants (Creswell and Creswell 2018). The current study involved the sample being drawn from two universities in two different geographical areas of Saudi Arabia and this presented a problem in terms of gaining permission to conduct the research. For this reason, the decision was taken to apply convenience sampling. This is an example of non-probability sampling which involves selecting a sample based on the participants' willingness to take part, the time available, the geographical proximity and the ease of access (Etikan et al. 2016). Therefore, this approach sets out to recruit participants who can be accessed readily (Ross 2005). Among the benefits associated with this approach are the possibility of reducing the financial cost of the study process, completing the study in a timelier manner and reducing the effort required. Given that the current study required data to be collected from two universities in two different areas of Saudi Arabia, it was deemed suitable to collect the quantitative data using convenience sampling.

When selecting who would be interviewed, snowball sampling was employed. In practical terms, this entailed the initial interviewees being asked to suggest other individuals who may be willing to take part (Wellington 2015). This approach was chosen because of its ability to recruit a diverse and sufficiently large pool of participants. By applying snowball sampling, it was possible to recruit a gender-diverse pool of participants. This was important given the history of segregation applied in public universities throughout Saudi Arabia. However, before the selection process could be initiated, it was necessary to obtain the permission and approval of the Deanship of Graduate Studies and Scientific Research at both universities. Emails were sent to the official work email addresses of faculty members, including a cover note outlining the study's objectives and asking if they were interested in taking part. The researcher's contact information was included in the email, along with that

of the dissertation supervisors and a detailed explanation of the levels of confidentiality and anonymity. An appointment time for the meeting was scheduled once the respondent's acceptance had been received. All of the interviews were undertaken remotely via Zoom.

#### **4.6.4 Determine the size of the sample**

The choice of guideline is dependent upon what the regression analysis is being used to achieve (Tabachnick and Fidell 2014). Tabachnick and Fidell (2014) recommend using  $N \geq 50 + 8m$  (with  $m$  representing the quantity of independent variables) when assessing the multiple regression model as a whole (i.e., determining the ability to explain changes in outcomes based on the choice of predictors). Given that burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment are predictors in the current research, the minimum size of sample is 74.

Tabachnick and Fidell (2014) state that when evaluating each of these predictors' contributions in the regression model, the formula that should be applied in the relatively conservative:  $N \geq 104 + m$ . Doing so results in the minimum sample size rising to 107 when three predictors are being used.

According to these formulae, the minimum size of sample for the current study should be either 74 or 107. However, a total of 213 people took part in the current research, thereby comfortably surpassing both of these thresholds. This indicates that the research has ample power to undertake the moderation as well as the regression analyses.<sup>3</sup> In an attempt to ensure that the sample would be as representative and large as possible, 6,961 faculty members received emails inviting them to participate.

When conducting qualitative research, there is no minimum sample size (Patton 2015). Rather, Morse (1991) states that it is the data's quality that is important, along

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<sup>3</sup> In addition to the three independent variables, the regression analysis involves a total of 11 control variables (e.g., job demands, job resources, gender, age, level of education), meaning that there are 14 predictors overall. Therefore, when applying the formulas of Tabachnick and Fidell (2014), the minimum sample size when assessing individual predictors would be 118 ( $N \geq 104 + 14$ ) but this would increase to 162 ( $N \geq 50 + 8(14)$ ) when evaluating the overall model. However, the sample in the current research is 213, thereby comfortably exceeding these more stringent thresholds.



with the choice of study design, the qualitative method, how many times each of the participants was interviewed, the insight gleaned from each participant, the scope of the research and the subject's nature that collectively determine the minimum size of the sample for qualitative research. Following the quantitative analysis undertaken for the current study, qualitative analysis was conducted, gathering additional data through 23 semi-structured interviews.

#### **4.6.5 Apply the sampling procedure**

The last stage of the process entails collecting the necessary data from the participants. The Deanship of Postgraduate Studies and Scientific Research at the two Saudi universities sent the link which had to be followed in order to respond to the questionnaire, thereby ensuring that contact was made with every faculty member. In particular, Qualtrics survey software was utilised for this purpose. In total, 5,192 faculty members at KAU and a further 1,769 at PSAU received the link to complete the questionnaire, thereby giving a combined figure of 6,961. In response, 434 completed questionnaires were received in total from both universities. However, not all of these could be used for the purpose of analysis due to more than 100 non-usable responses with substantial missing data being received. In order to preserve the dataset's validity and reliability, the decision was taken to exclude these responses. Although precautionary steps were taken to issue clear instructions to the participants and pre-test the survey instrument to ensure that all of the responses could be used in the analysis, the number of exclusions is among the research's known limitations. The research is therefore based on 130 completed questionnaires from KAU and 83 from PSAU, giving a total number of 213 usable responses. Notably, this sample is sufficiently large to derive meaningful conclusions, thereby satisfying the stated requirements regarding the size of the sample.

With regards to the sampling procedure for the interviews, an email was sent to faculty members asking if they would be willing to be interviewed. All of the interviews were undertaken remotely via Zoom.

#### **4.7 Common method bias management**

In the event that statistical variance is attributable to the choice of measuring method and not the constructs represented by the measurement, this is an example of common method bias (CMB) (Podsakoff et al. 2003). CMB poses a challenge regarding the validity of the research findings owing to the fact that it can cause variables to appear to relate to each other (Podsakoff et al. 2012). It is possible to avoid CMB in two ways: by either applying suitable study design procedures or statistical controls.

It is possible to effectively control CMB by obtaining data from two or more sources (Podsakoff et al. 2003; Podsakoff et al. 2012). Regarding the current research, however, this was not feasible owing to the fact that the study involved a certain type of person and considered their opinions. Be that as it may, steps were taken to minimise CMB by designing the questionnaire with great care. (Podsakoff et al. 2003; Podsakoff et al. 2012). Firstly, use was made of psychological separation among the measures so that the participants were conscious that there was no connection between the various sections of the questionnaire (Podsakoff et al. 2012). To help achieve this, the different sets of questions were assigned to distinct categories, with each having its own heading (general background information, burnout, job demands and resources, performance appraisal satisfaction, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and job performance). Furthermore, precautions were taken in an attempt to make certain that none of the participants felt apprehensive by assuring them that their anonymity was preserved. To minimise the possibility of bias arising in the data, the participants were also reminded that there were no right or wrong answers. Finally, the questions that were used had previously been employed in a different research study and had been piloted to ensure they did not give rise to ambiguity and to confirm that they were suitable for the context of the current study.

A second means of managing CMB is through statistical tests. Various statistical methods can be applied but the most widely employed is Harman's one-factor test (Podsakoff et al. 2003) and this was applied in the current research. Table 4.4 displays the Harman's test results for the independent and dependent variables.

Typically, a limit of 50% is chosen to prevent CMB (Podsakoff et al. 2012). The strongest component in the table had a value of 27.408%, thereby indicating the absence of CMB in the data.

**Table 4.4:** Harman's CMB test

<b>Total variance explained</b>						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction sums of squared loadings		
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	8.497	27.408	27.408	8.497	27.408	27.408
2	2.951	9.521	36.929	2.951	9.521	36.929
3	2.460	7.934	44.863	2.460	7.934	44.863
4	1.785	5.759	50.621	1.785	5.759	50.621
5	1.628	5.252	55.874	1.628	5.252	55.874
6	1.295	4.177	60.051	1.295	4.177	60.051
7	1.104	3.563	63.613	1.104	3.563	63.613
8	1.032	3.329	66.942	1.032	3.329	66.942
9	.950	3.066	70.008			
10	.886	2.859	72.867			
11	.736	2.374	75.240			
12	.689	2.222	77.462			
13	.667	2.153	79.615			
14	.614	1.980	81.595			
15	.571	1.842	83.437			
16	.526	1.697	85.135			
17	.491	1.584	86.719			
18	.469	1.514	88.233			
19	.424	1.368	89.602			
20	.414	1.336	90.938			
21	.392	1.265	92.203			

22	.370	1.195	93.397			
23	.314	1.012	94.409			
24	.305	.983	95.392			
25	.289	.931	96.323			
26	.249	.805	97.128			
27	.234	.753	97.881			
28	.201	.648	98.529			
29	.174	.562	99.091			
30	.157	.507	99.597			
31	.125	.403	100.000			

Extraction method: Principal component analysis

#### **4.8 Methods of quantitative data analysis**

Statistical methods are employed as part of the data analysis for the current research. Based on the responses received in the questionnaires, scores will be calculated for each of the variables: burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and job performance. The questionnaires will also provide data for the demographic variables, thereby enabling each individual taking part to be assigned entries for the demographic, dependent and independent variables. Exploratory analysis is the next stage in the analysis process. This entails the identification of any missing data and any errors in the data, as well as providing a general appreciation of what the dataset comprises.

The mean scores for burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and job performance will be calculated based on the appropriate items in the scales. By summarising the main variables, descriptive analysis will be undertaken. All of the summarised data will be tabulated, including descriptive analysis for the demographic and control variables, in addition to the dependent and independent variables.

Inferential statistics will be utilised in the final stage of the data analysis process. In order to determine the relationships between the variables, a multiple linear

regression model will be employed. By doing so, it will be possible to clarify how burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment affect job satisfaction and job performance.

Regression analysis includes details about not only a relationship's direction but also the model's overall explanatory performance. These statistics will be calculated with the assistance of the following software packages: Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 27.0 and STATA Stata/SE 17.

Consequently, it will be possible to reject the null hypothesis in the event that the test statistic for a particular test has a significance level of under 0.1. 0.05 or 0. 01. If the significance level is above 0.1. 0.05 or 0. 01, the decision will be taken to accept the null hypothesis.

#### **4.8.1 Variable measures**

The purpose of this section is to summarise each of the variables that form part of the analysis. The name of each variable, its role, type of measurement and analysis are detailed in Table 4.5.

**Table 4.5:** Summary of the variables and data analysis

<b>Variable name</b>	<b>Role</b>	<b>Type of measurement</b>	<b>Analysis</b>
Burnout	Independent variable	Interval	Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression analysis
Performance appraisal satisfaction	Independent variable	Interval	Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression analysis
Organisational commitment	Independent variable	Interval	Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression analysis
PAS×BO	Moderator variable	Interval	Multiple linear regression analysis
OC×BO	Moderator variable	Interval	Multiple linear regression analysis
Job satisfaction	Dependent variable	Interval	Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression analysis
Job performance	Dependent variable	Interval	Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression analysis
Job demands	Control variable	Interval	Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression analysis
Job resources	Control variable	Interval	Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression analysis

Gender	Demographic variable	Nominal	Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression analysis
Age	Demographic variable	Ordinal	Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression analysis
Level of education	Demographic variable	Ordinal	Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression analysis
Academic rank	Demographic variable	Ordinal	Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression analysis
Years of experience in higher education	Demographic variable	Ordinal	Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression analysis
University	Demographic variable	Nominal	Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression analysis
Department	Demographic variable	Nominal	Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression analysis
Supervisory responsibilities	Demographic variable	Nominal	Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression analysis
Years worked at current position	Demographic variable	Ordinal	Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression analysis

#### 4.8.2 Dummy variables measures

Categorical data relating to occupations, geographic location, gender and race can be incorporated into regression analysis with the use of dummy variables (Suits 1957). By assigning values of 1 or 0 to items depending on which category they belong to, it is possible to incorporate non-numerical data into regression analysis (Suits 1957). It is standard practice when conducting regression analysis to use the greatest prevalence, most stable and most interpretable grouping to serve as the baseline because this approach will help to provide more generalisable and robust findings (Hardy and Reynolds 2004).

To ease the regression analysis process, dummy variables were used for the demographic variables. By utilising dummy variables, it is possible to incorporate non-numerical data including education level, supervisory responsibilities, position within the university and gender. As can be seen in Table 4.6, the reference category for gender was 'male,' whereas 'female' served as the dummy variable.

***Rationale:*** The decision was taken to select male as the baseline because most faculty members are men. As such, this serves as a reference point that is both prevalent and stable. In addition, the decision is in accordance with standard practice when conducting regression analysis and it also enables insightful comparisons with under-represented groups.

**Table 4.6:** Gender dummy variable coding

Demographic variable	Dummy variable	Value
Gender	Female	1 = Female, 0 = Male (reference)

Four groupings were used to categorise the Age variable: '20-29,' '30-39,' '40-49' and 'over 50.' The decision was taken to make the 20-29 age bracket the reference group. Table 4.7 presents details of the dummy variables for the various age groupings.



**Rationale:** The decision was taken to select the youngest age grouping as the baseline because these faculty members are starting out on their careers. Importantly, this reference point offers the means to demonstrate how employee outcomes are affected by age-related factors. In addition, it is standard practice when conducting regression analysis to select the youngest group to serve as the baseline and this approach will help to provide meaningful comparisons.

**Table 4.7:** Age dummy variable coding

Demographic variable	Dummy variable	Value
Age	20-29	1 = Age 20–29, 0 = Otherwise
	30-39	1 = Age 30–39, 0 = Otherwise
	40-49	1 = Age 40–49, 0 = Otherwise
	Over 50	1 = Age over 50, 0 = Otherwise

Three groupings were used to categorise the level of education variable: Bachelor's, Master's and Doctorate (PhD). As can be seen in Table 4.8, the decision was taken to make Bachelor's the reference group.

**Rationale:** The decision was taken to select the lowest level of educational achievement as the baseline because it enables comparisons with more advanced qualifications and the Bachelor's degree is often regarded as the minimum requirement for employment in certain professions.

**Table 4.8:** Education dummy variable coding

Demographic variable	Dummy variable	Value
Level of education	Master's	1 = Master's, 0 = Otherwise
	PhD	1 = PhD, 0 = Otherwise

Five groupings were used to categorise academic rank: Teaching assistant, lecturer, assistant professor, associate professor and professor. As can be seen in Table 4.9, the decision was taken to make teaching assistant the reference group.

**Rationale:** The decision was taken to select the lowest ranking position as the baseline because it is considered to be the entry-level rank. Importantly, this reference point enables comparisons with higher ranks and it is reflective of the hierarchies that are evident in academia.

**Table 4.9:** Academic rank dummy variable coding

Demographic variable	Dummy variable	Value
Academic rank	Lecturer	1 = Lecturer, 0 = Otherwise
	Assistant professor	1 = Assistant professor, 0 = Otherwise
	Associate professor	1 = Associate professor, 0 = Otherwise
	Professor	1 = Professor, 0 = Otherwise

Five groupings were used to categorise years of experience: 'Less than a year,' '1-5 years,' '5-10 years,' '10-15 years' and 'more than 15 years.' As can be seen in Table 4.10, the decision was taken to make less than a year the reference group.

**Rationale:** The decision was taken to select the lowest range of experience as the baseline because it comprises people who are at the initial stages of their career in academia. Importantly, this reference point enables comparison with those who have greater experience in academia.

**Table 4.10:** Experience in education dummy variable coding

Demographic variable	Dummy variable	Value
Years of experience in higher education	1–5 years	1 = 1-5 years, 0 = Otherwise
	5-10 years	1 = 5-10 years, 0 = Otherwise
	10-15 years	1 = 10-15 years, 0 = Otherwise
	More than 15 years	1 = more than 15 years, 0 = Otherwise

Two groupings were used to categorise university: KAU and PSAU. As can be seen in Table 4.11, the decision was taken to make KAU the reference group.

**Rationale:** The decision was taken to select KAU as the baseline because its faculty members comprise the majority of the participants in the current study, thereby meaning that it is representative of the wider population under investigation.

**Table: 4.11:** University dummy variable coding

Demographic variable	Dummy variable	Value
University	PSAU	1 = PSAU, 0 = KAU

Three groupings were used to categorise department: Arts and humanities, sciences, and administration. As can be seen in Table 4.12, the decision was taken to make arts and humanities the reference group.

**Rationale:** The decision was taken to select arts and humanities as the baseline because it offers a unique point of comparison with the other departments which were better represented in terms of the number of faculty members. Importantly, this reference point enables comparisons relative to a smaller department, helping to reveal differences or the opinions of less well-represented groups.

**Table 4.12:** Department category dummy variable coding

Demographic variable	Dummy variable	Value
Department category	Science-based department	1 = Science-based department, 0 = Otherwise
	Social science-based department	1 = Social science-based department, 0 = Otherwise

A binary variable was utilised to represent supervisory responsibilities: ‘Yes’ and ‘No.’ As can be seen in Table 4.13, the decision was taken to make ‘no’ the reference group.

**Rationale:** The decision was taken to select those faculty members who do not have supervisory responsibilities as the baseline because their primary duties are research and teaching and, therefore, they are not expected to undertake duties which are usually performed by those with supervisory responsibilities. Importantly, this reference point enables comparisons to establish what effect the requirement to perform administrative duties has on faculty outcomes.

**Table 4.13:** Supervisory responsibilities dummy variable coding

Demographic variable	Dummy variable	Value
Supervisory responsibilities	Yes	1 = Yes, 0 = No (reference)

Five groupings were used to categorise years worked at current position: ‘Less than a year,’ ‘1-5 years,’ ‘5-10 years,’ ‘10-15 years’ and ‘more than 15 years.’ As can be seen in Table 4.14, the decision was taken to make ‘less than a year’ the reference group.

**Rationale:** The decision was taken to select those who have held their current position for less than a year as the baseline because it comprises people who have minimal experience in their current role. Importantly, this reference point enables comparisons with those who have longer tenures in their current position.

**Table: 4.14:** Years worked at current position dummy variable coding

Demographic variable	Dummy variable	Value
Years worked at current position	1–5 years	1 = 1-5 years, 0 = Otherwise
	5-10 years	1 = 5-10 years, 0 = Otherwise
	10-15 years	1 = 10-15 years, 0 = Otherwise
	More than 15 years	1 = more than 15 years, 0 = Otherwise

#### **4.8.3 Moderation analysis**

In an attempt to establish the ability of the relationships between burnout and both job satisfaction and job performance to be moderated by performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment, moderation analysis was performed. By conducting moderation analysis, it was possible to establish whether or not the level of performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment influence the direction or strength of the relationships between burnout and both job satisfaction and job performance.

Interaction terms were produced to enable the moderating effects to be tested. More specifically, the independent variable (burnout) initial values were multiplied by the moderator variables (performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment) to give the interaction terms. The performance appraisal satisfaction (PAS) multiplied by burnout (BO) interaction term (PAS×BO) and the organisational commitment (OC) multiplied by burnout (BO) interaction term (OC×BO) were subsequently incorporated into the multiple linear regression models.

#### **4.9 Methods of qualitative data analysis**

In accordance with the approach applied in most instances in the qualitative empirical literature, the current research employed thematic analysis (Guest et al. 2012; Bryman 2016). Because the study had a construct ready for the examination of quantitative data, it was deemed appropriate to apply thematic analysis in this research.

One process which has been advocated entails data condensation, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification (Miles et al. 2020). In practical terms, the condensation of data in this study entails selecting, simplifying and abstracting the data. Having transcribed the interviews, written summaries were produced and themes were developed which reflected the patterns that emerged from the transcriptions. Having done so, it was possible to relate the identified patterns to the stated research questions. A logical and semantic approach was applied to categorise the responses into distinct themes. The data were then displayed, with content analysis being facilitated by first codifying the data. Finally, conclusions were drawn and the process of verification entailed providing definitions for the key meanings, identifying data trends as well as arriving at suggestions for how these could be explained.

#### **4.10 Ethical considerations**

Whenever conducting research, it is necessary to ensure that the relevant ethical guidelines are complied with. Therefore, approval to undertake the current study was obtained from Cardiff Business School's (CARB's) Ethics Committee. More specifically, it was necessary to obtain ethical approval for both the questionnaire and the interview process. Changes were made in response to the feedback received and then approval was granted for both the questionnaire and interviews. In addition, permission was sought to undertake the research in the target universities from their respective Deans of Postgraduate Studies and Scientific Research in order to gather responses from faculty members. Once approval had been granted, invitation emails, consent forms, online questionnaires and interview requests were sent to the participants. All of those taking part in the research completed the consent form. The participants all volunteered to engage in the process and they were informed of their right to withdraw from the process at any point with no need to explain their decision. In addition, reassurances were given that any information they provided as part of the questionnaire or interview would remain anonymous and it would not be possible to assign any of the responses to individual participants, thereby ensuring their confidentiality.

#### **4.11 Chapter conclusion**

The current chapter has offered a detailed explanation of the selected research methodology in this study. The study's ontology is based on objectivism, whereas the basis of the epistemological position is positivism. So as to reap the benefits afforded by different methods, the decision was taken to apply a mixed methods approach, adopting an explanatory-sequential design. Therefore, the relationships between burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction, and organisational commitment, and their effects on job satisfaction and job performance were first addressed using a questionnaire survey. Then, these same relationships were also explored using a qualitative methodology in order to provide deeper insights. Consequently, it is possible to consider the current research to be a descriptive cross-sectional investigation that utilises a deductive approach. Questionnaires and interviews with faculty members at KAU and PSAU were selected as the means to provide insight into the nature of the relationship between the main concepts. Carrying out the pilot study made it possible to agree upon the questions that would be posed in the survey and this also helped to determine the direction that the current study would take. Meanwhile, thematic analysis was applied to examine the qualitative data. The chapter also explained the possibility of bias due to the selected methodology and reflected on the associated ethical considerations when undertaking research of this nature.

The following chapter subjects the survey responses to descriptive analysis to provide additional data assurance and form the foundation for the subsequent multivariate analysis.

## **Chapter 5. Descriptive analysis**

In this chapter, the responses to the questionnaires are subjected to descriptive analysis. This includes the demographics of those taking part as well as the associated constructs. The analysis was undertaken using the SPSS version 27.0 software.

There are a total of four sections in the fifth chapter. The first section of the current chapter considers the rate of response, straight-lining and non-response bias. The following section provides insight into the respondents' demographic details and also provides descriptive analyses of their questionnaire responses. Section three subjects the data to validity analysis, including data normality, a descriptive analysis of the control variables, exploratory factor analysis (EFA), reliability analysis and aggregate scores for the key concepts. Finally, the Pearson correlations between all of the variables later included in the statistical modelling are presented.

### **5.1 Response rate, straight-lining and non-response bias**

Questionnaires were sent to 6,961 faculty members at two public universities in Saudi Arabia via email. A total of 434 (6.2%) completed questionnaires were received. After removing incomplete questionnaires, the final number of responses was 213, thereby achieving an overall response rate of 3.05% from the entire population of interest. The decision was taken to exclude the remaining 221 owing to the fact that they had not been fully completed. In some cases, entire sections of the questionnaire had been left blank, with some offering no insight into burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, or job performance. If these had not been excluded, the dataset's validity could have been compromised, resulting in the statistical analysis being unreliable. It is good practice when conducting survey-based research to exclude responses with a large proportion of the data missing so that the findings are interpretable and robust (Hair et al. 2019).

Although the response rate was disappointingly low, this does not mean that the results will be any less informative or valid (Meterko et al. 2015). Meterko et al. (2015) demonstrated that reliance upon just a few responses could still yield



consistent results, thereby indicating that when conducting large surveys via the Internet, it is less realistic to apply absolute thresholds for acceptable response rates. Therefore, research findings should not automatically be discarded simply because the response rate is low.

By sending out reminder emails, a sufficiently large sample size was achieved, thereby helping to avoid any concerns about the validity or representativeness of the conclusions. According to Rindfuss et al. (2015), it is not necessarily the case that a limited response rate will cause the findings to be biased, particularly when employing a multivariate model to establish how the variables are related.

Any questionnaires that were returned incomplete were removed and those responses did not feature in the current study. In addition, the responses were checked for evidence of straight-lining whereby participants give the same response to every question (Revilla and Ochoa 2015). It has been suggested that participants may choose to engage in straight-lining because it is a *satisficing* phenomenon whereby individuals are able to invest minimal effort and save time whilst still offering responses that initially appear to be sufficient for the purpose of the research being conducted (Schaeffer and Presser 2003). However, having checked the responses that were received by calculating average standard deviations for the scaled responses of each respondent using Excel, there did not appear to be any indication of straight-lining (see Appendix B for the findings).

If there are marked differences between those responding to the questionnaire and those who did not complete the questionnaire with regards to the variables of interest, this would result in non-response bias (Dooley and Lindner 2003; Coderre et al. 2004). According to Armstrong and Overton (1977), it is possible to address non-response bias by comparing the responses of the early respondents and those of the late respondents, whereby the latter are considered to be non-respondents. For the purpose of the current research, the early respondents were those among the first 10% to respond and the late respondents were those among the last 10% to respond. In order to establish if the two groups were significantly different, an independent sample t-test was run for each question and statistically significant

differences were found for only three out of a possible 31 questions (D1, RPA1 and AC3) (.027, .023 and .012) between the two groups at KAU. Within PSAU, there were no statistically significant discrepancies in the response patterns between the two groups. The findings revealed that most early responses and late responders did not differ significantly from one another. Consequently, it was possible to confirm that the current research was unlikely to have been affected by non-response bias (see Appendix C for the results of the independent sample test of KAU and PSAU).

## **5.2 Analysis of the descriptive statistics for the survey data**

### **5.2.1 The sample's demographics**

The demographics of those who responded to the questionnaire are profiled in Table 5.1. A total of 54.0% of the 213 people who completed the questionnaire were male, whereas 46.0% were female. With regards to their ages, almost half (42.7%) were between 30-39 years old. 32.4% were between 40-49 years old; 18.3% were over 50 and 6.6% were between 20-29 years of age. With regards to their level of education, most of those who responded had been awarded a PhD degree (69.5%), with 29.1% of the respondents having a master's degree and 1.4% having only a bachelor's degree. The respondents' academic ranks differed markedly. Assistant professors comprised the largest single category (32.9%), followed by lecturers (26.3%), associate professors (21.6%), full professors (12.2%) and finally teaching assistants (7.0%).

There were marked differences regarding the period of time spent in higher education, with just 1.9% having less than one year's experience, whereas 20.2% had 1-5 years, 22.5% had 5-10 years, 28.6% had 10-15 years and 26.8% had in excess of 15 years of experience. Regarding the split between the two universities, 39% of respondents were employed by PSAU, whilst the remainder (61%) were employed by KAU. There was also a good variety of departments in which the respondents worked, with the largest being the science-based department (53.1%), followed by the social science-based department (30.0%) and finally, the smallest group of respondents from the arts and humanities-based department (16.9%).

A total of 54.5% of the respondents stated that they had supervisory responsibilities, whereas the remainder (45.5%) did not. When asked how long they had held their current position, there was considerable variation in the responses: just 16.9% had held their current position for under one year, whereas 49.8% had been in their post for 1-5 years, 18.8% for 5-10 years, 9.4% for 10-15 years and 5.2% for in excess of 15 years.

**Table 5.1:** Respondents' demographic profiles

<b>Characteristic</b>	<b>Category</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Gender</b>	Male	115	54.0
	Female	98	46.0
<b>Age</b>	20-29 years old	14	6.6
	30-39 years old	91	42.7
	40-49 years old	69	32.4
	Over 50	39	18.3
<b>Level of education</b>	Bachelor's degree	3	1.4
	Master's degree	62	29.1
	PhD degree	148	69.5
<b>Academic rank</b>	Teaching assistant	15	7.0
	Lecturer	56	26.3
	Assistant professor	70	32.9
	Associate professor	46	21.6
	Professor	26	12.2
<b>Years of experience in higher education</b>	Less than a year	4	1.9
	1 to 5 years	43	20.2
	5 to 10 years	48	22.5
	10 to 15 years	61	28.6
	More than 15 years	57	26.8
<b>University</b>	KAU	130	61.0
	PSAU	83	39.0
<b>Department category</b>	Arts and humanities-based	36	16.9
	department	113	53.1

	Science-based department	64	30.0
	Social science-based department		
<b>Supervisory responsibilities</b>	No	97	45.5
	Yes	116	54.5
<b>Number of years worked in current position</b>	Less than a year	36	16.9
	1 to 5 years	106	49.8
	5 to 10 years	40	18.8
	10 to 15 years	20	9.4
	More than 15 years	11	5.2

### 5.2.2 Analysis of the descriptive statistics for the measurement scales

All statistical analyses in this study are made by creating measurement scales for the independent and dependent variables (burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction, organisational commitment and the employee outcomes of job satisfaction and job performance). The descriptive statistics (minimum, maximum, mean and the standard deviations) for the separate items in the questionnaire are presented in Table 5.2. In all cases, a seven-point Likert scale was used to record the responses. However, to ensure that the direction of all the relevant questions for each construct ran in the same direction, the decision was taken to reverse certain items in the questionnaire prior to analysis.

The results in Table 5.2 show the extent of burnout among faculty members. The table measures three dimensions of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment. The means of most items measuring *emotional exhaustion* are less than the midpoint of the scale (i.e. 4), except for one item which is in the midpoint of the scale (i.e. 4.05), whereas the mean values of all items measuring *depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment* are less than the midpoint of the scale (i.e. 4). Thus, these responses suggest that most survey respondents are not experiencing burnout and they feel positively about their work. The standard deviation results show variations in the answers to all of the items measuring burnout dimensions, where most the items have standard deviation values of greater than 1.40.

Observing the performance appraisal satisfaction, the highest mean value for one of the items was (5.07), indicating that performance appraisal is valued by the respondents as well as the universities. On the other hand, the lowest mean score was (3.83), which implies that the respondents are not satisfied with their performance appraisal. The standard deviations, which all have values in excess of 1.60, show that there is variation in the responses to the seven items measuring performance appraisal satisfaction.

Regarding organisational commitment, each dimension of organisational commitment showed varying mean scores and standard deviations. The mean values for *affective commitment* are 4.48-5.76 for each item, with standard deviation of 1.48-1.81. The corresponding mean values for *continuance commitment* fell between 5.53 and 5.68, with standard deviation of 1.58-1.72. Finally, the mean values for *normative commitment* ranged from 5.47 to 6.08, with standard deviation of 1.31-1.33. From these findings, it is possible to conclude that most of the faculty members are committed to their organisation. Furthermore, the relatively high mean values recorded for the various dimensions of commitment suggest that the respondents feel a sense of attachment to their organisation. The results suggest that the faculty members feel morally obliged to remain (*normative commitment*) but they also experience an emotional attachment (*affective commitment*) and recognise the practical difficulties associated with switching to an alternative employer (*continuance commitment*). Notably, the high scores recorded across the various forms of commitment indicate that faculty members feel firmly obligated and connected to their universities and roles. Consequently, there is a general feeling of organisational commitment from the responses.

