FACTORS AFFECTING INDIVIDUALS' COMPETENCY IN ORGANISATIONS USING KNOWLEDGE CREATION MODEL AND HRM PRACTICES

A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

By

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Abstract

This thesis is on competent individuals the essential organisational resource, particularly for knowledge work. Managers need to attend to the development of incompetent individuals. What constitutes individuals' competency (IC), how can it be developed through better human resource management (HRM), and how is it implemented for knowledge management (KM) all needs theoretical explanation. There is disagreement in the research literature on the effect of factors such as education, training, personal characteristic, and environment on IC.

The aim of this research is to explore these factors in the context of KM as facilitated by HRM. An exploratory sequential mixed methods and triangulation approach is used. The first phase qualitative research explores IC from employees' perspective. The findings of this phase are used in the second quantitative phase to develop quantifiable variables. That needs to be further explored. The findings of both phases are triangulated; data consistency between the two phases indicates that the measuring instruments are accurate, which strengthened the thesis argument. The research data is collected from Kuwait, which like any other country suffers from incompetent employees. Forty one interviews were conducted for the qualitative phase and 763 survey questionnaires were collected for the quantitative phase.

Knowledge of IC as revealed in the literature suggests four contentious factors that affect it: education, training, personal characteristics and environment, each of which has a prior and on-job occurrence. This thesis postulates: (a) that rather than individual factors, these four factors affect IC holistically; (b) that these four factors apply to each of the four modes of the knowledge creation model (KCM); and (c) that HRM has a significant role in developing IC for KM.

Empirical results of the hypothesis show a statistically significant positive effect for each of the four factors on IC and that the effect is holistic. This finding supports the developed model of IC. Therefore, the research hypotheses are accepted and the IC model is proven to be fit. Also, when statistically operationalizing the four factors on the KCM, it was found that not all four factors are absorbed by each of the four modes of the KCM, thus revealing its limitation in practice. Finally, HRM is proven to affect IC and the KCM positively. Nevertheless, this relies on HRM being empowered by the organisation.

This thesis makes several contributions. It contributes empirical evidence of the positive and holistic effect of education, training, personal characteristics and environment on IC. This leads to the second contribution that these four factors of IC, as new knowledge, cannot all be processed within a particular mode of the KCM; rather it selectively absorbs particular factors better than others. Thus, the theoretical knowledge creation argument differs from the actual empirical findings.

These findings lead to significant contribution to HRM practice. For instance, in hiring or promoting individuals, managers should consider the four theoretically derived and empirically confirmed IC factors, education, training, personal characteristics (PC) and environment.

Dedication

The achievement of major projects involving personal effort requires equally substantial support from family and special friends. This thesis is dedicated to all my dearest family, my friends, and loved ones. Thank you!!! I dedicate this thesis especially to my father Mr. Jabber Alainati, who supported and encouraged me and his heartedness especially during my hard time and sickness. Also, to my infinitely loving and caring mother Mrs. Fawazeyah Alainati whose every prayer for me is immensely appreciated and her compassionately enduring the pain of caring for me during my hard times. To my only sister Maryam Alainati who empathised with me during the struggles in my project and gave me constant support and help. To my brothers Jarrah, Salem and Hamad who gave me their constant and infinite encouragement and care. I also want to thank all my special dear friends who were always there to encourage, support and empathise with me when I needed them.

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Table of Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

List of Abbreviations

Discipline Abbreviations

HRM	Human Resource Management
KM	Knowledge Management
KCM	Knowledge Creation Model

Variables Abbreviations (Dependent Variable)

IC	Individuals' Competency

Variables Abbreviations (Independent Variables)

OJE	On-job Environment
OJED	On-job Education
OJPC	On-job Personal Characteristic
OJT	On-job Training
PC	Personal Characteristic
PE	Prior Environment
PED	Prior Education
PPC	Prior Personal Characteristic
PT	Prior Training

Statistical Abbreviations

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CV	Convergent validity
df	Degree of Freedom
D^2	Mahalanobis
DV	Discriminant validity
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EM	Expectation Maximization
F	Variance between Groups
KMO	Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin
K-S	Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk test
M	Mean

MANOVA	Multi Analysis of Variances
MAR	Missing at Random
MCAR	Missing Completely at Random
ML	Maximum Likelihood
MNAR	Missing not at Random
P	Significant Value
PCA	Principle Component Analysis
Post-Hoc	Different Between Groups
r	Pearson's Correlation
S.D	Standard Deviation
SE	Standard Error
Sig.	Significant
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor
n_1	sample size
n_0	Categorical Margin of Error
α	Cronbach Alpha

Software Abbreviation

NVivo	Qualitative Data Analysis Computer Software Package
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences

Other Abbreviations

NVQ	National Vocational Qualification
VET	Vocational Education and Training
YTS	Youth Training Scheme
CPD	continuing professional Development
HRD	Human Resource Development
ME	Managers' Education
ML	Management Learning
PMP	Project Management Programme
EI	Emotional Intelligence
WFC	Work-Family Conflict
WFI	Work-to-Family Interference
RST	Reinforcement Sensitivity Theory
SP	Sensitivity to Punishment

SR	Sensitivity to Reward
BAS	Behavioural Approach Study
CWB	Counterproductive Work Behaviour
SWB	Subjective Well-Being
CVS	Chinese Value Survey
IBM	International Business Machines
OP	Organisational Performance
PAAET	The Public Authority for Applied Education and Training
KOC	Kuwait Oil Company
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council

Chapter 1
Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Managers seek highly competent individuals to accomplish work well. Employees want to perform work to their managers' expectations; managers expect the optimal from their employees. Nevertheless, managers blame incompetent employees for poor work and employees blame their incompetent managers for poor guidance. The result either benefits or harms the organisation, because it is individuals' competencies (IC) that determines the success of their organisation.

The main argument of this thesis is the IC holistic approach in relation to knowledge creation with human resource management's (HRM) facilitation. The novel understanding is that IC needs to be conceptualised holistically, which brings together the four factors of education, training, personal characteristics (PC), and environment that determine IC. The research also takes a new perspective on the application of IC to the four modes of the knowledge creation model (KCM). This contributes to our knowledge of IC by developing new conceptualization of IC as holistic approach which targets the development of IC through the KCM. Through the emerging recommendations, the findings of the research will be reflected and will contribute to enhancing and developing HRM policies that encompass the new concept of the holistic nature of IC and its application for knowledge creation work. It also provides new theoretical perspective on our understanding and practice of developing IC and Knowledge Management (KM).

