

ISSN: 2278 - 0211 (Online)

Reward Management And Organisational Performance: An Empirical Study Of Private Universities In Uganda

Ibrahim A. Musenze

Lecturer, Busoga University, Iganga, Uganda
Mayendesifuna Thomas

Lecturer, Busoga University, Iganga, Uganda
Buteeme Stella
Busoga University, Iganga, Uganda
Lubega Muhammadi

Lecturer, Busoga University, Iganga, Uganda

Abstract:

Even though the education industry is concerned with knowledge generation, research has overlooked the link between reward management and organisational performance. This paper tests for a link between elements of reward management and performance of Busoga University. Survey data were collected by the use of a questionnaire distributed to a sample of 196, and analysed using Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient and hierarchical regression methods. Results show a statistically significant link between both monetary and non – monetary rewards types and performance of Busoga University. The results suggest that organisations that adopt elements of a combination of monetary and non – monetary rewards perform better than those that do not.

Key words: Monetaryrewards; Non-monetary rewards; Organisational Performance

1.Introduction

Researches have abundantly dealt with the issue of organisational performance (Carton, 2004; Dess & Robinson Jr., 1984; Rawley & Lipson, 1985), however, sparse studies have considered the role of reward management on the performance of educational institutions (Kirunda, 2004). With the rapid wave of changes that organisations are undergoing perhaps due to increased global competition, developments in Information Communication and Technology (ICT), and changes in workplace demographic characteristics, the relevance of organisations in terms of their performance, rests in reforming their reward systems (Armstrong, 2006), in order to get the best from its employees and consequently, withstand the tides of incessant competition.

A series of theoretical and empirical evidence has demonstrated that performance of organisations has continued on a downward path (Jones & Culbertson, 2011; Pulakos & O'Leary, 2011). This is for example evidenced by the recent closure of Namasagali and Lugazi Universities in Uganda, by the Government of Uganda on account of their poor performance which was not consistent with the standards set by the quality watch dog – The National Council of Higher Education (NCHE), and the Universities and Other Tertiary Act of 2001. Whereas there has been a number of interventions to ensure efficient and effective organisational performance such as improving reward management systems, improving on communication systems, capacity building programmes, among others, these have had meticulous success in other settings like in manufacturing sector (Ong & Teh, 2012; Niki, Nili, & Nilipour, 2012), and health sector (Martinez, 2001), and not in private universities. The desire to investigate the role of reward management on performance on Busoga University, therefore, inspired this study.

Reward management has been singled out by many researchers as a major predictor of organisational performance (Agwu, 2013; Armstrong, 2006; Kepner, 2001; Kirunda, 2004). This is so because they help maintain a positive motivational environment for workers, they determine both business goals and employee values which are essential in organisational performance (Armstrong, 2006). Despite the fact that reward management has received substantial research attention, this has dwelt more on developed and emerging economies (Carton, 2004; San, Theen, & Heng, 2012), with little done in the developing economies (Agwu, 2013), yet research findings in the context of developed economies may not with certainty suit low developing economies due to variations in

social, political and economic attributes. Still, many studies that have explored the role of reward management on organisational performance have mainly focussed on manufacturing sector (Ong & Teh, 2012; Niki, Nili, & Nilipour, 2012), and not on the education industry. This is a knowledge gap that this investigation sought to fill. The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of reward management practices on the performance of Busoga University in Uganda.

2.Literature Review

2.1.Reward Management

There is rising need for organisations to develop reward systems that motivate staff to work harder and faster. Efficient reward systems funnel employees' efforts towards realisation of its goal(Mujtaba & Shuaib, 2010). Reward management has been defined by Armstrong (2006) to involve formulation and implementation of strategies and policies that aim to reward people fairly, equitably and in a consistent manner, which should be in line with organisational values so as to permit the organisation realise its strategic mandate or goal. Towers Perrin (2007)also conceptualise rewardsystemto consist of compensation (pay and bonuses), benefits, learning and development and the work environment.

