



Faculty of Economics and Business

**Factors Affecting the Job Performance of IT Professionals in Malaysian
Public Universities**

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Factors Affecting the Job Performance of IT Professionals in Malaysian
Public Universities

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DECLARATION

I declare that the work in this dissertation was carried out in accordance with the regulations of Universiti Malaysia Sarawak. Except where due acknowledgements have been made, the work is that of the author alone. The thesis has not been accepted for any degree and is not concurrently submitted in candidature of any other degree.


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In the Name of Allah, the Most Gracious, the Most Merciful.

All praise is due to Allah, the Lord of all worlds. We invoke His blessings upon the Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him) and seek His guidance and mercy in all our endeavors.

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates how organizational behavior factors at various levels, organizational, group, and individual, impact the job performance of IT professionals in Malaysian public universities. Specifically, it aims to understand the relationships between factors such as effective leadership, organizational culture, leader-member exchange (LMX), organizational commitment, emotional intelligence, and both task and contextual performance. Employing a quantitative approach, Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) reflective model was utilized to analyze the data gathered from surveys administered to IT professionals in Malaysian public universities. Contrary to expectations, our findings did not support a significant positive relationship between effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, and organizational commitment with both task and contextual performance. However, we found a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and both task and contextual performance, highlighting the critical role of individual-level factors in IT professional job performance. The outcomes of this study underscore the necessity for interventions aimed at enhancing the influence of effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, and organizational commitment on the job performance of IT professionals. Management initiatives should prioritize interventions at the organizational and group levels to optimize the job performance of IT professionals within Malaysian public universities.

Keywords: Organizational Behavior, Job Performance, IT Professionals

Faktor Mempengaruhi Prestasi Kerja Profesional IT di Universiti Awam Malaysia

ABSTRAK

Kajian ini menyelidik bagaimana faktor-faktor tingkah laku organisasi pada pelbagai peringkat, organisasi, kumpulan, dan individu, mempengaruhi prestasi kerja para profesional IT di universiti awam Malaysia. Khususnya, kajian ini bertujuan untuk memahami hubungan antara faktor-faktor seperti kepemimpinan berkesan, budaya organisasi, pertukaran ahli-ahli pemimpin (LMX), komitmen organisasi, kecerdasan emosi, dan kedua-dua prestasi tugas dan kontekstual. Dengan menggunakan pendekatan kuantitatif, kami menggunakan model reflektif Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) untuk menganalisis data kaji selidik yang dikumpulkan daripada para profesional IT di universiti awam Malaysia. Bertentangan dengan jangkaan, hasil kajian kami tidak menyokong hubungan positif yang signifikan antara kepemimpinan berkesan, budaya organisasi, LMX, dan komitmen organisasi dengan kedua-dua prestasi tugas dan kontekstual. Walau bagaimanapun, kami menemui hubungan positif yang signifikan antara kecerdasan emosi dan kedua-dua prestasi tugas dan kontekstual, menyorot peranan penting faktor peringkat individu dalam prestasi kerja profesional IT. Keputusan kajian ini menekankan keperluan untuk intervensi yang bertujuan meningkatkan pengaruh kepemimpinan berkesan, budaya organisasi, LMX, dan komitmen organisasi terhadap prestasi kerja para profesional IT. Inisiatif pengurusan perlu memberi keutamaan kepada intervensi pada peringkat organisasi dan kumpulan untuk mengoptimumkan prestasi kerja para profesional IT di universiti awam Malaysia.

Kata kunci: *Tingkah Laku Organisasi, Prestasi Kerja, Profesional IT*

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CMV	Common Method Variance
CP	Contextual Performance
EI	Emotional Intelligence
HTMT	Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IT	Information Technology
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
PLS-SEM	Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling
TM	Teknologi Maklumat
TP	Task Performance

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the study. It begins with a background discussion, followed by the problem statement, objectives, research questions, definitions of key terms, and the study's theoretical and practical significance. Finally, it outlines the chapter organization.

1.2 Background of the Study

The widespread adoption of Information Technology (IT) in recent years has significantly altered organizational environments worldwide, particularly in the field of education. The IT department plays a vital role at public institutions, providing essential support for teaching, research, and knowledge transfer (Bianchi & Sousa, 2015). IT professionals ensure the effective implementation and oversight of IT projects by aligning IT strategies with organizational objectives.

Malaysia's dedication to adopting digital transformation in education is evident in its higher education institutions (HEIs), where IT is integral to teaching, research, and administrative procedures, as outlined in the Ministry of Higher Education Strategic Planning 2023-2025. IT professionals in these institutions serve as implementers, negotiators, champions, and strategists in digital transformation (Paavola, Hallikainen & Elbanna, 2017). Given their multifaceted duties, an in-depth examination is necessary to understand the factors affecting their work performance in the complex IT environment. Particularly, an extensive analysis of the impact of the rapid development of IT in Malaysian public universities on the work performance and organizational behavior of IT professionals is required.

Organizational behavior plays a crucial role in contemporary work cultures that are heavily influenced by technology (Colquitt, Lepine, & Wesson, 2021). An analysis of these characteristics within the specific framework of Malaysian public universities is crucial for comprehending the distinct challenges encountered by IT professionals. Taylor and Woelfer (2011) recognized task-oriented and boundary-spanning behaviors as crucial for IT project managers, whereas Sengottuvel and Aktharsha (2016) emphasized the significance of strategic attention in organizational culture for enhancing IT performance. Blanton, Watson, and Moody (1992) and Lilja (2013) further highlighted the importance of synchronizing the IT organizational structure and culture with the broader organization. Examining the relationship between the organizational behavior and job performance outcomes of IT professionals is indeed essential for identifying academic/administrative areas in need of enhancement.

According to Borman and Motowidlo (1997), task performance refers to efficiently fulfilling core job duties, while contextual performance involves behaviors that contribute to the broader organizational environment, such as helping colleagues or engaging in organizational initiatives. Efficient task performance is crucial for organizational success as it directly impacts operational efficiency, customer satisfaction, and overall effectiveness. Consistently meeting job expectations leads to smoother processes, optimized productivity, and higher levels of customer satisfaction. Additionally, successful task completion fosters employee motivation and engagement, contributing to higher job satisfaction and retention.

Contextual performance plays a vital role in building a positive organizational culture and fostering teamwork and collaboration. Engaging in supportive behaviors, such as helping colleagues or participating in organizational initiatives, strengthens relationships among employees and promotes effective communication and cooperation. Moreover, contextual

performance encourages innovation and creativity by creating an environment where employees feel empowered to share ideas and experiment with new approaches. Both task performance and contextual performance are essential for organizational success and employee well-being. By recognizing and nurturing these aspects of employee effectiveness, organizations can create a positive work environment, enhance productivity, and achieve long-term success.

However, there is a lack of research on the job performance and organizational behavior of IT professionals in Malaysian public universities, despite their acknowledged importance. This dissertation aims to fill this void by conducting a thorough analysis that can guide both scholarly research and practical approaches to improving IT administration in HEIs. The aim of this study is to contribute substantially to understanding the complex correlation between organizational behavior factors, job performance, and the efficacy of IT management in Malaysian public universities. The study seeks to offer practical insights for boosting IT governance, cultivating a favorable work environment, and ultimately improving the overall performance of public universities in Malaysia. By identifying key organizational behavior factors that impact the job performance of IT professionals, the goal is to implement targeted strategies for improvement.

1.3 Problem Statement

The effective use of IT is critical to the success of Malaysian public universities in an increasingly competitive higher education landscape. IT professionals in these institutions play diverse roles, typically categorized into three main groups based on their nature of work. Firstly, the infrastructure team manages servers, networks, security protocols, and provides initial support to end-users. Secondly, the infostructure team focuses on system development, maintenance, and ongoing support for various IT systems, ensuring the smooth functioning of

databases, software applications, and other technical components essential for university operations. Lastly, the strategic team is tasked with long-term planning, technology roadmap development, and ensuring alignment between IT initiatives and organizational goals. This multifaceted division underscores the breadth and complexity of their responsibilities, highlighting the diverse skill sets and expertise required to effectively manage and leverage technology in the academic setting.

IT professionals in Malaysian public universities are pivotal in driving digital transformation and ensuring the effective implementation of IT projects within their organizations. This includes staying abreast of the latest technologies, such as the integration of artificial intelligence in education. Their performance is crucial to organizational success, as they provide IT support services for academic and management activities. High performance is associated with satisfaction, self-efficacy, and career advancement (Sonnentag, Volmer & Spsychala, 2008). Therefore, understanding the factors contributing to job performance is essential for improvement.

Valdes (2023) highlighted that approximately 56% of IT professionals struggle to unwind after work due to the persistent demands of technology development in challenging environments. This perpetual pressure often leads to mental, emotional, and physical exhaustion, stemming from work-related stress. Pratt (2023) underscored the necessity for IT workers to continuously adapt to evolving technologies to meet their organizations' needs. However, the relentless demands of this dynamic field may impede IT professionals' job performance, affecting their ability to carry out tasks effectively. Such challenges may result in decreased productivity, increased absenteeism, strained workplace relationships, and a heightened risk of errors (Schmiedeskamp, 2023).

IT professionals in Malaysian public universities face similar pressures and challenges as their counterparts globally, dealing with rapid technological advancements, constant demands for new solutions, and maintaining complex systems. High expectations for performance, coupled with limited resources and bureaucratic constraints, intensify their stress levels. Consequently, these professionals may experience mental, emotional, and physical exhaustion, leading to impaired job performance and overall well-being. To remain competitive, organizations must consistently improve their performance. Malaysia's public universities, in particular, encounter common obstacles, which also affect IT professionals tasked with overseeing and executing the university's technological infrastructure.

IT professionals bring leadership as integrators, facilitators, and implementers in flattened and team-based organizations (Klagge, 1996). Their contribution to IT innovation is significant (Larsen, 1993), but the future of middle management in the context of IT and organizational restructuring is complex and requires further empirical examination (Dopson & Stewart, 1993). Despite the importance of their role, little research has been conducted to understand the factors that affect the job performance of IT professionals in Malaysian public universities. Therefore, a comprehensive study is needed to identify the organizational behavior factors that influence job performance among IT professionals, enhancing their performance and contributing to the success of Malaysian public universities.

Due to the lack of prior research on the relationship between factors affecting job performance of IT professionals in Malaysian public universities, it is challenging for management to understand the critical success factors that could lead to better job performance of these professionals. Additionally, previous research has predominantly concentrated on singular dimensions of organizational behavior, indicating a gap in exploring this construct from a comprehensive standpoint.

It is imperative to explore organizational behavior dimensions from a holistic perspective, encompassing analyses at the organizational, group, and individual levels. Such an approach is essential for advancing interventions and strategies aimed at bolstering job performance among IT professionals and fostering organizational effectiveness and competitiveness. By examining all three levels of organizational behavior within a single study, a broader understanding can be attained, empowering management to pinpoint specific areas warranting focus and attention.

1.4 Research Question

Based on the problem statement discussed above, this study attempts to provide answers to the following research question in the context of IT professionals in Malaysian public universities:

How do organizational behavior factors at multiple levels (i.e., organizational, group, and individual) influence job performance (i.e., task performance and contextual performance)?

1.5 Research Objectives

The present study's main objective is to identify the relationship between organizational behavior factors—namely effective leadership, organizational culture, leader-member exchange (LMX), organizational commitment, and emotional intelligence—and job performance, specifically task performance and contextual performance, among IT professionals in Malaysian public universities.

The specific objectives of this study are outlined as follows:

- i. To examine the relationships between organizational behavior factors at the organizational level (i.e., effective leadership and organizational culture) and job performance (i.e., task performance and contextual performance).
- ii. To assess the relationships between organizational behavior factors at the group level (i.e., LMX) and job performance (i.e., task performance and contextual performance).
- iii. To identify the relationships between organizational behavior factors at the individual level (i.e., organizational commitment and emotional intelligence) and job performance (i.e., task performance and contextual performance).

This study attempts to establish empirical relationships between seven constructs: effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, organizational commitment, emotional intelligence, task performance, and contextual performance. Consequently, Malaysian public universities can improve their decision-making processes regarding IT professionals' job performance by utilizing the findings from this study. This can help organizations develop strategies to enhance employee productivity and improve overall organizational performance.

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study has significant contributions from both theoretical and managerial perspectives. Firstly, this study clarifies the influence of effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, organizational commitment, and emotional intelligence on job performance, focusing on task performance and contextual performance. This will provide a new contribution to existing literature. This knowledge can be used to develop interventions that target specific areas of improvement, such as communication, teamwork, and innovation.

Secondly, organizational behavior can be examined across three distinct levels: organizational, group, and individual. Traditionally, these levels have been investigated in isolation. However, this study adopts a novel approach by concurrently exploring these

levels. Analyzing organizational behavior across multiple levels facilitates a more holistic comprehension of the factors shaping organizational outcomes and equips managers with insights to make informed decisions. This unique approach represents a significant contribution to the existing literature on organizational behavior.

Thirdly, most studies pertaining to job performance in public universities focus only on academic employees rather than non-academic employees. This study specifically focuses on the job performance of IT professionals, which will help improve the performance of public universities. By identifying the impactful components that influence task performance and contextual performance, universities can design strategies and interventions that enhance the performance of IT staff and improve the sustainability of ICT services.

Furthermore, this can have positive spillover effects on other areas of the organization, such as teaching, research, and community engagement, as well as creating income generation opportunities for universities. The IT department poses a significant opportunity to commercialize their services through infrastructure and skills. Moreover, the findings of this study can be used as practical guidance for public universities in Malaysia to enhance the organizational behavior and job performance of IT staff.

Overall, the study is believed to contribute to a better understanding of how effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, organizational commitment, and emotional intelligence affect IT professionals' task performance and contextual performance.

1.7 Scope of the Study

This study investigates the relationship between effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, organizational commitment, and emotional intelligence on job performance, specifically task performance and contextual performance, among IT professionals in

Malaysian public universities. The study was conducted in the information and communication technologies (ICT) departments of Malaysian public universities, utilizing a questionnaire survey for data collection. The respondents were IT professionals from the middle management group, with grades F41 to F48, who have been working in the ICT departments of Malaysian public universities for more than one year.

1.8 Definition of Key Terms

To ensure that the discussion is clear and consistent, it is important to define the key terms used in this study. The purpose of this section is to provide precise definitions of the key terms, including job performance, task performance, contextual performance, organizational behavior, effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, organizational commitment, and emotional intelligence. By providing clear definitions of these terms, a solid foundation for the discussion is established, ensuring that the reader has a clear understanding of the concepts examined in this study.

1.8.1 Job Performance

Job performance involves an individual's proficiency in carrying out job tasks and responsibilities, as well as attaining the goals and objectives established by the organization (Campbell, 1990; Ramawickrama, Opatha, & Pushpakumari, 2017).

1.8.2 Task Performance

Task performance covers the specific activities and behaviors that directly contribute to the essential aspects of a job and are required for the successful accomplishment of job tasks (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Aslan, Yaman, Aksu, & Güngör, 2022; Siddiquei, Fisher, & Hrivnak, 2022; Mendoza, Yan, & King, 2023).

1.8.3 Contextual Performance

Contextual performance, or organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), encompasses voluntary activities and behaviors that enhance the overall organizational environment and facilitate the efficient operation of the organization (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Hameed, Khwaja, & Zaman, 2023; Edeh, Zayed, Darwish, Nitsenko, Hanechko, & Islam, 2023).

1.8.4 Organizational Behavior

Organizational behavior refers to the examination of human behavior within organizational environments, as well as the interaction between human behavior and the organization itself (Robbins & Judge, 2017; Padhaya, Putra, & Ali, 2022).

1.8.5 Effective Leadership

Effective leadership is the act of influencing people to understand and agree on the necessary tasks and methods to achieve common goals, while also facilitating individual and collective efforts towards those objectives (Avolio & Yammarino, 1990; Chaturvedi & Bansal, 2022; Dubey, Pathak, & Sahu, 2023).

1.8.6 Organizational Culture

Organizational culture comprises a set of commonly held fundamental beliefs that a group has acquired through addressing external challenges and internal cohesion. These beliefs have proven effective and are therefore imparted to new members as the appropriate framework for perceiving, thinking, and feeling in relation to these challenges (Schein, 2010; Kenedi, Satriawan, & Khaddafi, 2022).

1.8.7 Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

LMX described as a two-person connection between a leader and a follower, indicating the degree to which both parties consider their interactions with each other as being of high quality (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Toscano, Zappalà, & Galanti, 2022).

1.8.8 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is an emotional state that describes the employee's connection with the organization and influences their choice to either stay or leave that connection (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Yandi & Havidz, 2022; Muhamad, Bakti, Febriyantoro, Kraugusteeliana, & Ausat, 2023).

1.8.9 Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence is the capacity to accurately perceive, evaluate, and communicate emotions. It also involves the ability to access and generate emotions that assist in thinking, comprehend emotions and emotional knowledge, and regulate emotions to foster emotional and intellectual development (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Zhi, Wang, & Wang, 2023).

1.9 Organization of the Study

This study is composed of five chapters: introduction, literature review, methodology, findings, and conclusion. Chapter One, the introduction, presents the background of the study, explains the problem statement, research questions, and objectives, discusses the study's importance and scope, and defines key terms. It also provides an overview of the organization of subsequent chapters. Chapter Two conducts an in-depth study of the available literature, underlying theories, conceptual framework, and hypothesis development. Chapter Three provides a detailed explanation of the study design, sample selection and method, development of the research questionnaire, pre-test, and statistical analysis. Chapter Four

explores the results of the thorough statistical study. This involves an initial analysis of the data, followed by an extensive overview of the respondents' demographic information. The findings of the assessment of the measurement model and the assessment of the structural model are also discussed. Chapter Five covers the discussion and conclusion. The approach begins with a thorough examination of each hypothesis, followed by an analysis of both the theoretical and practical implications. An extensive discussion of the limitations of the study, potential for future research, and conclusions are then provided.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the literature related to the study's variables. Additionally, it examines the underlying theories associated with these variables. The conceptual framework for this study is then presented, followed by the development of hypotheses based on this framework.

2.2 Malaysian Public Higher Education Landscape

Malaysia's public higher education system has evolved significantly since the establishment of the University of Malaya in 1949, the country's first university. Over the decades, the government has expanded access to higher education to meet the needs of a growing and increasingly diverse population. The public higher education sector now comprises 20 public universities, categorized into research universities, comprehensive universities, and focused universities, each with distinct missions and goals (Ahmad, Farley & Naidoo, 2012).

Ahmad et al. (2012) elaborated that research universities, such as Universiti Malaya (UM) and Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM), prioritize research output and innovation. These universities receive significant funding and are pivotal in driving Malaysia's research and development agenda. Comprehensive universities, like Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM), offer a wide range of undergraduate and postgraduate programs across various disciplines. Focused universities specialize in specific fields such as technical education (e.g., Universiti Teknologi Malaysia) or Islamic studies (e.g., Universiti Sains Islam Malaysia).

The governance and development of public universities in Malaysia are guided by several key policy frameworks and reforms. The National Higher Education Strategic Plan (NHESP) 2007-2020 aimed to transform Malaysia into an international hub of higher education excellence by focusing on quality, equity, and access. The Malaysian Education Blueprint 2015-2025 (Higher Education), built on the NHESP, emphasizes enhancing the quality of education, institutional autonomy, global prominence, and sustainability.

The Malaysian public higher education landscape is a dynamic and evolving sector that has made significant strides since its inception. While it has achieved much, it continues to face challenges that require thoughtful and strategic responses. As the system moves forward, it is poised to play an even more critical role in shaping the nation's future through the development of a highly skilled and knowledgeable workforce.

2.3 Digitalization Efforts in Malaysian Public Universities

The digital transformation of HEIs is a global phenomenon driven by the need to enhance educational experiences, improve administrative processes, and foster innovation. In Malaysia, public universities are at the forefront of this transformation, embracing digital technologies to meet the challenges of the 21st century. The digitalization journey in Malaysian public universities is underpinned by the national agenda outlined in the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2015-2025 (Higher Education) and the National Higher Education Strategic Plan Beyond 2020 (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015; Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia, 2020). These policy documents emphasize the importance of leveraging ICT to enhance the quality and accessibility of higher education.

Malaysian public universities have embarked on various strategic initiatives to digitalize their operations. These include the adoption of learning management systems (LMS), such as Moodle and Blackboard, to facilitate online learning (Abdullah et al., 2019).

Universities have also invested in digital libraries and online databases to support research and academic activities (Ismail & Ali, 2018). Despite these initiatives, the digitalization process faces several challenges. A study by Mohd Shah et al. (2017) highlights issues of infrastructure readiness, faculty preparedness, and digital literacy among students and staff. Additionally, there are concerns about the sustainability of digital initiatives due to funding constraints and the need for relevant, culturally appropriate educational technologies (Rahman et al., 2019).

The digitalization efforts in Malaysian public universities are part of a broader national strategy to enhance the competitiveness and relevance of higher education. While significant progress has been made, challenges remain in ensuring a seamless and inclusive digital transformation.

2.4 The Role of IT Professionals in Digitalization

The digitalization of HEIs is a critical process that enhances teaching, learning, research, and administrative functions. In Malaysia, public universities are key players in the nation's digital transformation agenda. The integration of IT in Malaysian public universities has evolved over the years, from basic computerization to complex digital ecosystems. According to Rahman et al. (2021), the early stages of IT adoption focused on automating administrative tasks, while recent initiatives have centered on creating a digital learning environment and supporting research through advanced technologies.

IT professionals within public HEIs are pivotal in driving digital transformation, ensuring the effective implementation and management of digital technologies. They have made significant contributions to the digitalization process, as they are responsible for the design, implementation, and maintenance of IT infrastructure, including networks, servers, and cloud services (Mohamad et al., 2019). Additionally, they play a crucial role in the

adoption of LMSs, such as Moodle, which facilitate online learning and assessment (Zainuddin & Perera, 2020).

The skill set required of IT professionals in Malaysian public universities has evolved in tandem with the advancement of technology and the changing needs of the academic community. Early IT roles focused on basic technical support and infrastructure management, but as digitalization has progressed, the demand for more advanced skills has grown (Rahman et al., 2021). Several key skills are essential for IT professionals in Malaysian public universities, including:

1. **Technical proficiency:** A strong foundation in IT fundamentals, such as networking, hardware, software, and database management, is crucial (Othman & Mustaffa, 2018).
2. **Cybersecurity skills:** To cope with the increasing threat of cyber-attacks, IT professionals must be adept at implementing security measures and responding to incidents (Rahman & Yusoff, 2019).
3. **Cloud computing and virtualization:** As universities move services to the cloud, proficiency in cloud technologies and virtualization has become essential (Ismail et al., 2020).
4. **Digital learning technologies:** Understanding and managing LMS and other educational technologies are important for supporting online and blended learning (Zainuddin & Perera, 2020).
5. **Project management:** IT professionals often lead or contribute to projects, requiring skills in project management, including planning, execution, and stakeholder communication (Mohamad et al., 2019).

6. **Continuous learning:** To cope with the rapid pace of technological change, a commitment to continuous professional development is necessary to stay current with new tools and best practices (Othman & Mustaffa, 2018).

However, developing the required skill set is not without challenges. IT professionals must balance their current responsibilities with the need for ongoing training and skill enhancement. Additionally, resource constraints may limit opportunities for professional development (Rahman et al., 2021). The role of IT professionals in the digitalization of Malaysian public universities is multifaceted and critical. They are instrumental in implementing digital technologies that enhance educational experiences, streamline administrative processes, and support research activities. To maximize their impact, it is essential to address the challenges they face, such as the need for continuous professional development and the management of cybersecurity risks. As Malaysia's public universities continue to evolve in the digital age, the contributions of IT professionals will remain vital to their success and competitiveness.

2.5 Job Performance

The field of job performance research is extensive and diverse, focusing on understanding the complex relationships between human attributes and organizational outcomes. According to Motowidlo and Kell (2012), job performance is the overall value that an individual adds to an organization within a defined period through their actions. This concept is influenced by human attributes such as personality traits, cognitive ability, motivation, and positive attitudes towards the organization. Ramawickrama et al. (2017) define job performance as observable actions and behaviors that demonstrate positive attitudes towards the organization. Additionally, Motowidlo and Kell (2012) underscore the significance of individual attributes such as personality traits, cognitive capacity, motivation,

and the quality of work life (Aketch, Odera, Chepkuto, & Okaka, 2012) in influencing job success.