The mean scores on all of the items (including the reversed) of job satisfaction are above 5 for each item (5.86-6.14), with standard deviations scores of between 1.32 and 1.37. This suggests that, on average, most respondents are satisfied with their work.

Finally, the mean values for all of the items measuring job performance (including the reversed) were above 5.00, except for two where the mean scores were 4.85

and 4.87, with standard deviations of between 0.83 and 1.88. This indicates that, on average, most of the respondents believed themselves to be performing well in their job.

### **5.3 Data normality analysis**

The term 'normality' refers to the degree to which the distribution of the data obtained from a sample corresponds to the pattern of normal distribution (Hair et al. 2019). Therefore, it is possible to determine whether data follow a normal distribution by conducting a normality test. Kurtosis and skewness are two measures that are widely used to determine normality (Hair et al. 2019). Skewness indicates the extent to which the distribution around the mean is symmetrical, whereas Kurtosis provides an indication of the flatness of the distribution (Hair et al. 2019). In order for univariate item analysis to avoid having the normality assumption violated, the value of absolute skewness must be below 2 and the value of absolute kurtosis must be below 7 (Curran et al. 1996). Importantly, increasing the size of the sample has the effect of reducing the negative effects associated with non-normality (De Vaus 2002 and Hair et al. 2019). Indeed, if the sample size is greater than 200, even significant departures from normality are unlikely to have a notable bearing on the findings (De Vaus 2002 and Hair et al. 2019).

The skewness of RPA2 exceeded the range that is deemed to be acceptable (skewness = 2.57), thereby indicating that it is non-normal. However, because RPA2 forms part of an index comprising numerous measures, a correction for skewness was not applied. Being part of an index results in the items being aggregated, thereby mitigating the effect that a single item's skewness can have. In light of the relatively large size of the sample and the fact that there were limited deviations from the values that were deemed acceptable, it was possible to assume the normality of the data. Table 5.2 shows the skewness and kurtosis tests of data normality for the study items.

**Table 5.2:** Questionnaire items and descriptive statistics (individual items)

	Item description	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
<b>Burnout</b>						<b>Statistic</b>	<b>Statistic</b>
<i>Emotional exhaustion (EE)</i>	EE1: My work makes me feel emotionally drained	1	7	3.37	1.93	0.38	-1.13
	EE2: By the end of a day spent working, I have no energy for anything else	1	7	4.05	2.12	-0.05	-1.51
	EE3: My daily work leaves me feeling burned out	1	7	3.51	2.09	0.31	-1.37
<i>Depersonalisation (D)</i>	D1: Since starting this role, my approach to other people has become less caring	1	7	2.40	1.83	1.22	0.32
	D2: I am concerned that this work role has made me emotionally detached	1	7	2.53	1.84	1.08	0.02
	D3: I do not really care what happens to some students/colleagues	1	7	2.05	1.64	1.68	1.84

<i>Reduced personal accomplishment (RPA)</i>	RPA1: I believe my work makes a positive contribution to the lives of others (R)	1	7	1.84	1.44	1.98	3.29
	RPA2: I feel good after working closely with my students/colleagues (R)	1	7	1.59	1.19	2.57	6.88
	RPA3: This work role has enabled me to achieve numerous things that are worthwhile (R)	1	7	2.35	1.77	1.09	-0.13
<i>Performance appraisal satisfaction (PAS)</i>	PAS1: I am satisfied with the way my university provides me with feedback	1	7	3.85	1.70	-0.15	-0.87
	PAS2: The feedback correctly reflects how I have performed	1	7	4.12	1.72	-0.33	-0.72
	PAS3: My university recognises good performance	1	7	4.49	1.82	-0.46	-0.83
	PAS4: I am kept informed about how well I am doing	1	7	4.14	1.97	-0.23	-1.22
	PAS5: I receive constructive feedback on my job performance	1	7	3.83	1.84	-0.02	-1.11



	PAS6: The university provides coaching, training opportunities or other assistance to help me improve my skills and performance	1	7	4.82	1.82	-0.75	-0.45
	PAS7: Performance appraisal is valuable to myself as well as to my university	1	7	5.07	1.75	-0.83	-0.14
<b>Organisational commitment</b>							
<i>Affective commitment (AC)</i>	AC1: I would be content spending the remainder of my career at my current university	1	7	5.76	1.48	-1.37	1.45
	AC2: I regard the university's problems as my personal problems	1	7	4.48	1.81	-0.36	-0.86
	AC3: I feel a sense of emotional attachment to this university	1	7	5.54	1.63	-1.32	1.12
	CC1: I would be concerned to leave my current role without having an alternative job to start immediately	1	7	5.68	1.72	-1.30	0.69

<i>Continuance commitment (CC)</i>	CC2: It would not be easy to walk away from the university at present, even if I had the desire to do so	1	7	5.53	1.58	-1.04	0.25
<i>Normative commitment (NC)</i>	NC1: It has been instilled in me that I should remain loyal to my university	1	7	6.08	1.31	-1.71	2.69
	NC2: In the past, faculty members used to stay at one university without moving to another workplace	1	7	5.47	1.33	-0.85	0.41
<b>Employee outcomes</b>							
<i>Job satisfaction (JS)</i>	JS1: On balance, I am satisfied with my job	1	7	5.86	1.34	-1.49	2.21
	JS2: In general, I like working in my university	1	7	5.93	1.32	-1.57	2.56
	JS3: In general, I do not like my job (R)	2	7	6.14	1.37	-1.71	2.01

<i>Job performance (JP)</i>	JP1: The way in which I go about completing my duties is suitable	2	7	6.33	0.83	-1.52	3.65
	JP2: I complete all that is required of me in accordance with my job description	2	7	6.16	1.09	-1.82	3.79
	JP3: I take on the duties that my colleagues are expected to perform	1	7	4.85	1.58	-0.49	-0.56
	JP4: My performance meets the formal requirements specified for my role	1	7	5.86	1.20	-1.37	2.13
	JP5: There are essential duties that I fail to carry out (R)	1	7	4.87	1.88	-0.47	-1.01

Note: N = 213, (R) = reverse scored

#### **5.4 Descriptive analysis of control variables**

Table 5.3 presents descriptive statistics for the control variables of job demands and resources as individual items. In particular, it shows the minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviations of each questionnaire item. Responses for the job demands and resources items are seen across a five-point Likert scale between 1 (never) and 5 (always).

Regarding job demands and resources, the first three questions related to job demands, whereas the last three questions related to job resources. For the job demands items, the mean responses were 2.15, 2.02 and 3.43. The standard deviations were 1.40, 1.47 and 1.23.

For the job resources items, the mean responses were 3.84, 3.77 and 3.71. The standard deviations were 1.21, 1.39 and 1.24. The mean responses were higher for the job resources items than for the job demands items, thereby indicating that the participants had more positive views of their job resources than negative ones of their job demands. Thus, the respondents perceived their job resources to be relatively high as compared to their job demands.

**Table 5.3:** Descriptive statistics for job demands and resources variables (individual items)

	Item description	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
<b>Job demands (JD)</b>	JD1: I fail to keep pace with my workload	1	5	2.15	1.40
	JD2: I fear being unemployed	1	5	2.02	1.47
	JD3: I dedicate too much of my time to working at the expense of the quality of my private life	1	5	3.43	1.23
<b>Job resources (JR)</b>	JR1: I am able to exert influence over my work	1	5	3.84	1.21
	JR2: My immediate head of department listens to me airing my problems	1	5	3.77	1.39
	JR3: My colleagues provide me with help and support	1	5	3.71	1.24

Note: N = 213

### 5.5 Exploratory factor analysis

EFA involves the measurement of particular constructs by grouping items in datasets (Field 2018). EFA enables construct validity to be tested, clarifying that the test measures being applied truly measure what they are intended to measure. However, EFA can also be used to confirm how certain variables are correlated with each other and to identify the number of underlying influences relating to a group of variables and the factors (Cudeck 2000).

Sampling adequacy is tested by employing the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) method. In order to ascertain the correlation matrix strength for the key constructs, it is necessary to establish if there are suitable correlations among the variables to undertake factor analysis. In addition, the instrument must pass the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity as well as the KMO (Field 2018). It is possible to state that the correlation matrix is compact and that the resulting factors are dependable if the results of the

KMO are greater than 0.5 on a scale ranging from 0 to 1 (Field 2018). Principal Component Analysis was applied in the current research because it is regarded as being the most reliable approach when seeking to explain the variance in the correlated variables (Field 2018).

When preparing the data, several items were reverse-scored to ensure that the components making up the factors had the correct polarity, thereby facilitating appropriate factor loadings and accurate reliability calculations. EFA was applied separately to the items associated with each of the seven constructs that are the focus of the current study: burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, job performance and job demands and resources. This makes it possible to confirm the validity and reliability of the constructs and to assess any issues associated with the items in particular scales. Factor analysis was performed prior to rotation and efforts were made to tackle any reverse items to ensure accurate factor loadings and prevent bias in terms of how the underlying structure is comprehended. The KMO value for each construct was .512 or greater, so the sampling is adequate for analytical purposes and each section of the questionnaire can have factor analysis applied to it. In addition, the results for the Bartlett's Test were deemed significant at the <.001 level, thereby indicating that the variables did not form an identity matrix and, therefore, are suitable for factor analysis. Single factors were created by instructing the SPSS software package to impose a single factor constraint on output (see Appendix D for the results). The EFA loadings for the various items in the component matrix are presented in Table 5.4 and the findings are explained in detail below.

The decision was taken to consider burnout and organisational commitment as single global constructs rather than examining their dimensionality. By doing so, the research is better able to satisfy the research objectives by focusing on broad measures of the key constructs.

Meanwhile, it was decided to remove JP3 (I take on duties that my colleague are expected to perform) from the analysis because, on reflection, the question was deemed to be unrelated to job performance.

With regards to the control variables, every item in the component matrix relating to job demands recorded positive values. Meanwhile, both JD1 and JD2 were retained as measures of job demands because owing to it recording the highest face validity, JD3 (I dedicate too much of my time to working at the expense of the quality of my private life) was excluded. Meanwhile, the findings for all of the items relating to job resources were positive and, consequently, they were all included and it was not necessary for them to be reversed.

**Table 5.4:** Results of the loadings for the exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis of the study items

Constructs	Items	Component	Cronbach's Alpha
		1	
Burnout (BO)	<b>BO1:</b> My work makes me feel emotionally drained	.658	.813
	<b>BO2:</b> By the end of a day spent working, I have no energy for anything else	.753	
	<b>BO3:</b> My daily work leaves me feeling burned out	.797	
	<b>BO4:</b> Since starting this role, my approach to other people has become less caring	.692	
	<b>BO5:</b> I am concerned that this work role has made me emotionally detached	.798	
	<b>BO6:</b> I do not really care what happens to some students/colleagues	.514	
	<b>BO7:</b> I believe my work makes a positive contribution to the lives of others (R)	.350	
	<b>BO8:</b> I feel good after working closely with my students/colleagues (R)	.402	
	<b>BO9:</b> This work role has enabled me to achieve numerous things that are worthwhile (R)	.596	
	<b>PAS1:</b> I am satisfied with the way my university provides me with feedback	.851	
	<b>PAS2:</b> The feedback correctly reflects how I have performed	.780	



<b>Performance appraisal satisfaction (PAS)</b>	<b>PAS3:</b> My university recognises good performance	.831	.885
	<b>PAS4:</b> I am kept informed about how well I am doing	.772	
	<b>PAS5:</b> I receive constructive feedback on my job performance	.862	
	<b>PAS6:</b> The university provides coaching, training opportunities or other assistance to help me improve my skills and performance	.689	
	<b>PAS7:</b> Performance appraisal is valuable to myself as well as to my university	.592	
<b>Organisational commitment (OC)</b>	<b>OC1:</b> I would be content spending the remainder of my career at my current university	.725	.718
	<b>OC2:</b> I regard the university's problems as my personal problems	.650	
	<b>OC3:</b> I feel a sense of emotional attachment to this university	.831	
	<b>OC4:</b> I would be concerned to leave my current role without having an alternative job to start immediately	.386	
	<b>OC5:</b> It would not be easy to walk away from the university at present, even if I had the desire to do so	.455	
	<b>OC6:</b> It has been instilled in me that I should remain loyal to my university	.764	
	<b>OC7:</b> In the past, faculty members used to stay at one university without moving to another workplace	.392	

<b>Job satisfaction (JS)</b>	<b>JS1:</b> On balance, I am satisfied with my job	.907	.882
	<b>JS2:</b> In general, I like working in my university	.910	
	<b>JS3:</b> In general, I do not like my job (R)	.882	
<b>Job performance (JP)</b>	<b>JP1:</b> The way in which I go about completing my duties is suitable	.790	.609
	<b>JP2:</b> I complete all that is required of me in accordance with my job description	.861	
	<b>JP4:</b> My performance meets the formal requirements specified for my role	.663	
	<b>JP5:</b> There are essential duties that I fail to carry out (R)	.538	
<b>Job demands (JD)</b>	<b>JD1:</b> I fail to keep pace with my workload	.790	-
	<b>JD2:</b> I fear being unemployed	.790	
<b>Job resources (JR)</b>	<b>JR1:</b> I am able to exert influence over my work	.714	.712
	<b>JR2:</b> My immediate head of department listens to me airing my problems	.828	
	<b>JR3:</b> My colleagues provide me with help and support	.846	

Note: N = 213, (R) = reverse scored

## **5.6 Reliability analysis**

In order for a measure to be reliable, it must be stable, consistent and generate results that can be repeated at different points in time (Kline 2016; Malhorta and Birks 2017). The most widely used measure of reliability is Cronbach's alpha (coefficient alpha) (Kline 2016; Hair et al. 2019). A Cronbach's alpha value in excess of 0.7 is typically regarded as indicating internal consistency but some researchers consider 0.6 to be sufficient (Kline 2016; Hair et al. 2019).

The analysis of reliability for the factors resulting from the EFA are presented in Table 5.4, indicating that the alpha value in the majority of cases is in excess of 0.7. The job performance items recorded the lowest internal consistency (.609), whereas the highest internal consistency (.885) was achieved by the performance appraisal satisfaction items. The Cronbach's alpha score for the job demands variable does not feature in the table owing to the fact that just one item was used (JD1: I fail to keep pace with my workload) to represent this construct (every construct's reliability analysis is presented in Appendix E).

## **5.7 Key constructs' average scores**

Having established the validity and reliability of the key constructs through EFA, it was decided to ease the interpretation of the statistical modelling by using the average scores for the items associated with each construct. The average scores for the key constructs are presented in Table 5.5. Those working at PSAU reported experiencing a greater degree of overall burnout (2.77) than their counterparts at KAU (2.55). However, neither score is particularly high, thereby indicating that the faculty members at these two universities experience a relatively weak degree of burnout.

With regards to performance appraisal satisfaction, the average score reported at PSAU (4.50) is slightly higher than that at KAU (4.22). This indicates that those employed at the two universities experience a moderate degree of performance appraisal satisfaction.

The mean value recorded for the faculty members at KAU with regards to overall organisational commitment was 5.65, which was marginally higher than the mean score recorded by their colleagues at PSAU (5.28). Therefore, the level of organisational commitment at the two universities is considered to be moderate.

The mean job satisfaction scores were similar for the faculty members at both KAU (6.05) and PSAU (5.88). This suggests that those working at KAU were more satisfied in their jobs than their counterparts at PSAU.

Meanwhile, a moderate level of job performance was recorded by the faculty members at both KAU (5.81) and PSAU (5.79), with remarkably little separating the two mean values.

**Table 5.5:** Average scores for key constructs in KAU and PSAU

University	BO	PAS	OC	JS	JP
KAU	2.55	4.22	5.65	6.05	5.81
PSAU	2.77	4.50	5.28	5.88	5.79

## 5.8 Pearson correlations

Correlation analysis is conducted to establish how two continuous variables (independent and dependent variables) relate to each other (Faizi and Alvi 2023). Table 5.6 presents the findings for the Pearson correlation test which are used to demonstrate how the independent and dependent variables are potentially related.

The findings indicate that burnout is moderately negatively correlated with job satisfaction ( $r = -.592$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), suggesting that as the level of burnout increases, faculty members become less satisfied with their job. Conversely, burnout's correlation with job performance is less strong ( $r = -.246$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), indicating that the effect of burnout on job performance may be limited.

performance appraisal satisfaction is moderately positively correlated with job satisfaction ( $r = .570$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), suggesting that as the level of performance appraisal satisfaction increases, faculty members become more satisfied with their job. In

contrast, the correlation between performance appraisal satisfaction and job performance is weaker ( $r=.240$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). This suggests that while performance appraisal satisfaction contributes to performance, its impact is more evident on satisfaction.

organisational commitment has a moderate positive correlation with job satisfaction ( $r=.540$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). However, organisational commitment has a weaker positive correlation with job performance ( $r=.269$ ,  $p<0.01$ ), suggesting that organisational commitment exerts a greater impact on job satisfaction than it does on job performance.

The correlation results are somewhat in accordance with what had been anticipated but they demonstrate that multivariate analysis is required. Utilising regression modelling will help to more fully comprehend the nature of the relationships because confounding factors will be accounted for and it enables the variables' simultaneous influences to be tested, especially the ability of organisational commitment and performance appraisal satisfaction to moderate the effect that burnout has on job satisfaction and job performance. Adopting such a method enables the preliminary insights to be refined, whilst also providing a firm foundation from which to test the hypotheses. Furthermore, evidence of multicollinearity was sought in the correlation matrix. None of the correlations were in excess of 0.9, thereby suggesting that there are no concerns regarding multicollinearity in the data.

**Table 5.6:** Pearson's correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Female	-															
2. Age	0.046	-														
3. Level of education	0.071	.514**	-													
4. Academic ranking	-.156*	.646**	.720**	-												
5. Years of experience in higher education	-	0.100	.726**	.430**	.592**	-										
6. PSAU	0.081	.246**	-0.068	-.170*	-.172*		-									
7. Which department do you work in?	-0.04	-0.037	-.156*	-0.097	-0.045	-.171*		-								
8. Do you currently have any supervisory responsibilities? (Yes)	-	0.026	0.083	.400**	.316**	0.095	.189**	-0.074	-							
9. Number of years you have worked in your current position	-	0.068	.441**	0.088	.247**	.456**	.252**	0.019	-.164*	-						
10. Job demands	-	0.012	0.004	0.035	0.013	-0.058	0.100	0.009	-0.03	-.158*	-					
11. Job resources	0.01	0.063	0.034	0.015	0.036	0.013	0.00	0.014	0.086	.194**	-					
12. Burnout	0.095	-0.127	-0.105	-.149*	.196**	0.095	0.049	0.019	.183**	.295**	.310**	-				
13. PAS	0.101	0.13	0.094	0.099	.149*	0.101	-0.121	0.072	.136*	.197**	.237**	.404**	-			
14. OC	0.102	.153*	0.04	.138*	.142*	.187**	-0.07	0.071	0.102	-0.07	0.044	.197**	.321**	-		
15. JS	0.008	.186**	0.092	.193**	.200**	-0.069	.181**	0.073	0.128	.212**	.237**	.592**	.570**	.540**	-	
16. JP	0.089	.207**	0.096	.149*	.201**	-0.012	-0.018	0.092	0.072	.285**	.184**	.246**	.240**	.269**	.299**	-

N = 213. \* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

## **5.9 Chapter conclusion**

The findings of the descriptive quantitative data analysis were presented in this chapter. Whilst a total of 434 questionnaires were returned, only 213 had been fully completed. Upon assessing the completed questionnaires, there was no suggestion of straight-lining and nor did it seem that there was any issue with non-response bias. The respondents' demographic details were then analysed. 130 of the respondents worked at KAU, whilst the remaining 83 worked at PSAU. The majority of the people who completed the questionnaire held a PhD degree. In addition, the measurement scales of the main variables were subjected to descriptive analysis, providing details of the minimum and maximum values, as well as their mean and standard deviation. Normality tests confirmed that the skewness and kurtosis values lay within an acceptable range. Furthermore, descriptive analysis of the two control variables was presented. In order to identify particular factors for key constructs, EFA was applied separately for the variable associated with each construct. Cronbach's alpha scores indicated that the majority of the constructs exceeded the threshold of 0.7, thereby satisfying the reliability criteria. With reference to the average construct scores, KAU respondents had marginally higher mean values for organisational commitment, job satisfaction and job performance but not for burnout or performance appraisal satisfaction. Furthermore, the results of the Pearson correlation test revealed a series of moderate and weak correlations between the key constructs, highlighting the need for multivariate analysis.

The following chapter presents a discussion of the multivariate regression-based analysis of the quantitative data.

## **Chapter 6. Quantitative data analysis**

This chapter analyses the survey data and comprises of three sections. In the first section, a table of the regression analysis results is presented showing the relationships between the independent variables (burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment) and the dependent variables (job satisfaction and job performance), as well as the moderator and control variables. Following that, the second section establishes how employee outcomes are influenced by the control variables. Finally, insight is provided into the abilities of performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment to moderate the burnout-employee outcome relationship. For the hypothesised moderated relationships, interaction graphs are used to help illustrate how the relationships between the independent and dependent variables are affected by the moderator variables. All of the statistical analyses presented in this chapter were performed using the Stata/SE 17 software package.

### **6.1 Analyses for burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment**

The regression analysis results for the variables applied in the model are presented in Table 6.1. The independent variables (burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment), moderation variables (performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment) and the controls are presented in the rows, whilst the columns comprise the dependent variables (job satisfaction and job performance). The dependent variables are tested against each of the independent, moderator and control variables four times. In the first model, only the control variables are included to help explain the variation in job satisfaction and job performance. This approach helps to establish the extent to which the dependent variables are influenced by contextual and demographic variables. The second model includes the independent and control variable to establish if job satisfaction and job performance are negatively affected by burnout and if organisational commitment and performance appraisal satisfaction have a positive effect (as hypothesised), allowing for the impact that the control variables have. Meanwhile, in



the third model, the model is run incorporating the first moderator variable (the result of multiplying the burnout variable by the performance appraisal satisfaction variable), independent and control variables to establish whether burnout's negative effects on job satisfaction and job performance can be effectively buffered by performance appraisal satisfaction. The fourth model involves the model being run with the second moderator variable (the results of multiplying the burnout variable by the organisational commitment variable), independent as well as the control variables to establish whether burnout's negative effects on job satisfaction and job performance can be effectively buffered by organisational commitment.

The potential for heteroscedasticity to influence the results can be effectively countered by utilising the robust estimation of standard errors (Sun and Andrews 2020). The current research employs this approach so that even if there is heteroscedasticity, there will be consistency in the standard errors.

The r-square value for job satisfaction in the initial model was 0.182, which indicates that changes in the control variables explain 18.2% of the variation in job satisfaction. However, a r-square value of 0.633 was recorded in the second model, thereby indicating that the expanded model explained 63.3% of the variation in job satisfaction. Meanwhile, the r-square value increased to 0.657 in the third model, suggesting that the inclusion of the first moderator leads to 65.7% of the variation in job satisfaction being explained. In the fourth model, the r-square value was 0.641 and, therefore, 64.1% of the variation in job satisfaction is explained when including the second moderator as well as the other variables. There is a marked difference in terms of the first model's variance and those of the other three models and, consequently, it is possible to state that, in accordance with the stated hypothesis, the independent variables and the moderating variables are important determinants of job satisfaction.

The r-square value for job performance in the initial model was 0.195, which indicates that the control variables explain 19.5% of the variation in job performance. Meanwhile, a value of 0.249 was recorded in the second model for r-

square, thereby indicating that the inclusion of the independent variables along with the control variables explained 24.9% of the variation in job performance.

Meanwhile, the r-square value was 0.260 in the third model, suggesting that changes in the first moderator led to a further increase in the variation in job performance explained by the regression model. In the fourth model, the r-square value was 0.253 and, therefore, the inclusion of the second moderator rather than the first moderator also leads to an increased explanation of the variation in job performance. Due to the fact that there is a relatively small distinction between the variances of the first model and the other three models, it seems that the independent and moderating variables are not such important determinants of job performance as they are of job satisfaction.

Indeed, the regression models explain considerably more variation in levels of job satisfaction than job performance. This suggests that there is a need for further research to clarify why job performance is less responsive than job satisfaction to the independent and moderating variables used in the current study.

**Table 6.1:** BO, PAS, OC and employee outcomes

Predictor	Job satisfaction				Job performance			
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Mode 4
<b>Direct effect</b>								
Burnout		-0.426*** (0.0595)	-0.986*** (0.168)	-1.030*** (0.333)		-0.0847 (0.0601)	0.182 (0.165)	-0.401 (0.344)
Performance appraisal satisfaction		0.238*** (0.0591)	-0.138 (0.104)	0.229*** (0.0605)		0.0231 (0.0491)	0.202* (0.105)	0.0182 (0.0500)
Organisational commitment		0.443*** (0.0729)	0.415*** (0.0748)	0.130 (0.155)		0.182** (0.0725)	0.196*** (0.0729)	0.0187 (0.188)
<b>Indirect effect</b>								
PAS×BO			0.143*** (0.0403)				-0.0678* (0.0381)	
OC×BO				0.109* (0.0570)				0.0571 (0.0625)
<b>Control variables</b>								
Job demands	-0.135** (0.0585)	-0.0130 (0.0413)	-0.0276 (0.0403)	-0.0175 (0.0411)	-0.172*** (0.0435)	-0.149*** (0.0447)	-0.142*** (0.0452)	-0.151*** (0.0445)
Job resources	0.223** (0.0878)	0.0453 (0.0574)	0.0287 (0.0548)	0.0366 (0.0566)	0.0938 (0.0593)	0.0629 (0.0570)	0.0708 (0.0556)	0.0584 (0.0568)
Gender (ref=male)								
Female	0.0821 (0.168)	-0.0235 (0.118)	-0.125 (0.115)	-0.0329 (0.117)	0.217* (0.128)	0.187 (0.128)	0.236* (0.137)	0.182 (0.129)
Age (ref=20-29 years old)								

30-39 years old	-0.431 (0.374)	-0.177 (0.263)	-0.211 (0.272)	-0.0874 (0.275)	-0.00895 (0.342)	0.0798 (0.349)	0.0957 (0.356)	0.127 (0.359)
40-49 years old	-0.475 (0.418)	-0.107 (0.295)	-0.136 (0.304)	-0.0192 (0.303)	0.0682 (0.367)	0.156 (0.371)	0.169 (0.376)	0.202 (0.380)
Over 50	-0.0699 (0.450)	0.0877 (0.343)	0.0992 (0.340)	0.124 (0.343)	0.549 (0.437)	0.599 (0.443)	0.593 (0.445)	0.618 (0.445)
Level of education (ref= Bachelor's degree)								
Master's degree	-0.00812 (0.725)	0.261 (0.333)	-0.0619 (0.338)	0.262 (0.369)	-0.752 (0.518)	-0.587 (0.530)	-0.434 (0.545)	-0.587 (0.531)
PhD degree	0.0100 (0.825)	0.129 (0.404)	-0.195 (0.406)	0.145 (0.437)	-0.899 (0.578)	-0.756 (0.586)	-0.601 (0.598)	-0.748 (0.588)
Academic ranking (ref=Teaching assistant)								
Lecturer	0.458 (0.450)	0.514* (0.280)	0.570** (0.261)	0.488* (0.269)	0.477 (0.290)	0.457 (0.315)	0.430 (0.313)	0.443 (0.318)
Assistant professor	0.123 (0.572)	0.308 (0.352)	0.357 (0.331)	0.249 (0.340)	0.538 (0.374)	0.561 (0.388)	0.537 (0.385)	0.530 (0.396)
Associate professor	0.545 (0.581)	0.537 (0.374)	0.585* (0.345)	0.483 (0.359)	0.575 (0.402)	0.537 (0.417)	0.514 (0.415)	0.509 (0.424)
Professor	0.471 (0.605)	0.560 (0.390)	0.658* (0.361)	0.524 (0.376)	0.440 (0.463)	0.429 (0.455)	0.383 (0.455)	0.411 (0.453)
Years of experience in higher education (ref= Less than a year)								
1 to 5 years	-0.0512 (0.512)	-0.0447 (0.368)	0.0439 (0.320)	-0.188 (0.438)	0.504 (0.319)	0.386 (0.305)	0.343 (0.318)	0.311 (0.331)

5 to 10 years	-0.0311 (0.511)	-0.265 (0.385)	-0.296 (0.337)	-0.391 (0.455)	0.347 (0.335)	0.193 (0.324)	0.208 (0.331)	0.127 (0.346)
10 to 15 years	0.121 (0.522)	-0.228 (0.374)	-0.187 (0.324)	-0.341 (0.440)	0.569* (0.326)	0.393 (0.315)	0.373 (0.324)	0.334 (0.335)
More than 15 years	0.132 (0.589)	-0.169 (0.431)	-0.157 (0.374)	-0.295 (0.484)	0.669* (0.358)	0.498 (0.349)	0.492 (0.356)	0.432 (0.369)
Which university do you work in? (ref=KAU)								
PSAU	-0.105 (0.184)	0.0227 (0.131)	0.0426 (0.124)	0.0104 (0.130)	0.175 (0.141)	0.236* (0.142)	0.227 (0.141)	0.230 (0.142)
Which department do you work in? (ref= Arts and humanities-based departments)								
Science-based departments	-0.310* (0.187)	-0.178 (0.137)	-0.213 (0.132)	-0.199 (0.135)	0.0429 (0.186)	0.0823 (0.182)	0.0992 (0.182)	0.0710 (0.181)
Social science- based departments	-0.638** (0.245)	-0.357** (0.162)	-0.443*** (0.154)	-0.370** (0.159)	0.0285 (0.197)	0.0980 (0.196)	0.139 (0.200)	0.0909 (0.195)
Do you currently have any supervisory responsibilities? (ref=No)								
Supervisory responsibilities =Yes	0.214 (0.183)	0.0795 (0.140)	0.0581 (0.137)	0.0691 (0.139)	0.0636 (0.141)	0.0182 (0.138)	0.0284 (0.138)	0.0128 (0.139)

Number of years you have worked at your current position (ref= Less than a year)								
1 to 5 years	-0.330 (0.238)	-0.160 (0.166)	-0.0936 (0.146)	-0.175 (0.160)	-0.0673 (0.189)	-0.0419 (0.179)	-0.0736 (0.190)	-0.0495 (0.178)
5 to 10 years	-0.0228 (0.280)	-0.0968 (0.190)	0.0546 (0.166)	-0.128 (0.185)	-0.0774 (0.225)	-0.104 (0.218)	-0.176 (0.232)	-0.120 (0.218)
10 to 15 years	-0.252 (0.354)	-0.0997 (0.252)	-0.0173 (0.234)	-0.115 (0.251)	-0.200 (0.266)	-0.141 (0.245)	-0.180 (0.245)	-0.149 (0.247)
More than 15 years	-0.137 (0.343)	-0.582** (0.262)	-0.467* (0.259)	-0.500** (0.253)	-0.405 (0.313)	-0.520* (0.293)	-0.575** (0.285)	-0.477 (0.301)
Constant	5.827*** (0.656)	3.473*** (0.581)	5.569*** (0.852)	5.431*** (1.090)	5.398*** (0.703)	4.487*** (0.797)	3.490*** (0.965)	5.512*** (1.315)
Observations	213	213	213	213	213	213	213	213
R-squared	0.211	0.642	0.671	0.650	0.196	0.250	0.262	0.254
Mean VIF	8.50	7.88	8.62	10.79	8.50	7.88	8.62	10.79

Note: N = 213; Robust standard errors in parentheses

\*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1

Table 6.1 presents the findings for the job satisfaction and job performance regressions. It is apparent that burnout is significantly negatively related to job satisfaction ( $\beta = -0.426$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and, therefore, Hypothesis 1a is accepted. The finding that burnout is significantly negatively related with job satisfaction in Saudi public universities is in accordance with the conclusions reached in the previous literature conducted across a range of industries. Although burnout was measured as a one-dimensional construct in the current study, it reflects the effects of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduce personal accomplishment seen in the previous literature. More specifically, Hur et al. (2015), Karatepe and Uludag (2007) and Karatepe and Tekinkus (2006) all concluded that job satisfaction suffers when employees working in the banking and hospitality sectors experience emotional exhaustion. Those working in the banking and hospitality sectors are continually required to interact with customers, address their concerns and deliver the very highest levels of service, all of which can contribute towards feelings of being emotionally exhausted. Whilst public universities in Saudi Arabia present a distinct context, the stressors experienced by faculty members are similar, including excessive teaching schedules with large numbers of students, often with diverse academic abilities. Furthermore, faculty members face unique demands because of the need to balance excessive teaching schedules with onerous administrative duties and obligations to publish research on a regular basis (Mudrak et al. 2018; Zábrowská et al. 2018; Asfahani 2024). For instance, faculty members can become emotionally exhausted when they are required to sit on various committees, manage research projects and perform administrative duties such as advising students (Sabagh et al. 2018; Asfahani 2024). Whilst faculty members may not be required to engage in customer-facing interactions, they operate in a high-pressure environment requiring relational and intellectual engagement.

