

Work Engagement and Job Performance in Military Contexts: The
Moderator Role of Individual Orientation to Collectivism (IOC)

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ABSTRACT

This thesis examined the moderating role of individual orientation to collectivism in the relationship between work engagement and job performance in military contexts. We began by describing the work engagement and job performance literature and the relationship between them. To address the question of how and when would work engagement of military be associated with higher levels of job performance, we developed two studies. The first study was qualitative and pretended to analyse what characterized a good performer in the military, as well as the strategies that militaries use to enhance their performance. Results of Study 1, with interviews to 25 staff officers or senior military leaders in active service from different military organizations, showed that although there are some similarities with the job performance model that Campbell (1990, 2012) used to describe job performance, there are some singularities of the military context. Namely, a focus on the collective had been identified as a salient factor of job performance in military contexts. Thus, we conducted a second study using a multi-source cross-sectional design with 150 military staff officers and their supervisors (N=33). In that study, we analysed the impact of individual orientation to collectivism for the relationship between staff officers' work engagement and job performance (reported by the supervisor) in a military context. The results demonstrated that staff officers' work engagement was positively associated with their job performance (reported by their supervisor) only when they had higher levels of orientation to collectivism. According to the results of the two studies, we argue that in order to improve individual job performance in military contexts, military managers should invest on staff officers' orientation to collectivism by training them and reinforcing that orientation through socialization practices.

Keywords: Job Performance, Work Engagement, Individual Orientation to Collectivism, Military, Multinational Military.

JEL Classification system: M10, M12 and M16

RESUMO

Esta tese examinou o papel moderador da orientação individual para o coletivismo na relação entre o *work engagement* e o desempenho no trabalho em contextos militares. Começamos por descrever a literatura do *work engagement* e do desempenho no trabalho e a relação entre estes. Para abordar a questão de como e quando o *work engagement* dos militares está associado a níveis mais elevados de desempenho no trabalho, desenvolvemos dois estudos. O primeiro estudo foi qualitativo e pretendeu analisar o que caracterizava um bom desempenho militar, bem como as estratégias que os militares usam para melhorar seu desempenho. Os resultados do Estudo 1, com entrevistas a 25 militares ou líderes militares seniores em serviço ativo, oriundos de diferentes organizações militares, mostraram que embora existam algumas semelhanças com o modelo que Campbell (1990, 2012) usou para descrever o desempenho no trabalho, existem algumas singularidades do contexto militar. Uma destas singularidades é nomeadamente uma maior focalização no coletivo como fator saliente do desempenho no trabalho em contextos militares. Assim, realizámos um segundo estudo usando um desenho *cross-sectional* com recurso a múltiplas fontes: 150 oficiais e os seus supervisores (N = 33). Nesse estudo, analisámos o impacto que a orientação individual para o coletivismo tem na relação entre o *work engagement* do oficial e o desempenho no trabalho (relatado pelo seu supervisor). Os resultados mostraram que o *work engagement* dos oficiais estava positivamente associado ao seu desempenho no trabalho somente quando eles tinham uma maior orientação individual para o coletivismo. De acordo com os resultados dos dois estudos, argumentamos que para melhorar o desempenho individual no trabalho em contextos militares, os gestores militares devem investir na orientação individual dos funcionários para o coletivismo, treinando-os nesse sentido e reforçando essa orientação por meio de práticas de socialização.

Palavras-Chave: Desempenho no Trabalho, Engajamento no Trabalho, Orientação Individual ao Coletivismo, Militar, Multinacional Militar.

Sistema de Classificação JEL: M10, M12 and M16

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CWB	: Counterproductive Work Behaviour
HQ	: Headquarters
I-C	: Individualism-Collectivism
IOC	: Individual Orientation to Collectivism
JDC	: Job Demand and Control
JD-R	: Job Demand and Resources
MMO	: Multinational Military Organization
MMW	: Multinational Military Workplace
MNO	: Multinational Organization
OCB	: Organizational Citizenship Behavior
SDT	: Self-determination theory
SWB	: Subjective well-being

CHAPTER 1 – GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Individual job performance is the basic building block on which the entire performance system is based. Without individual job performance, we can't talk about team, unit or organizational performance. Despite its importance, research on individual performance does not reach the size of the researches on its antecedents and consequences. "Of the 1,914 dependent variables reported in primary empirical research articles in *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Personnel Psychology*, and *The Academy of Management Journal* between 2008 and 2014, only 350 (18%) are measures of individual performance at work" (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015, p.48). Other dependent variables like individual job satisfaction, commitment, engagement, etc. are certainly very important and deserve a good amount of research but without individual job performance, there can be no job or organization to be satisfied, committed or engaged. Therefore, we have placed individual job performance to the centre of our study to make a significant contribution for filling the gap in this research area.

Although organizational commitment, job satisfaction, personality traits and some other workplace predictors (e.g. organizational climate, work status) of individual job performance have been researched widely in literature; work engagement has become one of the most unique and salient individual predictors for performance researchers (Salanova, Agut, & Peiro, 2005; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Schaufeli, 2012). Work engagement still keeps its popularity among many researchers, because of its proven association with employee performance. Work engagement was originally defined by Kahn (1990) as the "harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances" (p. 694). Some other researchers have conceptualized engagement as a state of excess resources that employees invest into their performance (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Halbesleben, Wheeler, &

Shanine, 2013). Since then, researches focusing on work engagement-performance relationship have indicated that engaged employees are more committed, motivated, and empowered to perform in-role and extra-role behaviors (Schaufeli, 2012; Halbesleben et al., 2013; Zhong, Wayne, & Liden, 2015). Research in military contexts has also demonstrated that engagement is an important indicator of officers' and soldiers' well-being, motivation and consequently job performance (Castanheira, Chambel, Lopes, & Oliveira-Cruz, 2016). Therefore, both scholars and practitioners suggest that organizations can leverage employees' job performance through investing on work engagement (Zhong et al., 2015).

However, although extant research has generally demonstrated that work engagement is related to employee job performance, the moderating factors that influence this relationship in individual level are still largely unknown (Salanova et al., 2005; Halbesleben et al., 2013; Zhong et al., 2015; Makikangas, Aunola, Seppala, & Hakanen, 2016). One group of factors which are supposed to play a moderating role in work related processes and outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, work engagement and job performance are cultural value orientations (Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson, & Zapata-Phelan, 2006; Cohen & Keren, 2008; Zhong et al., 2015). The underlying assumption is that employees will be happier and more motivated, engaged and empowered to perform when their values are in line with those emphasized in the organization or workplace (Cohen & Keren, 2008).

Most of the scholars that have examined cultural value orientations at the individual level used Hofstede's (1980) societal framework in their studies. However, they proposed that Hofstede's (1980) cultural value dimensions (power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity, long term-short term orientation, indulgence-restraint) vary widely across individuals within a society and that these individual differences may have main effects on many personal outcomes (Cohen & Keren, 2008) such as work engagement and job performance. Thus, amongst the Hofstede's (1980) cultural value dimensions, in our study we are interested the influence of individuals' orientation to collectivism (IOC) on individual work

engagement and job performance because collectivism is at most importance in military contexts due to the collective nature of military workplace. Collectivism is purported to enhance individuals' propensities to cooperate with other employees in workplace (Earley & Gibson, 1998; Ilies, Wagner, & Morgeson, 2007). "In a broad sense, collectivism represents the degree to which individuals hold a general orientation toward group goals, a concern for the well-being of the group and its members, an acceptance of group norms, and a tendency toward cooperation in group contexts" (Dierdorff, Bell, & Belohlav, 2011, p. 247).

As the nature of work and workplace has evolved, cooperation among employees in a workplace has become increasingly important (Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997; Jackson et al., 2006). Work is increasingly defined around team projects rather than individual duties, with employees working in various teams at the same time (Jackson et al., 2006). "As a result, the very conceptualization of job performance has changed, as the concept of "doing a good job" has become more dependent on the concept of "being a good group member." (Jackson et al., 2006, p. 884) However, the effect of employee orientation to collectivism on individual level work engagement-job performance relationship still lacks sufficient research on the literature, especially in military context. Therefore, individual orientation to collectivism is determined as a logical and fruitful moderator to research for its influence on work engagement-job performance relationship in military contexts.

This study is especially unique because of the type of organizations (military and multinational military organization) on its focus. Type of organization (i.e., civilian vs. military) is a commonly reported potential moderator in meta-analyses. For example, it is found that the structured environment of military organizations may constrain the influence of individual differences (and their interactions) on performance (Van Iddekinge, Aguinis, Mackey, & DeOrtentiis, 2018). Despite its possible effects, during our literature search we have discovered that there aren't enough individual job performance researches with the moderator effect of individual value differences (e.g. individualism-collectivism value) conducted in military work

environment. Furthermore, existing Military Researches are overwhelmingly focused on Military Psychology of national deployed or operational tactical units instead of headquarters in multional military context (almost none) which are substantially different.

Today, by the developments from 1990s so far, it is very obvious that multinational type of organizations is increasingly becoming the high-performance organizations of the 21st century to address the changes taking place in the workforce and marketplace worldwide. The main feature of the multinational organizations is to employ a heterogeneous workforce on dimensions of cultural significance such as gender, race and nationality (Cox & Tung, 1997). The increasing diversity of the workforce enforce the multinational organizations to be much more concerned with how to design and implement employee performance management to fit the global as well as the local context (Aycan, 2005). Consequently, organizational concerns for employee performance in multinational organizations created a fertile research area for the scholars who wanted to study on appraisal and improvement of employee performance in newly emerging organizations and workplaces. However, researches revealed that without understanding the causes and the roots of individual job performance, those studies are baseless. Thus, along the recent decades determining the predicitors of individual job performance in various workplaces has reached primary importance for performance researchers and practitioners (Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993; Motowidlo et al., 1997).

Organizations have three performance levels: individual, team and organizational. The often-unstated assumption was that, if an organization could effectively improve the performance of employees, this would accrue to improvements in organizational-level performance as well. A review of the literature suggested that this link had never really been established in a direct way. Instead, we found considerable support for relating “bundles” of human resource (HR) practices to organizational-level performance, and several models for how these practices could create the transformation from individual-level to organizational-level performance (DeNisi & Smith, 2013). Because of this finding in literature review, we are going to focus mainly on individual

performance which has utmost importance for overall performance improvement in military organizations. Maybe further researchers will investigate possible practices to bundle our findings related with individual level performance to team and organizational level performance in military contexts.

Current study seeks to fill aforementioned gaps in the related literature by comparing and contrasting work engagement as a predictor of job performance and individual orientation to collectivism as a moderator of the relationship between work engagement and job performance in a unique work context, namely military contexts consisting national and multinational aspects of military workplace.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Military organizations face complex challenges in building and sustaining its manpower in the face of globalization. These challenges are mainly based on conditions and events rooted long in the past. By the end of Cold War in 1990s, military organizations started to conduct highly complicated operations, such as Peace Support or Counter-Terrorism, in a very large geographical area. In this new situation, job performance of the staff officers in HQs became considerably critical than the Cold War. However, staff officer force encountered two additional challenges in the scope of job performance. Firstly, the workforce diversity in military organizations (whether national or multinational) increased dramatically. Especially, multinational military organizations (MMOs) aimed to enlarge their sphere of effect by taking culturally different nations as new members. The history of NATO after Cold War is a very clear example of the situation. For now, NATO has 29-member states. Twelve of these twenty-nine are original members who joined in 1949, four joined until 1990 and the other thirteen joined in after the end of Cold War. In addition, bilateral relations are established with many nations around the world and their staff officers are employed in NATO HQs. With this new diverse officer force, NATO and as well as other MMOs are known to have considerable

difficulties with groups consisting of multiple nationalities (Soeters & Recht, 2001). Secondly, influenced by the relaxation of the post-Cold War era, military organizations are dedicated to decrease the size of their manpower gradually. In spite of the growing number of complicated operations, NATO executed one significant and two minor downsizing in its command structure in 1997, 2003 and 2011 (Mayer, 2014) which caused more workload for the staff officers in NATO HQs. With the reduction in force strength, increasing diversity among staff officer force and operating in a very large geographical area, job performance reached a vital pre-requisite for the fulfillment of military objectives in the new challenging security environment.

Despite its importance, job performance studies in military contexts haven't received enough attention from the scholars, especially in the multinational field. According to my observations during my military career, though individual job performance of military workforce is always on the spot, especially staff officer's job performance in multinational military organizations had seen considerably low comparing with their national assignments. I had the chance to witness and discuss this problem during my multinational military assignment for three years. Most of the time, it could be very difficult to produce desired outcomes in multinational military workplace (MMW) with the contribution of the staff officers. The reason may be, staff officers' tendency of showing disengagement and low performance comparing with their attitudes in national military workplaces despite the fact that member countries are appointing their most valued, engaged and high performance personnel to MMOs. Moreover, MMOs provide staff officers higher subjective well-being (far better salary and less stress) than the national military organizations. At the individual level, there is compelling evidence that employees with higher subjective well-being (SWB) tend to show higher performance in the workplace (Tenney, Poole, & Diener, 2016). So, how could low performance stem from the staff officers with higher SWB in MMW? We are going to search the answer of the question in work engagement and first of all try to find if job performance can be improved simply by investing staff officers' work engagement in military contexts.

In spite of its popularity for organizations and organizational research literature, our knowledge about how feelings of engagement affect the way individuals perform at work is limited (Parker & Bindl, 2010). Most of the recent performance studies have introduced work engagement as positively related to in-role and extra-role performance of the employees (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Bakker & Bal, 2010). At first glance to these studies, many people think that positive relation of work engagement and job performance always works perfect and organizations can leverage individual job performance simply by investing in employee work engagement. However, the constantly changing work environment and fast-paced nature of modern work are challenging this classical view. Furthermore, some of the recent studies are clearly stating the lack of knowledge in understanding the relationship of work engagement and job performance, regarding factors moderating the relationship (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & Heuve, 2015; Eldor & Harpaz, 2016). Increasing number of studies and some practitioners are arguing that individual job performance can't be enhanced simply by investing on work engagement without determining the individual factors moderating their relationship (Eldor & Harpaz, 2016; Fletcher, 2016). An understanding of individual-level differences in values as moderator of work engagement – job performance relationship could provide some answers to individual performance problems in many workplaces as well as in military contexts (Cohen & Keren, 2008).

Military organizations are mainly working within teams like working groups, workshops and working boards. Outcomes of these working platforms generally shaped by the level of performance and engagement of the individuals within the groups. Because of the similar trend in many organizations and work places, job performance evolves on a more cooperative character. It becomes necessary to identify employees with a propensity to be effective group members. Hence, when we look at the personality and team literatures collectivism value could take on a new importance in the contemporary workplace (O'Neill, McLarnon, Xiu, & Law, 2015; Jackson et al., 2006). Highly collective individuals prioritize the goals and well-being of

those in-groups and emphasize their connectedness to other in-group members. Scholars have theorized that collectivism could enhance one's tendency to cooperate in group contexts (Earley & Gibson, 1998; Ilies et al., 2007; Jackson et al., 2006) and consequently individual engagement and performance (Marcus & Le, 2013).

Because of its' clear importance for military organizations, at the beginning of our study we would like to study individualism – collectivism to understand collaboration in military contexts by focusing on cultural differences. But we couldn't find enough support from the performance literature about the effect of cultural differences overall employee individualism – collectivism behaviors in military environment (Bjørnstad & Ulleberg, 2017). Soeters (1997) studied a sample from military academies in 13 different countries using Hofstede's self-report framework (Hofstede, 1980) for measuring cultural differences in values. Remarkably, Soeters found virtually no relationship between the countries' scores or rank orders on the individualism– collectivism dimension in his study and those in the civilian study by Hofstede (1980), leading him to conclude that people in the military are different from other cohorts of society in regard to individualism – collectivism. We, therefore, determined individual orientation to collectivism as a worthwhile variable for researching in military contexts and excluded the affect of cultural differences over staff officers' collectivism value. Still, a fundamental question remains largely unexplored: How individual orientation to collectivism of staff officers influence their work engagement and job performance in work group settings? The objective of this study is to explore the answer in the scope of military workplaces. Staff officers and supervisors from different military organizations have been taken as the sample of our research.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The aim of this research is to develop knowledge and understanding of individual orientation to collectivism as a factor to achieve and maintain engaged employees and positive individual performance within the military workplace. The purpose of this research is threefold:

1. To investigate the differences of military from non-military regarding job performance,
2. To understand the relationship between work engagement and individual performance in military contexts,
3. To explore the moderating role of individual orientation to collectivism over work engagement – job performance relationship that could influence the selection and design of individual performance improvement interventions for military contexts.

Related with the research problem and purpose of the study, the main research question is “How does the individual orientation to collectivism influence the work engagement – job performance relationship of staff officers in military contexts?” Our research question is significant because our assumption is that staff officers’ IOC will positively influence their behavior and that behavior leads to enhance employee work engagement and performance relationship.

Collectivism is the degree to which individuals base their identities on group memberships. Collectivists view themselves as interdependent with their groups, whereas individualists adopt a more independent view of the self (Hofstede, 1980). In our study, we examined collectivism as an individual difference moderating the relationship of work management and job performance. In this context, we also tried to find answers to below questions in the scope of military:

1. What is different in military workplace regarding individual job performance?

2. Is work engagement positively related to job performance?

3. What is the influence of individual orientation to collectivism to job performance?

In order to find empirical answers to the research questions, we conducted two studies (one quantitative and one qualitative) in our research. In these studies, first of all we searched the differences of military regarding job performance and then based on these differences, we searched for sufficient data to analyze the relationship between individual work engagement and job performance in military contexts. Lastly, we explored the influence of individual orientation to collectivism in this relationship. By conducting a qualitative study as a first step, we aimed to deepen up our understanding about the construct of job performance in military contexts which subsequently helped us to further research on themes such as work engagement and IOC which may have strong influence on individual job performance in military contexts. Thus, we suppose that we may contribute to the understanding of staff officers' high-performance dynamics in military contexts and consequently may contribute to the organizational performance of military organizations in this way.

1.4 Significance of the Study

Organizations are constantly investing on performance improvement of their employees by establishing optimal performance systems. Main purpose of these performance systems is to create an environment for individuals and teams to achieve effectiveness in all level and consequently realize the organizational goals (DeNisi & Smith, 2013). A human performance system (HPS) is "a conceptual model of all work settings in which individuals use resources and tools to perform their work, includes all the internal and external factors that have an effect on human performance" (Bell, 2008, p. 15). At this point, understanding the effect of various factors (variables) on individual job performance at a certain workplace stands as a key factor for establishing optimal performance systems for organizations. It is important that employee performance practitioners understand these effects when selecting employees and

implementing appropriate job performance interventions within organizations (Bell, 2008). The following several possible contributions explained further the significance of this study to job performance literature and applications.

First, we focused on the differences of military regarding job performance which sets the ground for further researches in military contexts. Moreover, we made a comparison of our findings with the existing well-established performance models of Campbell (1990, 2012) and pointed the areas that military researchers should focus for further researchers in performance.

Second, the findings verified the relationship of work engagement with job performance and the influence of individual orientation to collectivism on this relationship in military contexts. We hope to contribute to the relevant literature by finding answers to a number of important questions raised in the literature. In light of Kahn's (1990) argument about the relevance of work engagement in explaining job performance, this study will help us determine the effect of work engagement on job performance when individual orientation to collectivism is included in the equation. This examination will extend the literature about the importance of individual values such as collectivism in affecting attitudes and behaviors in the workplace (Cohen & Keren, 2008). Research on this topic has rarely been conducted in the context of individual orientation to collectivism, work engagement and job performance (Cohen & Keren, 2008).

Third, we tested our moderation hypothesis in a multinational military workplace which is considered to be the largest and most structured MMO in the history. This MMO has very useful performance management practices in order to get maximum performance from this multinational workforce and direct them to perform compatible with organizational goals. However, literature review reveals that there are not so many empirical researches about job performance in multinational military contexts as well as other military organizations. (Claus & Briscoe, 2008). The nature of the existing empirical studies reveals that studies on multinational performance, contrary to the interest of performance in Western perspective, is

still in its babyhood, it lacks research seriousness and generalizability. The reasons behind the lack of empirical research on multinational performance can be the intricacy of conducting research in an international frame and the hardship of reaching relevant international samples (Claus & Briscoe, 2008). Thus, our study will make a useful contribution to multinational performance literature by conducting a research in international frame and using a MMO as a sample. I believe that with its long history of working together, MMOs can also contribute to performance interventions of other multinational organizations whether military or not. This study argues that the field of organizational studies may learn from closer study of behaviors in military organizations (Augier, Knudsen, & McNaby, 2014). Our hope is to inspire contemporary organizational researchers to consider either multinational or national military organizations as valuable sources of insight for organizational studies and for the exploration of new topics.

Fourth, multinational military organizations employ different nationalities and demonstrate cultural and individual value heterogeneity like all multinational organizations. Culture is often defined as a shared meaning system or mental programming. It implies that members of the same culture share a common meaning and they are likely to interpret and evaluate situational events and management practices in a similar way. In contrast, members of different cultures who do not share a common way of interpreting and evaluating situational events are more likely to respond in a different way to the same managerial approach. Therefore, managerial practices found effective in one culture may be ineffective in another culture (Earley & Gibson, 2002). Ensuring fit between the cultural context and management practices is particularly important for multinational organizations, because, “when management practices are inconsistent with deeply held values and expectations, employees are likely to feel dissatisfied, distracted, uncomfortable, confused and uncommitted, and this will result in lowered ability and willingness to perform well” (Aycaan, 2005, p. 1113).

With globalization effect, the nature and diversity of cultural and individual value heterogeneity in multinational organizations evolve very rapidly in 21st century (Earley & Gibson, 2002). Thus, today one of the increasing concerns of MMO is to create a workplace for cooperative performance to overcome the difficulties of diversity. In this context, individual collectivism stands as a key individual value for MMW employees “because maintaining harmonious relationships is important for collectivists, and because protecting their individual identities is not a priority” (Erdogan & Liden, 2006, p. 1). Staff officers’ orientation to collectivism in MMW may affect their cooperative performance which has evaluated as crucial for individual performance in multinational context. However, we couldn’t find any individualism-collectivism research conducted in military samples in the literature. Most of the military studies are using the previous results of individualism- collectivism based on civilian samples, such as Hofstede’s study (Bjørnstad & Ulleberg, 2017). Therefore, we believe that our findings will contribute to the increase of individual performance and consequently realization of organizational goals of military as well as non-military multinational organizations by portraying the right form of work engagement – job performance relationship with individual orientation to collectivism in military contexts especially in highly diverse ones.

Fifth, finding of this study will also contribute to the managerial efforts of employee evaluation and job design in military contexts. As stated before, military organizations are mainly working within teams like working groups, workshops and working boards. “The performance evaluation and compensation systems that govern the employees in such working bodies often build in cooperative components, with members appraised and rewarded on the basis of shared achievements” (Jackson et al., p. 884). In this context, we examined collectivism as an individual-level value determining responses to teamwork. Collectivism is the degree to which individuals base their identities on group memberships. Collectivists view themselves as interdependent with their groups, whereas individualists adopt a more independent view of the self (Hofstede, 1980). Based on Hofstedes’ studies, it is our assumption that employees with

orientation to collectivism may engage and perform more especially in team context. Thus, we argued and tried to prove that military managers should evaluate collectivist orientations of their employees and design jobs to support the collectivist orientations of these employees.

1.5 Organization of the Study

Chapter 2 discussed the appropriate literature related to the problem just described and the general theoretical framework based on the information derived from the literature. Chapter 3 described and discussed the differences of military regarding job performance. This chapter consists a qualitative study with research methodology and analyzed data. Chapter 4 also consists of a quantitative study with research methodology and analyzed data which aims to further investigate individual job performance in military contexts based on the findings of Study 1 in Chapter 3. The study concluded with Chapter 5, a summary of conclusions drawn from the discussions presented in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4. And also, Managerial Implications, Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research are presented in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 2 – GENERAL LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

One can assume that there is an abundance of literature for job performance related studies. In fact, Van Iddekinge et al. (2018) argue that “Individual performance is one of the most central and frequently studied constructs in management and related fields” (p. 250). However, according to our literature review, there is a relatively small size of performance studies in military workplaces with a sample of military workforce. Moreover, when it comes to the multinational military contexts, the number of military studies is even more less and insufficient to understand the nature of staff officers’ performance in MMOs.

Work engagement is one of the most studied predictors of job performance. An increasing number of these studies confirm that employee work engagement is positively related to job performance (Bakker & Bal, 2010) and therefore beneficial for the organizations (Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011). Hence, as stated in the introduction chapter, we have identified exploring the relationship between individual work engagement and job performance in multinational military workplace as one of the main aims of our study. However, before researching the topic in a military or a multinational military context, we would like to reveal the existing general information about work engagement and job performance in the literature. Then we can focus on the mechanisms which conceptualizes their relationship and have a clear understanding of these mechanisms based on the relevant literature review.

In the following sections, first of all we address the concepts of work engagement and job performance respectively because without having a comprehensive knowledge on these concepts, it is impossible to understand the relationship between them. Then the theoretical perspective relating work engagement to job performance through some mechanisms is being discussed.

2.2. Work Engagement

Work engagement has numerous but almost similar definitions in the literature. Kahn (1990) originally pioneered the concept of engagement and defined engagement as the “harnessing of organization members’ selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances” (p. 694). However, Kahn (1990) defined engagement as personal role engagement and explained it as a psychological construct which has behavioral consequences for individual performance. Thus, engaged employee fulfills some psychological conditions; namely meaningfulness, availability, and safety, which facilitate high quality job performance (Kahn, 1990). Kahn (1990) proposed that engaged employees experience a sense of meaning (reward for investing in role performance), psychological safety (a sense of trust and security at work) and availability (a sense of having the physical and psychological resources necessary for the job). Meaningfulness means that one’s work role is ‘worthwhile, useful and valuable’, and derives primarily from motivational job design. Availability symbolizes the existence of enough resources to engage. Lastly, safety represents the belief that employee can express thoughts and feelings without fear of unintended results in workplace (Kahn, 1990).

Personal role engagement does not only direct energy and dedication into accomplishing the work tasks but also enhance the meaning and sense of fulfilment of all aspects of the work role (Fletcher, 2016). Thus, personal role engagement differs from work engagement because it intends to use employees’ authentic and complete self-expression for the job performance rather than just directing the use of energies into work activities (Fletcher, 2016). Therefore, this psychological viewpoint with work is more inclusive and holistic than the narrower work engagement constructs that views engagement as directing high level of energy, strong dedication and absorption into the work tasks (Fletcher, 2016).