Noronha, Aquinas, and Manezes (2018) emphasize that performance management systems play a critical role in enhancing work engagement and, consequently, job performance. Sai and Pinapati (2023), as well as Buchori, Tanuwijaya, and Gunawan (2023), examined the influence of leadership on work performance, while Muslim and Irwansyah (2024) studied the consequences of high workload and stress on job performance and satisfaction. Sonnentag, Volmer, and Spychala (2008) linked strong job performance to satisfaction, self-efficacy, and career advancement. Ming-sum (1998) presented a framework for professional social workers highlighting the significance of supervision, professional growth, and program assessment in achieving exceptional performance. Carlos and Rodrigues (2016) integrated task and contextual performance aspects into self-reported measures of job performance, while Nangoy, Mursitama, Setiadi, and Pradipto (2020) examined the influence of work well-being on self-reported assessments of job performance. Arvey and Murphy (1998) emphasized the importance of considering diverse organizational tasks in performance evaluations.

Pandey (2019) classified the elements affecting job performance as needs, resources, and stressors, whereas Somu, Halid, Nasurdin, Lim, and Tan (2020) asserted the significance of HR management practices. Deng, Duan, and Wibowo (2023) investigated the changing dynamics of job performance, particularly in the fields of IT, digital technologies, and remote work. Qu and Yan (2023), as well as Hamouche and Parent-Lamarche (2023), examined the effects of remote work and teleworking. Szara, Ksykiewicz-Dorota, Klukow, and Lamont (2017), and Sari and Krisna (2021) explored the impact of personal characteristics, stress,

social support, and compensation on job performance. Jeki and Sulastri (2019) investigated dimensions such as human capital, motivation, and job satisfaction.

Szara et al. (2017) and Alessandri, Borgogni, and Truxillo (2015) emphasized the complex nature of job performance. Alessandri specifically noted the importance of education, supervisor perspective, and self-efficacy in predicting performance levels. Igbaria (1991) investigated the antecedents and consequences of job performance among management information systems personnel, underscoring how employees perceive their job characteristics and the impact of performance on career progression, satisfaction, and commitment. Nemessa (2023) contributed by examining the relationship between job satisfaction and work performance. Yoo and Kim (2021) identified key dimensions in job performance research, including task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and counterproductive work behavior.

The relative importance of these dimensions in overall performance assessments varies, with task performance typically weighted most heavily (Rotundo, 2002). Empirical evidence supports distinguishing between task performance and contextual performance, each making distinct contributions to overall performance (Conway, 1996; Hui, 2003). Supervisors often prioritize contextual performance elements like job dedication and interpersonal facilitation when evaluating overall performance (Johnson, 2001). Griffin, Neal, and Neale (2000) highlighted how situational constraints influence the relationship between task performance and contextual performance. This evidence underscores the ongoing importance of exploring job performance comprehensively.

2.5.1 Task Performance

Task performance, as implied by its name, assesses how effectively an employee fulfills tasks and responsibilities outlined in their job description. Numerous studies have

explored various facets of optimizing task performance. Pholsiri, Kapoor, and Tesar (2004), along with Fujimoto and Hagihara (2003), focused on task performance optimization in specific contexts such as manipulator tasks and computational grids. Hong and Ahmad (2016) and El-Rewini, Ali, and Lewis (1995) discussed task prioritization and assignment to processing elements respectively. Manacher (1967) and Wang and Cheng (1992) addressed task scheduling, with Manacher concentrating on real-time task schedules and Wang on scheduling parallel tasks. Nagata, Wakita, and Ono (2007) proposed methods to minimize task instructions, while Laslo, Keren, and Ilani (2008) focused on reducing task completion times for specific applications.

Research on task performance has examined various influencing factors. Sanders (2001) and Heuer (1996) emphasized the role of task characteristics in determining performance, with Heuer underscoring task interference and response conflict. Streufert (1983) and Hoffmann, Korch, and Rauber (2004) focused on measuring and evaluating task performance, with the latter studying the impact of hardware synchronization. Schmidl and Müller (2016) and Damos (1991) delved into multitask performance complexities, with Schmidl highlighting task scheduling's impact and Damos discussing individual differences' effects. Pinel, Pecero, Bouvry, and Khan (2011) and Adler and Benbunan-Fich (2015) explored multitasking impacts, with Pinel suggesting task profiling for energy and performance prediction, and Adler finding significant impacts of forced multitasking on performance, particularly for challenging tasks.

Current research continues to focus on established variables such as leadership and motivation. Siddiquei et al. (2022) explored leadership, team processes, and project team task performance, emphasizing collective team task accomplishment over individual task performance. Alternatively, Mendoza et al. (2023) investigated motivation within the context

of online learning assignments, reflecting the prevalence of remote work. Aslan et al. (2022) examined remote work's influence on task performance and job satisfaction. Furthermore, Hosseini, Humlung, Fagerstrøm, and Haddara (2022) explored the impact of gamification on task performance in light of technological advancements. These diverse research topics underscore the evolving study of task performance in contemporary work environments.

Research on task performance has progressed from identifying influencing factors to developing theories and measurement methods. Ongoing studies continue to explore overlaps between task performance and job performance, the impacts of training, and technological advances. Future research will further expand these areas and explore new dimensions of task performance.

2.5.2 Contextual Performance

Contextual activities play a crucial role in enhancing organizational effectiveness by influencing the social, psychological, and organizational environment that shapes task activities and processes. Contextual performance, defined as non-task-specific activities that enhance individual, team, and organizational effectiveness (Aprilyanna, 2022), is a key factor in organizational success. Effective management of contextual performance, often overlooked, requires appropriate appraisal, recognition, and reward systems (Reilly & Aronson, 2012). Contextual information, particularly in online tasks, significantly enhances task performance (Heath, Motta & Dzbor, 2005). The role of context in accelerating or inhibiting the identification of target words, anticipating sentence components, and resolving ambiguity is also highlighted (Zhong, 2001). Context awareness, facilitated by a context service, enhances user experience across various applications (Lei et al., 2002). Using context to tailor data to application needs is also discussed (Bolchini et al., 2009). Lastly, a proposed

contextual information service provides consistent and lightweight contextual information to pervasive computing applications (Judd & Steenkiste, 2003).

Recent advancements in contextual performance research cover a wide array of topics. While general job and task performance receive significant attention, the study of contextual performance extends to various domains. Ali et al. (2022) explored the enhancement of contextual performance through the lens of Islamic work ethics. In contrast, Hameed et al. (2023) focused on optimizing task and contextual performance in offshore business processing organizations through effective human resource management strategies that manage stress and enhance employee performance. Chen and Shao (2022) investigated how leaders' gender attributes and gender impact employees' contextual performance, expanding the research scope. Edeh et al. (2023) looked into impression management and its correlation with employee contextual performance in service organizations. Lastly, Bhatti et al. (2022) examined the influence of employee-focused corporate social responsibility on contextual performance in the banking industry. This diverse range of studies underscores the complexity of contextual performance research in current academic literature.

2.6 Organizational Behavior

Numerous studies have explored the interaction between organizational behavior and IT professionals, revealing how organizational culture, leadership styles, and job characteristics influence their attitudes and behaviors. Robbins and Judge (2017) found that a supportive organizational culture significantly enhances job satisfaction and reduces turnover intentions among IT professionals. Transformational leadership styles are also crucial, associated with increased job satisfaction and organizational commitment in IT employees (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Avolio, Walumbwa & Weber, 2009). Job characteristics, as proposed by Hackman and Oldham's (1976) model, such as autonomy and skill variety, profoundly

impact satisfaction and motivation among IT professionals (Cascio & Shurygailo, 2003). Moreover, the rapid pace of technological advancements introduces unique stressors like role ambiguity and work overload, affecting burnout and turnover intentions among IT professionals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Emphasizing a supportive culture, transformational leadership, and enriched job roles can overall enhance job satisfaction, performance, and retention among IT professionals.

Recent research in organizational behavior has extensively explored various influences on behavior across different contexts. Serhan, Nehmeh, and Sioufi (2022) investigated how organizational commitment relates to turnover intentions, highlighting the significant correlation between employees' allegiance to their organization and their inclination to consider leaving. Androniceanu (2011) and Padhaya, Bhattarai, and Enanga (2021) have highlighted the pivotal role of core values and human factors as determinants of behavior, particularly in the education sector as explored by Padhaya et al. (2022) conducted a comprehensive analysis of factors influencing organizational behavior and decision-making, focusing on skills, motivation, and communication. Ekene (2015) and Dhillon (2014) underscored the significant impact of organizational behavior on critical aspects such as human resource management and employee performance. Ye, Liu, and Tan (2023) specifically examined the relationship between organizational justice, ethical leadership, and employees' innovation behavior. Siqueira (2002) and Northcraft and Neale (1990) addressed various challenges in organizational behavior, including those posed by new technologies and the global business landscape, with a particular emphasis on the latter.

Furthermore, Rousseau (1997) and Savio (2021) contributed to this discourse by emphasizing the need for research methodologies to evolve in line with the dynamic organizational landscape. Savio's specific research in the Italian retail industry underscores

the necessity for nuanced studies within specific organizational contexts, focusing on the dynamics of organizational behavior at individual, group, and organizational levels. Advocates of this research approach, such as Champoux (2005) and Tosi and Pilati (2011), stress the critical importance of understanding individual differences, attitudes, and motivations in organizational behavior. Buchanan and Huczynski (1972) and Osland, Kolb, Rubin, and Turner (1994) offered insightful discussions on group formation, structure, and effectiveness, addressing group dynamics within organizational frameworks.

The works of Stogdill (1967) and Gist, Locke, and Taylor (1987) highlight different dimensions of leadership and group performance. Stogdill meticulously analyzed leadership behavior and its impact on group performance, while Gist, Locke, and Taylor examined the complexities of group structures, processes, and overall effectiveness. Staw (1991) outlined the psychological aspects of organizational behavior, encompassing human differences, decision-making processes, social and group dynamics, and the pivotal dimensions of creativity and innovation. Aguinis, Jensen, and Kraus (2022) redirected attention to broader implications, scrutinizing the policy consequences of organizational behavior and human resource management research. Tang, Yam, Koopman, and Ilies (2022) contributed valuable insights by examining unethical pro-organizational behavior and exploring the complex dynamics when individuals engage in unethical behaviors perceived as advantageous for the organization.

Collectively, these studies underscore the multifaceted interplay of individual, group dynamics, and organizational factors that collectively shape behavior within the complex organizational structure. Through this body of literature, researchers have laid the foundation for a comprehensive understanding of the dynamics driving behavior within organizational contexts.

2.6.1 Effective Leadership

Effective leadership is fundamental to organizational success, acting as a catalyst that motivates individuals to perform at their peak (Weinfurter, 2013) and facilitates positive change (Wibowo, 2023). However, the effectiveness of leadership is closely tied to the specific contextual nuances of each situation (Fiedler, 1981), a critical factor during periods of organizational change (Pardey, 2007). In educational institutions, effective leadership is demonstrated through shared responsibility and a steadfast commitment to student learning (Parsons & Beauchamp, 2012). Verawati and Hartono (2020) suggest that leadership is a blend of inherent traits and learned behaviors, with today's environment demanding adaptability and effective team engagement (Jones, 2015). A successful leadership paradigm also prioritizes employee well-being and fosters the development of cohesive teams (Mujtaba, Cavico, & Senathip, 2020).

Recent contributions in this field have identified several characteristics of effective leadership. Dubey et al. (2023) explored the impact of effective leadership on job satisfaction and OCB, shedding light on the complex relationship between leadership styles and employee engagement. Padhy, Pattanayak, Reddy, and Raj (2022) underscored essential skills required for twenty-first-century leaders, emphasizing a broad spectrum from communication and problem-solving to interpersonal skills and organizational capacity building. Chaturvedi and Bansal (2022) provided insights into critical factors for effective leadership in post-pandemic adaptation, highlighting adaptive qualities crucial for navigating unprecedented challenges. Asamoah (2023) examined the ethical principles upheld by university department heads and their influence on achieving departmental goals in higher education. Additionally, Chan, Lin, and Shih (2022) identified effective leadership schemas and associated beliefs, contributing to a distinct understanding of cognitive aspects in leadership effectiveness. Finally, Carr, Park, Griggs, and Koka (2023) explored how gender

and age impact perceptions of successful leadership abilities, adding an important dimension to discussions on diversity and inclusivity in leadership roles.

Other scholarly work challenges traditional perspectives by emphasizing the importance of transformational leadership in academic institutions (Burhanuddin, 2017) and its effectiveness in navigating dynamic and competitive environments (Bektas, 2017). According to Thamhain and Wilemon (1977), the effectiveness of leadership styles depends on the work environment, with leader-centered approaches excelling in challenging conditions, while team-centered styles thrive in supportive environments. Specifically, Pujiyati, Permana, and Kuniady's (2019) research demonstrates that a blend of leadership styles optimally supports the implementation of academic programs at private universities.

Effective leadership is crucial for organizational success, emphasizing behaviors such as focusing on the organization and its people, practicing participatory management, and fostering a culture of respect and psychological safety (Swensen, 2020). This people-centric approach is pivotal as it enhances organizational commitment, improves employee performance, and boosts job satisfaction, thereby contributing significantly to the organization's overall success (Thomas, 2020). The presence of an effective leader is vital as they wield substantial influence over the organization's vision, performance objectives, culture, morale, and employee behavior (Chaston, 2017). Moreover, the leader's style can foster a reciprocal relationship with employee behavior, impacting performance and voluntary turnover (Domfeh, 2016).

2.6.2 Organizational Culture

Organizational culture is a key determinant of organizational performance and profoundly impacts innovation and knowledge management (Zhang & Li, 2016; Kayworth & Leidner, 2004). Recognized as a competitive resource requiring astute management,

organizational culture significantly influences management functions and employee behavior (Mărăcine, 2012; Kayworth & Leidner, 2004). Its measurement is essential for accurate assessment and serves as a basis for performance improvement (Reynolds, 1986; Rose, Samy, Abdullah & Goh, 2008). Meisenbach and Brandhorst (2018) discovered that organizational culture significantly influences various aspects of organizations, including procedures, personnel, and performance. They also identified that a lack of cultural integration among member companies is a leading factor in the failure of corporate groups.

Various studies have examined the diverse impact of organizational culture in different business areas. Daniel (2020) and Pathiranage, Jayatilake and Abeysekera (2020) found a robust relationship between organizational culture and employee engagement or organizational performance. Reynolds (1986) and Ahmadi, Salamzadeh, Daraei and Akbari (2012) emphasized the need for industry-specific and strategy-driven cultures, providing insights into the strategic considerations of culture. Szara, Ksykiewicz-Dorota, Klukow and Lamont (2018) and Zhang and Li (2013) established the impact of organizational culture on healthcare and employee satisfaction respectively. However, Plakhotnik and Rocco (2013) and Pathiranage (2019) argued for further research to deepen the understanding of the nature and impact of organizational culture.

Contrasting findings emerge from recent studies. Widarko and Anwarodin (2022) contend that organizational culture does not exert a direct influence on OCB, challenging the traditional perspective linking these constructs. In a parallel vein, Kenedi et al. (2022) examined the impact of organizational culture on employee performance, shedding light on a different facet of this relationship. Mingaleva, Shironina, Lobova, Olenov, Plyusnina and Oborina (2022) contributed to the discourse by framing organizational culture management as a pivotal element for the innovative and sustainable development of enterprises. In

contrast, Rahmatullah, Ramdansyah, Kambara and Haryadi (2022) argued for a positive and significant effect of organizational culture on organizational performance, emphasizing its role as a critical determinant. Srimulyani and Hermanto (2022) introduced the concept of organizational culture as a mediator in the context of credible leadership, offering insights into the detailed connection between leadership and culture. Finally, Xenikou and Furnham (2022) explored the complex relationship between leadership and organizational culture, further enriching the understanding of these interdependent constructs.

As research into organizational culture has progressed, early definitions have given way to studies of its impact on performance and the central role of leadership in its formation. Managers and leaders seeking to build resilient organizations need to understand the intricacies of organizational culture to achieve lasting success in a changing landscape.

2.6.3 Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

The current literature offers a comprehensive exploration of various dimensions within LMX and its impact on diverse aspects of organizational behavior. Dartey-Baah, Quartey, and Asante (2023) focused on the dynamics of toxic leadership, pay satisfaction, and LMX among nurses, highlighting the potential consequences of negative leadership behaviors on employee satisfaction. Toscano et al. (2022) investigated the role of a good boss in the context of LMX, family-work conflict, and remote working satisfaction, particularly during the challenging circumstances of the Covid-19 pandemic. Ahmed, Islam, Afzal, Iqbal, and Faheem (2023) emphasized LMX's ability to enhance the connection between employee performance and family supportive supervision. Sa'adah and Rijanti (2022) highlighted the positive and significant effects of LMX on both organizational commitment and performance, underscoring the pivotal role of leader-member relationships. Uhl-Bien, Carsten, Huang, and Maslyn (2022) introduced a novel perspective with their development of a manager-LMX

(MLMX) measure, distinct from the commonly used supervisor-LMX (SLMX) measure, incorporating subordinate-LMX dimensions. Finally, Liang, Liu, Park, and Wang (2022) demonstrated the profound impact of one's relationship with their leader on psychological well-being, both independently and in comparison to others' relationships with the same leader.

LMX is a crucial determinant of job performance, as stronger LMX interactions are associated with enhanced task performance, OCB, and less counterproductive behavior (Martin, Guillaume, Thomas, Lee & Epitropaki, 2016). The link between LMX and performance can be influenced by the method used to measure performance and the way in which LMX is assessed (Jensen, Olberding & Rodgers, 1997). Nevertheless, LMX research faces other challenges, such as the absence of a uniform conceptual definition and measurement (Schriesheim, Castro & Cogliser, 1999). Despite these difficulties, research has shown that LMX is strongly associated with job performance, contentment with supervision, general satisfaction, commitment, role conflict, role clarity, member competence, and turnover intentions (Gerstner & Day, 1997). LMX is a complex concept that encompasses various dimensions, including affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). The correlation between LMX and human resource development is a subject that needs further investigation, as noted by Kang and Stewart (2007).

LMX theory has been extensively studied, with research indicating its significant impact on employee outcomes, particularly during times of organizational change (Alshamasi, 2012). LMX has evolved over time, focusing on the dyadic relationship between a leader and a member (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The relationship between LMX and various outcomes is influenced by national culture, with stronger relationships in individualistic contexts (Rockstuhl, Dulebohn, Ang & Shore, 2012). The LMX-7 scale is

widely used and treated as a single, broad construct (Joseph, Newman & Sin, 2011). However, challenges exist in achieving convergence in leader-follower ratings of LMX, potentially due to item wording and content (Schriesheim, Wu & Cooper, 2011). A new LMX scale, LMX-6, has been developed and validated, showing promising results (Schriesheim, Neider, Scandura & Tepper, 1992). Collectively, these studies contribute valuable insights into the multifaceted nature of LMX and its implications for organizational dynamics and employee well-being.

The relationship between LMX and digitalization is particularly significant among IT professionals, who face unique challenges such as digital fatigue and the need for continuous skill development. Effective digital communication tools are essential for maintaining high-quality LMX, fostering trust, and facilitating problem-solving. Leaders who support professional development and provide regular feedback can enhance LMX quality, leading to better job satisfaction and performance in the IT sector (Johnson et al., 2022). As the digital landscape continues to evolve, leaders must remain agile and responsive to technological advancements, ensuring that LMX remains robust and supportive of both organizational goals and employee well-being (Smith & Johnson, 2023).

2.6.4 Organizational Commitment

The research on organizational commitment spans various dimensions and explores the multifaceted nature of factors influencing this critical aspect of employee engagement. Muhamad et al. (2023), along with Yandi and Havidz (2022), have contributed to this discourse by conducting comprehensive literature reviews on organizational commitment. To and Huang (2022) investigated the specific context of Macao's gaming industry, examining the linkages among equity, perceived organizational support, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Meanwhile, Karoso, Riinawati, Ilham, Rais, and Latifa (2022)

explored the multilayered relationship between work environment, quality of work life, and employee performance, highlighting the mediating role of organizational commitment. Pratama, Suwarni, and Handayani (2022) focused on turnover intention, examining how job satisfaction and organizational commitment, moderated by person-organization fit, impact employees' decisions to stay or leave. Moreira, Sousa, and Cesário (2022) shifted the lens to competencies development, investigating the role of organizational commitment and employability perception. Lastly, Gumasing and Ilo (2023) provided an empirical analysis on the impact of job satisfaction on creating a sustainable workplace, emphasizing the interconnectedness of organizational commitment and lifestyle behavior.

Organizational commitment is a complex construct, encompassing various dimensions such as affective, continuance, and normative commitment (Muthuveloo & Rose, 2005). The concept of multiple commitments to different groups has also been proposed (Reichers, 1985). In small and medium-sized firms, work status, organizational climate, and entrepreneurial orientation play a significant role in shaping organizational commitment (Clercq & Rius, 2007). Furthermore, organizational commitment has been used as a measure of managerial motivation, with personal attributes, job characteristics, and organizational climate identified as critical predictors (Sharma, Mohapatra & Rai, 2013).

A range of studies has explored the concept of organizational commitment, identifying critical factors influencing it, such as affective, continuous, moral, and enduring commitment (Kheirkhah, Seyedaliakbar & Fathi, 2014). The relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction, employee turnover, and job performance has also been examined (Wahaibi, 2016; Rafiei, Amini & Foroozandeh, 2014). The role of organizational commitment in employee retention and turnover has been emphasized (Wei & Tai, 2010), and a reliable measure of organizational commitment has been developed

(Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). Lastly, the utility of an integrative definition of organizational commitment has been discussed (Dunham, Grube & Castañeda, 1994). Together, these studies provide a thorough understanding of organizational commitment, considering diverse contexts and factors that shape this critical aspect of organizational behavior.

2.6.5 Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence, a concept that has gained significant attention in recent decades, is defined as the ability to perceive, use, understand, and manage emotions and is considered a key factor in success, particularly in personal and work relationships (Salovey & Grewal, 2005). It is also linked to the regulation of emotions and the construction of feelings (Mayer & Salovey, 1995). The research on emotional intelligence spans various domains, with recent studies delving into its impact on diverse aspects of professional and personal life. Kumar and Basha's (2022) investigation into the relationship between emotional intelligence and the quality of life among doctors during the COVID-19 pandemic reveals a positive correlation, emphasizing the crucial role emotional intelligence plays in fostering life satisfaction in high-stress environments. Similarly, Khassawneh, Mohammad, Ben-Abdallah, and Alabidi (2022) explored the connection between emotional intelligence and educators' performance in the higher education sector, highlighting the importance of emotional intelligence in shaping effective teaching practices. Kessi, Suwardi, Mukhtar, Asmawiyah, and AR (2022) examined the intersection of Islamic leadership, emotional intelligence, and spiritual intelligence, highlighting their collective impact on work passion and performance.

Ginoga, Masyadi, and Mangkona (2023) focused on the organizational context, investigating the influence of competence, emotional intelligence, and work environment on employee performance. Zhi et al. (2023) studied the role of emotional intelligence and self-

efficacy in English as a Foreign Language teachers' adoption of technology, offering insights into the factors influencing successful integration. Chaidi and Drigas (2022) contributed to literature by exploring the relationship between emotional intelligence, learning, and the role of ICT. Finally, Wang, Li, Yin, Wu, and Liu (2023) provided a pioneering psychometric evaluation of the emotional intelligence of large language models, contributing to the understanding of these models and hinting at the potential development of future models that embody both high intellectual and emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence is a crucial skill in various aspects of life, including leadership, team building, and communication (Chopra & Kanji, 2010). However, there is ongoing debate about its measurement and whether it is an individual ability, non-cognitive skill, capability, or competence (Akerjordet & Severinsson, 2007). Despite these challenges, emotional intelligence has been shown to have a positive impact on attitudes, adaptability, relationships, and values. It is particularly important in multicultural counseling, where it is linked to empathy and the ability to understand and address the mental health concerns of culturally diverse individuals (Constantine & Gainor, 2001).

Other studies continue to highlight the importance of emotional intelligence in various aspects of life. Salovey and Grewal (2005) emphasized its role in personal and work relationships, identifying five key dimensions. El-kassas (2020) and Hariharno and Amudha (2012) provide a theoretical and empirical perspective, respectively, on the concept, while Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, and Dornheim (1998) and ReddyVijayaBhaskar, Haritha, and Neeraja (2012) offer insights into its measurement and application in the workplace. Sharma and Chand (2022) and Lalitha (2014) further showcased its impact on job performance and occupational stress. These studies underscore the multifaceted impact of emotional intelligence across various domains, shaping outcomes

in healthcare, education, leadership, workplace performance, language teaching, and even in the context of advanced language models.

2.7 Underlying Theories

Social Exchange Theory serves as the foundational framework underpinning this study, guiding the examination of various constructs such as effective leadership, organizational commitment, LMX, emotional intelligence, task performance, and contextual performance. This theory provides valuable insights into the dynamics of interpersonal relationships and reciprocal interactions within organizational settings, offering a lens to analyze the exchange of resources, support, and influence among individuals and groups. By applying Social Exchange Theory, this study seeks to elucidate the mechanisms through which these constructs influence one another and contribute to organizational outcomes within the context of Malaysian public universities.