According to Shepherd et al. (2011), those working in jobs with client-centred responsibilities (e.g., manufacturing, wholesaling, retailing and the service sector) are likely to find that their job satisfaction suffers because they are emotionally exhausted and their sense of personal accomplishment is reduced. When a worker is emotionally exhausted, their energy levels fall, making them less capable of

engaging fully in their tasks. Furthermore, when their sense of personal accomplishments declines (i.e., targets are not met or they feel incompetent), this adversely affects their sense of self-worth, resulting in them feeling dissatisfied. Such observations mirror the experiences reported by faculty members at public universities in Saudi Arabia, with energy levels suffering when feeling emotionally exhausted, thereby hampering efforts to engage productively with others. In addition, those working in academic settings are particularly susceptible to perceiving a decline in their personal accomplishment (Skaalvik and Skaalvik 2009). For example, faculty members may feel dissatisfied if they have difficulty balancing their research expectations with their teaching requirements, resulting in their institutional targets being missed (Lei et al. 2021).

Lee and Ok (2012) studied hospitality workers in an attempt to establish the effect of burnout through their emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment. Their sense of reduced personal accomplishment made them feel more dissatisfied; depersonalisation caused them to feel less competent and interpersonally connected; while their emotional exhaustion resulted in psychological strain. From this, it is apparent that burnout adversely affects job satisfaction and the positive elements of the role. It is apparent from the current study that faculty members experience similar patterns, possibly experiencing burnout as a result of their onerous work demands. Such matters are examined in detail in the following chapter when the qualitative data are analysed.

Whilst the majority of the previous literature has focused on developments in the private sector, a small number of studies have investigated public sector employees, thereby offering useful similarities. Meanwhile, Mulki et al. (2006) concluded that those working in the social benefits and healthcare sectors become dissatisfied when they are emotionally exhausted. They found that employees who are emotionally exhausted are sensitive to feeling frustrated and helpless, thereby making them less passionate about their role and dissatisfied with their workplace. Similar observations were made in the current study where it was found that faculty members' job satisfaction declined when they experienced burnout. Although the contexts are different (social benefits and healthcare), the studies report the same



underlying stressors. Those working at public universities in Saudi Arabia are faced with heavy administrative duties, excessive teaching workloads and the need to cater to the diverse requirements of their students (Asfahani 2024). Consequently, they are sensitive to becoming burnt out and suffering a loss of job satisfaction because they work with insufficient resources in a high-pressure environment (Lei et al. 2021).

Whilst the relationship between burnout and job satisfaction is found to be significant, this is not the case with regards to job performance, with the coefficient for burnout being negative but not statistically significant ( $\beta=-0.0847$ ,  $p >0.1$ ) and, therefore, Hypothesis 1b is not accepted<sup>4</sup>.

This finding mirrors what has been reported in the previous literature regarding burnout's relationship with job performance, particularly the conclusions arrived at when studying emotional exhaustion in the private sector. Karatepe and Tekinkus (2006), Sun and Pan (2008) and Hur et al. (2015) conclude that emotional exhaustion is significantly negatively related with job performance, whereas Rutherford et al. (2011) report that emotional exhaustion has no bearing on performance.

Furthermore, a few empirical studies have focused on the public sector. For instance, Gomes et al. (2022) found that when police officers in Portugal experience burnout, their performance in the job declines.

Rughoobur-Seetah (2023) studied workers in the Mauritian service sector including casinos, bars, restaurants, hotels, banks and retail stores and, similar to the current research, concluded that burnout is not related to job performance. These observations suggest that employees are able to continue performing to high standards despite feeling physically and mentally exhausted. In effect, employees

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<sup>4</sup> The burnout-job performance relationship was also investigated upon the removal of job demands and job resources from the second model. This revealed that burnout is significantly negatively related with job performance when job demands and resources are not included in the model, suggesting that its relationship with performance may be fully mediated by job demands and resources. Details of the burnout- job performance relationship can be found in Appendix F.

strive to satisfy the high expectations of their employers in an attempt to retain their position and maintain their salary. Despite the possibility that their mental health may suffer, workers in Mauritius focus on sustaining high levels of performance because the employment market in the country is highly competitive and they fear losing their job. A similar dynamic is apparent among the faculty members in the current study. Whilst burnout causes faculty members to become physically and mentally exhausted, job performance is sustained because they are committed to delivering on their professional responsibilities. There is an expectation that faculty members will mentor their students, complete heavy administrative duties, publish research on a regular basis and teach large class sizes (Lovakov 2016). As a result of these expectations, faculty members feel obliged to continue performing to a high standard to achieve organisational goals (Lovakov 2016). The qualitative data analysis chapter examines this possibility in greater detail.

Alternatively, the findings in this study could arise because of how performance has been measured, which may not truly capture how performance is affected by burnout. Moreover, it could be the case that faculty members are able to perform to a high standard despite experiencing burnout due to there being certain standards expected in Saudi public universities including giving lectures in accordance with the agreed timetable, marking assignments in a timely manner and effectively managing the workload, regardless of whether or not faculty members experience burnout. A further possible explanation for the insignificant relationship between burnout and job performance could be that burnout is more closely related to some other variable such as intention to quit. Indeed, both Barthauer et al. (2020) and Madigan and Kim (2021) concluded that burnout is significantly positively related to an employee's intention to quit. Another reason could be motivation. For instance, if any of the faculty participants were also alumni of the same university, their knowledge of the institution and their passion for working there could potentially help them cope with burnout and prevent it from negatively impacting their performance. The role that performance appraisal satisfaction plays in determining faculty members' job satisfaction and job performance is discussed next.

As predicted, the results indicate that performance appraisal satisfaction is significantly positively related to job satisfaction ( $\beta = 0.238$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and, therefore, Hypothesis 2a is accepted. This result is consistent with the findings reported in the empirical literature in both the private and public sectors. Indeed, Krats and Brown (2013) studied workers at a mining firm, revealing several factors contributing to the relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and job satisfaction. Among these was the perception of fairness because members of staff who consider the appraisal process to be fair are typically more trusting of their firm, thereby benefiting their job satisfaction. Furthermore, Krats and Brown (2013) recognised the value of maintaining a developmental focus when conducting appraisals, focusing on helping members of staff to grow rather than simply undertaking an assessment. When a developmental approach is applied, workers are more likely to feel supported and valued, thereby benefiting their job satisfaction. Another important factor was the clear communication of expectations and performance goals during the appraisal process, which helps members of staff to appreciate how the efforts they make help to achieve the organisation's goals, thereby giving them a sense of purpose. The qualitative data analysis chapter discusses these issues in greater detail.

Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) studied those working in local government and similarly concluded that there was a positive correlation between performance appraisal satisfaction and job satisfaction. In particular, they noted that factors including feedback mechanisms, the usefulness of appraisals, accuracy and timeliness were important. Collectively, these factors were found to affect how members of staff perceive fairness, a factor that is significantly associated with job satisfaction. Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) emphasised the importance of maintaining positive relations between supervisors and employees. More specifically, they suggested that it helps if supervisors are supportive, listen to the feedback provided by employees and make their expectations clear. Interacting in this way fosters mutual respect and trust, thereby boosting job satisfaction.

The research conducted by Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) and Krats and Brown (2013) offers useful evidence regarding the factors that affect job satisfaction

through performance appraisal satisfaction. Despite being undertaken using data for employees in local government and a mining firm, respectively, the results suggest the importance of supportive communication, developmental focus, transparency and fairness, regardless of the industry. The same factors seem likely to influence the satisfaction of faculty members with their appraisal and, in turn, their job satisfaction. This possibility is explored in more detail in the qualitative data analysis chapter.

In contrast, performance appraisal satisfaction is found to be unrelated to job performance ( $\beta=0.0231$ ,  $p > 0.1$ ) and, consequently, Hypothesis 2b is rejected. Similarly, Kuvaas (2006) studied bank workers and concluded that performance appraisal satisfaction is insignificantly positively related with job performance. Kuvaas suggested that satisfaction with the appraisal process does not mean that an individual will necessarily perform better at their job. Rather, job performance is affected by that individual's skill, capability and various external factors (e.g., access to technology). It is these factors that significantly affect job performance and they are not influenced by how satisfied they are with their appraisal. In addition, it is possible that the findings could be explained by Saudi universities' organisational features. These institutions are typically bureaucratic and hierarchical and, therefore, it is often the case that performance appraisals are regarded as a procedure that needs to be fulfilled instead of a means for supporting development (Fitzgerald et al. 2003). Although this is essentially an organisational matter, a prevailing culture of deference to authority or respecting hierarchies is likely to influence the perceptions of faculty members. Whilst they may be satisfied with their performance appraisal, they may crave recognition and constructive feedback and this may not result in faculty members performing any better.

Alternatively, it may be the case that the performance benefits of performance appraisal satisfaction are exerted through a different variable and this could explain why the relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and job performance is insignificant. For instance, it has previously been reported that there is a positive relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and creative behaviour (Ismail and Rishani 2018). Meanwhile, Ghazi et al. (2023) concluded that

performance appraisal satisfaction is positively associated with innovative behaviour, whereas Ahuja et al. (2018) reported evidence of a significant positive correlation between performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Meanwhile, it is possible to confirm that there is a significant positive relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction ( $\beta=0.443$ ,  $p<0.01$ ) and, consequently, Hypothesis 3a is accepted. In accordance with the conclusions reported in the previous literature, the current research has found that organisational commitment is significantly positively related with job satisfaction. Organisational commitment was measured as a one-dimensional construct in the current research yet it encapsulates the collective effect of affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment reported in the previous literature. Therefore, faculty members who are highly committed to their organisation are typically more satisfied in their job, possibly because their personal values are closely aligned with their university's goals. This could help to create a sense of belonging, purpose and satisfaction.

Similarly, when studying private sector workers in Turkey, Elçi et al. (2007) reported that organisational commitment is significantly positively related to job satisfaction. Elçi et al. (2007) suggested that this was because the commitment of employees is aligned with the goals of their organisation, thereby helping to create a sense of satisfaction.

Studying public sector workers in South Korea, Park (2020) arrived at the conclusion that job satisfaction benefits from organisational commitment because those who are dedicated become deeply committed to the mission of their organisation. Similar results were arrived at by Ting (1997) when studying USA federal government employees, revealing that job satisfaction benefits from organisational commitment. More specifically, they suggested that this relationship was the result of the organisation's priorities being closely aligned with the values of the employees.

When studying private and public sector workers in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Dinc et al. (2018) attributed the positive relationships between both normative commitment and affective commitment with job satisfaction to employees' sense of obligation and emotional attachment to their organisation, thereby elevating their level of job satisfaction.

The results reported in the previous literature suggest that this relationship is consistent, irrespective of the context. In the case of faculty members at public universities in Saudi Arabia, it is possible to attribute organisational commitment being significantly positively related with job satisfaction to the personal and professional values of faculty members being closely aligned with their universities' mission and goals. Such alignment contributes to a sense of engagement, belonging and purpose, all of which contribute towards job satisfaction in academia. The qualitative data analysis chapter discusses these issues in greater detail.

In addition, the current research indicates that organisational commitment is significantly positively related to job performance ( $\beta=0.182$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). Consequently, the current research, like the international discourse concerning organisational commitment, affirms its role in promoting job performance and, therefore, Hypothesis 3b is accepted. This finding supports the conclusions reported in the previous literature for the public and private sectors. For instance, Fu and Deshpande (2014) studied private sector workers in China and concluded that there is a significant positive relationship between organisational commitment and job performance. When workers are committed to their organisation and go on to become emotionally attached to that organisation, they become more willing to increase their effort. By aligning organisational goals with personal goals, the result is workers who are both effective and focused, thereby leading to performance gains. Meanwhile, Elçi et al. (2007) concluded that employees who exhibit organisational commitment are more closely aligned with their organisation's goals. Elçi et al. (2007) found that employees committed to their organisation outperformed and exerted greater effort when at work because their personal goals were aligned with those of their organisation. Therefore, it appears that organisational commitment in a range of contexts is associated with enhanced job performance.

There is considerable evidence that organisational commitment's positive relationship with job performance also holds in the public sector, emphasising the importance of affective commitment. Camilleri and Van Der Heijden (2007) studied 1,217 public officers in Malta, concluding that there is a significant relationship between organisational commitment and job performance. They found that when employees experience loyalty and emotional attachment to their organisation, they are more inclined to increase their effort, thereby enhancing how they perform. This is in accordance with the results reported in the current research, whereby organisational commitment significantly influences the job performance of faculty members.

Having utilised data for both private and public sector workers in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Dinc et al. (2018) found evidence that continuance commitment is significantly positively related to job performance. This was attributed to the elevated level of unemployment in the country, resulting in nurses remaining in their position because of the perceived difficulty of finding alternative employment.

With regards to the situation in public universities in Saudi Arabia, it is possible to attribute organisational commitment being significantly positively related to job performance to the personal and professional values of faculty members being closely aligned with their organisations' goals. Because the two are closely aligned, there is a common sense of engagement and purpose, thereby enhancing performance. The qualitative data analysis chapter examines this possibility in greater detail.

Overall, the findings of this study regarding the main independent variables are interesting because they confirm the hypotheses regarding job satisfaction, while, apart from the commitment relationship, they do not confirm the hypotheses concerning job performance. Most of the existing research is based on data collected from the private sector. Further public sector-specific studies may be necessary to address the predicted outcomes for job performance. Therefore, the current research has taken into account a fresh perspective by specifically examining individuals employed in the public sector of Saudi Arabia. Hence, there is

the potential for differences in the correlation between burnout and performance appraisal satisfaction on job performance in the public sector. In private settings, it is typically the case that there is a strong relationship between job performance and strict accountability frameworks, performance-based incentives and quantifiable outputs. In contrast, the public sector is more closely associated with job security, process standardisation and bureaucracy. Such distinctions could help to explain why there was not a closer alignment between the relationships concerning job performance in the current study and those reported in the empirical literature.

Consequently, whilst it was initially anticipated that performance appraisal satisfaction would result in people performing their job to a higher standard, this may not be true for those employed at public universities in Saudi Arabia. The performance appraisal satisfaction - job performance relationship, as well as the burnout- job performance relationships, are both insignificant and this implies that the performance that faculty members deliver is largely unaffected by these particular independent variables. Reference to the available quantitative data is unable to establish why this should be the case and there may be other variables that can explain this situation. The interviews undertaken as part of the qualitative data analysis explored the impact of burnout and performance appraisal satisfaction on job performance to better understand these surprising findings.

## **6.2 Effect of the control variables**

This section presents the findings regarding the extent to which the control variables influence the dependent variables (see Table 6.1).

It has been widely reported in the empirical literature that job demands are significantly negatively related to job satisfaction (Dyer and Quine 1998; Sargent and Terry 1998; Janssen 2001; Claes et al. 2023). The findings in the current research support the suggestion that there is a significant negative relationship between job demands and job satisfaction ( $\beta=-0.135$ ,  $p<0.01$ ) as well as with job performance ( $\beta=-0.172$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). Consequently, if an employee's role involves them being faced with excessive demands, it is probable that their performance will suffer and they will be less satisfied.



A positive relationship between job resources and job satisfaction was reported by Claes et al. (2023) and this finding is supported by the current research ( $\beta=0.223$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). Meanwhile, a significant positive relationship between job resources and job performance was found by Bakker et al. (2004) but the current research indicated that this relationship was statistically insignificant ( $\beta=0.0938$ ,  $p>0.1$ ). Therefore, this suggest that when job resources are more plentiful, faculty members are likely to be more satisfied in their job but perform no better or worse.

Previous studies have arrived at mixed findings regarding the effect that gender has on employees' outcomes. For example, whereas Hodson (1989), Zou (2015) and Redmond and McGuinness (2020) all concluded that females are more satisfied than males in their jobs, the opposite was reported by Savery (1990) and Okpara et al. (2005). Meanwhile, Siguaw and Honeycutt (1995), Smith et al. (1998) and Singh et al. (2004) found no evidence to suggest that job satisfaction is related to a person's gender. Field studies conducted by Roth et al. (2012) indicated that females marginally outperformed their male counterparts in terms of job performance. Furthermore, it has been reported in the empirical literature that women outperform their male counterparts in the workplace (Mackey et al. 2019). However, Sinangil and Ones (2003) found no such relationship, concluding that male and females perform equally well in their jobs.

Any possible differences between the genders were accounted for using a dummy variable, for which the reference category was gender (ref = male) and the comparison group was female. The Female coefficient was found to be significant and positive ( $B=0.217$ ,  $p<0.1$ ), thereby indicating that the reported job performance of female faculty members is higher than that of their male colleagues. Similar findings were reported by Bishu and Headley (2020) and Kahrens et al. (2018) who suggested that females working in male-dominated industries are likely to make more of an effort at work in an attempt to prove their ability. Given that academia has traditionally been male-dominated in Saudi Arabia, this narrative could certainly apply in the current research. There could be a perception among female faculty members that they experience pressure to demonstrate their abilities, thereby resulting in greater effort being expended. Considerable efforts are currently being

made in Saudi Arabia to recognise and support women in all aspects of life. Gorondutse et al. (2019) noted that these developments are presenting new opportunities for women in the country. Similarly, Hakiem (2023) recognised that the success of women in academia owes much to the encouragement they have received. Such developments may have contributed to the enhanced performance of female faculty members in the current research by providing the resources and recognition needed to thrive.

In contrast, the results of the statistical analysis found the female gender to be insignificantly associated with job satisfaction ( $B=0.0821$ ,  $P>0.1$ ). Consequently, the job satisfaction of faculty members appears to be governed by factors other than gender. Abou Hashish et al. (2024) report that the primary driver of dissatisfaction among faculty members of both sexes at Saudi universities is the inadequate institutional support provided, which results in difficulties establishing a good work-life balance.

Previous studies have arrived at mixed findings regarding the effect that experience in higher education has on employees' job satisfaction. Kavanaugh et al. (2006), Peiró et al. (2010), Ramoo et al. (2013) and Topchyan and Woehler (2021) all reported that having more years of experience is significantly positively related with job satisfaction, whereas Paul and Phua (2011) found the experience- job satisfaction relationship to be insignificant. Meanwhile, Avolio et al. (1990), Quiñones et al. (1995) and Kolz et al. (1998) were among those to report that years of experience is significantly positively related to job performance.

Faculty members' years of experience in higher education was captured using categorical variables. Having fewer than twelve months in higher education was set as the reference category, with the comparison groups being 1-5 years, 5-10 years and more than 15 years.

The findings reveal that the 10-15 years coefficient is significantly positively related to job performance ( $\beta =0.569$ ,  $p<0.1$ ) and, therefore, it can be stated that those with 10-15 years of experience report higher job performance than those who have been in the profession for less than twelve months. This finding is supported by the

coefficient for 'more than 15 years' also being significantly positively related to job performance ( $\beta = 0.669$ ,  $p < 0.1$ ), confirming that experience is associated with superior performance. Similar conclusions have been reached in the empirical literature, with both Kolz et al. (1998) and Quiñones et al. (1995) finding that the accumulation of knowledge and skills over time results in improved job performance.

The findings in the current research may be reflective of how career progression is structured in academia. Over time, faculty members develop effective methods of lecturing, cultivate their research expertise and acquire a better understanding of academic systems, thereby enhancing their performance. In addition, it is often the case that mentorship and leadership roles will be given to senior faculty members, thereby increasing their contribution to performance.

In contrast, the 1-5 years ( $\beta = 0.504$ ,  $p > 0.1$ ) and 5-10 years ( $\beta = 0.347$ ,  $p > 0.1$ ) coefficients were statistically insignificant, thereby indicating that their job performance is not significantly different to those faculty members who have been in the role for less than twelve months. It is possible that it takes faculty members a minimum of 10 years to acquire the necessary expertise and become sufficiently familiar with the organisation to enhance their performance.

With regards to job satisfaction, whilst both the 1-5 year ( $\beta = -0.0512$ ,  $p > 0.1$ ) and 5-10 year ( $\beta = -0.0311$ ,  $p > 0.1$ ) coefficients were negative and the 10-15 year ( $\beta = 0.121$ ,  $p > 0.1$ ) and more than 15 years ( $\beta = 0.132$ ,  $p > 0.1$ ) coefficients were positive, none were statistically significantly different to those who had been in the profession for less than twelve months. It is possible that faculty members at all stages of their careers experience burnout and are faced with excessive workloads, thereby explaining these findings regarding job satisfaction. The expectation that faculty members in Saudi universities will perform administrative duties, publish research and present lectures means that they face continual pressure, leaving limited scope for job satisfaction to differ as people spend more time in the profession. Excessive workloads contribute towards burnout which can stymie any perception of positivity that would otherwise result in a feeling of job satisfaction. For example, even highly

experienced senior faculty members receive inadequate institutional support and are presented with excessive administrative duties which have the effect of eroding their job satisfaction.

It is quite conceivable that experience has markedly different effects on job satisfaction and job performance. Job satisfaction is measured subjectively, influenced by how faculty members perceive the support they receive and the workload they are given. Conversely, job performance can be observed externally and is influenced by professional responsibilities, expertise and expectations of what the role requires. Given the prevalence of excessive administrative burdens in Saudi public universities, it is unsurprising that even experienced faculty members fail to register a significant increase in satisfaction over time.

In order to account for any variation between the universities' departmental categories, 'departments' was included as a dummy variable. For this purpose, the reference category was arts and humanities departments, with the comparison groups being social science-based departments and science-based departments.

Relative to those working in arts and humanities departments, the faculty members in science-based departments were significantly more likely to report a negative association with job satisfaction ( $\beta = -0.310$ ,  $p < 0.1$ ). A similar negative association with job satisfaction was reported by those working in social science-based departments ( $\beta = -0.638$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Therefore, it is possible to infer that the faculty members working in these departments encounter distinct challenges. For instance, those working in social science departments must apply interactive teaching methods to engage fully with large and diverse student populations, whereas those working in science departments are typically required to operate laboratory equipment. Such demands that are specific to certain departments could explain the low level of satisfaction reported by faculty members in these departments.

The relationship with job performance was positive but insignificant for both the social science-based departments ( $\beta = 0.0285$ ,  $p > 0.1$ ) and science-based departments ( $\beta = 0.0429$ ,  $p > 0.1$ ). Therefore, it may be that the faculty members working in all departments draw upon their organisational commitment to sustain

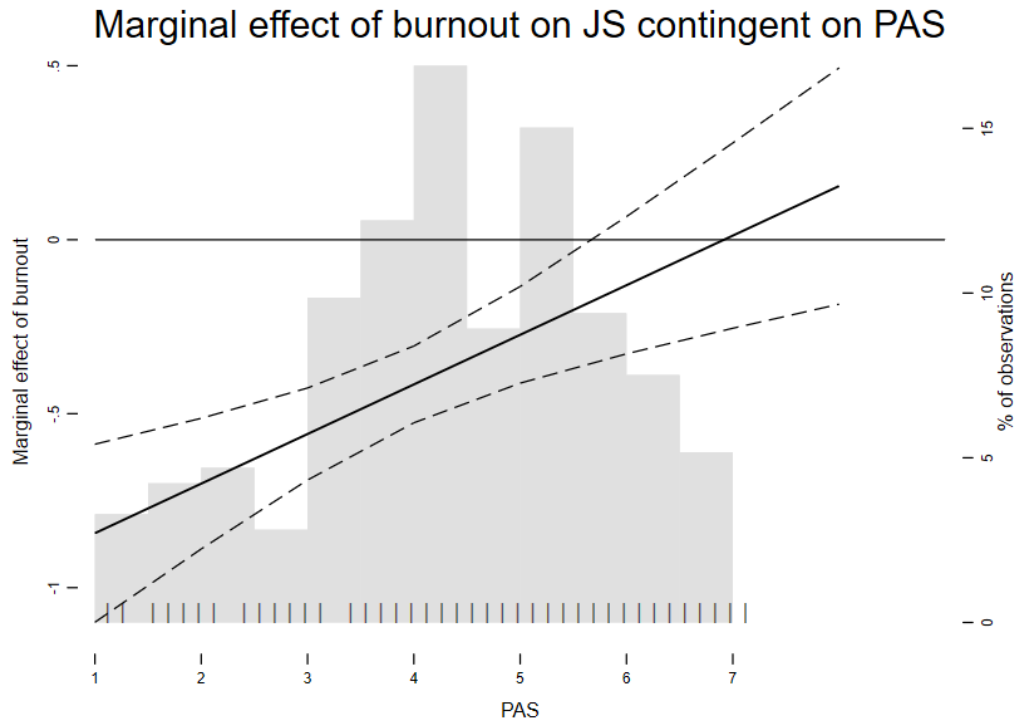
high levels of job performance. All faculty members are loyal to their institution and are also aligned with its targets and feel a sense of duty to meet the expectations of their university.

One possible reason why most of the control variables in the current study are not related to the outcomes is the demographic homogeneity which can arise when there is a lack of variation in the demographic features of a sample. The sample of faculty members in the current research share similar demographics and, therefore, the study is susceptible to demographic homogeneity. The faculty members comprising the sample all work at just two public Saudi universities and whilst there is a good balance in terms of male (54%) and female (46%) representation, a sizeable proportion of the sample (42.7%) are aged 30-39 years, thereby suggesting that the sample is concentrated with regards to their early-to-mid stage of career development. Furthermore, there is a considerable degree of homogeneity regarding the educational achievements of the sample, with 69.5% having been awarded a PhD. Most of the sample (32.9%) are assistant professors and 26.3% are lecturers, which is another source of homogeneity. Once again, 28.6% of the sample have ten-to-fifteen years and 26.8% have more than 15 years of experience in higher education and this suggests another source of homogeneity. The workplace provides another source of homogeneity, with 61% of the sample working at KAU, whereas only 39% are employed by PSAU. Of all the various departmental categories in the current research, the majority of the faculty members worked in science departments (53.1%). Notably, most of the participants (54.5%) perform supervisory duties and this is a further source of homogeneity. Finally, almost half of the sample (49.8%) have held their position for a period of between one and five years.

### **6.3 Moderation effects of performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment**

It was hypothesised that the negative relationship between burnout and employee outcomes would be positively moderated by both performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment. The findings regarding moderation are presented in Table 6.1. The coefficient for the interaction between burnout and performance appraisal satisfaction indicates that the negative burnout- job satisfaction relationship is significantly positively moderated by performance appraisal satisfaction ( $\beta=0.143$ ,  $p<0.01$ ).