Accordingly, Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, and Bakker (2002) later approached engagement narrower than Kahn (1990) and defined work engagement as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (p. 74). In their conceptual framework, Macey & Schneider (2008) similarly described employee work engagement as the desire to go “beyond preserving the status quo, and instead focus on initiating or fostering change in the sense of doing something more and/or different” (p. 24). Christian et al. (2011) argued that although operational definitions of “engagement” are often inconsistent across studies, a common conceptualization of work engagement is that it means “high levels of personal investment in the work tasks performed on a job” (p. 89). Thus, Christian et al. (2011) defined work engagement through job performance as “a relatively enduring state of mind referring to the simultaneous investment of personal energies in the experience or performance of work” (p. 95). In the present study, we follow Schaufeli et al.’s (2002) work engagement definition since it is a well-validated and the most often used approach in work engagement studies (Bakker & Bal, 2010). According to Schaufeli and Bakker (2010), work engagement is a positive, affective-motivational state that drives people behavior at work.

2.2.1. Components of work engagement

Researchers have questioned the presence of work engagement for a long time, arguing that it is repetitive with other, existing job attitudes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job involvement (Knight, Patterson, & Dawson, 2017). However recent studies have demonstrated that work engagement can be discriminated from those related, existing concepts only by clearly defining the work engagement components which will characterize its distinction (Bakker & Bal, 2010). Schaufeli et al. (2002) have made the greatest contribution in defining the work engagement components and their conceptualization appears to be the most prevalent and well-researched one until to date (Knight et al., 2017). Accordingly, work engagement is a positive, fulfilling, and work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Work engagement is focused on the large spectrum of work activities and shows as a higher-order attitudinal state that contains three components: feeling energized and vigorous (Vigor); feeling proud of and dedicated to one's work (Dedication) and feeling absorbed and immersed in one's work (Absorption) (Fletcher, 2016). Vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties. Dedication refers to being strongly involved in one's work, and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. Finally, absorption is characterized by being fully concentrated, happily engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly, and one has difficulty detaching oneself from work (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Salanova et al., 2005; Bakker & Bal, 2010).

Based on the above-mentioned work engagement components (vigor, dedication, and absorption), Schaufeli et al. (2002) has developed a self-report questionnaire—the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)—which consists of 17 items and aims to measure each work component separately. UWES has become the most widely used scale for work engagement studies. However, Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova (2006) decided to reduce these items and create a shorter version of UWES since respondents are more tend and willing to reply short questionnaires. Furthermore, some researchers (e.g. Sonnentag as cited in Schaufeli et al., 2006) analyzed the UWES in time and found that three-component structure is not clear and UWES may function better in measuring overall work engagement. For these reasons, by using a large international sample, Schaufeli et al. (2006) developed the shorter UWES with 9 items (3 items per work engagement component) which correlated highly with their original longer counterparts and showed internal consistency within different countries of the international sample. Similarly, we would like to conduct our work engagement study in an international sample. Besides, we have two more variables (i.e. job performance and IOC) to measure which means we should keep the items for each variable as short as possible. Therefore, we will use the

shorter UWES or even shorter version of Short UWES for measurement of staff officers' work engagement in MMW.

2.2.2. Theoretical models of work engagement

This study supports the described theoretical distinction between personal role engagement and work engagement and considers work engagement construct as a more suitable concept because of the specifications of our research environment which is being described in the following chapters. In the literature, regardless of measuring overall work engagement, or one of the three sub-components, almost all of the work engagement studies adopted Schaufeli et al.'s (2002) conceptualization of work engagement, in spite of the large heterogeneity between those studies in terms of research design, participant characteristics, content, duration and the type of organization (Knight et al., 2017). In accordance with this general trend in the literature, we use Schaufeli et al.'s (2002) work engagement construct in our studies.

The employee perception or self-evaluation of skills and capabilities are necessary for effective individual work engagement. This perspective underlies resource-based models such as Job Demands and Control (JD-C) or Job Demands and Resources (JD-R) in occupational psychology literature which have become the most significant theories for describing the work engagement conceptualization. The Job Demand and Control (JDC) model of Karasek (1979), later expanded by the JDC-support model (Johnson & Hall, 1988), represent one of the most fundamental and most cited theories in the research area of occupational stress (Boermans, Kamphuis, Delahaij, van den Berg, & Euwema, 2014) and inspired the theoretical framework used to explain the development of work engagement. Although the JDC model has been conceptualized in many different ways, three components are in the center of the model, namely job demands, job control and psychological strain (Karasek, 1979).

Based on the JDC model, the Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008) is the key model underlying Schaufeli et al. (2002)

perspective on work engagement. The JD-R model is an encompassing job characteristics model. It considers the relationships between a broad range of job characteristics (e.g. autonomy, feedback) and outcomes (e.g. high engagement) and focus on the processes underlying these relationships. It assumes that all aspects in work environments can be categorized into job demands and job resources that either negatively or positively affect work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). That means work engagement is driven, either independently or together, by both job demands and resources. JDR model proposes that high job demands lead to strain, low work engagement and health impairment (the energetic and health impairment process). Simultaneously, high resources may lead to increased motivation, high level of work engagement and willingness to dedicate effort to the work task, fostering goal attainment and increasing productivity at work (the instrumental and motivational process).

Job demands are defined as the “physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs” (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011, p. 501). However, Rich, LePine, and Crawford (2010) distinguished between two categories of job demands: “challenges”, which tend to promote personal growth and mastery (such as time pressure, workload, and responsibility) and “hindrances”, which, on contrary can could menace goal attainment, learning and personal growth (among others, role or interpersonal conflict, conflict, role ambiguity, and “red tape”). Therefore, while hindrances relate negatively to work engagement, especially when accompanied by low resources, challenges relate positively to work engagement.

In JD-R model resources can come from the job or can be personal resources. Job resources refer to physical, social or organizational parts of the job (e.g. feedback, social support, development opportunities) that can diminish the impact of job demands (e.g. workload, emotional and cognitive demands), - namely its psychological costs - assist employees with

achieving work goals, and boost personal advancement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Knight et al., 2017). According to JD-R Model, job resources motivate employees by invigorating growth, learning and development, fulfilling essential human requirements for autonomy, relatedness and competence, or outwardly motivate employees by giving the methods by which work objectives can be cultivated (Knight et al., 2017). Moreover, Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 2002) proposes that employees will try to hold and increment resources they esteem; subsequently, those with more resources are less inclined to encounter resource loss and bound to look for further resources. Some examples of job resources are job control, autonomy, social support and feedback (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014).

As most psychological approaches propose that human behavior is a result of interaction between personal and environmental factors, it was a necessity for JD-R model to integrate personal resources (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). According to this model, engaged employees use their personal resources to achieve the desired objectives and to protect themselves from psychological strains in demanding situations (Eldor, 2017). Employees with large amounts of personal resources are thought to positively assess their capacity to meet their work demands, believe in good outcomes and trust they can fulfill their necessities by engaging completely in their organizational roles. Personal resources refer to “positive self-evaluations (self-esteem, self-efficacy, resilience and optimism) that are linked to resiliency and refer to individuals’ sense of their ability to control and impact upon their environment successfully” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008, p. 5). According to the JD–R Model, personal resources may directly or indirectly lead to work engagement, in the latter case by buffering against the negative impacts of perceived job demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Similarly, Schaufeli and Taris (2014) proposed that personal resources have been integrated into the JD-R model in five ways: directly impacting work engagement; moderating the relation between job characteristics and work engagement; mediating the relation between job characteristics and work engagement;

influencing the perception of job characteristics; or acting as a “third variable” that could explain the relation between job characteristics and work engagement.

The JD-R model links job demands and resources to both poor (i.e. burnout) and optimal well-being (i.e. work engagement) in work environment. Thus, JD-R differs from other models which are focusing only negative or positive side of employees’ functioning. JD-R model maintains independent two psychological processes for explaining both employee functions. The first process is underlying the positive employee functioning by linking resources to work engagement and called as “Motivational Process”. The motivating potential of job and personal resources are proposed to lead to positive individual and organizational outcomes such as work engagement, well-being and consequently job performance (Knight et al., 2017). Especially, work engagement has been positively linked with the “motivational process” which stems from abundance of job and personal resources in work environment (Gorgievski, Moriano, & Bakker, 2014). According to JD-R model, since exceed resources satisfy people’s basic needs (i.e. autonomy, competence and relatedness) and create motivation, they contribute positively to work engagement (i.e. a fulfilling state of vigor, dedication, and absorption) (Bakker & Demerouti, 2018). Researchers propose that work engagement is a state where resources exceed the job demands which facilitates employee motivation and consequently allows employee to perform at very high levels (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008).

The second process is underlying the negative employee functioning by linking job demands to burnout and called as “Job Strain Process” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job demands play a decisive role in job strain process and are negatively related with positive job outcomes such as high work engagement, job satisfaction and high performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). “Job Strain Process” refers to the extra effort required by an employee to oversee job demands. Thus, steady exposure to strain over time is related with impaired health and performance outcomes such as psychological burnout and work absenteeism. Job demands may start the health and performance impairment process if exposure to daily workload changes into

perpetual over-burden for a long time period. In this situation, job demands lead to perpetual exhaustion and physical health problems which entail burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2018).

In the next section we discuss the conceptualization of job performance, after which theoretical perspectives on the associations between work engagement and performance are addressed.

2.3. Job Performance

Job performance has been a long time one of the most important areas of interest for every kind of organization. Consequently, it has attracted the attention of the researchers and became one of the most researched topics in Organizational Psychology (Luo, Shi, Li, & Miao, 2008). First of all, job performance has been researched in organizational perspective as the most important pillar of establishing an appropriate performance management system in a specific organization (Knappert, 2013). Performance management “is a continuing process of identifying, measuring, and developing the performance of individuals and teams and aligning performance with the strategic goals of the organization” (Aguinis, 2013, p. 2). Knappert (2013) also defined performance management as a “spiral process in which performance will be evaluated and improved continuously, based on clearly defined criteria that are aligned to the business strategy” (p. 8). In short, we can say that enhancing employee job performance is the aim and focus of the whole set of performance management activities (DeNisi & Pritchard, 2006) in order to reach organizational goals.

Campbell et al. (1993) defined job performance as “something that people actually does and can be observed. By definition, it includes only those actions or behaviors that are relevant to the organization's goals and that can be scaled (measured) in terms of each individual's proficiency (that is, level of contribution). Performance is what the organization hires one to do and do well. Performance is not the consequence or result of action; it is the action itself... [and] consists of goal-relevant actions that are under the control of the individual” (p. 40).

Many scholars have used these definitions with small changes and conducted research on performance behaviors. For example, Motowidlo et al. (1997) further developed a definition of job performance, conceptualizing it as “behavioral, episodic, evaluative and multidimensional”. Nevertheless, all researches have agreed that only behaviors which influence the achievement of organizational goals should be included in the scope of job performance.

From a practical perspective, job performance behaviors play a key role in decisions about employees, such as dismissal, merit-based compensation or promotion. Therefore, organizations are always searching for the best methods of receiving feedbacks about the behaviors of employees. Many organizations struggle to use these job performance feedbacks to establish a set of methods and tools to scientifically evaluate individual job performance in organizations (Luo et al., 2008). Consistent with this effort, researchers firstly have been interested in understanding the construct of job performance from a theoretical perspective. Thus, researches about job performance concentrate on components or dimensions of job performance, their determinants and their casual interrelationships. Research on personnel selection has paid more attention to the predictors of performance than to the construct of job performance per se (Campbell, 1990). Unlikely, for us it is more important to expose the construct of job performance first because an adequate understanding of the construct of job performance for a specific job will play an essential role in understanding job performance as well as in exploring predictors of performance for that specific job (Luo et al., 2008). As Campbell and Wiernik (2015) posit job performance is a complex phenomenon very difficult to assess; “regardless of whether the measurement method consists of ratings, simulations, outcomes under the control of the individual, or big-data capture, the information obtained must correspond to the specifications for what performance is” (p. 68). Therefore, in our first study we aim to investigate what a good performer is in a military organization.

2.3.1. Components of job performance

When we talk about job performance, what we are really talking about? What are the major components of job performance? Can a “population” of jobs be defined by a common performance structure? These are the questions that were asked by Campbell (1990) and Campbell et al., (1993) in order to find a general job performance structure which is applicable for all jobs. These authors proposed a Taxonomy of Higher Order Performance Components according to the Multiple-Factor Model with eight basic performance components: job-specific task proficiency; non-job-specific task proficiency; written and oral communication task proficiency; demonstration of effort; maintenance of personnel discipline; facilitation of peer and team performance; supervision/leadership; and management/administration. Since the Multiple-Factor Model of Campbell (1990) has become one the most accepted and mostly used model in literature for describing the highest structure or taxonomy of job performance (Paullin et al., 2014), we will also use it in this study in order to classify the job performance components of employees in our research environment. The eight performance components are briefly characterized in Table 1.

Table 1. A Taxonomy of Higher Order Performance Components (from Campbell, 2012, p.9-11)
<p>1. Job-specific technical task proficiency The first factor reflects the degree to which the individual performs the core substantive or technical tasks that are central to his or her job. They are the job- specific performance behaviors that distinguish the substantive content of one job from another. Constructing custom kitchens, doing word processing, designing computer architecture, driving a bus through Chicago traffic, and directing air traffic are examples.</p>
<p>2. Non-job-specific technical task proficiency This factor reflects the situation that in virtually every organization, but perhaps not all, individuals are required to perform tasks that are not specific to their particular job. For example, in research universities the faculty must teach classes, advise students, make admission decisions, and serve on committees. All faculty must do these things, in addition to practicing chemistry, psychology, economics, or electrical engineering.</p>

3. Written and oral communication task proficiency

Many jobs in the workforce require the individual to make formal oral or written presentations to audiences that may vary from one to tens of thousands. For those jobs, the proficiency with which one can write or speak, independent of the correctness of the subject matter, is a critical component of performance.

4. Demonstrating effort

The fourth factor refers to the consistency of an individual's effort day by day, the frequency with which people will expend extra time when required, and the willingness to keep working under adverse conditions. It is a reflection of the degree to which individuals commit themselves to all job tasks, work at a high level of intensity, and keep working when it is cold, wet, or late.

5. Maintaining personal discipline (counterproductive work behavior)

The fifth component is characterized by the degree to which negative behavior, such as alcohol and substance abuse at work, law or rules infractions, and excessive absenteeism, is avoided.

6. Facilitating peer and team performance

Factor 6 is defined as the degree to which the individual supports his or her peers, helps them with job problems, and acts as a de facto trainer. It also encompasses how well an individual facilitates group functioning by being a good model, keeping the group goal directed, and reinforcing participation by the other group members. Obviously, if the individual works alone, this component will have little importance.

7. Supervision/leadership

Proficiency in the supervisory component includes all the behaviors directed at influencing the performance of subordinates through face-to-face interpersonal interaction and influence. Supervisors set goals for subordinates, they teach them more effective methods, they model the appropriate behaviors, and they reward, punish, or are supportive in appropriate ways. The distinction between this factor and the preceding one is a distinction between peer leadership and supervisory leadership.

8. Management/administration

This factor is intended to include the major elements in management that are distinct from direct supervision. It includes the performance behaviors directed at articulating goals for the unit or enterprise, organizing people and resources to work on them, monitoring progress, helping to solve problems or overcome crises that stand in the way of goal accomplishment, controlling expenditures, obtaining additional resources, and representing the unit in dealings with other units, with other organizations, or with the public.

Multiple-Factor Model of Campbell (1990) had been initiated by the long-term Selection and Classification Project (Project A) sponsored by the U.S. Army, which settled on a five-component model of performance for a population of 275 entry-level skilled jobs. Afterwards Campbell et al. (1993) expanded the five-component model (Project A) and covered not only

the military jobs but also every job with eight factor taxonomy of job performance (Campbell, 2012; Campbell & Wiernik, 2015). In 2012, eight basic substantive factors of individual performance in a work role have been revised once more by Campbell and were asserted to be the following: Technical performance; Communication; Initiative, persistence, and effort; Counterproductive work behavior; Supervisory, managerial, executive (i.e., hierarchical) leadership; Hierarchical management performance; Peer/team member leadership performance; Peer/team member management performance (Campbell, 2012; Campbell & Wiernik, 2015). Though overlapping with the previous eight components, the revised eight factors are not synonymous with Campbell et al. (1993) and intended to be an integrative synthesis of what the literature has proposed as the important content dimensions of performance in a work position (Campbell, 2012; Campbell & Wiernik, 2015). Furthermore, they are suggested as universal across jobs, organizations, industries, levels and cultures. Despite the fact that the relationships among factors and the relative significance of factors may differ across jobs, it is proposed that these factors exist somewhat in all jobs globally and state the highest feasible level of generality (Campbell, 2012; Campbell & Wiernik, 2015). The eight basic substantive factors of individual performance are briefly characterized in Table 2.

**Table 2. The Basic Substantive Factors of Individual Performance
(from Campbell, 2012, p.36-40)**

1. Technical Performance

All models acknowledge that virtually all jobs or work roles have technical components. Such requirements can vary by substantive area (driving a vehicle vs. analyzing data) and by level of complexity or difficulty within area (driving a taxi vs. driving a jetliner; tabulating sales frequencies vs. modeling institutional investment strategies). By definition, such performance content does not involve interpersonal influence relative to subordinates, superiors, or coworkers, or general management functions, but it could involve persuasion of customers or clients to make choices beneficial to the organization. Consequently, persuasion and negotiation qualify as technical content for some jobs or roles. Technical performance is not to be confused with “task” performance. A task is simply one possible unit of description that could be used for any performance dimension.

2. Communication

The Campbell et al. (1993) model is the only one that isolated communication as a separate dimension. More typically, it is part of the technical factor or appears as a facet of management (Yukl et al., 2002). It remains in this composite picture because it does “seem” to be part of many occupations, ranging from teaching, to research, to the arts, to sales, to customer service, to management. Again, it refers to the proficiency with which one conveys information that is clear, understandable, and well organized. It is independent of subject matter expertise. The two major subfactors would be oral and written communication.

3. Initiative, Persistence, and Effort

This factor emerged from the contextual performance and management performance literatures, as well as the OCB literature, where it was referred to as individual initiative. To make this factor conform to the definition of performance, it must be composed of substantive observable actions. Consequently, it is typically specified in terms of extra hours, voluntarily taking on additional tasks, working under extreme or adverse conditions, and so on.

4. Counterproductive Work Behavior

As it has come to be called, counterproductive work behavior (CWB) refers to a category of individual actions or behaviors that have negative implications for accomplishment of the organization's goals. While such counterproductive actions as theft on the job, absenteeism, and freeloading have been studied as single phenomena, the first study to include such variables as specifications for a latent dimension of performance was Project A (Campbell, 1990), where it was termed personal discipline.

5. Supervisory, Manager, Executive (i.e., hierarchical) Leadership

This factor refers to leadership performance in a hierarchical relationship. It also distinguishes between leadership and management. Leadership refers to the interpersonal influence process.

6. Hierarchical Management Performance

Within a hierarchical organization, this factor, distinct from leadership as interpersonal influence, includes those actions that deal with generating, preserving, and allocating the organization's resources to best achieve its goals.

7. Peer/team Member Leadership Performance

The content of this factor is parallel to the actions that comprise hierarchical leadership (Factor 5 above). The defining characteristic is that these actions are in the context of peer or team member interrelationships, and the peer/team relationships in question can be at any organizational level (e.g., production teams versus management teams). Many behaviors that comprise the OCB dimension of personal support (e.g., helping, cooperating, courtesy, motivating) that are not part of hierarchical leadership also belong here.

8. Team Member/peer Management Performance

A defining characteristic of the high- performance work team (e.g., Campbell & Kuncel 2001, Goodman et al. 1988) is that team members perform many management functions, such as planning and problem solving, determining within-team coordination requirements and workload balance, and monitoring team performance. In addition, the contextual performance and OCB literatures both strongly indicate that representing the unit or organization to external stakeholders and exhibiting commitment and compliance to the policies and procedures of the organization are critical performance factors at any organizational level. Consequently, to a greater extent than most researchers realize or acknowledge, there are important elements of management performance in the peer or team context as well as in the hierarchical setting.

2.3.2. Dimensions of job performance

Job performance is conceptualized as a multidimensional construct, being usually divided in the literature into three main dimensions: (a) task performance (also dubbed in-role performance or job-specific proficiency), (b) contextual performance (also called extra-role performance, non-job-specific proficiency or organizational citizenship behavior) and (c) counterproductive work behavior (i.e., destructive and/or hazardous behaviors) (Motowidlo et al, 1997; Riketta, 2008; Luo et al., 2008; Taris & Schaufeli, 2015). These three dimensions of job performance have been accepted as separate aspects of the individual job performance. Task performance is generally accepted as the central dimension of job performance and nearly all conceptual frameworks include this aspect (Taris & Schaufeli, 2015). It is defined as fulfillment of tasks that are required by the formal job description (Riketta, 2008). Thus, any behavior or act related to the tasks required by the job was incorporated in this classification. This dimension frequently refers to issues such as productivity (quantity) and quality of the jobs done by the employees which are part of the formal job descriptions. It is clear that tasks differ for every job and behaviors that are useful in one job may well be useless in another (Taris & Schaufeli, 2015).

The other important dimension of individual job performance is the contextual performance because good job performance may involve more than just meeting employee's written tasks in job description (Taris & Schaufeli, 2015). Contextual performance is defined as behavior or

action that is beneficial to the organization and goes beyond formal job requirements (e.g., helping colleagues at work, acting with integrity, showing respect to others, working extra hours, and making suggestions for improvement) (Riketta, 2008). It contains the employee behaviors and acts that enable the organization to reach its goals indirectly, although those behaviors and acts does not include in employee job description (Taris & Schaufeli, 2015). Therefore, both task performance and contextual performance are necessary to accomplish organizational goals but in different ways. Task behaviors are essential to fulfill job tasks whereas contextual behaviors can improve the social and psychological environment in the organization and, thus, may help to accomplish the function of core tasks (Luo et al., 2008).

Today, because of the increasingly dynamic nature of work environment, new dimensions of job performance are being explored by researchers. Most organizational scientists agree that not only task and contextual performance, but also counterproductive behavior is a dimension of job performance (Penney, David, & Witt, 2011). It is the civilian life counterpart of the maintaining personal discipline factor in the Project A performance model (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015). It is the deliberate behavior and acts that are harmful to the organization and impede it from achieving its goals, such as being late for work, theft, absenteeism, presenteeism, consciously violating rules and procedures and underworking (Taris & Schaufeli, 2015).

Another newly popular dimension of job performance is the adaptive performance which has recently received increased attention. Some researchers have seen adaptability as a characteristic of performance itself (i.e., a category of performance actions), but some others as a property of the individual (i.e., a determinant of performance) (Campbell, 2012). But the best classification made by the Pulakos, Arad, Donovan, and Plamondon (2000) who have identified eight factors of adaptive performance. These factors and their place in the revised substantive performance factors of Campbell (2012) can be summarized in the following way. “Factor one (handling emergencies) could also be viewed as a subfactor of the technical performance dimension for certain jobs or work roles (e.g., medic, police officer, military personnel). Factors

two (handling stress), three (solving problems), four (dealing with unpredictable situations), and five (learning tasks and procedures) are essentially domain general and could be viewed as general skills (i.e., performance determinants) that would support domain-specific performance when performance requirements changed. Factor six (interpersonal adaptability) seems to be part of the peer leadership factor discussed previously and is consequently a domain-specific performance factor. Factor seven (cultural adaptability) is also a domain-specific performance subfactor that could be classified in the peer leadership dimension. Finally, factor eight (physical adaptability) can be viewed as a subfactor of the “initiative, effort” dimension in the revised model” (Campbell, 2012, p. 43).

2.3.3. Determinants of job performance

Campbell et al. (1993) have argued that determinants of individual performance should be thought in two categories, namely direct and indirect (or antecedents) determinants. According to Campbell et al. (1993) and Campbell (2012), the eight performance components are a function of three individual direct determinants. These are role-specific knowledge (declarative and procedural knowledge), skill, and choice behavior (motivation) regarding the intensity, the direction, and the duration of the effort made. Declarative knowledge refers to concrete and measurable knowledge of facts, principles and procedures related with job. Procedural knowledge and skills refer to knowledge and action needed to perform the job and being able to do it. When we talk about skills, we mean cognitive skills, psychomotor skills, physical skills, self-management skills, and interpersonal skills that we need to perform the job. Motivation is expressed in terms of push factor which means the factor that drives us to use effort in a certain quantity (Campbell, 1990; Campbell et al., 1993; Motowidlo et al., 1997). Campbell (1990) claimed that motivation can influence performance, circumscribing the choices workers make about whether to spend their effort (direction), the level of effort they expend (intensity), and how much they persevere in that level of effort (persistence). Similar to Campbell et al.’s (1993) direct determinants classification, Van Iddekinge et al. (2018) proposed that performance is a

function of ability and motivation. Ability represents the capacity to perform (primarily through job knowledge, Van Iddekinge et al., 2018, p. 250), while motivation represents the willingness to perform (Dalal, Bhawe, & Fiset, 2014).

Indirect determinants are all the things that produce individual differences in the direct determinants (e.g., IQ, personality, training, goal setting, reward preferences, self-efficacy, etc.). Direct determinants have a direct impact on individual job performance and indirect determinants like personality, ability, and experience influence performance only through their effects on one or more of the direct determinants (Campbell et al., 1993). In other words, direct determinants are being shaped by our individual differences in personality, ability, and interests which are in interaction with education, training, and experience (Hackett, 2002).

The impact of individual differences on performance is indirect, mediated by knowledge, skill and motivation (Hackett, 2002) or it can moderate the way a motivational state is operationalized and turned into action, i.e., the behavioral choices people make. One of the most important indirect determinants of job performance in the literature is personality. Thus, personality traits have been one of the prominent performance determinants for researchers who want to explore determinants of job performance because, according to the relevant literature employee behavior in workplace is mostly determined by individual differences in personality (Penney et al., 2011). Many personality psychologists recognize the Five Factor Model (FFM) as an overarching and satisfying model in defining the framework of personality at a global level (Barrick & Mount, 1991). The five personality traits of the FFM are 1) extraversion which includes traits such as sociability, talkative, assertive, adventurous, energetic; 2) agreeableness which includes traits such as good-natured, flexible, cooperative, caring, trusting, tolerant; 3) conscientiousness refers to self-control, responsible, careful, persevering, orderly, hardworking; 4) emotional stability which includes traits such as secure, stable, relaxed, self-sufficient, not anxious, tolerant of stress; and 5) openness to experience which includes traits such as intellectual, curious, imaginative, cultured, broadminded (Barrick & Mount, 1991;

Mount, Barrick, & Stewart, 1998; Rothmanne & Coetzer, 2003). Individual differences in personality is being determined by these personality traits. In the current study, since we analyze the impact of an individual difference, namely individual orientation to collectivism, we expect that personality traits of staff officers may differentiate their orientation to individualism or collectivism which in return may influence the relationship between staff officers' work engagement and the job performance.