2.7.1 Social Exchange Theory

Social Exchange Theory, a key concept in sociology and social psychology, posits that human interactions are based on the exchange of rewards (Hsieh, Hughes & Schult, 2019). This framework emphasizes the role of trust, commitment, and interdependence in social behavior (Varey, 2015). It has been applied to various fields, including marketing (Varey, 2015), sociology, and anthropology (Zafirovski, 2005). However, it has been criticized for its lack of theoretical precision and limited predictive utility (Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels & Hall, 2017). Despite these criticisms, Social Exchange Theory has been used as a framework for teaching the sociological perspective (O'Brien & Kollock, 1991) and for understanding international relations (Druckman, 1998). There is a need for further research in psychological transactions, reciprocity principles, and the impact of various factors on the exchange process (Ahmad, Nawaz, Ishaq, Khan & Ashraf, 2023).

The choice of Social Exchange Theory as the theoretical framework for this study is grounded in its versatility in examining the interplay between independent and dependent variables. Its robustness in scrutinizing human interactions aligns seamlessly with the focus of this research. Moreover, its comprehensive elucidation of the LMX dynamic between supervisors and subordinates further validates its suitability for this investigation.

2.8 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of this study explores the complex dynamics of organizational behavior factors across multiple levels (organizational, group, and individual) and their influence on job performance, with a specific focus on both task performance and contextual performance. As shown in Figure 2.1, organizational behavior factors serve as independent variables, comprising five elements categorized into three levels of organizational behavior. Job performance is the dependent variable within this conceptual framework, delineated into task and contextual performance dimensions. At the organizational level, the study analyzes the impact of effective leadership and organizational culture on task and contextual performance. At the group level, the investigation focuses on the influence of LMX on task and contextual performance. Finally, the study assesses the effects of organizational commitment and emotional intelligence on task and contextual performance at the individual level.

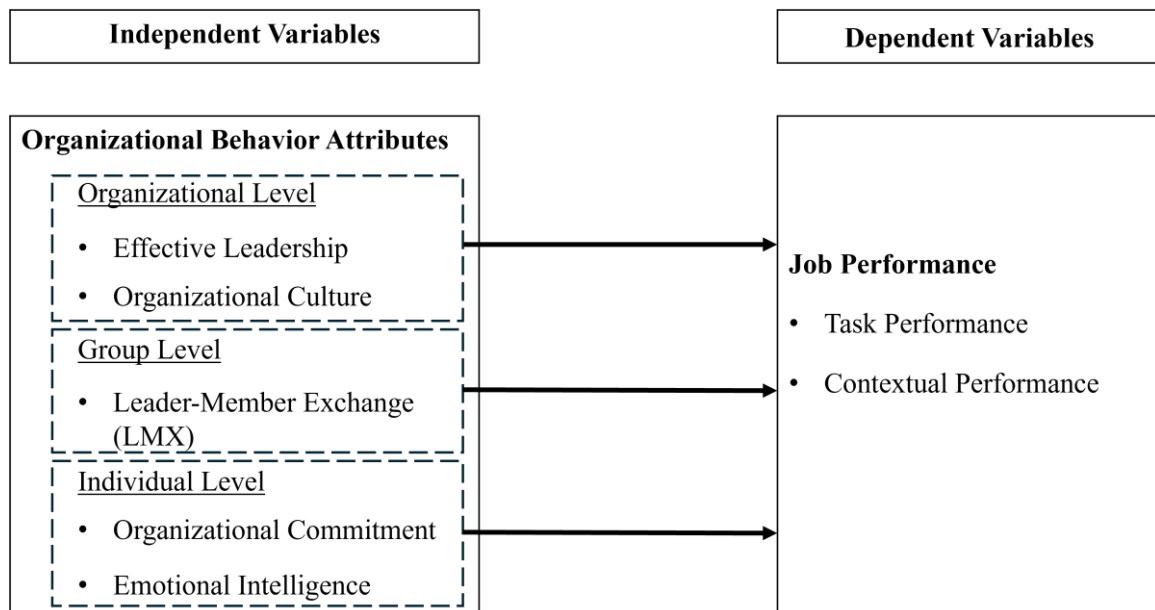


Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework

2.8.1 Gaps in the Literature

Organizational behavior is a complex and multidisciplinary field that examines how individuals, groups, and structures interact within organizations. Despite significant progress in understanding factors impacting organizational behavior, there remains a need for more comprehensive and integrated approaches that explore every level of organizational behavior.

Existing research has explored various factors impacting organizational behavior at the individual, group, and organizational levels. However, much of this research has focused on specific levels or factors in isolation, rather than examining the interactions and interdependencies between different levels and factors. No known research has examined individual, group, and organizational levels on job performance comprehensively.

There is thus a gap in the literature for studies that provide an overview of organizational behavior by exploring interactions and interdependencies between the individual, group, and organizational levels. While some studies have explored these

interactions to some extent, more comprehensive and integrated approaches are needed to examine every level of organizational behavior in a systematic and holistic way.

In summary, existing research has made significant progress in understanding factors impacting organizational behavior. However, there is a need for more comprehensive and integrated approaches that explore every level of organizational behavior in a systematic and holistic way. Addressing this literature gap can have important implications for both theory and practice, ultimately leading to improved organizational outcomes and employee well-being.

2.8.2 Justification of the Conceptual Framework

The development of a conceptual framework is a crucial step in any research project, providing a clear and logical structure for testing research hypotheses. In the proposed framework, five independent variables are anticipated to impact job performance, specifically task performance and contextual performance. These independent variables include effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, organizational commitment, and emotional intelligence. These variables are key organizational behavior factors used to measure their relationship with task and contextual performance.

The independent variables are grouped into three main organizational behavior levels: organizational, group, and individual. Effective leadership and organizational culture represent the organizational level; LMX represents the group level; and organizational commitment and emotional intelligence represent the individual level. This categorization allows for a more nuanced analysis and targeted recommendations based on the findings. By dividing these elements into dedicated groups, the study can offer precise insights into how different levels of organizational behavior factors influence job performance. This structured

approach facilitates a comprehensive understanding of the dynamics at play, providing a robust foundation for practical interventions and improvements in organizational settings.

Effective leadership is a critical determinant of organizational performance, influencing the behavior and attitudes of employees and the overall organizational culture (Northouse, 2021). Organizational culture shapes the values, beliefs, and attitudes of employees, affecting their commitment to the organization and job performance (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). LMX reflects the quality of the relationship between leaders and their followers, influencing the degree of trust and support that employees receive, which impacts their performance and motivation (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Organizational commitment is key in determining job satisfaction and turnover intentions, and it is expected to be positively related to job performance (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Emotional intelligence reflects an individual's ability to recognize, understand, and manage their own emotions and the emotions of others, which is likely to be positively associated with job performance (Mayer & Salovey, 2004).

Based on these independent variables, 10 hypotheses can be developed to test their impact on task and contextual performance. The justification for using this conceptual framework lies in its ability to provide a comprehensive and holistic understanding of the factors that influence job performance while highlighting the specific relationships between the independent and dependent variables. By testing these hypotheses, the study can provide valuable insights into how organizations can improve performance by focusing on specific factors related to job performance. Overall, this conceptual framework is a useful tool for developing and testing research hypotheses related to job performance in organizations.

2.8.3 Description of Variables

The framework shown in Figure 2.1 consists of two main groups of constructs: independent and dependent variables. The independent variables consist of five components: effective leadership, organizational culture, employees' LMX, organizational commitment, and emotional intelligence. These components have been thoroughly discussed in Sections 2.3 to 2.7, respectively. On the other hand, the dependent variable, job performance, is divided into two dimensions: task performance and contextual performance, which has been discussed in Section 2.2.

2.9 Hypotheses Development

In the contemporary, highly competitive business landscape, identifying key factors that enhance employee performance is essential for organizational success. Effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, organizational commitment, and emotional intelligence have been widely acknowledged for their significant influence on workplace outcomes. However, there is still a gap in understanding how these factors collectively impact both task performance and contextual performance. Task performance pertains to the efficiency and quality of specific job-related duties, while contextual performance involves behaviors that support the broader organizational environment.

This study, grounded in Social Exchange Theory, seeks to integrate these variables to provide a thorough understanding of performance drivers. By investigating the interrelationships between leadership effectiveness, cultural alignment, the quality of leader-member interactions, employee commitment, and emotional intelligence, this research aims to deliver practical insights for improving job performance. Consequently, 10 hypotheses have been developed to investigate the relationships between these variables.

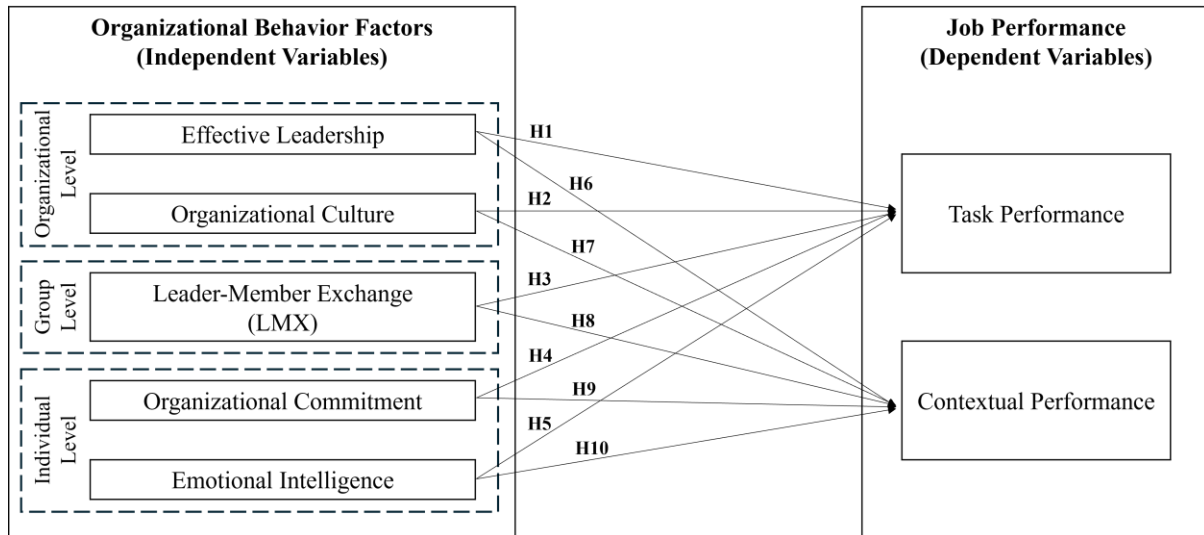


Figure 2.2: Proposed Model of Organizational Behavior Factors on Job Performance

The proposed conceptual framework encompassing these hypotheses is shown in Figure 2.2. The following hypotheses are formulated to direct this investigation.

2.9.1 Effective Leadership and Task Performance

A range of studies has explored the relationship between leadership styles and task performance, consistently finding a positive association. Cheng and Osman (2021) and Ambad, Kalimin, Damit, and Andrew (2021) highlighted the importance of directive and supportive leadership styles in enhancing task performance, with the latter emphasizing the mediating role of psychological empowerment. Lee, Kwon, and Choi (2021) further support this, suggesting that empowering leadership can also positively impact task performance. Downey, Sheridan, and Slocum (1975) and Murnighan and Leung (1976) provided additional insights, with the former suggesting that the relationship between leader behavior and performance is influenced by task structure, and the latter demonstrating the impact of leadership involvement and task importance on performance. These findings collectively underscore the significant role of effective leadership in driving task performance.

A meta-analysis by Wang and Howell (2010) found that effective leadership was positively related to task performance, with a stronger relationship when leaders demonstrated transformational leadership behaviors. Additionally, other studies have suggested that effective leadership can enhance employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment, which in turn can positively influence task performance (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996).

While there is evidence suggesting a positive relationship between effective leadership and task performance, other factors such as individual differences in personality, task complexity, or organizational culture may also play a role. Additionally, some studies have found little or no relationship between leadership effectiveness and performance in certain contexts (Hmieleski & Ensley, 2007; Waldman, Ramirez, House & Puranam, 2001). Hence, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H1: There is a positive relationship between effective leadership and task performance.

2.9.2 Organizational Culture and Task Performance

A body of research consistently supports a positive relationship between organizational culture and task performance. Byles, Aupperle, and Arogyaswamy (1992) and Matko and Takács (2017) emphasize the role of culture in focusing individual effort, enhancing commitment, and supporting strategic vision. Mali, Kuzmanović, Mitic, Terek-Stojanović, and Nikolić (2022) found that a strong organizational culture, particularly one that emphasizes collectivism, performance orientation, humane orientation, and assertiveness, positively influences job satisfaction and financial performance. The role of leadership in shaping organizational culture and its impact on employee performance is highlighted by Awadh and Saad (2013) and Tsai (2011). Wahjoedi (2021) and Yazici (2011) found that

organizational culture has a direct and positive effect on job satisfaction and work motivation, which in turn positively influences employee performance.

McKinnon, Harrison, Chow, and Wu (2003) also found that organizational cultural values such as respect for people, innovation, stability, and aggressiveness are positively associated with employee commitment, job satisfaction, and propensity to remain with the organization. Kamalakannan (2021) and Chauhan, MacDougall, Buckley, Howe, Crisostomo, and Zeni (2020) revealed that specific elements of organizational culture, such as achieving goals, empowerment, and teamwork, have a positive impact on work performance. The influence of organizational culture on employee performance is also evident in the hospitality industry (Dirisu, Worlu, Osibanjo, Salau, Borishade, Meninwa & Atolagbe, 2018), the telecommunications sector (Ahmed & Shafiq, 2014), and the public sector in Oman (Mohd Isa, Ugheoke & Wan Mohd Noor, 2016).

Studies have found that organizational culture can significantly impact employee attitudes and behaviors that contribute to task performance. For example, Schneider, Ehrhart, and Macey (2013) found that a strong and positive organizational culture was associated with higher levels of employee engagement, job satisfaction, and performance. Denison, Hooijberg, and Quinn (1995) indicated that a strong organizational culture emphasizing adaptability, mission clarity, and employee involvement was associated with higher levels of organizational performance.

While evidence suggests that organizational culture can positively impact task performance, other factors may also contribute. Individual differences in personality or motivation, as well as external factors such as market conditions or economic factors, may play a role in determining task performance. Additionally, the relationship between organizational culture and task performance may depend on specific contextual factors such

as industry, task type, or organization size and structure. Thus, the following hypothesis is developed:

H2: There is a positive relationship between organizational culture and task performance.

2.9.3 Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and Task Performance

A body of research consistently supports a positive relationship between LMX and task performance. Martin, Guillaume, Thomas, Lee, and Epitropaki (2016) and Berdicchia (2015) found that LMX quality positively influences task performance, with the latter identifying role breadth self-efficacy and challenging job demands as mediating factors. Moss, Sanchez, Brumbaugh, and Borkowski (2009) and Lee, Thomas, Martin, and Guillaume (2019) further explored the mechanisms behind this relationship, with the former highlighting the mediating role of feedback avoidance behavior and the latter introducing the concept of LMX ambivalence. Law, Wang, and Hui (2010) and Peterson and Aikens (2017) expanded the discussion by considering the influence of global LMX and professional respect on task performance. Dunegan, Uhl-Bien, and Duchon (2002) and Ahmed, Afzal, and Abdul Rasid (2021) added a contingency perspective, with the former identifying role conflict, role ambiguity, and intrinsic task satisfaction as moderators, and the latter proposing a mediated moderation model involving LMX, leader's task orientation, and employee taking-charge behavior.

Kacmar, Witt, Zivnuska, and Gully (2003) found a strong relationship between LMX and task performance, highlighting the moderating role of communication frequency. Lee, Thomas, Martin, and Guillaume (2019) introduced the concept of LMX ambivalence, which can negatively impact task performance, but this effect can be mitigated by social support. Chan and Yeung (2016) and Kim, Poulston, and Sankaran (2017) further explored the

positive relationship between LMX and employee voice behavior, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. Jensen, Olberding, and Rodgers (1997) and Volmer, Niessen, Spurk, Linz, and Abele (2011) emphasized the reciprocal nature of the LMX and performance relationship, with the latter also highlighting the role of job satisfaction. Lastly, Rockstuhl, Dulebohn, Ang, and Shore (2012) found that the relationship between LMX and task performance is not significantly influenced by national culture.

Research has consistently shown that high-quality LMX relationships between employees and their supervisors are associated with a range of positive outcomes, including higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and task performance (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Erdogan & Liden, 2006; Gerstner & Day, 1997). Employees with high-quality LMX relationships are more likely to receive higher levels of support, feedback, and developmental opportunities from their supervisors, which can increase their motivation and task performance. For example, Erdogan and Bauer (2009) found that high-quality LMX relationships were positively related to employee job performance, and that this relationship was mediated by employee motivation.

While there is strong evidence suggesting a positive relationship between LMX and task performance, other factors may also contribute to task performance. Individual differences in personality, work experience, or task complexity may also play a role. Additionally, the relationship between LMX and task performance may be moderated by contextual factors such as industry, task type, or organization size and structure. The following hypothesis is developed:

H3: There is a positive relationship between LMX and task performance.

2.9.4 Organizational Commitment and Task Performance

The literature consistently supports a positive relationship between organizational commitment and task performance (Wu, Tsai, Fey & Wu, 2006; Mythily, 2018). Sabir, Zakraoui, and Taouab (2021) found that organizational commitment positively influences individual work performance. Sungu, Weng, Hu, Kitule, and Fang (2020) and Tseng and Lee (2011) also identified similar relationships, with Sungu emphasizing the role of affective and normative commitment and Tseng highlighting the impact of employee personality and organizational culture. Hedayat, Sogolitappeh, Shakeri, Abasifard, and Khaledian (2018) further confirmed this relationship by linking organizational commitment to job satisfaction. Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Davis-LaMastro (1990) and Welsch and LaVan (1981) provided additional insights, with Eisenberger emphasizing the role of perceived organizational support and Welsch identifying various job characteristics and organizational climate factors that influence organizational commitment. However, Wright (1997) found a significant negative correlation between organizational commitment and job performance in a specific sample, suggesting that further research is needed to fully understand this relationship.

Organizational commitment is defined as the degree to which an employee identifies with and is committed to the goals and values of the organization. Employees with high levels of organizational commitment are more likely to exhibit behaviors consistent with organizational goals, such as putting in extra effort and taking on additional tasks. For example, a study by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found that employees with high levels of organizational commitment were more likely to engage in prosocial behaviors that contributed to task performance. Additionally, research consistently shows that employees with high levels of organizational commitment are more likely to perform well on their job tasks (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Leadership styles, such as initiating structure and consideration, have direct effects on

organizational commitment (Dale & Fox, 2008). The role of task significance in enhancing organizational commitment is also highlighted, with its impact being contingent on the type of commitment and employees' openness to experience (Fernández-Mesa, Llopis, García-Granero & Olmos-Peñuela, 2020).

While strong evidence suggests a positive relationship between organizational commitment and task performance, other factors may also contribute to task performance. Individual differences in personality, work experience, or task complexity may play a role. Additionally, the relationship between organizational commitment and task performance may be moderated by contextual factors such as industry, task type, or organization size and structure. Hence, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H4: There is a positive relationship between organizational commitment and task performance.

2.9.5 Emotional Intelligence and Task Performance

Research consistently supports a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and task performance. Studies by Carmeli and Josman (2006), Kappagoda (2012), Ugoani (2020), Douglas, Frink, and Ferris (2004), Côté and Miners (2006), Schutte, Schuettpelez, and Malouff (2001), Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall, and Salovey (2006), and Furnham, Treglown, and Topic (2021) all found that higher emotional intelligence is associated with better task performance. This relationship is particularly strong when cognitive intelligence is lower (Côté & Miners, 2006), and emotional intelligence can also moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and performance (Douglas, Frink & Ferris, 2004). Ugoani (2020) highlighted the role of emotional intelligence in employees' training needs assessment and task performance. Emotional intelligence has been linked to improved performance on

cognitive tasks (Schutte, Schuettpelez & Malouff, 2001), and individuals with higher emotional intelligence tend to receive better performance ratings (Lopes et al., 2006).

Furthermore, research has consistently shown that individuals with high levels of emotional intelligence are more likely to perform well on their job tasks (Caruso, Mayer & Salovey, 2002; Wong & Law, 2002; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). Emotional intelligence is defined as the ability to perceive, understand, and regulate one's own emotions, as well as the emotions of others. Employees with high levels of emotional intelligence are better able to manage their own emotions and respond appropriately to the emotions of others, leading to more effective communication, collaboration, and problem-solving on the job. For example, a study by Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004) found that emotional intelligence was positively related to job performance across a variety of jobs and industries.

While strong evidence suggests a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and task performance, other factors may also contribute to task performance. Individual differences in personality, cognitive ability, or job experience may play a role. Additionally, the relationship between emotional intelligence and task performance may be moderated by contextual factors such as industry, task type, or organization size and structure. These findings support the formulation of the following hypothesis:

H5: There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and task performance.

2.9.6 Effective Leadership and Contextual Performance

A body of research consistently supports a positive relationship between effective leadership and contextual performance. Jelača, Berber, Ivanović Đukić, Marić, and Rodić (2023) and Shun-ku (2014) found that people-oriented and authentic leadership styles,

respectively, are associated with higher contextual performance. This relationship is further supported by Popa (2012), Shah, Hamid, Shaikh, Qureshi, and Pahi (2016), and Pazetto, Luiz, and Beuren (2023), who highlight the role of leadership in shaping organizational culture and promoting employee performance. The importance of contextual leadership is emphasized by Osborn and Marion (2009), who found that knowledge-based leadership by alliance heads is linked to higher innovation and strategic contributions. Imran, Zahoor, and Zaheer (2015) and Knies, Jacobsen, and Tummers (2016) also underscore the significance of leadership in driving organizational performance, with Imran specifically noting the mediating role of organizational culture.

While strong evidence suggests a positive relationship between effective leadership and contextual performance, other factors may also contribute. Contextual performance may be influenced by individual differences in personality, job experience, or organizational culture. Additionally, contextual performance may be affected by factors such as job type, industry, organization size and structure, or the level of resources available to employees. This leads to the following hypothesis:

H6: There is a positive relationship between effective leadership and contextual performance.

2.9.7 Organizational Culture and Contextual Performance

Studies consistently support a positive relationship between organizational culture and contextual performance. Petty, Beadles, Chapman, Lowery, and Connell (1995) and Byles, Aupperle, and Arogyaswamy (1992) found that measures of organizational culture were significantly related to performance, with teamwork being a key factor. This relationship was further supported by Collen (2019), who found that person-organization fit, perceived organizational prestige, and organizational identity strength were all positively related to

contextual performance. Kim and Chang (2019) and Christopher and Edwinah (2022) demonstrated that certain types of organizational culture, such as clan and market cultures, were associated with better performance. However, Lim (1995) cautioned that the culture-performance link is not always clear and may be influenced by other factors. Henri (2006) and Martínez, Beaulieu, Gibbons, Pronovost, and Wang (2015) emphasized the importance of a well-developed and strategically aligned culture in driving performance.

Zhang (2016) believes that organizational culture significantly impacts contextual performance, with a strong culture emphasizing adaptability and innovation leading to better performance in dynamic environments. Employees are more likely to work towards organizational goals when they identify with the corporate culture (Bashayreh, 2019). The type of organizational culture, such as flexibility-dominant or control-dominant, also influences the use and diversity of performance measurement systems (Henri, 2006).

Several studies have found that organizational culture is positively related to contextual performance (Chatman & Cha, 2003; Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013; Schein, 2010). Organizational culture encompasses the shared values, beliefs, and practices of an organization that shape the behavior and attitudes of its members. A strong and positive organizational culture can create a supportive work environment, build trust and cooperation among employees, and promote a sense of ownership and commitment to the organization. For example, Schneider et al. (2013) found that organizational culture was positively related to OCBs, which are voluntary behaviors that support the social and organizational environment of the workplace. Chatman and Cha (2003) found that employees who perceived a strong fit between their personal values and the values of their organization were more likely to engage in contextual behaviors.

While strong evidence suggests a positive relationship between organizational culture and contextual performance, other factors may also contribute. Contextual performance may be influenced by individual differences in personality, job experience, or leadership style. Additionally, contextual performance may be affected by factors such as job type, industry, organization size and structure, or the level of resources available to employees. This leads to the following hypothesis:

H7: There is a positive relationship between organizational culture and contextual performance.

2.9.8 Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and Contextual Performance

Research consistently shows a positive relationship between LMX and performance (Martin et al., 2016; Moss et al., 2009; Berdicchia, 2015; Peterson & Aikens, 2017; Blanc & González-Romá, 2012; Sui, Wang, Kirkman & Li, 2016; Dam, Nikolova & Ruysseveldt, 2013). This relationship is mediated by factors such as trust, motivation, empowerment, job satisfaction (Martin et al., 2016), feedback avoidance behavior (Moss et al., 2009), role breadth self-efficacy and challenging job demands (Berdicchia, 2015), and situational learning and performance goals (Dam et al., 2013). The mediating influence of organization-based self-esteem also supports this relationship (Aryee & Lee, 2005). The quality of LMX significantly influences subordinates' communication satisfaction in various contexts (Mueller & Lee, 2002). However, the relationship between LMX and performance is weaker when measures are obtained from a different source or method (Martin et al., 2016). Additionally, LMX differentiation can impact team performance positively or negatively, depending on the team's size and power distance orientation (Sui et al., 2016).