To better understand the nature of this moderation effect, Figure 6.1 provides a visual representation of the stage at which performance appraisal satisfaction starts to significantly influence the burnout-employee outcomes relationship. The figures show the marginal effect that burnout has on employee outcomes for various levels of performance appraisal satisfaction. The line running through the centre of the figure serves to demonstrate the marginal effect that burnout has on job satisfaction and job performance (employee outcomes) when there is an increase in performance appraisal satisfaction. Meanwhile, confidence intervals are depicted as dotted lines to help establish at what point performance appraisal satisfaction starts to exert a statistically significant effect. It is necessary for at least one or other of the lower and upper bounds to be either below or above the central line for a significant effect to be exerted (Brambor et al. 2006).



**Figure 6.1:** Burnout's marginal effect on job satisfaction dependent on performance appraisal satisfaction

As can be seen in Figure 6.1, the relative level of performance appraisal satisfaction significantly affects the burnout- job satisfaction relationship. An increase in the level of performance appraisal satisfaction brings about a decline in the negative effect that burnout exerts on job satisfaction. It is when the performance appraisal satisfaction scores reach approximately 5.4 that the negative relationship between burnout and job satisfaction is eradicated but that relationship does not turn positive because the lower confidence interval does not go above the zero line. This supports the findings of Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) that job satisfaction benefits when the appraisal process is considered to be fair. Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) assert that when appraisals are fair, this fosters feelings of value and respect among the workforce. In addition, employees report being more satisfied in their work when the communication during the appraisal process and the subsequent feedback is of a high quality. Similarly, workers are more satisfied with their jobs when the

appraisal process is transparent and their relationships with their supervisors are positive (Ellickson and Logsdon 2002).

As reported by Gabris and Ihrke (2001) when studying a sample of public sector workers, burnout is alleviated when workers become more receptive to performance appraisals. Gabris and Ihrke (2001) believe that if the performance appraisal system is considered to be fair, this has the effect of alleviating burnout. Furthermore, Jawahar (2006) stated that a notable determinant of job satisfaction is satisfaction with the feedback received from performance appraisals because feedback is a form of recognition and gives workers a sense of self-worth. In the context of Saudi public universities, these findings are closely aligned with the organisational challenges that faculty members face in universities. When faced with onerous workloads, having an appraisal process that is effective, supportive, transparent and fair helps to suppress burnout's adverse effects on job satisfaction, whilst also making faculty members feel supported and valued. The findings of the current research demonstrate that positive appraisal practices are beneficial to faculty members' well-being by buffering against the adverse effects of burnout. Consequently, Hypothesis 4a is accepted.

In Table 6.1, the negative burnout- job performance relationship is shown to be significantly negatively moderated by performance appraisal satisfaction ( $\beta = -0.0678$ ,  $p < 0.1$ ). Figure 6.2 illustrates burnout's marginal effect on job performance dependent on performance appraisal satisfaction. It can be seen in the figure that the burnout- job performance relationship is slightly conditioned by the relative level of performance appraisal satisfaction. When the performance appraisal satisfaction score reaches approximately 4.5, the negative relationship becomes statistically significant. On balance, it is apparent that the negative burnout- job performance relationship becomes slightly stronger when the level of performance appraisal satisfaction is high.

It may be that the perception of trust and security fostered by positive appraisal experiences explain why faculty members who are satisfied with performance appraisals do not feel the need to maintain their usual level of performance when



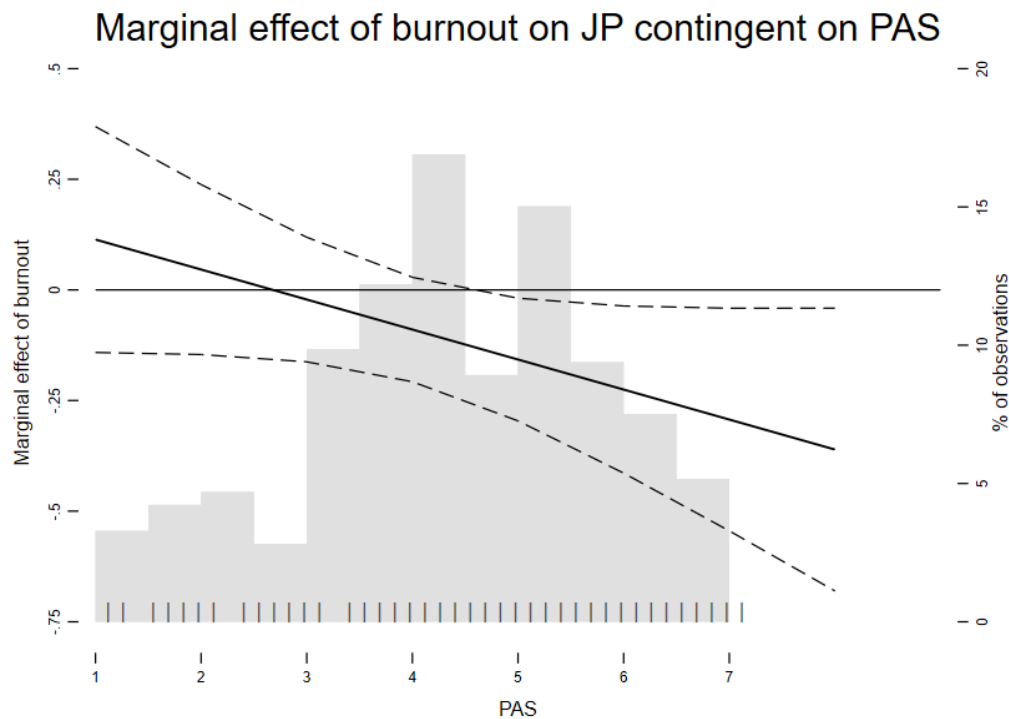
experiencing burnout. It is possible that the recognition faculty members receive from their managers is interpreted as a signal that they are competent and make a positive contribution to their university. Consequently, when experiencing burnout, there is less urgency to maintain their previous level of performance because they believe that any temporary dip in performance will not be looked upon negatively or result in any serious repercussions.

It is possible to use professional coping behaviour to help interpret this pattern. Tummers et al. (2015) state that when those working in academia and other professions in the public sector experience strain, they respond by utilising coping strategies, typically assigning new priorities so that they are better able to alleviate their stress or feel less exhausted. In the event that faculty members believe their appraisals to be affirming and supportive, they may take the decision to allow their performance to decline periodically, safe in the knowledge that they will not suffer any adverse consequences. When an employee receives positive feedback, they may internalise this as a signal that they are competent and trusted, resulting in them responding to burnout by allowing their performance to suffer because they feel no pressure to maintain standards. Therefore, appraisal satisfaction can have a moderating effect whereby the response to burnout is to allow short-term performance to decline.

Importantly, whereas Shanock and Eisenberger (2006) reported that the support of managers is associated with improved job performance, the findings in the current research indicate that this is not always the case when faculty members are experiencing burnout. Rather, when faculty members feel burnt out, their perception of support from management may prompt them to sacrifice short-term productivity in favour of other goals. This helps to demonstrate that the relationship between job performance, burnout and supervisory support is highly complex.

Consequently, in the event that an individual employee is pleased with how their performance appraisal has gone, it could be that positive feedback is interpreted as their superiors recognising their hard work and demonstrating support. Therefore, this individual may feel less pressure to perform to a high standard. Consequently,

Hypothesis 4b is contradicted owing to the fact that burnout's relationship with job performance is moderated by performance appraisal satisfaction in the opposite direction to what had previously been anticipated. Rather than performance appraisal satisfaction alleviating burnout's adverse effects on job performance, it has the effect of exacerbating it. Consequently, satisfaction with the appraisal could result in faculty members allowing their performance to suffer in the event that they experience burnout.

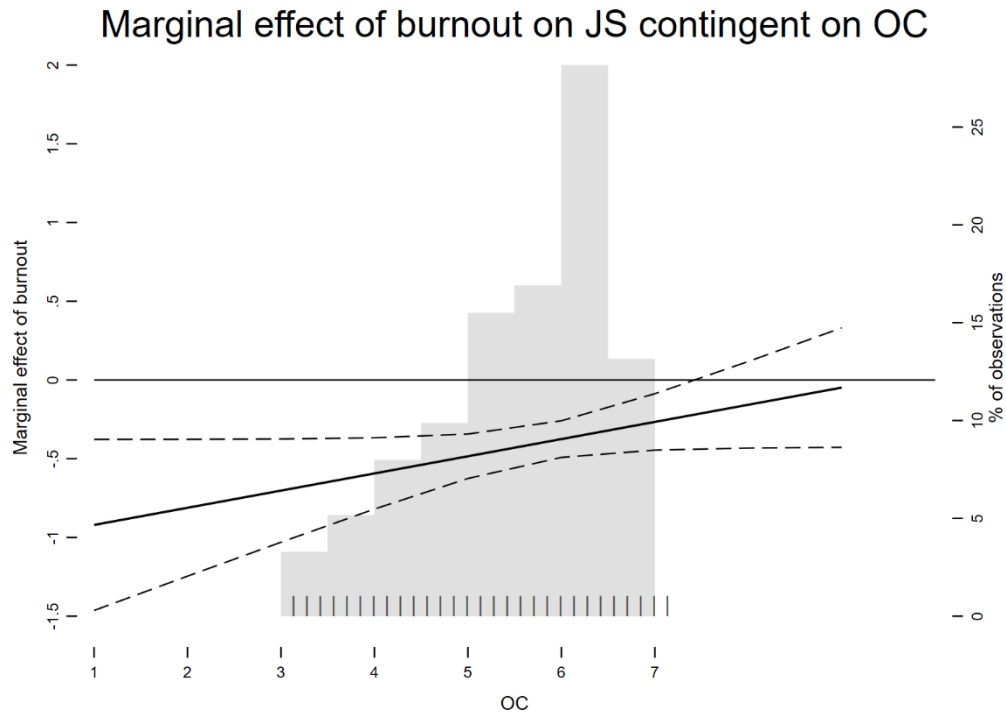


**Figure 6.2:** Burnout's marginal effect on job performance dependent on performance appraisal satisfaction

Table 6.1 highlights that the negative burnout- job satisfaction relationship is significantly positively moderated by organisational commitment ( $\beta=0.109$ ,  $p<0.1$ ). Burnout's marginal effect on job satisfaction dependent on organisational commitment is depicted in Figure 6.3. This illustrates how the burnout- job satisfaction relationship is influenced by the relative degree of organisational commitment. The figure shows that when organisational commitment increases, burnout's negative impact on job satisfaction declines. Although organisational

commitment does not eradicate the negative relationship between burnout and job satisfaction unless the commitment score is beyond the range of the data (approximately 7.4 when the upper confidence interval meets the zero line), it is clear that the burnout- job satisfaction relationship is weaker amongst faculty members with high organisational commitment.

The findings are in accordance with those of Park (2020) who studied employees in the public sector and concluded that organisational commitment is significantly positively related with job satisfaction. Meanwhile, Garland et al. (2014) observed that an increase in affective commitment results in workers being less likely to experience burnout. These findings suggest that when employees are affectively committed to their employing organisation, they tend to identify with that organisation and have a high degree of emotional attachment, thereby helping to ensure that they remain satisfied in their role even if they experience burnout. If employees perceive that there are considerable costs associated with leaving their organisation, they may have an incentive to remain with that employer (Park 2020). Even when they are experiencing burnout, they remain satisfied with their job, thereby resulting in continuance commitment. Meanwhile, employees may experience normative commitment if they feel obliged to remain with their employer (Park 2020) and, if this is the case, they may continue to work even when experiencing burnout due to a sense of duty. The excessive work demands imposed on faculty members at Saudi universities can increase the risk of experiencing burnout. However, if faculty members are committed to their organisation, this could offer some protection against the adverse effects of burnout, thereby enabling them to sustain a high level of job satisfaction and persevere despite the challenges they face. Consequently, Hypothesis 5a is accepted.

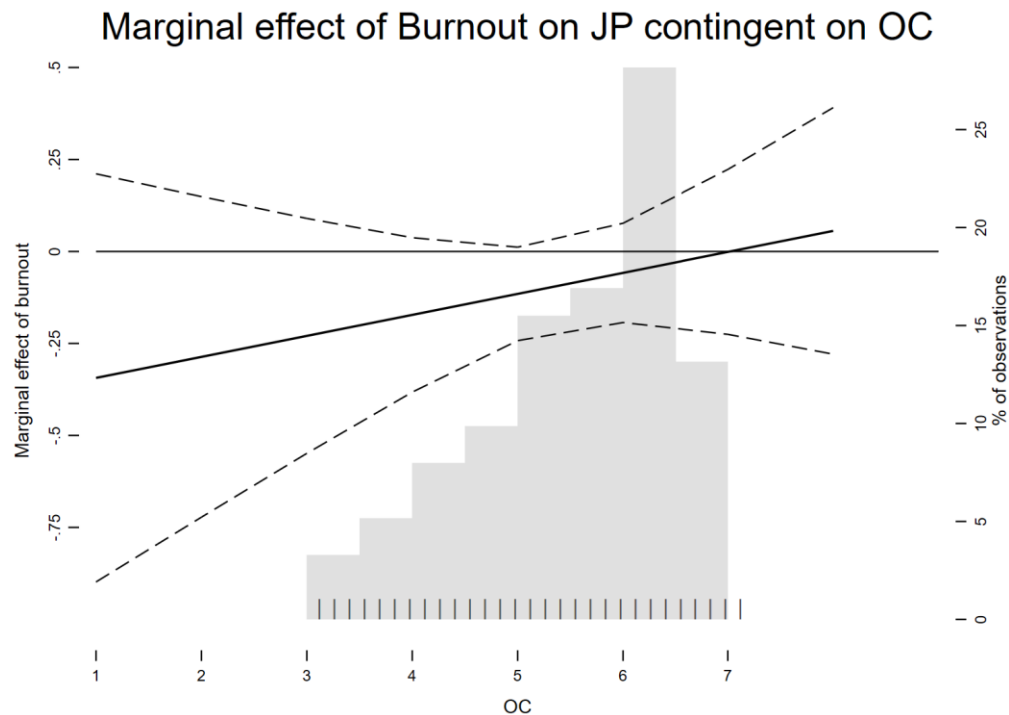


**Figure 6.3:** Burnout's marginal effect on job satisfaction dependent on organisational commitment

With regards to the negative burnout- job performance relationship, Figure 6.4 illustrates that there is no evidence of a significant positive moderation effect for organisational commitment ( $\beta=0.0571$ ,  $p>0.1$ ) because the confidence intervals do not cross the zero line. This finding is in accordance with the argument presented by Hayes (2014) that when two variables are not directly linked, it is unlikely that a third variable will be able to serve as a moderator. In the current research, burnout and job performance are insignificantly related, thereby lending support to the argument of Hayes. Therefore, if there is not a direct relationship between burnout and job performance, this erodes organisational commitment's moderating role and this could theoretically explain this finding.

It could also be that the nature of the work performed by faculty members explains this finding. It is typically the case that faculty members are set baseline performance targets with regards to their administrative duties, research and teaching. This finding is in accordance with what has been reported based on the

qualitative data, indicating that the performance of faculty members can be sustained, not because of their organisational commitment but, rather, because of their professional routine. The qualitative data analysis chapter discusses this issue in greater detail. Therefore, Hypothesis 5b is rejected.



**Figure 6.4:** Burnout's marginal effect on job performance dependent on organisational commitment

#### 6.4 Chapter conclusion

This chapter has established which of the hypotheses regarding the variables in the current study should be accepted and which should be rejected. Whilst there is a significant negative relationship between burnout and job satisfaction, the relationship between burnout and job performance is insignificant. Meanwhile, performance appraisal satisfaction is found to have a significant relationship with job satisfaction but is not significantly positively related to job performance. Furthermore, a significant positive relationship is recorded between organisational commitment and both job satisfaction and job performance.

It has also been established in this chapter that the negative relationship between burnout and job satisfaction is significantly positively moderated by performance appraisal satisfaction. In contrast, the negative burnout- job performance relationship is significantly negatively moderated by performance appraisal satisfaction. Similarly, it has been established that the negative relationship between burnout and job satisfaction is also significantly positively moderated by organisational commitment. However, the negative burnout- job performance relationship is not moderated at all by organisational commitment. The results when testing all of the hypotheses are summarised in Table 6.2.

Having collected and analysed the quantitative data, qualitative data were also collected to provide greater insight into the relationships revealed by the quantitative analysis. It is this qualitative data that are introduced and analysed in the following chapter.

**Table 6.2:** Summary of the hypothesis test results

<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>Hypothesised relationship</b>	<b>Result</b>
H1a	Burnout → Job satisfaction	Accepted
H1b	Burnout → Job performance	Rejected
H2a	Performance appraisal satisfaction → Job satisfaction	Accepted
H2b	Performance appraisal satisfaction → Job performance	Rejected
H3a	Organisational commitment → Job satisfaction	Accepted
H3b	Organisational commitment → Job performance	Accepted
H4a	PAS×BO → Job satisfaction	Accepted
H4b	PAS×BO → Job performance	Rejected (Contradicted)
H5a	OC×BO → Job satisfaction	Accepted
H5b	OC×BO → Job performance	Rejected

## **Chapter 7. Qualitative data analysis**

This chapter analyses burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment based on the qualitative data derived from interviewing the faculty members. It provides details of how the participants were selected, the method for collecting the data and how this was subsequently analysed in the current study. It starts by describing the process for recruiting the faculty members and the use of semi-structured interviews to gather the necessary data. Following this, details of the interviewees are presented. Finally, the chapter explains how the resulting qualitative data were interpreted using thematic analysis.

The findings are presented in terms of five core themes: workload; managerial support; transparency and fairness; weak incentives; and teacher commitment. Each of these themes is examined in turn, offering valuable insight into how they influence the experiences of faculty members at public universities in Saudi Arabia. This process draws upon insight provided by the interviews with the faculty members, thereby helping to provide solid knowledge regarding the study's main areas of focus.

### **7.1 Interview participant selection**

Snowball sampling was applied to select the participants who would be interviewed, thereby ensuring that a sufficient number of diverse faculty members would be taking part. Prior to starting the selection process, however, the Deanship of Graduate Studies and Scientific Research at both universities were contacted to obtain their approval and permission. Emails were sent to the official work email addresses of faculty members setting out the research objectives and reassuring the individuals that if they agreed to participate, they would remain anonymous and their contribution would be entirely confidential. They were also informed that participation was on an entirely voluntary basis and that they would be free to withdraw at any stage in the process.

At the beginning, the intention was to recruit approximately 20 individuals who reflected the diverse characteristics of faculty members in Saudi Arabia, including in terms of gender in light of the segregation policies applied in the country. Interviews

were conducted during the selection drive in an effort to improve the sample's gender balance. In total, 23 interviews were conducted in order to ensure sufficient variety among the sample. Each interview lasted for approximately 45 minutes and, in an attempt to encourage participation, the interviews were conducted remotely via Zoom so as to fit into the busy schedules of the faculty members.

## **7.2 Participants' characteristics**

This section considers the demographic profiles of those taking part in the current study. Various factors are taken into consideration including the gender, level of education, rank, number of years spent working in higher education, the university they work at, their faculty, supervisory responsibilities and number of years spent working in their current position.

Of the 23 participants, a subgroup of nine were female, with 14 of those taking part being male. This is reflective of the prevalence of male faculty members at Saudi universities and reaffirms the gender disparity across all areas of academia in the country (Hakiem 2023). Meanwhile, a variety of academic ranks were represented in the sample including three professors, three associate professors, ten assistant professors, five lecturers and two teaching assistants.

The number of years that the participants had spent working in higher education varied considerably. More specifically, five of those taking part had in excess of 15 years of experience in higher education, whilst ten had 10-15 years of experience, three had 5-10 years of experience, four had 1-5 years of experience and one participant had less than a year of experience. Consequently, this spread suggests that the research is based on insights collected from individuals who have a range of experience, from those who are just starting out in the careers in higher education to those who have considerable experience.

Of the 23 participants, 13 were employed by KAU and the remainder (ten) were employed by PSAU. Drawing upon insights from faculty members working at two different public universities offers a truer reflection of academic work environments in the country. Moreover, the participants were drawn from several different faculties



at these universities, with seven working in social science faculties, 12 in science faculties and four in arts and humanities faculties.

The supervisory responsibilities of the selected sample also differed greatly. For instance, whilst some of the participants served as representatives on a range of departmental committees, others actively participated in administrative work, whilst some were heads of department or deans. Indeed, 14 of the 23 participants had supervisory responsibilities, leaving just nine who did not. Meanwhile, the number of years spent in their current position also differed, with six of those taking part having spent less than one year in their current role, 13 having held their position for 1-5 years, one having spent 5-10 years in that position, two having 10-15 years of experience and just one having been in their current position for in excess of 15 years. Table 7.1: provides details of the participants' respective characteristics

**Table 7.1: Interviewees**

No.	Gender	Level of education	Academic ranking	Years of experience in higher education	University	Department category	Supervisory responsibilities	Years in current position
1	Male	Master's degree	Lecturer	Less than a year	KAU	Social science-based department	No	Less than a year
2	Female	Master's Degree	Lecturer	1 to 5 years	KAU	Social science-based department	Yes	Less than a year
3	Female	Master's degree	Lecturer	1 to 5 years	KAU	Social science-based department	No	1 to 5 years
4	Male	Master's degree	Lecture	10 to 15 years	PSAU	Social science-based department	No	Less than a year
5	Female	Master's Degree	Lecturer	5 to 10 years	KAU	Social science-based department	Yes	Less than a year
6	Female	Master's degree	Teaching assistant	1 to 5 years	KAU	Social science-based department	No	1 to 5 years
7	Female	PhD degree	Assistant professor	10 to 15 years	KAU	Science-based department	Yes	1 to 5 years
8	Male	PhD degree	Professor	More than 15 years	PSAU	Social science-based department	Yes	1 to 5 years
9	Male	PhD degree	Assistant professor	More than 15 years	PSAU	Arts and humanities-based department	No	1 to 5 years

10	Male	PhD degree	Professor	More than 15 years	KAU	Science-based faculty	Yes	1 to 5 years
11	Male	PhD degree	Assistant professor	10 to 15 years	PSAU	Science-based department	No	1 to 5 years
12	Male	PhD degree	Associate professor	5 to 10 years	PSAU	Science-based department	Yes	Less than a year
13	Male	PhD degree	Assistant professor	10 to 15 years	PSAU	Arts and humanities-based department	Yes	1 to 5 years
14	Male	PhD degree	Associate professor	10 to 15 years	PSAU	Science-based department	No	1 to 5 years
15	Male	PhD degree	Professor	10 to 15 years	KAU	Science-based department	No	Less than a year
16	Female	PhD degree	Assistant professor	More than 15 years	KAU	Arts and humanities-based department	Yes	1 to 5 years
17	Male	PhD degree	Associate professor	10 to 15 years	KAU	Science-based department	Yes	1 to 5 years
18	Male	Master's degree	Teaching assistant	5 to 10 years	KAU	Science-based department	No	5 to 10 years
19	Male	PhD degree	Assistant professor	10 to 15 years	KAU	Science-based department	Yes	10 to 15 years
20	Male	PhD degree	Assistant professor	More than 15 years	KAU	Science-based department	Yes	More than 15

21	Female	PhD degree	Assistant professor	1 to 5 years	PSAU	Science-based department	Yes	1 to 5 years
22	Female	PhD degree	Assistant professor	10 to 15 years	PSAU	Arts and humanities-based department	Yes	1 to 5 years
23	Female	PhD degree	Assistant professor	10 to 15 years	PSAU	Science-based department	Yes	10 to 15 years

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### **7.3 Data collection method**

Semi-structured interviews were believed to be most appropriate to collect the data required for the second phase of the research owing to the greater flexibility afforded and the ability to collect the same data from those who are taking part. The decision was taken to record the interviews to improve accuracy and this required the consent of each participant. Direct transcriptions of the recordings were then made for the purpose of analysis, thereby helping to ensure that the qualitative data were as rich as possible.

In accordance with the recommendations of Bell et al. (2022), the questions asked during the interviews were composed in advance and were included in a standard interview protocol (see Appendix G). So as to ensure that the greatest possible insight could be gleaned, all of the interviews were conducted in Arabic. Once the interviews had been transcribed, sections of the responses were translated into English to verify that the codes applied when analysing the responses were in accordance with the research concepts. Bryman (2016) suggests that it is only necessary to use a software program for analysis purposes if the dataset is particularly large. Therefore, the decision was taken to code manually when conducting the data analysis owing to the relatively small number of interviews.

### **7.4 Data analysis strategy**

The data analysis process entailed applying thematic coding to identify key themes based on the responses received from the interviewees. The transcripts of the interviews were reviewed in depth, enabling notable patterns to be identified which formed a series of broad themes. This approach provided a thorough insight into the faculty members' perceptions of burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment, as well as the effect that these factors have on their job satisfaction and job performance. The key themes are presented in Table 7.2, with details of the number of interviewees whose responses reflected each theme.

**Table 7.2:** Areas of focus, key themes and the number of interviewees whose responses reflected each theme

Areas of focus	Key theme	Number of interviewees
<b>Burnout</b>		
	Workload	<b>14</b>
<b>Performance appraisal satisfaction</b>		
	Managerial support	<b>10</b>
	Transparency and fairness	<b>8</b>
	Weak incentives	<b>12</b>
<b>Organisational commitment</b>		
	Teacher commitment	<b>12</b>

Each of these themes are examined in detail in the following sections, providing comprehensive analysis of the insight collected from the research. Extracts from the interviews with faculty members are used to examine each theme, thereby helping to explore the findings in depth.

#### **7.4.1 Workload**

In the previous HRM literature, considerable attention has been paid to workload, especially in the context of the JD-R model. There is widespread recognition of the potential for workload to deplete the available resources, thereby contributing to burnout and stress in the event that appropriate steps are not taken to address it (Bakker et al. 2003). In academic organisations, excessive workloads require faculty members to balance competing demands (i.e., administrative duties, research and lecturing) if they are to avoid suffering negative effects (Kinman 2001). The workload theme considers the perceptions of faculty members regarding workload and the effect it has on burnout. This section considers the responses of the participants with regards to their workloads, paying particular attention to the wide

range of duties they are required to perform and the effect this has not only on their work life but also on their personal life.

Most of the respondents indicated that their heavy workload was a significant contributory factor associated with the sense of burnout. Respondent 19 (Assistant Professor, KAU) noted that the need to continually balance numerous responsibilities soon becomes overwhelming:

*“I have experienced burnout because we have high workloads across all aspects of the job: teaching responsibilities such as preparing and delivering lectures, marking assignments; research duties such as publishing papers; and administrative tasks such as overseeing academic programmes, attending meetings and participating on committees.”*

Also, Respondent 22 (Assistant Professor, PSAU) described the problem as follows:

*“The pressure I face at work is overwhelming because there’s a lot more to it than just presenting lectures. As well as the classes, there are supervision duties, committees to participate on and other departmental duties. There are a lot of things to keep up in the air and this can be very draining.”*

Respondent 23 (Assistant Professor, PSAU) suggested that burnout resulted from the need to complete numerous academic tasks which left faculty members feeling exhausted:

*“Anyone working in academia is faced with multiple tasks: lecturing, research, preparing exams and marking assignments. In addition, it’s necessary to supervise students’ research and offer guidance. Being faced with numerous responsibilities and continual pressures can be a catalyst for burnout.”*

This need to balance several responsibilities at once and the effect it has on burnout has been referred to in the previous literature, with excessive job demands leading to burnout and stress in academic roles (Barkhuizen et al. 2014).

Meanwhile, Respondent 7 (Assistant Professor, KAU) emphasised how the requirement to undertake administrative duties significantly added to their heavy workload:

*“Yes, I think it is because faculty members regularly work extended hours, including at weekends. As the head of the department, I have a lot of administrative duties which add considerably to my workload. Consequently, I find myself working during the holidays and this causes burnout which adversely affects the standard of my teaching and research. When my work prevents me from spending time with my family, this makes me dissatisfied with my job. It is the administrative work that consumes so much of my time and is the cause of burnout because I do not have the time to devote to my teaching and this makes me dissatisfied with my job.”*

These findings are in agreement with those of Teelken (2011) who investigated managerialism in education, revealing that an increase in administrative duties negatively affected faculty members’ capacity to dedicate sufficient time to their main research and lecturing responsibilities. Teelken (2011) noted that the administrative duties of faculty members had increased over time, resulting in them feeling frustrated and unable to dedicate enough time to academic pursuits.

A notable source of burnout was the inability to complete the necessary work within normal office hours. This response was briefly captured by Respondent 17 (Associate Professor, KAU):

*“Yes, I know several faculty members who have experienced burnout, mainly because the work requires them to continue working even when they have returned home at the end of the day. They have too many tasks to perform or follow-up. I have also experienced burnout because the constant pressure to attend meetings, mark assignments and deliver against a timetable sometimes leaves me feeling emotionally drained.”*

Respondent 20 (Assistant Professor, KAU) suggested that a notable source of the burnout they experienced resulted from the pressure to publish research:



*“There is an expectation that we will be able to publish research on a regular basis but our workload does not alter to enable this. I do not know where we’re expected to find the time for research when we have to lecture, supervise students and carry out administrative tasks.”*

Similarly, Respondent 21 (Assistant Professor, PSAU) expressed:

*“There seems to be an assumption that you must be publishing research if you are to be considered for promotion but there is a dearth of institutional support for research. The majority of my day is spent teaching and when I’ve finished my teaching schedule, I don’t have the energy to think about writing up research papers.”*

Faculty members at public universities in Saudi Arabia often find that their days are spent lecturing and performing administrative tasks, leaving little time available to undertake research. This issue is clearly demonstrated by Respondents 20 and 21 who note that time is not built into the work schedule to conduct research. This is not the case in some universities in the West where faculty members are able to take advantage of dedicated research days or adjustments to their teaching loads to enable research to be undertaken (Begley et al. 2014; Szromek and Wolniak 2020). In the absence of such accommodative measures, faculty members at public universities in Saudi Arabia will find it challenging to deliver research as expected, thereby making them more susceptible to experiencing burnout (Szromek and Wolniak 2020). This observation is in accordance with what has previously been reported regarding the pressure that faculty members face because their teaching and administrative tasks leave insufficient time to conduct research, resulting in increased burnout reduced research productivity (Watts and Robertson 2011; Winefield et al. 2013).