In addition to individual determinants such as knowledge, skills, abilities, and other personal characteristics that may influence the conduction of a job, job performance could be affected also by situational/environmental factors (Ripley, 2003; Ripley et al., 2006), such as the characteristics of the job and the organization that shape the reaction of employees to situations in a certain manner (Rothmanne & Coetzer, 2003; Bell, 2008). Therefore, in the current study, we will focus on the organizational characteristics that distinguish military organizations from other organizations and that can affect the job performance of military personnel and also on the individual determinants of their job performance.

2.4. Work Engagement and Job Performance

There is a well-proven link in the literature between work engagement and job performance (e.g. Christian et al., 2011; Alessandri, Borgogni, Schaufeli, Caprara, & Consiglio, 2015; Reijseger, Peeters, Taris, & Schaufeli, 2017). Kahn (1990) suggested that personal engagement represents a state in which employees personally involve their selves during work role performances, invest individual energy and establish an emotional relation with their job. Kanfer, Frese, and Johnson (2017) defined work engagement as a basically motivational concept that represents the active allocation of personal resources toward the tasks associated with a work role. Thus, since work engagement is largely defined as a motivational affective state in the literature and motivation is an “unobservable force that directs, energizes, and sustains behavior” (Diefendorff & Chandler as cited in Van Iddekinge et al., 2018, p. 250), we

can expect that work engagement “directs, energizes, and sustains behavior”. Accordingly, many concepts and models in the literature theorized that work engagement is related to job performance because it signifies a motivational state that facilitates individual performance by directing an individual's efforts towards the completion of job activities (Fletcher, 2016).

Motivation which fuels employee engagement and resultantly performance, has become one of the most critical issues for occupational scholars as well as organizations (Kanfer et al., 2017). Motivation relates to job performance by influencing the direction, intensity, and persistence of effort (Campbell, 1990; Kanfer et al., 2017). Specifically, work motivation in individual level affects the skills that employee use or develop or the manner that employee allocates resources (all which employee can access but generally personal resources) in order to overcome the work tasks in their workplace. In other words, motivation can help employees decide to engage in a work task rather than reprove or avoid it and motivation can also increase effort and persistence during that work task (Campbell, 1990; Tenney et al., 2016). Ivey, Blanc, and Mantler (2015) explained this relationship with morale instead of engagement theories. Similar to work engagement concept, they have theorized that morale is a positive motivational construct capable of boosting individuals’ efforts in a way that yields to a better performance under stressful conditions (Ivey et al., 2015). As understood, there is a clear positive relationship between increased motivation and work outcomes such as work engagement that leads job performance.

According to Job Demands and Resources (JD-R) Model, work engagement focuses on the ability of engaged individuals to gain and mobilize job resources in their work environment and personal resources so that performance can be enhanced (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Work engagement embodies a sense of energy and identification with work activities. When employees are individually engaged in a work activity, they should be more likely to apply increased effort in difficult situations and perform better than those who are disengaged (Britt, Thomas, & Dawson, 2006). This assumption represents the general approach in the literature

and a growing number of studies demonstrate a positive relationship between work engagement and job performance, both in-role and extra-role (e.g., Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Bakker & Bal, 2010; Christian et al., 2011; Reijseger et al., 2017). For example, Halbesleben & Wheeler (2008) showed a positive association between work engagement and self- as well as supervisor-rated and colleague-rated in-role job performance. Similarly, Bakker & Bal (2010) demonstrated that engaged employees received higher supervisor-rated scores for both in-role and extra-role performance. Moreover, work engagement appears to show incremental validity over other job attitudes in predicting performance (Christian et al., 2011).

Although most work engagement studies prove that engagement is related equally strongly with task and contextual performance, Macey & Schneider (2008) believes that it is predominantly associated with contextual performance. Contextual performance refers to the behaviors that are not directly and formally rewarded by the organization, though facilitates the functioning of the organization (Zhong et al., 2015). When employees invest energy and show vitality in their jobs, they should have higher extra-role performance, which shows their propensity to behave in ways that supports the social and psychological context of an organization (Christian et al., 2011). Kahn (1990) proposed that employees, who represent high vigor and dedication in their work role, are likely to step outside the formal boundaries or job descriptions of their job in order to achieve the organizational goals, in other words keener to show extra-role performance.

On the other side, task performance refers to the behaviors that are formally rewarded by the organization and written in the requirements part of the job descriptions. Because of engaged employees' high-level of work tasks focus, they have a high-level task performance at work (e.g. Zhong et al., 2015, Christian at al., 2011). Despite this finding, many believe that engaged employees may also perform equally strongly extra role behaviors if they consider those as a part of their work tasks and formal job descriptions or if they are able to create enough resources

for performing activities out of their job descriptions by performing work tasks efficiently (Christian et al., 2011).

The difference between the concepts “role engagement” and “work engagement” plays also a significant role in the discussions about the relationship of job performance dimensions with engagement. According to the personal role engagement concept, engagement is connected with high quality of every dimension of job performance (Kahn, 1990). Empirical studies have showed that the higher the level of a person's personal role engagement, the greater their performance is in terms of in-role (task performance) and extra-role (contextual performance) work behaviors (Fletcher, 2016). Thus, we can argue that personal role engagement represents a fuller, deeper, and more immersive concept than work engagement in regards of their effect on job performance. Work engagement represents a narrower construct of engagement because it purely focuses on work activities rather than the expression of the self in one's work role. Work engagement is more about a 'state of mind' whilst at work rather than a 'state of self-expression' (Fletcher, 2016). Therefore, it can be argued that work engagement is mostly related with task performance whereas personal role engagement is more related with all dimensions of job performance (Fletcher, 2016).

Although several studies have shown that engagement leads to better job performance (e.g., Bakker & Bal, 2010; Demerouti & Cropanzano, 2010; Shantz, Alfes, Truss, & Soane, 2013; Reijseger et al., 2017), almost none addressed empirically the mechanisms that might explain why engagement would be associated with higher of job performance (see Reijseger et al., 2017 for an exception). However, several reasons have been suggested to explain why engaged workers may perform better than their non-engaged counterparts (cf. Reijseger et al., 2012 for a theoretical proposal). Looking at the literature we can organize these potential explanatory mechanisms into three categories: emotional (affective), cognitive or behavioral mechanisms.

Emotional mechanisms are the most important and largest explanatory mechanisms in explaining the relationship between work engagement and job performance. They focus on the degree to which work tasks increase engaged employees' positive emotions such as joy, interest, contentment, enthusiasm, and inspiration. The increase of these emotions would lead to broaden of employee personal resources in a motivational process, which in turn would build up better thoughts and actions that can be named as job performance. The broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001) proposes that engaged employees experience positive emotions which enable employees to increase their personal resources (e.g. social relationships, self-efficacy) by enlarging the spectrum of employee thoughts and actions related with their work tasks. Since engaged employees are characterized by positive emotions such as enthusiasm, energy and happiness and low negative emotions such as anger, fear, nervousness, and subjective stress (Schaufeli et al., 2002), authors propose that the positive emotions of engaged employees may trigger them into momentary thought-action repertoire and enlarge their personal resources which yield finally job performance because engaged employees are energized and motivated to allocate personal resources (e.g., knowledge, skills) to their job performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

The other salient emotional mechanism underlying the relationship between work engagement and job performance is the happy-productive worker hypothesis. According to the happy-productive worker literature, happy workers tend to be more productive than other workers (Taris & Schaufeli, 2015; Makikangas et al., 2016). This "happy-productive worker hypothesis" has a long history in the literature but it is still popular among the researchers. Therefore, the Hypothesis has been largely investigated and most of the time "job satisfaction" has been used as an indicator of 'happiness'. Although the interpretations of the results of the investigations are still a matter of debate, those investigations have proven that satisfied employees are more productive and perform better than other employees (Makikangas et al., 2016).

As described previously, engaged employees are characterized by positive emotions such as enthusiasm, energy and happiness (Schaufeli et al., 2002). As such, “work engagement” can be used as well as “job satisfaction” as an indicator of “happiness” and in turn, positive emotions such as happiness can increase the intrinsic motivation of engaged workers which will facilitate productivity, in other words job performance (Tenney et al., 2016). Although some researchers suggest that employees in a positive mood or highly motivated is more willing to conduct work tasks which allow them to continue their positive mood or intrinsic motivation, the idea that happy workers are not performing good, is not supported by the meta-analytic studies (Tenney et al., 2016). Thus, based on the happy-productive worker hypothesis, authors assume that individual work engagement is positively related to the employee job performance (Makikangas et al., 2016; Christian et al., 2011).

According to the literature, cognitive mechanisms exist between work engagement and job performance relationship. In line with the broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001), since engaged employees feel more positive emotions, it can be expected that the mind of engaged employees will open up in order to broaden their thoughts (Reijseger et al., 2017). Without being open-minded, it won't be possible for the engaged employees to broaden their state of cognition (i.e., receptive to new relevant information) because openness leads to additional knowledge, skills and abilities (Reijseger et al., 2017). Thus, by reaching the necessary information level with the broaden state of cognition, engaged employee will perform better.

Researchers have also claimed some behavioral mechanisms in the literature which explain the relationship between work engagement and job performance. Kahn (1990) proposed that engagement will increase employees' levels of effort in accomplishing organizationally valued behaviors. Accordingly, individual job performance is defined largely “by behavioral expectations of others in their organization” (Rich et al., 2010). Therefore, it is generally suggested that work engagement should promote positive work role behaviors (Parker & Bindl, 2010) which may lead to job performance according to previously mentioned performance

definition. It is largely because the positive element of engagement results in broadening and building of thought–action repertoires which prompts employees into job performance behaviors. Since work engagement is expected to “direct, energize, and sustain behavior”, it is most likely focus on organizational job performance behaviors. In addition, work engagement is assumed to facilitate behavioral flexibility which is highly demanded in contemporary work environment (Shantz et al., 2010).

In this section we address three mechanisms (emotional, cognitive and behavioral) that are used in the literature in explaining why and how an engaged employee may also be a good performer. Although this overview is certainly not exhaustive, it provides a fair impression of the sort of mechanisms in the literature that could link work engagement to job performance.

2.5. Open Questions in the Literature

So far, we have emphasized the existing general information about work engagement, job performance and how they relate each other. As we have stated before, there is a significant amount of studies on these topics. However, with the globalization effect in business, the need for performance researches on different type of work settings increased dramatically and even performance improvement and appraisal researches, which stand as the main stream of performance studies, still lack sufficient researches for many types of organizations. Military organizations and workplaces are one of those work environments. During our literature review, we have identified that there is a lack of performance studies in military organizations. Therefore, we do not know whether the general work engagement and job performance literature is compatible with the specifications of military work environments.

Despite the arguments of the researchers that work engagement should result in a high job performance (Salanova et al., 2005; Schaufeli et al., 2006; Schaufeli, 2012), there are some boundary conditions that may affect this relationship, and this can be even more salient in different work environments (Salanova et al., 2005) such as in the military context. Hence, we

need to understand the specifications or differences of military environment in order to clearly evaluate the relationship between work engagement and job performance in military work settings. Therefore, in the following chapter, we focus on identifying the differences of military workplaces regarding job performance behaviors of employees (i.e. staff officers).

CHAPTER 3 – JOB PERFORMANCE IN MILITARY CONTEXTS:

A QUALITATIVE STUDY

3.1. Introduction

Organizations such as military, identified as high-reliability organizations (e.g. emergency, police) in the literature which mean that for these organizations reliable employee performance is in overall importance because failures may have devastating effects (Boermans et al., 2014). Besides, comparing with the past, military organizations are operating today in a more demanding and stressful environment of increasing technological complexity, rapid information generation, and shortened decision-making cycles which have increased the requirement for soldiers with high performance. Soldiers are required to make decisions in a short time which directly affect mission success and well-being of themselves, their comrades and the civilians in the operational area (Steinberg & Kornguth, 2009). In addition, they are increasingly facing an influx of new technology and the use of multigenerational systems that are challenging their cognitive skills (Killion, Bury, Pontbriand, & Belanich, 2009). This dynamic and demanding nature of warfare and the significant social impact of the tasks are forcing military organizations to employ a high-performance workforce. Hence, although insufficient, job performance and its predictors are receiving an increasing interest from scholars in military work contexts. A better understanding of these occupational behaviors should result in increased job performance for soldiers and resultantly improved success for military organizations.

However, as stated previously, the construct of job performance is subject to the influence of work environment. Self-determination theory propose that work environments which are supporting self-determination enhance occupational outcomes such as job performance (Trépanier, Forest, Fernet, & Austin, 2015). Furthermore, one can easily makes inference from the occupational literature that the job performance construct may differentiate in military

contexts because of the different nature of military from the civilian workplaces. Therefore, the construct of job performance should be analyzed thoroughly in a military work context in order to understand its functioning in military workplace. For that, firstly we need to understand what the difference between military and civilian workplaces regarding job performance is. Then some strategies and practices specific in military contexts can be offered in order to increase individual job performance in military work environment. However, there exists almost no study on this issue in the literature. The current study aims to fill this gap by conducting a qualitative study amongst the staff officers of a military workplace about the differences between military and civilian workplace regarding job performance.

The present study contributes to the existing literature in the following ways. First, previous studies on job performance mostly conducted in civilian work settings. However, as we stated beforehand job performance of the staff officers is extremely important because of the significant social impact of their duties. The current study will fill this gap in the literature using a sample of staff officers from military office environment and set the ground for better understanding of a good performer in military contexts. Second, we don't clearly know what kind of strategies or practices may enhance job performance of military personnel in military workplaces. The current qualitative study about differences of job performance in military contexts will lead us to determine possible strategies and practices that may enhance staff officers job performance in this unique work environment. The results of the present study can be taken as a criterion for the selection, assessment and training of staff officers in military, and provide a theoretical basis for job performance evaluation and enhancement.

3.2. Job Performance in Military Contexts

Modern warfare presents a significant challenge to the planning and management of the logistical, operational, and surveillance activities of military troops in the highly dimensional and complex modern battlefield. Hence, job performance of employees in military organizations plays a significant role in the success of modern warfare and must be kept always

in peak in this increasingly demanding warfare environment in order to fulfill goals of the military organizations. Nevertheless, all researches have agreed that only behaviors which have an effect on achieving organizational goals be included in the scope of job performance. The same approach also applies for researches in military organizations. Accordingly, in the study of Luo et al. (2008), soldiers' job performance defined as a "representation of soldiers' assessable explicit behaviors during training and life, which will have either positive or negative effects on the achievement of organizational goals" (p. 223).

In the literature, performance scholars first of all focused on investigating the construct of job performance because they thought that an adequate understanding of the construct of job performance in a specific work environment would play a fundamental role in understanding employee job performance for that specific job (Motowidlo et al., 1997). Accordingly, military studies have tried to conceptualize and understand performance behaviors of military personnel by using the existing job performance construct. Actually, this haven't been so difficult for military studies because they have a big role in formulating the existing job performance construct. The Project A is the most known of these military studies. The Project A Model (Campbell, McHenry, & Wise, 1990) was developed by using a large-scale sample of enlisted personnel in the U.S. Army. Specifically, the model predicted criterion dimensions of performance appropriate for enlisted soldiers that were generalizable across nine military jobs. The model specifies that overall performance is made up of five latent constructs: (a) core technical proficiency, (b) general soldiering proficiency, (c) effort and peer leadership, (d) personal discipline, and (e) physical fitness and military bearing. Campbell (1990) and Campbell et al. (1993) expanded the Project A model to make it more appropriate for nonmilitary jobs. In this model there are eight factors that we have explained broadly in the previous chapter: job-specific technical proficiency, non-job-specific technical proficiency, communication, demonstrated effort and initiative, personal discipline, facilitating peer and team performance, supervision/leadership, and management/administration. There is

considerable overlap between Project A and Campbell et al. (1990, 1993) models. The three components of Project A are also available in the subsequent models: personal discipline, demonstration of effort, and job-relevant task skills. Every job may not contain all eight components but some of them (Campbell et al., 1993). Thus, some researchers have identified the three overlapping components as well as physical fitness as unique for military performance (Adler, Thomas, & Castro, 2005).

Campbell (2012) have proposed a composite eight factors model of individual job performance which aims to integrate all the previous performance models in the literature on individual performance modeling, team member performance, and leadership and management. These eight basic substantive factors of individual performance are Technical performance; Communication; Initiative, persistence, and effort; Counterproductive work behavior; Supervisory, managerial, executive (i.e., hierarchical) leadership; Hierarchical management performance; Peer/team member leadership performance; Peer/team member management performance (Campbell, 2012; Campbell & Wiernik, 2015). We have broadly defined these factors in the previous chapter. Although these factors are not synonyms of Campbell et al. (1993) eight performance components, similarly they are accepted as universal across jobs, organizations, industries, levels and cultures which naturally include different type of military organizations (national, multinational, etc.). Since these factors are latest revision of individual performance components and applicable for all kind of organizations, we use them in the present study in order to define “good performer” in military contexts.

Project A and subsequent studies had also influenced the studies of Borman & Motowidlo (1993, 1997) who have proposed a model of performance with two general dimensions, which they labeled core task performance and contextual performance. Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) studied job performance of 421 members of the US Air Forces mechanics and figured out significant links between overall job performance and; task and contextual performance dimensions. Borman, White, & Dorsey (1995) collected task performance and contextual

performance data from 400 soldiers in the US Army. Path analysis of these studies revealed that military job performance was influenced by both task performance and contextual performance, supporting the division of job performance into task performance and contextual performance (Luo et al., 2008). Besides the studies in US military, we searched in the literature some job performance studies for military organizations in eastern cultural sphere. By this, we had the chance to investigate approaches from two different cultures. There are considerable studies related with Chinese military in the literature but not as many as Western culture. According to result of these studies, which are conducted with a larger sample, Chinese military soldiers' job performance also consists of task and contextual dimensions (Luo et al., 2008). Nevertheless, from all these studies conducted in military organizations in western and eastern culture sphere, it is revealed that task performance and contextual performance contributes independently to overall job performance, but task performance has a bigger role than contextual performance (Luo et al., 2008).

Conversely, some studies in China found that performance evaluation in civilian organizations is likely to be affected by emotional factors and interpersonal relationships, and contextual performance has a dominant role in performance (Luo et al., 2008). The difference between civil and military organizations in China may be due to the fact that military organizations are special because most of the requirements in completing tasks are very clear. This fact increases the effect of the task performance on overall job performance by reducing the effect of culture in military workplaces (Luo et al., 2008). Furthermore, some studies showed that task and contextual performance are positively related and the employees engaging in task performance behaviors also often engage in contextual performance behaviors (Taris & Schaufeli, 2015). Thus, in the light of the above findings from the literature, we think that it would be more beneficial for military studies primarily to focus on the task performance of military personnel in order to understand and affect their overall job performance.

Nevertheless, it is interesting that Campbell et al. (1993), before the studies mentioned above, had proposed four dimensions of job performance. In their model, which is the most accepted model of performance and conducted in a military workplace, performance is explained as multidimensional and consisting mainly of task performance, contextual performance, counterproductive behavior and adaptability (Hackett, 2002). Since it is conducted in a military workplace, these four dimensions of job performance is most likely generalizable for military personnel. Task and contextual dimensions are explained previously but counterproductive behavior and adaptability are additional dimensions of Campbell et al.'s (1993) performance model. The Project A performance model included a component labeled maintaining personal discipline. It involved such things as disciplinary actions, violation of regulations, and assessment of personal misconduct. Campbell & Wiernik (2015) defined counterproductive behavior as the civilian counterpart of personnel discipline in military life. Counterproductive dimension (e.g., theft, destruction of property, misuse of information, misuse of time and resources, unsafe behavior, poor attendance, poor quality work) is used for defining the behaviors of inefficient employees who are acting contrary to the organizations goal and objectives (Hackett, 2002). The other included dimension is adaptability which is identified by Hackett (2002) as critical for many military positions because they require versatility and tolerance for uncertainty. Therefore, adaptive performance of military personnel may predict military job performance in ways that other performance dimensions do not (i.e. task, contextual and counterproductive performance). However, Campbell (2012) supported the argument that adaptability is more useful as an individual performance determinant rather than being a separate performance dimension.

Investigating the determinants of individual job performance in a specific work environment is another important branch of Performance Studies. Our main assumption is that military organizations have a unique work environment, and this creates some differences on staff officers' performance in military workplace. So, we tried to find out the possible determinants

in the literature that may explain this difference. Generally, in the literature it is accepted that an individual's job performance is a function of direct determinants such as knowledge, skills, abilities, and indirect determinants such as personal characteristics that may have an effect on conducting job and environmental influences (Ripley, 2003; Ripley et al., 2006). Similarly, Campbell (1990) and Campbell et al. (1993) describes the eight performance components as a function of three direct individual determinants declarative knowledge; procedural knowledge and skills and motivation. Direct determinants have a direct impact on individual job performance and indirect determinants influence performance only through their effects on one or more of the direct determinants (Campbell et al., 1993). From military studies perspective, Olson and Borman (1989) in their study of the work environment for 25 soldiers, made a similar classification and figured out that job performance is multidimensional and a result of (a) individual attributes, abilities, and skills which can be measured at the time an individual enters an organization; (b) environmental and organizational variables that impact on the person after job entry, and (c) the individual's attitudes, perceptions, and motivation to perform.

In performance literature, we have identified several factors that may be an important individual determinant of individual performance in military contexts. Adaptability is one of these factors (see Pulakos et al., 2000; Hackett, 2002). As we have explained previously in this section, besides being a performance dimension, adaptability can also be an important individual attitude that determines individual job performance indirectly in military work environment. Adaptability may be best predicted by emotional stability, behavioral flexibility, and situational awareness (Hackett, 2002). To the extent that the focus of effective performance in the military is the versatility and tolerance for ambiguity (Pulakos et al., 2000), adaptability as a performance determinant may assume greater importance. Leadership style in military environment can be another important environmental (indirect) determinant of staff officers' job performance. Leadership in military may involves several contextual factors that, in combination, are not present in any other leadership context. One of the most important military

leadership factors is that military leaders have a high level of responsibility for and authority over their subordinates (Paullin et al., 2014). Thus, leaders in military workplace may have the capacity to determine staff officers' job performance. Lastly, highly stressful environment of military may cause psychological stress for military personnel which may have devastating effect on their job performance (Krueger, 2008). Soldier stress is not only on the battlefield but also on the garrison or home-station environment (Bartone as cited in Krueger, 2008). We expect that all these individual or workplace determinants special for military environment may determine the difference of staff officers' job performance.

One of the main aims of this study is to understand the nature and differences of the individual job performance in military organizations in order to suggest strategies and practices for increasing staff officers' job performance. For that, Campbell strongly advocates first identifying individual performance requirements, and then identifying the attributes required to perform those requirements (Paullin et al., 2014). Therefore, so far in this section we have investigated the possible performance requirements of a staff officer and attributes required to perform those requirements with the help of the existing individual job performance components, dimensions and determinants specified for military workplace in the literature. This investigation was based on the combination of three existing, well-researched models of job performance which are explained previously: a model of the determinants of performance, a model of the components of performance and a composite model of individual work performance dimensions which are initially based on the results of a survey conducted amongst US military (Campbell, 1990; Campbell, 2012, Campbell et al., 1993).

Now, we would like to carry our investigation one step forward and focus on possible performance criteria for staff officers in military workplace which may help to identify the "good performer" in military contexts. By fulfilling which performance criteria can a staff officer be labeled as a good performer in military workplace? This is not an easy question to answer because in performance literature most of the researchers have seen determination of

performance criteria as a challenge in performance evaluation and measurement (Aycan, 2005; Campbell, 2012). Not surprisingly military organizations may encounter the same challenges during the process of defining performance criteria for the staff officers because most of the military organizations don't have a defined list of performance criteria for the staff officers in each military position. According to our observations, only essential and desirable requirements for each position are defined in job descriptions which may be used as a basement for determining job performance criteria for staff officers in military workplace. The second document in military organizations related with the staff officers' performance may be the performance objectives that is created during education and training development process. These objectives may also form another part of the basement of defining job performance criteria for staff officers.

As previously explained, the effect of the task performance on overall job performance is very high in military organizations because most of the requirements to complete tasks are very clear (Luo et al., 2008). Therefore, job-specific task proficiency has determined as the most appropriate performance component for staff officers in military organizations. Job-specific proficiency (also dubbed in-role performance or task performance) component frequently refers to issues such as quantity (productivity) and quality of the jobs done by the employees (effectiveness) which are part of the formal job descriptions (Taris & Schaufeli, 2015). Besides, employee job descriptions and training objectives gives a special emphasis to the quantity and quality of the jobs done by the employees. Similarly, Luo et al. (2008) emphasized this performance criteria as "task accomplishment" in their study about Chinese soldiers. However, instead of "task accomplishment", we prefer to use "productivity and effectiveness" as possible job performance criteria for staff officers in military organizations in accordance with relevant literature (e.g. Campbell et al., 1993).

Performance appraisal studies are very much concerned with the productivity and effectiveness of the employees because these variables refer to the evaluation of the results of performance

(Campbell et al., 1993). Campbell et al. (1993) defined productivity as “the ratio of effectiveness (output) to the cost of achieving that level of effectiveness (input)” (p. 41). Its primary use is as a relative index of how well an employee is functioning or in another saying pure output of the employee performance. On the other side individual effectiveness is achieved through employees output valued by the organization (Hackett, 2002). “Ideally, the behaviors (including jobs) that are valued (selected for, trained, and rewarded) are those behaviors that are instrumental to achieving organizational goals and objectives” (Hackett, 2002, p. 131). This definition is compatible with Luo et al.’s (2008) performance definition for soldiers. They defined soldiers’ job performance as a “representation of soldiers’ assessable explicit behaviors during training and life, which will have either positive or negative effects on the achievement of organizational goals” (Luo et al., 2008, p. 223). Therefore, staff officers who produce high number of outputs which are organizationally valued should be accepted as good performer in military organizations. Of course, there should be other performance criteria available in the military workplace and this study aims to determine these specific criteria for defining good performer in military contexts.

3.3. Method

3.3.1. Research approach

In the present study, in line with our explanatory approach, we implemented a Qualitative Research Method in order to better understand the differences between military and non-military regarding job performance and to offer strategies and practices for improving the individual job performance in military contexts. Qualitative research works with data that is built on traits like behavior, emotion, character, personality, etc. that facilitates to understand the reason behind an issue. In other words, qualitative research approach produces the detailed description of participants’ feelings, opinions, and experiences; and interprets the meanings of their actions (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). That is, qualitative approach may play a critical role in

understanding individual occupational behaviors. However, almost no studies in literature have approached job performance in military context with a qualitative study. Thus, the studies which are interested in defining the “good performer” and formulating “how to enhance individual job performance” in military or in similar (e.g., police, emergency) contexts can benefit from this qualitative study since it may provide more explanation about the military specific performance factors and determinants by deriving information from the in-depth investigations of the current qualitative study.