1.2 Research Background

Competent individuals are the main concern of the organisation. Therefore, IC is the unit of analysis of this thesis. However, there is conceptual ambiguity and contradictions about the factors affecting IC. The literature reveals four main factors in relation to IC; education, training, PC, and environment. Each of these factors consists of prior and on-job occurrences at work. In this research, each of the occurrences is explored for its effect on IC. With better understanding of factors affecting IC, organisations can maximize their essential human resources to develop

1

their IC. In addition, the literature assumes that IC relates to knowledge creation in organisations and KM is argued for its positive effect on organisational success, and the facilitation of knowledge work is the role of HRM.

According to the literature, KM has a significant role in leading organisations to success. However, it is the individual whose competency contributes to this organisational success through knowledge creation practices. Therefore, organisations need competent individuals to implement knowledge work. Nonaka & Takeuchi's (1995) developed the spiral of knowledge creation model (KCM) to enable organisations to develop, create, and apply the new knowledge. The model consists of four modes of knowledge creation:

<u>Socialisation</u> involves transferring knowledge from tacit knowledge to tacit knowledge. In this mode, individuals interact and exchange their knowledge through socialisation.

<u>Combination</u> involves transferring knowledge from explicit knowledge to explicit knowledge. In this mode, individuals use meetings, telephone calls and e-mails as a mechanism to exchange and combine their explicit knowledge.

<u>Externalisation</u> involves transferring knowledge from tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge. In this mode, individuals uses metaphor and models when convening a massage or information.

<u>Internalisation</u> involves transferring knowledge from explicit knowledge to tacit knowledge. In this mode, individuals learn by doing.

Organisations need competent individuals to implement the KCM. However, the literature review reveals lacunae in the practical application of the KCM, and that organisational success actually depends on the individual. Therefore, it is important to develop IC to undertake KM.

HRM plays an important role in KM by enabling the organisational human resources to practice knowledge work. According to Jimenez-Jimenez & Sanz-Valle (2013), the relation between HRM and KM meet in the individuals' willingness and ability to acquire knowledge and in their willingness to share that knowledge with others. The role of HRM is to encourage and positively influence individuals' knowledge, skills,

attitudes and behaviours in order to create and share knowledge (Currie & Kerrin, 2003; López-Cabrales et al., 2011). Therefore, the role of HRM in KM can be utilized in two ways: first, by using HRM practices to encourage and motivate individuals into learning and acquiring knowledge; second, by using HRM practices to develop the organisational culture in order to encourage knowledge creation, sharing, and transfer (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2005; DeLong & Fahey, 2000; Edvardsson, 2007).

Despite the importance of HRM, many organisations have neglected its role. In addition, many KM initiatives also tend to neglect the role of HRM in implementing and facilitating KM (Chen et al., 2011; Oltra, 2005). Therefore, the literature lacks the clear linkage between HRM practices and implementing KM within the organisation (Jimenez-Jimenez & Sanz-Valle, 2013; Theriou & Chatzoglou, 2008).

Consequently, this research seeks to explore and investigate the four factors holistically in relation to their effect on IC. Also, to investigate the usability of KCM in relation to holistic IC model, as well as the role of HRM and its effect on KM and IC.

1.3 Research Problem

The theoretical problem is that there is no clear understanding of the factors' effect on IC. Additionally, the literature only examines the effect of the factors individually. This thesis argues that there is a holistic effect of the factors on IC. Similarly, the literature assumes that IC is present for the implementation of the KCM. However, it does not provide an explanation of how IC is actually translated in the four modes of the KCM. Finally, the significant role of HRM in supporting and facilitating the translation of IC to the implementation and operation of the KCM is not well understood. This research seeks to define the problem with IC, KM and HRM theoretically, by creating a conceptual framework and researching it empirically.

Organisations are concerned with employing the right people for the right job and to do it effectively and efficiently. The reality, however, is that there are many incompetent employees. Employers might blame employees for being inefficient or incompetent, whereas employees might blame their poor performance on employers,

the organisation, or on other reasons. In order to know to what degree employees are responsible for their own incompetency and whether or not it is their fault, it is essential to study and explore factors affecting IC and to investigate the usability of KM on IC and the role of HRM in that contest.

1.4 Research Aim and Objectives

The aim of this research is to develop the holistic model of competency in the context of knowledge management as facilitated by human resource management.

The objectives are:

1- To explore critically the literature on IC, KM and HRM and their interrelations.
2- To develop a conceptual framework of IC, KM and HRM.
3- To analyse factors effecting IC; namely education, training, PC, and environment and their occurrence on prior and on-job experiences of individuals.
4- To analyze and examine the four factors of IC.
5- To examine if the four factors of IC, along with KM and HRM holistically affect IC.
6- To develop the holistic model of individual competency for effective KM as facilitated by HRM.

1.5 Research Questions

The main research question is: What factors affect individuals' competency? To answer this main research question however, sub-questions are required as follows:

- What is the effect of prior education on individuals' competency?
- What is the effect of on-job education on individuals' competency?
- What is the effect of prior training on individuals' competency?
- What is the effect of on-job training on individuals' competency?
- What is the effect of prior personal characteristics on individuals' competency?
- What is the effect of on-job personal characteristics on individuals' competency?

- What is the effect of prior environment (personal culture) on individuals' competency?
- What is the effect on-job environment (organisational culture) on individuals' competency?
- Do the four factors collectively affect IC?
- What is the effect of knowledge creation model on individuals' competency model?
- Can the developed four factors of IC be applied or processed through the four modes of knowledge creation model?
- Does the role of HRM affect individuals' competency?

1.6 Context of the Study

Kuwait is chosen to collect the data for several reasons. First, Kuwaiti organisations, like in any other country, have to deal with incompetent employees. Second, data collection is more feasible in Kuwait for the researcher. Third, the majority of the research extant in literature is based on American and European countries, whereas Kuwait is in the middles east.