Many of the respondents recognised the adverse effects that their excessive workload has on their ability to maintain an appropriate work-life balance. For instance, Respondent 11 (Assistant Professor, PSAU) reflected that:

*“Burnout is not only a problem in my university but it is also a problem that extends throughout academia because there are many faculty members at my university who experience burnout. Not only is there a problem with the work-life balance but the problem is made worse by excessive workloads and the large number of repetitive tasks that people are required to perform. Many people find this scenario overwhelming and when they start to feel burnout, they find it increasingly difficult to do what is being asked of them.”*

Similarly, Respondent 13 (Assistant Professor, PSAU) who previously served as the vice dean observed that administrative duties can have a particularly negative impact on faculty members' personal and professional lives:

*“The experience made me emotionally and psychologically exhausted. I lacked energy and this affected my personal life because I did not have time for anything other than work. These extended periods away from home went on for so long that my wife became mentally ill and at that point, my performance at work deteriorated further. There was no sense of satisfaction in my work and I started to consider applying for teaching positions because that would be preferable to doing administrative work.”*

This supports the findings reported in the literature indicating that burnout contributes to the lack of a positive work-life balance (Boamah et al. 2022). Furthermore, Teelken (2012) reported that faculty members are being required to spend less time on research and lecturing as a result of changing managerial practices. Greater focus is being placed on administrative duties, including compiling thorough reports and complying with standardised procedures. Increasing bureaucracy can prove detrimental to faculty members' well-being because this not only adds to their workload but also leaves them with less time to spend on their academic duties.

Several respondents also referred to issues resulting from a perception that tasks were not distributed equally among the faculty members. For instance, Respondent 2 (Lecturer, KAU) stated:

*“Yes, burnout is a problem in my university and I feel it myself when I have to work outside of normal office hours and continue working when I get home. I put pressure on myself for my work to be perfect and I often prioritise work over my personal life. The root cause of this is the way my colleagues distribute tasks and this makes me dissatisfied with my work.”*

When faced with a workload, the stress experienced will be increased if there is any perception of inequity. Respondent 6 (Teaching Assistant, KAU) reported that their sense of burnout was not helped by being the only teaching-focused faculty member in their department:

*“I work in the Department of Hospital Administration and Health Services where there are just six faculty members. Working as a teaching assistant, I felt burnt out because I had too many duties and demands which made me feel unhappy and upset.”*

Previous research has established that employees are more likely to report feeling burnt out if they believe that tasks are not being allocated fairly (Taris et al. 2001; Smets et al. 2004).

Nevertheless, the interview responses demonstrate how faculty members have been able to effectively mitigate the negative effects of burnout by drawing upon the social support of supervisors, colleagues and family. For instance, Respondent 5 (Lecturer, KAU) remarked that the support offered by their head of department helped to cope with the pressures associated with burnout:

*““Knowing that my supervisor is willing to support me has a huge effect. Even when I have too much work to do, knowing that I can discuss my issues with my supervisor and that my efforts will be recognised greatly reduces any sensation of being burnout.”*

The above statement suggests that faculty members are able to avoid the worst effects of burnout if their supervisors are supportive and understanding. When managers are supportive, this can help to create a workplace in which people feel that their efforts are appreciated.

The positive effect that provides colleagues supports on the ability to cope with burnout was expressed by Respondent 1 (Lecturer, KAU):

*“Among the best elements of working at the university is the feeling that I am part of a team. We support each other and it means so much to know that my colleagues understand what I am going through.”*

Therefore, a collegial atmosphere helps individual workers to better manage their workload, with emotional support being derived from informal networks. When faculty members are able to share their concerns with their fellow workers who know what they are experiencing, this helps to offset the negative effects of burnout.

Respondent 20 (Assistant Professor, KUA) stated that, despite experiencing burnout, they were able to continue performing to a high standard due to the family support:

*“There is certainly an impact on my performance but I am lucky because of the support I receive from my family and that helps to minimise the effect. The emotional support I receive from my family’s encouragement and understanding helps me to cope with stress and remain focused on my goals. It can just be the simple things like having someone who will listen after a tough day or a few words of encouragement when times are hard. The loving support they give helps me to remain productive when burnout strikes.”*

Similarly, Respondent 17 (Associate Professor, KAU) noted that family support can buffer the negative impact of burnout on job performance:

*“Everyone faces difficult times but I am lucky because I have a very supportive family and this helps to reassure me and even comfort me. It is for this reason that my performance at work does not suffer too badly.”*

The above quote demonstrates how faculty members may be able to maintain a good work-life balance if external support is available. Engaging with loved ones helps faculty members to cope with work-related pressures.

From the above responses, it is possible to state that faculty members are able to mitigate the negative effects of burnout with the help of social support. More specifically, they may seek to manage the demands of academia with the help of support from their supervisors, fellow faculty members and their family. These results are in accordance with what has been reported in the previous literature, emphasising the ability of social support to help overcome the adverse effects of burnout (e.g., AbuAlRub 2004; Blanch and Aluja 2012; Velando-Soriano et al. 2020).

Although the majority of the interviewees indicated that extreme workloads are a source of burnout, this opinion was not universally held. Indeed, Respondent 3 (Lecturer, KAU) stated:

*“From my perspective, I am doing my dream job, so I do not feel any symptoms of burnout. I studied for many years and received a master’s degree with the aim of working at this university, so I have a positive outlook on what I do.”*

According to Respondent 3 (Lecturer, KAU), it is possible to avoid experiencing burnout if an individual feels that they are emotionally connected to their role or they believe that it is their dream job. This reflects the findings of Vallerand et al. (2003) who reported that those who have a passion for their job are unlikely to experience negative emotions because they adopt a positive mindset towards their work.

Meanwhile, Respondent 12 (Associate Professor, PSAU) explained that their well-being benefited from working in a supportive environment:

*“From what I can tell, burnout is not a significant problem at the university and I think that academic environments are lovely and supportive because the work essentially involves nothing more than lecturing and conducting research – that is all there is.”*

Furthermore, Respondent 10 (Professor, KAU) suggested that because they worked in a relatively small department, this meant that their workload was more manageable and this helped them to avoid feeling burnt out:

*“My department is very small - with just a few faculty members and a small number of students, so this makes work a lot easier in many ways. For instance, there are fewer grades to assign, there is much less pressure, we have plenty of time available to conduct research, attend workshops and conferences, and engage in activities within and beyond the faculty. Personally, I do not experience burnout and I am quite satisfied in my role.”*

Similarly, Boyd and Wylie (1994) reported that academic staff reported feeling significantly less stressed if their workload was manageable and their department maintained high staff-to-student ratios. They concluded that excessive workloads, especially if this resulted from a low staff-to-student ratio, typically result in faculty members experiencing burnout and high levels of stress. This is reflected in the statement given by Respondent 10 (Professor, KAU), where working in a small department contributed to a better and more manageable workload, whilst also reducing the likelihood of feeling burnt out.

As a result of conducting the interviews, a total of four key findings became apparent. Firstly, faculty members are more likely to experience burnout if they are struggling to juggle an excessive workload which includes administrative duties, lecturing and the pressure to publish research, as well as if there is a perception that workloads are not being equally distributed among the faculty members. Secondly, among the main causes of burnout is having a workload that cannot be completed within normal office hours and, therefore, extends into the faculty members' personal time. Third of these, the social support from supervisors, colleagues and family helps them to cope when experiencing burnout. Fourthly, it is that people benefit when their workloads are manageable and their workplace is supportive and emotionally connected to their role to avoid burnout. Therefore, based on these findings, it is possible to conclude that efforts to moderate burnout should focus on the social support from supervisors, colleagues and family.

#### **7.4.2 Managerial support**

The support of managers has a significant effect on how workers perceive performance appraisals and how satisfied they are in their job (Kumar et al. 2018).

job satisfaction has been shown to improve when managers provide feedback regarding the performance of employees in a timely manner (Kumar et al. 2018). When high-level supervisors offer effective support, this benefits the wider organisational environment, resulting in recognition and achievement which, in turn, benefit job satisfaction and job performance (Kumar et al. 2018). In academia, a good example of managerial support is the guidance that department heads offer faculty members during the performance appraisal process. Indeed, support of this nature has a significant bearing on the perception that faculty members have of their workplace as well as how motivated they are to perform to a high standard, as indicated in the responses to the interview questions.

The importance of managerial support was widely acknowledged in the responses of the faculty members to the interview questions, particularly with regards to constructive feedback, clear communication and being treated with respect. Among the key contributing factors to managerial support is *clear communication* and this was recognised by Respondent 1 (lecturer, KAU):

*“The entire appraisal process really boosted my satisfaction with my job. It is because the process gives me an opportunity to talk about things that are not normally discussed. The conversation during the appraisal gives me the chance to air my concerns, offer opinions and even show off a bit by explaining what I have achieved. It is a real two-way conversation and that fosters a sense of being part of a team and that there is a sense of understanding between me and the head of the department.”*

Similarly, Respondent 19 (Assistant Professor, KAU) acknowledged that the performance appraisal process helped open dialogue which creates a perception of responsiveness and inclusion:

*“Definitely. I like that it gives me an opportunity to talk openly with the head of the department. The result is constructive two-way communication that gives me an opportunity to air my concerns and ask any questions that I have. In that way, I know that my opinions have been taken onboard.”*

Meanwhile, Respondent 23 (Assistant Professor, PSAU) stated that they welcomed the ability to engage in two-way communication during the appraisal process:

*“I work very hard and knowing that these efforts are recognised lets me know that what I am doing is appreciated. Any feeling of achievement and motivation is made all the greater by the fact that the appraisal process is interactive, with two-way discussion and constructive feedback. Positive support enhances job satisfaction because it confirms that my hard work has been recognised.”*

Such insights are in accordance with those reported in the previous literature concerning the importance of communicating clearly during performance appraisals. For instance, Pettijohn et al. (2001b) found that job satisfaction benefits when the appraisal process is well-communicated.

Another factor which contributed to a perception of managerial support is constructive feedback, which helps faculty members to feel that their efforts are recognised, thereby enhancing their sense of satisfaction. For instance, Respondent 3 (Lecturer, KAU) stated how receiving positive feedback as part of the performance appraisal process made them feel that their efforts are valued:

*“When you are told that you are doing a good job and being supported in what you are doing, that makes you feel appreciated and valued and that makes me feel happy when I return to my role.”*

Importantly, Respondent 10 (Professor, KAU) recognised that the provision of constructive feedback encouraged them to perform to a higher standard, as well as enhancing their skills:

*“I will always listen to constructive feedback and that is what I receive in the evaluations, helping me to identify areas for improvement so that I can refine my skillset and perform better in future. Importantly, my efforts to improve myself are helped by the opportunities that the university provides for skill development. Generally, the appraisal process enhances my job satisfaction*



*and this, in turn, improves my job performance by motivating me to do the best I can.”*

This statement mirrors what was reported by Rasheed et al. (2015) and Jawaher (2006), who noted that job satisfaction and job performance benefit from constructive feedback.

A further aspect of managerial support that faculty members found to be helpful was being spoken to in a respectful tone. For instance, Respondent 5 (Lecturer, KAU) emphasised the value of feedback being provided in a supportive and respectful manner:

*“The head of the department measures faculty members’ performance and this is all done in a friendly manner. I am satisfied with performance appraising because the head of the department makes clear comments and they talk to me in a respectful manner.”*

Similarly, Respondent 6 (Teaching Assistant, KAU) noted the benefits of the department head adopting a respectful tone during the appraisal process:

*“I feel genuinely supported during the appraisals because of the fact that the head speaks to me respectfully and this creates a positive environment and I feel happy with my job.”*

It is apparent from the responses given above that open communication, constructive feedback and a respectful tone all contribute to the perception of managerial support which, in turn, influences the job satisfaction and job performance of faculty members.

However, some of the respondents emphasised the importance of motivation driving personal initiative, with Respondent 15 (Professor, KAU) suggesting that their performance appraisal was unnecessary because they are motivation driving personal initiative:

*“The appraisal does not deliver any real benefits such as opening up opportunities for training or even providing feedback or constructive criticism. Luckily, I have always been self-motivated to improve my performance, so I’ve enrolled myself on many workshops and courses that have helped me to acquire new skills and improve my performance.”*

However, such opinions favouring motivation driving personal initiative represent a small minority of senior staff because most of the responses showed a preference for regular feedback. Nevertheless, perceptions regarding the benefits of managerial support clearly differ markedly. Indeed, senior faculty members are more likely to favour motivation driving personal initiative, possibly because they have confidence in their ability to oversee their personal development. Consequently, it may be that they seek out their own opportunities rather than relying on the support of their managers.

Conversely, junior faculty members are more likely to be willing to draw upon the insight and guidance offered by their managers. For instance, they will typically rely on managers to help them make informed decisions, enhance their performance and explain what is expected of them. During the early stages of their careers, they are also more likely to rely on constructive feedback to ensure they are delivering at the expected standard and also to develop professionally. Regular support and feedback are welcomed in the early years of their career whilst they are still developing their confidence but as they become more experienced, they are able to operate more independently.

Despite the above, a few of the interviewees indicated that the managerial support they received was insufficient. More specifically, some faculty members stated that they received poor communication and developmental feedback during their appraisals. Indeed, there were several references to feeling disengaged. Respondent 4 (Lecturer, PSAU) stated that any issues will be magnified if it is not possible to communicate with the head of the department on a regular basis:

*“It is difficult to feel valued and appreciated when I have so little contact with the department head. Therefore, this all combines to undermine my overall job satisfaction because I’m putting the effort in but it isn’t being acknowledged.”*

It is apparent from this statement that Respondent 4 (Lecturer, PSAU) felt undervalued because of the lack of dialogue and feedback. It is possible that employees will believe that the contribution they are making is going unnoticed if they do not engage in regular communication, potentially having a negative effect on their *job satisfaction*.

Respondent 4 (Lecturer, PSAU) also noted that the appraisal process was undermined by the urgency to have the appraisal forms signed, rather than engaging in a full and honest discussion:

*“You also get the sense that there is a rush to get the performance appraisal forms signed without fully discussing the findings, all of which further undermines the credibility of the process. If people are to be motivated, they require constructive and professional feedback, otherwise productivity will suffer.”*

Similarly, Respondent 9 (Assistant Professor, PSAU) expressed that the appraisal process operated on the basis of one-way communication:

*“It is a one-way system, so there is no opportunity for faculty members to offer their opinions. Let me make that clear. Faculty members can’t engage in dialogue, so it feels as though the appraisal process is unclear”*

Some faculty members indicated that a lack of meaningful dialogue during the appraisal process adversely affected their motivation and left them feeling disengaged. If faculty members were unable to discuss their performance, they were likely to consider the entire process to be unproductive. A few of the respondents expressed concerns about a lack of developmental feedback. For instance, Respondent 16 (Assistant Professor, KAU) stated that their perception of

the appraisal process was adversely affected by the failure to initiate a development plan:

*“There is no two-way communication. They require me to state if I submitted the stuff and, in return, I receive a figure between one and one hundred and that is where the process ends... what is needed is a clear development plan.”*

Meanwhile, Respondent 15 (Professor, KAU) recognised that receiving feedback that lacks detail makes it more challenging to single out ways to improve in future:

*“The evaluation does not deliver any real benefits such as opening up opportunities for training or even providing feedback or constructive criticism.”*

From the above responses, a few of the faculty members felt that the appraisal process lacked support and left them feeling disengaged owing to the absence of meaningful dialogue, developmental feedback and clear communication.

Therefore, the interviews offered three core findings. The first of these is that the faculty members' satisfaction with the performance appraisal process is heavily influenced by managers communicating effectively, providing constructive feedback and adopting a respectful tone. Secondly, satisfaction with the performance appraisal process is undermined if faculty members do not receive meaningful feedback. Thirdly, those holding senior positions are significantly more likely to be motivation driving personal initiative, thereby indicating the potential to deliver enhanced performance.

#### **7.4.3 Transparency and fairness**

Performance appraisal satisfaction is much-improved when the process is perceived to be fair and transparent. Indeed, these two factors are consistently identified in the HRM literature as being significant contributors to appraisals being trusted and accepted (Muhammad et al. 2025). The process is transparent if performance standards are clearly communicated so that employees are aware of the criteria being applied in their assessments. Meanwhile, in order for the process to be fair, it

should be unbiased and objective (Krats and Brown 2013). Collectively, these two factors significantly influence the confidence that employees have in performance appraisals. Therefore, this section sets out to establish the perceptions of faculty members in Saudi universities regarding how fair and transparent their performance appraisals are, paying particular attention to both their positive and negative experiences.

According to Pettijohn et al. (2001a), in order for performance appraisals to be considered transparent, they should clearly specify how performance is being evaluated and communicate the criteria and standards as clearly as possible. Clarity helps to demonstrate that the process is based on objective measures that are easily understood and this gives employees confidence that they will be treated fairly. Indeed, Pettijohn et al. (2001a) directly link transparency to perceived fairness. Similarly, Cawley et al. (1998) state that if employees consider performance appraisals to be fair and transparent, they are more likely to be satisfied with the appraisal process. Notably, this helps to develop respect and trust in other aspects of the organisation. Warokka et al. (2012) also conclude that employees are more likely to trust the outcome of performance appraisals (e.g., feedback, performance ratings or plans for the future) if they believe them to be fair and transparent, even if the results are somewhat negative. This is supported by Subekti (2021) studied a state-owned enterprise, the findings indicated that employees are more likely to be satisfied with their job if clearly communicated appraisals serve as a means of recognising good performance and identifying candidates who will be promoted. Consequently, an individual works in the public sector, they are more inclined to express satisfaction if their appraisals are perceived to have meaning and are allied to their expectations. Hence, this emphasises the need for appraisals to be fair and clear. However, if the process lacks transparency, this can result in employees being dissatisfied and confused, particularly if the criteria used to assess performance have not been disclosed.

Several of the interviewees emphasised the need for performance appraisals to be fair and transparent. For instance, Respondent 10 (Professor, KAU) welcomed the

fact that the appraisal process in their department was fair and transparent, with the performance criteria having been clearly explained:

*“The appraisals measure various criteria, so I am satisfied with them. For instance, they consider not only lecturing but also an individual’s general behaviour, as well as their contribution to university and community services. I think that the entire process is fair and I receive detailed results which help me to feel content in my job.”*

Because the performance measures were clearly stated, this fostered a sense of satisfaction with the entire process and provided confidence that the findings would be reliable. The need for the appraisal standards to be clearly explained to ensure that the process is fair was also expressed by Respondent 19 (Assistant Professor, KAU):

*“The standards applied in my department to assess service, research and the commitment to lecturing are clearly explained.”*

Based on the above quotes, it appears that faculty members have greater faith in appraisal outcomes when the performance criteria and what is expected of them have been clearly defined. Similarly, the process is more likely to be considered fair if the performance criteria are transparent, as Respondent 20 (Assistant Professor, KAU) stated:

*“There is an assessment framework that’s used to measure performance. It takes lots of factors into consideration, such as the effectiveness of the teaching, whether lectures are delivered on time, engagement with students and attendance at work. It also considers the academic advice that’s offered and the efforts made to mentor the students. I believe that it’s fair and comprehensive.”*

Respondent 20 (Assistant Professor, KAU) believed that there was widespread trust in the system because of the structured approach adopted in their department which accounts for all of the possible responsibilities. Similarly, Respondent 12 (Associate

Professor, PSAU) recognised the need for the appraisal process to be fair and transparent:

*“Yes, I am primarily satisfied with performance appraisal because the system ensures that if individuals receive a poor result, they are entitled to a full and clear explanation. Your appraisal result will be satisfactory or better provided that you conduct research, present the lectures you are required to give, avoid receiving complaints from students and your students achieve good grades. The system is transparent and fair, so there is every reason to feel reassured.”*

From these responses, it is apparent that trust in the system is fostered by being transparent and applying the criteria in a consistent manner so that the faculty members feel that they have been fairly appraised.

Notably, several faculty members stated that they regarded the process to be more transparent if they were able to take an active role in the appraisal. For instance, Respondent 11 (Assistant Professor, PSAU) suggested that because they had personally been able to offer their input regarding which performance indicators to apply, this gave them the sense that the entire process was fair and transparent:

*“I am satisfied with performance appraisal, partly because I was involved in the process of deciding the weightings assigned to each of the assessment indicators. For instance, it used to be the case that a high weighting was assigned to administrative duties but the primary task of faculty members is teaching, not administrative tasks. Therefore, I argued that some of the performance indicators needed to be adjusted, so now I’m satisfied with the process and I trust that the system is fair. Also, the ability to object gives me a sense that I am respected and valued. Therefore, the entire process is transparent, so this benefits my job satisfaction because I know that my contributions to the department will be accurately recorded and acknowledged.”*

Because they had been actively involved in designing the appraisal process, this particular respondent trusted the system and believed that their appraisals were unbiased. Conversely, a few of the faculty members stated that a lack of clarity regarding the appraisal criteria left them feeling dissatisfied with the appraisal process. Moreover, they believed that the appraisal process failed to reflect the reality of what their jobs entailed. For instance, Respondent 4 (Lecturer, PSAU) stated:

*“The entire appraisal process lacks credibility and that leaves me with a sense of frustration because I know that it is unfair. Even the assessment criteria are illogical because they assess my adherence to office hours yet do not give me an office; they assess me on my participation on committees and in activities that I have never even heard of. The criteria against which I’m being assessed are often unrelated to the actual circumstances of my job and the entire process leaves me with a sense that I am not valued within the university.”*

From this response, it is apparent that trust in the appraisal process can suffer if there is a lack of transparency and the appraisal criteria are mismatched. If this is the case, then faculty members are likely to become frustrated. Meanwhile, Respondent 9 (Assistant Professor, PSAU) stressed the need to include faculty members in the appraisal process if their satisfaction is to be maintained:

*“Faculty members can not engage in dialogue, so it feels as though the appraisal process is unfair and unclear; I think this is the biggest problem. We cannot participate in setting the rubric titles or standards. For instance, last year one of the elements was commitment to academic guidance but we had not had a workshop explaining what was required of us as academic advisors.”*

Both of these respondents believed that their lack of involvement in the appraisal process and the failure to clarify the criteria left them feeling disconnected and



disempowered. This contrasts starkly with the experiences of those who actively participated in transparent appraisal processes.

Based on the responses received from the faculty members, it is possible to identify four main findings with regards to transparency and fairness. The first of these is that faculty members are more likely to be satisfied with the performance appraisal process if the performance criteria are clearly stated. Secondly, faculty members are more likely to consider the performance appraisal process to be fair if there is a comprehensive and organised appraisal framework addressing all of the responsibilities of faculty members, including administrative duties, research, lecturing and community activities. Thirdly, if faculty members play an active role in helping to select the performance indicators, they are more likely to take ownership of the process and, in turn, regard the process to be fair. Finally, if faculty members are unable to engage in decision-making processes and the appraisal criteria are not transparent, they are likely to become dissatisfied and confused because there is a disconnect between themselves and the appraisal system.

Therefore, it would appear that in order for performance appraisals to be perceived as fair, they should be transparent, clearly state the criteria being applied and welcome input from faculty members.

#### **7.4.4 Weak incentives**

Faculty members frequently identified the lack of tangible rewards or consequences as a notable limitation associated with performance appraisals. In the absence of strong incentives, it is unlikely that performance appraisals will deliver accountability, recognition or developmental opportunities. This observation is indicative of the criticism of appraisal systems frequently made in the HRM literature that in the absence of tangible motivators, appraisal systems fail to benefit job satisfaction and job performance (Dutta et al. 2021). Appraisals that do not have consequences or offer rewards are significantly less effective, resulting in dissatisfied faculty members and no change in performance (Sułkowski et al. 2020). This section reflects on the perceptions of faculty members regarding the ineffective

incentives associated with performance appraisals and how this affects job satisfaction and job performance.

Several faculty members indicated that because good performance went unrecognised in their department, this left them feeling upset. For instance, Respondent 19 (Assistant Professor, KAU) stated that they felt dissatisfied because their efforts were not formally acknowledged:

*“If there are two people and the first performs excellently and receives a score of one hundred, whilst a second person underperforms and receives a score of twenty, there is not mechanism for rewarding good performance. The efforts of the first person will go unappreciated and this is wrong. There needs to be a mechanism for recognising and rewarding good performance”*

From this statement, it is apparent that no distinction is made between those who perform well and those who underperform after the appraisal. Understandably, this can result in certain faculty members feeling demotivated if their efforts go unrecognised.

Similarly, Respondent 5 (Lecturer, KAU) suggested that the lack of accountability meant that it was unlikely that being satisfied with the performance appraisal process could have a beneficial effect on performance:

*“There is not really any great urgency to improve my performance because I know that when the next appraisal comes round, there will not be any consequences if I fall short of expectations. In that sense, there is no pressure for me at work. I would not go out of my way to make an extra effort and this lack of accountability means that whether or not I am satisfied with the appraisals does not really affect how I do my job.”*

Therefore, it appears that if there are no consequences associated with the appraisal outcome, it is unlikely that being satisfied with the performance appraisal process will be sufficient to bring about a change in performance.

The responses gathered in the current study indicate that performance appraisals will be unable to alter performance unless good performance is rewarded (e.g., by offering a certificate) or there are consequences for poor performance (e.g., being excluded from leadership positions). Most of the faculty members stated that the absence of accountability and a reward system meant that appraisals were unlikely to bring about improvements in performance.

One of the faculty members believed the performance appraisal process to be no more than administrative, this belief was also reflected by Respondent 21 (Assistant Professor, PSAU) who suggested that the effect of the appraisal process was weakened by the perception that it was no more than a routine exercise:

*“The entire process is simply routine, with no rewards for good performance or penalties for poor performance, so I have no incentive to work harder in future.”*

From this statement, it is apparent that the faculty members are likely to lack the motivation to improve their performance when the appraisal process becomes overly standardised and there are no incentives or consequences tied to the appraisal outcome.

A few faculty members stated that it was, Respondent 13 (Assistant Professor, PSAU) also identified factors other than the appraisal process among the factors that inspire them to perform to a high standard. More specifically, they recognised that research opportunities to realise their full potential were the main reasons with regards to lecturing:

*“I do not think there is a direct relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and job performance. The criteria are clearly set out and they’re really quite easy to achieve, so I draw my motivation at work from other aspects of the role such as seeing my students succeed and pursuing research opportunities... Consequently, it is these external factors that have the greatest influence on the quality of my teaching and not the thought of an appraisal later in the year. With regards to research, what motivates me is the*

*support received from the university coupled with my personal desire to see my work published. The appraisal process acknowledges the research that I publish but that does not spur me on to conduct more research.”*

From this, it can be seen that faculty members are motivated to perform by job-related opportunities, including the ability to undertake research.

Based on the above discussion, it is possible to identify three main findings with regards to the lack of incentives. The first of these is that faculty members will become dissatisfied if good performance goes unrecognised and there are no meaningful rewards for good performance or consequences for poor performance. Such a situation leaves employees feeling that their hard work is not being appreciated. Secondly, the ability of appraisals to bring about meaningful change was effectively undermined by the fact that most of the faculty members regarded the process to be merely a formality and a routine practice that is incapable of delivering a shift in performance. Finally, job-related opportunities is one of the most important factors that help improve faculty members' performance rather than incentives.

#### **7.4.5 Teacher commitment**

A notable theme that helps to understand faculty members' organisational commitment is teacher commitment. The teacher commitment theme relates to the faculty members' emotional loyalty and passion for the universities they work at. There is extensive reference to teacher commitment in the HRM literature, typically relating it to faculty members' commitment to their roles, organisations and students (Firestone and Pennell 1993). Vigoda-Gadot et al. (2013) make the case that many of those working in the public sector are more committed and more highly engaged if they feel emotionally attached to the organisation they work for and share its values and goals. Examples of the factors and experiences influencing teacher commitment are provided in the following quotes. Some of the faculty members state that they are sense of loyalty and commitment to their universities, while others refer to a passion for teaching or describe how their personal history has given them a deep-rooted personal connection to their institution, thereby resulting

in a sense of loyalty and organisational commitment. Therefore, it is apparent that teacher commitment, contributing towards job satisfaction and job performance in various ways.

Several of the faculty members stated that their sense of loyalty and commitment to their universities. For instance, Respondent 1 (Lecturer, KAU) stated:

*“My love of teaching makes me commitment to my department and the university. I am a loyal person and this means that I am also committed to the curriculum, I am committed to working the hours that I am told to work and I feel a sense of self-commitment. I have a genuine passion to teach and doing my job makes me happy.”*

From the above statement, it can be seen that having a passion for teaching makes it more likely that faculty members will share the values of their university and also be highly loyal and commitment. This was the opinion of Respondent 16 (Assistant Professor, KAU) who emphasized that their love of teaching meant they would not want to work in any other profession:

*“I really enjoy what I do and I cannot imagine working anywhere but this department in this university in future.”*

In addition, Respondent 14 (Associate Professor, PSAU) indicates that they identify with their university and that they are highly loyal, thereby demonstrating how the connections and identity of faculty members contribute towards their organisational commitment:

*“Being present and actively engaging makes others aware that I’m a dedicated leader and I think my colleagues value that. Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University is at the heart of my career and it’s part of my professional identity, so I’m very loyal. I want to continue working here for many years and be part of the university’s success.”*

From the above statement, it is apparent that this faculty member identifies with their university and feels a strong sense of loyalty, indicating that the organisational commitment of faculty members is influenced by their alignment with the goals of

their institution. The respondent refers to their contribution to the success of their institution, thereby indicating that their organisational commitment is closely associated with their professional identity, enhancing their loyalty and attachment to the university.