Our objective in conducting this qualitative study was threefold. First, we wanted to compose the content domain (i.e., factors) that creates good job performance in military contexts based on the statements of our respondents. We wanted from the respondents to support their statements with examples from their workplace in order to identify unobservable emotional, cognitive and behavioral influences on military job performance. Second, we wanted from the respondents to describe their thinking about the differences between military and nonmilitary regarding job performance in order to identify the factors that make job performance different in military contexts. Third, we wanted from the respondents to tell and exemplify some strategies and practices that they used to increase their job performance in military workplace. In pursuit of these three objectives we were particularly interested in evaluating whether or not current models of job performance (e.g., Campbell et al., 1993; Campbell, 2012) adequately capture the content domain for military contexts. Especially we have focused on the latest revised job performance model of Campbell (2012), namely “Composite Model of Individual Work Performance”. In this model, performance has eight basic substantive factors which can be defined as the classes of things people do on the job. These factors are designed to be sufficient to explain the requirements in any specific job. However, they have different patterns of sub-general components, and their content can be different in various jobs. Furthermore, any particular job might not combine all eight factors (Campbell, 2012). Therefore, the validity of Campbell’s (2012) model in military context should be evaluated through a qualitative

approach. Whether or not the existing models of job performance adequately capture the content domain, will make a good contribution to the theory (understanding “good performer”) in performance literature and practice (how individual job performance can be enhanced) in military organizations.

In the current study we employed a qualitative methodology consisting of a semi-structured interview schedule. We believe that this research approach is well-suited to actualize our objectives because of several reasons. First, by conducting a qualitative research, we had the chance to determine all the possible factors that are having an impact on individual job performance in military contexts because in a qualitative research, respondents in each level have sufficient freedom to determine the content domain of the collected data which may reveal unexpected and valuable insights into all aspects of the research (Flick, 2011). Thus, our respondents could express freely all the factors they considered relevant with job performance in their workplace. Second, in an explanatory study, semi-structured interviews are useful tools for understanding the nature of factors that have emerged (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). By focusing on how questions, we may have the opportunity to explain the nature of the identified factors. From the responses enriched by examples, we could clearly understand the causes and the processes that create these factors which lead to individual job performance in military contexts. Third, from the semi-structured interviews, we incorporated unobservable emotional, cognitive and behavioral factors that influence individual job performance. In qualitative studies, unobservable emotional, cognitive and behavioral influences on individual job performance can be identified easily by directing to respondents the appropriate questions which allows them to express the things that are most important to them. In this way, unlike quantitative research method, which explores the relationship of several variables, qualitative research method contributes to explain the cause and the process that creates these variables by the help of emotional, cognitive and behavioral factors that are mentioned in semi-structured interviews.

Patton (2002) specifies that qualitative research should typically focus on relatively small sample and even one case can be enough. On the other side, for theory building many researchers eagerly recommend collecting qualitative data, such as by conducting additional interviews, until data saturation is reached. In other words, data collection should continue until the additional interviews provide few or almost no new data and insights for the research (Saunders et al., 2009). Hence, we used the concept of saturation in the current study and presumed to conduct at least 25 interviews for saturation. As we presumed after the 20th interview, we couldn't collect additional insights which demonstrated that we fulfilled the concept of saturation with 25 interviews. That is, the data that we collected from the last five interviews were repetition and confirmation of existing insights which is a signal of saturation (Saunders et al., 2009).

For several reasons, we think that our sample of 25 staff officers is compatible with our qualitative research approach. First, we would like to investigate individual job performance of military in office environment rather than in combat. Accordingly, our sample is consisted of staff officers which are overwhelmingly responsible for conducting office jobs in military. Moreover, their level of performance is extremely important for accomplishing the goals of military organizations, especially in decision making processes and in command-control functions. Second, our respondents had served for a long time during their military careers in different type of military organizations and in different levels. Thus, they are more likely to provide valid and generalizable information about individual job performance in military contexts because they have enough experience in different kind of military workplaces which may provide them a larger point of view in order to make better assessments. Third, during their relatively long military career they had the better chance to observe also nonmilitary work settings and compare them with military work settings and that experience may allow them to better understand the difference of military contexts from the nonmilitary ones regarding individual job performance.

3.3.2. Sample

Sample of the current study consists of 25 staff officers or senior military leaders in active service from different military organizations which have served previously in different type of organizations (e.g., national or multinational military organizations) and in different positions. The vast majority of the staff officers' sample was comprised of male officers (96%). The age range of the participants was from 36 to 45 ($M = 39.44$, $SD = 2.69$). One of the participants was non-commissioned officer (OR-8) and the rest of the participants were officers between the rank of OF-2 and OF-5 (1 OF-2, 17 OF-3, 3 OF-4 and 3 OF-5). The participants had between 7 and 22 years ($M = 16.24$, $SD = 3.41$) of military experience. 23 of the participants were from Turkish, one from British and one from Italian military forces.

3.3.3. Research strategy

The basis for our data collection and analysis came from (a) the diagnostic funnel (Gregory, Armenakis, Moates, Albritton, & Harris, 2007), and, (b) grounded theory (Locke, 2001, p. 34). The following narrative explains how each was applied in our study.

The diagnostic funnel method is a systematic process widely used in collecting and analyzing data. Consistent with the diagnostic funnel figure, at the beginning, interview questions are broad and open-ended which helps the interviewee to express himself freely. At this stage, it is not expected from the respondent to answer the questions with the research terminology. The interviewer approaches the data collection without any bias. The narrowing of the funnel represents the in-depth questions which aim not only to gather more details but also to organize the data according to the research themes. At the end, the spout of the funnel symbolizes the conceptualization of the identified themes by a model, figure, or theory in order to describe the interaction and relationship amongst critical factors of the study.

This study used semi-structured personal interviews with the participants to elicit information about job performance in military contexts (see Appendice-A for a sample of interviews). The

interviews were audio recorded and transcribed. They were conducted face to face in private houses or on Skype and were scheduled for an hour each. Interviews were conducted by the Researcher himself. The Researcher elicited volunteers to participate in the study by sending e-mails or making phone calls. When someone volunteered to participate, immediately the interview time and meeting place or platform were settled with the volunteer and the interview protocol explained by the Researcher. Once the interviews began, some interviewees also recruited colleagues using a snowball approach.

Data collection

Our data collection method consisted of 1-hour semi-structured personal interviews designed to gather narrative data. At the beginning of the interviews, we asked from the respondents to describe the “good performer” in military contexts according to their experiences. Based on these answers, I built up my second question by asking if the described “good performer” is different in nonmilitary work settings. Towards the end of the interview, we asked participants to describe the strategies and practices they use to enhance their job performance with an example that supports their descriptions.

We asked 25 respondents the same questions in order to be sure that the themes that defined were common across our sample and not just random occurrences (Locke, 2001). Additionally, we asked some follow-up questions to clarify the answers that were given to the standard questions or to get more information about the situation. This allowed the interviews to flow smoothly, to contain sufficient, relevant data and to establish coherence between the interviewer and the participant. We executed the interview process independent from the existing literature. At this stage and even at the beginning of data analysis in the research, it will be beneficial willingly to avoid from the literature, because stalling in the information of the literature may too early puts blinders on and leads to prior bias (Gioia, Corley, & Hamilton, 2013). Therefore, if we had designed our interview process around existing theory and terminology in the

literature, we would have missed the original ideas of the respondents, which provides the originality of our study, by imposing our preordained understandings on their thoughts (Gioia et al., 2013).

After each interview, we assessed the collected data, reconsidered the questions and thought about the emerging themes and issues. This helped the Interviewer to identify the focus of future interviews and to decide the issues that needs more clarification by asking extra follow-up questions.

Data analysis

In this study we used the advantage of grounded theory as an inductively based analytical procedure in analyzing the data. Firstly, grounded theory allowed us to execute the data analysis process with as few bias and pre-acceptances as possible because we didn't take any formation of theory as a starting point. Thus, although we were familiar with the research literature, we did not allow the literature to affect the data analysis process. Secondly, grounded theory is founded useful in the literature for the studies to explain the behavior which forms the theory and to generate theoretical insights rather than testing a hypothesis about an objective reality (Saunders et al., 2009). Thus, we used the grounded approach to discover all behaviors and situations related with the research topic. That helped us to better analyze the dataset and reflect the originality of the dataset to the analysis. In this way, we had the opportunity to build up an inductive model based on the grounded data which reflects the respondents' insights in theoretical terms (Gioia et al., 2013).

Once the interviews were completed, the voice records were uploaded to the website (www.voicebase.com) and by the help of the transcription program in the website; the records were transcribed into Office-word files. Then those word files one by one imported into the Atlas.ti 7.0 Qualitative Data Analysis software.

We began data analysis by conducting a preliminary coding of longer segments of data in order to identify first-order codes. We coded all 25 interviews by extracting all the comments related with individual emotions, thoughts and behaviors which were compatible with the research questions and objectives, as the unit of analysis (Saunders et al., 2009). Each comment represented a distinct idea or unique incident and process that are relevant to research question and objectives. Each relevant comment was classified in a category which was consistent with the research question and objectives. Once a category was identified in an interview, it was used when subsequent similar emotions, thoughts or behaviors were identified in following interviews (Saunders et al., 2009, p. 493). Thus, based on the notion of axial coding, we start seeking similarities and differences among the many categories which helped us reduce the number of categories to a more manageable number (Gioia et al., 2013). Then we named these reduced number of categories with appropriate labels or phrasal descriptors. At the same time, we wrote memos about the first-order categories which were emerging for the differences of military regarding job performance. Through this process, we have seen that some categories were forming clusters within the context of job performance in military. Specifically, we began to notice themes around what makes military personnel a good performer, as well as themes around strategies and practices military personnel used to enhance their job performance in military workplaces. From this initial clustering, we were able to generate the broader second order themes of job performance regarding military differences, in accordance with the existing job performance models (e.g., Campbell, 2012; Campbell et al., 1993). Thus, I had the chance to compare and contrast the emerging second-order themes with the existing job performance models. At the same time, we noticed that some of these second-order themes were related with the enhancement of job performance rather than dimensions of good performer in military contexts. Therefore, we classified the second-order themes into two group of aggregated dimensions. The first group of aggregated dimensions were theorizing the individual job performance differences in military work context and largely compatible with the well-known

performance components of Campbell et al. (1993) and Campbell (2012) models. And the second group of aggregated dimensions were theorizing the strategies and practices that may be helpful for performance enhancement in military contexts.

When we had the initial full set of 1st-order categories and 2nd-order themes and aggregate dimensions, then we have the basis for building a data structure. Of course, this was an iterative process and we reorganized our initial data structure when a new data emerged within my interviews. Finally, after concluding the development of the data structure, in order to ensure reliability of our coding a second analyst was assigned the task of coding a sample of the comments. He was given the theme definitions and met with the first analyst to discuss the definitions and key terms. The sample selected was a stratified random sample. The agreement of the coding by the primary and second analysts was computed using Cohen's (1960) kappa as .72 (k N .7 is considered satisfactory, p b .05). The few disagreements were then discussed and reconciled. The practical meaning of this coding task is that the data structure captured the content meaning of the 25 interviews. Figure 1 and 2 present the data structure developed according to the Gioio et al. (2013) approach, including first order categories (the ideas expressed by the respondents), second-order themes (the emergent abstract concepts), and the aggregate dimensions.

In the following parts, we will present the results of our analysis and explain how the second-order themes and aggregated dimensions in Figure 1 and 2 are interconnected to each other. Representative quotations, provided in Table 3 from each first-order category, describe the reason we used in labeling the aggregate dimensions and themes. These quotations also guided our integration of the related theories in the literature to explain our results.

FIGURE 1
Data Structure for “Good Performer in Military”

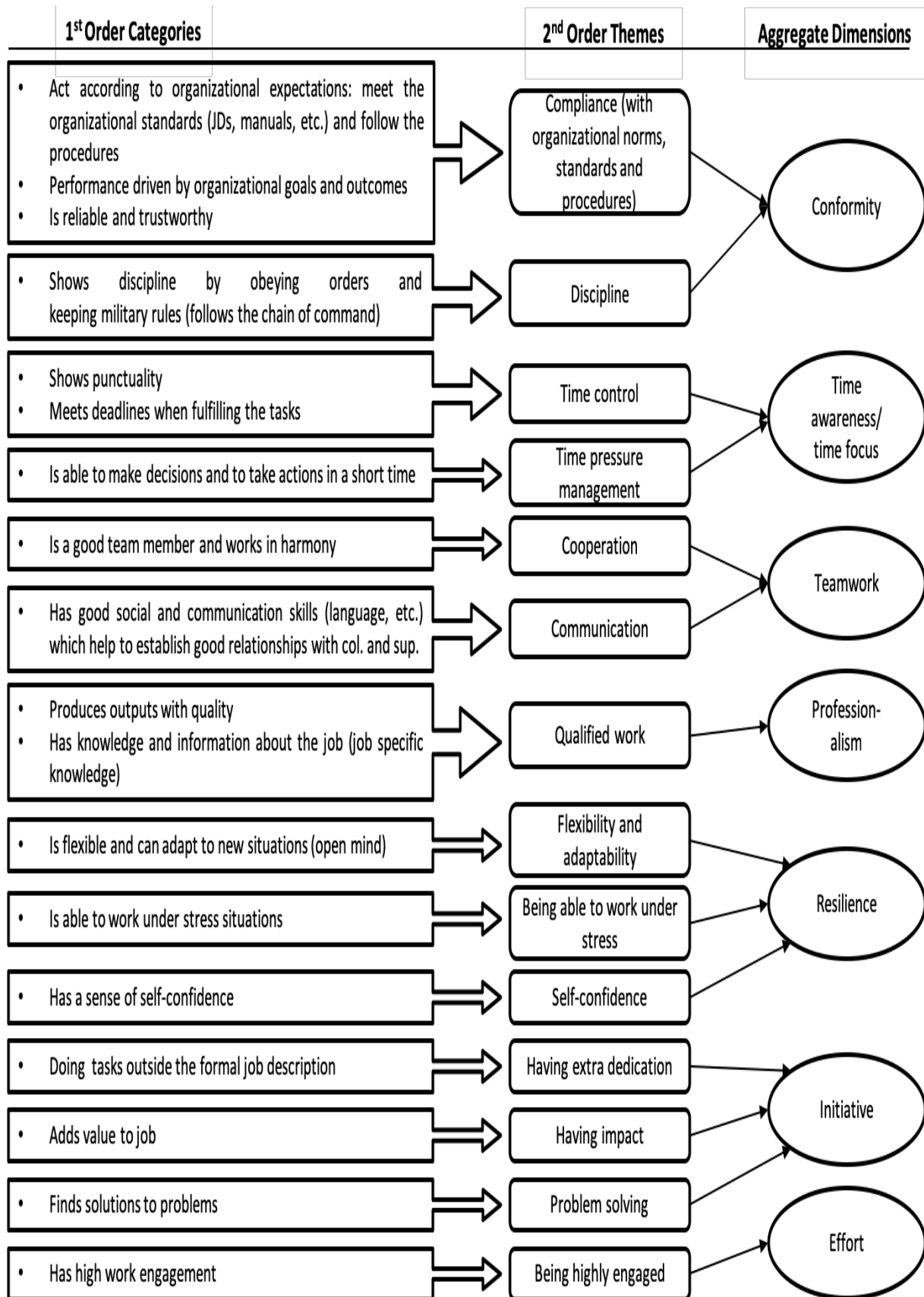
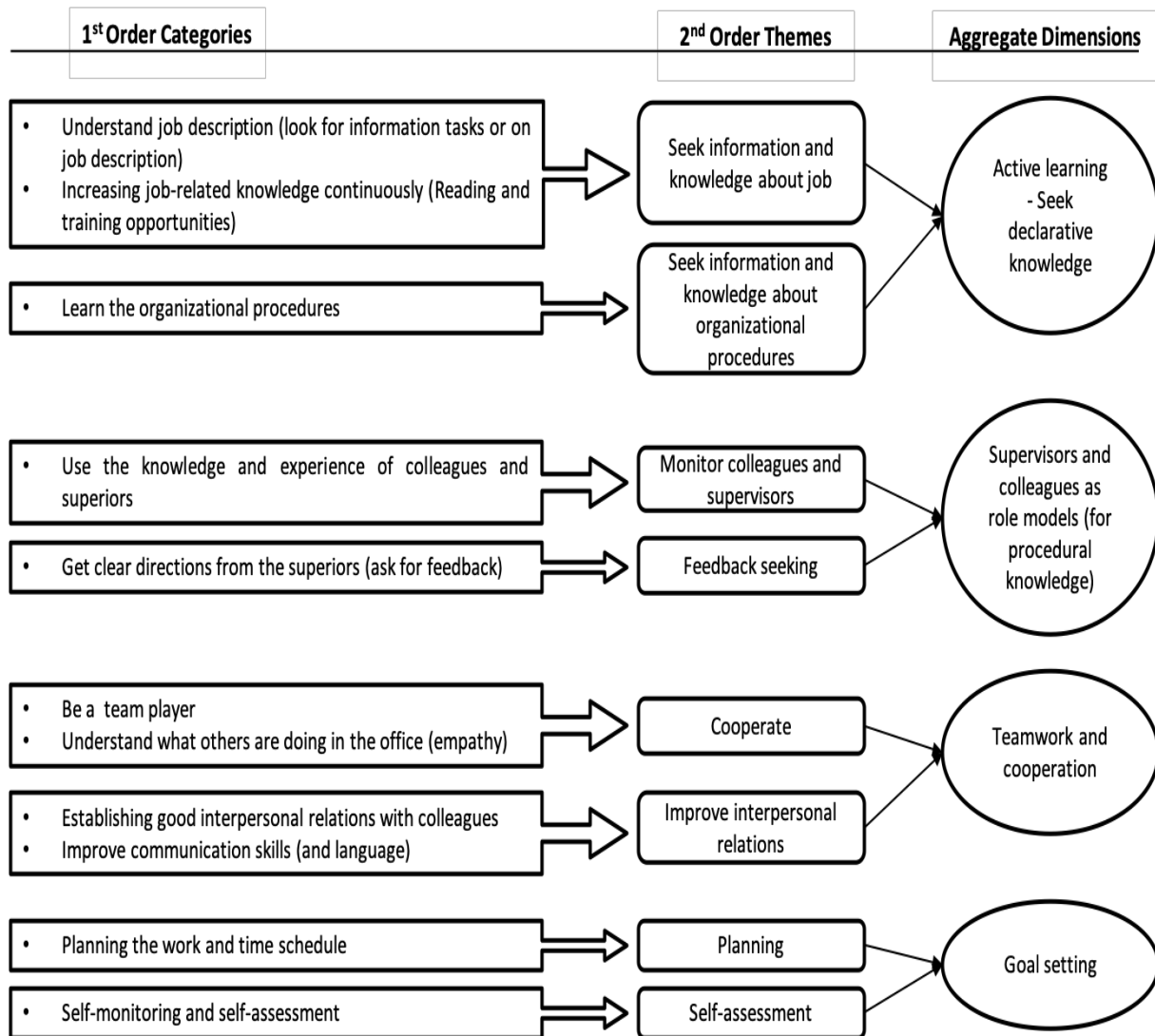


FIGURE 2
Data Structure for “Performance Enhancement in Military”



3.4. Results

In this section, I present the results of the current study that we have already visualized in Figure 1 and 2, and exemplified in Table 3. Accordingly, I describe the components for being a good performer in military and then the strategies or practices which enhance job performance in military. First, I describe seven job performance components (see aggregate dimensions in Figure 1) for military work contexts that emerged through my analysis; these components help us to understand the differences of military job performance from the existing non-military job performance construct. Then, I specify four factors which are determined as common strategies or practices that used to enhance individual job performance in military work contexts. These

factors describe different performance enhancement strategies and practices that military personnel employ when they want to enhance job performance; the choice of strategies and practices depends on the insufficiency in components that we have determined for being a good performer in military work contexts.

TABLE 3
Representative Quotations

Aggregate Dimensions and 2 nd Order Themes	Representative Quotations for “Good Performer in Military”
Conformity	
Compliance	<p>R2: Good performer is who does his duty inside the standards. They are making their job always in the standards. There can be a lot variety of duties, and each duty has its specific standarts. It has to obey and do his job, his duty according to the standarts and restrictions.</p> <p>R10: When performance is relevant to the organization’s outcomes and success, I think the job is done in a good way and your job performance is good.</p> <p>R24: And if this guy who could be proved his honesty; what I mean by honesty includes also the trusteeenes. For example, you know that this guy, if he if promised, if something falls in his duty area, he's going to deal with it, you know that you can trust him. That's also another important qualification for me.</p>
Discipline	<p>R3: For being a good performer, in military we have other factors apart from the things in formal job description. Discipline is one of the most important of these factors.</p>
Time Awareness/Time Focus	
Time Control	<p>R13: So, in a crisis or in wartime in work or in let's say plans, one of the most critical things would be time. So, the performance is punctuality.</p> <p>R6: They (good perfromer in military) do their job good, they provide good output, timely output, they have a good time discipline.</p>
Time Pressure Management	<p>R1: Good performer is the one who can take action immediatly when his or her contribution needed.</p>
Teamwork	
Cooperation	<p>R8: To have a get output from an exercise you have to be working together. Because it's not just about the individual staffwork. Although that supports it but if you keep that to yourself and you don't share then we as an organization or a group don't succeed. Therefore, a good performer knows to work together.</p>
Communication	<p>R5: Good performer has the ability for social skills. This is very important because you need to argue, speak with each other very much. Social skills include commuication and language skills also.</p>
Professionalism	
Qualified Work	<p>R15: A good performer produces high quality products. Whenever needed or whatever the mission is, he does his best.</p> <p>R11: First of all, he should have the basic information whatever the job is. So, if there are some information background problems it is really also a problem to the team as well. So, we also face to such kind of people for example they are attending to the workshops, they are attending to the preparations, but overall contribution is allmost none.</p>
Resilience	

Flexibility and Adaptability	R14: In my opinion first of all he has to be flexible and has to use an open mind approach because sometimes if he starts to use rigid approach or stereotype approach, there could be some problem with the interaction of the team elements.
Being Able to Work Under Stress	R11: Of course, there are some general rules for being a good performer. For example, stability under difficulties and stress situations.
Self-confidence	R8: I think what struck me before I joined the military was when I met the medic sergants, they had a real sense of confidence which they exude it for themselves. So, you met somebody who is from military or ex-military and they had this beautiful world full of confidence about them and they could manage any situation that they went into. You can put them in any situation, and they would be fine and that was kind of thing before joining the army that I was wanted because I didn't have that as a civilian.

Initiative

Having Extra Dedication	R16: If you can perform outside your job description is an important factor. Because you know, nowadays in workplace there is an increasing uncertain environment and that kind of uncertain environment requires more skills and talents. So, the only skills in the written job description or only duties you have in JD are not necessarily enough to have good results.
Having Impact	R9: Good performer is producing added value because everybody comes with very different backgrounds. Someone was from Navy, someone from Air Force and so if you can use your own experience in military and if you can add some added value because your job will be somehow done by anybody. But if you add something, some added value to the job then I think that's a good performance in a military work environment.
Problem Solving	R25: A good performer is who fines original solutions to problems and solves different kind of problems.

Effort

Being Highly Engaged	R12: If you have a self engagement. I mean if you love your job, that is another factor of being a good performer.
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Aggregate Dimensions and 2nd Order Themes

Representative Quotations for “Performance Enhancement in Military”

Active Learning – Seek Declarative Knowledge

Seek Information and Knowledge about Job	R17: First, I want to learn my job description. Then related to the job description, what is my divisions goals, what is my divisions tasks and what is my job in these tasks and then what technologies should I know, for example in the computer and the other things should I know. Which books or the other documents should I know? What are the documents, what are the orders related to my job, previous orders, background of my job should I know? And then I read, I ask my supervisor, my college and I collect all these. I want to learn my job immediately. R4: Maybe to develop knowledge, my knowledge level about my tasks, further details. Because it's (knowledge) always ready. You have to search for it in the workplace. It's easy to get the experience. You're not the first one doing that Job so the information can be available in someone. Someone always wants to invent America. No need to reinvent the wheel.
Seek Information and Knowledge about Organizational Procedures	R16: I need to understand the procedures to follow. You know this could be written in the policies of the organization or they cannot be written in anywhere. Then I have to clear my mind so I need to first understand the task, I need to understand the suitable method that I will apply. Then if I am clear about the process and the task then these going to serve to enhance my performance.

Supervisors and Colleagues as Role Models (for procedural knowledge)

Monitor colleagues and supervisors	R13: I think the first thing would be always trying to learn something from the others because it is unlimited. If you try to explore new things you know you will always find very new strategies, very new doctrins in military or multinational military organizations.
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Feedback seeking	R10: The other thing that I am doing to increase my job performance is getting clear direction and guidance from my leaders from the section, branch or division Heads. This is very important because they're getting the directions and guidance from the commander from the upper managers and sometimes, we have to ask questions to get the clear direction and guidance from them. And this is also important for being aware of organizational updates, what's going on in the H.Q.
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Teamwork and Cooperation

Cooperate	<p>R9: It requires team performance in my job, so I was trying to be a part of my team. I was trying to understand all people and needs of my unit and some requires of my superior to do. I think that was all. It was not doing your job, it was understanding the needs and questions I think.</p> <p>R19: First you have to know your people, or you have to know your colleagues around you and your superior's whatever situation you are. It can be different. What you are laughing, can be a serious problem to others or vice versa. Then first respect them. Then listen them. Try to know and understand what they are thinking about what. Then you can make your own behaviors.</p>
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Improve Interpersonal Relations	<p>R13: And the second one to have good relations with all the people working around. Not only in our office or in our team but also with the other sections. So, it's essential for your further work in the future. For your works now, it may not be necessary but later you will need those people so anyway you should have a good contact at least you should know that sometimes it is magic to call someone with his name that makes it easier to have a good connection and good communication with the people.</p> <p>R25: I remember that I read some books about communication methods with different cultures. And another practice that I have taken a course. It was a general course but there was a class in the course about cultural awareness. It was really helpful to me. So, it raised my awareness in a good level.</p>
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Goal Setting

Planning	R5: Even in my daily life I organize my tasks and prioritize them. I have followed the same way in military work environment. Another way I use especially for large projects is to set milestones. I break the projects in two mini tasks so I can see my progression.
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Self-assessment	R4: If I can maybe, assessing myself periodically for example once in a week I should ask myself how many products do you have or how many meetings did you lead? This may increase my job performance.
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Note: We assigned each participant a unique numerical identifier, starting with R for Respondents.