LMX theory suggests that the quality of the relationship between a leader and their followers can impact work outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment,

and performance (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). High-quality LMX relationships, characterized by mutual trust, respect, and support, are associated with higher levels of contextual performance, such as helping behaviors and proactive problem-solving (Liao, Liu, & Loi, 2010).

While there is evidence suggesting a positive relationship between LMX and contextual performance, other factors may also contribute. Contextual performance may be influenced by individual differences in personality, job experience, or motivation. Additionally, contextual performance may be affected by factors such as job type, industry, organization size and structure, or the level of resources available to employees. The next hypothesis is formulated as follows:

H8: There is a positive relationship between LMX and contextual performance.

2.9.9 Organizational Commitment and Contextual Performance

Research consistently shows a positive relationship between organizational commitment and contextual performance. Affective commitment, in particular, has been found to have a strong positive effect on contextual performance (Cichy, Cha & Kim, 2009; Collen, 2019). Qian-we (2007) found a significant correlation between job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and contextual performance. This relationship is further mediated by factors such as transformational leadership (Guangling, 2011) and perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 1990). Organizational commitment is also evident in the relationships between person-organization fit, perceived organizational prestige, organizational identity strength, and contextual performance (Collen, 2019).

Additionally, the effect of employability and job characteristics on contextual performance is explored, with organizational commitment emerging as a mediating factor

(Aryani & Widodo, 2020). However, continuance commitment, while positively related to job performance, may not always have a positive impact on contextual performance (Suliman & Iles, 2000). The influence of organizational commitment on company performance has also been highlighted, with desirable leadership behavior positively related to subordinates' organizational commitment, which in turn contributes to company performance (Steyrer, Schiffinger & Lang, 2008).

The three-component model of organizational commitment suggests that commitment to an organization is composed of three components: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Affective commitment refers to an employee's emotional attachment and identification with the organization, while continuance commitment refers to an employee's perception of the costs of leaving the organization. Normative commitment refers to an employee's sense of obligation to remain with the organization. Research has shown that employees who have a strong sense of organizational commitment, particularly affective commitment, are more likely to engage in behaviors that benefit the organization beyond their formal job duties, such as helping others, volunteering for extra projects, and advocating for the organization (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996; Wiener, 1982). These behaviors are considered examples of contextual performance. Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) found that employees who reported higher levels of affective commitment were more likely to engage in helping behaviors in their jobs. Similarly, Wiener (1982) found that organizational commitment was positively related to OCBs, which are voluntary behaviors that support the organization and its members.

While strong evidence suggests a positive relationship between organizational commitment and contextual performance, other factors may also contribute. Contextual performance may be influenced by individual differences in personality, job experience, or

motivation. Additionally, contextual performance may be affected by factors such as job type, industry, organization size and structure, or the level of resources available to employees. This leads to the following hypothesis:

H9: There is a positive relationship between organizational commitment and contextual performance.

2.9.10 Emotional Intelligence and Contextual Performance

The literature consistently supports a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and contextual performance. Cichy et al. (2009) found that higher emotional intelligence scores were associated with better performance among industry executives, while Kappagoda (2012) reported similar results in the banking sector. Suan and Yusoff (2017) and Lopes et al. (2006) both found that emotional intelligence was related to OCBs, a key aspect of contextual performance. Carmeli and Josman (2006) further supported this by showing a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and task performance. Huizenga (2004) and Newman, Joseph, and MacCann (2010) proposed that specific emotional competencies, such as self-control and social skills, may be the true predictors of performance. Lastly, Narayan and Narashiman (2014) emphasized the importance of emotional intelligence in improving work performance and organizational commitment.

While evidence suggests a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and contextual performance, other factors may also contribute. Contextual performance may be influenced by individual differences in personality, job experience, or motivation. Additionally, contextual performance may be affected by factors such as job type, industry, organization size and structure, or the level of resources available to employees. Based on the literature discussed above, the following hypothesis was developed:

H10: There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and contextual performance.

2.10 Literature Review Summary

To provide a clear overview of the existing research relevant to this study, a summary of the literature review is presented in Table 2.1. This table includes the authors, year of publication, key findings, and the relevance of each research to the current study.

Table 2.1: Literature Review Summary

Authors (Year)	Key Findings	Relevance to Current Study
Cheng & Osman (2021); Ambad et al. (2021)	Highlighted the importance of directive and supportive leadership styles in enhancing task performance, with the latter emphasizing the mediating role of psychological empowerment.	Provides evidence for Hypothesis 1.
Lee et al. (2021)	Suggested that empowering leadership can also positively impact task performance.	
Downey et al. (1975); Murnighan & Leung (1976)	Suggested that the relationship between leader behavior and performance is influenced by task structure, and the latter demonstrating the impact of leadership involvement and task importance on performance.	
Wang & Howell (2010)	Effective leadership was positively related to task performance, with a stronger relationship when leaders demonstrated transformational leadership behaviors.	
Judge & Piccolo (2004); Podsakoff et al. (1996)	Effective leadership can enhance employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment, which in turn can positively influence task performance.	
Hmieleski & Ensley (2007); Waldman et al. (2001)	Found little or no relationship between leadership effectiveness and performance in certain contexts.	Provides evidence for Hypothesis 2.
Byles et al. (1992); Matko & Takács (2017)	Emphasize the role of culture in focusing individual effort, enhancing commitment, and supporting strategic vision.	
Mali et al. (2022)	Strong organizational culture, particularly one that emphasizes collectivism, performance orientation, humane orientation, and assertiveness, positively influences job satisfaction and financial performance.	
Awadh & Saad (2013); Tsai (2011)	The role of leadership in shaping organizational culture and its impact on employee performance.	
Wahjoedi (2021); Yazici (2011)	Organizational culture has a direct and positive effect on job satisfaction and work motivation, which in turn positively influences employee performance.	
McKinnon et al. (2003)	Organizational cultural values such as respect for people, innovation, stability, and aggressiveness are positively associated with employee commitment, job satisfaction, and propensity to remain with the organization.	
Kamalakannan (2021); Chauhan et al. (2020)	Specific elements of organizational culture, such as achieving goals, empowerment, and teamwork, have a positive impact on work performance.	
Schneider et al. (2013)	Found that a strong and positive organizational culture was associated with higher levels of employee engagement, job satisfaction, and performance.	

Table 2.1: Literature Review Summary (continued)

Authors (Year)	Key Findings	Relevance to Current Study
Denison et al. (1995)	Strong organizational culture emphasizing adaptability, mission clarity, and employee involvement was associated with higher levels of organizational performance.	
Martin et al. (2016); Berdicchia (2015)	LMX quality positively influences task performance, with the latter identifying role breadth self-efficacy and challenging job demands as mediating factors.	Provides evidence for Hypothesis 3.
Moss et al. (2009); Lee et al. (2019)	Mechanisms behind this relationship, with the former highlighting the mediating role of feedback avoidance behavior and the latter introducing the concept of LMX ambivalence.	
Law et al. (2010); Peterson & Aikens (2017)	Considering the influence of global LMX and professional respect on task performance.	
Dunegan et al. (2002)	identified role conflict, role ambiguity, and intrinsic task satisfaction as moderators between LMX and task performance.	
Ahmed et al. (2021)	Proposed a mediated moderation model involving LMX, leader's task orientation, and employee taking-charge behavior.	
Witt et al. (2003)	Found a strong relationship between LMX and task performance, highlighting the moderating role of communication frequency.	
Lee et al. (2019)	Introduced the concept of LMX ambivalence, which can negatively impact task performance, but this effect can be mitigated by social support.	
Kacmar et al. (2003)	Found a strong relationship between LMX and task performance, highlighting the moderating role of communication frequency.	
Lee et al. (2019)	Introduced the concept of LMX ambivalence, which can negatively impact task performance, but this effect can be mitigated by social support.	
Chan & Yeung (2016); Kim et al. (2017)	Explored the positive relationship between LMX and employee voice behavior, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions.	
Jensen et al. (1997); Volmer et al. (2011)	Emphasized the reciprocal nature of the LMX and performance relationship, with the latter also highlighting the role of job satisfaction.	
Rockstuhl et al. (2012)	Found that the relationship between LMX and task performance is not significantly influenced by national culture.	
Graen & Uhl-Bien (1995); Erdogan & Liden (2006); Gerstner & Day (1997)	High-quality LMX relationships between employees and their supervisors are associated with a range of positive outcomes, including higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and task performance.	
Erdogan & Bauer (2009)	Found that high-quality LMX relationships were positively related to employee job performance, and that this relationship was mediated by employee motivation.	
Wu et al. (2006); Mythily (2018)	Supports a positive relationship between organizational commitment and task performance.	Provides evidence for Hypothesis 4.
Sabir et al. (2021)	Organizational commitment positively influences individual work performance.	
Sungu et al. (2020)	Emphasizing the role of affective and normative commitment.	
Tseng & Lee (2011)	Highlighted the impact of employee personality and organizational culture.	
Hedayat et al. (2018)	Confirmed organizational commitment and task performance relationship by linking organizational commitment to job satisfaction.	
Eisenberger et al. (1990)	Emphasized the role of perceived organizational support between organizational commitment and task performance.	

Table 2.1: Literature Review Summary (continued)

Authors (Year)	Key Findings	Relevance to Current Study
Welsch & LaVan (1981)	Identified various job characteristics and organizational climate factors that influence organizational commitment.	
Wright (1997)	Found a significant negative correlation between organizational commitment and job performance in a specific sample, suggesting that further research is needed to fully understand this relationship.	
Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Found that employees with high levels of organizational commitment were more likely to engage in prosocial behaviors that contributed to task performance.	
Meyer & Allen (1997); Meyer & Herscovitch (2001); Mathieu & Zajac (1990)	Employees with high levels of organizational commitment are more likely to perform well on their job tasks.	
Dale & Fox (2008)	Leadership styles, such as initiating structure and consideration, have direct effects on organizational commitment.	
Fernández-Mesa et al. (2020)	The role of task significance in enhancing organizational commitment is also highlighted, with its impact being contingent on the type of commitment and employees' openness to experience.	
Carmeli & Josman (2006); Kappagoda (2012); Ugoani (2020); Douglas et al. (2004); Côté & Miners (2006); Schutte et al. (2001); Lopes et al. (2006); Furnham et al. (2021)	Higher emotional intelligence is associated with better task performance.	Provides evidence for Hypothesis 5.
Côté & Miners (2006)	Positive relationship between emotional intelligence and task performance is particularly strong when cognitive intelligence is lower.	
Douglas et al. (2004)	Emotional intelligence can moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and performance.	
Ugoani (2020)	Highlighted the role of emotional intelligence in employees' training needs assessment and task performance.	
Schutte et al. (2001)	Emotional intelligence has been linked to improved performance on cognitive tasks.	
Lopes et al. (2006)	Individuals with higher emotional intelligence tend to receive better performance ratings.	
Caruso et al. (2002); Wong & Law (2002); Van Rooy & Viswesvaran (2004)	Individuals with high levels of emotional intelligence are more likely to perform well on their job tasks.	
Van Rooy & Viswesvaran (2004)	Found that emotional intelligence was positively related to job performance across a variety of jobs and industries.	
Jelača et al. (2023); Shunku (2014)	Found that people-oriented and authentic leadership styles, respectively, are associated with higher contextual performance.	
Popa (2012); Shah, et al. (2016); Pazetto et al. (2023)	Supports a positive relationship between effective leadership and contextual performance and highlight the role of leadership in shaping organizational culture and promoting employee performance.	
Osborn & Marion (2009)	Emphasized the importance of contextual leadership and found that knowledge-based leadership by alliance heads is linked to higher innovation and strategic contributions.	Provides evidence for Hypothesis 6.

Table 2.1: Literature Review Summary (continued)

Authors (Year)	Key Findings	Relevance to Current Study
Imran et al. (2015); Knies et al. (2016)	Emphasized the significance of leadership in driving organizational performance, with Imran specifically noting the mediating role of organizational culture.	
Petty et al. (1995); Byles et al. (1992) Collen (2019)	Found that measures of organizational culture were significantly related to performance, with teamwork being a key factor. Found that person-organization fit, perceived organizational prestige, and organizational identity strength were all positively related to contextual performance.	Provides evidence for Hypothesis 7.
Kim & Chang (2019); Christopher & Edwinah (2022) Lim (1995)	Demonstrated that certain types of organizational culture, such as clan and market cultures, were associated with better performance. Warned that the culture-performance link is not always clear and may be influenced by other factors.	
Henri (2006); Martínez et al. (2015) Zhang (2016)	Emphasized the importance of a well-developed and strategically aligned culture in driving performance. Organizational culture significantly impacts contextual performance, with a strong culture emphasizing adaptability and innovation leading to better performance in dynamic environments.	
Bashayreh (2019)	Employees are more likely to work towards organizational goals when they identify with the corporate culture.	
Henri (2006)	The type of organizational culture, such as flexibility-dominant or control-dominant, also influences the use and diversity of performance measurement systems.	
Chatman & Cha (2003); Schneider et al. (2013); Schein (2010) Schneider et al. (2013)	Organizational culture is positively related to contextual performance. Found that organizational culture was positively related to OCBs, which are voluntary behaviors that support the social and organizational environment of the workplace.	
Chatman & Cha (2003)	Found that employees who perceived a strong fit between their personal values and the values of their organization were more likely to engage in contextual behaviors.	
Martin et al. (2016); Moss et al. (2009); Berdicchia (2015); Peterson & Aikens (2017); Blanc & González-Romá (2012); Sui et al. (2016); Dam et al. (2013) Martin et al. (2016)	Shows a positive relationship between LMX and performance. Positive relationship between LMX and performance is mediated by factors such as trust, motivation, empowerment, job satisfaction.	Provides evidence for Hypothesis 8.
Moss et al. (2009)	Positive relationship between LMX and performance is mediated by feedback avoidance behavior.	
Berdicchia (2015)	Positive relationship between LMX and performance is mediated by role breadth self-efficacy and challenging job demands.	
Dam et al. (2013)	Positive relationship between LMX and performance is mediated by situational learning and performance goals.	
Aryee & Lee (2005)	The mediating influence of organization-based self-esteem also supports this relationship.	
Mueller & Lee (2002)	The quality of LMX significantly influences subordinates' communication satisfaction in various contexts.	

Table 2.1: Literature Review Summary (continued)

Authors (Year)	Key Findings	Relevance to Current Study
Martin et al. (2016)	The relationship between LMX and performance is weaker when measures are obtained from a different source or method.	
Sui et al. (2016)	LMX differentiation can impact team performance positively or negatively, depending on the team's size and power distance orientation.	
Graen & Uhl-Bien (1995)	LMX theory suggests that the quality of the relationship between a leader and their followers can impact work outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance.	
Liao et al. (2010)	High-quality LMX relationships, characterized by mutual trust, respect, and support, are associated with higher levels of contextual performance, such as helping behaviors and proactive problem-solving.	
Cichy et al. (2009); Collen (2019)	Affective commitment has been found to have a strong positive effect on contextual performance.	Provides evidence for Hypothesis 9.
Qian-we (2007)	Found a significant correlation between job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and contextual performance.	
Guangling (2011)	Positive relationship between organizational commitment and contextual performance mediated by factors such as transformational leadership	
Eisenberger et al., 1990	Positive relationship between organizational commitment and contextual performance mediated by perceived organizational support.	
Collen (2019)	Organizational commitment is evident in the relationships between person-organization fit, perceived organizational prestige, organizational identity strength, and contextual performance.	
Aryani & Widodo (2020)	Effect of employability and job characteristics on contextual performance is explored, with organizational commitment emerging as a mediating factor.	
Suliman & Iles (2000)	Continuance commitment, while positively related to job performance, may not always have a positive impact on contextual performance.	
Steyrer (2008)	The influence of organizational commitment on company performance has also been highlighted, with desirable leadership behavior positively related to subordinates' organizational commitment, which in turn contributes to company performance.	
Meyer & Allen (1991)	The three-component model of organizational commitment suggests that commitment to an organization is composed of three components: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment.	
Van Scotter & Motowidlo (1996); Wiener (1982)	Employees who have a strong sense of organizational commitment, particularly affective commitment, are more likely to engage in behaviors that benefit the organization beyond their formal job duties, such as helping others, volunteering for extra projects, and advocating for the organization.	
Van Scotter & Motowidlo (1996)	Found that employees who reported higher levels of affective commitment were more likely to engage in helping behaviors in their jobs.	
Wiener (1982)	Found that organizational commitment was positively related to OCBs, which are voluntary behaviors that support the organization and its members.	

Table 2.1: Literature Review Summary (continued)

Authors (Year)	Key Findings	Relevance to Current Study
Cichy et al. (2009)	Found that higher emotional intelligence scores were associated with better performance among industry executives.	Provides evidence for Hypothesis 10.
Kappagoda (2012)	Found that higher emotional intelligence scores were associated with better performance in the banking sector.	
Suan & Yusoff (2017); Lopes et al. (2006)	Found that emotional intelligence was related to OCBs, a key aspect of contextual performance.	
Carmeli & Josman (2006)	Showed a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and task performance.	
Huizenga (2004); Newman et al. (2010)	Proposed that specific emotional competencies, such as self-control and social skills, may be the true predictors of performance.	
Narayan & Narashiman (2014)	Emphasized the importance of emotional intelligence in improving work performance and organizational commitment.	

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the research methodology used in this study. It begins with the choice of research design, sample, and procedure. Next, the data collection procedure is explained, followed by the development of research questionnaires and measurements. The pre-test process is also outlined, concluding with a discussion and justification for the statistical analyses selected for the study.

3.2 Research Design

This study aims to generalize the findings among IT professionals in Malaysian public universities. The research design employed a quantitative approach to systematically investigate the factors affecting job performance of IT professionals in these universities. A cross-sectional survey methodology was utilized to collect data at a single point in time, allowing for the analysis of relationships between variables (Creswell, 2014). This approach is well-suited to understanding the predictive power of various constructs on performance outcomes and ensures the collection of a large, representative sample (Babbie, 2010).

By using structured questionnaires, the study aimed to achieve high reliability and validity in measuring constructs such as effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, organizational commitment, emotional intelligence, and job performance dimensions, which include task performance and contextual performance. The quantitative research design facilitates the empirical testing of hypotheses and provides robust statistical evidence to support theoretical advancements in the field of organizational behavior and human resource management (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

3.3 Population

The estimated total population for this study was 690 IT professionals. Table 3.1 provides information on the number of IT professionals by grade from 20 public universities in Malaysia. As shown in the table, there are 690 IT professionals belonging to grades F41, F44, and F48, with the largest group holding the F44 position, comprising 423 officers, or 60% of the population. This data was collected in October 2021 by Majlis Pentadbir ICT Universiti Awam (MAPITA). Although the data is not recent, it remains a valuable guideline for understanding the distribution of IT professionals across different grades.

Table 3.1: Number of IT Professionals by University

#	University	Grades			Total
		F41	F44	F48	
1	Universiti Sains Islam Malaysia (USIM)	13	13	2	28
2	Universiti Pertahanan Nasional Malaysia (UPNM)	9	5	1	15
3	Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM)	4	37	5	46
4	Universiti Malaysia Sarawak (UNIMAS)	8	17	3	28
5	Universiti Malaysia Perlis (UniMAP)	11	10	2	23
6	Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris (UPSI)	6	21	3	30
7	Universiti Malaysia Kelantan (UMK)	8	7	1	16
8	Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM)	17	60	11	88
9	Universiti Malaysia Sabah (UMS)	11	14	1	26
10	Universiti Malaysia Terengganu (UMT)	3	8	3	14
11	Universiti Islam Antarabangsa Malaysia (UiAM)	9	7	4	20
12	Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM)	11	51	7	69
13	Universiti Malaya (UM)	37	33	2	72
14	Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM)	9	37	2	48
15	Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM)	11	16	5	32
16	Universiti Malaysia Pahang (UMP)	2	22	2	26
17	Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM)	4	30	10	44
18	Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia (UTHM)	2	15	4	21
19	Universiti Sultan Zainal Abidin (UniSZA)	8	7	4	19
20	Universiti Teknikal Malaysia Melaka (UTeM)	9	13	3	25
Total		192	423	75	690

Source: Majlis Pentadbir ICT Universiti Awam (MAPITA), October 2021

3.4 Sample Size

As per the findings of Hair, Hult, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2022), it is imperative to consider the statistical power of the estimates when determining the minimum sample size needed. To evaluate statistical power, researchers can utilize power tables (Erdfelder, Faul & Buchner, 1996; Cohen, 1992) or conduct power studies using software like GPower (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner & Lang, 2009). The minimum sample size for this study was determined using GPower. This method uses the most complex regression in the structural model of a partial least squares (PLS) path model as a reference point for determining statistical power, instead of explicitly examining the complete model. Typically, the aim of such investigations is to achieve a power level of 80%. However, the minimum sample size obtained from these calculations may still be insufficient (Kock & Hadaya, 2018).

The study utilized the commonly suggested setup proposed by Ali Memon, Ting, Cheah, Thurasamy, Chuah, and Huei Cham (2020) to determine the appropriate sample size for this study. The selected statistical tests for analysis were the "F tests" and "Linear multiple regression: fixed model, R^2 deviation from zero." The power analysis is configured as "A-priori: Compute required sample size - given α , power, and effect size." The effect size was set at 0.15, indicating a medium effect, and the significance level (α) was set at 0.05. The optimal power value for this study was 0.80. The number of predictors is contingent upon the number of hypotheses in the investigation, which is 10. The fundamental principle is that the number of predictors corresponds to the maximum number of arrows pointing towards the dependent variable in the model. Consequently, a minimum of 118 samples was deemed necessary for this study. Nevertheless, the objective was to achieve a higher sample response rate to obtain more robust findings. Figure 3.1 displays the GPower configuration employed to determine the sample size for the current study.

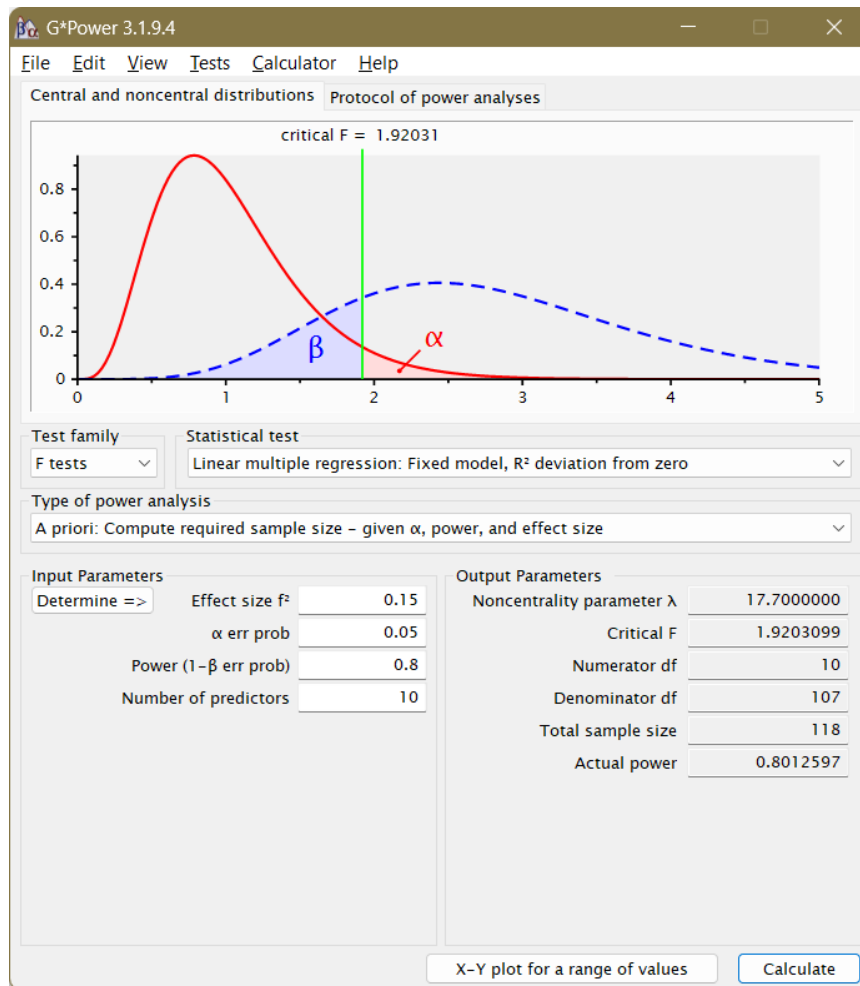


Figure 3.1: G*Power Calculation

3.5 Sampling Technique

Respondents for this study were selected using purposive or judgmental sampling. Judgment sampling is a non-probability sampling technique that involves choosing subjects who are most advantageously placed to provide the required information (Kumar, Talib, & Ramayah, 2013). Three criteria were outlined to identify eligible respondents for this study: (1) the respondent must work in the ICT department of one of the Malaysian public universities, (2) have a minimum of one year of working experience, and (3) hold a position in grade F41, F44, or F48.