Kuwait is a small country located in the Arabian Gulf with a population of 3,065,850. About two thirds of its occupant are Non-Kuwaiti (1,975,881), and one third are Kuwaitis (1,089,969) (Kuwait Government Online, 2013). The total work force in Kuwait is 1,478,290 in public and private sectors; of which 290,596 (19.66%) are Kuwaiti nationals and 1,187,694 (80.34%) are Non-Kuwaiti (Kuwait Central Statistical Bureau, 2013). Therefore, Kuwait encompasses multiple cultures in its organisations. In addition, securing a job in Kuwait is becoming increasingly difficult because incompetent individuals are being hired because of nepotism favouring nationals and non-nationals. Consequently, competent individuals are losing their chances of being hired to incompetent individuals. This exacerbates the problem of incompetent individuals. In addition, nepotism provokes anger amongst workers, which affects their own working competencies.

1.7 Research Methodology

The most suitable research philosophy to investigate the phenomenon of IC is Pragmatism. This is to develop understanding of the underlying causes of such

behaviours and whether there are other factors contributing to such behaviours; as well as to understand and investigate the role of HRM and KM in developing IC in the organisation. Pragmatism is comprehensive and it allows multiple choices of methods that would enable the researcher to answer this thesis' research questions. This thesis adopts the mixed method approach; the qualitative and quantitative methods that are essential to understand and answer research questions to achieve the research aim. The importance of choosing mixed method is the idea that all methods have their limitations and biasness. By choosing mixed methods these limitations and biases are overcome. Mixed method is also supported with triangulation (Creswell, 2013). According to Venkatesh (2013), the mixed qualitative and quantitative methods enrich the insight into the research phenomenon; one method would not provide the same quality, as both research methods combined.

There are three main types of mixed methods in the social science; convergent parallel mixed methods, explanatory sequential mixed methods, and exploratory sequential mixed method. However, since this research aims to explore the factors effecting IC, the most suitable type of mixed methods is the exploratory sequential mixed methods, which is conducted in two phases. In the first phase, the method starts with the qualitative research strategy to collect and analyse qualitative data in order to explore IC from the interviewees' point of view. It also explores the effect and usability of KM and investigates the role of HRM on IC and KM. The first phase qualitative results forms the basis for designing the measuring instrument of the second phase, which develops the quantitative method; the quantitative method is also used to follow up variables from the qualitative phase, as well as to develop new variables that can be investigated using the quantitative method (Creswell, 2013). Triangulation techniques are also developed alongside the mixed method. It incorporates the epistemological assumption about the research outcome that in order 'to know more' about a phenomenon different methods are necessary to confirm results (Flick, 2014; Moran-Ellis et al., 2006). According to Creswell (2013) and Nick Lee & Lings (2008) if variables are based on several sources of data then this process will add validity to the study. Triangulation can also be used with many different research strategies, as it depends on the research question and the field it is used for (Flick, 2014). Consequently, triangulation assumes that if the different research methods provided similar result(s) about the one phenomenon, then the used measures are considered to be accurate (which is the case in this research), otherwise

if the research methods provided different result(s) then one or more of the used measures are flawed (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Moran-Ellis et al., 2006).

Accordingly, the data collection and analysis for this research is conducted over the two phases of the exploratory sequential mixed methods. In the first phase of the qualitative method, the researcher used semi-structured interviews to explore the IC phenomenon. Forty one working individuals were interviewed from different organisational sectors; private and governmental, and from different levels of the organisation. The interviews were transcribed and imported to QSR NVIVO 10 software for analysis. Then, according to the findings of first phase, the measuring instrument of the second survey phase was developed. In the second quantitative method phase, the researcher used survey questionnaires. A snowballing technique was used to collect responses for the survey questionnaires. 763 survey questionnaires were accepted for the final sample of the quantitative analysis. SPSS 18 was used and both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques were used to analyse and test the thesis hypothesis. This phase was developed over three stages; in the first stage the researcher started with a pilot study in order to confirm the validity and to ensure the reliability of the measuring instrument. The second stage was the main statistical analysis of the study. The third stage was developed to specifically analyse the quantitative data to specifically confirm or refute the findings of the first phase and to further explore the IC phenomenon. The two phases' findings are combined and compared in the discussion Chapter, for deeper exploration and understanding of the IC phenomenon.

1.8 Research Structure

This thesis contains nine chapters, references and appendices as follows:

Chapter One: Introduction; this Chapters gives an overview of the research the background, problems, questions, aims and objectives, context of the study, and research methodology.

Chapter Two: Literature review provides critical analyses of the previous studies in relation to four factors of education, training, PC, and environment and their effect on IC. The Chapter deeply reviews KM and the theory of knowledge creation model and the role of HRM in both IC and KM. Consequently, it reveals the contradicting

findings and other researchers' findings and the critical assumptions made in the usability of the KCM in terms of IC. Therefore, the researcher identifies the relevant research gaps that this thesis seeks to investigate.

Chapter Three: Conceptual Framework is developed in two phases. The first phase contains two stages. First stage is the identification and analysis of the four factors of IC and the development of the research hypotheses. Stage two is the usability of the KCM to develop IC through the role and the practice of HRM. The second phase also consists of two stages; the first stage is to reflect on the theoretical discussion in the first stage of phase one, as the research conceptual model or the *Individuals' Competency Conceptual Model* (IC conceptual model) is developed. The second stage is to reflect on the theoretical discussion in the second stage of phase one, as the usability of the KCM and the role of HRM in facilitating IC and KM.

Chapter Four: Kuwait is the context of this research. An analytical overview of Kuwait is presented. Then the Chapter presents IC in context of Kuwait; this includes Kuwait education, culture, organisation, and employment. A statistical picture of the working force in Kuwait is also presented for future analysis.

Chapter Five: Methodology Chapter presents a detailed discussion and justification of the research philosophy, research methods for collecting and analysing data and development of the measuring instruments. This Chapter includes the research methods used, exploratory mixed method and triangulation and their applications to the research problem. A detailed discussion of the research mixed qualitative and quantitative method is also presented. Within each of the methods, the variables are identified and an account of data collection and data analysis is detailed.

Chapter Six: Qualitative Analysis is the first phase of the exploratory mixed method analysis. In this Chapter the researcher analyse the qualitative data from the semi-structured interviews. The analysis and the finding of this phase are developed based on the research themes identified in the methodology Chapter.