3.4.1. Good job performance in military

In trying to understand what makes military personnel a good performer in military work contexts, my analysis revealed seven components that staff officers related to their job performance, illustrated in the data structure in Figure 1 as aggregate dimensions and supported by data presented in Table 3. I label these aggregate dimensions “Conformity, Time awareness/time focus, Teamwork, Professionalism, Resilience, Initiative and Effort” job performance components. Job performance components signify the factors at the most general level of individual job performance structure (Campbell et al., 1993). While Campbell (2012)

and Campbell et al. (1993) tend to describe performance components as dimensions existing across all jobs, the components that emerged in our study were grounded in the experience of being a staff officer in military work environment. Hence, the job performance components in this study describe the emotional, cognitive and behavioral factors that staff officers valued in their work for being a good performer.

Conformity

With the first component, namely conformity, staff officers focused on working in compliance with organizational norms, standards and procedures. For that, beside meeting the organizational standards and following the organizational procedures, they valued acting according to the organizational expectations at work. One staff officer (R01) described this, “For me, a good performer is one who can meet the organizational expectations on his work.” Staff officers also viewed the individual performance driven by organizational goals as an important indicator of fulfilling conformity component. One staff officer (R17) described why organizational goals should driven individual performance, “A good performer should work in the goal of the organization, he should know the goal of the organization, he should feel them like his own goals. He should feel himself that is my organization, that is my goal. So, he should do the job for himself and also for the organization.” In relation with meeting organizational standards and performing according to the organizational goals, reliability and being trustworthy in fulfilling tasks was defined as an attitude of good performer in military contexts. One staff officer (R11) described how reliability affects individual job performance, “The other thing is reliability. So, your colleagues have to rely on you that you are doing everything in order. And, if you can give that feeling than more successful results are inevitable as a team.” Staff officers also stated the importance of discipline for showing conformity in military by emphasizing it many times within the interviews. One staff officer (R06) described how discipline is important in military contexts, “I think first criteria will be the discipline or we can say individual discipline, which contains from time discipline to discipline in responsibilities, discipline in

performing duties, respect to others, and respect to the job.” Thus, conformity provides an essential framework through which staff officers could accomplish their tasks in a sense of good performance in military.

Time awareness/Time focus

With the second component, staff officers focused on achieving control over time in fulfilling their tasks. That is, a good performer should be determined to accomplish his tasks within deadlines given by superiors. One staff officer (R12) described this, “A good performer is an employee who does his job sufficiently in a given or reasonable timeframe.” In addition, staff officers valued showing punctuality in every kind of task or event as a function of good performance. One staff officer (R02) described the importance of showing punctuality as a good performer, “A good performer is the one who does his duty always on time. For example, a manager gives some duties to his employees and there has to be an endstate for them. And he says this duty must be done by this time.” Another time perspective mentioned for good performance in military was time pressure management because they stated that in military, decisions might need to be taken and actions might need to be made in a short time and most of the time under pressure. One staff officer (R10) described this fact, “When you are shortly integrated in a new situation in the organization in your limited time or when you just started to work in an organization, and you need only a few times to adapt yourself to the duties. This is a good performance of job.” As these quotations illustrate, time awareness or time focus was viewed as an important component of individual job performance especially in military work contexts.

Teamwork

With the third component, staff officers focused on teamwork since it is a salient factor in military work settings and most of the tasks should be done collectively by teams in military work environment. Therefore, staff officers made a special emphasize on cooperation and

communication for good performance in military context. One staff officer (R08) described the role of cooperation in individual job performance, “To have a good output from an exercise you have to be working together. Because it's not just about the individual staffwork.” To have good communication skills are also important in establishing cooperation which seems essential in military. Staff officers mentioned this fact repeatedly during the interviews. One staff officer (R06) described the importance of cooperation in good performance, “Communication skills are also important. Communication with peers with superiors up and down, others in the organization for sure. Since we are dealing with people around us, I think the communication skills are indispensable for a good performer.” Thus, cooperation and communication provide necessary skills and attitudes for staff officers in showing high performance especially in teamworks in military work environment.

Professionalism

With the fourth component, staff officers focused on the professionalism of good performer that exhibited in the quality of the work. For being a good performer, staff officers substantially valued producing qualified work in military workplace. One staff officer (R07) described this, “I think good performers always make good output. They think properly, they do their job properly.” To produce qualified output, staff officers also mentioned the importance of having the necessary knowledge for doing the job. They emphasized the necessity of obtaining the information for producing the good work as an output of professionalism. One staff officer (R11) described the role of information for exhibiting a sense of professionalism at work, “First of all he should have the basic information whatever the job is. So, if there are some information background problems it is really also a problem to the team as well. So, we also face to such kind of people. For example, they are attending to the workshops, they are attending to the preparations, but overall contribution is almost none.” That is, having the necessary knowledge and reflecting this knowledge into the products as good quality had been emphasized by staff

officers as essential for acting in professionalism which seems to be one of the components of good performance in military context.

Resilience

With the fifth component, staff officers focused on the resilience of good performer in military contexts. Especially, showing flexibility and adaptability had been mentioned as an important function of resilience. One staff officer (R14) described how flexibility and adaptability may affect job performance, “In my opinion first of all he has to be flexible and has to use an open mind approach because sometimes if he starts to use rigid approach or stereotype approach, there could be some problem with the interaction of the team elements.” As another reflection of showing resilience, staff officers emphasized working under stress which also requires flexibility and adaptability for overcoming the stress situations. One staff officer (R11) described the necessity of being able to work under stress situations for good performance, “Of course, there are some general rules for being a good performer. For example, stability under difficulties and stress situations.” Staff officers had also mentioned self-confidence as an important attitude for showing resilience in reaching a good performance in military. One staff officer made a special emphasize on self-confidence for good performance in military context, “You met somebody who is from military or ex-military and they had this beautiful world full of confidence about them and they could manage any situation that they went into. You can put them in any situation, and they would be fine and that was kind of thing before joining the army that I was wanted because I didn't have that as a civilian.” That is, staff officers had made a special emphasize on resilience for being a good performer in military work environment because of its' highly stressfull and dynamic nature.

Initiative

With the sixth component, staff officers focused on initiative for being a good performer in military contexts. According to the staff officers, initiative contained having extra dedication,

having impact and solving problems at work. One staff officer (R15) described how to have extra dedication at work, “A good performer takes extra responsibility. For example, organizing a cocktail. It's a minor and not a direct job of employees but he does it with passion.” Moreover, adding value to the job had been mentioned by staff officers for having impact at work and as a form of initiative. One staff officer (R06) described having impact, “For example, it is doing something that goes to the upper levels in the organization and how much is it influencing or making an impact on the organization's overall mission.” Staff officers also emphasized problem solving as an important form of initiative which leads to job performance. One staff officer (R25) linked problem solving with good performance, “A good performer is one who finds original solutions to problems and able to solve different kind of problems.” As quotations about having extra dedication, having impact and problem solving illustrates, initiative was viewed by staff officers as an important component of individual job performance in military work contexts.

Effort

With the seventh component, staff officers focused on the effort of individuals for being a good performer in military contexts. According to the staff officers, good performer in military should be highly engaged in his tasks. One staff officer (R24) described how a good performer may show high engagement, “These guys, good performer guys usually try to finish the job in question, job at hand until to the end. They never give up. No matter what the reason of this task is, wherever it comes from, he or she doesn't need to discuss the origin of this task. Rather he focuses on how we are going to handle this task; how are we are going to do this? This is a good performer for me.” Thus, staff officers mentioned being highly engaged as an important component of good performance in military contexts that we labeled as effort.

3.4.2. Enhancing job performance in military

In trying to understand how enhancing good performance in military work contexts, my analysis revealed four strategies/practices that staff officers emphasized for increasing their job performance in military workplace, illustrated in the data structure in Figure 2 as aggregate dimensions and supported by data presented in Table 3. I label these aggregate dimensions “Active learning, Supervisors or colleagues as role models, Teamwork and cooperation and Goal setting” strategies/practices for enhancing job performance in military contexts. In the literature, this kind of strategies/practices are implemented by organizations and called as “performance enhancement interventions”. Many researches in organizational psychology designed interventions to enhance “the individual knowledge, skill, and motivational determinants of performance, such as training and development, goal setting, feedback, rewards of various kinds, better supervision, and so on” (Campbell, 2012, p. 41). While performance interventions (e.g., training, feedback, rewards, supervision) in the literature are designed mostly for organizations to enhance performance of their employees (Campbell, 2012), the strategies/practices that emerged in our study were implemented by staff officers in order to enhance their own performance. Therefore, the interventions that we found in this study describe the most important strategies and practices that staff officers valued in their work for enhancing their job performance.

Active learning – Seek declarative knowledge

With the first strategy/practice, staff officers focused on enhancing individual job performance by improving their declarative knowledge determinants of performance through active learning and seeking information about job and organizational procedures. For that, staff officers expressed several times the importance of learning the job descriptions in detail. One staff officer (R07) described the importance of knowing job description by putting it in the first order for performance enhancement, “First I read my job description and try to understand what I

must do every day.” Than staff officers focused on increasing their job knowledge if they had deficiencies in the tasks written in the job descriptions. This theme is one the most mentioned themes for enhancing job performance in the current study. So, it is extremely important for increasing staff officers job performance in military contexts. One staff officer (R21) described how to increase knowledge about job, “To increase my performance I will do some research on my job. I will try to increase my knowledge and if it is related to technology, I will try to learn the latest technology or information about that subject that I work. So, I try to reach as much as information on that subject to be more profitable for my team and organization.” However, this is not enough. Staff officers also viewed learning organizational procedures as an effective strategy for enhancing job performance. One staff officer (R20) described this fact, “First thing is to learn the process from the books, all the processes. What are the basic rules of the processes which are written on the books? I started reading all the books which are related to my job.” Thus, active learning or seeking declarative knowledge had become one of the most important strategy for enhancing job performance in military contexts.

Supervisors and colleagues as role models (for procedural knowledge)

With the second strategy/practice, staff officers focused on getting procedural knowledge from their colleagues and supervisors in order to enhance their job performance. That is, first they monitored their colleagues and supervisors during the job in order to obtain the knowledge and experience they already posses which may fill the gaps of knowledge and experience essential for good performance. One staff officer (R03) described how may monitoring others enhance individual job performance, “For myself first of all I try to observe the other officers, my colleagues that are coming from other units. I know my organization's rules, approaches but coming from other units you can see very good examples. So, I tried to observe them, I tried to get positive behaviors, approaches from their behaviors.” Staff officers had also mentioned the importance of getting good feedback from others (superiors or colleagues) in enhancing their job performance. These feedbacks can be sometimes advices from colleagues or clear directions

from supervisors. One staff officer emphasized this issue, “After understanding my task I will ask my colleagues what can be done about this task and then I will ask my superiors what they are expecting from me to do related with this task.” As these quotations illustrates, procedural knowledge coming from supervisors and colleagues play an important role in enhancing job performance in military contexts.

Teamwork and cooperation

With the third strategy/practice, staff officers focused on improving cooperation and interpersonal relations for increasing individual job performance. It seems that teamwork and cooperation are a never-ending story for performance in military contexts because we emphasized this topic also as job performance component in the previous part. Staff officers strongly expressed that there is a strong positive correlation between cooperation, interpersonal relations and individual job performance. Especially being a good team player mentioned several times. For example, one staff officer (R20) emphasized that, “And the second step I think is making my own network. Because as an exercise and training planner, it all depends on your counterparts. You cannot do anything by your ownself. You need to learn your counterparts, you need to get in touch with them and you need to learn how to work with them as a team.” Staff officers also mentioned the importance of empathy for cooperation. One staff officer (R09) described how empathy may facilitate cooperation, “It requires team performance in my job, so I was trying to be a part of my team. I was trying to understand all people and needs of my unit and some requires of my superior to do. I think that was all. It was about understanding the needs and questions, I think. Yeah these things were increasing my job performance.” Moreover, staff officers imposed a special emphasize on establishing good relations with people in the same workplace. One staff officer (R15) related this with enhancing job performance, “I try to establish good communication with my superiors and subordinates and colleagues. When we had a quarelle or thought differently on a matter, we talked about it and it came to a quarrelle. I tried not to talk with him. Sometimes I did it. If it is sometimes a

solution for your bad relations with superiors but it is not good for my subordinates.” For establishing good interpersonal relations, staff officers stated communication skills as a facilitator. Especially, they emphasized the increasing importance of language skills in establishing interpersonal relations in MMOs. One officer (R24) described the role of communication skills in establishing cooperation and good teamwork, “I would first try to increase my communication skills because first of all I would spend time and effort to understand others. What is the way of doing business with them? That's an important issue because usually they are different, their methods, way of doing things are different from you.” Thus, cooperation and interpersonal relations play a prominent role in enhancing individual job performance in military contexts which prioritize teamwork.

Goal setting

With the fourth strategy/practice, staff officers focused on enhancing individual performance by goal setting. Planning and self-assessment mentioned by staff officers as two salient functions of goal setting in enhancing job performance. Staff officers viewed planning as essential for organizing and directing their efforts which is critical for performance. Otherwise they thought that their effort would be lost in unorganized, different minor tasks which means low performance. One staff officer (R14) described this issue, “I try to fix some objectives, some targets in line with the direction and guidance of the boss. And inside the team also I try first of all to organize the work.” Staff officers also mentioned self-assessment as an important function of goal setting and an effective strategy for performance enhancement. Without assessment and understanding their deficiencies, staff officers didn't believe that performance could be enhanced. One staff officer (R04) described how may self-assessment enhance job performance, “If I can maybe, assessing myself periodically for example once in a week I should ask myself how many products do you have or how many meetings did you lead? This may increase my job performance.” That is, staff officers emphasized planning and regular self-assessment as functions of goal setting which they claimed that improve job performance in military contexts.

3.5. Discussions

Our main objective in conducting this qualitative study was to understand the differences of military from non-military work contexts regarding individual job performance and found out possible ways to enhance job performance in military work contexts. In accordance with this objective, we were interested in evaluating whether or not current, well-accepted theoretical models in the literature adequately capture both the construct of job performance and the interventions for enhancing job performance in military contexts.

Achievement of organizational goals in any given workplace is deeply influenced by employees' job performance (Campbell, 1990; Motowidlo et al., 1997). Campbell (1990) defined job performance as individuals' behaviors regarding self-control and those affecting achievement of organizational goals. In the study of Luo et al (2008), soldiers' job performance defined as a "representation of soldiers' assessable explicit behaviors during training and life, which will have either positive or negative effects on the achievement of organizational goals" (p. 223). Whether military or non-military, there is an obvious consensus in the performance literature about including only the behaviors which have an effect on achieving organizational goals, in the scope of job performance. Many scholars conducted research on those behaviors in various workplaces and developed models in order to conceptualize them. However, the most accepted and used model in literature for describing job performance components is developed by Campbell et al. (1993). A Taxonomy of Higher Order Performance Components according to the Multiple-Factor Model with eight basic performance dimensions (Job-specific task proficiency; non-job-specific task proficiency; written and oral communication task proficiency; demonstration of effort; maintenance of personnel discipline; facilitation of peer and team performance; supervision/leadership; management/administration) proposed by Campbell (1990) and Campbell et al. (1993) to describe the highest structure or taxonomy of job performance.

Campbell (2012) provided an even broader framework by revising the previous eight factor model. In his model, Campbell (2012) specified again eight basic substantive factors of individual performance that tap overall performance, namely Technical performance; Communication; Initiative, persistence, and effort; Counterproductive work behavior; Supervisory, managerial, executive (i.e., hierarchical) leadership; Hierarchical management performance; Peer/team member leadership performance; Peer/team member management performance. However, he claimed that these are not synonymous with Campbell et al. (1993) and intended to be an integrative synthesis of what the literature has proposed as the important content dimensions of performance in a work position. Campbell (2012) also proposed that these factors exist somewhat in all jobs globally and state the highest feasible level of generality. Therefore, we would like to compare our results with Campbell's (2012) latest model and determine the differences of military work contexts regarding job performance.

We found that some of the job performance components of the current study correspond with the basic substantive factors of Campbell (2012). First, Campbell (2012) claimed that all jobs or work roles have technical components. Therefore, 'Technical Performance' plays a significant role in overall individual job performance. 'Professionalism' component of the current study corresponds with 'Technical Performance' factor because both involve the proficiency in conducting core technical tasks at work. 'Professionalism' component consists having job specific knowledge and producing qualified output which are related with the technical proficiency part of the jobs in military contexts. Second, 'Conformity' component of the current study corresponds with 'Hierarchical Management Performance' factor of Campbell (2012) "which includes those actions that deal with generating, preserving, and allocating the organization's resources to best achieve its goals" (p. 39). 'Conformity' component consists compliance with organizational norms, standards and procedures in order to perform according to organizational goals. While both factors made a special emphasize on performance according to the organizational goals, they involve almost the same part of the individual job performance.

Third, Campbell (2012) specified 'Initiative, Persistence, and Effort' component "in terms of extra hours, voluntarily taking on additional tasks, working under extreme or adverse conditions, and so on" (p. 36). Similarly, our three separate components, namely 'Initiative', 'Resilience' and 'Effort' capture exactly the same job performance behaviors (see Figure 1) in military contexts. However, in the scope of 'Effort' component, we noticed that respondents repeatedly mentioned work engagement in the interviews which reveals the importance of work engagement for individual job performance in military contexts. Fourth, 'Teamwork' component of the current study combines and corresponds with the 'Communication' and 'Peer/team Member Leadership Performance' factors of Campbell (2012). Since, 'Teamwork' component involves proficiency in communication, it corresponds with Campbell's (2012) 'Communication' because "refers to the proficiency with which one conveys information that is clear, understandable, and well organized" (p.36). 'Peer/team Member Leadership Performance' factor of Campbell (2012) involves behaviors such as helping, cooperating, courtesy and motivating which are also captured by 'cooperation' second-order theme of the 'Teamwork' component of the current study. Lastly, 'Peer/team Member Management Performance' factor of Campbell (2012) appeared in two different components of the current study, namely 'Time Awareness/time Focus' and 'Initiative'. 'Peer/team Member Management Performance' factor of Campbell (2012) involves management functions, such as planning and problem solving, determining within-team coordination requirements and workload balance, and monitoring team performance. From these functions, 'Time Awareness/time Focus' component also involves workload balance function by time control and time pressure management, and 'Initiative' component also involves planning and problem-solving function. Thus, we detected that some individual job performance components of the current study overlap with the Campbell's (2012) basic substantive factors of individual job performance.

However, there is also some significant mismatches between Campbell's (2012) basic substantive factors and the job performance components of the current study. First of all, our

components in general and the first four component in specific point to a more collectivistic need to be “a good performer” in the multinational military organizations because respondents consistently made an emphasis on collectivist orientation. Second, the contents of our components have differences from Campbell’s (e.g. resilience and persistence can be seen the same at the first glance but actually they have differences). Campbell’s (2012) factors are not also mutually exclusive. For example, the content of peer/team member leadership performance is parallel to the actions that comprise hierarchical leadership (see in Campbell & Wiernik, 2015, p.53-55) which means that the content of these factors may overlap. Therefore, some of our components appeared in more than one factor of Campbell (2012). Third, we identified ‘Discipline’ inside the ‘Conformity’ component, while Campbell (2012) included ‘Discipline’ inside ‘Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB)’ factor by defining it as a lack of personal discipline. This is a different approach from previous Campbell et al. (1993) and Project A models of Campbell et al. (1990) which have both identified ‘Personal Discipline’ as a separate performance factor. Our respondents explained ‘Discipline’ as a factor which directs their performance behaviours through organizational goals in accordance with the organizational norms and rules. Thus, since ‘Discipline’ is a well-known organizational norm of military, we thought that ‘Discipline’ is more a part of ‘Conformity’ component in military contexts.

Our study also suggested some interventions (see Figure 2) in order to enhance individual job performance in military contexts. While performance interventions (e.g., training, feedback, rewards, supervision) in the literature are designed mostly for organizations to enhance performance of their employees (Campbell, 2012), the interventions that emerged in our study were implemented by staff officers in order to enhance their own job performance. According to our study, individuals in military work environment can enhance job performance by setting goals for themselves and seeking declarative knowledge on their own. This kind of self-regulations are also supported by studies (e.g., Campbell, 2012; Campbell & Wiernik, 2015). However, big portion of the interventions that was found out by the current study is not related

only with the self and can't be achieved alone. That is, they have a collective nature. The interventions with collectivistic nature are, modeling supervisors and colleagues as role models for procedural knowledge and improving teamwork and cooperation in military workplaces. Thus, our study revealed the need for focusing also on collectivist orientations of individuals in order to understand their tendency to execute interventions with collectivist nature because "collectivists view the self in terms of how connected they are to in-groups, subordinate personal goals to collective goals, exhibit norm-driven behavior, and are relationship oriented" (Marcus & Le, 2013, p. 814). This finding is very important for our study because individual's orientation to collectivism may play a critical role for realizing the collectivistic interventions and resultantly enhancing job performance in military contexts.

The performance components and interventions developed in the current study also offers two key contributions to the individual job performance literature. First, although military samples widely used at the initiating studies of modeling individual job performance (e.g., Campbell et al., 1990; Olson & Borman, 1989), the improved models of individual job performance haven't been verified in so many military samples. Therefore, the current study provides the opportunity to verify the latest integrative models of job performance, namely Campbell's (2012) model, in military contexts. As we have mentioned above, both models show great consistency which confirms the previous job performance studies about the generalizability of Campbell's (2012) model in different work environments as well as high reliability organizations' (e.g., military, police, emergency) work environment. This comparison of models also revealed that 'Discipline' has a distinct role in military individual performance. Thus, it has to be used as a separate component of individual job performance instead of 'Counterproductive Work Behavior' factor of Campbell's (2012) model in further military job performance studies. Second, although some general interventions for enhancing individual job performance in every work context exist in the current, well-known job performance models (Campbell, 2012; Campbell et al., 1993), this study propose some specific interventions for enhancing individual

job performance in military contexts. Interventions can be implied both by organizations or individuals (Campbell, 2012). The interventions proposed in this study are individual interventions which military personnel can implement to themselves in order to enhance their job performance. Thus, the current study contributes to the studies regarding enhancement of job performance especially in organizations like military by adding extra and verified interventions to the literature.

However, the current study has several limitations that should be taken into account when interpreting the results and that might guide future research. First, the data that we derived from the interviews was related only with the construct and enhancement of individual job performance in military organizations. We followed this approach intentionally because an adequate understanding of the construct of job performance for a specific job plays a preconditional role in exploring predictors of performance for that specific job which serve to reach a comprehensive understanding of job performance in that specific job (Luo et al., 2008). A large body of research has focused on predictors of job performance, especially for evaluation purposes (Campbell, 1990) and evaluation of job performance leads to interventions for enhancement. Thus, we need to identify predictors of job performance in military contexts firstly for evaluation and then performance enhancement. Since this study proposed a verified job performance construct and enhancement interventions in military contexts, further research should focus on exploring effective predictors of job performance such as work engagement, job satisfaction and organizational commitment which may help to better evaluation and improvement of job performance in military contexts.

Second, future research should not only explore predictors of job performance, but also find out possible moderators that may influence the relationship between predictors and job performance. As we previously discussed in detail, the current study found out that collectivism orientation of individuals might play an important role for individual job performance in military contexts. IOC is a well-known individual difference that may moderate relationships

between variables in organizational psychology (cf. Ilies et al., 2007). In our results, we realized that several performance components (i.e., teamwork) and enhancement interventions (i.e., supervisors and colleagues as role models, teamwork and cooperation) are very much interconnected with staff officers IOC and their differences in IOC may influence their job performance. However, since our study is a qualitative research which are for a long time being criticized for not providing empirical evidences regarding its findings (Gioia et al. 2013), a quantitative future research should investigate the influence of IOC on job performance in military contexts.

Finally, the sample included in this study is quite limited. We can't claim that our sample is representative of the entire military population of different countries and different work environments such as national, multinational, operational and non-operational; therefore, this study may be understood as being more exploratory in nature. This study was designed to simply research the possible differences between military and non-military regarding job performance and enhancement interventions. The implication is that although the construct of job performance is similar to the previous job performance constructs designed for civilian organizations in the literature, the personnel in military organizations may be more oriented to collectivism than their civilian counterparts. To be able to verify this individual orientation to collectivism within a military population, future research should include a broader representative military sample.

This study offers also several practical implications for managers as well as staff officers in military work environment. As previously stated, job performance components showed great consistency with the performance models in the literature. Therefore, military managers can also use these job performance components for their work environments. Performance evaluating is one of the main responsibilities of the managers. These components may underly the basis for an effective performance evaluation system or managers can simply utilize the existing performance evaluation criteria developed in the literature. However, our study

proposed that one component, namely discipline, is distinct in military contexts regarding job performance. Accordingly, military managers should adapt and include some performance evaluation criteria related with discipline.

This study proposed some interventions and provided a framework for the enhancement of individual job performance in military contexts. These interventions may help the military managers to plan effective performance enhancement programs for their work environments. By using our interventions, managers may also avoid costly programs or interventions that ultimately have little impact on military performance because they fail to address the content domain. These interventions can be also used by the military personnel themselves. Managers should only encourage their staff to use the personal performance enhancement programs based on the interventions proposed by this study.

Although, it has to be further researched, the findings of this study about IOC may propose some implications for managers. First of all, it seems that military staff with higher IOC is more likely to involve performance enhancement interventions at work. Hence, managers may introduce some training programs for increasing the IOC of their personnel which may indirectly improves job performance in military contexts. Or they can simply form their staff from higher IOC, especially for the tasks which require cooperation and teamwork because collectivists tend to prefer to work in groups more than individualists (Hofstede, 1980).

As a conclusion, by comparing our results with the existing, well-known performance models (i.e., Campbell, 2012; Campbell et al., 1993), we found that job performance construct of military is consistent with non-military constructs. Only 'Discipline' showed diversity in this context and must be taken into consideration for further military studies. Amongst the predictors of job performance, work engagement was drawn a considerable attention in the 'Effort' component. Hence work engagement may offer a decent area of research for performance studies in military contexts. In addition, results revealed that IOC may have bigger impact,

comparing with the civilian, on individual job performance in military contexts because of the strong existence of data related with collectivism. Therefore, work engagement and IOC have to be further researched in order better understand individual job performance in military contexts.

CHAPTER 4 – WORK ENGAGEMENT AND JOB PERFORMANCE IN MMW: THE MODERATOR ROLE OF IOC

4.1. Introduction

Work engagement and job performance are two essential occupational outcomes for organizations because of their contribution to accomplish the organizational objectives. According to the literature, many occupational studies have found out that work engagement is positively associated with job performance (Bakker & Bal, 2010; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Salanova et al., 2005). However, the question of how do work engagement and job performance relate to each other in different work settings, is yet to be more completely explored (Bakker & Demerouti, 2018). The relationship between employee work engagement and job performance may depend on individual and situational factors, Therefore, we should analyze if different requirements or situational factors of military workplace affect the relationship between employee work engagement and job performance in military contexts.