3.6 Unit of Analysis

This study used the individual as the unit of analysis, focusing specifically on IT professionals employed in Malaysian public universities. The target respondents are those holding positions within the IT departments across 20 public universities, encompassing grades F41, F44, and F48. The choice of individual IT professionals as the unit of analysis is crucial for several reasons.

First, IT professionals play a pivotal role in the technological advancement and operational efficiency of academic institutions. By analyzing individuals, the study aims to gain insights into the factors that influence their task performance and contextual performance, which are critical for the overall effectiveness of IT departments (Roberts, 2014). Second, examining individuals allows for a detailed understanding of personal and job-related factors such as job satisfaction, leadership style, and work environment. These factors can vary significantly among individuals and have a direct impact on their performance. Understanding these variations at the individual level provides a more detailed view of the dynamics within IT departments (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012).

Third, focusing on individuals facilitates the collection of specific, quantifiable data through structured questionnaires. This approach enhances the reliability and validity of the data, as it directly captures the perceptions and experiences of IT professionals. The individual responses can then be aggregated to identify broader trends and patterns (Creswell, 2014). Finally, the individual unit of analysis aligns with the study's quantitative methodology, which aims to empirically test hypotheses and establish statistical relationships between variables. By concentrating on individual IT professionals, the study can provide robust statistical evidence to support its findings and contribute to theoretical development in

the fields of organizational behavior and human resource management (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

3.7 Development of Questionnaire

The development of the research instrument is a critical component of this study, as it involves the systematic collection and analysis of data to understand the factors affecting the job performance of IT professionals in Malaysian public universities. This section details the tool used to gather data, ensuring that the constructs are measured accurately and reliably. A questionnaire survey was developed to obtain the data necessary to determine the components of organizational behavior that influence job performance, specifically task performance and contextual performance. The questionnaire was made available in English with close-ended questions and provided item scales or options to choose from for each question.

There were a total of 63 close-ended questions in the questionnaire, divided into eight sections, namely Sections 1 to 8. Section 1 collected demographic information of the respondents. Sections 2 to 8 required respondents to provide their perceptions on effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, organizational commitment, emotional intelligence, task performance, and contextual performance. A total of 57 questions were distributed across Sections 2 to 8.

3.7.1 Demographic Information

Section 1 of the questionnaire focused on the respondent's demographic information, including organization, position, working experience as IT professionals in their current organization, highest education level, age, and gender. Respondents were informed that this information would be used solely for analysis purposes. Collecting this data enabled the researcher to explore and summarize the information more effectively, providing a clearer

understanding of the respondents' characteristics and facilitating a more detailed analysis of the study's findings.

First, respondents were asked to select their current organization or employer from a list of 20 public universities in Malaysia. Then, they were asked to choose their current position in the organization from three options: F41, F44, and F48. Next, they were required to select their years of experience as IT professionals in their current organization from the following options: (1) 1 to 5 years, (2) 6 to 10 years, (3) 11 to 15 years, (4) 16 to 20 years, and (5) more than 20 years.

Respondents were also asked to select their highest education level from three options: Bachelor's Degree, Master's Degree, and Doctorate. They were then asked to choose their age range from the following options: (1) 20-30 years old, (2) 31-40 years old, (3) 41-50 years old, (4) 51-60 years old, and (5) above 60 years old. The final question concerned the gender of the respondents, the choices being male and female.

3.7.2 Rating Scale

This study employed a 7-point Likert scale to measure the independent variables, which include effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, organizational commitment, and emotional intelligence. Similarly, the dependent variables, task performance and contextual performance, were also measured using a 7-point Likert scale. The use of a 7-point Likert scale provides a more specific range of responses, enhancing the ability to capture subtle differences in respondents' perceptions and attitudes (Krosnick & Presser, 2010).

Table 3.2: 7-Point Likert Scale

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

The 7-point Likert scale utilized in this study is detailed in Table 3.2. The scale ranges from 1 to 7, with each point representing a different level of agreement or disagreement. Specifically, a rating of 1 denotes "Strongly Disagree," 2 denotes "Disagree," 3 denotes "Somewhat Disagree," 4 represents "Neutral," 5 stands for "Somewhat Agree," 6 indicates "Agree," and 7 denotes "Strongly Agree." This scale provides a structured framework for respondents to express their opinions or perceptions on the various constructs under investigation, ensuring consistency and precision in the measurement of variables throughout the study.

3.7.3 Measurement of Constructs

Items for the constructs were adopted from existing research. Questions for effective leadership were adopted from Alzubi (2018), Chen and Silverthorne (2005), Pranitasari (2020), and Steyrer et al. (2008). Instruments used by Alvi, Hanif, Adil, Ahmed, and Vveinhardt (2014), Hackman and Oldham (1976), Prajogo and McDermott (2011), Saha and Saraf (2018), and Wipulanusat, Panuwatwanich, and Stewart (2018) were used to measure organizational culture. A set of questions for LMX was adopted from research performed by Bernerth, Armenakis, Field, Giles, and Walker (2007), Liden and Maslyn (1998), and Maslyn and Uhl-Bien (2001).

Measurement items for organizational commitment were adopted from Allen and Meyer (1990), Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993), and Ausar, Kang, and Kim (2016). For emotional intelligence, items were adopted from Ismail, Suh-Suh, Ajis, and Dollah (2009). Questions for task performance were adopted from Bhargkavi (2017) and Borman and Motowidlo (1997), while questions for contextual performance were adopted from Alibegovic, Hawkins, and Parmar (2009) and Borman and Motowidlo (1997). The summary

of these adopted questions for each section is shown in Table 3.3: Measurement of Items, Constructs, and Source of References.

Table 3.3: Measurement of Items, Constructs and Source of References

Section	Dimension	Number of Items	Description	Sources	Rating Scale
1	Demographic	6	1 Organization 2 Current Position Grade 3 Working Experience 4 Highest Education 5 Age 6 Gender	-	
2	Effective Leadership	10	EL1 My superior formulates the mission and objectives of the organization clearly. EL2 My superior determines strategic steps to achieve the mission and goals. EL3 My superior provides regular guidance and direction to all personnel. EL4 I find my superior inspirational for organizational progress. EL5 My superior makes effective and efficient organizational structure. EL6 My superior often facilitates every personnel to ensure assigned tasked to be completed well. EL7 My superior consults organizational elements to seek solutions to the problems faced. EL8 My superior understands the climate of the organization under him. EL9 My superior understands all decisions and policies taken relating to the organization. EL10 My superior evokes the morale of all personnel within the organization.	Alzubi (2018); Chen & Silverthorne (2005); Pranitasari (2020); Steyrer et al. (2008)	1=Strongly disagree and 7=Strongly agree

Table 3.3: Measurement of items, constructs and source of references (continued)

Section	Dimension	Number of Items	Description	Sources	Rating Scale
3	Organizational Culture	10	OCu1 My organization encourages participation and promotes open discussion.	Alvi et al. (2014); Hackman & Oldham (1976); Prajogo & McDermott (2011); Saha & Saraf (2018); Wipulanusat et al. (2018)	1=Strongly disagree and 7=Strongly agree
			OCu2 My agency assesses employee concerns and ideas.		
			OCu3 Change is managed well in my organization.		
			OCu4 My agency emphasizes innovation to find new solutions to problems.		
			OCu5 The management style is characterized by collaboration and teamwork.		
			OCu6 Encouraging new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.		
			OCu7 People in my workplace are friendly and helpful.		
			OCu8 My organization is relationship oriented/like an extended family.		
			OCu9 My workplace provides access to effective learning and development.		
			OCu10 My agency emphasizes procedure, thus delivering standardized services is important.		
4	Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)	10	LMX1 I like my supervisor very much as a person.	Bernerth et al. (2007); Liden & Maslyn (1998); Maslyn & Uhl-Bien (2001)	
			LMX2 I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.		
			LMX3 I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his job.		
			LMX4 My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.		

Table 3.3: Measurement of items, constructs and source of references (continued)

Section	Dimension	Number of Items	Description	Sources	Rating Scale
5	Organizational Commitment	7	LMX5 I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to meet my supervisor's goals for our organization.	Allen & Meyer (1990); Meyer, Allen & Smith (1993); Ausar et al. (2016)	1=Strongly disagree and 7=Strongly agree
			LMX6 I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.		
			LMX7 My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.		
			LMX8 My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.		
			LMX9 I admire my supervisor's professional skills.		
			LMX10 I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor.		
			OCo1 I feel like part of the family at my organization.		
			OCo2 I feel emotionally attached to this organization.		
			OCo3 I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.		
			OCo4 I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.		
6	Emotional Intelligence	10	OCo5 This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	Ismail et al. (2009)	
			OCo6 I think it is morally right for me to stay with this organization.		
			OCo7 I think staying with this organization brings more pros than cons to me.		
			EI1 I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.		
			EI2 I have a good understanding of my own emotions.		
			EI3 I find proper words to express my feelings about an issue.		
			EI4 I consider my own feelings in decision-making and problem-solving.		
			EI5 I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.		
			EI6 I always set goals and try my best to achieve them.		

Table 3.3: Measurement of items, constructs and source of references (continued)

Section	Dimension	Number of Items	Description	Sources	Rating Scale
7	Task Performance	5	EI7	Bhargkavi (2017); Borman & Motowidlo (1997);	1=Strongly disagree and 7=Strongly agree
			EI8		
			EI9		
			EI10		
			TP1		
			TP2		
			TP3		
			TP4		
			TP5		
			CP1		
8	Contextual Performance	5	CP2	Alibegovic et al. (2009); Borman & Motowidlo (1997)	
			CP3		
			CP4		
			CP5		

3.8 Pre-Test

A pre-test was conducted in April 2023 prior to the actual data collection. The pre-test is the final stage to ascertain how well the questionnaire works with the target respondents (Hunt, Sparkman, & Wilcox, 1982). Based on Zaltman and Burger (1975), the size of the pre-test sample can be “small.” Questionnaires were distributed to several lecturers and IT professionals from various public universities in Malaysia. The main purpose of the pre-test was to ensure that respondents could understand the questions and scales, thereby avoiding confusion.

Each item in the questionnaire was pre-tested to eliminate confusion and ambiguity, ensuring reliable and validated questions. The outcome from the pre-test was then used to improve the questionnaire. The pre-test aimed to ensure that the instructions were clear, allowing for valid and reliable answers from the respondents. Additionally, pre-tests enable researchers to identify defective questions that are not relevant to the respondents.

The final version of the questionnaire was revised and approved by the supervisor to ensure the reliability and validity of the items for actual data collection. Pre-test results are shown in Table 3.4. All feedback from the respondents was taken into account and the questions were amended accordingly.

Table 3.4: Outcomes of Pre-Test

Item No	Original Questions	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	Comments/Changes Made
1.7	What is your organization name?	Use a common name rather than translated version.	Please double check on the English naming of these universities.	Agree	Agree	Agree	Amended accordingly.
2.1	My superior formulates the mission and objectives of the organization clearly.	Agree	My superior formulates the mission and objectives of the organization clearly.	Agree	Agree	Agree	Amended accordingly.
2.5	My superior makes effective and efficient organizational structure.	Agree	My superior makes an effective and efficient organizational structure.	Agree	Agree	Agree	Amended accordingly.
2.6	My superior often facilitates every personnel to ensure assigned task to be completed well.	Agree	My superior often facilitates every personnel to ensure assigned task to be completed well.	Agree	Agree	Agree	Amended accordingly.
2.8	My superior understands the climate of the organization under him.	Agree	My superior understands the climate of the organization under him.	Do not understand the word climate.	Agree	Agree	Amended accordingly.
2.9	My superior understands all decisions and policies taken relating to the organization.	Agree	My superior understands all decisions and policies taken relating to the organization.	Agree	Agree	Agree	Amended accordingly.

Table 3.4: Outcomes of Pre-Test (continued)

Item No	Original Questions	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	Comments/Changes Made
3.2	My agency assesses employee concerns and ideas.	Please ensure consistency, use organization rather than agency.	My organization assesses employee concerns and ideas.	Agree	Agree	Agree	Amended accordingly
3.4	My agency emphasizes innovation to find new solutions to problems.	Please ensure consistency, use organization rather than agency.	My organization emphasizes innovation to find new solutions to problems.	Agree	Agree	Agree	Amended accordingly
3.8	My organization is relationship oriented/like an extended family.	Agree	My organization is relationship-oriented/like an extended family.	Agree	Agree	Agree	Amended accordingly
3.9	My workplace provides access to effective learning and development.	Agree	Agree	Do not understand the word access.	Agree	Agree	Amended accordingly
3.10	My agency emphasizes procedure, thus delivering standardized services is important.	Please ensure consistency, use organization rather than agency.	My organization emphasizes procedure, thus delivering standardized services is important.	My organization or My workplace	Agree	Agree	Amended accordingly
4	This section attempts to get your feedback on how you feel about your relationship with your manager.	Change the word manager to supervisor.	This section attempts to get your feedback on how you feel about your relationship with your supervisor.	Agree	Agree	Agree	Amended accordingly
4.2	I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.	Agree	I work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.	Agree	Agree	Agree	Amended accordingly

Notes: R1=Respondent 1, R2=Respondent 2, R3=Respondent 3, R4=Respondent 4, R5=Respondent 5

3.9 Data Collection Procedure

Following the quantitative methodology, a questionnaire survey was used to gather data from IT professionals across 20 public universities in Malaysia. Figure 3.2 illustrates the steps taken for the data collection.

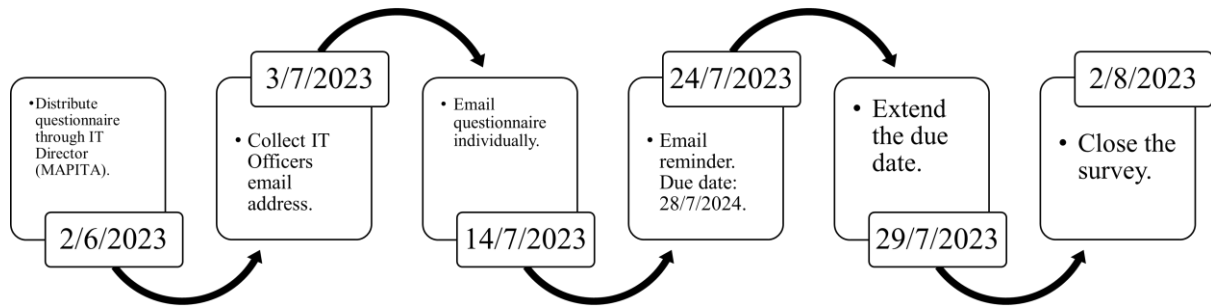


Figure 3.2: Data Collection Procedure

Initially, on June 2, 2023, the researcher sent invitation emails to IT professionals from all Malaysian public universities through the IT department directors. Respondents were given one month to complete the survey. Regular monitoring was conducted to ensure the minimum sample size was achieved. However, after one month, the response rate did not meet the required minimum sample size.

Due to the poor response, the researcher decided to collect individual email addresses of IT officers from the websites of Malaysian public universities. This collection activity took 10 days in total. On July 14, 2023, the survey invitation was sent to all collected email addresses. A reminder email, sent on July 24, 2023, stated the survey's due date. The survey was closed on August 2, 2023, after achieving the minimum sample size.

The data collection period lasted for two months, from June 2, 2023, to August 2, 2023. Since the data was collected within a short period, there was no need to perform a response bias test, as a consistent time frame can help mitigate the risk of response bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

3.10 Data Analysis Techniques

This section provides a detailed explanation of the data analysis techniques employed in this study. It encompasses the selection of software, data analysis methods, and the step-by-step analysis process. The analysis begins with preliminary analysis, followed by descriptive statistics, assessment of the measurement model, and, ultimately, assessment of the structural model. Each stage of the analysis is elaborated upon to ensure a clear understanding of the analytical procedures undertaken in this study.

3.10.1 Data Analysis Tools

The data analysis was conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics 29.0 and SmartPLS 4.0. Initially, IBM SPSS Statistics 29.0 was utilized to conduct preliminary data analysis and to examine respondents' demographics, producing descriptive analyses for the variables. Subsequently, SmartPLS 4.0 was employed to assess both the measurement and structural models.

3.10.2 Preliminary Analysis

The purpose of preliminary data analysis is to gain an initial understanding of the dataset and its key characteristics before conducting more in-depth statistical analyses. During this phase, frequencies were computed to identify missing data, and suspicious response patterns were examined using the mean and standard deviation for each indicator based on the respondents' answers. The minimum and maximum values for each indicator

were also examined to check for outliers. Since respondents could only choose from a set of given answers, no outliers were found in the data. Data distribution analysis was conducted by checking the skewness and kurtosis. Additionally, Harman's single factor test was applied in this study to avoid common method bias (CMV) (Hair et al., 2022).

3.10.3 Descriptive Statistics

In this study, descriptive statistics, such as frequency and percentage, were used to explore and determine the selected profiles of the respondents. Descriptive analysis provides a simple summary of the respondents' demographic profile, presenting the values in tabular form to provide information about the selected characteristics of the respondents. The results group the respondents according to organization, position, working experience, highest education, age, and gender. Thus, descriptive analysis was used to describe the detailed selected characteristics of the respondents.

3.10.4 Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)

This study utilized Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) as the data analysis technique. According to Hair et al. (2022), structural equation modeling (SEM) is a sophisticated multivariate analysis method that facilitates the investigation of relationships among latent constructs, each measured by multiple indicator variables. A significant advantage of SEM is its capability to evaluate complex model relationships while accounting for measurement error inherent in the indicators. SEM is divided into two main approaches: covariance-based (CB-SEM) and partial least squares (PLS-SEM). These approaches differ in their parameter estimation methods and assumptions about measurement. CB-SEM treats constructs as common factors, positing that the indicators reflect underlying latent variables. Conversely, PLS-SEM views

constructs as composites formed from the total variance of their indicators, creating linear combinations based on these variables. This makes PLS-SEM particularly effective for predictive research and suitable for models incorporating formative measurement constructs.

Hair et al. (2022) provided comprehensive guidelines on the appropriate use of PLS-SEM, based on which this study selected PLS-SEM for several key reasons. Firstly, the research objective was to test a theoretical framework with a strong focus on prediction, which aligns well with PLS-SEM's strengths in predictive accuracy and variance explanation. Secondly, the path model employed in this study includes formatively measured constructs. PLS-SEM is particularly adept at handling such constructs due to its flexibility in dealing with different types of measurement models. Lastly, the study was limited by a small sample size. PLS-SEM is well-suited to this context, as it does not require large sample sizes to produce reliable estimates, unlike CB-SEM. PLS-SEM demonstrates high efficiency when used with datasets with limited sample sizes (Cassel, Hackl, & Westlund, 1999; Chin, 2010; Hair et al., 2022). These factors collectively justify the choice of PLS-SEM as the most appropriate analytical technique for this research.

The primary analysis for PLS-SEM is divided into two parts: the assessment of the measurement model and the assessment of the structural model, which are explained in the following sections.

3.10.5 Assessment of Measurement Model

A measurement model in PLS-SEM is a statistical model that defines the connection between latent variables and their observed indicators. The primary objective of

a measurement model is to ascertain the construct validity of the latent variables by assessing the reliability and validity of the indicators used to measure them (Hair et al., 2022). This study employed a reflective measurement model, which involves evaluating the reliability of the measures at both the level of individual indicators (indicator reliability) and the overall construct (internal consistency reliability). The examination of validity focuses on two forms of validity. The first is convergent validity, assessed using the average variance extracted (AVE). The second is discriminant validity, which evaluates the construct measures inside the same model using the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations. To evaluate the reflective measurement model, several tests were conducted, including assessments of indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity.

Hair et al. (2022) delineated the analysis of the measurement model in the following manner. To examine the reflective measurement model, the initial stage entails assessing the outer loadings of the indicators. Significant outer loadings on a construct suggest that the linked indicators share many similarities, which are accurately represented by the construct. The dimension of the external loading is sometimes referred to as a measure of reliability. All indicators should have statistically significant outside loadings at the very least. Due to the possibility of a considerable outer loading being relatively light, a widely accepted guideline is that the standardized outer loadings should be 0.708 or higher.

The second criterion to be assessed is internal consistency reliability. Cronbach's alpha is the conventional measure used to assess internal consistency reliability. The alpha criteria offer a measure of reliability by analyzing the inter-correlations among the observed indicator variables. Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (ρ_C) range from

zero to one, with greater values suggesting greater degrees of reliability. More precisely, exploratory research often considers values ranging from 0.60 to 0.70 as acceptable, while in later stages of research, values between 0.70 and 0.90 can be considered appropriate. Values exceeding 0.90 (and particularly surpassing 0.95) are unfavorable as they commonly arise from semantically redundant items that merely reword the identical question. Researchers are advised to minimize the number of redundant indicators because having redundant items in a single construct has negative effects on the content validity of measures and can increase error term correlations. Values below 0.60 signify inadequate internal consistency reliability.

Subsequently, an assessment of convergent validity was conducted. Convergent validity refers to the degree to which a measurement is favorably correlated with other measurements that assess the same concept. The domain sampling model considers indicators of a reflective construct as distinct methods to assess the same construct. Hence, the items that serve as indicators or measures of a certain reflective construct should exhibit strong convergence or substantial shared variance. The AVE is a frequently used statistic to assess convergent validity at the construct level. The criterion is defined as the average value of the squared loadings of the indicators linked to the construct. This is calculated by summing the squared loadings and dividing by the number of indicators. Thus, the AVE is synonymous with the degree to which a construct shares variance with its indicators. An AVE greater than or equal to 0.50 signifies that, on average, the construct explains more than 50% of the variance in its indicators. Conversely, if the AVE value is below 0.50, it means that, on average, there is more variability in the errors of the items than in the variability described by the construct.

The final step involved assessing discriminant validity. Discriminant validity refers to the degree to which a concept is genuinely separate from other concepts based on empirical criteria. Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2015) suggest using the HTMT of the correlations as a precise method for evaluating discriminant validity. HTMT can be defined as the quotient of the correlations between different traits and the correlations within the same trait. HTMT refers to the ratio of heterotrait-heteromethod correlations to the geometric mean of monotrait-heteromethod correlations. It measures the average correlations between indicators measuring different constructs relative to the average correlations between indicators measuring the same construct.

The precise threshold level of the HTMT is a subject of debate, as it raises the question of when a correlation can be considered close to one. Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2015) propose a threshold value of 0.90 for path models that involve dimensions with high conceptual similarity, such as affective satisfaction, cognitive satisfaction, and loyalty, based on their previous research and study findings. To clarify, an HTMT value beyond 0.90 indicates a deficiency in discriminant validity. According to Henseler et al. (2015), if the constructs in the path model are more conceptually distinct, it is appropriate to use a lower threshold value of 0.85, which is more conservative.

3.10.6 Assessment of Structural Model

After confirming the reliability and validity of the construct measures through analysis, the subsequent task is to proceed with the assessment of the structural model. Regarding the evaluation of the structural model, the process begins by scrutinizing the structural model for any potential collinearity problems. Next, the importance and applicability of the connections within the structural model, specifically the path

coefficients, are evaluated. Finally, the model's ability to explain and forecast outcomes, as well as the connections between the different components, is analyzed (Hair et al., 2022).

As per the findings of Hair et al. (2022), the evaluation of a structural model should commence by scrutinizing it for any potential collinearity problems. The estimation of path coefficients in the structural models relies on ordinary least squares regressions, where each endogenous latent variable is regressed on its corresponding antecedent constructs. After determining that collinearity is not a significant issue, the importance and relevance of the relationships in the structural model (namely, the path coefficients) were evaluated. The assessment of the model's explanatory and predictive capabilities, as well as the correlations between the constructs, was conducted last.

To evaluate collinearity, the VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) values were analyzed. The VIF values of the predictor constructs should be less than 5.0 and ideally less than 3.0 to ensure that collinearity does not have a significant impact on the estimations of the structural model. If the VIF indicates a significant amount of collinearity, it is advisable to address the issue by either removing certain variables, combining predictors into a single variable, or establishing higher-order variables to mitigate the collinearity difficulties.