Workplace motivators consist of monetary and non – monetary incentives (Towers Perrin, 2007; Armstrong, 2006). Monetary incentives require rewarding workers for their excellent job performance through money. These incentives include profit sharing, project bonuses, schedule bonuses, additional paid vacation time, and many others. These have assisted to maintain a positive motivational environment for workers (Kepner, 2001), relevant for improved organisational performance. Non – monetary reward incentives on the other hand, describe a rewarding system for workers aimed at generating excellent job performances through opportunities like flexible work hours, training opportunities, pleasant work environment, and sabbatical leaves(Kepner, 2001).

2.2. The Foundation Of The Rewardsystem Framework

The arguments in favour of a rewardsystemor strategy, are premised on the assumption that neither monetary, nor non - monetary incentives exclusively has an impact on organisational performance. In some instances, like the case of use of bonuses, their use can have adverse consequences on organisational performance.

This could also be attributed to the fact that till now, there is no single theory that explains what motivates workers, and how they can be appropriately motivated in order to get the best out of them. Based on this, we draw from the Equity theory (Adams, 1963) that postulates that an employee's drive to work is determined by what s/he considers to be fair when compared to others (Redmond, 2010). This theory, thus, informs the basic principle behind the use, especially of bonusesand other types of performance related pay, in influencing organisational performance. In this regard, university authorities are implored to devise appropriate and all inclusive compensation package like pay, promotions and recognition, if they are to tap the best out of their workers necessary in enhancing organisational performance.

However, opposing theories have defied these postulations about the foundations ofmotivation. Perry (1993)has criticised the thin assumptions ofequity theory that considers more, the linear effects of inequity that is the negative outcome like deviant work behaviour, and fails to pay attention to the workers who feel better off than others.Redmond (2009) further asserts that equity theory, is not exhaustive and consequently lacks the finest detail, for example, while it proposes strategies to restore equity, it fails to explain in depth the course of action that the individual is likely to take.

2.3. The Link Between Reward Management And Organisational Performance

Managers globally are persistently searching for motivational factors that would enable employees to execute tasks at optimal levels to accomplish organisational goals. They are using monetary and non-monetary incentives to ensure employees' effectiveness at workplace (Blunt & Jones, 1992). Reward practices (monetary and non – monetary) have been found to be positively linked to organisational performance as they help maintain a positive motivational environment relevant in improving organisational performance (Armstrong, 2006; Kepner, 2001; Kirunda, 2004).

Studiesdemonstrate that there is a positive relationship between the fairness ofthe compensation, and workers'level of stress and burnout on the job (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), which affects organisational performance. Usually stressed and burnt out employees are demoralised that in effect adversely affect their performances and consequently organisational performance.

If organisations reward ethical behaviour and employee effort in a fair manner, chances are high that these workers will reciprocate by putting an extra effort geared towards improving organisational performance(Mujtaba & Shuaib, 2010). This links well with the Social Exchange theory (Blau, 1964). According to this theory, when employees believe that they have received better rewards fromothers, they feel gratified and obliged to reciprocate and restore the equilibrium or stability to the relationship(Sprecher, 1999; Flynn, 2005). Drawing from this theory, university authorities as employing agencies need to provide better and complementary working conditions that will ultimately make their workers pleased and committed. This will translate into offering an extra effort as a way of reciprocity, hence, causing the performance of their organisation to improve.

Similarly, if organisations and managers reward qualityproducts and quality improvement, then employees will regularly think of quality in their work whichmay lead to better ways of doing the job, consequently, improving organisational performance. If organizations reward customer intimacy and satisfaction, employees are likely to adjust and change their behavior to build a good relationship with customers inorder to know and satisfy their needs (Mujtaba, 2006). Once this is met, performance of the

organisation is likely to improve. A recent empirical study by (Mujtaba & Shuaib, 2010) demonstrated that a proper employee reward system aspart of a comprehensive performance management programme can help enhance performance and productivity in the workplace.