Previous chapter has shown that military workplaces may have some kind of differences from civilian workplaces regarding employee job performance and may require some other individual differences such as individual orientation to collectivism in order to influence individual job performance. However, there is little work defining the full domain of relationship considering the third variables that are influencing the relationship between job performance and its predictors such as work engagement. Furthermore, there is no existing study examining this relationship in a military work setting. The current study aims to fill this gap by focusing on the influence of individual orientation to collectivism, in the relationship between work engagement and job performance in military contexts.

The present study contributes to the existing literature in the following ways. First, along with the view that positive emotions will transform engagement into high job performance, we examine employee orientation to collectivism playing the moderate role because it influences

the positive emotions of employees. Second, previous studies on work engagement and job performance have been mostly conducted on civilian or national work settings. However, with the globalization effect, the need for performance researches on different type of work settings (e.g. multinational, military) increased dramatically because of the boosting numbers of new type of organizations. The current research combined two unique type of work settings and conducted its research in a multinational military workplace, which will provide more accurate information about the moderator role of IOC in the relation between work engagement and job performance because of the presence of various nations with various collectivism cultural value orientations in a military work environment. Nonetheless, since our level of analysis is individual, instead of cultural level, we will focus on staff officers' orientation to collectivism, which is conceptualized as an individual difference in the literature (cf. Ilies et al., 2007), at individual level.

4.2. Work Engagement in Military Contexts

We represent that concentrating on employee work engagement is worthwhile for any kind of organizations and advantageous for their employees regarding individual improvement and organizational thriving (Eldor & Harpaz, 2016). Work engagement focuses on work performed at a job and represents the willingness to invest personal resources to this work. As Kahn (1990) suggested, an engaged individual is one who approaches the work tasks with a sense of energy and enthusiasm, which should definitely lead into higher levels of job performance. According to the literature, work engagement leads to important job outcomes such as job performance in any kind of work environment (Breevaart et al., 2015). Naturally, this assumption is also valid for military workforce (namely staff officers for this study) and organizations. For instance, Ivey et al. (2015) found that work engagement is associated with positive job outcomes (e.g. willingness to deploy on operations), and negatively linked to turnover intentions in military work environment. These positive and negative job outcomes are clear criterion of soldier job performance in military work context. It is obvious that work engagement should be promoted

in the military setting because of its imminent effect on soldiers' job performance and organizational success (Gillett, Becker, Lafrenière, Huart, & Fouquereau, 2017). In the work engagement literature engaged employees are portrayed with high levels of energy, enthusiasm and active involvement in their work (Eldor, 2017). This state of work engagement behavior is defined by Schaufeli et al. (2002, 2006) with three work engagement components, namely vigor, dedication and absorption. Vigor refers to high levels of energy and mental resilience, dedication means being enthusiastic about work and inspired by the work tasks, and absorption refers to being fully concentrated on work and feeling like time flies when working. Since these components are widely assimilated in the literature, the measurement of employee engagement is generally being done by the use of these three components. These components are also valid in military context because there isn't any known additional or missing work engagement component defined in the literature especially for military work environment. Moreover, researches have shown that Schaufeli et al.'s (2002) view of work engagement also has its place in a nonoperational military setting (Ivey et al., 2015). Therefore, work engagement components of Schaufeli et al. (2002) is used in the current study in order to understand the nature of staff officers' work engagement in military workplace.

However, the antecedents that lead to work engagement can be unique for each work environment and also for military. These antecedents are vital in increasing employee engagement. Like any other organization, military organizations are trying to increase staff officers work engagement level through affecting into these antecedents. For that, the antecedents of the staff officers' work engagement should be very well researched in the unique military work environment. As stated in Chapter 2, job and personal resources are seen by many researchers as the facilitators of work engagement antecedents because employee work engagement is an active, motivational, fulfilling concept that reflects the simultaneous expression of multiple investments of physical, affective, and cognitive resources in work (Eldor & Harpaz, 2016). Together with the development of the work engagement construct, the

study of engagement antecedents and consequences is based on the JD-R model (Borst, Kruyen, & Lako, 2017). The Job demands and resources (JD-R) model is the best model which conceptualizes the motivational relationship between facilitators of motivation (which is the main antecedent of work engagement) and work engagement. Besides, previous researches showed that soldiers' motivation significantly relates to their work engagement (Gillett et al., 2017). Therefore, defining the role of job and personal resources in increasing the staff officers' work engagement through motivational process according to JD-R model plays a significant role for the increasement of work engagement in military workplace.

JD-R model demonstrated that work engagement depends on the resources the employee obtains in the work context (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). There may be many resources available in the military work context but some of them expressed in the literature specifically for military workplaces. Recent studies with military samples (e.g. Castanheira et al., 2016) have indicated that perceived social impact and social worth are relevant and important job resources in explaining soldiers' work engagement in military work settings because of the social significance of the military tasks. "Perceived social impact is the degree to which employees evaluate their actions as having a positive impact on beneficiaries, whereas perceived social worth is the degree to which employees feel those actions are valued by other people (Grant as cited in Castanheira et al., 2016, p. 227)." Military organization's mission is to protect and serve a nation which means to have a clear impact on other people's lives. Thus, soldiers may perceive this social impact and social worth as a valuable resource that fulfills their need for esteem and approval which eventually leads to individual motivation (Castanheira et al., 2016). Perceived social impact and social worth lead to employee prosocial motivation which concerns the desire to have a positive impact on the lives of others. Hence, it is expected that the way staff officers perceive the social impact and social worth of their duties will increase their prosocial motivation which encourages them to engage more in these duties (Castanheira et al., 2016).

Other important job resources for military personnel expressed in the literature are related with teamwork and cooperation which are inherent to military daily tasks (Castanheira et al., 2016). In performing collective tasks, it is a common tendency for individual team members to rely on each other in order to fulfill their own tasks and reach a good team performance (Ellemers, Sleebos, Stam, & De Gilder, 2013). Accordingly, since the majority of the tasks in military workplace are being done in team context together with comrades, fraternal comradeship and interpersonal trust are seen highly important in military teams (Boermans et al., 2014). As a consequence of fraternal comradeship and interpersonal trust, military team members obtain some job resources more easily such as perceived social support and sense of inclusion. According to social identity theory, social identification processes guide the tendency of individuals to think of themselves in terms of the social groups or collectives to which they belong (Ellemers et al., 2013). Thus, when someone is included as a full member of the team and supported by the others, he tends to engage psychologically and behaviorally with the team which resultantly facilitate to obtain a positive team identity (Ellemers et al., 2013). Therefore, it is proposed that members of the military teams who have a positive team identity are likely to engage more in order to contribute to the team's ability to perform well (Ellemers et al., 2013).

On the other hand, the demanding and stressful nature of military work environment may create also high job demands for the military personnel. These high job demands may lead to the disengagement of staff officers in military organizations which could be named as employee burnout. However, Schaufeli et al. (2002) have seen work engagement as a separate concept from burnout. Burnout is characterized with employee exhaustion, cynicism and inefficiency (Fletcher, 2016). According to Knight et al. (2017), burnout and engagement were highly correlated and similarly associated with correlates. Furthermore, Fletcher (2016) argued that work engagement was developed through a deductive and quantitative approach that focused on positioning it as the positive anti-thesis of job burnout. If we put aside the discussions about

burnout, we would prefer to use burnout in referring staff officer's state of disengagement. High job demands in military workplace may not always lead to burnout. Scholars proposed that the effect of resources on work engagement becomes more salient and gains motivational potential when employees are confronted with high job demands as job resources can help goal achievement (Borst et al., 2017).

Morale related studies are also contributing to the conceptualization of the motivational mechanism that leads to employee work engagement because of the positive correlation between morale and work engagement (Ivey et al., 2015). Morale is considered as a very similar phenomena to work engagement regarding their interaction with motivational procedures. Therefore, their similarities as well as differences should be very well understood in order not to be confused. Morale is a work-related construct like work engagement, and it was defined under the positive psychology framework which also includes motivational procedures (Ivey et al., 2015). Morale is defined as "motivation and enthusiasm to perform well within a specified context (such as a military operation)" (Britt, Dickinson, Moore, Castro, & Adler, 2007, p. 35). For Britt et al. (2006, 2007), morale is a positive motivational factor capable of boosting individuals' engagement which leads to better performance under stressful conditions. In accordance, Britt and Dickinson (as cited in Ivey et al., 2015, p. 338) proposed that morale is "a service member's level of motivation and enthusiasm for accomplishing mission objectives". A broader view of morale is "a positive construct that combines feelings of energy with feelings of enthusiasm for accomplishing salient tasks" (Britt et al. as cited in Ivey et al., 2015, p. 338). As above mentioned, definition of morale and Schaufeli et al.'s (2002) definition of work engagement are almost similar or at least have many characteristics in common. Both are viewed as individual psychological phenomena, and both have been portrayed as affective-motivational constructs. As well, both are facilitated through a combination of job resources and personal resources (Ivey et al., 2015). Moreover, both morale and work engagement are related with similar outcomes of employee for the workplace (especially for the military), such

as psychological well-being, performance, persistence under demanding conditions, and retention (Ivey et al., 2015).

As understood both morale and work engagement are associated with similar important outcomes for the military workplace, such as well-being and job performance under demanding and stressful conditions (Ivey et al., 2015). Similar antecedents and outcomes of both concepts may be a usable source of determining relevant job and personal resources for military workplace. Especially performance under demanding and stressful conditions has to be seen in utmost importance for highly demanding and stressful military work environment. Despite their similarities, results of the studies have showed that the two motivational constructs are not interchangeable. The peculiarity of morale from work engagement might be identified by several factors but the most important one is the absorption component of work engagement. Absorption concerns being happily immersed in one's work, which is not salient in morale concept (Ivey et al., 2015). The other two work engagement component (vigor and dedication) is considered valid for the moral concept.

4.3. Nature of Multinational Military Workplace

One of the most important factors that make current study unique is the research environment, namely multinational military workplace. According to literature, the work environment consists not only of the physical setting for work, but also the psychological and social aspects present in that setting (Ripley et al., 2006; Bell, 2008). Gilbert (as cited in Ripley et al., 2006, p. 43) refers to this as “all that surrounds workers as they do their jobs; it is the information, tools, or incentives that support performance”. Macky and Johnson (as cited in Ripley et al., 2006, p. 43) note that the work environment “...includes all the factors and variables external to the individual employee that can impact her or his performance”. Considering the factors and variables as stated in the work environment definitions, it is obvious that MMW differs from

other military, civil and multinational environments in many aspects (“NATO Human Resources Management”, 2012).

Due to the differences of MMW, it is highly probable that employees in MMW will have different work engagement-job performance relationships which deserve to be researched specifically. According to the field theory, employees’ perception of stimuli from the work environment influences their behavior (work engagement) and consequently individual job performance (Ripley et al., 2006). Similarly, according to some studies, employees believe that their effectiveness is influenced by environmental factors of the workplace (Bell, 2008). Another useful theoretical framework for investigating the relationship of work environment and employee behavior is self-determination theory (SDT). SDT proposes that work motivation plays a critical role in employees’ psychological and professional functioning; and the work environment is one of the most effective factors in employee functioning by supporting (or not) employees’ psychological needs (for autonomy, competence, and relatedness) and the quality of their work motivation (Trépanier et al., 2015).

Despite its prominent effect, during the review of literature, contrary to our expectations we have realized that there is a lack of work engagement-job performance studies in MMW as well as lack of knowledge about the unique work environment of MMW. Therefore, understanding the unique characteristics of the MMW appears as a prerequisite in order to better understand the work engagement and job performance relationship. Besides, we hope that describing the nature of MMW will help to the generalization of the results of the study to the organizations which is in similar nature.

Although MMOs exist from the beginning of warfare in different formations and in different types, in our study we are going to take into consideration only the contemporary ones that are established according to the international agreements and show a multinational character. In MMOs, there are three levels of work environment (strategic, operational, and tactical) and in this study MMW refers to strategic/operational level multinational military environment which

stands for HQs of corps and upper commands. Based on the staff officers' expressions during our research in those Multinational HQs and as well as the definitions of work environment and workplace trends (e.g. increase in teamwork, globalization) in the literature (e.g. Shaffer, Harrison, Gregersen, Black, & Ferzandi, 2006); high diversity, high teamwork, high subjective well-being, loose hierarchy and loose performance appraisal have been determined as the most salient features which differentiate MMW from other work environments.

4.3.1. Diversity

Employee diversity is increasingly becoming an important concept for today's organizations. Existing statistics and trends show that employees who are diverse in many aspects (culture, gender, race, etc.) will constitute an increasingly large part of the workforce in the twenty-first century (Knippenberg, De Dreu, & Homan, 2004). In literature "diversity refers to differences between individuals on any attribute that may lead to the perception that another person is different from self" (Knippenberg et al., 2004, p. 1008). Therefore, from theoretical perspective we can say that diversity refers to a large number of dimensions, ranging from age to nationality, from religious background to functional background, from task skills to relational skills, and from political preference to sexual preference. But in practice most diversity research has mainly focused on gender, age, race/ethnicity, tenure, educational background, and functional background (Knippenberg et al., 2004).

Consistent with the trend, social composition of the national or multinational military is becoming more diverse. Realizing that the national or multinational military is a reflection of national societies, statistics depicts that diversity of workforce is on the rise in the armed services (Moon, 1997). MMWs are increasingly consisting of people from different nationalities in internationally operating organizations (Fink, Neyer, Kölling, & Meierewert, 2004). Manpower differentiation of NATO in years is one of the salient examples of the increasing workforce diversity in MMWs. In 1949, NATO was established by 12 nations but now it includes 29-member nations and nearly 40 partnership nations all over the world which

proportionally contribute to the NATO manpower. Besides, NATO's missions with the multinational military forces increased tremendously just after 1990. Also, the increasing number of female staff officers in MMOs manpower is another aspect of diversity as in national armies.

Increased diversity in manpower and employing multinational military missions in different areas of the world pan out a significant change in MMW. However, when compared with multinational civilian organizations, situation is different for multinational military organizations in this globalized expansion process. Multinational military organizations are functioning according to the international agreements and because of these agreements the manning positions in the workplace are to be allocated to all contributing nations. For example, in NATO, each workplace manning is allocated to 28-member nations and for some workplaces specific positions are allocated to partnership nations. Because of this manning policy in MMOs, the diversity of the manpower in MMW is increasing with the membership of every country.

Individual differences and diversity have long been recognized as important for effective group performance (Hackett, 2002). Cox (as cited in Moon, 1997) described the effect of diversity on organizational performance as "a set of individual, group and organizational factors interact to influence a set of individual outcomes that in turn influence organizational outcomes" (p. 11). Generic assumption for most management strategy is that diverse groups can compile together the diversity of information, backgrounds, and values as needed and produce an effective organizational action (Karen, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999). However, work-group diversity may have negative as well as positive effects on group performance (Knippenberg et al., 2004) and the effects of diversity can be more significant for organizations as their employees become more heterogeneous (Brown III, Knouse, Stewart, & Beale, 2009). Particularly the researches working on diversity distribution find that job performance either don't enhance, or even decrease, as the level of inclusion of subgroups increase because of the rising in cohesion and

problems on group identity and interaction (Brown III et al., 2009). Therefore, diverse contributions of the group must be managed successfully if organization wants to make a benefit or use from this diversity (Karen et al., 1999).

Evidence of diversity between military personnel has been found by a comparative study of military academies in eighteen countries, including NATO countries and also some other eastern European and Latin–American countries (Soeters & Recht, 2001). In this study, structured on the Hofstede-approach (Hofstede, 1980), it turned out to be certain that national diversity between military cultures are at any rate as far reaching as in civilian business and public administration organizations (Soeters & Recht, 2001). This diversity creates problems for MMOs because of a lack of common language based on occupational areas, ranks and grades, and result in skill mismatch and individual as well as team performance decrease (“NATO Human Resources Management”, 2012). It may consequently lead to a lack of cultural interoperability within MMO which may harm the success of multinational military missions. Furthermore, these cultural or value-related differences may even be connected to particularly hard events such as the loss of military manpower in the operations (Soeters & Recht, 2001).

It is obvious that the need of effectively managing diversity in MMWs is a necessity for the MMOs. This study firstly focuses to the positive or negative effects of diversity on individual work engagement and job performance or on the relationship between these variables in order to propose some eligible solutions for the negative effects. According to the results of Karen et al. (1999) multi-method field study of 92 workgroups, informational diversity may enhance group performance, social category diversity may have an effect on performance positively or negatively based on the coherence of the group, and value diversity may decrease performance, morale and effectiveness based on the poorer performance perception.

In literature there are several models for managing diversity in order to get potential benefits and to hinder negative effects of work force diversity. One of the most eligible models is Categorization-Elaboration Model proposed by Knippenberg et al., (2004) which suggests

diversity management should focus on supporting elaboration and on preventing intergroup biases that are associated with negative affective – evaluative reactions to the group and its members and that may hinder elaboration of task-relevant information. Therefore, this study proposes that employees who have an individual orientation to collectivism may support the suggestions of Categorization-Elaboration Model. The particular effect of IOC to work engagement and job performance relationship in diverse MMW will be explained in the following sections of this chapter. Among the features of MMW, diversity is considered as the most salient one. In the next part of the study other salient features of MMW will be addressed.

4.3.2. Other salient features of MMW (teamwork, well-being, appraisal, relations)

In recent decades teams have become increasingly important for organizations in creating high-quality solutions to occurring problems (Karen et al., 1999). Accordingly, most of the works in MMOs has started to be done by appointed working teams, groups or boards. MMOs now mostly rely on cross-functional teams consisting of planners, operation officers, logistics, and information systems managers to develop and execute projects tailored for multinational complex operations (“NATO Human Resources Management”, 2012). Naturally, performance of the team members is playing a critical role in this situation because of the decision-making procedure within the team. High-quality team performance requires that team members share their ideas stemming from their own expertise on involved issues, take into consideration perspectives of other team members on their area of expertise, feed the result of this interaction back to the team, and through integration of perspectives design the optimal product. Due to this process, individual performance of the team members signifies the level of the team performance.

From a theoretical perspective, aspects of work involving interactions with others (i.e., Facilitating Peer and Team Performance) is one of the eight basic performance dimensions proposed by Campbell (1990) to describe the highest structure or taxonomy of job performance. Consistent with Campbell’s (1990) findings, this study interested with teamwork only in the

scope of its effects on employee work engagement-job performance relationship in MMW. It is obvious that employees who are eligible to perform at a high level within a team context are essential for the success of MMOs. Some researchers found out that employees with specific traits could be more suitable for jobs involving interactions with others and showing performance in teamwork. These finding highlights the critical role of personal values in team-based performance settings and has important implications both for developing theories of work performance and for selecting employee (Mount et al., 1998). Therefore, we have considered that IOC could be an important individual value for the team members in MMW for showing high performance during the teamwork.

The second salient feature that characterizes MMW is the high subjective well-being (SWB). SWB is defined as individuals' assessments of their lives, both subjective evaluations and reactions (moods and feelings) to occasions; such as job satisfaction and absence of job stress (Tenney et al., 2016). By definition, the level of SWB in MMW should be evaluated according to the behaviors of the employees. Nearly all of them are volunteered and very enthusiastic for getting an appointment in MMO. Moreover, most of them would like to extent the time of their stay in MMO assignments. These behaviors should be evaluated as the clear indications of high SWB in MMW. However, there also should be some basic causes for the emergence of high SWB. The most important one is the high salary of the staff officers comparing with their salaries in national assignments. Even so, employees don't encounter as much workload and stress as national assignments; and having much more holidays in MMW.

At the individual level, there is convincing evidence that employees with higher SWB have a tendency to show high performance in the workplace. This finding is uncovered by many researchers (Tenney et al., 2016). A meta-analysis found that stress was conversely related with individual performance, including task performance (e.g., productivity and proficiency); contextual performance (e.g., helping others; going above and beyond); and supervisor or peer-rated performance (Tenney et al., 2016). Furthermore, longitudinal studies suggest a reliable

effect of high income to high performance by contributing to high SWB at workplace (Tenney et al., 2016). Therefore, it should be expected that employees in MMW would show higher performance than their national assignments. However, this seems highly doubtful according to our observations in MMW and staff officer interviews. Also, some researches in literature found out that certain workplace mediators and moderators could explain why the relationship between SWB, and performance is relatively small (Tenney et al., 2016). This unusual situation which is against the general expectations of the researchers and most of the findings of previous SWB researches has created the main part of the research problem of the study.

The third distinguishing feature of MMW is its appraisal system which includes job performance evaluations, commendations and reprimands of the employees. Commendations represents that the members are performing well and showing extraordinary task or citizenship behaviors, whereas reprimands represent that the members receiving them are showing low performance or counterproductive behaviors (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Commendation and reprimand system in MMOs are not that effective on job performance as in national armed forces. Commendations are given very rare and have a limited effect on employee performance. Reprimands are even worse. There isn't any defined reprimand for an employee who is ill-performing in MMW.

Employee performance evaluations are the most important part of the appraisal systems and are considered as an influential tool for managing employee performance (DeNisi & Pritchard 2006). However, in MMWs performance evaluations are mostly used to determine the future training needs of personnel and to select the correct people for promotion and postings ("NATO Human Resources Management", 2012); rather than increasing the staff officers' job performance in short time. Generally, MMOs lack that kind of performance improvement-oriented evaluation systems and also common employee evaluation criteria of their staff officers unlike non-military organizations ("NATO Human Resources Management", 2012). There are only some unmeasurable factors which are defined as essential qualifications in job

descriptions of the positions. Even worse, every country may apply its own internal evaluation process based on national evaluation criteria and it may ineffectively synchronize with the MMO command structure. The final evaluation of employees in internal evaluation process mostly being done by the Senior National Officers in the MMO who mostly doesn't have the chance to monitor the performance of the staff officers in their workplace. Although some MMOs have established their own internal evaluation procedures in order to influence this national evaluation processes, at the end it is up to Senior National Officers to take this internal evaluation into consideration. Therefore, the work engagement and job performance behavior of employees in MMW may suffer from an ineffective performance appraisal system.

The relations between the employees of MMW are significantly different compared with the relations of employees in other military or non-military organizations. According to socio-analytic theory people always work in groups, and groups are always structured in terms of status hierarchies (Hogan & Holland, 2003). This theory suggests the existence of two broad motive patterns that translate into behavior like "get along with other members of the workplace" and to "get ahead or achieve status vis-a`-vis other members of the workplace" (Hogan & Holland, 2003). "Getting along" was defined as behavior that facilitates cooperation, ensure acceptance of others and establish relationships. "Getting ahead" was defined as behavior that creates results and rise in hierarchy (Hogan & Holland, 2003).

In MMW, employees don't have the chance to "get ahead" because nations are appointing their staff officers to MMO for a certain time and for a certain position ("NATO Human Resources Management", 2012). In this limited time, there is very little chance to advance in the hierarchy. So, "get ahead" is not a valid motive pattern for the employees of MMW for improving their work engagement and job performance behavior. On the other hand, "get along" is a highly desired motive pattern for MMW in order to decrease the frictions in its highly diverse environment. Definitely hierarchy between employees plays significant role in the "get along" behaviors. In the military context, the supervisor– employee relationship is based on submission

to the hierarchy (Gillet et al., 2017). But such a hierarchy based on seniority or strict command relations do not exist between employees of MMW though military rank differences. Even appointed Chiefs may not have a full command or performance appraisal authority on staff officers which is very usual in normal national military structures (“NATO Human Resources Management”, 2012). This loose hierarchical structure has inevitable implications on performance behaviors of MMW employees.

As the features High SWB and loose appraisal system, loose hierarchical relation is decreasing the stress and increasing the job satisfaction of employees in MMW (Gillet et al., 2017). However, in contrast to general expectations, employee job performance has always assumed lower in MMWs compared to national armies. This particular situation, which is dominant in MMW and has undoubtedly influences on employee work engagement and job performance behaviors, is the main problem of this study. Individual Orientation to Collectivism of staff officers may facilitate the “get along” motive pattern.

4.4. Work Engagement and Job Performance in MMW

In this section we discuss the relation between work engagement and performance in a unique work setting, MMW, at an individual level. As our literature review demonstrated, a wide range of work engagement and job performance perspectives has been proposed and tested in various levels (individual, team or organizational). However, perspectives in this section focus on different types of processes between work engagement and job performance only in individual level. We would like to address the MMW aspect of these theoretical perspectives in order to better understand the relation between employee work engagement and job performance in this unique work environment.

In our general literature review, we have touched especially upon the perspectives that are relating work engagement to job performance. Unlike JD-R model, these theories are not predicting work engagement but explaining the process between work engagement state of employee and his job performance. Most of the theories in the literature propose that the link

between work engagement and job performance is always positive. They expect that work engagement would be positively and directly associated with job performance in all circumstances (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Makikangas et al., 2016). This notion is supported many times by the considerable body of evidence (Christian et al., 2011). So, we have enough incentive at hand for believing that this direct relationship also occurs in MMW. However, the question about the relation of work engagement with performance dimensions still remains also for MMW. Which performance dimension (task, contextual, counterproductive and adaptive) is related mostly with the employee work engagement? Generally, engaged employees tend to prioritize in-role tasks in workplaces (Christian et al., 2011). In MMW, employees are assigned their positions only to accomplish in-role tasks that are written in their job descriptions and they aren't obliged to obey to accomplish extra-role tasks. Therefore, measuring the tasks performance of employees in MMW gives us the exact idea about their requested level of job performance.

Work engagement consists of being physically, emotionally, and cognitively engrossed in work via a motivational process through which employees allocate personal resources intensely and persistently toward job performance in their work environment (Zhong et al., 2015). Accordingly, many perspectives in the literature have defined three overarching mechanisms relating work engagement to job performance. As we have stated in Chapter 2, these are emotional, cognitive and behavioral mechanisms. Emotional mechanism is the most frequently referred mechanism in this relationship. Two underlying perspectives, broaden and build theory and the happy productive worker hypothesis, have studied in Chapter 2 in order to explain the emotional relation between work engagement and job performance. Broaden and build theory suggests that engaged employees already carry positive emotions which lead to work motivation and increase of personal resources. The increase of personal resources yields also an increase in job performance. Happy-productive hypothesis propose that engaged employees are also characterized as happy workers which leads to employee work motivation. These happy

and motivated workers undoubtedly will be more productive and show high performance. These underlying perspectives of motivational process are predominantly researched in many work environments and clearly proved to be stronger than other processes that explain the relationship between work engagement and job performance. Emotional mechanism is also being supported by the motivational studies conducted in military environment (e.g. Gillet et al., 2017). Therefore, we expect that the same emotional mechanism also exists between individual work engagement and job performance also in MMW. The other two mechanisms, cognitive and behavioral, are also deeply related with the Broaden and Build Theory. According to this theory, positive elements of work engagement enhance individual momentary thought–action repertoires which resultantly lead to job performance. Thus, thought repertoires of the theory underly the cognitive and action repertoires underly the behavioral mechanisms which are both also valid for MMW.