Chapter Seven: Quantitative Analysis is the second phase of the exploratory mixed method analysis. In this Chapter the researcher analyses the quantitative data statistically using descriptive and inferential statistics. This Chapter is presented in

three stages; first the pilot study, where the measuring instruments are tested for reliability and validity and corrections before using it on the main research study. The second stage is data screening, data analysis, factor analysis, and hypothesis testing. The third stage is the statistical analysis of the same variables that are used in the first interview phase.

Chapter Eight: Discussion of both interviews and survey phases in order to compare the findings of each phase. According to the exploratory sequential mixed method, discussion should encompass the findings of both phases. If the compared finding reveals similar results then the measuring instruments are accurate; which is the case in this thesis. Accordingly, the thesis hypothesis are accepted and the IC model is considered fit.

Chapter Nine: Conclusion; this Chapter summarises the research results and proffers conclusions on the nature of IC and its effectiveness in the KCM and the role of HRM in developing IC and facilitating KM. It also provides research contribution to theory, practice and methodology. It also enumerates the research limitations, and suggests potential further research arising from this study.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This research seeks to understand individuals' competency (IC) in knowledge work. IC for knowledge work is critical and the role of human resource management (HRM) in developing IC is significant. This Chapter is a critical review of literature on competency, IC in the context of KM, and HRM's role and practices to enable KM.

The core argumentation of this thesis is that IC, the primary unit of analysis, is a holism composed of education, training, personal characteristic (PC) and environment. These four variables significantly shape individuals: (a) prior to being employed or prior-to-work and (b) during employment or on-job. There is contradicting evidence on the relation between education and IC, training and IC, PC and IC, environment and IC, and amongst each other, from the perspective of prior-to-work and on-job. Existing research does not consider prior-to-work and on-job categories as significant to develop IC.

IC is examined in the context of the KM literature and, in particular, the usability of KM as a model in and of IC; which is a new perspective. Since sharing knowledge is critical for successful implementation of KM, the PC and environment need to be conducive for knowledge sharing. However, the literature on KM does not consider this important detail. Significantly, it does not address the role of KM itself in enhancing IC for effective KM implementation. Allied to this development of IC through KM, is the role of HRM in developing IC for effective KM implementation. The literature does not explore adequately the role of HRM in developing IC for effective KM. These aspects of KM and HRM are critically evaluated in terms of the existing research from the perspective of holistic IC.

The Chapter begins by discussing various definitions of the construct of competency and defining it for the purpose of this research. Since HRM role is concerned with developing individuals at work, HRM is next defined and discussed, and its role in

developing IC is signified. Since KM promises organisational success, the ontological and epistemological dimensions of knowledge are discussed and the theory of KCM is critically evaluated for its effectiveness in terms of requisite IC. Then, these three elements IC, HRM and KM, are correlated in order to better conceptualise and understand how IC is affected by both HRM and KM, and visa a versa how HRM and KM affect by IC.

IC is examined in terms of four variables education, training, PC and environment that are hypothesised to have an effect on IC holistically. The literature on IC reveals single factor rationalistic studies as causal determinants of competency or multiple factor causal relations, but not as a holism of the four variables conceptualised in this thesis. Each element is defined in terms of individuals' own experiences prior-to-work and on-job. These variables in individuals' lives as reported in the literature will be critiqued to determine whether they have an effect on IC for effective KM. Then, the variables are combined to propose the holistic model of IC as correlated variables affecting IC at work. This analysis of competency, KM and HRM reveals theoretical lacuna, which this thesis addresses empirically.

2.2 Competency

The term competency is not unified and has several meanings in the research literature. It is applied to the individual as the unit of analysis to indicate how well an individual performs required work and has been applied at all levels of the organisation and for different kinds of work. Kim (1993) discussed core competency at different levels in organisations. At the highest managerial level, it has been applied to leadership and management competency among leaders and executives (Hamlin & Serventi, 2008; McClelland, 1998). At the level of middle management, it has been applied to mangers (Boyatzis, 1982; Yang et al., 2006) and at the level of individuals' work it has been applied to assess how well individuals' perform specific tasks (Lahti, 1999; McClelland, 1973a; Selznick, 1957; Sypniewska, 2013; Thornton III & Rupp, 2005). Additionally, competency has been applied to organisation as the unit of analysis (Lahti, 1999; Muffatto, 1998; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Prahalad & Hamel, 2006; Yang et al., 2006). However, Lahti (1999) argues that competency is rooted at the individual employee level. It is arguable that individuals' competencies are well connected to organisational competitiveness;

therefore, bringing the researchers' attention on core competency from micro to macro perspective.

2.2.1 The Construct of Competency

Defining the competency construct is essential. Summers (2001) argue that poor construct definition many cause many problems including the casual effect between constructs and measurements, measurement development and the credibility of hypotheses. MacKenzie, (2003) asserts that it is problematical theoretically to define accurately relationships between two constructs if they do not have a precise meaning. In fact Harmancioglu et al., (2009) found that multiple construct definitions is a reason for ambiguity of causal relation, conflicting results and difficulty in data interpretations. Therefore, there are many cases where the conceptualization of construct definition is different to the end goal (Gilliam & Voss, 2013).

A construct is defined as "an abstract concept that is deliberately created to represent a collection of behaviour. The concrete behaviours thus qualify as indicators of the construct" (Welman et al., 2005, p. 21). In defining the competency construct, Falender & Shafranske (2007) argue that professional ethics requires individuals to have professional responsibility to perform in a competent way, which involves both having a benchmarking of competency development during individuals' work period and also continuation of such self and professional development. Such behaviour involves identifying and applying knowledge, skills and values, and beyond. They assert: "competence is a dynamic construct in which expertise, established on habitual forms of practice, requires accommodation to the continuous advance of knowledge in the field" (Falender & Shafranske, 2007, p. 238).

Competency takes different meaning in different schools. In the rationalistic school, IC is the result of one or more causally determining variables, such as education (Bowden & Masters, 1993; Elton & Shevel, 1969; Hoffmann, 1999 and Lustri et al., 2007), training (Bandura, 1986; Emad & Roth, 2008; Erica Smith et al., 2006) or PC (Korzaan & Boswell, 2008; Polanyi, 1966; Stich, 1985). The rationalistic school is the belief that events occur in causally predictable ways. A particular strand is the resource based school of competency, in which competency is a stock (Karnøe, 1995). Competency is viewed as a stock of resource which can be invoked for specific business projects and innovation work.