Upon executing the PLS-SEM procedure, the researcher can acquire estimates for the linkages within the structural model (namely, the path coefficients). These coefficients signify the hypothesized connections between the constructs. The standardized values of the path coefficients typically range from around -1 to +1, although they may occasionally be smaller or larger. Path coefficients with an estimated value close to +1 indicate a strong positive relationship, while negative values indicate a strong negative relationship. These coefficients are typically statistically significant, meaning they are different from zero in

the population. The strength of the links and the proportional value of a construct to explain another construct in the structural model decrease as the estimated coefficients approach zero. Values that are extremely close to zero are typically considered statistically insignificant, meaning they are not significantly different from zero in the overall population.

The significance levels were evaluated by analyzing the p-values. The p-value is the likelihood of generating a t-value that is as extreme or more extreme than the one observed, assuming that the null hypothesis is true. The p-value represents the likelihood of incorrectly rejecting a null hypothesis that is actually true, specifically in the context of a significant path coefficient being assumed when it is not significant. In order to determine if the link being studied is significant at a 5% level, the p-value must be less than 0.05, assuming a significance threshold of 5%.

The subsequent stage of evaluating the structural model involves reviewing the model's capacity to explain phenomena. The explanatory power of a model is determined by its ability to accurately represent the available data by assessing the degree of correlation revealed by the PLS path model (Shmueli, 2010; Shmueli & Koppius, 2011; Shmueli, Ray, Velasquez Estrada & Chatla, 2016). The coefficient of determination (R^2) is the prevailing metric for assessing the explanatory capacity of a structural model. It is computed as the square of the correlation between the observed and anticipated values of a certain endogenous component. The coefficient quantifies the collective impact of the exogenous latent factors on the endogenous latent variable and the extent to which the exogenous constructs are responsible for explaining the variance in the endogenous constructs, also known as the explained variance. The R^2 value represents the squared

correlation between the actual and predicted values, calculated using all the data used to estimate the model, serving as a measure of the predictive capacity within the sample. The R^2 value ranges from zero to one, with higher values suggesting greater levels of explanatory power.

For a PLS route model to be valuable for management decision-making, it must generate findings that can be applied to a wider context (Hair & Sarstedt, 2021; Hair et al., 2022). To achieve this, it is necessary to evaluate if the results are applicable not only to the data used in the model estimation but also to other data sets that were not included in the estimation process. Researchers must assess the out-of-sample prediction capability of their model, also known as its predictive power (Chin et al., 2020; Sarstedt, Ringle, & Hair, 2017).

To evaluate the predictive capability of their model, researchers should choose one of the following prediction statistics: the mean absolute error (MAE) or the root mean square error (RMSE). This involves comparing the RMSE or MAE values obtained from the PLS-SEM analysis with the Linear Model (LM) values for each indicator of the primary target construct. The RMSE and MAE values of all PLS-SEM models must be lower than the RMSE and MAE values of the LM model.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the outcomes of statistical data analysis. Prior to evaluating the constructs and their measurements, a preliminary data analysis was performed to investigate missing data, suspicious response patterns, outliers, data distribution, and CMV. Subsequently, the characteristics of the participants are delineated based on their organization, position, job experience, highest level of education, age, and gender. Both results were derived from SPSS version 26.0.

The outcomes of the measurement model and the structural model are then presented, derived from SmartPLS 4.0. Four primary evaluations were performed to investigate reflective measurement models, specifically indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. Structural model assessment was conducted by evaluating the collinearity, significance, and relevance of the structural model relationships, as well as the model's explanatory and predictive capacity.

4.2 Preliminary Data Analysis

To conduct preliminary data analysis, frequencies were initially calculated to identify any instances of missing data. A total of 120 valid replies were received, and no missing data were found as all survey items were made mandatory. Furthermore, response patterns that raised suspicion were analyzed by calculating the mean and standard deviation for each indicator, based on the answers provided by the respondents. Table 4.1 displays the mean values of indicators, which range from 4.830 to 6.130. This suggests that

respondents typically expressed agreement with the questions pertaining to each indicator. The indicators exhibit standard deviations ranging from 0.650 to 1.675, leading to a moderate level of variety in the answers provided by the respondents.

Subsequently, the minimum and maximum values for each indicator were scrutinized to identify any outliers. As the respondents were constrained to selecting answers from a predefined list, no outliers were detected in the data. Prior to the measurement model analysis, data distribution analysis was performed by assessing the Skewness and Kurtosis. A skewness result within the range of -1 to +1 is regarded as great, while a value within the range of -2 to +2 is often deemed acceptable. Values outside the range of -2 to +2 are seen as evidence of significant nonnormality. The skewness values range from -1.636 to -0.254, as indicated by the result. Overall, the range was deemed satisfactory.

If the kurtosis exceeds +2, it indicates that the distribution is too peaked. Similarly, a kurtosis value below -2 implies a distribution that is excessively platykurtic. A pattern of responses is deemed to follow a normal distribution when both skewness and kurtosis approach zero (George & Mallery, 2019). The kurtosis values for this study range from -0.706 to 3.613. Four indicators exhibited kurtosis scores exceeding +2, namely EL09 (2.361), OCu01 (2.559), EI09 (3.538), and OCu07 (3.613), indicating a highly peaked distribution. All the remaining markers exhibited a normal distribution.

Table 4.1: Mean, Std. Deviation, Skewness and Kurtosis

Construct	Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Effective Leadership	EL01	120	5.590	1.170	-1.232	1.610
	EL02	120	5.390	1.311	-1.193	1.326
	EL03	120	5.200	1.376	-0.978	0.462
	EL04	120	5.080	1.424	-1.162	0.983
	EL05	120	5.070	1.465	-1.095	0.783
	EL06	120	5.140	1.355	-1.271	1.282
	EL07	120	5.230	1.320	-1.087	1.247
	EL08	120	5.310	1.377	-1.183	1.322
	EL09	120	5.470	1.195	-1.453	2.361
	EL10	120	5.180	1.353	-1.002	1.114
Organizational Culture	OCu01	120	5.410	1.273	-1.380	2.559
	OCu02	120	5.240	1.264	-1.052	1.077
	OCu03	120	4.830	1.398	-0.822	0.413
	OCu04	120	5.390	1.211	-1.026	1.372
	OCu05	120	5.310	1.321	-1.122	1.641
	OCu06	120	5.350	1.200	-0.886	1.004
	OCu07	120	5.960	1.103	-1.636	3.613
	OCu08	120	5.400	1.452	-1.415	1.907
	OCu09	120	5.320	1.250	-1.069	1.434
	OCu10	120	5.400	1.148	-1.208	1.894
Leader-Member Exchange	LMX01	120	5.210	1.402	-1.329	1.802
	LMX02	120	5.300	1.394	-1.102	1.239
	LMX03	120	5.130	1.458	-1.014	0.828
	LMX04	120	5.030	1.675	-1.003	0.329
	LMX05	120	5.320	1.360	-1.206	1.878
	LMX06	120	5.310	1.413	-1.164	1.123
	LMX07	120	4.880	1.473	-0.837	0.449
	LMX08	120	5.030	1.437	-0.992	0.952
	LMX09	120	5.080	1.564	-1.132	0.916
	LMX10	120	5.020	1.467	-0.923	0.732
Organizational Commitment	OCo01	120	5.180	1.307	-1.019	1.125
	OCo02	120	4.990	1.411	-1.134	0.979
	OCo03	120	5.130	1.384	-1.114	0.958
	OCo04	120	5.080	1.526	-0.965	0.605
	OCo05	120	5.100	1.423	-1.088	1.227
	OCo06	120	5.150	1.521	-1.103	0.862
	OCo07	120	5.190	1.457	-1.020	0.862

Table 4.1: Mean, Std. Deviation, Skewness and Kurtosis (continued)

Construct	Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Emotional Intelligence	EI01	120	5.640	0.942	-0.388	-0.706
	EI02	120	5.780	0.852	-0.645	0.396
	EI03	120	5.590	0.921	-0.340	-0.404
	EI04	120	5.050	1.201	-0.512	-0.028
	EI05	120	5.400	1.170	-0.732	0.842
	EI06	120	5.850	0.866	-0.413	-0.424
	EI07	120	5.860	0.843	-0.666	0.531
	EI08	120	6.130	0.751	-0.452	-0.358
	EI09	120	5.670	0.989	-1.215	3.538
	EI10	120	5.700	0.922	-0.868	1.576
Task Performance	TP01	120	5.930	0.719	-0.315	-0.006
	TP02	120	5.960	0.726	-0.338	-0.036
	TP03	120	5.760	0.850	-0.932	1.556
	TP04	120	5.930	0.650	-0.299	0.402
	TP05	120	5.890	0.731	-0.354	0.064
Contextual Performance	CP01	120	6.110	0.696	-0.301	-0.358
	CP02	120	6.070	0.730	-0.499	0.166
	CP03	120	5.990	0.728	-0.254	-0.346
	CP04	120	5.850	0.866	-0.413	-0.424
	CP05	120	5.830	0.857	-0.469	-0.276

CMV can arise when self-administered questionnaires are used to simultaneously gather data from the same respondents. This study utilized Harman's single factor test to address the potential influence of CMV or common method bias. If a single component accounts for more than 50% of the total variance, the data is considered to have CMV (Jarvis, MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2003; MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Podsakoff, 2011). According to the data in Table 4.2, the initial component explained only 42.104% of the total variation in this study, indicating that CMV was not a concern.

Table 4.2: Harman's Single-factor Test (Total Variance Explained)

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	24.426	42.852	42.852	23.999	42.104	42.104
2	9.265	16.255	59.108			
3	3.166	5.555	64.662			
4	2.794	4.902	69.564			
5	1.914	3.358	72.923			
6	1.543	2.708	75.630			
7	1.207	2.117	77.747			
8	.999	1.753	79.500			
9	.904	1.587	81.086			
10	.744	1.306	82.392			
11	.707	1.241	83.633			
12	.697	1.222	84.855			
13	.675	1.185	86.040			
14	.595	1.045	87.085			
15	.551	.967	88.051			
16	.503	.882	88.933			
17	.450	.789	89.722			
18	.418	.734	90.456			
19	.418	.733	91.189			
20	.372	.652	91.841			
21	.344	.604	92.445			
22	.340	.596	93.041			
23	.318	.558	93.599			
24	.292	.513	94.112			
25	.252	.441	94.553			
26	.236	.413	94.967			
27	.215	.378	95.344			
28	.205	.359	95.703			
29	.197	.345	96.048			
30	.180	.317	96.364			
31	.175	.308	96.672			
32	.160	.280	96.952			
33	.145	.255	97.208			
34	.138	.242	97.450			
35	.130	.228	97.677			
36	.116	.204	97.881			
37	.114	.200	98.081			

Table 4.2: Harman's single-factor test (Total Variance Explained) (continued)

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
38	.101	.177	98.258			
39	.094	.165	98.423			
40	.092	.161	98.584			
41	.086	.151	98.735			
42	.084	.147	98.881			
43	.070	.122	99.003			
44	.068	.119	99.123			
45	.065	.114	99.236			
46	.062	.109	99.345			
47	.057	.100	99.446			
48	.051	.090	99.536			
49	.049	.086	99.621			
50	.038	.066	99.688			
51	.038	.066	99.754			
52	.032	.056	99.809			
53	.030	.052	99.862			
54	.023	.041	99.902			
55	.021	.037	99.939			
56	.019	.034	99.973			
57	.016	.027	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

4.3 Profile of Respondents

The demographic characteristics of the participants are presented in Table 4.3. The findings indicate that the respondents are from various public universities around Malaysia. The largest number of respondents is from UNIMAS, followed by USIM and UiTM. These three public universities comprise 34.1% of the respondents. The largest position is F44, accounting for 58.3%.

Regarding employment experience, only 9.2% of individuals have fewer than five years of experience, indicating that 90.8% of the respondents have been working for more than five years. The majority of respondents (66.7%) have a bachelor's degree as their educational background. Most respondents fall within the age range of 41-50 years,

comprising 58.3% of the total. Finally, the distribution of respondents in terms of gender was nearly equal.

Table 4.3: Demographic Profile of Respondents

Demographic Profile	Category	Frequency (N=120)	Percentage (%)
Organization	Universiti Islam Antarabangsa Malaysia (UiAM)	4	3.3
	Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM)	5	4.2
	Universiti Malaya (UM)	9	7.5
	Universiti Malaysia Kelantan (UMK)	5	4.2
	Universiti Malaysia Pahang (UMP)	5	4.2
	Universiti Malaysia Perlis (UniMAP)	4	3.3
	Universiti Malaysia Sabah (UMS)	4	3.3
	Universiti Malaysia Sarawak (UNIMAS)	15	12.5
	Universiti Malaysia Terengganu (UMT)	5	4.2
	Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris (UPSI)	4	3.3
	Universiti Pertahanan Nasional Malaysia (UPNM)	3	2.5
	Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM)	4	3.3
	Universiti Sains Islam Malaysia (USIM)	13	10.8
	Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM)	6	5.0
	Universiti Sultan Zainal Abidin (UniSZA)	4	3.3
	Universiti Teknikal Malaysia Melaka (UTeM)	2	1.7
	Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM)	9	7.5
	Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM)	13	10.8
	Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia (UTHM)	3	2.5
	Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM)	3	2.5
Position	F41	29	24.2
	F44	70	58.3
	F48	21	17.5
Working Experience	1 to 5 years	11	9.2
	6 to 10 years	19	15.8
	11 to 15 years	32	26.7
	16 to 20 years	29	24.2
	more than 20 years	29	24.2
Highest Education	Doctorate	2	1.7
	Master's Degree	38	31.7
	Bachelor's Degree	80	66.7
Age	20-30 years old	7	5.8
	31-40 years old	38	31.7
	41-50 years old	70	58.3
	51-60 years old	5	4.2
Gender	Female	58	48.3
	Male	62	51.7

4.4 Assessment of Measurement Model

This study used a reflective measurement model. To assess this model, tests for indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity were performed.

4.4.1 Indicator Reliability

The dependability of the indicator was evaluated by examining the outer loadings. The general guideline states that the standardized outer loading should be 0.708 or greater. However, in social science studies, researchers often observe lower outer loadings (< 0.70), as reported by Hulland (1999). Instead of automatically discarding indicators with outer loadings below 0.70, researchers should thoroughly analyze the impact of removing indicators on other metrics of reliability and validity. Typically, indicators with outer loadings ranging from 0.40 to 0.70 should only be removed if eliminating the indicator results in an improvement in internal consistency reliability or convergent validity over the recommended level. Indicators with outer loadings below 0.40 should be consistently removed from the construct (Hair et al., 2022).

As shown in Table 4.4, outer loadings for all indicators were above 0.708 except for the organizational culture indicator 7, emotional intelligence indicator 1, and emotional intelligence indicator 4, which scored 0.636, 0.554, and 0.571, respectively. However, since the scores were still within the acceptable range (greater than 0.40) and the removal of these indicators did not affect composite reliability or AVE of the latent variable, these indicators were not removed. Indicator reliability is the value of the square of the outer loading, and the value must be greater than 0.50.

4.4.2 Internal Consistency Reliability

Cronbach's alpha is the lower bound, and composite reliability (ρ_C) is the upper bound for internal consistency reliability. The reliability coefficient (ρ_A) usually lies between these bounds and may serve as a good representation of a construct's internal consistency reliability. Reliability should generally be higher than 0.70. The result of composite reliability in Table 4.4 shows that all latent variables scored higher than 0.70, thus meeting the internal consistency reliability requirement.

4.4.3 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity is achieved when the AVE exceeds 0.50, as indicated by studies conducted by Fornell & Larcker (1981), Chin (2010), Hair et al. (2017), and Hair et al. (2022). An AVE score greater than 0.50 indicates that at least 50% of the variability in the item may be accounted for by the construct (Chin, 1998; Hair et al., 2022). According to the data in Table 4.4, all AVE values met the minimum requirement of 0.50, with values ranging from 0.543 to 0.814. The results confirmed the presence of sufficient convergent validity in the measurement models.

4.4.4 Discriminant Validity

Henseler et al. (2015) and Hair et al. (2022) suggest using the HTMT criterion as a precise method for evaluating discriminant validity. HTMT is defined as the quotient obtained by dividing the correlations between different traits by the correlations within the same trait. An HTMT result beyond 0.90 indicates a deficiency in discriminant validity. According to Henseler et al. (2015), if the constructs in the path model are more conceptually distinct, it is appropriate to use a lower threshold value of 0.85, which is more

conservative. According to Table 4.5, all the results were less than 0.85, with a range between 0.060 and 0.836. Therefore, discriminant validity has been confirmed.

Table 4.4 presents the results for the reflective measurement models in this study. It shows that all model evaluation criteria have been met, confirming the reliability and validity of the measures.

Table 4.4: Results for Reflective Measurement Model

Latent Variable	Indicators	Convergent Validity			Internal Consistency Reliability			Discriminant Validity
		Loadings	Indicator Reliability	AVE	Cronbach's Alpha	Reliability (rho_a)	Composite Reliability (rho_c)	HTMT
		>0.70	>0.50	>0.50	0.60-0.90	0.60-0.90	>0.70	Significantly Lower than 0.85 [0.90]?
EL	EL01	0.852	0.726	0.815	0.975	0.986	0.978	Yes
	EL02	0.916	0.839					
	EL03	0.888	0.789					
	EL04	0.914	0.835					
	EL05	0.905	0.819					
	EL06	0.907	0.823					
	EL07	0.934	0.872					
	EL08	0.896	0.803					
	EL09	0.905	0.819					
	EL10	0.911	0.830					
Ocu	OCu01	0.847	0.717	0.747	0.961	0.972	0.967	Yes
	OCu02	0.917	0.841					
	OCu03	0.872	0.760					
	OCu04	0.897	0.805					
	OCu05	0.886	0.785					
	OCu06	0.907	0.823					
	OCu07	0.636	0.404					
	OCu08	0.838	0.702					
	OCu09	0.898	0.806					
	OCu10	0.908	0.824					

Table 4.4: Results for Reflective Measurement Model (continued)

Latent Variable	Indicators	Convergent Validity		Internal Consistency Reliability			Discriminant Validity	
		Loadings	Indicator Reliability	AVE	Cronbach's Alpha	Reliability (rho_a)	Composite Reliability (rho_c)	HTMT Significantly Lower than 0.85 [0.90]?
LMX	LMX01	0.891	0.794	0.753	0.965	0.999	0.968	Yes
	LMX02	0.726	0.527					
	LMX03	0.871	0.759					
	LMX04	0.865	0.748					
	LMX05	0.878	0.771					
	LMX06	0.862	0.743					
	LMX07	0.906	0.821					
	LMX08	0.857	0.734					
	LMX09	0.890	0.792					
	LMX10	0.917	0.841					
Oco	OC01	0.915	0.837	0.814	0.962	0.974	0.968	Yes
	OC02	0.886	0.785					
	OC03	0.944	0.891					
	OC04	0.941	0.885					
	OC05	0.852	0.726					
	OC06	0.916	0.839					
	OC07	0.857	0.734					
EI	EI01	0.554	0.307	0.543	0.905	0.923	0.921	Yes
	EI02	0.768	0.590					
	EI03	0.799	0.638					
	EI04	0.571	0.326					
	EI05	0.732	0.536					

Table 4.4: Results for Reflective Measurement Model (continued)

Latent Variable	Indicators	Convergent Validity		Internal Consistency Reliability			Discriminant Validity	
		Loadings	Indicator Reliability	AVE	Cronbach's Alpha	Reliability (rho_a)	Composite Reliability (rho_c)	HTMT Significantly Lower than 0.85 [0.90]?
		>0.70	>0.50	>0.50	0.60-0.90	0.60-0.90	>0.70	
TP	EI06	0.755	0.570					
	EI07	0.818	0.669					
	EI08	0.714	0.510					
	EI09	0.778	0.605					
	EI10	0.823	0.677					
	TP01	0.837	0.701	0.766	0.923	0.926	0.942	1.942
	TP02	0.906	0.821					
	TP03	0.879	0.773					
	TP04	0.896	0.803					
	TP05	0.854	0.729					
CP	CP01	0.880	0.774	0.707	0.895	0.906	0.923	1.923
	CP02	0.908	0.824					
	CP03	0.888	0.789					
	CP04	0.736	0.542					
	CP05	0.776	0.602					

Table 4.5: Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)

	EL	OCu	LMX	OCo	EI	TP	CP
EL							
OCu	0.791						
LMX	0.786	0.706					
OCo	0.685	0.836	0.72				
EI	0.175	0.34	0.23	0.327			
TP	0.198	0.317	0.276	0.243	0.678		
CP	0.06	0.168	0.199	0.266	0.729	0.84	

4.5 Assessment of Structural Model

Evaluating the outcomes of the structural model allows for assessing the model's ability to explain and predict one or more desired concepts. The assessment of the structural model in this study involves examining collinearity, the importance and relevance of the interactions within the model, the explanatory capacity of the model, and its predictive potential.

4.5.1 Collinearity

Table 4.6 displays the VIF values for each combination of endogenous constructs (represented by the columns) and their corresponding exogenous (predictor) constructs (represented by the rows). The collinearity of the following sets of predictor constructs is specifically evaluated: (1) Effective Leadership, Organizational Culture, LMX, Organizational Commitment, and Emotional Intelligence as predictors of Task Performance; and (2) Effective Leadership, Organizational Culture, LMX, Organizational Commitment, and Emotional Intelligence as predictors of Contextual Performance.

The VIF values in Table 4.6 are well below the threshold of 5.0, with some even falling below 3.0. According to Hair et al., the VIF value of each predictor should be less than 5.0, and ideally less than 3.0, to prevent significant collinearity problems. This

indicates that the presence of collinearity among the predictor components does not significantly affect the structural model.

Table 4.6: VIF Values in the Structural Model

	Task Performance	Contextual Performance
Effective Leadership	3.177	3.177
Organizational Culture	3.954	3.954
LMX	2.604	2.604
Organizational Commitment	3.211	3.211
Emotional Intelligence	1.142	1.142

4.5.2 Significance and Relevance of the Structural Model Relationships

In this study, 10 hypotheses were proposed to address the research questions presented in Chapter 1. Five hypotheses (H1-H5) explore the direct relationship between organizational behavior factors and task performance, while another five hypotheses (H6-H10) investigate the direct relationship between organizational behavior factors and contextual performance. Table 4.7 shows the significance testing results of the structural model path coefficients.

Table 4.7: Significance Testing Results of the Structural Model Path Coefficients

Hypothesis	Relationship	Path Coefficients	Std. Dev	t Values	p values	Significance (p<0.05)	Decision
H1	EL -> TP	0.048	0.149	0.320	0.749	No	Not Supported
H2	OCu -> TP	-0.199	0.154	1.297	0.195	No	Not Supported
H3	LMX -> TP	0.139	0.107	1.298	0.194	No	Not Supported
H4	OCo -> TP	0.151	0.136	1.117	0.264	No	Not Supported
H5	EI -> TP	0.624	0.057	10.933	0**	Yes	Supported
H6	EL -> CP	-0.150	0.111	1.350	0.177	No	Not Supported
H7	OCu -> CP	-0.180	0.139	1.291	0.197	No	Not Supported
H8	LMX -> CP	0.170	0.093	1.823	0.069	No	Not Supported
H9	OCo -> CP	0.169	0.110	1.535	0.125	No	Not Supported

							Supported
H10	EI -> CP	0.683	0.056	12.282	0**	Yes	Supported

Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$

EL= Effective Leadership, Ocu=Organizational Culture, LMX=Leader-Member Exchange, Oco=Organizational Commitment, EI=Emotional Intelligence, TP=Task Performance and CP=Contextual Performance

The first five hypotheses (H1, H2, H3, H4, H5) investigated the relationship between organizational behavior factors and task performance. Hypothesis 1 (H1) proposed a positive association between effective leadership and task performance. However, the analysis revealed a lack of statistical significance, with a path coefficient of 0.048 ($p=0.749$), indicating that the relationship between effective leadership and task performance was not supported. Similarly, Hypothesis 2 (H2) posited a negative relationship between organizational culture and task performance. The data analysis yielded a nonsignificant relationship, with a path coefficient of -0.199 ($p=0.195$), leading to the rejection of H2.

Hypothesis 3 (H3) suggested a positive correlation between LMX and task performance. Yet, the results showed no statistically significant relationship, with a path coefficient of 0.139 ($p=0.194$), indicating that H3 was not supported. Likewise, Hypothesis 4 (H4) proposed a positive relationship between organizational commitment and task performance. However, the analysis did not confirm this relationship, with a nonsignificant path coefficient of 0.151 ($p=0.264$), resulting in the rejection of H4. Conversely, Hypothesis 5 (H5) hypothesized a positive association between emotional intelligence and task performance. The analysis revealed a statistically significant relationship, with a path coefficient of 0.624 ($p < 0.01$), providing support for H5.

The subsequent five hypotheses (H6, H7, H8, H9, H10) examined the relationship between organizational behavior factors and contextual performance. Hypothesis 6 (H6)

anticipated a positive association between effective leadership and contextual performance. However, the findings revealed a negative, statistically insignificant relationship, with a path coefficient of -0.150 ($p=0.177$), leading to the rejection of H6. Hypothesis 7 suggested a negative correlation between organizational culture and contextual performance. The analysis showed a lack of statistical significance, with a path coefficient of -0.180 ($p=0.197$), leading to the rejection of H7.