Until now in this section, we have explained that the positive relationship between work engagement and job performance is abundantly researched and proved by many theoretical perspectives in the literature. However, there are moderators that might influence this relationship. These moderators could explain why the relationship between work engagement and job performance may vary. In our previous study, we found out that employee orientation to collectivism could be a possible moderater for job performance in military contexts because of the interventions that we found in the study for enhancing job performance. The interventions such as teamwork, cooperation, and taking supervisors and peers as role models are highly associated with employees' IOC. In addition, the features of MMW such as diversity, teamwork, high SWB, loose appraisal system and loose hierarchy that we explained in previous section may force MMOs to employ individuals with high collectivistic orientation in order to influence job performance in a positive direction. Hence, we are going to analyze the impact of individual orientation to collectivism (IOC) of staff officers as an individual level moderator of the relationship between work engagement and job performance in MMW. We expect that IOC

plays a significant role over the relationship because of the multinational and highly diverse nature of the MMW.

4.5. The Moderator Role of IOC

In recent decades, collectivism has become increasingly important for organizations because they have identified over time the incontrovertible role of employees' orientation to collectivism in reaching the organizational goals. Hence, together with individualism, collectivism is the most researched (88%) variable amongst the Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimension variables (O'Neill et al., 2015). Organizational psychology studies are one of these research groups that are focusing on the effect of individualism-collectivism on occupational behaviors. They claim that collectivism plays a significant role in orienting employees towards the organizational goals (e.g. Tavares, van Knippenberg, & van Dick, 2016). For instance, social identity theory suggests that collectivist employees have a high level of organizational identification which cause willingness to obey authorities, to comply with rules and regulations, to feel included into the group and to show cooperative behavior in organizations (Ellemers et al., 2013). Especially cooperative behavior becomes higher for the organizations working in team context because orientation to collectivism enhance individuals' propensities to cooperate within the team (Dierdorff et al., 2011). As a consequence of organizational identification, collectivistic employees also experience organizational interests as self-interest, because of the psychological linkage they set with the organization (Tavares et al., 2016). Hence, collectivistic employees become more prone to think and work for the good of the team/organization and organizational positive outcomes. The situation is not different for military organizations because some studies in military organizations have verified similar behaviors for the collectivistic military employees (e.g. Bjørnstad & Ulleberg, 2017). The growing number of multinational military organizations and the growing diversity within these organizations increase the need and urgency for employees with collectivistic orientation in order to orient and cooperate the workforce towards organizational positive outcomes.

Employee engagement and performance, which have been investigated previously in this study, are amongst the main and vital precedents of the organizational outcomes. However, studies have shown that the level of work engagement and job performance may differ among individuals (Erdoğan & Liden, 2006). Researchers assume that this difference stems from third variables such as individual differences. Individualism or collectivism orientation has been identified as one of these individual differences. Thus, effects of employee IOC in the relationship between work engagement and job performance in MMW are included in our study. In the next section, as an entrance to the topic we discuss the theoretical framework of collectivism in the literature in order to better understand the effect of staff officers' IOC in work engagement and job performance relationship in MMW.

4.5.1. Collectivism orientation

Collectivism orientation is conceptualized as the opposite of individualism and most of the time they are used together in the literature. Thus, individualism – collectivism is understood as a bipolar dimension ranging from individualism at one end to collectivism at the other end (e.g., Hofstede, 1980). Individualism – collectivism owes its reputation largely to Hofstede's (1980) cross-cultural study which introduced it as one of four major cultural dimensions (i.e power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty). Hofstede (1980) developed an overview consisting of these four common dimensions, which he determined were the most important in explaining differences between cultures. Since then, many scholars have continued to use the findings of Hofstede and investigated individualism – collectivism as a cultural dimension. Some others have developed new scales (e.g. Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE)) based on Hofstede's cultural dimensions and other findings. According to this group of scholars, I-C is a cultural characteristic of a society. As such, Hofstede (1980) originally defined I-C as: "Individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family. Collectivism as its opposite pertains to societies in which people from

birth onward are integrated into strong, cohesive ingroups, which throughout peoples' lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty" (p.51). Afterwards, Marcus & Le (2013) have integrated culture-based definitions of many prominent scholars and defined I-C as "Individualism is typified by loose ties between individuals, self-reliance, and the formation of tendencies to separate, isolate, and alienate the self, the urge to master one's environment and emphasize the self over the collective. Conversely, Collectivism refers to norms that emphasize the group over the individual, where people are congenitally integrated into strong, cohesive ingroups, and is manifested in the formation of tendencies toward contact, openness, and union, and emphasizes the collective over the self" (p. 814).

Some other scholars have conceptualized I-C as individual-difference variables and proposed that both are individual psychological dimensions which correspond to the constructs at the cultural level (Jackson et al., 2006). In recent decades the individual-difference based perspective of I-C has become more common in organizational and occupational behavior, with I-C studies which are conducted within one culture or in multicultural workplaces focusing on individual rather than cultural differences (Jackson et al., 2006). This group of scholars have identified I-C as a cultural value orientation of individuals. According to them, individualism is a cultural value orientation wherein personal goals are prioritized over the goals of the group or organization (Hofstede, 1980; Jackson et al., 2006; Ilies et al., 2007; O'Neill et al., 2015). Those who are more oriented to individualism prioritize their self-interest and their self-concepts are mostly dependent on individual-based, rather than group-based, evaluations. In contrast, IOC is a cultural value orientation wherein the collective goals are prioritized over personal goals, and coherence among group members is emphasized (Hofstede, 1980; Jackson et al., 2006; Ilies et al., 2007; O'Neill et al., 2015). Those who are more oriented to collectivism, are more likely to tie themselves with the norms of the group and care about the evaluations of the group members.

Levels of collectivism

At this point it is important to note that so far, we have only concerned ourselves with individual-level conceptualizations of work engagement and job performance in accordance with the individual level of our study. Hence, as the third variable of our study, collectivism should also be handled in individual level. However, note that collectivism is not necessarily only an individual-level concept, rather have societal/cultural and organizational levels which may have different effects in individual level occupational behaviors such as work engagement and job performance. That is, concepts of each collectivism level do not necessarily correlate with each other and may have different implications (Taris & Schaufeli, 2015). This situation can cause a problem for the researchers because a study can't be clearly formulized if its level of analysis is not clearly determined. More information about the levels of collectivism helps us to understand the difference of individual level concepts from the societal and organizational level concepts; and help us underline our individual level analyses.

Societal/Cultural-level I-C

Hofstede (1980) originally conceptualized I-C as a societal/cultural-level construct together with the other three cultural variables (i.e power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty). Hofstede (1980) defined culture as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another” (p. 25) and stated I-C as one of the distinguishing cultural characteristics of societies. In other words, as a societal/cultural-level construct, I-C reflects the shared meaning system that characterizes a culture (Marcus & Le, 2013). According to societal/cultural-level construct, if a society values to work together in achieving collective goals rather than fostering individuals to prioritize their personal goals, we could call it as a collectivist society characterized by collectivist culture. After Hofstede's original conceptualization, I-C has gained remarkable attention from the scholars as a meaningful way to distinguish societies and their people. However, in time the variation between I-C studies have forced scholars to investigate I-C in different levels.

Organizational-level I-C

Organizational-level I-C is a dimension of organizational culture which is briefly defined as “the basic assumptions about the world and the values that guide life in organizations” (Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013, p. 361). According to the Model of Culture Fit, organizational culture is formed by many effects existing inside or outside the organization (Aycan et al., 2000). Societal culture is one of these variables and has some influence on organizational culture, but it is not the only determinant (Schneider et al., 2013). As such, it won't be wrong to express that organizational-level I-C is embodied in the values and practices adopted by organizations from many variables inside or outside the organization (Marcus & Le, 2013). Individualistic organizations place value on accomplishing individual goals and reward employees on the basis of their individual achievements. On the other hand, collectivistic organizations place value on realizing collective/organizational goals and reward employees' joint contributions to organizational accomplishments (Earley & Gibson, 1998). In collectivistic organizations, important decisions are made in groups, successes and failures from these decisions' rests within groups, jobs and responsibilities are shared. Conversely, in individualistic organizations, important decisions are made individually, successes and failures from these decisions' rests within the individual and jobs are shared according to personal responsibilities (Marcus & Le, 2013).

Individual-level I-C

As stated before, I-C was originally used to refer to characteristics of societies. Then in time, it has used also to refer to characteristics of individuals in order to distinguish their orientation to collectivism or individualism independent of the societal culture in which they live (Marcus & Le, 2013). Many individual-centered analyses have aimed to identify the belonging of the people in a particular individualist or collectivist typology (O'Neill et al., 2015). Because they suggest that even the society has individualism or collectivism orientations, there are individualists and collectivists in every society, simply as a result of differing environmental

factors. Therefore, it is very important for I-C researchers to determine the level of their study beforehand not to make a generalization mistake. In individual level construct, “individualists define the self as autonomous, place personal goals ahead of group goals, exhibit attitude-driven behavior, and are task oriented. Conversely, collectivists view the self in terms of how connected they are to in-groups, subordinate personal goals to collective goals, exhibit norm-driven behavior, and are relationship oriented” (Marcus & Le, 2013, p. 814). Individualists look after themselves and tend to ignore group interests if such interests conflict with their own personal desires, and collectivists let the demands and interests of groups take precedence over their own personal desires and needs (Marcus & Le, 2013). To avoid the concept complexity, Triandis (as cited in Jackson et al., 2006) introduced at the individual level, the term “idiocentrism” to emphasize the personal tendencies toward individualism and “allocentrism” to emphasize the personal tendencies toward collectivism.

In this study we would like to avoid creating confusion regarding the levels of I-C and therefore focus only to the individual level of I-C as we have done with the other variables (i.e. work engagement, job performance) of the study and examine I-C construct as an individual characteristic of employees in MMW. In fact, this is consistent with the overall employee-oriented approach of this research. Three specific reasons can be claimed for supporting the individual level of analysis in this study. First, some researchers (e.g., Soeters, 1997) found out that Hofstede’s society level construct of I-C doesn’t fit to military samples and people in the military are different from other cohorts of society in regard to individualism – collectivism. Bjørnstad & Ulleberg (2017) compared the findings of Hofstede (1980) in a civilian sample and Soeters (1997) in an international military sample; and figured out considerable differences between. These findings are also appropriate with the investigation and observation of this study. Hence, an individual level analysis seems more relevant than a societal level analysis in order to understand the I-C cultural value orientation of employees in MMW. Second, an individual level analysis is more sensitive to the possible effects of culture on the behavior of

particular people than the society level analyses that treat all of the members of a culture as the same (Cohen & Keren, 2008). Society level researches lacks the approach to directly assess the influence of personal factors on individuals' I-C cultural value orientation, making it difficult to determine the sources of any individual variation. Because individuals raised in the same culture may have different cultural values (Erdogan & Liden, 2006), it is important to directly assess the cultural value orientation of individuals. Third, an individual level analysis in MMW regarding I-C construct is also appropriate from the practical implications point of view. MMOs are accepting their members according to their political or military interests rather than cultural harmony. As such, a society level research in MMW may not offer any practical implication for MMOs. On the other side, MMOs have authority (even limited) for applying some individual or organizational level practices to their employees in order to reach better individual or organizational outcomes. Therefore, it seems relevant and beneficial to conduct an individual level research in an MMW context for determining individual and organizational level practices. By adopting an employee-centered view of individualism and collectivism orientation instead of traditional society level approach, MMOs can identify reliable patterns within particular types of people for personal selection, evaluation and directing employees to positive occupational and organizational outcomes. However, a more important issue that needs to be explored after clarifying the level of I-C for this study is determining whether individualism or collectivism orientation of the staff officers more beneficial for obtaining positive individual occupational outcomes in MMW.

Individualism or collectivism

So far, individualism and collectivism cultural dimensions have been used together in this study and no clear distinction has been made between two. Only in the beginning of this section a superficial assessment has been made about the importance of the collectivism cultural dimension for the employees and organizations. In this part of the section, we would like to deepen our understanding in this matter at the individual level within the multinational military

workplace context. First of all, it is clear that nearly all of the MMOs (e.g. UN, NATO) have both individualist or collectivist societies as members. For example, Turkey and Germany are both members of NATO, but Turkey belongs to the collectivist culture cluster and Germany belongs to the individualist culture cluster according to Hofstede (1980). Both countries have employees in NATO HQs, and they should work together in harmony. On the other side, MMOs are and should be collectivist organizations in nature because of their specifications, which we have discussed in the previous part of this section, they own. What is the situation of individualism or collectivism orientation in these organizations at the individual level which is also the research level of our study? Considering the orientations at the society and organizational level, which one of the individualism or collectivism cultural value orientation of employees is more beneficial for obtaining the best positive occupational and organizational outcomes in MMW?

It is likely that either individualism or collectivism will tend to be most salient for a given employee (O'Neill et al., 2015) because there is little evidence of equal levels of individualism and collectivism in the literature. Therefore, we should identify a staff officer in MMW either with an individualistic or a collectivistic orientation. An individualistic employee tends to emphasize own goals over those of their group or organization. In contrast, a collectivistic employee tends to emphasize the needs and goals of the group over self-interests (Cohen & Keren, 2008). Based on this general definition, we assume that collectivism value orientation of staff officers is more fruitful and beneficial for the employee and organizational outcomes in MMW.

Some specific reasons can be claimed for supporting our assumption. First, some researchers have found out that collectivist employees are keener to cooperate in a collectivistic organizational culture such as MMO than an individualistic organizational culture (Marcus & Le, 2013). While cooperation is one of the main antecedents of positive occupational outcomes

in collectivist organizations, we assume that collectivist employees are more likely to be successful in a collectivistic organizational context.

Second, in multi-cultural environments like MMW, cultural value differences may cause different employee behaviors (Bell, 2008) which can be seen as the source of mis cooperation between employees at workplace. However, cooperation is one of the distinguishing factors of multi-cultural organizations (Cox & Tung, 1997). For instance, NATO Headquarters' (HQs) well-functioning and effectiveness is heavily dependent upon employees cooperating across diverse national cultures (Bjørnstad & Ulleberg, 2017). Collectivism is one of the most central aspects of cultural value differences that may have an impact on employee cooperation within and across different cultures at workplace (Hofstede, 1980). Some researches proved that if culturally different employees focus on group achievement and group goals in a collectivistic manner, they can achieve significantly higher levels of cooperation and resultantly better occupational and organizational outcomes (Schneider et al., 2013) by generating from the culturally heterogeneous group of employees a diverse set of recommended approaches to tasks which in turn stimulates effective group discussion and leads ultimately to high quality decisions (Ely & Thomas, 2001).

Third, employees with a collectivistic orientation are more tending to be good and beneficial team members, especially when teamwork is a distinguishing factor of the workplace is (Earley & Gibson, 1998). Because collectivists base their self-understanding on the value their in-group puts on their activities, behavior for a collectivist will always favor the team. Besides, collectivistic individuals depend on social settings which makes it easier for them to identify themselves with the team and stick to the team goals (Dierdorff et al., 2011). In contrast, individualists favor the independence from in-group ideas and personal achievements (Cohen & Keren, 2008). Therefore, for employees with higher levels of collectivism, it is important to belong a team and be a good member at a workplace like MMW which favors teamwork as a distinguishing workplace specification (Cox & Tung, 1997).

As a conclusion, based on the above explanations, since staff officers with collectivistic orientation are more likely to obtain positive occupational and organizational outcomes in MMW context, it is important to note that from now on we have only concerned ourselves with individual-level conceptualization of collectivism value orientation in this study. For every organization, two of the most important occupational outcomes are work engagement and job performance which we have addressed comprehensively in the previous sections. In the next section, we combine these two occupational outcomes with collectivism value orientation and discuss the moderator role of IOC in the relationship between work engagement and job performance in MMW.

4.5.2. The moderator role of IOC in the relationship between work engagement and job performance in MMW

Job performance is generally defined in the occupational literature as the required individual outcomes and behaviors in order to realize organizational goals (Campbell, 1990; Campbell et al., 1993). To show a good job performance, employees should have to highly engage in activities at work (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli, 2012). Strong research evidence exists in the literature for a positive link between work engagement and job performance in individual level. However, the relationship between work engagement and job performance is not always certainly positive and has been found to vary across studies (for a meta-analysis, see Christian et al., 2011), proposing that this relation might be due to third variables. Kahn (1990) proposed individual factors as third variables that influence the psychological experience of work which drives employee work behavior such as work engagement and job performance. Thus, it is possible that employee engagement at work leads to job performance, particularly with the influence of some individual factors. For instance, researchers proposed that workers' self-efficacy beliefs influence the relationship between work engagement and job performance because in the absence of a strong self-efficacy beliefs, even the more well-minded employee efforts may not lead to job performance (Alessandri et al, 2015). This kind of propositions have

triggered the tendency for research identifying the moderators that promote or impede the relationship between employee work engagement and job performance (Eldor, 2017). In the current study, we expect that individuals' orientation to collectivism can be one of these moderators especially in multinational military work settings because many studies in the literature suggest that the extent to which collectivism orientations are related to individual outcomes may depend on the cultural values employees hold (Erdogan & Liden, 2006).

According to the literature, employees' orientation to collectivism may moderate (intensify, weaken, or reverse) the relationship between work engagement and job performance in some particular ways. First, employees' orientation to collectivism may moderate the relationship by influencing the link between engaged employee's willingness to invest effort in work (vigor) and his job performance. Collectivistic employees are good team members and inclined to work in groups, more open to collaboration and cooperation with their peers in the workplace comparing with the individualistic (Bjørnstad & Ulleberg, 2017). The desire of collectivistic team members to invest effort (vigor) into the achievement of team goals is crucial for peer and team performance (Ellemers et al., 2013). That is important for the success of an organization or a team because employees need to be prepared to help their peers and team members in order to accomplish the organizational/team goals (Motowidlo et al., 1997). Especially in work environments like MMW, wherein most of the jobs are being done by teams, collaboration and cooperation between staff officers or helping each other is at most importance for team and organizational performance and also it is a predictor of individual performance. Collectivistic employees are more likely to participate in this kind of collaborative work tasks which signifies a good portion of their job performance in a team setting. Thus, the relationship between staff officers' work engagement and job performance in MMW may be influenced by their IOC which may increase their willingness to invest effort in collaborative work tasks.

Second, employees' orientation to collectivism may moderate the relationship between work engagement and job performance by influencing the link between engaged employee's

involvement to work (dedication) and his job performance. Dedicated employees experience a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge in their jobs which leads to job performance (Schaufeli, 2012). Similarly, collectivists are more likely to experience a sense of significance, inspiration and pride at work because of their propensity to identify themselves within the group/organizational identity. Thus, collectivistic employees personalize the criterion of the group and possess strong connections to the group/organization which increase feelings of responsibility and commitment to the organization and hinder showing counterproductive and withdrawal behavior (Britt et al., 2006, Jackson et al., 2006). Collectivism orientation of employees not only negatively affects counterproductive or withdrawal behavior but also positively affects their task performance and citizenship behavior. Because of identifying themselves with group/organizational identity, the propensity to work in groups and their concern about group welfare, collectivists prioritize group/organizational goals more easily at work which facilitates directing their engagement towards the organizational goals. As a consequence, collectivistic employees are more likely to show a high level of task performance and citizenship behavior (Jackson et al., 2006) by dedicating themselves to the work tasks serving the goals of the group/organization rather than in other unnecessary work tasks. In other words, collectivistic employees perform their tasks better, contribute more discretionary citizenship, and are less likely to engage in counterproductive or withdrawal behaviors (Jackson et al., 2006). They are more likely to dedicate themselves to the appropriate tasks that has fallen into their responsibility because they experience a sense of significance, inspiration and pride in their job which stems from their collectivistic orientation. Therefore, it is more likely that staff officers' orientation to collectivism intensify their work engagement and job performance relationship in MMW by influencing their dedication to work. Third, employees' orientation to collectivism may moderate the relationship between work engagement and job performance by influencing the link between engaged employee's state of positive emotions (e.g. happiness, joy, enthusiasm, interest) and job performance. Engaged

employees often experience positive emotions such as happiness, joy, interest, and enthusiasm (Schaufeli, 2012). According to Fredrickson's (2001) broaden-and-build theory, these positive emotions may broaden people's momentary thought-action repertoires and resultantly build their personal resources (e.g. social relationships, self-efficacy) through enhancing the array of thoughts and actions that come to mind. At the end, employees' job performance may increase with the help of these personal resources. At this point, employees' IOC may have an influence on easily building some personal resources such as social relationships because IOC is a facilitator of positive social relationships. As such, it has been widely accepted that collectivists emphasize relationships with in-group members (Breevaart et al., 2015). From a social exchange theory perspective, "collectivists' concern for and reliance on group members should foster a social exchange relationship, which in turn has been argued to encourage more prosocial discretionary behaviors" (Jackson et al., 2006, p. 895) such as cooperation and helping each other which are essential for establishing positive social relationships in the workplace. Thus, we expect that staff officers' IOC may moderate the relationship between their work engagement and job performance in MMW by facilitating to obtain some personal resources such as positive social relationship.

In sum, based on the literature and theoretical framework discussed above, we assume that although staff officers' work engagement is positively associated with job performance in MMW, their IOC may have an influence on that relationship. Therefore, we set our second hypothesis as:

Hypothesis: Staff officers' IOC moderates the relationship between work engagement and job performance in MMW, such that this relationship will be stronger for staff officers with higher levels of IOC.

4.6. Method

4.6.1. Procedure and participants

Using a multi-source correlational study design, we collected data in different headquarters of a multi-national military organization (MMO). Data was reported by two different sources: staff officers and their relevant supervisor. Participation was voluntary and anonymous. The study was advertised through team meetings and personal emails to staff officers. In these communications, we described the goals of the study, which was promised to be completely confidential and that no one in the organization management would know who had participated in the study.

Participants were from all functional areas (e.g. personal, finance, information) of geographically different headquarters of the MMO. Four hundred staff officers were invited to participate. One hundred and fifty staff officers completed the questionnaire (37.5% return rate). After that, we asked 33 supervisors of the 150 staff officers to complete evaluation forms about the performance levels of the staff officers in their job. Afterwards the researcher matched the supervisors' evaluations with the appropriate staff officer questionnaires, thereby maintaining the participants' anonymity. There was no need to exclude any case due to inappropriate fill, since all the surveys were filled properly. Each supervisor rated as average of five officers (SD=4.25, Min=1, Max=22).

The vast majority of the staff officers' sample was comprised of male officers (90%). Around 41% of the participants were between 40 and 49 years old (M = 36.25, SD = 25.55). While 60% of the officers had a graduate degree, 28% were bachelors or equivalent. Similarly, the majority of the supervisors was male (92%). However, they were younger when compared to the officers' sample: 76% were between 30 and 39 years old (M = 11, SD = 12.48). The majority of supervisors had a graduate degree (91%) and only 9% had a bachelor or equivalent degree.

Both the majority of officers (42.7%) and supervisors (60.6%) had two years of experience in the organization. Demographic information is presented in detail in Table 4.

Table 4. Demographic Characteristics of Officers' Sample and Their Supervisors

Variables	Groups	Officers		Supervisors	
		n	%	n	%
Gender	Male	135	90%	31	94%
	Female	15	10%	2	6%
Education	Bachelor or equivalent	42	28%	3	9%
	Graduate Degree	88	60.7%	30	91%
	Unspecified	17	11.3%	-	-
Age	20-29	8	5.2%	-	-
	30-39	52	38%	25	76%
	40-49	61	40.6%	7	21%
	50+	24	16%	1	3%
Organiz. Tenure	1 year	47	31.3%	8	24.2%
	2 years	64	42.7%	20	60.6%
	3 and more years	39	26%	5	15.2%
Country	Albania	2	1.3%	-	-
	Belgium	1	.7%	-	-
	Bulgaria	3	2.0%	-	-
	Canada	2	1.3%	-	-
	The Netherlands	12	8.0%	1	3%
	Poland	3	2.0%	-	-
	Portugal	4	2.7%	-	-
	France	10	6.7%	-	-
	Germany	18	12.0%	-	-
	Greece	11	7.3%	-	-
	Hungary	3	2.0%	-	-
	Italy	10	6.7%	1	3%
	Romania	4	2.7%	-	-
	Slovenia	3	2.0%	-	-
	Spain	6	4.0%	1	3%
	Turkey	30	20.0%	29	88%
	UK	18	12.0%	1	3%
	USA	10	6.7%	-	-

4.6.2. Measures

All variables were measured on a 5-point scale anchored from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5).

Work engagement. The work engagement was measured with three items adapted from the Short Measure of Work Engagement from Schaufeli et al. (2006). The items were “At my work, I feel bursting with energy”, “At my job, I feel strong and vigorous”, and “When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work” representing vigor, absorption and dedication respectively. The items showed sufficient Cronbach’s Alpha reliability coefficient ($\alpha=.63$).

Job performance. Performance was reported by the supervisor. It was assessed with a five-item scale created by the researcher. Three items were based on the adaptation of the Welbourne, Johnson, & Erez’s (1997) role-based performance scale: “The quantity of his/her work output (tasks, trip reports, briefings) exceeds the standards”, “The quality of his/her work output (tasks, trip reports, briefings) exceeds the standards”, and “The accuracy of his/her work output regarding content and template exceeds the standards”. Two items were based on the adaptation of the Williams and Anderson’s (1991) in-role performance scale: “He/she performs excellently in almost all areas of his/her responsibility specified in his/her job description” and “He/she exceeds standards and expectations for performance”. The scale showed a good Cronbach’s Alpha reliability coefficient ($\alpha=.91$).

Individual orientation to collectivism. In order to measure the extent to which participants had an individual orientation to collectivism, conceptualized as an individual difference (cf. Ilies et al., 2007), we developed two items based on the definition House, Javidan, Hanges, and Dorfman (2002) used to operationalize in-group collectivism: “reflects the degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty and cohesiveness in their organizations or families” (p. 5): “I think employees should feel great loyalty toward the organization” and “I like to actively participate in social and recreational activities arranged for the organization”. The Spearman-Brown correction formula ($r=.59$) indicated that these two items showed sufficient reliability for measurement since it is above .50 (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014).