These are behavioural single or multiple factor correlative studies. Behavioural studies, including PC, show that individuals choose to selectively share their knowledge (Akgün et al., 2005; Coulson-Thomas, 2009). Sharing knowledge is done only to serve individuals' agenda (Akgün et al., 2005; Gleick, 1997; Searle, 1969; van der Vegt et al., 2009). Individuals are not committed to their work for many reasons, including their imminent departure for another job or having job insecurity (Polanyi, 1966; Searle, 1969).

In single factor studies such as individuals' output, work standards, and personal attributes, competency is conceived as the desired work output by individuals (Boam & Sparrow, 1992; Bowden & Masters, 1993; Strebler et al., 1997; Woodruffe, 1993 and Rothwell & Kazanas, 1993). It is conceived as individuals performing work to predetermined standard (Hager et al., 1994; Rutherford, 1995; Strebler et al., 1997), and as personal attributes, such as knowledge, skills and the ability to execute the knowledge and skills in particular work contexts (Boyatzis, 1982; Hunt & Meech, 1991; Sternberg & Kolligian Jr., 1990).

Rationalistic approach has been criticised as problematic for developing understanding of IC. The need to operationalize education, training, and attributes has resulted in quantification of individual attributes which has resulted in 'abstract and overly narrow and simplified descriptions of competency (Sandberg, 2000).

The debate on competency concerns the end result expected of employees, in other words the organisational purpose that competency serves (Burgoyne, 1993; Hoffmann, 1999). This includes meeting job standards, HRM performance assessment, or managers' need for employees do the required work. Differences in organisational purpose result in variations of the term competency. Our present understanding of competency needs to be broadened beyond single and multiple factors rationalistic studies. It is necessary to investigate non-behavioural variables such as social, cultural and PC (Mallinckrodt, 2005; Salaman & Taylor, 2002; Sutherland et al., 2013). The construct also encompasses non-behavioural perspective which focuses on organisational and social factor study of competency. In the rationalist epistemology, competence is seen as constituted by specific set of attributes, such as knowledge and skills used in performing particular

work (Sandberg, 2000). Non-behavioural investigations focus on less tangible variables such as organisational and the social.

In contrast to the rationalist epistemology, studies of competency from the interpretative approach begin with defining what constitutes competency. The interpretative approach examines and analyses competencies required in optimizing operations (Sandberg, 2000), as the next Sub-section shows.

2.2.2 Definition of Competency

Understanding of competency is enabled by extant definitions. Though competency as a word was deeply investigated by Lado & Wilson (1994), competency concept, variables and context have been discussed since 1970s (Chisholm & Ely, 1976; Knowles, 1970; McClelland, 1973a).

Researchers and practitioners define *competency* differently with no specific consistent definition. Consequently, there is confusion and multiple meanings of competency among practitioners, HRM strategists, functional managers, trainers, profession educators, and even employees themselves. It is used by some practitioners to mean the competency standard base to complete organisational work (Lahti, 1999; Lustri et al., 2007; Muffatto, 1998; Selznick, 1957). Other practitioners have used it to improve employees' performance outcomes (McClelland, 1973b; Winterton, 2009). Competency continues to be vague for both practitioners and researchers (Jubb & Robotham, 1997; Lahti, 1999; Yang et al., 2006). It is determined based on the context that it is used for.

Two units of analysis for competency are identifiable in the literature; the competency of the individual and organisational competency. Competency as a concept was first introduced by Selznick, (1957), who used it to represent organisational values through its different activities and the most important factor to complete a task. McClelland (1973) added that competency is essential key factor effecting learning. McLagan & Bedrick (1983) described competency as trait and knowledge that can be proved through proper working. Similarly, Thornton III & Rupp, (2005) related competency to behavioural characteristics that relate to work performance. Spencer & Spencer (2008) proposed the iceberg theory which argues that competency is about implicit and explicit traits that lead to understand and

predict work performance. Prahalad & Hamel (1990) and Lahti, (1999) recognize that the concept of organisational core competency is derived from individual competency however, competency highlights a close relation to strategic thinking; therefore this concept can be related to organisational level even though it is originated at individuals' level. In fact, Saá-Pérez & GarcÍa-FalcÓn (2002) discuss that transforming resources and capabilities to organisational core competency result in organisational strength. Therefore, it is important for core competencies to be linked to individuals and organisational level in order to better formulate company strategy (Lahti, 1999; Muffatto, 1998).

Researchers have used the terms 'competence' and 'competency' interchangeably (Athey & Orth, 1999; Boterf, 2006; Kurz & Bartram, 2003; Lustri et al., 2007; McClelland, 1973a; Shippmann et al., 2000; Thornton III & Rupp, 2005; Winterton, 2009). These researchers believe that both terms hold the same meaning. This view is arguable. Over time there has been considerable debate on the meaning of these terms. Winterton's (2009) definition, based on McClelland's (1973a) use of the term, is that competency or competencies are an individual's characteristics that they need to possess to perform well. On the other hand, competence or competences is used to define job requirements that the individual needs to know or to possess in order to be able to perform a task required by that specific occupation. In another words, it is the ability of an individual to perform a required task in their job. Some authors have also attempted to describe competency as an input or a PC and described competence as an output that reflect the job requirement of that individual (Winterton, 2009).

Three pertinent definitions which use the individual unit of analysis can be traced in the literature: (a) competency as observable performance of tasks (Boam & Sparrow, 1992; Bowden & Masters, 1993; Strebler et al., 1997; Woodruffe, 1993), (b) competency as the ability to perform work to the standards required of the job, and (c) competency as individuals' attributes. The first definition focuses on observable performance of individuals (Boam & Sparrow, 1992; Bowden & Masters, 1993; Strebler et al., 1997; Woodruffe, 1993). The focus is on the tasks of the job to be done. Individuals are expected to be as competent as the written standards, and the main focus here is on the output or the task that the individual has to complete within their standards. The organisation then measures the individuals' tasks in order to assess their performance and may suggest training to enable employees to be more

competent, whether these employees are new or old in their job. These tasks are called competencies for the individual to perform and meet.