Hypothesis 8 proposed a positive relationship between LMX and contextual performance. However, the findings did not support this assertion, with a nonsignificant path coefficient of 0.170 ($p=0.069$), resulting in the dismissal of H8. Hypothesis 9 hypothesized a positive link between organizational commitment and contextual performance. The analysis failed to substantiate this relationship, with a nonsignificant path coefficient of 0.169 ($p=0.125$), leading to the rejection of H9. Finally, Hypothesis 10 indicated a positive association between emotional intelligence and contextual performance. The analysis confirmed this relationship to be statistically significant, with a path coefficient of 0.683 ($p<0.01$), providing support for H10.

The findings reveal intriguing insights into the relationship between organizational behavior factors at various levels and job performance. Hypotheses 1 (H1), 2 (H2), 6 (H6), and 7 (H7), which belong to the organizational level, examined the influence of factors such as effective leadership and organizational culture on job performance. However, none of these hypotheses were supported, indicating that neither effective leadership nor organizational culture significantly impacts job performance at the organizational level.

At the group level, Hypotheses 3 (H3) and 8 (H8) investigated the relationship between LMX and job performance. Despite initial expectations, the analysis showed no

statistically significant relationship, suggesting that LMX may not have a significant impact on job performance within groups. At the individual level, Hypotheses 4 (H4), 5 (H5), 9 (H9), and 10 (H10) examined the influence of factors such as organizational commitment and emotional intelligence on job performance. While H4 and H9 proposed a positive relationship between organizational commitment and job performance, the analysis did not support these hypotheses. Conversely, H5 and H10 hypothesized a positive association between emotional intelligence and job performance, and the analysis revealed a statistically significant relationship, providing support for H5 and H10. These findings suggest that individual-level factors, such as emotional intelligence, may have a more pronounced impact on task performance compared to organizational or group-level factors.

From the results, only two hypotheses were supported in this study: H5, which states that emotional intelligence has a positive impact on task performance, and H10, which indicates that emotional intelligence has a positive impact on contextual performance. The remaining eight hypotheses were not supported. These findings highlight the critical role of emotional intelligence in enhancing both task and contextual performance among IT professionals in Malaysian public universities. The lack of support for the other hypotheses suggests that factors such as effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, and organizational commitment may not significantly influence job performance in this context.

4.5.3 Model's Explanatory Power

The R^2 is a measure of the model's predictive accuracy and shows the combined effects of all exogenous constructs on the endogenous constructs (Hair et al., 2017). The R^2 value ranges from zero to one, with higher values indicating greater explanatory power. As a guideline, R^2 values of 0.75, 0.50, and 0.25 can be considered substantial, moderate, and weak, respectively (Henseler et al., 2009; Hair et al., 2011). In Table 4.8, the R^2 for task performance is 0.454 and for contextual performance is 0.519. This indicates that the five organizational behavior factors—effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, organizational commitment, and emotional intelligence—have moderate explanatory power on both task performance and contextual performance.

Table 4.8: Coefficients of Determination and Prediction Summary

	R-square	R-square adjusted	Q²predict	RMSE	MAE
Task Performance	0.454	0.43	0.378	0.807	0.614
Contextual Performance	0.519	0.498	0.467	0.745	0.608

The results of this study indicate that the model explains 45.4% of the variance in task performance ($R^2 = 0.454$) and 51.9% of the variance in contextual performance ($R^2 = 0.519$), both of which reflect moderate explanatory power (Cohen, 1988). This suggests that while the predictors included in the model, such as effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, organizational commitment, and emotional intelligence, are significant determinants of both task and contextual performance, other influential factors remain unaccounted for.

Moderate explanatory power indicates that the model provides a substantial yet incomplete understanding of the determinants of task and contextual performance. This highlights the need for future research to explore additional variables that could further

explain these performance outcomes. Practical implications of these findings suggest that while focusing on the identified predictors can yield improvements in performance, it is crucial to consider other strategies and interventions that address the broader spectrum of factors influencing IT professionals' performance.

4.5.4 Effect Size

The effect size (f^2) facilitates the assessment of an exogenous construct's contribution to a predictor latent variable's R^2 value. Effect sizes of 0.005, 0.010, and 0.025 indicate small, medium, and large effects on an endogenous construct. From Table 4.9, one construct, effective leadership, has a small effect size of 0.001 on task performance, while emotional intelligence provides large effect sizes on both task performance and contextual performance, with effect sizes of 0.623 and 0.850, respectively. The rest of the constructs have medium effect sizes, ranging from 0.013 to 0.023, on task performance and contextual performance.

Table 4.9: Effect Size

Hypothesis	Relationship	f square	Inference
H1	EL -> TP	0.001	Small
H2	OCu -> TP	0.018	Medium
H3	LMX -> TP	0.014	Medium
H4	OCo -> TP	0.013	Medium
H5	EI -> TP	0.623	Large
H6	EL -> CP	0.015	Medium
H7	OCu -> CP	0.017	Medium
H8	LMX -> CP	0.023	Medium
H9	OCo -> CP	0.018	Medium
H10	EI -> CP	0.85	Large

Note: EL= Effective Leadership, Ocu=Organizational Culture, LMX=Leader-Member Exchange, Oco=Organizational Commitment, EI=Emotional Intelligence, TP=Task Performance and CP=Contextual Performance

4.5.5 Model's Predictive Power

The predictive relevance of the model was tested using Stone-Geisser's Q^2 value (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974). As a rule of thumb, Q^2 values higher than 0, 0.25, and 0.50 depict small, medium, and large predictive relevance of the PLS-path model, respectively. Table 4.10 shows the model's predictive power for this study.

Table 4.10: Model's Predictive Power

	Q^2_{predict}	RMSE	MAE
Task Performance	0.378	0.807	0.614
Contextual Performance	0.467	0.745	0.608

The structural model exhibits moderate predictive power for both task performance and contextual performance, with predictive relevance values of 0.378 and 0.467, respectively. These values indicate that approximately 37.8% of the variance in task performance and 46.7% of the variance in contextual performance can be explained by the predictors included in the model. Moderate predictive power suggests that while the model provides valuable insights into the determinants of task and contextual performance, there are still unexplored factors influencing these outcomes. Nonetheless, the model's ability to reasonably predict performance outcomes underscores its relevance for organizational decision-making and intervention planning.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with an in-depth discussion of the results presented in Chapter 4. It then explores the theoretical and practical implications of the study and its significance within a broader academic and practical context. A critical examination of the study's limitations is meticulously conducted to clarify the boundaries that influence the interpretation of the findings. The chapter then sets the stage for future research endeavors, identifying possible directions for further academic exploration. It concludes with a summary of the key findings, encapsulating the essence of the study and providing a comprehensive understanding of its contribution to the field.

5.2 Discussion

In this study, 10 hypotheses were formulated to examine the direct relationship between five exogenous variables—effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, organizational commitment, and emotional intelligence—and two endogenous variables, task performance and contextual performance. The exogenous variables represent organizational behavior factors, while the endogenous variables denote job performance.

IT professionals, by the nature of their work, spend a significant amount of time interacting with computers rather than with people. This limited human interaction is likely a primary factor influencing the overall findings of this study. However, there may be additional factors contributing to these results. The detailed discussion will identify and

analyze these factors to provide a comprehensive understanding of their impact on the study's outcomes.

5.2.1 Effective Leadership and Task Performance

The positive relationship between effective leadership and task performance, widely recognized in the literature, was not accepted because it did not reach statistical significance in this study. Hence, Hypothesis 1 was not supported. This result contrasts with the well-founded claims of Cheng and Osman (2021), Ambad et al. (2021), Lee et al. (2021), Downey et al. (1975), and Murnighan et al. (1976), who consistently assert the positive influence of effective leadership on task performance.

As mentioned during the hypothesis development, other factors might affect the relationship differently. While no statistically significant relationship between effective leadership and task performance was found in this study, a differentiated look at the preferred leadership style of IT professionals provides crucial insights. Building on the work of Suar, Tewari, and Chaturbedi (2006) and Kuchinke (1998), who both emphasize the influence of transformational leadership on the attitude and performance of subordinates, various leadership dynamics can be found in the IT sector. Bennett's (2009) emphasis on the centrality of transformational leadership in this sector is echoed by Molero, Moriano, and Shaver (2013) and Madzar's (2001) comprehensive examination of the profound influence of leadership style on subordinate retention and information acquisition. Transformational leadership is consistently emphasized as a positive force in these analyses.

Practically, the technical expertise of IT professionals often overshadows the importance of effective leadership in affecting their task performance. For instance, in a

software development team, the primary focus is to deliver high-quality systems or applications within tight deadlines. When the team encounters technical challenges or bugs in the system, they rely heavily on their expertise to troubleshoot and resolve issues rather than seeking motivation or guidance from their leaders. This reliance on technical skills suggests that effective leadership might not be the primary factor driving IT professionals' task performance. Essentially, their technical proficiency seems to play a more dominant role in shaping their effectiveness in performing tasks than the direct influence of leadership skills.

However, it is important to acknowledge that effective leadership still holds significant value. While technical skills are crucial for problem-solving and execution, leadership is essential for setting strategic directions, fostering a collaborative environment, and ensuring alignment with organizational goals. Therefore, the study indicates that while technical expertise is paramount, effective leadership should not be overlooked. To enhance IT professionals' task performance, it is essential to integrate interventions that highlight the importance of leadership alongside technical skills. This could include leadership development programs tailored for IT contexts, promoting a culture of continuous improvement, and encouraging leaders to develop a deeper understanding of the technical challenges faced by their teams. By doing so, organizations can ensure that effective leadership complements technical expertise, thereby maximizing the overall performance and productivity of IT professionals.

5.2.2 Organizational Culture and Task Performance

Previous research consistently highlights a positive correlation between organizational culture and task performance. Scholars underscore the significant impact of

organizational culture on task performance, emphasizing the constructive effects of a strong culture (Mali et al., 2022; Wahjoedi, 2021; Matko & Takács, 2017; Yazici, 2011; Byles et al., 1992). However, contrary to these established expectations, this study's hypothesis tests did not support the proposition that organizational culture positively influences task performance. The observed relationship lacked statistical significance, leading to the rejection of Hypothesis 2. This finding aligns with less common perspectives in prior literature that do not uphold a positive association between organizational culture and task performance.

A plausible explanation for this unexpected result lies in the homogeneity of IT culture, which may have hindered the expected positive relationship between organizational culture and task performance. Within the IT sector, departments often maintain distinct subcultures that intersect with the broader organizational context. IT professionals often identify more strongly with the values and norms specific to their technical domains, overshadowing the overarching organizational culture. Guzman, Stam, and Stanton (2008) and Guzman and Stanton (2004) highlight this phenomenon by describing the unique professional culture of IT personnel characterized by technical expertise, a primary emphasis on technical knowledge, and a lack of formal rules. This IT subculture can lead to conflicts with other organizational subcultures, as noted by Guzman and Stanton (2004). The interplay between organizational and IT subcultures thus emerges as a central factor in understanding the unexpected deviation from established expectations regarding the impact of organizational culture on task performance.

IT teams are typically divided into smaller groups responsible for specific tasks or projects. For example, one team may focus on developing the student management system,

while another group focuses on the finance system, and yet another on the human resource system. Additionally, there may be teams dedicated to IT security, servers, databases, and other areas. Within these smaller groups, IT employees often cultivate subcultures that revolve around the particular tasks or projects they handle. Over time, these subcultures may diverge from the overarching organizational culture.

Within the IT department, various subcultures, such as those embracing agile concepts that prioritize flexibility, adaptability, and iterative development, may clash with the established organizational culture, particularly in government settings. Government structures often adhere to strict procedures that may be perceived as resistant to change. For instance, the introduction of new technologies may face delays in approval within the organization due to bureaucratic red tape. These traditional barriers hinder the prompt adoption of technology advocated by IT professionals. Consequently, such challenges may impact the relationship between organizational culture and task performance. The existing organizational culture, with its procedural constraints, may impede the swift integration of technological innovations proposed by IT professionals.

5.2.3 Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and Task Performance

Previous research consistently affirms a positive relationship between LMX and task performance, as shown in the studies by Dunegan et al. (2002) and Martin et al. (2016). However, the results of the present study deviate from this established pattern. Although a positive relationship between LMX and task performance was found, the study did not provide statistically significant results. Consequently, Hypothesis 3 was not accepted.

As highlighted in the hypothesis development, various other factors could potentially influence the relationship in distinct ways. Numerous factors in the IT industry can contribute to a negative leader-member relationship and thus influence task performance. The manifestation of low-quality LMX has been associated with phenomena such as knowledge hoarding and rude behavior (Nandedkar, 2016). In addition, negative feedback behavior has been identified as a potential mediator in the relationship between LMX and task performance (Chen, Lam & Zhong, 2007). Furthermore, different leadership styles may influence the quality of LMX, making the observed relationship even more complex.

The effectiveness of an IT team often relies heavily on the skills and expertise of its members to successfully accomplish assigned tasks. Each team member is allocated specific responsibilities to be completed within agreed-upon timeframes. The intense focus on task completion may impact the relationship between LMX and task performance, as a significant portion of their time is dedicated to individual tasks. Conversely, IT professionals in public universities often allocate a considerable amount of their time to managerial duties, including meetings, rather than spending extensive time with their team members. The diversity in the job scope of IT professionals could be a contributing factor affecting the relationship between LMX and task performance.

Moreover, IT professionals typically exercise autonomy and make decisions independently without consulting their immediate supervisors. As a result, the role of supervisors becomes less significant in aiding IT professionals to complete their tasks. Furthermore, the varied job scopes within the IT landscape, coupled with supervisors'

potential lack of experience in specific tasks, also impact the dependency of IT professionals on their supervisors.

These factors contribute to a dynamic where IT professionals rely less on direct supervision and more on their own expertise and judgment to navigate their tasks effectively. The autonomy practiced by IT professionals reflects the nature of their work, which often requires specialized knowledge and quick decision-making. As a result, supervisors may find themselves playing a more hands-off role, providing guidance and support when needed rather than closely overseeing day-to-day activities. This shift in dynamics underscores the importance of fostering a culture of trust and empowerment within IT teams, where professionals feel confident in their abilities to manage their responsibilities autonomously while still having access to support and resources when required.

5.2.4 Organizational Commitment and Task Performance

Past research by Wu et al. (2006) and Mythily (2018) has consistently established a positive relationship between organizational commitment and task performance. However, the results of this study could not support Hypothesis 4, as the anticipated positive relationship was not statistically significant. Consequently, the positive relationship between organizational commitment and task performance could not be empirically proven in this study.

Several potential factors contribute to this discrepancy, including psychological empowerment, quality of work life, and job satisfaction, as highlighted by Srivastava and Pathak (2016) and Mete, Sökmen, and Biyik (2016). Additionally, the intricacies of the nature of work, communication dynamics, and employee relationships have been identified

as influential factors that impact affective and normative commitment, as noted by Valaei and Rezaei (2016). Trust, work engagement, and work experience have also been documented as variables that influence organizational commitment, as evidenced by Tezergil, Köse, and Karabay (2014).

Organizational commitment typically revolves around a sense of belonging and loyalty to the organization. In this study, 90% of the respondents fell within the age range of 31-50 years old, spanning Generation X and Millennials. Age and generational differences significantly influence employees' organizational commitment. Unlike Baby Boomers, who often exhibit strong loyalty to their organizations, Generation X tends to prioritize results and performance, while Millennials demonstrate a more fluid sense of loyalty. Consequently, employees in these age groups may not hesitate to leave the organization if presented with better opportunities.

Career progression for IT professionals within government agencies, including public universities, tends to progress slowly, regardless of performance. Many IT professionals find themselves holding lower grades despite years of service exceeding two decades. This lack of career advancement may lead IT professionals to feel undervalued and underpaid, especially considering their accumulated experience and responsibilities. Such disparities in career advancement can significantly impact organizational commitment and employee morale within the IT sector of government agencies. Universities should adopt proactive measures to accelerate career growth opportunities for their IT employees in general, while the government should explore options to enhance salary packages for IT employees in the government sector.

5.2.5 Emotional Intelligence and Task Performance

Carmeli and Josman (2006) and Kappagoda (2012) independently demonstrated a positive correlation between higher emotional intelligence and better task performance. This assertion was further supported by the research of Schutte et al. (2001), which indicated that individuals with high emotional intelligence not only perform better on cognitive tasks but also have a higher frustration tolerance. Remarkably, Hypothesis 5, which postulates a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and task performance, achieved statistical significance and was thus the first hypothesis to find empirical support in this study.

This finding aligns with the broader literature that emphasizes the central role of emotional intelligence in IT management. Astrup and McArthur (2011) attest to its influence on leadership skills, Gupta (2016) associates it with work-life balance, and Karthikeyan and Rajamohan (2011) link it to OCB. The relevance of emotional intelligence extends to organizational and IT alignment (Blerk, Harpe & Cronje, 2015) and the effective management of interpersonal relationships in the workplace (Sinha, 2018). Additionally, the components of emotional intelligence, including emotional awareness, management, and relationship management, show differences between demographic variables (Rahamat, 2020). These cumulative findings highlight the integral role of emotional intelligence in the IT sector and suggest that it has the potential to improve leadership skills, facilitate work-life balance, and enhance overall organizational effectiveness.

IT professionals frequently contend with multiple tasks simultaneously. For instance, while engrossed in system development or programming, they may receive calls

or messages from supervisors or requests for assistance from colleagues. Effectively managing these interruptions necessitates a high level of emotional intelligence to mitigate stress. With heightened emotional intelligence, IT professionals can adeptly prioritize their tasks, addressing them methodically without succumbing to overwhelm.

IT employees also require concentration to accomplish assigned tasks. The successful completion of these tasks demands a clear mind and positive emotions due to the substantial cognitive effort involved. Consequently, emotional intelligence has a positive relationship with task performance, as it enables individuals to navigate their emotions effectively, contributing to enhanced cognitive functioning and overall job effectiveness.

5.2.6 Effective Leadership and Contextual Performance

The results for Hypothesis 6 did not support the hypothesized positive impact of effective leadership on contextual performance. Despite the research by Jelača et al. (2023), which identified a positive relationship between a people-oriented leadership style, especially involving employee participation, and contextual performance, and the findings of Shah et al. (2016), who emphasized the importance of transformational leadership behavior in higher education, this study indicated a negative relationship between effective leadership and contextual performance, though without statistical significance.

Other factors that might affect the relationship should be considered. The complex interplay between leadership styles and job performance, including contextual performance, complicates current understanding. While certain studies, such as those by Guangling (2011) and Pazetto, Luiz, and Beuren (2023), confirm a positive relationship between transformational leadership and contextual performance, others emphasize the

negative impact of laissez-faire leadership on organizational performance, as noted by Khan and Adnan (2014). These divergent findings suggest that the effectiveness of leadership in the IT industry may depend on the specific leadership style.

Moreover, the distinctive characteristics inherent in IT work, encompassing core job aspects, group cohesion, and role stress, significantly influence the commitment levels of IT professionals to their organizations, as posited by Klaus, LeRouge, and Blanton (2003). Within this framework, it becomes evident that effective leadership may not necessarily be the primary determinant of excellence in contextual performance among IT professionals. The fundamental nature of core IT responsibilities often demands rapid decision-making and minimizes reliance on directives from superiors. This preference for autonomy is deeply ingrained in IT professionals, who meticulously plan their tasks, define their coding methodologies, and independently resolve technical challenges. Furthermore, they frequently engage in peer collaboration, pooling resources to address complex issues collectively. This comprehensive perspective underscores the unique interplay between leadership dynamics and contextual performance within the distinctive setting of the IT sector.

5.2.7 Organizational Culture and Contextual Performance

Organizational culture is recognized as a key influencer of contextual performance, particularly in dynamic environments where a robust culture that emphasizes adaptability and innovation is associated with improved performance (Zhang & Li, 2016; Chatman & Cha, 2012). Employee alignment with organizational culture is generally conducive to their commitment to organizational goals (Bashayreh, 2019). However, this conventional wisdom encounters a challenge when applied to IT professionals. The hypothesis did not

support the anticipated positive impact of organizational culture on contextual performance.

In contrast, Koberg and Chusmir (1987) and Omoniyi, Salau, and Olumuyiwa (2014) claim that certain organizational cultures, such as bureaucratic culture, can negatively impact employee job satisfaction and performance. An examination of the impact of IT culture on the contextual performance of IT employees reveals a multi-layered dynamic. Karthik and Vasumathi (2017) highlight that cultural dimensions, including experience, age, and task variety, significantly influence performance management. Guzman et al. (2008) identify a distinct professional culture within IT staff characterized by jargon, a high regard for technical knowledge, and a lack of formal rules. Schmiedel, Müller, Debortoli, and Brocke (2016) emphasize the importance of fostering a culture of learning and performance orientation to enhance employee motivation. Additionally, Nord, Nord, Cormack, and Cater-Steel (2007) and Jacks (2012) underscore the central role of IT culture in shaping communication, working relationships, and coordination within IT alignment. Weisinger and Trauth (2003) also highlight the importance of culture for cross-cultural IT management.

With ongoing technological advancements and the expanding scope of IT services provided by universities, the demand for IT support has evolved into a round-the-clock necessity. Moreover, the accessibility of various communication channels has made IT personnel more readily available. Consequently, this has disrupted traditional working hours for IT professionals, who are now expected to be constantly reachable and responsive to both superiors and colleagues. While organizational cultures typically adhere to fixed working hours, such as 8 a.m. to 5 p.m. on weekdays, the nature of IT support

requires a more flexible approach, with employees on standby to address user inquiries and issues at any time. This disparity in working hours may affect the correlation between organizational culture and contextual performance, as IT professionals must adapt to a schedule that aligns with the demands of their roles rather than traditional office hours. As such, IT employees are inherently predisposed to being available whenever their expertise is required.

Additionally, the shift towards a 24/7 IT support model has implications beyond mere availability. The expectation of constant accessibility challenges the conventional understanding of work-life balance, particularly for IT professionals who may find themselves tethered to their devices outside of regular office hours. This phenomenon blurs the boundaries between professional and personal life, potentially leading to heightened stress levels and decreased job satisfaction. Furthermore, the mismatch between organizational expectations and the realities of IT support may undermine employee morale and engagement, impacting their overall performance and well-being. Addressing this discrepancy in working hours and reevaluating the organizational culture surrounding IT support could be crucial for enhancing contextual performance and fostering a supportive work environment for IT professionals in university settings.

5.2.8 Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and Contextual Performance

Existing research consistently emphasizes a positive relationship between LMX and contextual performance, as evidenced by studies by Martin et al. (2016), Moss et al. (2009), Berdicchia (2015), Peterson and Aikens (2017), Blanc and González-Romá (2012), Sui, Wang, Kirkman, and Li (2016), and Dam, Nikolova, and Ruyseveldt (2013). However, this study deviates from these established findings as Hypothesis 8, which

assumes a positive relationship between LMX and contextual performance, could not be accepted due to statistically non-significant results.

During hypothesis development, the researcher acknowledged the significance of understanding how diverse factors can impact relationships in multiple ways. The dynamics of LMX differentiation within workgroups can be further explored through the moderating influence of the upward leader-leader exchange relationship, as suggested by Herdman, Yang, and Arthur (2017). Additionally, the relationship between LMX and performance may depend on the analyzability and variety of tasks, as postulated by Dunegan, Duchon, and Uhl-Bien (1992).

In the IT department, projects are typically mapped out at the start of the year, with each team led by IT professionals assigned specific responsibilities—from crafting project plans to overseeing implementation. IT professionals shoulder the bulk of these duties autonomously, necessitating minimal reliance on team members. Supervisors typically intervene only when project updates are needed. This independence is a hallmark of IT professionals, who often take the lead in project orchestration and decision-making, even working beyond standard hours to meet deadlines. Given this dynamic, the traditional notion of LMX may hold less relevance, as IT professionals operate largely independently, with limited need for direct supervisor input in their day-to-day tasks and project management.

5.2.9 Organizational Commitment and Contextual Performance

Existing research consistently highlights a positive relationship between transformational leadership and contextual performance, often mediated by organizational commitment, as highlighted by Guangling (2011). Additionally, a significant relationship

has been identified between job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and contextual performance, as shown by Qian-we (2007). However, contrary to these established findings, Hypothesis 9, which postulates a positive impact of organizational commitment on the contextual performance among IT professionals, was not supported in this study, primarily due to a low statistical significance level.

Organizational commitment, a construct influenced by various factors such as person-organization fit, perceived organizational prestige, and strength of organizational identity (Collen, 2019), is closely related to the nature of work. Core work characteristics, group cohesion, and role stress can significantly impact the retention of IT professionals in their organization, as Klaus et al. (2003) point out. While transformational leadership has been shown to predict employees' contextual performance, with organizational commitment acting as a mediator (Guangling, 2011), the specific reasons why organizational commitment may not directly influence IT managers' contextual performance are yet to be explored in the existing literature.