Relatedly, many studies have shown that organisation's reward system plays a criticalrole in motivating employees to perform (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2001). In an effort to stimulate employees' performance, many managers have used monetary incentives andrecognition to motivate their employees (Van - Dijk & van den Ende, 2002). Other empirical researches have also indicated that that extrinsic rewards help enhance individuals' capacity to better organisational performance (Agwu, 2013). The literature is still divided when it comes to the role of individuals on organisation's performance (Baer, Oldham, & Cummings, 2003). Azasu (2009) referring to the "Principal agency" theory, is of the view that most workers are opportunist and are always inspired through financial rewards, while the socioeconomic theorists argue that people are neitherinclined towards financial rewards, nor do they have anidentical approach, but might becaptivated by the blend of financial and non-financial rewards that have the potential toaugment their motivation and commitment (Malhotra, Budhwar, & Prowse, 2007) which eventually could improve on performance of their organisation. From the foregoing review of literature and conceptual framework as depicted in figure 1, the following hypotheses are formulated:

H₁: Monetary rewards and organisational performance are positively related in Busoga University

H₂:Non – monetary rewards are positively linked to organisational performance in Busoga University

H₃:Both monetary and non – monetary rewards are positively linked to organisational performance in Busoga University

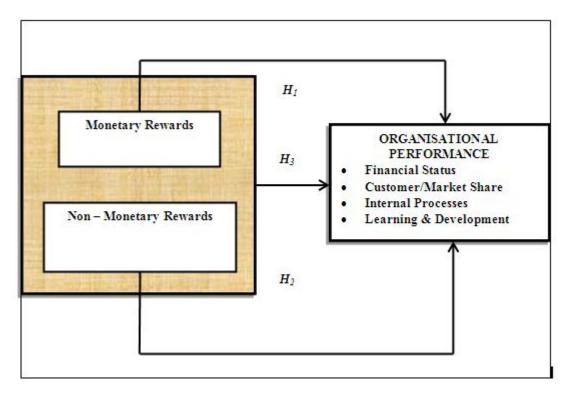


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

3.Method

3.1.Sample And Procedure

Participants were 127 employees drawn from a population of 196 employees of Busoga University. Questionnaires were given to all sampled employees. Out of those, 10 could not be included in thestudy: for several reasons ranging from improper completion of the tool; and others, were not returned. Our final sample consisted of 117 employees constituting 92 per cent, which was judged sufficient for subsequent analysis. The sample of 127 and the actual response of 117 employees are judged convincing enough since it is consistent with (Bailey, 1994), who observed that a sample of 100 and above is sufficient and (Roscoe, 1975) rule of the thumb indicating that a sample size in the range of 30 to 500, is adequate for any study. The sample size for this study fulfils this minimum requirement. The study population of 196 of Busoga University was based on the approved staff list (as at 30^{th} June, 2011) obtained from the Directorate of Human Resource. This was staggered into three categories: academic (N = 119); administrative (N = 62) and

support staff (N = 15) totalling to N = 196. On the basis of Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table of sample size determination, with a total population of 196, a sample of 127 was picked. Thereafter, we used stratified proportionate sampling from where we selected 76 academic staff; 38 administrative staff and 13 support staff. In order to do this, we improvised 3 bowls labelled in accordance with the stratum's name. We wrote all the employees' names on pieces of paper and inserted them in those bowls according to their job designations, from where we drew simple random samples without replacements. In regard to demographic characteristics, 75.5% of the respondents were below 40 years; with the majority being males (67 per cent). In terms of education status, 39 per cent of the respondents had post – graduate qualifications. Data were collected through a non-structured questionnaire, applied in a singlemoment.

4.Measures

4.1.Reward Management

The questionnaire was based on the existing literature review on reward management. Based on this review, a set of items on both monetary and non – monetary rewards was derived mainly from the Job Satisfaction Survey, a 36 multi-dimensional instrument developed by (Spector, 1994), that has the following facets: rewards, promotion, recognition, work conditions, co-worker, and job pride. These were however re-arranged into two: monetary and non – monetary rewards. This scale was later given to experts for assessment who found it fit for study and the Content Validity Index was 0.84 above the suggested minimum of .70 (Nunnally, 1978). A sample of monetary reward scale items, read, 'Best performers in Busoga University are rewarded with an increase in salary pay'. For the non – monetary, the sample question reads, 'Certificates of recognition are awarded to best performers regularly'.