In much the same way, Respondent 15 (Professor, KAU) states that their loyalty contributes towards their commitment:

*"I certainly do. There is a real feeling that I belong and I am very loyal to the university. It's because of these feelings that I always try by very best to perform my duties to the best of my ability, even if nobody is watching what I do. Whenever possible, I work to the highest possible standards whether I am lecturing, conducting research or engaging in community activities"*

It is apparent from the above statement that organisational commitment benefits from a sense of belonging because the respondent is more dedicated to fulfilling their professional duties because they are loyal. They are strongly connected to their institution and engage proactively in their job, thereby helping to realise the goals of their university.

Meanwhile, Respondent 2 (Lecturer, KAU) stressed that organisational commitment is bolstered by a shared history:

*"Yes, I do commitment to my university and loyal as well. This shows in my attendance at work, my dedication to returning marked assignments on time, the care and support I show my students, and my attendance at departmental meetings. Importantly, I also feel a sense of emotional commitment because this is the university where I studied for my bachelor's and master's degrees. My love of teaching and my dedication to doing the best for my students is a major motivation and that benefits my performance, my productivity and how satisfied I am at work."*

Transforming from being a student to a faculty member at the same university appears to create a deep-rooted sense of organisational commitment and this response was also expressed by Respondent 3 (Lecturer, KAU):

*“I’m passionate about teaching and I received my degree from this university, so I suppose that makes me emotionally committed.”*

In the event that a faculty member previously studied at the same university that they currently work for, there is a distinct possibility that they will feel a strong commitment to the university, promoting feelings of loyalty in the contributions they make to the university’s success.

Respondent 7 (Assistant Professor, KAU) expanded on this perception of organisational commitment:

*“I do because I know that I belong here; I was born to teach. As soon as I was awarded my bachelor’s degree, I was appointed as a teaching assistant. I then went on to be awarded my master’s and PhD by the same university: King Abdulaziz university. For this reason, I am emotionally committed to the university and I feel very loyal. I also have a genuine interest in seeing my department and the wider university develop in the coming years. It is this desire that drives me on to take on additional duties such as administrative work and participating in committees”*

Similarly, Respondent 17 (Associate Professor, KAU) stated:

*“Yes, I do; to both. This is evident from my dedication to my colleagues; the way we work together and support each other; the time I spend marking assignments so that they are ready on time; the encouragement I give to my students; the committees and activities I give my time to; and the fact that I’m always available to present my lectures when they are timetabled. I obtained my bachelor’s degree from this university, so I think that enhances my loyalty and this feeling makes me happy and motivated to perform to the best of my abilities.”*

When faculty members feel sense of commitment to their university, this benefits their teaching but it also makes them more inclined to become actively involved in helping their institution to develop, including by undertaking administrative tasks and

sitting on committees. It is apparent that Respondent 13 (Assistant Professor, PSAU) shares a similar commitment to the university:

*“There is an emotional attachment to the university because when problems or issues are identified within the department, we all band together to resolve them. This creates a sense of commitment and when I can see the students acquiring knowledge and progressing academically, that makes me satisfied. Teaching is a passion and I’m always striving to improve.”*

From the above statement, it is apparent that their professional dedication derives from their firm sense of loyalty. This respondent considers the challenges faced by their department to be their own personal responsibility and they state that they find it satisfying to help their students, both of which are practical examples of the organisational commitment. They are keen to improve performance and this is in accordance with the values of their institution, thereby bolstering their organisational commitment.

Meanwhile, Respondent 19 (Assistant Professor, KAU) expresses their organisational commitment to make a positive contribution to their university as well as the pride they have in their work:

*“I show my commitment by working all of the hours I am asked to. I respect my colleagues and I take pride in being a faculty member. I try hard to be the best I can and contribute to the department whenever possible.”*

The above statement indicates that this respondent is professionally and emotionally aligned with their institution, demonstrating how the pride they take in their work enhances their organisational commitment.

Respondent 10 (Professor, KAU) noted that the support received from their institution enhanced their organisational commitment:

*“I am deeply committed. I love teaching, so I am committed to giving all of my students the best possible opportunity to succeed and develop their skills... I want to continue working in the department and this is partly because of the encouragement I have received and the sharing of ideas, all of which*



*contributes towards a feeling of contentment in my work. As you are aware, King Abdulaziz University is research-focused and this support for researchers helps to enhance my performance.”*

It is apparent from this response that both professional dedication and loyalty benefit from a supportive workplace, thereby enhancing the attachment faculty members feel to their institution. When individuals are encouraged, they are more likely to report higher levels of organisational commitment.

Indeed, Respondent 22 (Assistant Professor, PSAU) is so attached to their department that they consider it to be like a “second home” because the support offered by colleagues is alike to that of a family:

*“I really do. I say it all the time to my colleagues: I consider this the department to be like a second home. Everyone here is like a member of a giant family, all helping each other to thrive both personally and professionally. It is this sense of commitment that makes me prepare fully for every lecture, attend meetings, actively engage in departmental activities and mentor my students. This family feeling is really cemented when we organise social activities outside of work hours. It’s a real community and our close bonds provide a feeling of mutual support that makes us all feel a close connection to each other.”*

When faculty members feel a sense that they belong, they become more loyal and committed, but they also benefit from the support of their colleagues and this can be the support they require to truly flourish in their jobs.

Whereas numerous statements made during the interviews demonstrate that the faculty members’ sense of loyalty and commitment to the university result in a sense of organisational commitment, it is apparent that some of the faculty members derive their commitment from management practices and practical considerations. For example, Respondent 6 (Teaching Assistant, KAU) adopts a somewhat realistic perspective:

*“I feel a sense of commitment but not loyalty. I am committed to doing a good job for the department, doing everything that’s expected of me such as turning up on time, attending meetings, participating in committees and giving all of my lectures when they are scheduled. However, there is not really any sense of loyalty because this is simply a government job.”*

In this instance, the faculty member does not feel a true attachment to their university and their commitment is the result of their job security. A similar belief is shared by Respondent 18 (Teaching Assistant, KAU):

*“I am committed because this is the only job I have and I do not have any other job to go to.”*

It is apparent from the above statement that the organisational commitment of some faculty members may come from the lack of alternative job opportunities.

Furthermore, a faculty member’s sense of commitment can be negatively influenced by factors such as burnout. Respondent 4 (Lecturer, PSAU) explained that they had struggled to connect with their university:

*“Yes and no. In a strange way, I feel committed to the university but also a lack of commitment. I suffer from burnout and that undermines my commitment to the university... The flip side of that, however, is that it’s very rewarding when students express a desire to take my classes. They are really enthusiastic and that makes me committed to doing the best that I can to help them, the department and the wider university. Burnout undermines my commitment but the genuine eagerness to learn that I see in the students means that I’m committed to doing my best for them.”*

The above statement indicates that student engagement can enhance organisational commitment despite experiencing burnout.

Meanwhile, Respondent 9 (Assistant Professor, PSAU) noted the ability of management practices to undermine their sense of loyalty:

*“Not to the university but I am still committed to my students and I am determined to ensuring they receive the best possible support and*

*education... Therefore, whilst I certainly feel frustrated about the evaluation system and certain other aspects of the role, I remain steadfastly committed to my students and that is what drives me to continue making the effort needed. Nevertheless, the injustice of the appraisal process and the lack of transparency means that I no longer trust the university and there is no loyalty any more.”*

This is clear evidence of how being dissatisfied with management practices can influence organisational commitment. This contrasts sharply with those faculty members who stated that their sense of commitment to their university.

From the above analysis, it is apparent that two notable insights have emerged. The first of these is that sense of loyalty and commitment influence their organisational commitment. The faculty members indicated that their sense of connection is governed by various factors including their dedication to teaching, shared history with the university and their loyalty. Faculty members' sense of responsibility and belonging both benefit if the institutional environment is positive and this encourages them to actively engage in mentoring, teaching and the development of their institution. Secondly, organisational commitment is influenced by management practices and practical considerations. A few of the respondents stated that their sense of organisational commitment benefited from limited alternatives and job security. In contrast, organisational commitment could be undermined by burnout and lack of transparency.

## **7.5 Chapter conclusion**

The qualitative findings which emerged from the interviews with 23 faculty members have been presented in this chapter. Snowball sampling provided insight from a wide range of experiences, paying particular attention to gender balance and other notable characteristics. In total, five main themes emerged which reflected the professional issues encountered by those working at Saudi universities: workload, managerial support; transparency and fairness, weak incentives and teacher commitment.

It is apparent that there is a close relationship between burnout and workload because numerous faculty members stated that their burnout was made worse by their heavy research, lecturing and administrative duties. Meanwhile, satisfaction with performance appraisal was found to be associated with managerial support, transparency and fairness. Faculty members were appreciative of being treated fairly, receiving constructive feedback and being able to communicate clearly, but they were roundly dissatisfied with the absence of meaningful incentives or consequences. Finally, the loyalty and commitment to the university, as well as the faculty members' practical considerations were reflected in teacher commitment and this was related to their broader organisational commitment

The detailed interviews have provided valuable insights into the experiences of the faculty members as well as the challenges that they face. Crucially, these opinions complement the quantitative data to provide a deeper interpretation of the roles that burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment play in Saudi public universities.

The final chapter discusses and interprets the research findings. In addition to clarifying the contributions made by the current research, the associated limitations are identified and suggestions are offered for those conducting research in this area in future.

## **Chapter 8. Discussion and conclusion**

Burnout is a notable concern throughout the public sector but it is maybe a more serious concern in universities due to the fact that the efficacy of employees and their well-being has a significant effect on service quality. The research presented here suggests that faculty members working at Saudi universities are subjected to excessive administrative duties, heavy teaching schedules and continuous demands to publish research, all of which have the ability to trigger burnout and negatively affect the quality of their output. Therefore, if the public sector is to maintain high standards of quality, efforts must be made to minimise the level of burnout.

The current research considers the possibility of public sector employers drawing upon organisational commitment and performance appraisal satisfaction to minimise the adverse effects of burnout. To test this proposition, the JD-R model was applied to establish how public universities are able to make use of the available resources to mitigate burnout and support their employees. This perspective was complemented by incorporating the AMO framework so as to explain why it is that even when faculty members are subjected to strain, they continue to maintain their job performance. Whereas JD-R is able to provide insight into how the demands-resources balance affects job satisfaction and performance, AMO is concerned with how an individual's ability, motivation, and opportunities affect how they perform their job. The combined application of these frameworks is therefore able to better explain how the job satisfaction and performance of faculty members are influenced by the practices of their university.

The results based on the survey and interview data from faculty members at Saudi universities help to clarify the dynamics of burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment. Among the most notable observations to emerge is that burnout is negatively related to job satisfaction but is unrelated to job performance. Similarly, performance appraisal satisfaction is positively related to job satisfaction but has no bearing on job performance. Critically, performance appraisal satisfaction positively moderates the relationship between burnout and job

satisfaction but negatively moderates the relationship between burnout and job performance. The results also indicate that the burnout- job satisfaction relationship is significantly positively moderated by organisational commitment, demonstrating its ability to effectively buffer burnout's negative impact on job satisfaction, although it has no effect on the burnout- job performance relationship.

Based on the quantitative and qualitative data obtained, the study hypotheses are largely accepted. The insight gleaned from the qualitative data provided a better explanation of the various factors responsible for the identified relationships. For instance, whereas the quantitative data suggested that there is a negative relationship between burnout and job satisfaction, the qualitative data indicated that excessive workloads were significantly related to dissatisfaction. Whilst the relationship between burnout and job performance was insignificant, the insight provided by the qualitative data suggested that faculty members were able to sustain a high level of performance even when experiencing burnout because of the social support from supervisors, colleagues and family. Moreover, insights regarding fairness, transparency and managerial support helped to confirm the significant positive relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and job satisfaction. Meanwhile, performance appraisal satisfaction insignificant relationship with job performance was explained by weak incentives. Finally, the qualitative data lent further support to organisational commitment's positive relationship with both job satisfaction and job performance, revealing the particular importance of teacher commitment.

The contributions made by the current research are both empirical and theoretical, applying the AMO framework and JD-R model to public universities in Saudi Arabia. The research demonstrates how context-specific job demands (workload) and resources (performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment) influence the satisfaction and performance of faculty members. Furthermore, the research provides insight into the ability of performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment to serve as buffers helping to mitigate burnout's adverse effects within organisations. Efforts to better understand work demands and the availability of resources influence job satisfaction and performance were assisted by

the application of the JD-R model. Meanwhile, the impact that ability, motivation, and opportunity have on the performance of faculty members was explored by employing the AMO framework. This application of two theories ensures that the research addresses the various gaps identified in the previous literature whilst also applying the AMO framework and JD-R model in an academic setting that has thus far been overlooked by the previous literature. Both quantitative and qualitative data are combined in a mixed methods approach to investigate the details of faculty members' experiences of burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment. The previous research has primarily focused on developments in Asia and the West, so the current study provides much-needed insight into perspectives in Arab countries.

This concluding chapter provides a thorough discussion of the findings and considers the practical implications and theoretical contributions. Initially, the findings are discussed with reference to the research questions set out in Chapter One. Subsequently, the practical implications are considered, alongside the contributions that the current research has made to the existing body of knowledge. Finally, the limitations associated with the current research are identified and recommendations are made for those conducting research into this topic in future.

## **8.1 Discussion of the research results**

This section sets out to answer the stated research questions with reference to the associated theoretical frameworks and the previous literature. The various research questions are addressed in turn, drawing upon the relevant quantitative and qualitative findings to help better understand how job satisfaction and job performance are influenced by burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment. This is achieved by relating the findings to the AMO framework and JD-R model.

### **8.1.1 What is the relationship between burnout and employee outcomes in the Saudi public sector?**

It is apparent from the quantitative analysis that has been conducted that the negative burnout-satisfaction relationship is significant, whereas the negative

burnout- job performance relationship is insignificant. This contributes to the existing body of research which has consistently indicated that job satisfaction suffers as a result of burnout, whereas the relationship between burnout and job performance is more complex.

The findings regarding the burnout- job satisfaction relationship reported in the current study are broadly in accordance with those of the empirical literature. For instance, Dolan (1987) concluded that there was a correlation between nurses experiencing burnout and reduced levels of job satisfaction. Similarly, when studying a sample of teachers, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2009) found that burnout had an adverse effect on their job satisfaction. Accordingly, the previous findings indicate that job satisfaction suffers as a result of burnout across a range of professions because the combination of psychological and emotional pressures affect people's satisfaction.

Additional insight is provided by the qualitative findings reported here. The current research examines a relationship that has been extensively studied in the empirical literature: that academics are susceptible to burnout when faced with heavy workloads. Workloads were identified as the single biggest contributor towards burnout. More specifically, many faculty members reported that they suffered as a result of extended working hours, excessive administrative duties, a poor work-life balance and the pressure to meet targets for publishing research. These findings are in agreement with those reported in the previous literature. For example, when studying a sample of teachers working in Turkish schools, Sari (2004) found that a lack of support and long work hours contributed to feelings of burnout which, in turn, negatively affected their job satisfaction. Meanwhile, Ninaus et al. (2021) concluded that information and communication technology stressors are the sense of being 'always on' because of the need to respond to messages in a timely manner, whenever they are received, which increases burnout because of the negative effect on employees' work-life balance, thereby leaving them less satisfied with their job. The current research makes a valuable contribution by demonstrating that the same dynamics can be found in public universities in Saudi Arabia, which have been largely overlooked by the empirical literature.



Previous research concerning street-level bureaucracy has extensively documented this dynamic. There is an expectation that street-level bureaucrats will prioritise the interests of their community rather than their personal interests (Lipsky 2010), frequently reporting feeling burnt out and dissatisfied with their job owing to their motivation being eroded by onerous work demands and insufficient resources (Uluturk et al. 2023; Sciepura and Linos 2024). It is typically the case that street-level bureaucrats find their work to be emotionally draining, thereby making it more likely that they will report feeling burnt out and less likely that they will be satisfied in their role. (Maslach and Leiter 2016).

Such an outlook suggests that the findings of the street-level bureaucracy literature are relevant to academia because if faculty members are expected to deliver excessive workloads and operate with insufficient support, they will be susceptible to feeling burnt out.

Consequently, it can be seen that a lack of support and excessive workloads in various professional fields have an association with a greater incidence of burnout which, in turn, has a relationship with reduced job satisfaction. This lends weight to the established understanding that when a poor work-life balance and heavy workloads result in burnout, this adversely affects job satisfaction, nonetheless of the prevailing organisational, policy, and cultural conditions. Based on the evidence, it can therefore be concluded that burnout is associated with worse job satisfaction among faculty members at the two public universities in Saudi Arabia.

Whilst burnout was found to significantly negatively affect job satisfaction, the current research finds that its relationship with job performance is insignificant. Therefore, the performance of faculty members does not appear to suffer if they experience burnout. Similar findings have been reported in other fields, with Rughoobur-Seetah (2023) reporting that those working in the Mauritian service sector in casinos, bars, restaurants, hotels, banks and retail shops continued to perform to a high standard despite experiencing burnout. Rughoobur-Seetah's (2023) findings indicate that performance can be maintained even when employees experience burnout, demonstrating the remarkable ability of people to continue to

meet expectations when experiencing considerable strain. According to Rughoobur-Seetah (2023), the ability to maintain high levels of performance reflects the exchange between employees and their organisation because a desire to retain their employment and preserve job security means that they will continue to perform despite experiencing burnout. Similar conclusions have been reached in the current research. Even when experiencing the negative effects of burnout, employees continue to perform to a high standard, possibly because of a sense of commitment, in an attempt to preserve job stability. With regards to faculty members at Saudi universities, this could reflect a type of adaptive behaviour whereby their commitment to their job effectively mitigates the negative consequences of burnout. Crucially, it has been possible to add considerable depth to the quantitative findings regarding burnout's effect on job performance by drawing upon the insight provided by the qualitative data.

The qualitative findings strongly suggest that the ability to continue performing to a high standard when experiencing burnout is the result of the social support from supervisors, colleagues and family. Collectively, the findings suggest the need for organisations to ensure that the workplace is highly supportive from the social support from supervisors, colleagues and family. so that members of staff are able to continue performing to a high standard, even when experiencing burnout.

Therefore, these findings lend weight to the results reported in the current study: that faculty members working at two public universities in Saudi Arabia draw upon their social support from supervisors, colleagues and family to continue performing to a high standard even when they experience burnout.

However, there are a considerable number of previous studies which report that job performance is significantly negatively related to burnout. Among these is the research of Karatepe and Uludag (2008) which concluded that the performance of frontline hotel staff working in Northern Cyprus suffered as a result of the stress brought on by burnout. Similarly, Gomes et al. (2022) reported a negative relationship between burnout and job performance when studying data for police officers in Portugal.

Based on the qualitative insight provided by the faculty members, they were able to cope with the negative effect that burnout has on their job performance because they are receiving social support from supervisors, colleagues and family.

The current research supports the JD-R model, indicating that support from various parties and other job resources are able to mitigate burnout's adverse effects. The findings in the current study suggest that the support of family, colleagues, and supervisors is sufficient to maintain a high level of job performance but incapable of ensuring that job satisfaction is sustained. The responses indicated that whilst support systems helped faculty members to perform their duties, excessive workloads eroded their job satisfaction and resulted in them feeling burnt out.

The JD-R model can be used to explain how burnout can be mitigated by social support but AMO framework helps to distinguish between job satisfaction and performance. Firstly, social support enabled the faculty members to continue performing their duties despite the issues encountered. Secondly, because the faculty members were able to perform their duties, this meant that opportunity was preserved. Rather, it was their motivation that suffered because their work conditions, lack of recognition, and excessive workload resulted in them feeling disengaged. This explains why it was that faculty members were able to perform their duties as expected yet reported a lack of job satisfaction: the opportunity and ability were there but they lacked the motivation, thereby leaving them feeling unfulfilled when at work.

Whilst AMO framework and the JD-R model are able to account for a significant proportion of the behaviour observed, it is distinctly possible that they fail to truly capture faculty members' values-driven and informal strategies to maintain a high level of performance. It is possible to provide further insight from the previous research concerning street-level bureaucracy. Previous studies have shown that teachers and other frontline public service workers with demanding roles and insufficient resources use a combination of coping mechanisms, informal rules, and discretionary judgement in an attempt to cope (Tummers et al. 2015). Instead of providing an indication of motivation or formal support, these responses typically

reflect the need to continue delivering the service and the individual's professional values. In the current research, these responses demonstrate how performance levels were maintained when it would otherwise have been anticipated that performance would suffer as a result of burnout. It is possible that performance is maintained as a result of adaptive professionalism stemming from identity-based commitment to students, informal problem-solving, and discretion. Professional behaviour such as this in Saudi Arabia is likely to be influenced by the prevailing culture of respect and responsibility to society (Alrashedi 2024). It may well be that the ability of faculty members to continue performing to a high standard when faced with burnout is attributable to such values.

### **8.1.2 What is the relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and employee outcomes in the Saudi public sector?**

The quantitative results from the current study indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and job satisfaction within Saudi public universities. This supports the findings of the previous literature which emphasises how job satisfaction benefits from performance appraisal satisfaction. For instance, Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) studied a sample of municipal government employees in the USA and concluded that the usefulness, accuracy and timeliness of performance appraisals, as well as the associated feedback mechanisms explain why performance appraisal satisfaction is positively related to job satisfaction. More specifically, they noted that these factors determine perceptions of how fair the appraisal process is and this, in turn, influences job satisfaction. Meanwhile, Jawahar (2006) studied a not-for-profit service organisation in the USA and reported a significant positive relationship between satisfaction with performance appraisal feedback and job satisfaction. This implies that workers are more likely to consider that their standing within the organisation is positive and also that they have greater self-worth if they are satisfied with their performance appraisal feedback and this benefits their job satisfaction.

Furthermore, Krats and Brown (2013) studied unionised workers in a North American mining company and concluded that there is a significant positive

relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and job satisfaction. They stated that when workers are satisfied with the appraisal process, they believe that it promotes career development, offers recognition, encourages feedback, clarifies any misunderstandings regarding performance, develops confidence between workers and leaders, reveals strengths and weaknesses, and ensures mutual understanding of effective performance. Such features help to ensure that appraisal systems foster a workplace that is supportive, thereby benefiting job satisfaction.

Therefore, this relationship is relevant in the context of public universities in Saudi Arabia because the qualitative data showed that faculty members recognise the benefit of appraisals that offer constructive feedback, adopt a respectful tone, are well-communicated, transparent and fair because this reflects in their job satisfaction.

The qualitative data also revealed that faculty members considered managerial support to involve having supportive supervisors, being treated respectfully, being given constructive feedback and being well informed regarding how they would be evaluated. Meanwhile, they based their judgement of fairness and transparency in the workplace on factors such as the ability to help shape performance indicators, having a detailed and well-structured assessment framework and having performance criteria that are clear and understood. The faculty members stated that their sense of satisfaction was collectively based on the factors of managerial support, transparency and fairness. Notably, these observations reflect what has previously been reported in the empirical literature (Jawahar 2006; Krats and Brown 2013).

In contrast to job satisfaction, it was found that, quantitatively, the relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and job performance was insignificant. This is in accordance with the findings reported in the empirical literature. Kuvass (2006) analysed data for employees at small Norwegian savings banks, revealing that performance appraisal satisfaction was insignificantly related to job performance. It is possible that a combination of the work environment, external limitations, skills and individual qualities determine job performance, and that these

reduce performance appraisal satisfaction impact on task-related outcomes. Much like the findings of Kuvass (2006), a variety of factors may affect job performance in academia, exerting a greater impact than merely being satisfied with the appraisal process. It is possible that faculty members redouble their efforts to fulfil their obligations because of a sense of professional duty, irrespective of the opinions they hold about their performance appraisal. The findings of this research are in accordance with what has been reported in the empirical literature indicating that the job performance of faculty members at public universities in Saudi Arabia is not significantly predicted by performance appraisal satisfaction. Therefore, it can be inferred that this relationship holds in various cultures and institutions.

Alternatively, it may be that the behaviour of academics is able to explain why performance appraisal satisfaction is insignificantly related to job performance. Many faculty members identify strongly with their academic role and it is their internal professional standards that motivate them (Churchman 2006; Hardré and Cox 2009). Most faculty members do not consider their role as a series of duties that will be assessed by their manager. Rather, they perceive an intellectual and ethical responsibility to conduct research, serve their students, and improve society (Brown and Krager 1985). Not only is there a clear sense of duty among faculty members but those working in Saudi Arabia may also be influenced by cultural expectations including being loyal to their university, respecting institutional hierarchy, and being committed to helping their students to thrive (Abu Alswood and Youde 2018). Consequently, the combination of cultural and professional factors could contribute to job performance being sustained, irrespective of their perceptions of the appraisal process. This offers a potential explanation for why the satisfaction of faculty members with the performance appraisal did not affect job performance.

There are a considerable number of previous studies which report that job performance is influenced by performance appraisal satisfaction. Among these is research on workers in public hospitals by Rasheed et al. (2015) which finds that there is a significant positive relationship between being satisfied with the feedback

received and job performance because the feedback is used to improve how people perform.

Rasheed et al.'s (2015) conclusion was unlike that of the current study and one possible explanation for this is the nature of the jobs being examined. It is easier to measure the outcomes of healthcare (patient care metrics) settings, whereas roles in academia entail diverse responsibilities including administrative duties, research and lecturing, thereby making it more challenging to quantify outcomes. For this reason, it may be more challenging for appraisal satisfaction to have a direct impact on the job performance of faculty members. Over time, universities have made greater use of student completion rates, publication counts, and other simple measures of performance (Kallio et al. 2017). However, the respondents in Kallio et al.'s (2017) research suggested that such measures are overly simplistic because they are unable to truly reflect the diverse contribution that faculty members make and they also fail to take the quality of work into consideration. Therefore, the use of such measures makes it less likely that job performance will improve in response to faculty members being satisfied with the performance appraisal.

The qualitative data provide additional insight into the quantitative finding that the relationship between appraisal satisfaction and job performance is insignificant. The interviews suggest that the limited impact on performance was largely linked to the lack of incentives associated with performance appraisals. Given the various responsibilities of faculty members (administrative duties, publishing research and delivering lectures), efforts to sustain performance require recognition and tangible incentives. Whilst faculty members consistently recognised that the performance appraisal process was fair and they welcomed the support of their managers, they expressed concerns about the lack of accountability for poor performance, recognition for good performance and opportunities to develop professionally. Levacic (2009) reported similar findings when studying employees in schools, concluding that in the absence of recognition for good performance and penalties for poor performance, the appraisal process has very limited scope to enhance job performance. Meanwhile, Kasule et al. (2016) reported on the difficulties facing those working at a public university in Uganda in terms of professional development.

More specifically, it was observed that teaching performance was hampered by the lack of opportunities to participate in workshops and establish professional networks. Performance is similarly weakened in Saudi Arabia due to there being insufficient formal development opportunities and a lack of incentives to perform to a high standard.

Therefore, it is apparent from the faculty members' responses that whilst they are satisfied with performance appraisals, this does not have a material impact on how they perform at work. This mirrors the findings in the previous literature which reports that in the absence of recognition for good performance and opportunities to develop professionally, appraisal systems alone are incapable of delivering improved performance.

It may be that this discrepancy results from ethical obligations and professional norms being the main influences governing job performance, rather than formal appraisal methods. According to Evetts (2003), normative values including being morally committed to the work, discretion, and trust form the basis of professionalism. It is often the case that professionals are driven by internalised responsibility and excellence, rather than external rewards or controls. Therefore, even if faculty members are not incentivised to perform by their appraisals, they may continue to perform to a high standard because they want to contribute to the educational sector, preserve the integrity of academia, or out of a sense of duty to their students. This is reflected in the qualitative data collected in the current research because the respondents stated that they strive to maintain a high level of performance irrespective of whether their appraisals have any impact on how their careers progress.

Additional support is provided by street-level bureaucrats. When faced with constrained environments, it is often the case that those working on the frontline in the public sector exercise discretion (Tummers and Bekkers 2014). Rather than being motivated by the expectation of receiving a reward, it is possible that they sustain their service standards because they want to deliver for their customers and serve in a manner that reflects their professional values. It is such values that urge



them to apply coping strategies to negate the burdens, pressures, and ambiguities that they encounter. Furthermore, it is possible that they draw upon internalised professional responsibility to help them maintain a high standard of performance, irrespective of whether or not performance-based incentives are offered.

Overall, these findings support the JD-R model whereby fairness, transparency and the support of management help to buffer against the effects of an excessive workload, thereby exerting a positive influence on job satisfaction.

Nevertheless, the lack of incentives (e.g., recognition for good performance, tangible rewards, opportunities for professional development or punishment for poor performance) mean that there is no improvement in job performance. AMO framework provides further insight into this finding because it suggests that performance is maximised when employees have an opportunity to perform, they have sufficient motivation, and they are able to perform to a high standard. In the current research, whilst the job satisfaction of the faculty members may have benefited from the appraisal process being fair and their efforts being acknowledged, it is apparent that there are numerous limitations regarding the use of the appraisal findings to improve performance. For instance, the failure to provide feedback that would help to develop faculty members' skills could limit their ability. Furthermore, the lack of consequences, recognition, or rewards regarding performance may have undermined their motivation. Finally, the disconnect between the appraisal findings and professional development, workload adjustments, promotions, and other tangible developments may constrain opportunity. Such issues could explain why no discernible performance improvements were observed despite the faculty members being satisfied with the performance appraisal.

### **8.1.3 What is the relationship between organisational commitment and employee outcomes in the Saudi public sector?**

The analysis of the quantitative data indicated that organisational commitment was significantly positively correlated with both job satisfaction and job performance. These findings are in agreement with those reported in the previous literature. For

example, when studying federal government employees in the US, Ting (1997) concluded that a significant determinant of job satisfaction was organisational commitment. This was similarly observed in the current study because the faculty members stated that their commitment to their university contributed to their job satisfaction. Therefore, this adds weight to the belief that employees who are dedicated and feel a sense of loyalty to their organisation are more likely to be satisfied with their job, regardless of the sector in which they operate.