As previously discussed, the generational differences among respondents significantly influence their perception of organizational commitment. Generation X and Millennials tend to prioritize short-term tasks and the immediate impact of their work over long-term loyalty to the organization. Given the nature of IT projects, which often have strict deadlines and require quick turnaround times, employees are more focused on achieving specific targets rather than demonstrating allegiance to the organization itself.

Forcing employees to exhibit loyalty is ineffective; however, organizations can inspire voluntary commitment through various means. It is essential for IT employees to feel appreciated and valued within their organizations. For instance, government entities

could consider implementing special allowances or recognition programs to acknowledge and motivate these employees for their dedicated efforts and unwavering commitment. This proactive approach fosters a positive work environment and cultivates a sense of belonging among IT professionals, thereby enhancing their overall job performance.

5.2.10 Emotional Intelligence and Contextual Performance

Research consistently emphasizes a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and contextual performance. Cichy et al. (2009) found that higher levels of emotional intelligence were associated with improved performance among managers in industry, a finding echoed by Kappagoda (2012) in the banking sector. Hypothesis 10 confirms these established patterns and aligns with previous literature demonstrating that emotional intelligence positively influences contextual performance.

Beyond individual performance, a favorable relationship between emotional intelligence and team cohesion has been observed in various contexts, including IT teams (Rapisarda, 2002; Kim & Ko, 2021; Dunaway, 2019). This relationship is often mediated by factors such as self-efficacy and trust, as outlined by Kim and Ko (2021). The strategic importance of emotional intelligence in fostering business-IT alignment is emphasized, with emotional intelligence considered a key factor for improved alignment (Blerk et al., 2015). It also underscores the role of communication skills as a mediator in the relationship between emotional intelligence and social cohesion within teams (Troth, Jordan & Lawrence, 2012). The practical dimension is addressed through the discussion of the Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile's short version (WEIP-S) by Jordan and Lawrence (2009), a valuable tool for assessing team emotional intelligence.

Additionally, creating norms that promote mutual trust, group identity, and group effectiveness is seen as essential for cultivating group emotional intelligence, as emphasized by Druskat and Wolff (2001). In summary, the literature underscores the central role of emotional intelligence not only in individual contextual performance but also in forming cohesive and high-performing teams across various professional domains, including the dynamic field of IT.

5.3 Implications of the Study

This study presents significant implications for both academics and practitioners. These implications are detailed in the following subsections:

5.3.1 Theoretical Implications

As a result of this study, the understanding of the variables examined is expected to increase, supported by previous studies. This research aims to contribute to the literature by analyzing the relationships between organizational behavior factors, task performance, and contextual performance among IT professionals in Malaysian public universities. The findings indicate several important contributions to the knowledge base related to various levels of organizational behavior and job performance. This study explores the impact of organizational behavior factors on task and contextual performance, integrating the underlying theory of Social Exchange Theory.

The theoretical implications of this study reveal a significant contribution to the existing literature by combining three different levels of organizational behavior factors in a unified framework, a novel approach not previously undertaken. Past research often examined individual variables or assessed them by certain organizational behavior levels:

individual, group, and organizational. Therefore, the model proposed in this study represents a significant advance in the field.

The unique contribution of this study is evident in its findings, particularly in highlighting that among IT professionals, only emotional intelligence positively impacts job performance. This finding challenges previous assumptions and enriches the existing body of knowledge.

A key aspect of this study is the integration of Social Exchange Theory. This holistic approach provides a comprehensive understanding of the complex relationships between effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, organizational commitment, and emotional intelligence. Examining these variables in relation to task and contextual performance yields results that challenge conventional assumptions of Social Exchange Theory, necessitating a closer examination of reciprocity dynamics within organizational elements.

The observation that effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, and organizational commitment are not positively related to task and contextual performance prompts a reconsideration of the parameters defined by Social Exchange Theory. This invites theoretical advancements that may involve redefining the reciprocity dynamics within leadership, culture, LMX, and commitment, incorporating contextual nuances to better understand their relationships.

The positive relationship identified between emotional intelligence and task and contextual performance aligns with expectations derived from Social Exchange Theory. This finding underscores the critical role of emotional intelligence in fostering reciprocal relationships and promoting cooperative behaviors within organizational settings.

However, the study also suggests a need to reconsider Social Exchange Theory parameters, as the anticipated positive relationships between effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, and organizational commitment with both task and contextual performance were not supported. This indicates that, within the IT sector, traditional constructs of Social Exchange Theory may not fully capture the complexities of performance dynamics.

In summary, the theoretical implications of this study underscore the need for a deeper understanding of the interplay between organizational behavior factors and performance outcomes. By challenging and refining existing theoretical frameworks, this study makes an important contribution to the ongoing discourse in the organizational behavior literature and provides a basis for more targeted interventions and informed organizational practices.

5.3.2 Practical Implications

The practical implications of this study provide valuable insights for IT professionals in Malaysian public universities, offering guidance for enhancing task and contextual performance. While the positive relationship between emotional intelligence and performance is affirmed, the unsupported relationships with effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, and organizational commitment necessitate targeted interventions. These findings offer several practical implications for university management.

First, universities should emphasize emotional intelligence development. Given the consistent positive relationship between emotional intelligence and both task and contextual performance, organizations should consider implementing training programs to enhance emotional intelligence skills among IT professionals. These programs can focus

on self-awareness, empathy, and emotional regulation, equipping managers with the tools to navigate complex work situations effectively.

Second, management should reassess leadership strategies. In light of the unsupported relationship between effective leadership and performance outcomes, organizations should critically evaluate their leadership strategies. This may involve providing leadership development opportunities tailored to the specific needs of IT professionals, incorporating aspects that resonate with the unique challenges and dynamics of the IT environment within Malaysian public universities. For example, universities could organize leadership development programs specifically tailored for IT contexts. These programs should promote a culture of continuous improvement and encourage leaders to develop a deeper understanding of the technical challenges faced by their teams. By implementing such initiatives, it is hoped that the relationship between university leaders and IT professionals will be strengthened, fostering a more collaborative and supportive work environment.

Third, public universities should cultivate a supportive organizational culture. While this study did not find a direct positive relationship between organizational culture and performance, the role of organizational culture should not be dismissed. Practical implications include fostering a culture that values innovation, collaboration, and adaptability within the IT department. Creating an environment that supports continuous learning and knowledge sharing can contribute to improved task and contextual performance. One example discussed earlier highlighted the mismatch in working hours for IT employees, particularly IT professionals, who are required to be responsive to requests around the clock. Unlike other groups such as engineers and doctors who receive

extra allowances for similar demands, IT professionals do this without additional compensation. The government should consider providing extra allowances for IT employees to reward their effort and commitment in offering 24/7 support. Addressing this disparity in working hours could improve the relationship between organizational culture and job performance, fostering a more equitable and motivated workforce.

Fourth, HEIs should enhance LMX. Despite the unsupported relationship in this study, organizations may benefit from efforts to strengthen LMX. This could involve promoting open communication channels, facilitating regular feedback sessions, and creating opportunities for IT professionals to actively engage with leaders. Building trust and rapport can positively influence the quality of leader-member relationships, potentially impacting performance indirectly. To improve the relationship between leaders and group members, departments and supervisors should consider implementing a variety of activities that foster collaboration and communication. Team-building workshops can help break down barriers and build trust among team members, creating a more cohesive unit. Regular feedback sessions provide opportunities for open dialogue, allowing both leaders and team members to express their thoughts, concerns, and suggestions, which can lead to a better understanding and alignment of goals. Monthly gatherings can serve as informal settings for team members to connect on a personal level, strengthening their relationships outside the immediate work context. Weekly morning prayers or other shared activities can also foster a sense of community and mutual support, promoting a positive work environment. These initiatives collectively can enhance team cohesion, improve morale, and ultimately lead to better performance and job satisfaction. By actively engaging in these activities, leaders can demonstrate their commitment to the well-being and development of their team members, thereby improving overall organizational effectiveness.

Finally, aligning organizational commitment with IT professionals' goals is vital within public HEIs. Since organizational commitment did not show a direct positive relationship with performance, practical implications involve aligning organizational goals with the career aspirations and values of IT professionals. HEIs could conduct regular dialogues with IT professionals to understand their career expectations, provide growth opportunities, and tailor retention strategies that resonate with the unique motivations of IT professionals.

In the discussion section, this study highlighted that slow career progression among IT professionals may significantly impact their organizational commitment. To address this issue, universities should proactively expedite career advancement opportunities, ensuring that IT professionals have a clear and achievable path for growth. Furthermore, the government should consider revising salary packages or introducing special allowances for IT employees. Such measures could serve as strong motivators, recognizing their contributions and commitment, and ultimately boosting morale and job satisfaction across the IT sector. By addressing these areas, both universities and the government can work towards fostering a more supportive and rewarding environment for IT professionals.

Although the findings indicate that only emotional intelligence significantly influences IT professionals' task and contextual performance, the importance of other organizational behavior factors should not be overlooked. The practical implications discussed earlier are summarized in Table 5.1. By aligning these practical implications and interventions with the unique characteristics of IT professionals' roles, organizations can create an environment that enhances both task and contextual performance.

Table 5.1: Summary of Practical Implications

Organizational Behavior Factor	Implication	Intervention	Person In Charge
Emotional Intelligence	Significant positive impact on task and contextual performance	Emphasizing emotional intelligence development by providing emotional intelligence training, encourage peer support systems, integrate EI into performance reviews.	HR Department, Training Coordinators
Effective Leadership	Limited impact on task and contextual performance as per the study	Organize leadership development programs tailored for IT contexts, promote a culture of continuous improvement	University Administration, HR Department, Training Coordinators
Organizational Culture	Misalignment with IT professionals' work patterns may hinder job performance	Adapt organizational policies to support flexible working hours, ensure recognition of IT professionals' unique contributions	University Administration, Government Bodies
Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)	Minimal influence on task and contextual performance in IT settings	Implement team-building workshops, feedback sessions, monthly gatherings, weekly morning prayers	IT Department Heads, Supervisors
Organizational Commitment	Potentially low due to slow career progression and lack of incentives	Expedite career growth opportunities, introduce special allowances, recognize IT professionals' contributions	University Administration, Government Bodies

5.4 Limitations of the Study

While this study provides valuable insights into the impact of organizational behavior on task and contextual performance among IT professionals in Malaysian public universities, certain limitations may influence the generalizability and interpretation of the findings.

First, the study may be limited by the sample size and its specific focus on IT professionals in Malaysian public universities. The findings may not be fully generalizable to other industries or managerial levels. Consideration should be given to the unique characteristics of the IT context and the public university setting when extrapolating the results to broader populations.

Second, the cross-sectional nature of the study provides a snapshot of relationships at a specific point in time. Longitudinal studies would offer a more dynamic understanding

of how organizational behavior factors influence performance over time. A longitudinal approach could capture changes in variables and their impact on performance more comprehensively.

Third, the reliance on self-report measures for variables such as emotional intelligence, organizational commitment, and LMX introduces the potential for common method bias. Respondents may provide socially desirable responses, impacting the accuracy and reliability of the data. Future research could incorporate multi-source data, such as supervisor ratings or objective performance metrics, to mitigate this limitation.

Next, the study's focus on Malaysian public universities may limit the generalizability of findings to organizations in different cultural or geographical contexts. Organizational behavior can be influenced by cultural nuances, and future research could explore how these relationships vary across diverse settings. Additionally, external factors or changes in the organizational environment that were not accounted for in the study may influence the relationships examined. Economic shifts, technological advancements, or policy changes could impact the relevance and strength of the identified relationships.

Finally, the study's exclusive focus on the IT sector within public universities may limit the transferability of findings to other sectors or industries. Future research could explore whether similar relationships exist in different organizational contexts. By acknowledging these limitations, the study contributes to a transparent and comprehensive understanding of its scope and potential constraints. Addressing these limitations in future research endeavors will further enhance the validity and applicability of findings in diverse settings.

5.5 Directions for Future Research

Building on the insights gained from this study on the factors affecting job performance of IT professionals in Malaysian public universities, several avenues for future research could be explored.

First, researchers can explore mediating mechanisms by investigating the underlying processes that may link emotional intelligence to task and contextual performance. Understanding how emotional intelligence influences specific aspects of job tasks or contextual contributions could provide deeper insights into the processes through which it enhances overall performance.

Second, scholars should consider conducting longitudinal studies to track the dynamics of organizational behavior and performance over time. This approach would allow for a more thorough understanding of how changes in leadership, culture, commitment, and other factors impact task and contextual performance among IT professionals. Longitudinal research could capture the evolution of relationships and identify causal patterns.

Third, future studies should perform a comparative cross-cultural analysis and extend the research to include cross-cultural analyses to examine whether the relationships identified in Malaysian public universities hold true in different cultural contexts. Exploring how cultural dimensions influence the impact of organizational behavior on performance outcomes could contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of these dynamics.

Fourth, qualitative research can offer a deeper understanding of the underlying factors influencing the findings, particularly why only two out of the 10 hypotheses were supported. A qualitative approach would allow for in-depth exploration of IT professionals' experiences, perceptions, and contextual variations that quantitative methods might not fully capture. Through interviews, focus groups, and case studies, researchers can uncover the underlying dynamics and unanticipated variables that affect task and contextual performance. This method will also provide richer, more detailed data, enabling the identification of subtle, yet impactful, factors that quantitative data might overlook. Understanding these complexities can help refine theoretical models and develop more targeted interventions to enhance IT professionals' performance.

Fifth, future research can extend the existing framework by incorporating moderator or mediator variables to provide deeper insights into the observed impacts. By considering how factors such as motivation, work stress, leadership styles, or job autonomy moderate or mediate the relationship between organizational behavior factors and job performance, researchers can unravel the intricate mechanisms at play. This approach enables a deeper understanding of the underlying dynamics and can unveil hidden pathways through which these variables influence outcomes. Integrating moderator or mediator variables into the framework allows for a more comprehensive examination of the relationships between organizational behavior factors and job performance, paving the way for more targeted interventions and strategies in future research.

Finally, upcoming studies can extend the research to include comparisons with IT professionals in different sectors (e.g., private industry, government agencies) or different IT employee groups to identify sector-specific influences on organizational behavior and

performance. Understanding sector-specific distinctions can contribute to targeted interventions and strategies.

By pursuing these directions for future research, scholars can contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the complex link between organizational behavior and performance outcomes in the dynamic context of IT management within public universities.

5.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, this study has conducted a comprehensive examination of the factors affecting the job performance of IT professionals within Malaysian public universities. The investigation explored various aspects, including effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, organizational commitment, and emotional intelligence, representing different levels of organizational behavior such as organizational, group, and individual. The findings reveal that improvements and interventions are necessary across all levels, particularly within the organizational and group spheres, as they do not significantly influence the job performance of IT professionals.

Notably, the individual level factor of emotional intelligence emerges as the primary determinant of IT professionals' performance. Enhancing the role of organizational and group levels in shaping the job performance of IT professionals could lead to significant improvements. The findings highlight the remarkable intellectual abilities and wisdom demonstrated by IT professionals, particularly in their high emotional intelligence when addressing tasks and challenges. However, areas such as leadership, culture, communication, and commitment require further attention and enhancement. Additionally, it is evident that IT professionals approach both task and contextual performance with

equal dedication, consistently delivering their best efforts regardless of whether they are core duties or voluntary tasks.

The findings of this study contribute in-depth insights to the existing body of knowledge. Notably, the positive relationship between emotional intelligence and both task and contextual performance provides empirical support for the significance of emotional competencies in the IT managerial landscape. However, the non-supported relationships between effective leadership, organizational culture, LMX, and organizational commitment with performance outcomes underscore the complexity of these dynamics within the studied context.

Practical implications drawn from the study indicate specific interventions aimed at enhancing organizational behavior factors. These include a focus on developing emotional intelligence and implementing interventions to enhance leadership, integrate IT culture into the organization, foster positive LMX, and boost organizational commitment among IT professionals in Malaysian public universities. These interventions aim to address the identified gaps and improve overall job performance among IT professionals.

Acknowledging the limitations of the study, including sample size constraints, a cross-sectional design, and potential cultural specificity, opens avenues for future research. Longitudinal studies, comparative cross-cultural analyses, and investigations into mediating mechanisms offer promising directions for scholars seeking to expand the understanding of organizational behavior and performance within the IT management domain.

In essence, this study contributes not only to the academic discourse on organizational behavior but also provides actionable insights for practitioners and

policymakers in Malaysian public universities and similar contexts. As the field of IT management continues to evolve, fueled by rapid technological advancements and changing work dynamics, the insights gleaned from this study can guide organizational leaders in fostering environments that facilitate both task and contextual performance among IT professionals. By embracing the complexities revealed in this study, organizations can adapt their strategies and practices to meet the evolving demands of the IT landscape, ultimately fostering a culture of innovation, collaboration, and sustained success.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Questionnaire

Organizational Behavior and Job Performance Among IT Middle Managers in Malaysian Public Universities

* Indicates required question

Instruction

Dear respondent,

This study intended to study the relationship between Organizational Behavior which are Effective Leadership, Organizational Culture, Employee's Leader-Member Exchange (LMX),

Organizational Commitment and Emotional Intelligence with Job Performance. The purpose of the study is to examine the performance (i.e., Task & Contextual) among IT Middle Managers in Malaysia Public Universities.

The target respondents for this survey must fulfil all three of the following requirements:

- i) Employee of Malaysian Public Universities
- ii) IT Officer in grade F41, F44, and F48 (permanent or contract position)
- iii) Working as IT Officer in current organization for more than one year

The questionnaire consists of 8 sections which are Demographic Information, Effective Leadership,

Organizational Culture, Employee's Leader-Member Exchange (LMX),

Organizational Commitment, Emotional Intelligence, Task Performance and Contextual Performance. In total, there are 64 questions, and you are required to answer ALL questions based on the instruction provided. Please answer all those questions based on your personal experience.

All the answers will be kept anonymous and private. Should you have any queries or if you are interested in the outcome of this study, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher.

Thank you for your participation in this study.

Yours sincerely,

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1. I am eligible to participate in this survey and meet all of the above requirements. *

Mark only one oval.

☐ Yes

☐ No

Skip to section 10 (Sorry, you did not meet the respondent criteria set for this study.)

Section 1: Demographic Information

2. I am working at *

Mark only one oval.

☐ Universiti Sains Islam Malaysia (USIM)

☐ Universiti Pertahanan Nasional Malaysia (UPNM)

☐ Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM)

☐ Universiti Malaysia Sarawak (UNIMAS)

☐ Universiti Malaysia Perlis (UniMAP)

☐ Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris (UPSI)

☐ Universiti Malaysia Kelantan (UMK)

☐ Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM)

☐ Universiti Malaysia Sabah (UMS)

☐ Universiti Malaysia Terengganu (UMT)

☐ Universiti Islam Antarabangsa Malaysia (UiAM)

☐ Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM)

☐ Universiti Malaya (UM)

☐ Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM)

☐ Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM)

☐ Universiti Malaysia Pahang (UMP)

☐ Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM)

☐ Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia (UTHM)

☐ Universiti Sultan Zainal Abidin (UniSZA)

☐ Universiti Teknikal Malaysia Melaka (UTeM)

3. My current position grade is *

Mark only one oval.

- ☐ F41
☐ F44
☐ F48

4. I have been working as IT Officer in this university for *

Mark only one oval.

- ☐ 1 to 5 years
☐ 6 to 10 years
☐ 11 to 15 years
☐ 16 to 20 years
☐ more than 20 years

5. My highest education level is *

Mark only one oval.

- ☐ Bachelor's Degree
☐ Master's Degree
☐ Doctorate

6. My age range is *

Mark only one oval.

- ☐ 20-30 years old
☐ 31-40 years old
☐ 41-50 years old
☐ 51-60 years old
☐ >60 years old

7. I am a *

Mark only one oval.

- ☐ Male
☐ Female

8. My ethnic group is *

Mark only one oval.

- ☐ Bumiputera (Malays, the Orang Asli of Peninsular Malaysia, and various indigenous peoples of East Malaysia)
☐ Chinese
☐ Indian
☐ Others

Section 2: Effective Leadership

This section aims to ascertain how you feel about organisational leadership in your organisation.

Please indicate how strongly you disagree or agree with each statement, using the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

9. 2.1 My superior formulates the mission and objectives of the organization clearly. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

10. 2.2 My superior determines strategic steps to achieve the mission and goals. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

11. 2.3 My superior provides regular guidance and direction to all personnel. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

12. 2.4 I find my superior inspirational for organizational progress. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

13. 2.5 My superior makes an effective and efficient organizational structure. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

14. 2.6 My superior often facilitates every personnel to ensure assigned task to be completed well. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

15. 2.7 My superior consults organizational elements to seek solutions to the problems faced. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

16. 2.8 My superior understands the climate of the organization under him. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

17. 2.9 My superior understands all decisions and policies taken relating to the organization. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

18. 2.10 My superior evokes the morale of all personnel within the organization. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

Section 3: Organizational Culture

This section requires you to evaluate how you feel about the organisational culture in your organisation.

Please indicate how strongly you disagree or agree with each statement, using the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

19. 3.1 My organization encourages participation and promotes open discussion. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

20. 3.2 My organization assesses employee concerns and ideas. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

21. 3.3 Change is managed well in my organization. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

22. 3.4 My organization emphasizes innovation to find new solutions to problems. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

23. 3.5 The management style is characterized by collaboration and teamwork. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

24. 3.6 Encouraging new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

25. 3.7 People in my workplace are friendly and helpful. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

26. 3.8 My organization is relationship-oriented/like an extended family. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

27. 3.9 My workplace provides access to effective learning and development. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

28. 3.10 My organization emphasises procedure, thus delivering standardised services is important. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

Section 4: Employee's Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

This section attempts to get your feedback on how you feel about your relationship with your supervisor.

Please indicate how strongly you disagree or agree with each statement, using the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

29. 4.1 I like my supervisor very much as a person. *

Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Stro ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly Agree

30. 4.2 I work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description. *

Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Stro ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly Agree

31. 4.3 I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/her job. *

Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Stro ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly Agree

32. 4.4 My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

33. 4.5 I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to meet my supervisor's goals for our organisation. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

34. 4.6 I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

35. 4.7 My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

36. 4.8 My supervisor would defend me from others in the organisation if I made an honest mistake. *

Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Stro ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly Agree

37. 4.9 I admire my supervisor's professional skills. *

Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Stro ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly Agree

38. 4.10 I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor. *

Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Stro ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly Agree

Section 5: Organizational Commitment

This section requires you to evaluate your organisational commitment.

Please indicate how strongly you disagree or agree with each statement, using the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

39. 5.1 I feel like part of the family at my organization. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

40. 5.2 I feel emotionally attached to this organization. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

41. 5.3 I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

42. 5.4 I would be delighted to spend the rest of my career with this organization. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

43. 5.5 This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

44. 5.6 I think it is morally right for me to stay with this organization. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

45. 5.7 I think staying with this organization brings more pros than cons to me. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

Section 6: Emotional Intelligence

This section requires you to evaluate your emotional intelligence.

Please indicate how strongly you disagree or agree with each statement, using the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

46. 6.1 I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

47. 6.2 I have a good understanding of my own emotions. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

48. 6.3 I find proper words to express my feelings about an issue. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

49. 6.4 I consider my own feelings in decision-making and problem-solving. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

50. 6.5 I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

51. 6.6 I always set goals and try my best to achieve them. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

52. 6.7 I always tell myself I am a competent person. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

53. 6.8 I always encourage myself to try my best. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

54. 6.9 I can control my temper and handle difficulties rationally. *

Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Stro ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly Agree

55. 6.10 I have good control of my own emotions. *

Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Stro ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly Agree

Section 7: Task Performance

This section requires you to evaluate your task performance.

Please indicate how strongly you disagree or agree with each statement, using the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

56. 7.1 I produce high-quality work. *

Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Stro ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly Agree

57. 7.2 I proficiently complete all duties central to the job. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

58. 7.3 I complete job duties promptly. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

59. 7.4 I ensure that all items necessary to perform the jobs are present. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

60. 7.5 I prioritize my work schedule according to deadlines. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

Section 8: Contextual Performance

This section requires you to evaluate your contextual performance.

Please indicate how strongly you disagree or agree with each statement, using the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

61. 8.1 I take the initiative to solve work problems. *

Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Stro ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly Agree

62. 8.2 I always persist in overcoming obstacles to complete a task. *

Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Stro ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly Agree

63. 8.3 I am enthusiastic while tackling complex problems. *

Mark only one oval.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Stro ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Strongly Agree

64. 8.4 I put in extra hours to finish the work on time. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

65. 8.5 I always exercise personal discipline and self-control at work. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stro	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Strongly Agree

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