4.2. Organisational Performance

The measures for organisational performance were based on a "balanced scorecard" model as developed by (Kaplan & Norton, 1992). These dimensions include market share/customer share, financial status, organisational internal processes, growth and development. A sample of questions included: 'Busoga University has enough funds to meet all its operations', 'Busoga University fulfils her stakeholders' expectations'. Items for reward management and organisational performance scale were anchored on a five point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree); 2 (disagree); 3 (not sure); 4 (agree), and 5 (strongly agree).

4.3. Validity And Reliability

The tool was validated by a panel of academic experts and practitioners. All the study variables achieved a Content Validity Index in excess of .82. We also tested for the scale reliability guided by the internal consistency approach to ascertain if it consistently measured the study construct aligned on the scale (Nunnally, 1978). The item – total reliability that demonstrates a measure of internal consistency and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the study constructs were computed. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient results of reward management, together with organisational performance, were greater than .82 respectively, indicating the scales used were reliable.

	Variable	α	No. of Items
1.	Reward Management	.932	24
2.	Monetary Rewards	.892	08
3.	Non – monetary	.884	16
4.	Organisational Performance	.826	28

Table 1: Reliability Analysis Results

In order to reduce for the occurrence of the likely measurement errors in the process of data collection, we tested for Common Methods Bias (CMB). CMB tests further were done to ensure that the findings about the association of measures were not tainted (Podsakoffet al., 2003; Spector, 2006). We embracedPodsakoff et al., (2003) suggested solutions to minimise and manage CMB namely:procedural remedies which require use of different scores and sources. In this case, we collected data from different employee strata: academic staff; administrative staff and support staff. We also used psychological separation procedure in an attempt to make it appear as though measurement of exogenous variables was not related to the measurement of the endogenous variable. In this respect, scale items were clustered together under different sections so as to make them appear unrelated to the study respondents.

We also used the conventional Harman's Single Factor Test, to evaluate for CMB. Based on this, we entered 52 variable items into an Exploratory Factor Analysis using an unrotated Principle Factor Analysis with varimax rotation to determine the number of factors to extract. Arising from this test, 6 distinct factors with eigen values > 1, were extracted accounting for 56 per cent of the total variance explained. The first factor did not sufficiently explain for the greatest proportion of the variance (19.2 per cent), thus, no dominant factor was apparent. The lack of a dominant factor indicated tolerable threat of CMB.

Data were checked and cleaned to ensure their completeness. Frequency inspection and missing value analysis (MCAR) test wasdone, and the results were not significant, implying that the missing values were missing completely at random. We then proceeded to replace missing values using linear interpolation method. This method was regarded desirable because of its ability to link data points and ensure stability without essentially altering the data structure (Dodge, 2006).

We screened our data to ascertain whether it conforms to the assumptions of parametric tests. We tested for the assumptions of normality, equality of variance, linearity and multi-colinearity. We tested for multi-colinearity using Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and Tolerance Statistics. The multi-colinearity tests produced Variance Inflation Factor (VIFs) for all study constructs below 2.4 and Tolerance statistics well above 0.7 and for all the study variables. The results demonstrate tolerable intensity of multi-colinearity problem as the values above, were below the recommended threshold of VIF <5; Tolerance value >0.2 and Condition Index of <30 (Field, 2006).