Elçi et al. (2007) studied private sector workers of middle-sized manufacturing organisations in Turkey and concluded that both job satisfaction and job performance were significantly influenced by organisational commitment. Those who reported being highly committed to their organisation were significantly more likely to state that they performed to a high standard and were satisfied in their current role. Likewise, Sholihin and Pike (2009) reported evidence that organisational commitment was positively related to both job performance and job satisfaction when studying those working in the financial services and manufacturing sectors of the UK. Park (2020) also reported a significant positive relationship between organisational commitment and both job performance and job satisfaction when studying public sector workers at the Ministry of Personnel Management in South Korea. A positive organisational commitment - job performance relationship among those working at a Chinese insurance company was also found by Fu and Deshpande (2014). Overall, the existing evidence base supports the findings of the current study and this similarity in the findings in numerous settings suggests that the positive relationships between organisational commitment and both job performance and job satisfaction may be robust across cultures and industrial sectors.

The current research gives weight to the universality of the conclusions whilst also providing insight into the particular situation in Saudi public universities. Therefore, these findings add to the depth of the previous literature and confirm the significant contribution that organisational commitment makes to the job satisfaction and job performance of faculty members in Saudi Arabia.

Additional insight has been provided by the qualitative data which confirm that faculty members are more likely to report higher levels of job satisfaction and job performance if they also have a strong sense of organisational commitment. Looking more closely at the data reveals that this was largely linked to their teacher commitment, which includes being loyal to their university and being committed to lecturing. There were numerous specific factors that faculty members cited as contributing to their organisational commitment and these included a love of teaching, having previously been a student at the same university and being committed to seeing the university develop. Meanwhile, factors cited by the faculty members as contributing to both job satisfaction and job performance included job security, a sense of duty, a sense of belonging, loyalty and identifying personally with the university.

The application of 'hybrid professionalism' enabled the results to be more deeply interpreted (Noordegraaf 2015). The faculty members working at public universities in Saudi Arabia seemingly overlap two distinct logics: a definite professional identity associated with research, teaching and loyalty to their institution; and bureaucracy which places considerable value in managerialism. Those who work in such settings are not merely the defenders of conventional autonomy, rather they respond to the prevailing institutional setting when reconstructing their roles (Noordegraaf 2015).

Such framing is particularly helpful when seeking to explain faculty members' personal histories, how they identify with their organisation, their emotional loyalty and other sources of their commitment revealed by the qualitative investigation. Noordegraaf (2020) refers to such elements as 'connective professionalism,' whereby rather than merely protecting authority, being embedded in organisational and social relations provides a means of continual legitimisation. In the current instance, those working at the universities seek to ensure that their personal identities are aligned with the values of their university to proclaim their professional standing. By doing so, they are able to perform to a high standard and retain elevated satisfaction levels, despite experiencing structural challenges.

In accordance with the JD-R model, the current study recognises the ability of job resources to help protect employees against the negative effects of excessive job demands. It is apparent that organisational commitment is an important job resource in Saudi public universities and one of the key themes associated with organisational commitment is teacher commitment. The organisational commitment of the faculty members is enhanced by their loyalty to their university. Together, this helps the faculty members to overcome the negative effects associated with burnout from excessive job demands so that they are able continue performing to a high standard and maintain their job satisfaction.

Whereas the JD-R model can be used to provide insight into organisational commitment's psychological effect, AMO framework is able to help explain why performance is sustained by organisational commitment. Organisational commitment is able to reflect why individual's sense of duty (a source of motivation) encourages them to exert more effort, a belief in one's capacity to perform as expected, and a workplace that provides an opportunity to make a meaningful contribution. Such aspects of AMO framework can be used to determine the commitment of faculty members to perform to a high standard and remain satisfied with their job when faced with excessive job demands.

#### **8.1.4 Does performance appraisal satisfaction moderate the relationship between burnout and employee outcomes?**

A key question for the current study is whether the burnout-employee outcomes relationship can be moderated by being satisfied with the performance appraisal process. The quantitative data indicated somewhat mixed results regarding this. Whilst the relationship between burnout and job satisfaction was indeed significantly moderated by performance appraisal satisfaction, the same was not true for the relationship between burnout and job performance, where there was a significant negative moderating effect.

Those faculty members who stated that they were satisfied with their performance appraisals were less dissatisfied with their job in the event that they experienced burnout. Further insight into this relationship was provided by the qualitative data

which indicated the importance of managerial support in helping to remain satisfied when feeling burnt out. Even when experiencing burnout, faculty members stated that the knowledge that their managers remained supportive helped to create a sense that they were understood and valued.

This is captured by the following statement by Respondent 17 (Associate Professor, KAU):

“There are times when I experience burnout yet I’m able to stay motivated because the constructive appraisals with my head of department show that they recognise the effort I’m making. Knowing that they value my work enhances my job satisfaction, even when I’m struggling”

Similarly, Respondent 23 (Assistant Professor, PSAU) expressed that their experience of burnout was relieved by the support they received from their manager:

“On occasion, I can feel overwhelmed but I’m able to remain focused on my tasks because my head of department recognises how difficult the situation is and their feedback is always fair” (Respondent 18).

In much the same way, when faculty members believed that what was expected from them had been clearly communicated and that their performance had been assessed fairly, their satisfaction levels remained elevated, even when feeling burnt out. Respondent 20 (Assistant Professor, KAU) was quoted as follows:

“Because I know that the criteria applied in the appraisal are clear and fair, I’m satisfied despite suffering the ill-effects of burnout. I don’t feel stressed because there is full transparency in the appraisals.”

Conversely, the quantitative analysis indicated that performance appraisal satisfaction significantly negatively moderates the burnout- job performance relationship. Notably, the statements provided in the qualitative data help to explain this finding. When faculty members who were satisfied with their performance appraisal experienced burnout, they did not feel the need to sustain their performance. There are several possible explanations for why this is the case. For

instance, the support of managers can be beneficial if they provide emotional support and constructive feedback but an unanticipated consequence may be that faculty members may feel that there is no pressure for them to continue performing to their high standard when faced with burnout. It is possible that faculty members explain the support they receive as a sign that their physical and mental health is more important than their performance. Consequently, when experiencing burnout, they may prioritise their satisfaction at the expense of their performance. Indeed, Respondent 21 (Assistant Professor, PSAU) stated:

“When I’m experiencing burnout and my head of the department is aware of this, I don’t think there’s any pressure to deliver at the usual standard.”

The lack of consequences tied to performance appraisals could also be a contributory factor. When there is limited accountability, there is little incentive for faculty members who are experiencing burnout to try to maintain their performance. Respondent 18 (Teaching Assistant, KAU) stated:

“Working in a supportive environment affords me the scope to prioritise improving my wellbeing because there isn’t the pressure to perform to the best of my abilities whilst feeling burnt out”

Such responses are in accordance with the JD-R model. With regards to job satisfaction, faculty members who are satisfied with their performance appraisal benefit from the support of their manager as well as a sense of transparency and fairness which help to protect against work-based pressures. It is apparent from the qualitative data that managerial support, transparency and fairness are important resources that contribute to the satisfaction of faculty members, even when feeling burnt out.

In contrast, satisfaction with the performance appraisal negatively affects the burnout- job performance relationship. Therefore, whilst faculty members benefit emotionally from the support of their managers, this same support is explained as a signal that they do not need to maintain a high level of performance. This is possibly because they do not predict any negative consequences in the short-term if their performance weakens.

It may previously have been assumed that job performance would benefit if employees are satisfied with the performance appraisal but this finding contradicts that assumption, possibly reflecting insight from the previous research concerning street-level bureaucracy. Much like others working in frontline positions in the public sector, when faculty members experience burnout, they manage competing pressures with discretion (Tummers et al. 2015).

Tummers et al. (2015) offer a description of how discretion is used by street-level bureaucrats to amend or limit service provision at times of heightened demand. This means of coping is termed 'moving away from the client' and serves to sustain their well-being. The manner in which coping is expressed can be affected by the organisational context but the research makes no suggestion that such discretionary acts are supported by management or even that they are aware of them. Similarly, it is not suggested that managers authorise any resulting service reductions. The results of this research could extend the framework by demonstrating that satisfaction with appraisals and the support of managers indicate that the preservation of their well-being is a priority. Therefore, in these cases, organisational leniency and professional trust seemingly prompt the focus to shift away from maintaining performance to prioritising the health of the individual in times of stress.

AMO framework can be used to help explain why it is that job satisfaction benefits from satisfaction with the performance appraisal, but job performance does not. Performance appraisals provide access to resources and tasks (thereby sustaining opportunity), whilst also offering feedback (thereby improving ability) but they do little to motivate the workforce. If there are no consequences or rewards tied to performance, it is possible that faculty members who are satisfied with the performance appraisal will assign greater priority to emotional recovery rather than maintaining output. Therefore, the JD-R model is able to offer an explanation for why job satisfaction benefits from satisfaction with the appraisal despite feeling burnt out, AMO framework helps to clarify why performance continues to suffer.

### **8.1.5 Does organisational commitment moderate the relationship between burnout and employee outcomes?**

The final research question concerns the ability of organisational commitment to moderate the relationship between burnout and employee outcomes. Based on the quantitative analysis, organisational commitment was found to significantly positively moderate the burnout- job satisfaction relationship. When faculty members experience burnout, those who identified as having greater organisational commitment were more likely to report being satisfied in their job.

Another perspective on these findings is provided by the qualitative data. When examining why it is that organisational commitment serves as a buffer against the adverse effects of burnout on job satisfaction, it became clear that a key factor was faculty member commitment. Several of the respondents stated that they continued to be satisfied even when faced with burnout because they were emotionally attached to their organisation.

For instance, Respondent 11 (Assistant Professor, PSAU) stated:

“There are times when my excessive workload leaves me feeling overwhelmed yet I continue to perform to a high standard because of my commitment to my students. Sure, I feel burnt out but I really care about my work and that means that I don’t feel dissatisfied.”

Respondent 1 (Lecturer, KAU) remarked:

“Things certainly become more challenging during periods of burnout but I love what I do and I feel a strong emotional connection to the university, so I’m satisfied.”

Conversely, the quantitative data indicated that the burnout- job performance relationship was not significantly moderated by organisational commitment. In the absence of statistical significance, it is not possible to conclude that organisational commitment is able to meaningfully limit the negative effect that burnout has on job performance.



This finding was supported by the qualitative data. When experiencing burnout, the performance of faculty members is likely to suffer despite their organisational commitment being maintained. For instance, Respondent 23 (Assistant Professor, PSAU) declared:

“My loyalty to the university is clear but my performance suffers when I’m burnt out. Because I’m committed, I’m motivated to perform but the truth is that my results suffer.”

In addition, Respondent 15 (Professor, KAU) averred:

“Performance suffers as a result of burnout but not to a such a severe extent. The necessary tasks are still completed and faculty members remain committed to the university, so they continue to be fully engaged. Deadlines are still met and their duties are fulfilled, irrespective of how tired they may be, and this is because they are highly loyal. What suffers as a result of burnout is their ability to innovate, to be creative and undertake additional tasks. Performance holds up thanks to their commitment but that isn’t to say that there are no negative consequences. Being committed effectively erects a barrier which preserves a minimum standard of performance but burnout does mean that performance is lower than it would otherwise be.”

It is possible to explain these results with reference to the JD-R model.

organisational commitment is a resource, which helps faculty members to remain satisfied with their job, even when experiencing burnout. However, organisational commitment does not appear to be able to mitigate the negative effects of burnout on job performance. When an individual is burnt out, they typically feel physically and mentally exhausted, suffering with tiredness, a loss of focus and insufficient energy. Consequently, even faculty members who are highly committed to their university are likely to struggle to continue performing to their usual standard when feeling burnt out. It is quite possible that they will continue to satisfy their basic duties (e.g., maintaining relations with colleagues and meeting deadlines) but they may become less efficient, less creative and struggle to complete tasks requiring

considerable focus and effort, both of which are known to suffer when experiencing burnout.

The JD-R model is able to offer an explanation for why job satisfaction is maintained by organisational commitment. Meanwhile, AMO framework can be used to interpret why it is that when faced with burnout, organisational commitment is unable to sustain performance. In order to maintain a high level of performance, AMO framework suggests that three elements are required: the opportunity, ability, and motivation. Whilst the faculty members who participated in the current research were committed, the lack of incentives undermined their opportunity to perform, whilst the exhaustion they experienced compromised their ability. Therefore, a minimum level of performance can be sustained as a result of faculty members being committed but this factor is unable to compensate fully for the adverse effect that burnout has on performance when both opportunity and ability are diminished.

## **8.2 Practical implications**

The findings of the current research can be used by policymakers and line managers at universities to improve faculty members' job satisfaction and job performance. The sections that follow suggest a series of targeted policy recommendations that can be applied in universities to promote faculty members' productivity and well-being.

### **8.2.1 Policy implications for university policymakers**

It is apparent from the findings that there is a need for new policies at Saudi public universities to reduce the incidence of burnout amongst faculty members and enhance both job satisfaction and job performance. More specifically, it is advised that strong support systems be introduced to help faculty members better manage their workloads and improve their well-being. Burnout has been shown to have a significant negative effect on job satisfaction, so it is recommended that universities provide suitable tools to help faculty members manage their workloads. According to Záborská et al. (2018), universities should prioritise improvements to administrative support. For instance, this could entail supporting faculty members by recruiting additional personnel to carry out administrative duties. Such an approach

is likely to have the effect of reducing subjective perceptions of excessive workloads, affording faculty members more time to engage in research and lecturing (i.e., their core responsibilities). Meanwhile, Dinibutun (2023) suggests that job satisfaction can be enhanced and burnout mitigated by targeting workload management schemes and taking steps to actively alleviate stress. This too could entail the recruitment of additional administrative staff who could relieve the workload of faculty members, thereby giving them more time to dedicate to their core academic responsibilities.

Furthermore, it is advised that policymakers in universities should take steps to implement developmental appraisal. Kuvaas (2006) recognised the ability of developmental feedback to deliver improvements in job performance. Faculty members are more likely to feel valued and that their efforts have been recognised if they receive constructive feedback on a regular basis and this has been shown to benefit both job satisfaction and job performance. At the same time, it is important to ensure that performance appraisals are carefully balanced so that they recognise faculty members' contributions to their administrative duties, research and teaching. In addition, appraisals should be growth-oriented, providing practical advice regarding how faculty members can improve their lectures, service contributions and research.

Importantly, in the absence of tangible incentives, the research suggests that being satisfied with the performance appraisal is unlikely to bring about a significant improvement in job performance. In recognition of this, universities should take steps to reward good performance in the form of teaching awards, research grants or opportunities for professional development. Significantly, in order to maintain trust in the appraisal process, the provision of these incentives must be transparent and awarded in a consistent manner. Pettijohn et al. (1999) recognised the importance of using rewards to help motivate employees. Moreover, if managers wish to motivate employees and encourage certain organisational goals to be realised, one way in which this can be achieved is to offer appropriate incentives (Coccia 2019).

Furthermore, managers should formally recognise the achievements of faculty members in order to support organisational commitment which has been shown to foster a sense of belonging and being valued. Those whose performance is regarded as outstanding should receive teaching awards because doing so will have the benefit of boosting morale and fostering emotional attachments to the institution. Such initiatives are able to bring about a culture of appreciation, thereby helping to foster organisational commitment and loyalty. For instance, Ramsden and Martin (1996) suggest that a culture of appreciation could be fostered by issuing formal teaching awards.

### **8.2.2 Practical implications for line managers**

It is important to recognise the important role that line managers play in applying policies. It is advisable that managers pursue policies that promote understanding, open communication and constructive feedback. However, this is only possible if there is a trusting and supportive workplace in which faculty members are valued and listened to. As shown in the current study, faculty members are more likely to feel that they are being listened to and that their opinions are valued if feedback sessions are held on a regular basis and such practices contribute towards job satisfaction, even during periods of burnout (Adolfsson et al. 2023). For instance, if appraisees receive constructive feedback which identifies what they are doing well and where they can improve, the appraisal process will become a method for driving personal growth (Rolle and Klingner 2012; Adolfsson et al. 2023).

When seeking to foster a culture of appreciation and recognition, line managers should acknowledge good performance using a combination of formal and informal channels (Zábrodská et al. 2018). For instance, there should be occasions when outperformance is recognised in front of the entire department and other times when a personal note of appreciation is used. When faculty members perceive that their contributions are valued, this will have the effect of boosting confidence, relieving performance-related pressures and reducing the risk of experiencing burnout.

It is also advised that when faculty members are known to be experiencing burnout or they face excessive workloads, line managers should respond by being flexible

with deadlines and targets wherever possible (Kossek et al. 2015). For instance, if duties can be reassigned, this could significantly help to relieve the stress of faculty members who are feeling overburdened. Empathetic managers are better able to foster a departmental culture that is both positive and resilient. Finally, it would be beneficial if faculty members were to become actively involved in decision-making processes. Doing so would help to make faculty members more committed to their organisation, whilst also promoting communication between administrators and faculty members, thereby enhancing the working lives of faculty members and improving the quality of the decisions that are made (Sukirno and Siengthai 2011), with the added benefit of supporting job satisfaction and job performance.

### **8.3 Study contribution**

The current research contributes to the existing knowledge base regarding HRM theory in three notable ways. Firstly, by extending the JD-R model, the study demonstrates how the complex job resources of performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment make faculty members more satisfied when experiencing burnout, albeit they do not improve performance. Secondly, a valuable contribution is made regarding the AMO framework by showing that the failure to provide mechanisms that improve the capabilities of faculty members limits the potential for HR practices to motivate employees. Thirdly, the research adds context by modifying the two frameworks for application in public sector universities in Saudi Arabia, demonstrating how the function and perception of job resources and HR practices are impacted by professional and bureaucratic logics.

The JD-R model has been extensively researched in the previous literature but there has been limited consideration of the contribution made by resources, particularly in the non-Western context. For instance, Adil and Kamal (2019) investigated burnout and work engagement for a sample of faculty members at public universities in Pakistan but the only resource identified was psychological capital, with no consideration that burnout could be mitigated by either performance appraisal satisfaction or organisational commitment. Consequently, this presented an opportunity requiring investigation. Whitsed et al. (2024) studied data for faculty

members working at four public and one private university in Australia, focusing on the impact of team relations and supportive leaders. With a focus on crisis-driven dynamics, Whitsed et al. (2024) made no attempt to consider organisational commitment, performance appraisal satisfaction or other general resources. Separately, Naidoo-Chetty and du Plessis (2021) investigated data for faculty members working at a South African public university, focusing on how the pressure to publish research and the demands placed on their time affected their well-being. Whilst Naidoo-Chetty and du Plessis (2021) were able to establish that adverse demands could effectively be mitigated by autonomy and social support, they overlooked the possibility that organisational commitment or performance appraisal satisfaction could impact job performance and satisfaction.

The results indicate that job satisfaction suffers significantly when burnout is experienced, mainly owing to excessive workloads. This lends weight to JD-R framework's main basis that well-being declines when the available resources are unable to match the demands of the job (Bakker et al. 2014). Be that as it may, job performance does not decline significantly as a result of burnout because faculty members are able to draw upon the support of their families, colleagues, and supervisors, as well as other informal personal resources to fulfil their duties. Whilst this is in accordance with the resource-buffering logic of the JD-R model, it emphasises that faculty members have access to resources other than those derived from formal HR practices. For this reason, the current research distinguishes between formal HRM resources (i.e., satisfaction with appraisals) and informal resources (i.e., family support), thereby providing a more graded indication of why those experiencing burnout are able to continue performing to a high standard. With regards to the AMO framework, such informal resources are of limited theoretical relevance owing to the fact that they do not fall within motivation- or ability-enhancing interventions.

The findings indicate that job satisfaction benefits when faculty members are satisfied with their appraisals, especially when they consider them to be respectful, transparent, and fair. This is in accordance with the JD-R model which suggests that satisfaction with appraisals is a job resource that helps to mitigate the adverse

effects of burnout by promoting support from managers whilst promoting equity. With regards to the AMO framework, this HR practice enhances motivation, fostering perceived fairness as well as recognition (Boxall and Macky 2009), which has the effect of increasing satisfaction. However, job performance does not improve significantly when faculty members are satisfied with their appraisals, thereby emphasising a limitation associated with the AMO framework as well as the JD-R model that job performance cannot be sustained solely by motivational resources. When experiencing burnout, faculty members are appreciative of appraisals that are supportive and fair but there remains a lack of accountability, feedback, and incentives. Therefore, unless motivation-enhancing practices are combined with opportunity- or ability-enhancing mechanisms (e.g., rewards linked to performance or training), the associated benefits will be limited. Bos-Nehles et al. (2013) make the case that while opportunity and motivation have a modest impact on performance, by far the most important factor determining performance is ability. If appraisal systems are to have any impact on performance, they will need to be entrenched in wider support structures. This indicates that if the two models are to accurately reflect the real-world effects of high-strain workplaces, they need to be refined.

In much the same way, both job performance and satisfaction respond positively to organisational commitment. Those who stated that they were more committed to their university were more willing to maintain standards when experiencing burnout, more likely to identify with their university's goals, and demonstrate a stronger sense of responsibility. This is in accordance with the JD-R model in which faculty members draw upon organisational commitment to sustain job performance and satisfaction when faced with onerous job demands. With regards to the AMO framework, motivation is enhanced by organisational commitment because those who are loyal to their university maintain high levels of job performance and satisfaction, irrespective of the demands they face. Therefore, this suggests that organisational commitment serves as a source of motivation as well as a resource.

The findings also indicate that the burnout-job satisfaction relationship is moderated by performance appraisal satisfaction. Therefore, the adverse effects of burnout are

reduced when individuals are satisfied with their appraisals. This observation lends weight to the JD-R model because being satisfied with appraisals serves as a resource buffering the negative effects of burnout. With regards to the AMO framework, satisfaction is maintained when experiencing burnout as a result of HR practices that enhance motivation through transparency, fairness, and the support of managers. In contrast, the burnout-job performance relationship is negatively moderated by performance appraisal satisfaction. Therefore, when faculty members whose managers are supportive experience elevated levels of burnout, they will be inclined to make less effort because they do not anticipate any negative consequences from doing so. This observation contrasts with what is assumed by the JD-R model that all resources help to improve performance. The finding infers that faculty members who feel supported may respond to burnout by letting their performance slip because they feel there is no expectation for output to be prioritised. With regards to the AMO framework, this demonstrates a limitation associated with motivation-enhancing HR practices when reinforcing mechanisms (e.g., performance consequences, accountability, and incentives) are not in place. In the absence of such mechanisms, appraisals that are perceived to be respectful and fair may be interpreted as a sign that when faced with burnout, performance can be allowed to slip. This is in accordance with what Frant (1996) reported regarding weak incentives for those working in the public sector.

The findings indicate that the burnout-job satisfaction relationship is moderated by organisational commitment. This is in accordance with the JD-R model which suggests that the adverse effects of burnout are buffered by commitment. Faculty members who experienced burnout sustained their level of satisfaction if they were more committed to their university. In contrast, the burnout-job performance relationship was not moderated by organisational commitment. Irrespective of whether or not faculty members were committed to their organisation, performance suffered when they lost focus, their energy levels were running low or they experienced fatigue. This finding contradicts what both the JD-R model and AMO framework assume because commitment does not protect against a loss of performance. The AMO framework also assumes that motivation benefits from



commitment but this is insufficient to counteract the lack of practices to improve ability (e.g., recovery time or changes to workloads). In the absence of such support, even highly committed faculty members experience a loss of performance, suggesting that when working under considerable strain, practices to enhance motivation are insufficient. Consequently, these models need to be refined to reflect the situation faced when working under excessive demands.

Finally, the research reveals that both models have a notable resource gap. Crucially, practices that could improve motivation (e.g., consequences linked to performance, accountability, recognition, and incentives) are lacking. Being satisfied with appraisals enhances job satisfaction as a result of the support of managers and perceptions of fairness but it fails to deliver an improvement in job performance, thereby demonstrating that motivation alone should not be relied upon.

Furthermore, the results indicate that there is another gap associated with practices designed to improve workers' capabilities. Performance suffered when faculty members experienced burnout, irrespective of whether or not they were committed to their university. Therefore, this suggests that recovery time, relief from excessive workloads, efforts to develop skills, and other complementary supports are needed because motivation alone is insufficient. With regards to the AMO framework, this indicates the need for mechanisms intended to improve individuals' capabilities and motivation to be aligned. Regarding the JD-R model, it suggests that organisational commitment, performance appraisal satisfaction, and other job resources are possibly insufficient to sustain job performance when faced with a heightened level of burnout. This observation lends weight to the argument that HR design and resource provision in universities require a highly systematic approach. Integrating these frameworks establishes a strong theoretical basis to better understand how the interaction between commitment, appraisal satisfaction, and burnout affect the outcomes of faculty members, providing a model that other researchers can apply in organisations that are similarly constrained.

The contributions made by the current study are not only theoretical but also empirical. For instance, the research applied a mixed-methods approach to investigate the effects of burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and

organisational commitment on faculty members at public universities in Saudi Arabia. The complicated relationships between these variables, as well as their effects on job satisfaction and job performance, have been examined with the use of both quantitative and qualitative data. The insight afforded by the mixed-methods design was more detailed than would have been possible if relying on either quantitative or qualitative data in isolation.

The previous literature concerning employee satisfaction and performance had overlooked Arab countries and, therefore, the current study's focus on public universities in Saudi Arabia presents a second empirical contribution. Indeed, the previous literature was overwhelmingly dominated by studies using Asian or Western data. Therefore, the current study makes a significant contribution to the existing body of knowledge concerning HRM by providing insight into the experiences of faculty members in Saudi Arabia with regards to burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The third and final empirical contribution is that the current study was the first to consider the ability of performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment to moderate the burnout-employee outcome relationship.

#### **8.4 Limitations of the study**

When explaining the findings of a research study, it is important to be aware of the associated limitations. A notable methodological limitation associated with the current research was the choice of a cross-sectional design. Although cross-sectional designs are capable of identifying associations between the selected variables, they only offer a 'snapshot' of the opinions of faculty members at a particular moment in time. Therefore, this approach does not provide insight into how the relationships between these variables evolve over time. Consequently, this affects how the findings can be interpreted. For example, it is quite possible that the nature or strength of the observed relationships will vary if analysed longitudinally over time. In addition, it may be possible to more robustly demonstrate causality between the variables if applying a longitudinal design. It is also important to note that the failure to include certain variables (e.g., intrinsic motivation and work-life

balance) poses a limitation because such factors could exert significant influence on job satisfaction and job performance. These variables were not measured in the survey owing to the need to ensure that the survey instrument remained manageable and focused, given the time and resource constraints associated with carrying out the research. The decision was taken to focus on burnout, performance evaluation satisfaction and organisational commitment because these variables have been widely acknowledged in the empirical literature as influencing employee outcomes. Nevertheless, it is advised that future research should be conducted over an extended period of time and examine how other potentially important factors (e.g., intrinsic motivation and work-life balance) interact with policies and processes in the workplace to better understand job satisfaction and job performance. A further limitation is that the size and scope of the sample limit the ability to generalise the findings. All of the data utilised in the current study derived from just two public universities in Saudi Arabia, thereby making it less likely that the findings could be generalised to universities either elsewhere in Saudi Arabia or in other countries. There is considerable diversity in Saudi Arabia's higher education institutions in terms of their size and the courses they offer. Consequently, the opportunities and challenges facing faculty members at other universities may not be reflected in the data used for the current study.

Furthermore, owing to the fact that the research was only undertaken in Saudi public universities, it is not easy to determine if the results (especially those concerning job performance) are disproportionately influenced by the national context or the more narrow dynamics associated with the university sector. It is quite possible that the findings have been shaped by Saudi education policy, the country's institutional governance and culture. The current research applied instruments that had been adapted by rewording well-established scales. No attempt was made to conduct confirmatory factor analysis, albeit that EFA was undertaken to analyse the structure of the items that had been adapted. On this basis, it is not possible to fully confirm the measures' construct validity, thereby limiting the strength of the findings arrived at using this data.

Whilst it was established that there was an insignificant association between gender and job satisfaction, it is advisable to interpret this finding with caution. Given that the research was undertaken in Saudi Arabia, it is necessary to acknowledge that the effect gender has on job perceptions is likely to be influenced by the country's employment structures and sociocultural norms. It is possible that such contextual factors could obscure or mitigate gender's influence in a manner that has not been identified when using the quantitative data. Omitting PSM was a further limitation associated with the research because it may have been an important explanatory factor. It is known that PSM is pertinent to public universities yet the current research focused exclusively on burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment. The failure to include PSM could prevent differences in performance and satisfaction from being explained. Finally, the current research considered performance appraisal satisfaction as a standalone construct. Therefore, alternative HR practices which have previously been investigated in the literature were not included. Whilst focusing on performance appraisal satisfaction is appropriate in this context because HR practices typically lack consistency and are fragmented in public universities in Saudi Arabia, it has the effect of constraining the ability to generalise the findings to settings where HRM practices are more integrated. More specifically, this approach fails to acknowledge the possibility that performance appraisal satisfaction affects recognition, promotion, training, and other HR practices, which could collectively affect performance and satisfaction in organisations that are managed in a more systematic manner.