The second definition focuses on work or quality of outputs which pursue gains in productivity and/or efficiency at work. There are several measures of quality standards; it could be:

- The minimal level of accepted performance: For example, an academic organisation may require their lecturers to produce at least two journal papers per year as a minimal requirement.
- A higher level of previously accepted performance: In some cases managers may need to exceed last year's outcome by setting a new standard in order gain higher goals.
- To manage change: Rather than having a certain task to be done by a specialist, a manager may set a team of different skilled individuals to meet the changing requirements of an updated situation.
- To standardise a certain performance across the organisation; for example, an organisation may require a certain procedure to be followed in all its chain stores while manufacturing or presenting that product (Lustri et al., 2007).

The third definition focuses on individuals' attributes such as knowledge, skills and abilities (Boyatzis, 1982; Hunt & Meech, 1991; Sternberg & Kolligian Jr., 1990). This definition is based on the input of individuals, based on their attributes, in order to produce competent performance. The focus is on the kind of attribute needed for the job, hence organisations train their employees based on the attributes required to meet the job requirements.

Drawing on this literature, competency can be defined in three different ways: competency as observable performance; as the ability to perform work to the standards required of the job; or as individuals attributes. These three definitions are different in their meanings and in their context. Therefore theoretically, competency does not have a unified meaning. Similarly, practically competency still holds different meaning for different organisations. However, organisations can define competencies based on what they need such as strategies or strength. In fact, McClelland (1973) and Yang et al., (2006) argue the importance of properly defining

competency, as proper definition leads to organisational success. The next Sub-section discusses competency in relation individuals and organisation.

2.2.3 Competency, the Individual and the Organisation

Competency needs to be differentiated in terms of the individual and the organisation as units of analysis. At the organisational level, competency is used to describe organisational strength and capabilities to achieve strategic objectives; whereas at the individual level competency is used to develop training or learning programmes. A model of IC is provided by Rothwell & Kazanas (1993) in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2. 1: Model of IC

```
Job Situation  →  Individual  →  Response  →  Consequences
                       ↑                            │
                       └────────  Feedback  ────────┘
```
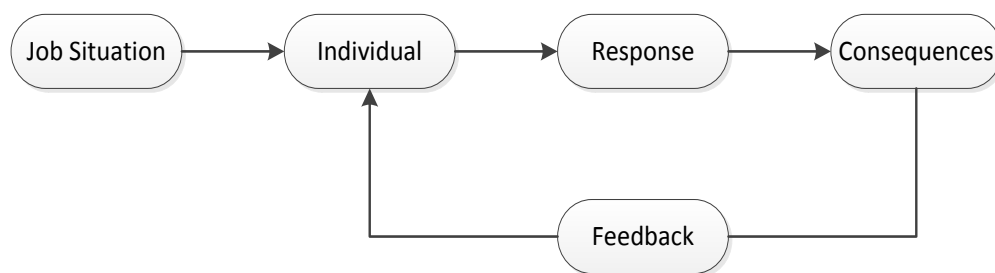
Source: Rothwell & Kazanas, 1993, p. 277.

This model is based on the output definition of competency (Hoffmann, 1999). It starts by describing the human performance based on doing a task. The individual then has to respond to that job situation, which results in consequences; which may be desirable, if they do the job well, or undesirable if they do the job poorly or with bad judgement, or it could be neutral. The individual, based on the consequences, will receive feedback (Rothwell & Kazanas, 1993). According to Hoffmann (1999) and Mager (1998), this model defines a clear approach to learning in order to deliver the required behavioural performance, which will be based on performance, condition and criteria. In fact, competency may be defined in each of the model variables themselves and the meaning of competency may be shifted according to each factor. For example, in a job situation, competency could be defined by performing the required tasks; in individuals, it would be defined by attributes that individuals should possess; in response, competency could be defined by the proper response required from the individual in certain situations; in consequence, competency may be defined based on the desirable outcomes (Rothwell & Kazanas, 1993).

The Model of IC (Figure 2.1) is used as a way of identifying individuals' performance problems; hence it is used as a basis for instructional design to provide appropriate training. Similarly, the competency approach, that is, establishing the standards of performance, assessing the training needs, providing training accordingly and assessing the training output as a role of HRM and departmental managers, is used as a way of controlling individuals' performance through learning management (Rothwell & Kazanas, 1993).

In reflection, after training and assessing the output of the training, what actually affects the individual in receiving and delivering certain competencies? Is it the training, the education, the personality of individuals or even the cultural and the working environment? Such reflection forms the basis for the author's theoretical framework for the research. Hypothetically, the level of development of IC of all employees effects organisational performance.

2.2.3.1 The Effect of Competency on Individual and Organisational Performance

Competency has an effect on individuals' ambition and role in the organisation. Zarifian (1999) (cited in Lustri et al., 2007, p. 187) relates competency to an individual's initiative and capacity to achieve recognition. This recognition can be achieved by doing more than what is required by their organisation; being able to understand new emerging situations and being able to take control of them; being able to acquire knowledge to act or to make a decision based on the current situation and at the same time take responsibility for their actions and decisions. In fact, "organisational competencies are only materialised through people and their competencies" (Boterf, 2006, pp. 187).

Competence is linked to organisation's effectiveness (Reimann, 1982). The importance of competency is discussed by Prahalad & Hamel (1990 & 2006), who show the effect of core competency on organisational success. They studied two companies: GTE, which in the early 1980s was considered as a leading company in IT and NEC, which was then considered as a small company in the IT industry. During the early 1980s, GTE sales were $ 9.98 billion where NEC's sales were only $3.8 billion. By the year 1988, NEC was able to increase its sales as high as $21.89 billion where GTE's sales were only $16.46 billion (a drop of 20% to 15% of its

sales). Not only that, but NEC became one of the best IT companies in the world and also the only IT company in the top five companies in revenue. The study concluded that the main reason for this change was that NEC used core competencies in its organisation, unlike GTE which did not. Based on Muffatto (1998) and Lahti, (1999), it is important to recognize IC and to be able to link it to organisational competency in order to better formulate organisational strategy which will be followed by both organisations and their individuals.