5.Results

5.1. Correlation And Regression Analysis

This study used Pearson's Product Moment correlation coefficient to ascertain the relationship between the independent variable: Reward Management (Monetary and Non – Monetary) and the dependent variable: Organisational Performance. The results of analysis are displayed in the Table 2 below:

		1	2	3		
1	Monetary Rewards	1.00				
2	Non-Monetary Rewards	0.737**	1.00			
3	Organisational Performance	0.655**	0.551**	1.00		
	N = 117					
	Note: ** correlation is significant to less than 0.01 level (2.tailed)					

Table 2: Zero Order Correlation Between Monetary Rewards, Non - Monetary Rewards, And Organisational Performance

		unstand	ardized		Model	\mathbb{R}^2	Adjusted	$\Delta \mathbf{R}^2$
	Variable	В	SE B	β	F		\mathbb{R}^2	
Model 1	Intercept(constant)	2.985	0.322					
	Age	-0.026	0.070	-0.040	.516	0.018	017	0.018
	Gender	0.026	0.111	0.023				
	Marital Status	-0.046	0.134	-0.036				
	Educational Level	-0.049	0.048	-0.098				
Model 2	Intercept (constant)	1.903	0.314					
	Age	0.031	0.060	0.049				
	Gender	-0.014	0.094	0.012	9.932**	0.309	0.278	0.291
	Marital Status	0.044	0.114	0.034				
	Educational Level	-0.019	0.041	-0.038				
	Monetary Rewards	0.359	0.053	0.566				
Model 3	Intercept (constant)	1.425	0.296					
	Age	-0.048	0.055	-0.074				
	Gender	-0.057	0.085	-0.050				
	Marital Status	0.127	0.103	0.101	14.933**	0.449	0.419	0.140
	Educational Level	-0.008	0.037	-0.016]			
	Monetary Rewards	0.085	0.070	0.134]			
	Non – Monetary Rewards	0.440	0.083	0.576				
	N = 117; **p < .01; *p < .05							

Table 3: OLS Regression Results Of Reward Management (Monetary & Non - Monetary) On Organisational Performance

		1	2			
1.	Reward Management	1.00				
2.	Organisational Performance	0.641**	1.00			
	N = 117					
	Note: ** correlation is significant to less than 0.01 level (2.tailed)					

Table 4: Zero Order Correlation Results For Reward Management On Organisational Performance

The results in Table 2show that monetary rewards have a positive and significant relationship with performance of Busoga University (r = 0.655, p < 0.01), thus providing support to ($\mathbf{H_1}$). Further, the results of multi-variate regression analysis in Table 3demonstrate that 29.1per cent of the total variance in performance of Busoga University is explained by monetary rewards ($R^2 = 0.291$, p < 0.01). These results further lend support to ($\mathbf{H_1}$). Additionally, a positive and significant relationship was established between non – monetary rewards and performance of Busoga University (r = 0.551, p < 0.01). This finding is supported by multiple regression results that revealed that 14per cent of the total variance in performance of Busoga University is explained by non-monetary rewards ($R^2 = 0.140$, p < 0.01), thus, supporting ($\mathbf{H_2}$). A positive and significant relationship was established between reward management and organisational performance (r = 0.641, p < 0.01) as illustrated in Table 4 above. In light of these results, ($\mathbf{H_3}$) is upheld.

6.Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine: (1) the influence of monetary rewards on the performance of Busoga University; (2) the relationship between non – monetary rewards and Busoga University's performance, and (3), the total reward management (monetary and non – monetary) on the performance of Busoga University. Both monetary and non – monetary rewards, emerged as significant predictors of Busoga University's performance. These results do not contradict literature (Armstrong, 2006; Kepner, 2001) who observed that proper rewards, help generate a positive motivational environment necessary in improving organisational performance. Whilst both monetary and non – monetary rewards emerged as positive and significant predictors of Busoga University's performance, the role of monetary rewards was immense as it showed a strong influence on Busoga University's performance. Thesefindings demonstrate that when employees are properly motivated, they will bear the feelings of reciprocation relevant in improving the performance of their organisation.

Theuniqueness of monetary, non – monetary, and performance relationship suggested that employees' perception of their organisation's reward culture manifested in its monetary and non – monetary reward systems, can make them more committed to the organisation, which in turn can translate into overall organisational performance. Besides, the results of this study suggest that the proper reward system, increase organisational performance. The findings also suggest thatorganisations can use reward management systems as instruments for excavating the best from their employees, as organisations seem to get what they reward.