### **8.5 Directions for future research**

There are several recommendations that can be made for those conducting research in this area in future. Firstly, whilst longitudinal research is both more expensive and time-consuming to conduct, it is recommended that future studies adopt this approach in order to explicitly identify causal links. It would also be important to replicate the research in alternative timeframes and settings using a longitudinal approach to address burnout (Skaalvik and Skaalvik 2009; Chen et al. 2012; Hur et al. 2015; Corbeanu et al. 2023), performance appraisal satisfaction (Ellickson and Logsdon 2002; Kuvaas 2006) and organisational commitment (Ting

1997; Elçi et al. 2007; Saridakis et al. 2020). Secondly, it is recommended that researchers should consider incorporating intrinsic motivation and work-life balance into the JD-R model. It is believed that such variables are particularly appropriate in this context where excessive workloads can cause burnout and affect faculty members' home lives. The insight provided by examining the work-life balance could help to establish how faculty members go about managing the heavy demands placed upon them, possibly explaining how the negative effects of burnout are mitigated. In addition, intrinsic motivation could help to refine the explanation of how faculty members' passion for their jobs helps to buffer against burnout. Thirdly, it is recommended that future researchers should garner the opinions of faculty members at universities across a larger geographical area and extend the institutional scope beyond public universities so as to increase the generalisability of the findings. Doing so would make it possible to achieve a more detailed understanding of how resources, regional differences and other contextual factors affect the experiences of faculty members. Fourthly, to ensure that the adapted or revised instruments' validity is strengthened, it is advised that future researchers should apply confirmatory factor analysis in a structural equation modelling framework. This would help to ensure the accurate measurement of the constructs, in addition to confirming the factor structure. Fifthly, it is advised that future researchers investigate if gender's insignificant relationship with job satisfaction is also observed in other cultures and countries. Comparative studies could be used to clarify if this finding is specific to the Saudi context or is applicable to all higher education systems. Sixthly, it would be advantageous to establish whether PSM serves as a mediator or moderator in burnout's relationship with both job satisfaction and performance. Although the current research investigated burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction, and organisational commitment, the decision was taken not to incorporate PSM although it was known to be relevant to those employed by public universities. PSM reflects the willingness of people to make a positive contribution to society (Perry and Wise 1990) and could affect how faculty members experience work-related stressors and respond to them. For example, it may be the case that faculty members who exhibit heightened levels of PSM are

more committed to their job or better able to tolerate burnout. Examining the ability of PSM to buffer against the adverse effects of burnout (moderator) or explain how burnout affects outcomes (mediator) could help to better understand why faculty members working at public universities behave in the way they do. Such research could also make a valuable contribution to the wider HRM literature in the context of public service. Finally, it is recommended that a more integrated approach should be applied in future research by investigating the interaction between performance appraisal satisfaction and other HR practices (e.g., training, recognition, and professional development). Doing so would help to better understand the factors contributing towards high-performance work systems, emphasising the synergistic effects of various mutually reinforcing HR practices. Examining systems-based frameworks and the outcomes of faculty members could help to establish whether supportive human resource mechanisms benefit appraisal satisfaction. By doing so, it would be possible to achieve a more holistic appreciation of the efficacy of HRM practices in higher education establishments.

## **8.6 Concluding remarks**

This thesis has comprehensively examined the relationships involving burnout, performance appraisal satisfaction, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and job performance with regards to faculty members working at two public universities in Saudi Arabia. An integrative mixed-methods approach was applied to help establish the moderating effects and complex dynamics of key variables in the AMO framework and JD-R framework, thereby providing much-needed insight that is of practical and theoretical value, as well as helping to steer future research in this area. It has been revealed that job satisfaction suffers as a result of burnout, emphasising the adverse effects that result from heavy workloads and unsatisfied job demands. In contrast, burnout's effect on job performance was found to be insignificant, with the qualitative data indicating that faculty members' commitment to their students as well as the availability of a supportive workplace serve as buffers. The resource of organisational commitment was found to foster job satisfaction and job performance. However, whilst performance appraisal

satisfaction contributed to job satisfaction, weak incentives meant that it did not directly influence job performance.

The contribution of the current study is not limited to higher education in Saudi Arabia. By integrating resources (i.e., performance appraisal satisfaction and organisational commitment) into the JD-R model as well as ability motivation and opportunity improving practices in AMO framework, it has been possible to demonstrate the potentially distinct effects they each have on the outcomes of all employees. The current study makes a valuable contribution to the existing body of literature by offering an informed perspective but it also goes further by identifying weak incentives as well as a lack of resources which are areas requiring further analysis. Importantly, this research provides a valuable template for future researchers to utilise, using the current study as the basis for examining other university systems, and other public and private organisations, employing longitudinal designs, and examining other moderating factors such as work-life balance and intrinsic motivation. It is advised that future research in this area should utilise this as a template upon which to build. Confirmatory factor analysis should be undertaken to validate the modified instruments using a structural equation model. In addition, further research should be conducted to help clarify whether the relationship between gender and job satisfaction is also found in other cultures, as well as to help establish if burnout's impact on job performance and satisfaction is mediated or moderated by PSM. Furthermore, if future researchers investigated the interaction between appraisal satisfaction and other HR practices (e.g., recognition, promotion, and training) in organisations that are managed systematically, they could adopt a high-performance work systems perspective. Such findings would help to improve out theoretical understanding, whilst also extending the scope of the research beyond the confines of Saudi Arabia.

To conclude, the research has demonstrated the need to address burnout, improve performance appraisal satisfaction and promote organisational commitment in order to enhance the satisfaction and performance of faculty members. Theoretical insights and practical recommendations have been made, effectively creating a roadmap that university managers can use to create a workplace that is equitable

and supportive, thereby enabling Saudi higher education to make significant advances in the coming years.



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## Appendices

### Appendix A: Study questionnaire in English

Covering letter and survey
----------------------------

Dear participant,

My name is Doaa Guzaiz. I am a PhD student at Cardiff University, UK. As part of my doctoral research, I am working on a study entitled “The Relationship between Burnout and Employee Outcomes: The Moderating Role of Performance Appraisal Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment”. In your role as a faculty member in a public university, you are requested to participate in a survey examining attitudes among faculty members in public universities in Saudi Arabia.

Your participation in the questionnaire is on a voluntary basis and it should take no more than 15-20 minutes to complete. Without your cooperation, it would not be possible to undertake this research, so thank you very much in advance. The survey is **STRICTLY ANONYMOUS**. I can assure you that all responses will remain confidential and your responses will not be disclosed. Completing the questionnaire will be taken as a sign of your consent to participate.

Following analysis of the data, the findings from the research will be communicated to all participants if requested.

If you have any questions about the survey or the research study, please do not hesitate to contact me at [GuzaizD@cardiff.ac.uk](mailto:GuzaizD@cardiff.ac.uk) or my doctoral supervisor, Professor Rhys Andrews at [AndrewsR4@cardiff.ac.uk](mailto:AndrewsR4@cardiff.ac.uk).

May I take this opportunity to thank you in advance for agreeing to contribute towards this research.

Doaa Guzaiz

PhD student

Cardiff Business School,

Cardiff, UK

## Section 1: General background information

The questions in this section concern your background information. For each question, please select just a single answer or complete the blank spaces.

### 1.1 Gender:

- |        |                          |
|--------|--------------------------|
| Male   | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Female | <input type="checkbox"/> |

### 1.2 Age:

- |                 |                          |
|-----------------|--------------------------|
| 20-29 years old | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 30-39 years old | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 40-49 years old | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Over 50         | <input type="checkbox"/> |

### 1.3 Level of education:

- |                   |                          |
|-------------------|--------------------------|
| Bachelor's degree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Master's degree   | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| PhD degree        | <input type="checkbox"/> |

### 1.4 Academic ranking:

- |                     |                          |
|---------------------|--------------------------|
| Teaching assistant  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Lecturer            | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Assistant professor | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Associate professor | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Professor           | <input type="checkbox"/> |

### 1.5 Years of experience in higher education:

- |                    |                          |
|--------------------|--------------------------|
| Less than a year   | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 1 to 5 years       | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5 to 10 years      | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 10 to 15 years     | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| More than 15 years | <input type="checkbox"/> |

### 1.6 Which university do you work in?

- |  |                          |
|--|--------------------------|
| King Abdulaziz University              | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University | <input type="checkbox"/> |

<b>1.7 Which department do you work in?</b>	
Arts and humanities-based department	<input type="checkbox"/>
Science-based department	<input type="checkbox"/>
Social science-based department	<input type="checkbox"/>

<b>1.8 Do you have currently any supervisory responsibilities?</b>	
No	<input type="checkbox"/>
Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>

<b>1.9 Number of years spent working in your current position:</b>	
Less than a year	<input type="checkbox"/>
1 to 5 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
5 to 10 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
10 to 15 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
More than 15 years	<input type="checkbox"/>

## Section 2: Burnout

Below is a list of statements. Please read each statement carefully and rate how often you feel or behave in the way described.

Please select the circle that is closest to your own view.

	Never	A few times	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every day
2.1 My work makes me feel emotionally drained.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.2 By the end of a day spent working I have no energy for anything else.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.3 My daily work leaves me feeling burned out	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.4 Since starting this role, my approach to other people has become less caring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.5 I am concerned that this work role has made me emotionally detached	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.6 I do not really care what happens to some students/colleagues	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.7 I believe my work makes a positive contribution to the lives of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2.8 I feel good after working closely with my students/ colleagues	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

2.9 This work role has enabled me to achieve numerous things that are worthwhile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

### Section 3: Job demands and resources

Please indicate the degree or frequency for the following statements from 1 (never/to a very small extent) to 5 (always/to a very large extent).

Please select the circle that is closest to your own view.

	Never	Usually	Frequently	Occasionally	Always
3.1 I fail to keep pace with my workload	1	2	3	4	5
3.2 I fear being unemployed	1	2	3	4	5
3.3 I dedicate too much of my time to working at the expense of the quality of my private life	1	2	3	4	5
3.4 I am able to exert influence over my work	1	2	3	4	5
3.5 My immediate head of department listens to me airing my problems.	1	2	3	4	5
3.6 My colleagues provide me with help and support	1	2	3	4	5

## Section 4: Performance appraisal satisfaction

Please indicate the extent to which you either agree or disagree with the following statements.

Please select the circle that is closest to your own view.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
4.1 I am satisfied with the way my university provides me with feedback	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.2 The feedback correctly reflects how I have performed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.3 My university recognises good performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.4 I am kept informed about how well I am doing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.5 I receive constructive feedback on my job performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.6 The university provides coaching, training opportunities or other assistance to help me improve my skills and performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.7 Performance appraisal is valuable to myself as well as to my university	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## Section 5: Organisational commitment

Please indicate the extent to which you either agree or disagree with the following statements.

Please select the circle that is closest to your own view.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
5.1 I would be content spending the remainder of my career at my current university	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.2 I regard the university's problems as my personal problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.3 I feel a sense of emotional attachment to this university	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.4 I would be concerned to leave my current role without having an alternative job to start immediately	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.5 It would not be easy to walk away from the university at present, even if I had the desire to do so	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.6 It has been instilled in me that I	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

should remain loyal  
to my university

5.7 In the past, faculty members used to stay at one university without moving to another workplace	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

## Section 6: Job satisfaction

Please indicate the extent to which you either agree or disagree with the following statements.

Please select the circle that is closest to your own view.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
6.1 On balance, I am satisfied with my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.2 In general, I like working in my university	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.3 In general, I do not like my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



## Section 7: Job performance

Please indicate the extent to which you either agree or disagree with the following statements.

Please select the circle that is closest to your own view.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
7.1 The way in which I go about completing my duties is suitable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.2 I complete all that is required of me in accordance with my job description	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.3 I take on the duties that my colleagues are expected to perform	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.4 My performance meets the formal requirements specified for my role	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.5 There are essential duties that I fail to carry out	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## Appendix B: Straight-lining test

Resp. no	Straight-lining	Resp. no	Straight-lining	Resp. no	Straight-lining	Resp. no	Straight-lining	Resp. no	Straight-lining	Resp. no	Straight-lining	Resp. no	Straight-lining	Resp. no	Straight-lining
1	2.318809	31	2.224286	61	2.470243	91	2.280285	121	2.588958	151	1.981142	181	2.448877	211	1.795055
2	1.524573	32	2.403701	62	1.516674	92	1.700556	122	2.351602	152	1.406762	182	2.07444	212	1.847001
3	2.001876	33	2.231699	63	2.145601	93	1.364501	123	2.605723	153	1.530471	183	1.902661	213	2.195751
4	1.835584	34	2.289485	64	1.449863	94	2.07444	124	1.92736	154	1.738108	184	1.934746		
5	1.660348	35	2.405574	65	2.473888	95	1.946738	125	1.78877	155	1.890787	185	2.139644		
6	2.145251	36	1.518653	66	2.399011	96	1.895149	126	0.886163	156	1.605639	186	2.092099		
7	2.291779	37	1.853493	67	1.626544	97	2.101408	127	2.094968	157	1.979626	187	1.909357		
8	1.57018	38	1.530471	68	1.786671	98	2.240763	128	2.492632	158	1.501751	188	2.154331		
9	1.952899	39	1.660348	69	2.11494	99	2.16684	129	1.771903	159	2.339118	189	1.624235		
10	2.428559	40	2.544499	70	2.129445	100	2.016821	130	2.433808	160	2.290796	190	2.411185		
11	1.456063	41	2.510638	71	2.335263	101	1.93591	131	2.075526	161	2.386461	191	2.218879		
12	1.740267	42	1.792544	72	1.47298	102	2.347767	132	2.061006	162	2.188559	192	1.446234		
13	2.155028	43	2.220908	73	2.114585	103	1.761705	133	1.702321	163	2.35766	193	2.412741		
14	1.556735	44	2.048218	74	2.63124	104	2.268732	134	2.033134	164	2.71023	194	2.280285		
15	2.234053	45	1.857943	75	2.204622	105	2.224286	135	2.617795	165	2.166493	195	1.642162		
16	2.03461	46	1.69126	76	2.289813	106	2.001876	136	1.817912	166	2.278638	196	1.481619		
17	2.551864	47	2.049317	77	1.781621	107	2.075526	137	2.333977	167	2.340401	197	2.488412		
18	1.334459	48	1.923851	78	1.609842	108	1.879636	138	2.019053	168	2.022768	198	1.740267		
19	1.931251	49	1.767236	79	2.140697	109	2.132615	139	1.110961	169	2.155028	199	1.767236		
20	2.069005	50	1.758292	80	1.867616	110	1.888801	140	2.126269	170	2.082387	200	1.832719		
21	2.385832	51	2.199167	81	2.368144	111	1.523588	141	2.177899	171	2.122028	201	2.465071		
22	1.998122	52	2.30289	82	2.64717	112	2.58257	142	1.767236	172	1.916814	202	2.586347		
23	1.985306	53	2.190959	83	2.252793	113	1.991348	143	1.888801	173	1.639875	203	2.044182		
24	2.615787	54	2.39682	84	2.242103	114	2.092099	144	1.801318	174	2.49504	204	1.8648		
25	2.255124	55	2.364337	85	1.782043	115	1.260392	145	2.195751	175	2.102837	205	2.487204		
26	1.941718	56	2.16684	86	1.808389	116	2.251126	146	2.119196	176	1.787091	206	2.225636		
27	1.886414	57	2.352878	87	2.001876	117	2.384573	147	2.054805	177	2.179277	207	1.977349		
28	2.246786	58	2.126269	88	2.048218	118	2.029808	148	2.339118	178	2.208365	208	2.287188		
29	2.076972	59	2.607163	89	2.312	119	2.357023	149	2.474495	179	1.282827	209	2.283246		
30	1.762983	60	2.11423	90	2.127681	120	1.909751	150	2.49985	180	2.165454	210	1.962869		

### Appendix C: Result of the independent sample test for KAU and PSAU

		KAU			PSAU		
	Items description	Sig	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	Sig	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
<b>Burnout</b>							
<i>Emotional exhaustion (EE)</i>	EE1: My work makes me feel emotionally drained	1.000	1.379	.181	.515	.919	.373
	EE2: By the end of a day spent working I have no energy for anything else	.774	.970	.341	.565	-1.058	.308
	EE3: My daily work leaves me feeling burned out	.439	.876	.390	.769	-.336	.742
<i>Depersonalization (D)</i>	D1: Since starting this role, my approach to other people has become less caring	.000	2.458	.027	.654	-.796	.439
	D2: I am concerned that this work role has made me emotionally detached	.517	1.648	.112	.688	-.284	.781
	D3: I do not really care what happens to some students/colleagues	.528	.263	.795	.901	-.362	.723
<i>Reduced personal accomplishment (RPA)</i>	RPA1: I believe my work makes a positive contribution to the lives of others (R)	.036	2.437	.023	.567	1.048	.312
	RPA2: I feel good after working closely with my students/ colleagues (R)	.338	1.225	.233	.767	.258	.800

	RPA3: This work role has enabled me to achieve numerous things that are worthwhile (R)	.576	1.199	.242	.318	1.009	.330
<b>Performance appraisal satisfaction (PAD)</b>	PAS1: I am satisfied with the way my university provides me with feedback	.945	-.792	.436	.746	-.693	.499
	PAS2: The feedback correctly reflects how I have performed	.948	.430	.671	.647	.191	.851
	PAS3: My university recognizes good performance	.036	-1.175	.253	.680	.732	.477
	PAS4: I am kept informed about how well I am doing	.903	-1.829	.080	.146	.231	.821
	PAS5: I receive constructive feedback on my job performance	.885	-1.199	.242	.090	.309	.763
	PAS6: The university provides coaching, training opportunities or other assistance to help me improve my skills and performance	.140	-.612	.547	.727	.000	1.000
	PAS7: Performance appraisal is valuable to myself as well as to my university	.663	-.771	.448	.039	.864	.402

<b>Organisational commitment</b>							
<i>Affective commitment (AC)</i>	AC1: I would be content spending the remainder of my career at my current university	.580	-1.047	.305	.158	.835	.420
	AC2: I regard the university's problems as my personal problems	.317	.110	.913	.212	-.116	.909
	AC3: I feel a sense of emotional attachment to this university	.343	-2.731	.012	.001	.612	.555
<i>Continuance commitment (CC)</i>	CC1: I would be concerned to leave my current role without having an alternative job to start immediately	.035	.945	.359	.613	.122	.904
	CC2: It would not be easy to walk away from the university at present even if I had the desire to do so	.313	1.049	.304	.897	.357	.727
<i>Normative commitment (NC)</i>	NC1: It has been instilled in me that I should remain loyal to my university	.065	-2.043	.052	.914	-.251	.805
	NC2: In the past, faculty members used to stay at one university without moving to another workplace	.665	.521	.607	.159	.798	.438
<b>Employee outcomes</b>							

<i>Job satisfaction (JS)</i>	JS1: On balance, I am satisfied with my job	.871	-1.849	.077	.438	-.928	.369
	JS2: In general, I like working in my university	.558	-1.835	.079	.006	.447	.664
	JS3: In general, I do not like my job (R)	.140	-1.990	.058	.014	1.234	.250
<i>Job performance (JP)</i>	JP1: The way in which I go about completing my duties is suitable	.875	.253	.803	.758	-.333	.744
	JP2: I complete all that is required of me in accordance with my job description	.023	-1.306	.207	.246	-1.673	.116
	JP3: I take on the duties that my colleagues are expected to perform	.909	-1.009	.323	.614	-.453	.657
	JP4: My performance meets the formal requirements specified for my role	.020	-2.075	.053	.466	-.218	.830
	JP5: There are essential duties that I fail to carry out (R)	.395	.422	.677	.433	-.664	.518

Note: (R) = reverse scored

## Appendix D: Exploratory factor analysis

### EFA for burnout

<b>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy</b>					.810	
<b>Bartlett's Test of Sphericity</b>					Approx. Chi-Square	679.299
					df	36
					Sig.	<.001
<b>Total Variance Explained</b>						
<b>Component</b>	<b>Initial Eigenvalues</b>			<b>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</b>		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.654	40.603	40.603	3.654	40.603	40.603
<b>Component Matrix</b>						
<b>Item</b>						<b>Factor</b>
						1
<b>BO1:</b> My work makes me feel emotionally drained.						.658
<b>BO2:</b> By the end of a day spent working, I have no energy for anything else.						.753
<b>BO3:</b> My daily work leaves me feeling burned out						.797
<b>BO4:</b> Since starting this role, my approach to other people has become less caring						.692
<b>BO5:</b> I am concerned that this work role has made me emotionally detached						.798
<b>BO6:</b> I do not really care what happens to some students/colleagues						.514
<b>BO7:</b> I believe my work makes a positive contribution to the lives of others (R)						.350
<b>BO8:</b> I feel good after working closely with my students/colleagues (R)						.402
<b>BO9:</b> This work role has enabled me to achieve numerous things that are worthwhile (R)						.596

Note: (R) = reverse scored

### EFA for performance appraisal satisfaction

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy						.856
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity				Approx. Chi-Square		814.282
				df		21
				Sig.		<.001
Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.189	59.846	59.846	4.189	59.846	59.846
Component Matrix						
Item						Factor
						1
PAS1: I am satisfied with the way my university provides me with feedback						.851
PAS2: The feedback correctly reflects how I have performed						.780
PAS3: My university recognises good performance						.831
PAS4: I am kept informed about how well I am doing						.772
PAS5: I receive constructive feedback regarding my job performance						.862
PAS6: The university provides coaching, training opportunities or other assistance to help me improve my skills and performance						.689
PAS7: Performance appraisal is valuable to myself as well as to my university						.592



### EFA for organisational commitment

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy						.680	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity				Approx. Chi-Square		397.248	
				df		21	
				Sig.		<.001	
Total Variance Explained							
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	
1	2.731	39.007	39.007	2.731	39.007	39.007	
Component Matrix							
Item						Factor	
						1	
OC1: I would be content spending the remainder of my career at my current university						.725	
OC2: I regard the university's problems as my personal problems						.650	
OC3: I feel a sense of emotional attachment to this university						.831	
OC4: I would be concerned to leave my current role without having an alternative job to start immediately						.386	
OC5: It would not be easy to walk away from the university at present, even if I had the desire to do so						.455	
OC6: It has been instilled in me that I should remain loyal to my university						.764	
OC7: In the past, faculty members used to stay at one university without moving to another workplace						.392	

### EFA for job satisfaction

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy					.740	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity				Approx. Chi-Square		345.255
				df		3
				Sig.		<.001
Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.429	80.983	80.983	2.429	80.983	80.983
Component Matrix						
Item				Factor		
				1		
JS1: On balance, I am satisfied with my job				.907		
JS2: In general, I like working in my university				.910		
JS3: In general, I do not like my job (R)				.882		

Note: (R) = reverse scored

**EFA for job performance**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy						.620
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity			Approx. Chi-Square			216.969
			df			10
			Sig.			<.001
Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.186	43.717	43.717	2.186	43.717	43.717
Component matrix						
Item					Factor	
					1	
JP1: The way in which I go about completing my duties is suitable					.770	
JP2: I complete all that is required of me in accordance with my job description					.858	
JP3: I take on the duties that my colleagues are expected to perform					.408	
JP4: My performance meets the formal requirements specified for my role					.703	
JP5: There are essential duties that I fail to carry out (R)					.443	

Note: (R) = reverse scored

### EFA for job demands

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy						.512
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity				Approx. Chi-Square		15.889
				df		3
				Sig.		.001
Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.285	42.841	42.841	1.285	42.841	42.841
Component Matrix						
Item					Factor	
					1	
JD1: I fail to keep pace with my workload					.779	
JD2: I fear being unemployed					.731	
JD3: I dedicate too much of my time to working at the expense of the quality of my private life					.380	

**EFA for job resources**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy						.644
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity					Approx. Chi-Square	130.550
					df	3
					Sig.	<.001
Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.909	63.644	63.644	1.909	63.644	63.644
Component Matrix						
Item			Factor			
			1			
JR1: I am able to exert influence over my work			.714			
JR2: My immediate head of department listens to me airing my problems			.828			
JR3: My colleagues provide me with help and support			.846			

## Appendix E: Reliability analyses

### Burnout

#### Reliability statistics

Cronbach's alpha	No of items
.813	9

#### Item-total statistics

	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
BO1	20.3286	81.835	.513	.794
BO2	19.6432	76.108	.619	.780
BO3	20.1878	74.559	.683	.770
BO4	21.2958	81.360	.568	.787
BO5	21.1643	77.827	.685	.772
BO6	21.6432	88.712	.392	.808
BO7 (R)	21.8545	93.965	.267	.819
BO8 (R)	22.1033	94.546	.327	.813
BO9 (R)	21.3380	84.376	.491	.797

Note: (R) = reverse scored

### **Performance appraisal satisfaction**

#### **Reliability statistics**

Cronbach's alpha	No of items
.885	7

#### **Item-total statistics**

	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if Item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
PAS1	26.46	69.353	.770	.857
PAS2	26.19	71.446	.678	.867
PAS3	25.82	68.207	.750	.858
PAS4	26.16	68.393	.670	.869
PAS5	26.48	66.873	.791	.853
PAS6	25.49	72.657	.584	.879
PAS7	25.24	76.079	.490	.889

### **Organisational commitment**

#### **Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's alpha	No of items
.718	7

#### **Item-total statistics**

	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if Item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
OC1	32.78	34.220	.461	.678
OC2	34.06	31.784	.456	.680
OC3	33.00	30.675	.612	.636
OC4	32.86	35.074	.312	.717
OC5	33.01	34.872	.378	.698
OC6	32.46	34.457	.537	.665
OC7	33.07	37.990	.283	.717

### **Job satisfaction**

#### **Reliability statistics**

Cronbach's alpha	No of Items
.882	3

#### **Item-total statistics**

	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
JS1	12.0751	6.108	.784	.822
JS2	12.0047	6.175	.791	.816
JS3 (R)	11.7981	6.181	.740	.861

Note: (R) = reverse scored

### **Job performance**

#### **Reliability statistics**

Cronbach's alpha	No of items
.609	4

#### **Item-total statistics**

	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
JP1	16.8920	9.314	.510	.509
JP2	17.0610	7.954	.561	.434
JP4	17.3615	8.553	.373	.551
JP5 (R)	18.3474	6.218	.305	.700

Note: (R) = reverse scored



### **Job resources**

#### **Reliability statistics**

Cronbach's alpha	No of items
.712	3

#### **Item-total statistics**

	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
JR1	7.49	5.459	.435	.730
JR2	7.55	4.211	.566	.578
JR3	7.61	4.626	.602	.535

Note: Owing to the fact that job demands has only a single item, the decision was taken that it should be omitted.

**Appendix F: The relationship between burnout and job performance examined when job demands and resources are not included in the model**

Predictor	Job performance			
	Model 1	VIF	Model 2	VIF
<b>Direct effect</b>				
Burnout			-0.139** (0.0599)	1.35
Performance Appraisal Satisfaction			0.0476 (0.0474)	1.54
Organisational Commitment			0.172** (0.0721)	1.32
<b>Control variables</b>				
Gender (ref=male)				
Female	0.212 (0.133)	1.14	0.184 (0.131)	1.20
Age (ref=20-29 years old)				

30-39 years old	-0.0896 (0.369)	6.73	0.0365 (0.381)	6.82
40-49 years old	-0.0287 (0.395)	7.62	0.123 (0.404)	7.73
Over 50	0.381 (0.456)	7.15	0.481 (0.464)	7.24
Level of education (ref= Bachelor's degree)				
Master's degree	-0.715 (0.519)	27.10	-0.564 (0.538)	27.51
PhD degree	-0.892 (0.590)	32.65	-0.782 (0.596)	33.19
Academic ranking (ref=Teaching assistant)				
Lecturer	0.366 (0.288)	5.02	0.391 (0.320)	5.10
Assistant professor	0.451 (0.389)	9.70	0.515 (0.400)	9.76
Associate professor	0.472	8.45	0.476	8.52

	(0.415)		(0.426)	
Professor	0.265	6.29	0.323	6.34
	(0.469)		(0.456)	
Years of experience in higher education (ref= Less than a year)				
1 to 5 years	0.313	15.28	0.299	15.97
	(0.323)		(0.326)	
5 to 10 years	0.0851	17.24	0.0188	17.79
	(0.329)		(0.342)	
10 to 15 years	0.387	19.80	0.265	20.35
	(0.323)		(0.338)	
More than 15 years	0.575*	20.60	0.452	21.32
	(0.344)		(0.363)	
Which university do you work in? (ref=KAU)				
PSAU	0.117	1.32	0.186	1.41
	(0.147)		(0.143)	
Which department do you work in? (ref= Arts and				

humanities-based departments)

Science-based departments	0.0778	2.28	0.117	2.29
	(0.189)		(0.181)	

Social science-based departments	0.0394	2.21	0.124	2.24
	(0.202)		(0.196)	

Do you currently have any supervisory responsibilities? (ref=No)

Supervisory=Yes	0.134	1.59	0.0707	1.61
	(0.144)		(0.142)	

Number of years you have worked at your current position (ref= Less than a year)

1 to 5 years	-0.0567	2.34	-0.0178	2.36
	(0.189)		(0.175)	

5 to 10 years	-0.0759	2.15	-0.103	2.15
	(0.222)		(0.211)	

10 to 15 years	-0.0353	1.70	-0.0166	1.71
	(0.277)		(0.243)	

=More than 15 years	-0.129 (0.308)	1.81	-0.355 (0.282)	1.85
Constant	5.669*** (0.630)		4.658*** (0.731)	
R-squared	0.112		0.199	
Mean VIF	9.10			8.35

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Note: N=213; Robust standard errors in parentheses  
 \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1

## **Appendix G: Interview protocol**

### **Invitation letter**

Dear participant,

My name is Doaa Guzaiz. I am a PhD student at Cardiff University, in the UK. As part of my doctoral research, I am working on a study entitled “The Relationship between Burnout and Employee Outcomes: The Moderating Role of Performance Appraisal Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment”. In your role as a faculty member in a public university, you are invited to participate an interview examining attitudes among faculty members in public universities in Saudi Arabia.

Your participation in the interview is on a voluntary basis and it should take no more than 30-45 minutes to complete. Without your cooperation, it would not be possible to undertake this research, so thank you very much in advance.

If you have any questions about the interview or the research study, please do not hesitate to contact me at GuzaizD@cardiff.ac.uk or my doctoral supervisor, Professor Rhys Andrews at AndrewsR4@cardiff.ac.uk.

**Doaa Guzaiz**

**PhD student**

**Cardiff Business School,**

**Cardiff, UK**

### **Interview questions list**

- 1- What do you understand by the term burnout?
- 2- Do you think burnout is a problem in your university?
- 3- Is there a formal performance appraisal system in your department?
- 4- Are you satisfied with your performance appraisal? and why?
- 5- Do you feel committed to your university/department? and in what way?
- 6- What do you understand by the term job satisfaction?
- 7- Are you satisfied with your job? and why/why not?
- 8- How is faculty performance measured in your department?
- 9- How do you rate your own performance? and why?