Given the above discussion, competency is conjectured as an individual's capability, characteristics and behaviour. In reflection therefore, it is essential to investigate the individual's characteristics and its effect on IC. How does PC affect the way they behave at work? How do personal capabilities affect their work? Are they given the right education to do the required job? Are they given the right training to do the required job? Does the individual's culture have an effect on the way they behave at work? Such reflection forms the basis for the author's theoretical framework for this research. The discussion of the competency literature above can be supported by theory and practical model of competency.

Now that IC has been discussed, it is necessary to consider HRM practices related to IC because they have a central role in developing IC. Since the role of HRM practices is essential in developing IC (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990 & 2006), research on HRM will be assessed in the following Section, because it has an effect on IC.

2.3 Human Resource Management

HRM is: "a strategic and coherent approach to the management of an organisation's most valued assets - the people working there who individually and collectively contribute to the achievement of its objectives" (Armstrong, 2003, p .3). This definition gives HRM a much wider role in the organisation than the previous conceptions of personnel management and personnel administration (Henderson, 2011).

HRM department deals with employees including, selecting, hiring, promoting and firing, but most importantly developing IC. However, HRM is limited in such development by the structure and policies of the organisation.

Competency is an aspect of human resource development theory (Simmonds & Pedersen, 2006). The literature makes a distinction between functional and competency-based approach to HRM (Hondeghem & Vandermeulen, 2000). Whereas functional HRM focuses on individuals' jobs and defines what is done, competency-based HRM focuses on the IC profile and defines what is done, why and how (Hondeghem & Vandermeulen, 2000). Research on competency-based HRM has examined the relation between competency-based HRM and a range of other variables such as HRM sophistication (Heffernan & Flood, 2000). The next Sub-section discusses the role of HRM particularly on IC development.

2.3.1 Role of HRM in Developing Individuals' Competency

The positive impact of HRM on IC has attracted researchers and practitioners (Combs et al., 2006; Delery & Doty, 1996; Huselid, 1995). According to Guest et al. (2003), there are studies on set of HR practices within the organisation for its positive effect on employees, such as improving productivity, profit, quality and commitment, and hence the organisational outcomes.

However, there are few studies that actually examine the level of the effect of HRM on performance and / or competency of individuals. Similarly, there are few studies that examine the multiple practices of HRM on IC (Wright & Boswell, 2002, p. 262). Therefore, Hyde et al. (2013) address this gap by identifying several mental models that relate to HRM, and present a typology of HRM practices effects on employees' performance. They identified sets of high performance work practices (Boselie et al., 2005; Combs et al., 2006; Guest et al., 2003; Wall & Wood, 2005; West et al., 2002). Which includes employees' development, performance appraisals, training and recruitment policies, performance related payments, and job security (Youndt et al., 1996, p. 840). Even though this approach is widely adopted (Hyde et al., 2013), it is criticised for its inability to measure outcomes, unclear quality and inconsistency of HRM implementation and its implementation coast (Hyde et al., 2006; Marchington & Wilkinson, 2008). Therefore, Hyde et al., (2013) argue that there is a need for overall HRM configuration and organisational performance, in particular there is need to examine the fit between organisational strategies and HRM practices. In order to achieve this fit, an understanding of the HRM practices should first be linked to the individuals' level of performance.

Though the literature agrees on the positive effect of HRM on IC, it does not agree on the models or methods to be used for this purpose or to identify to what degree HRM affects IC. Also, HRM practices lack adequate measurement of individuals' performances. Therefore, for the purpose of this thesis HRM is analysed for its effect on IC. Another factor that has an essential role in the working environment, and therefore may have an effect on IC, is the use of KM in the organisation. Many researchers (Edvardsson, 2006, 2007; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Nonaka, 1994, 2007; Petersen & Poulfelt, 2002) agree that KM has a positive effect on organisational success, hence on individuals' success or competency, as the next Section explains.

2.4 Knowledge Management

In Sub-section 2.3.1, the HRM function was discussed as the main department responsible for IC. In this Section KM is discussed and proposed as a critical tool for developing IC. The role of KM to develop IC is the unique proposition of this thesis. Since KM is established in the literature as significantly important in the success of organisations, it is the individual whose competency contributes to this organisational success through knowledge creation.

Developing individual's knowledge contributes to IC, which in turn contributes to organisational competency. Edvardsson (2006, 2007) and Petersen & Poulfelt (2002) agree that KM is effective and increasingly used to improve decision-making, productivity, product creativity and profits. Bell (1974); Drucker (1969) and Toffler (1990) agree that society is changing into the "knowledge society," regardless of the type of organisation. Apostolou & Mentzas (1999); Kluge et al. (2001) discuss the positive effect of knowledge constructed throughout the organisation to give successful outcomes.

Researchers, such as Nonaka (1994), argues that organisational systems are processes for solving problems; rather organisational systems should emphasis on how to manage efficiently information, knowledge and decisions in an uncertain working environment. The organisation tends to process the information through problem-solving in terms of what it will gain, not considering the cause of the problem. In fact, many organisations deal with new information or emergent information as a challenge and look for problem-solving methods to resolve the

challenge, whereas according to Nonaka (1994) they should be concerned with ways of absorbing new knowledge into the organisation to make it more successful. Additionally, some organisations do not enable employees to share their knowledge. This is because organisational policies hinder or prevent effective knowledge sharing, such as practicing top-down management.

The literature is not clear on the value of implementing KM. Petersen & Poulfelt (2002) assert that KM enables organisations to gain and to maintain competitive advantage through sharing, developing and applying knowledge. Yet, the concept of sharing is not well defined in the literature. Knowledge sharing however is not absent, but rather it is embedded within technology and individuals. This technological framing of knowledge management is partly the explanation for unsuccessful KM initiatives. Greenes (cited in Petersen & Poulfelt, 2002, pp. 5-6) argues that management, especially in a small organisation, assume that their employees talk to each other "out of socialisation" and hence share their knowledge. Greenes argues that this assumption is incorrect and could be a barrier to successful implementation of KM. Additionally, other studies suggest that projects are more likely to fail if they do not have an organisational knowledge strategy (Foote et al., 2001; Storey & Barnett, 2000).