7.Implications

Prior studies have examined the impact of the total reward system on organisational performance (Azasu, 2009; Agwu, 2013). This study examines the effect of monetary and non – monetary rewards, or their combination on organisational performance. The findings are important foracademicians and practitioners because an organisation undertakes multiple and different reward systems related to each other, and no particular reward type is exclusive in potency. The results of the presentstudy indicate that employees believe that the nature of a reward system existent in an organisation, determines its performance. Both monetary and non – monetary rewards emerged as significant predictorsof organisational performance. The findings in this study would give an opportunity to practitioners in establishing which type of reward is more effective than the other. In this study, monetary rewards emerged as significant predictor of organisation's performance, illustrating its contribution, along with other non – monetary rewards to improve organisation's performance. Thiswas supported by the fact that performance of the organisation tended to rise, if it offered rewards like bonuses, certificates of recognition, increase in pay, among others, that are commensurate to employees' input. The finding of this study confirms suggestions from (Agwu, 2013; Kepner, 2001)thatorganisations need to pay more attention to employee reward systems. The study also suggests that Human Resource practitioners need to shift fromthe traditional bureaucratic Human Resource systems to development of custom-made reward systems that are fair, and acceptable.

This study also provides academic researchers with valuable data for future research. It supports that monetary and non – monetary rewards make employees more committed and increase the organisation's potential to improve on its performance. Therefore, academicians and practitioners can now focus on making workforce more committed through reforming their reward systems to generate the best results. Managers can also use the findings of this study to enhance organisational performance, as this study proposes that monetary and non – monetary rewards can improve organisational performance. It is implied that if an organisation's management supports the human resources through appropriate reward systems like reforming pay structures,, payment of bonuses, regular issuance of certificates of recognition of one's performance, then employees are likely to perceive a high degree of commitment and therefore, support from theorganisation's endeavour to improve on its performance.

8.Limitations And Suggestions For Future Study

Although this study made several contributions to organisational performance literature, it has several limitations. First, the data were collected only from one university in Uganda. Therefore, the findings may be limited to the samplestudied. Future studies could consider conducting tests with different universities (public and private), to deal with external validity issues. In addition, this study was cross sectional in nature. Future studies, could consider longitudinal approach.

9.References

- 1. Adams, J. (1963). Towards An Understanding of Inequality. Journal of Abnormal and Normal Social Psychology, 67, 422-436.
- 2. Agwu, M. (2013). Impact of Fair Reward System on Employees Job Performance in Nigerian Agip Oil Company Limited Port-Harcourt. British Journal of Education, Society & Behavioural Science, 3(1), 47-64.