Control variables. We controlled for organizational tenure and education level of participants. Organizational tenure was measured using 8 points (1=1 year to 6=6 years; 7 = 7 to 10 years; 8= more than 11 years). Education was measured using 3 categories (1= bachelor; 2= master; 3= phD).

4.7. Results

Descriptive statistics, reliabilities and intercorrelations for all the variables are depicted in Table 5. The zero order correlations indicate that organizational tenure is not significantly related to supervisor-rated performance ($r = .12, p = .147$, respectively) but education level was ($r = .21, p = .02$). Therefore, for reasons of parsimony we only included education level as a control variable in the regression model.

Table 5. Means, Standard Deviations, and Inter-Correlations of the Variables

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Job performance	3.85	.69	(.90)				
2. Work engagement	3.80	.66	.16*	(.64)			
3. IOC	4.01	.75	.15	.31***	(.59)		
4. Organiz tenure ^a	2.17	1.45	.12	-.001	.05	-	
5. Education level ^b	1.71	.50	.21**	.05	.02	.06	-

Note: *** $p \leq .001$, ** $p \leq .01$, * $p \leq .05$, $N=150$. Reliability coefficients are provided in parentheses. IOC= Individual orientation to collectivism.

^a from 1 to 6 tenure equals to the number, 7= 7 to 10 years, 8= more than 11 years.

^b 1= Bachelor or equivalent degree, 2= master or equivalent degree, 3= phD.

To test our moderation hypothesis, we conducted a regression analysis using PROCESS macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2012). This enabled us to test the magnitude and significance of the hypothesized interaction effect with bootstrapping procedures (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Therefore, we obtained 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals (BC CIs) bootstrapping 5000 samples. The interaction effect of IOCXwork engagement on job performance, controlling for

education level was significant and had a point estimate of .29 (SE = .14; 95% BC CIs [0.12, 0.42]), supporting our hypothesis. The model accounted for 12% of the variance in supervisor-rated job performance. The results of the regression analysis are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Regression Results Predicting Job Performance

Predictor	coef	SE	<i>p</i>	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	3.33	.21	.000	2.92	3.74
Education level ^a	.28	.12	.019	.05	.51
Work engagement	.16	.10	.103	-.03	.35
IOC	.17	.09	.067	-.01	.35
WExIOC	.28	.14	.042	.05	.51
Conditional effect					
-1SD (-.57)	-.002	.12	.985	-.24	.23
M (-.07)	.14	.10	.151	-.05	.33
+1SD (.93)	.42	.16	.012	.10	.74

Note: *** $p \leq .001$, ** $p \leq .01$, * $p \leq .05$. $N=150$. WE=Work Engagement, IOC= Individual orientation to collectivism. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.

^a 1= Bachelor or equivalent degree, 2= master or equivalent degree, 3= Doctorate degree.

We plotted the simple slopes for respondents with higher levels of IOC (one standard deviation above the mean) and for respondents with lower levels of IOC (one standard deviation below the mean) in Figure 3. Supporting our hypothesis, results show that after controlling for education level, work engagement was positively associated with employees' job performance (reported by the supervisor) only when the individual had higher levels of orientation to collectivism ($coef=.42$, $SE=.16$, $p = .012$). For individuals with lower levels of orientation to collectivism, their work engagement was not significantly associated with their performance reported by the supervisor ($coef=-.002$, $SE=.12$, $p = .985$). Looking at the Figure 3, we notice that employees' performance (reported by the supervisor) reached the highest level when the

individual had higher levels of work engagement and, at the same time, higher levels of orientation to collectivism.

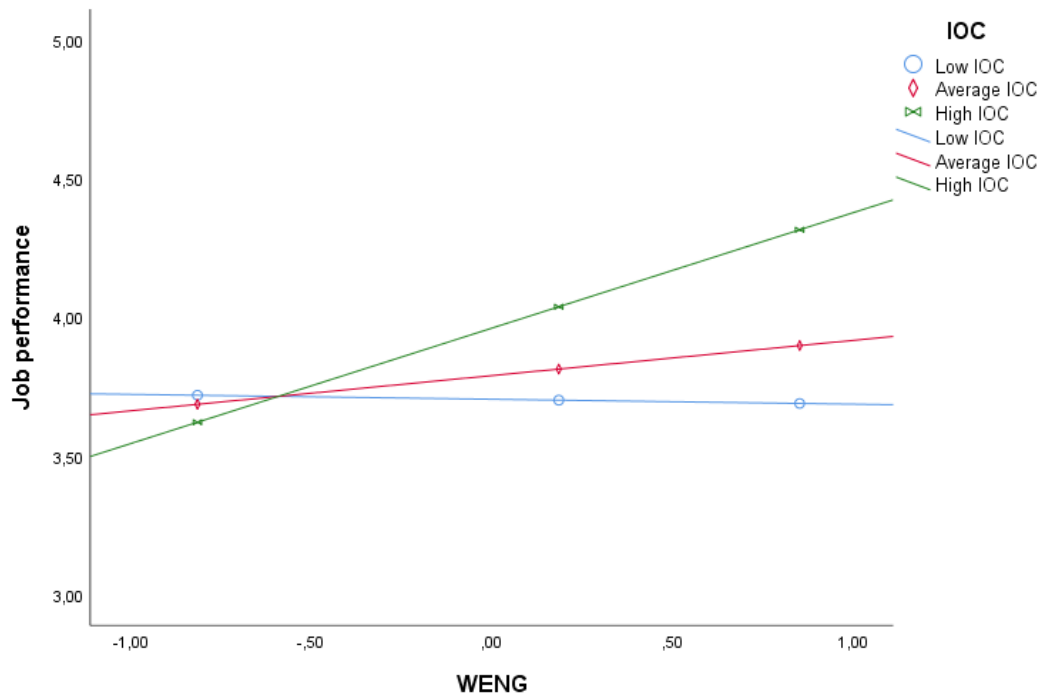


Figure 3: Supervisor-rated job performance as a function of work engagement and individual orientation to collectivism. Regression lines are drawn at 1 standard deviation above and below the mean of IOC.

4.8. Discussions

Employees' occupational behaviors such as work engagement and job performance in organizations are amongst the most popular topics for the organizational researchers. Paradoxically, there are fewer studies that investigate the relationship between these popular variables in specific military workplaces. Moreover, the influence of individual differences as a moderator of this relationship in specific military workplaces was almost never studied. Hence, we examined a moderated model in which the relationship between work engagement and job performance is moderated by IOC as an individual difference in a sample of staff officers from MMOs. The results showed that: (1) the work engagement positively related to

job performance; (2) the IOC moderates the relationship between work engagement and job performance. In particular, work engagement is only significantly associated with job performance when staff officers in MMW had higher levels of IOC. The results suggest that highly collectivist and engaged staff officers in MMW are more likely to perform well at work.

Our theoretical framework and empirical analysis lead to two main theoretical contributions in the literature. The first theoretical contribution is supporting the theory that work engagement is positively related to job performance. Many researchers have argued that work engagement should lead to high levels of job performance (e.g., Kahn, 1990; Schaufeli et al., 2002; Salanova et al., 2005; Schaufeli et al., 2006). However, these studies are mostly conducted in civilian and national corporations. So, the results of these studies are limited to their research areas and couldn't be generalized into multinational military workplaces. Therefore, to qualify the relationship between work engagement and job performance, more studies are needed to test the relationship in particular workplaces. Present study demonstrates that the relationship between work engagement and job performance even exists for staff officers in MMW and expands the generalization of the theory towards MMOs.

As a second contribution the results proved the individual differences such as IOC as a key moderator of the relationship between work engagement and job performance in multinational workplaces such as MMW. Moreover, our findings demonstrated that despite the existing and well-known relationship between work engagement and job performance, this relationship is significant in MMW only when staff officers had higher levels of IOC. It seems plausible that the high levels of IOC will increase the positive relationships, the desire for cooperation, pride, willingness and perceived organizational support of staff officers in order to perform in the direction of organizational goals. In other words, when the staff officers had higher levels of IOC, they will direct their engagement to increase the welfare of the group and accomplish the organizational goals rather than to individual welfare and goals. Thus, the study adds to previous studies in the occupational research literature (e.g., Jackson et al. 2006; Marcus & Le,

2013; O'Neill et al., 2015) by linking the relationship between work engagement and job performance with the moderation effect of individual cultural orientations.

Finally, the present study complements the body of research that has mostly investigated work engagement–job performance relationship in individualist or collectivist cultures as a societal level orientation but rarely examined collectivism as a moderator in individual level, especially in MMW which includes staff officers from several cultures of Hofstede (1980). While individualists and collectivists proportionally exist in every society, it is very important for the researchers to conduct studies in individual level in order not to make inaccurate generalizations. The present study furthers such efforts by focusing on the IOC of staff officers.

There are several limitations in this study that point to possible future study. First, because of the specification of the quantitative study we couldn't find out exactly how and why IOC variable moderates the work engagement and job performance relationship in MMW. Although in our literature review, we emphasized the possible mechanisms for the moderation effect, it is also important to understand the specific causes and mechanisms for MMW with an additional qualitative study. Second, although the present study tries to contribute to the literature by focusing on staff officer sample, future research should also include sample of civilian employees in MMW as comparison group to better comprehend IOC of staff officers and its influence in work engagement-job performance relationship. Moreover, it would help to increase the generalizability of our model. Third, we assessed staff officers' collectivism, work engagement, and job performance in one period (a cross-sectional design). However, future research employing longitudinal designs can provide greater insights to the temporal dynamics in which IOC moderates the work engagement-job performance relationship in MMW. A major methodological strength of the current research was the avoidance of common measurement methods. Specifically, IOC and work engagement variables were measured by employee self and job performance variable by supervisor ratings. Therefore, common method variance cannot explain our findings.

The results have also implications for managers in multinational military organizations. As more and more multi-national military organizations (MMOs) are increasing the diversity of their workforce by employing staff officers from different cultures, the study provides recommendations on how to increase the work engagement – job performance relationship of these staff officers. Our results showed that IOC is relevant for having high performed staff officers in MMW. However, the appointed staff officers may have different levels of IOC or even none and most of the time MMOs don't have the authority to select the staff officers. Therefore, managers could improve these staff officer's future job performance only after being appointed by focusing on programs that are enhancing their IOC. For that, first of all managers should assess staff officers' level of IOC at the beginning of their appointment. This could be accomplished using external consultants or trained internal human resources and organizational development staff. If the employee is more individualism oriented, then it would be advisable to undergo a specific program in order to improve his IOC. Managers could facilitate building IOC through conducting educational events on collectivism, increasing the number of organizational social events and teamworks. For instance, teaching individuals the importance of prioritizing team goals over individual goals (Goal Priority), as well as the value of defining and gaining buy-in to team norms (Norm Acceptance), is likely to increase their awareness on IOC which may in return can cause the real IOC. The teamwork or organizational activities will support the staff officers breaking the ice between and they will feel more volunteered to behave collectively. But this process should be managed with sensitivity and by avoiding placing the individual in high-stress situations. Besides, as we have previously stated organizational culture is particularly important in increasing the staff officers' level of IOC. Collectivistic organizations place value on achieving collective/organizational goals and reward employees' joint contributions to organizational accomplishments (Earley & Gibson, 1998). For that, managers should demonstrate positive regard for the collectivistic organizational activities, cultivate a collectivistic climate and support the staff officers with higher IOC.

CHAPTER 5 – GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

5.1. Conclusions

Since 1990s, with the globalization effect, employee job performance has received an increasing attention from organizations and in accordance from organizational researchers, in order to react to the new requirements of dynamic and varying contemporary work environment. As this thesis shows, job performance has different dimensions to explore and to better understand in this context. Exploring these different dimensions includes performing analysis at different levels and working environment, all of them relevant to understand individual job performance that may appear in different shapes, situations and contexts. However, when studying job performance as an individual outcome, it is relevant to start from where it is generated – work environment. Besides, job performance is an individual outcome that should be researched in a specific context, mainly because the way it emerges vary depending on the emotions, cognitions and behaviors created in a specific work environment.

For the purpose of this research, we have decided to focus on individual job performance in military work environment, a field partially ignored by job performance researchers (Luo et al., 2008). As mentioned before, military organizations are more dependent on individuals than any other (Augier et al., 2014). Moreover, military organizations have some unique features which may differentiate the construct of individual job performance in military contexts. For example, it is found that the structured environment of military organizations may constrain the influence of individual differences (and their interactions) on performance (Van Iddekinge et al., 2018). However, during our literature review we saw that there is a paucity of discussion related to the challenges facing military organizations regarding job performance and interconnected topics such as individual value differences. We hope that this study may once more inspire contemporary organizational researchers to consider either multinational or national military organizations as valuable sources of insight for job performance studies.

In order to better understand the construct of job performance in military context and fill the research gap in this field, we have performed two different studies, the first qualitative one was focused on the differences of individual job performance in military contexts and based on the results of this first study, the second quantitative one intended to investigate the relationship of individual work engagement and job performance, and the moderator role of individual collectivism on this relationship.

In our first research study (Chapter III), we aimed to identify the differences of military regarding individual job performance (objective 1, mentioned on Chapter I). Mainly, because the literature we have analyzed offered scope for further consideration on this issue from a theoretical point of view, as illustrated in the introduction.

In this first research study, the objective was to understand the differences of military from non-military work contexts regarding individual job performance and found out possible ways to enhance job performance in military work contexts. Based on our results, we noticed that individual job performance components in military contexts, though some overlaps, show significant differences from the components of well-known Campbell's (2012) performance model in the literature. First of all, they signify a concrete emphasis on individual orientation to collectivism for military personnel. Second, they show deviances regarding the content of the components. Third, military personnel didn't emphasize anything about counterproductive work behavior, instead they mentioned discipline as a sub-theme of conformity component. This may mean that military personnel view CWB behaviors as a form of undiscipline which remove than from the organizational goals and standarts. In addition, results showed that amongst the predictors of performance, work engagement was repeatedly mentioned by the respondents which revealed its importance for individual job performance in military contexts. Thus, we proposed that military organizations may use the construct of job performance in the literature after some changes in content and more emphasis on individual orientation to

collectivism as a basement for their job performance regulations and in determining the military good performer.

The results of the first study also suggested some interventions for enhancing individual job performance in military contexts. We had also compared these interventions with the literature. From these interventions, goal setting and active learning seemed to overlap with the interventions in the literature (see Campbell, 2012 for interventions in literature). On the other side, teamwork and cooperation, and supervisors and colleagues as role models are different from the interventions in literature and may signify a deviation for military work environment. We have noticed that these two interventions may be largely influenced with the individual differences of military personnel regarding individualism-collectivism orientations because “collectivists view the self in terms of how connected they are to in-groups, subordinate personal goals to collective goals, exhibit norm-driven behavior, and are relationship oriented” (Marcus & Le, 2013, p. 814). Thus, staff officers’ orientation to collectivism may enhance individual job performance in military work environment by facilitating teamwork, cooperation and good relationships with supervisors and colleagues in the workplace.

From Study 1, work engagement and individual orientation to collectivism (as an individual difference) emerged as important dimensions that may influence job performance in military contexts. “Work engagement is defined as a positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli et al., 2006, p. 702). Research in military contexts has demonstrated that work engagement is an important predictor of individual well-being and motivation (Castanheira et al., 2016). We presumed that engagement may also lead to individual job performance in military contexts because well-being and motivation is also an antecedent of job performance. However, we found no studies in military personnel dedicated to verify the relationship between work engagement and job performance. Furthermore, the effect of individual differences such as IOC in this relationship is also unexplored in military contexts. Thus, in our second research study (Chapter IV), the objective

was to verify the relationship between work engagement and job performance and explore the moderator role of IOC in this relationship in military contexts. We choose multinational military organization as the research area of the second study because as a multinational organization they are in need of employees with high IOC in order to cope with diversity. So, we thought that we should see the effect of IOC in a MMO more clearly comparing with a national military organization.

Results of the Study 2 showed that staff officers' work engagement was positively associated with their job performance only when they had higher levels of orientation to collectivism (objective 2, mentioned on Chapter I). This finding is for sure very valuable for the literature and for military organizations whether national or multinational. First of all, this finding contributes to the existing literature explaining the relationship between work engagement and job performance by reinforcing the role of third variables in this relationship (e.g., Kahn, 1990; Christian et al., 2011). We explained the mechanisms in the literature between work engagement and job performance in Chapter 2 as emotional, cognitive and behavioral. Our findings in Study 2 about IOC supports the emotional mechanisms in military contexts. That is, it seems plausible that the high levels of IOC will increase the positive relationships, the desire for cooperation, pride, willingness and perceived organizational support of staff officers which in return increase their motivation to perform in the direction of organizational goals. In other words, when the staff officers had higher levels of IOC, they will direct their engagement to increase the welfare of the group and accomplish the organizational goals rather than to individual welfare and goals because of the motivational increase towards accomplishing the group and organizational goals.

Second, in the literature we saw very often the argument that military organizations are becoming increasingly collaborative-intensive organizations (e.g., Bjørnstad & Ulleberg, 2017). With the results of the Study 2, we confirmed this argument and revealed the importance of individual IOC in facilitating the collaboration in military contexts (objective 3, mentioned

on Chapter I). This is for sure a distinction of military organizations or similar other organizations (e.g., high-reliability organizations such as police and emergency) and may result with some important managerial and practical implications for this kind of organizations.

5.2. Limitations and Future Research

This thesis has several limitations that should be taken into account for future research. First, despite the fact that it explores the same aspect in different ways, providing interesting inputs; it is focused on a specific field. Military work environments are, in fact, a very specific and controlled environment with specificities and dynamics that differ from other organizations. Therefore, our findings can't be easily generalized for other organizations if they don't have similar specifications. In the future, it would make sense to explore other contexts by using the same methods, in order to understand differences and particularities applicable to different contexts and make more concrete comparisons between different work contexts. This would be helpful for the generalization efforts.

Second, this thesis supported and verified the relationship between work engagement and job performance only when staff officers had higher levels of orientation to collectivism. To our knowledge, this is an exploratory finding which is totally new for military organizations. Therefore, it should be conceptualized for a better use in military contexts. In the future, additional qualitative researches should be done to explain why, how and by which mechanisms IOC influence the relationship between work engagement and job performance in military contexts.

Third, in the present thesis, we only focused on job performance in individual level as previous studies mostly did (Makikangas et al., 2016). However, it often makes sense to focus on higher levels of performance; e.g., teams or organizations in order to better understand the interaction between three levels of job performance. Accordingly, the results of this thesis showed that job performance in military contexts is very much related with the team settings. The fact that the

incidence of team work in military organizations is high points to the importance of team-level studies in military contexts (Makikangas et al., 2016). Especially the data that we derived from Study 1 partly aggregated on the team level which gave us the necessary evidence for the importance and necessity of team level studies in military contexts. Therefore, future reseraches should also consider the team-level job performance and its effects on individual level for a better understanding of individual job performance in military contexts.

5.3. Managerial Implications

This thesis offers some practical implications for managers to understand and enhance individual job performance in military work environment. The results of this thesis showed that work engagement, discipline and individual orientation to collectivism are important traits for job performance in military contexts. Based on our results, we propose that military managers could understand and improve job performance of their staff officers, through evaluation, training and job design. However, most of the time military organizations should adapt three methods at the same time because one might not be sufficient alone. I don't mention selection as a useful method because it would be really difficult to measure the requested traits objectively at the selection period. First, after employment of the staff officers in the organization, military managers might attempt to train staff officers in order to increase their job performance by conducting special training events for explaining or advertising traits such as discipline, individual orientation to collectivism or being highly engaged which we found out useful for enhancement of individual job performance in military contexts. However, training these traits might not be enough because of the likelihood that staff officers can only perform as the work itself allows. Thus, military managers should be able to increase job performance by designing jobs and work settings (e.g., teamwork) that include motivating characteristics for engagement, orientation to collectivism or discipline. This way, military managers might be able to "set the stage for job performance" by creating contextual conditions that facilitate staff officers' motivation to show discipline, orientation to collectivism and

engagement. After training staff officers and designing the job according to the requested traits (i.e., work engagement, discipline and IOC), military managers might set up effective evaluation methods in order to assess the results of the initial two methods, in other saying a feedback mechanism. According to the results of the evaluation, military managers might improve their understanding about the eventual construct and level of job performance in their organization and might decide to repeat the training events or revise the job designs for better results.

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APPENDICES

Appendice A: A Sample of Interviews for Study-1

Job Performance in Military Contexts Interview Questionnaire

Introduction

Good I would like to thank you for taking the time to meet with me today. My name is Cumhuri YÜCE. I am a doctoral student in Management. Specifically, I am researching the differences in military regarding job performance.

The interview should take around half an hour. If you accept, I would like to tape the session because I do not want to miss any of your comments. All responses will be kept confidential and anonymous. This means that your interview responses will only be shared with research team members and we will ensure that any information we include in our report does not identify you as the respondent. Not to speak about classified information, but only aspects of your daily life at the organization that reveals the relationship of work engagement and job performance.

Remember, you do not have to talk about anything you do not want to, and you may end the interview at any time. Are there any questions about what I have just explained? Are you willing to participate in this interview?

Questions

1) Can you please describe me what a good performer in the military is?

First of all, he should have the basic information whatever the job is. So, if there are some information background problems, it is really also a problem to the team as well. So, we also face to such kind of people. For example, they are attending to the workshops, they are attending to the preparations, but overall contribution is almost none. So, first of all he has to have the basic information and background of the described job. And other than that, he has to become

a member of the team. I mean he shouldn't avoid giving his full performance to the job because some people might refrain giving their full performance and it doesn't work. I mean it doesn't really make any sense. They are really not useful to the team. The ability to work in team is important in the military work environment. It's a general rule. In military, the ability to work in a team is very important. So, when you feel that you are like a team then you can be also surprised at the result you get. Of course, corporation, collaboration is always needed. And of course, determination to the task is very important. So, if the people are easily for example diverted if they don't have any problems with the tasks and duties to be done then you are also getting good results. Of course, there are some general rules. For example, stability under difficulties and stress situations, personal appearance for example, patience during the task and if he is skillful enough with the decision making or finding good solutions or proposing alternatives that's also helpful. Organizational abilities are so important I would say. I mean sometimes you might be very skillful, but you might not be a good member of a team. So, it doesn't work. I would like to give an example from sports. For example, basketball. If you are the best basketballer in the world but if you don't play it with the team so the result will be of course a failure. So, it's also important not only in the national military but in a multi-national military workplace as well. For sure the last one I have to mention is communication skills. It's of course directly proportional with the level of language as well but the language is not the hundred percent of the communication. The body language, the eagerness, the well being, tolerance, all of them are good signals for the other side to work together or work with enthusiasm and it also have a lot of role finding a successful solution or contribution to your work whatever it is.

2) Do you think that characteristics of a good performer in military contexts is different comparing with the good performer in a non-military workplace?

I think in non-military environment the skills, the information and the professionalism is more important and according to the organization may differ but generally it has international rules.

So, a company having multinational participants has main goals and the main aim is to make profit. Of course, teamwork at the end is important. Personal responsibility, taking decision is also, level of professionalism is also important. Ability to organize and the ability of work in a team is very important and these are of course general rules of non-military organizations, but I would say since their main aim is to make profit so it's a little bit different than military organization because in military organizations, your main aim is not to make profit. So, you are sometimes working only for describing something or preparation of something. So, when I go back to your question. For example, there are many common ways to evaluate the effectiveness. For example, it is measurement of effectiveness or measurement of performance. So, the question has in which direction you would you like to get. So, it is more or less two different areas and it has many different ways to evaluate the performance criteria.

3) What are the individual factors that you think associate with job performance in military contexts? Which are the increasing and decreasing individual factors for job performance?

I would say especially when it is a military working environment, I think the most important think becomes communication and cooperation. When it doesn't exist, you get really really difficult situations. Then you are working in such a kind of a place that you really don't know what to do. So, I put in the first place the communication and cooperation. After that of course the professionalism is very important because everybody has at the beginning his job description, everybody should do something as a part of the team. So that the overall result or the goal should be reached. So, if there are problems with your level of professionalism or if you're not properly trained in military service, so it's the lack of the team as a whole. If one of the team members is leaking and is making always failures or if he's always frustrated with him, the result will be not good or will be below the expectations of the team. And maybe another one should be openness and reliability I would say. Because the more you prove that you are liable to the team and the more your friend then the more you are successful, and your team and your organization is successful I would say.

- What can you say about increasing or decreasing capabilities of these factors?

It's a good question because I always mention if they're always positive things but when they're in negative sense they also make some problems to your achievements or to your organization or to your goals. So, for example if there is a problem for understanding each other and if you are losing time even to understand what the other one is saying, for example at the beginning of a meeting, you are talking at least half an hour for nothing, for just to understand what the other side is saying. So, it's also a disadvantage and of course all the other things which I mentioned could be disadvantage in the meaning if it is not for example working in coherence I mean. If the team is not composed of equivalent level of people, equivalent understanding, equivalent level of information, equivalent acceptance and reliability and openness and professionalism it might be disadvantageous situation that it can spoil your organization and there might be some very strict discussions, misunderstandings even quarrels and maybe sometimes failure.

4) Which strategies or practices do you follow to enhance your job performance in military work environment?

I think in my experience, from my point of view I put always the corporation at the first place. So, I always told myself that I am a part of the team. So, if I would like to be successful, I should contribute maximum effort as much as I could to my team and then my team should be successful and I would say to myself " Yes, I am successful". So, my motivation was to be useful for my team. So, I didn't see it as a national issue, I don't see it as a personal issue, but I always try to see my working environment as a whole, as a team and then I said if my team is successful then I am successful personally and nationally. So, I also got very good results from this approach and I also got very good feedbacks from this point of view.

- What kind of practices do you accomplish in order to contribute to your team's success?

For example, everybody has his own experience in his previous background. So, I try to put everything if it is related and if it was necessary. I try to put it forward. I took initiative. I said "I can do that". I have for example different way of solutions. For example, in such kind of problems which the other people couldn't find out and which we had already tried in my previous organization. I really hesitate to take responsibility. That's really important in the multinational environment because many people hesitate to take responsibility. They say if I fail it would be shameful, it will be very ridiculous or they just idle, they just wait at the bench and again I am giving an example from sports and then when it is asked, they do the minimum. I mean they only do what it is asked. They don't want to put anything much other than what it is asked from them. I mean yes, they do their tasks overall but at the minimum. I mean what is the added value to the job or what is the added value to the result and when you say that they don't take any risk and they don't get extra or they don't bring extra contribution to this solution. So, they only answer to the questions. That's it. Then it's not of course the modern approach when you describe to the organizations. It doesn't matter if it is civilian or military. In military environment also it is very important that people should take the initiative, step forward and they would try, and they would dare to do something. If everybody waits and if the things are done in turn or in cue, it will be very boring organization and the products will be always at the minimum standards.