- 3. Armstrong, M. (2006). A Handbook of Human Resource Management (10th ed.). London: Kogan Page Limited.
- 4. Azasu, S. (2009). Rewards and performance of Swedish real estate firms. Compens. Ben. Rev., 41(4), 19-28.
- 5. Baer, M., Oldham, G., & Cummings, A. (2003). Rewarding creativity: When does it Really Matter? . The Leadership Quarterly, 14(4), 569-86.
- 6. Bailey, K. (1994). Methods of Social Research (4th ed.). New York: Macmillan Inc.
- 7. Blau, P. (1964). Exchange and power in social life. New York: Wiley.
- 8. Blunt, P., & Jones, M. L. (1992). Managing Organizations in Africa. New York: Walter de Gruyter.
- 9. Carton, R. (2004). Measuring Organizational Performance: An Exploratory Study. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, The University of Georgia, Athens.
- 10. Dess, G., & Robinson Jr., R. B. (1984). Measuring organizational performance in the absence of objective measures: The case of the privately-held firm and conglomerate business unit. Strategic Management Journal, 5(3), 265-273.
- 11. Dodge, Y. (2006). The Oxford Dictionary of Statistical Terms. New York: Oxford University Press.
- 12. Field, A. (2006). Discovering Statistics Using SPSS (Introducing Statistical Methods Series Publications). New York: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- 13. Flynn, F. (2005). Identity Orientations And Forms Of Social Exchange In Organizations. Academic Management Review, 30(4), 737-750.
- 14. Jones, R., & Culbertson, S. (2011). Why Performance Management Will Remain Broken: Authoritarian Communication. Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 4, 179-181.
- 15. Kaplan, R., & Norton, D. P. (1992). The balanced scorecard Measures that drive performance . Harvard Business Review, 71-79.
- 16. Kepner, K. W. (2001). Human Resource Management in Agribusiness.
- 17. Kirunda, K. (2004). Performance Based Rewards and the Performance of Teachers in Private Secondary Schools in Kampala District. Unpublished Masters Dissertation, Kampala.
- 18. Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining Sample Size for Research Activities. Educational and Psychological Measurement.
- 19. Malhotra, N., Budhwar, P., & Prowse, P. (2007). Linking rewards to commitment: Empirical investigations of four UK call centres. International Journal Human Resource Management, 18(12), 2095-2127.
- 20. Martinez, J. (2001). Assessing Quality, Outcome and Performance Management. Workshop on Global Health Workforce Strategy (pp. 1-36). Annecy, France: World Health Organization.
- 21. Mujtaba, B., & Shuaib, S. (2010). An Equitable Total Rewards Approach to Pay for Performance Management. Journal of Management Policy and Practice, 11(4), 111-121.
- 22. Niki, N., Nili, M., & Nilipour, A. (2012). Designing Distribution system of rewards and influence on Employees Satisfaction Case Study: Hamgamkhodro Asia factory. International Journal of Business and Social Science, 3(12), 305-312.
- 23. Nunnally, J. C. (1978). Psychometric theory (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw Hill.
- 24. Ong, T., & Teh, B. (2012). Reward System and Performance Within Malaysian Manufacturing Companies. World Applied Sciences Journal, 19(7), 1009-1017.
- 25. Perry, L. S. (1993). Effects of inequity on job satisfaction and self-evaluation in a national sample of African-American. Journal Social Psychology, 13(4), 565-574.
- 26. Podsakoff, P., Scott, B. M., Julie, B. P., & Daniel, G. B. (2000). Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: A Critical Review of the Theoretical and Empirical Literature and Suggestions for Future Research. Journal of Management, 26(3), 513–563.
- 27. Pulakos, E., & O'Leary, R. (2011). Why is performance management broken? . Industrial and Organizational Psychology: Perspectives on Science and Practice, 4, 146-164.
- 28. Rawley, T., & Lipson, M. (1985). Linking Corporate Return Measures to Stock Prices. St. Charles III: HOLT Planning Associates.
- 29. Redmond, B. (2010). Lesson 5: Equity theory: Is what I get for my work fair compared to others?. Work Attitudes and Motivation. . The Pennsylvania State University World Campus.
- 30. Roscoe, J. (1975). Fundamental Research Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences. New York: Holt.
- 31. San, O., Theen, Y., & Heng, T. (2012). The Reward Strategy and Performance Measurement (Evidence from Malaysian Insurance Companies). International Journal of Business, Humanities and Technology, 2(1), 211-223.
- 32. Schaufeli, W., & Bakker, A. B. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 25, 293–315.
- 33. Spector, P. (1994). Interpreting satisfaction scores with the job satisfaction survey. Retrieved from http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~pspector/scales/jssinterpretation.html
- 34. Spector, P. (2006). Method Variance in Organizational Research: Truth or Urban Legend? Organizational Research Methods, 9(2), 221-232.
- 35. Sprecher, S. (1999). I love you more today than yesterday: Romantic partners perception of changes in love and related affect over time. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 76, 46-57.
- 36. Towers Perrin. (2007). Reward Management: Closing a Growing Say/Do Gap. Towers Perrin.
- 37. Van Dijk, C., & van den Ende, J. (2002). Suggestion Systems: Transferring employee creativity into practicable ideas. R& D Management, 32(5), 387-95.