In fact, the success of KM and its applications is carried out by competent individuals. In this thesis the theory of knowledge creation model developed by Nonaka & Takeuchi (1995) is used to develop a better and a deeper understanding of KM; and more importantly, to investigate the effect of this model on developing the IC model that holds that several variables have an effect on IC. The next three Sub-sections explain the ontological and epistemological dimension of KM and the theory of knowledge creation model and its implications.

2.4.1 The Ontological Dimension of Knowledge Management

Since individuals possess knowledge in their minds it is important to understand the ontology of knowledge. Knowledge is defined as "a dynamic human process of justifying personal belief as part of an aspiration for the truth" (Nonaka, 1994, p. 15). Knowledge is composed of explicit knowledge and tacit knowledge (Polanyi, 1966).

Competency depends on how knowledgeable an individual is and therefore understanding the ontology of knowledge is important for developing IC. It is necessary to understand the ontology of knowledge and KM, because KM itself is hypothesised in this thesis as a tool for developing IC.

As individuals perform work, it is necessary to understand how they make sense and obtain meaning of the work they do. "An ontology is an explicit knowledge-level specification of a conceptualization, i.e. the set of distinctions that are meaningful to an agent. The conceptualization—and therefore the ontology—may be affected by the particular domain and the particular task it is intended for" (van Heijst et al., 1997, p. 192). Individuals' explicit knowledge-level specification of conceptualisation related to specific work domains and tasks affects their competency. Therefore, it is important to understand the process, which, importantly, includes knowledge sharing of explicit knowledge-level specification.

The process of KM involves creating, evaluating and using it, similar to the nature of ontology described by Poli's (2002) three types. First, is the descriptive ontology that collects general and specific information regarding many items for the purpose of analysis. Second, is the formal ontology that filters, codes and organises the results of the descriptive ontology. Third is the formal codification, which is formalized ontology. This relates to IC in terms of the types of knowledge required to implement KM.

An aspect of the ontology of knowledge is the process of knowledge creation, which begins at the individual level, growing and extending to the group and reaching the organisation. It can also reach inter-organisational levels (Kogut & Zander, 1992; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). In fact, individuals' interaction is essential for the development of the organisational level. Indeed, with the individual, there is now a further dimension that should be considered, which involves the degree of individuals' social interaction within the organisation, to share and develop knowledge (Nonaka, 1994). Various interesting questions arise from such ontological descriptions of the process of knowledge creation: to what degree are individuals willing to interact socially? Are they committed to the organisational knowledge process? Do they have the autonomy (intention) to do that? Are they stable in their job or do they want to discontinue –as job uncertainty hinders the knowledge

creation process? However, at this stage and part of the ontological dimension of KM, it is essential to distinguish between data, information and knowledge, as many may use them interchangeably (Firestone & McElroy, 2005).

2.4.1.1 Distinguishing between Data, Information and Knowledge

To define KM properly it is necessary to understand the ontology of knowledge. It is common procedure to distinguish between *data, information* and *knowledge*. Firstly, data can be obtained from observations or measurements as numbers, images, words and/or sounds, for example in a company's survey (Firestone & McElroy, 2005); at this stage the company's survey data are only numbers that do not have meaning for individuals.

Secondly, information, unlike data, is organised in a way which represents a meaningful output, such as the analyses and guidelines drawn from a company's survey. Information means several messages and / or meanings that might influence knowledge by adding to it, changing it or reconstructing it (Machlup & Mansfield, 1984). Based on Dretske (1999), information is the basis of having knowledge. Information is considered to be the median and the ground base to formulate knowledge.

Thirdly, knowledge is the product of application, analysis and the use of data and/or information (Hislop, 2013). However, KM has been defined as a combination of not only information but also individual experience, context, interpretation and reflection (Davenport et al., 1998).

Both information and knowledge can be seen from two perspectives, the syntactic and the semantic, as shown in Table 2.1. Syntactic refers to the grammatical structure of the information or knowledge and semantic refers to the meaning derived from information or knowledge. Table 2.1 helps to distinguish information and knowledge better.

Table 2. 1: The Meaning of Information and KM.

	Information	Knowledge
Syntactic	The amount of information we have regardless of what it means. For example, a telephone bill will be charged based on the minutes using this service, dependent on time duration, local or international call, the time the call was made and so on. It does not charge based on the content or the value of the telephone conversation (Shannon & Weaver, 1949). The subject of relationship among words and operation, as in grammar, regardless of what the meaning (G. Ruggeri Stevens & McElhill, 2000).	Meaning cannot be found within the information during the knowledge creation process (Nonaka, 1994). The establishment of boundary conditions, which will constrain the dynamic of the physical processes (Polanyi & Goldstein, 2012; Polanyi, 1968). The language that could form boundaries that inhibit the knowledge due to the lack of common syntax among individuals or groups (Carlile, 2002). The process of annotating data into the repositories (Patrick & Dotsika, 2007).
Semantic	Is when the meaning of the information is considered rather than the means of the information (Dretske, 1999). When information contains new meanings that contribute to making a difference (Bateson, 2000). When both the sender and the receiver agree on the same meaning of the words used in the massage (G. Ruggeri Stevens & McElhill, 2000).	It is about the meaning that it contains. It is important for the knowledge to be understood, observed and measured in order for the person to be able to control it (Pattee & Rączaszek-Leonardi, 2012). It is the meaning that could form boundaries when individuals or groups interpret the same knowledge differently. It is also practice that could form boundaries when the flow of knowledge is constrained by different individuals or groups (Carlile, 2002). Putting structure to the unstructured or semi-structured mass of information content in the data repositories (Patrick & Dotsika, 2007).

To provide further depth of understanding of the ontological dimension of KM, it is defined in the following Sub-section.

2.4.1.2 Knowledge Management Definitions

KM has several meanings from different organisational perspectives. "KM has been defined in a variety of ways but is generally understood as the process of creating, acquiring, capturing, sharing and using knowledge within an organisation to enhance its learning capability and performance" (Jimenez-Jimenez & Sanz-Valle, 2013, p. 29). Another definition is that KM is "a dynamic human process of justifying

personal belief as part of an aspiration for the truth" (Nonaka, 1994, p. 15). This is the personal belief of the individual and how they justify it. In other words, the flow of information is what creates and organises knowledge based on the individual's belief. KM relates strongly to human beliefs and human actions.

"Knowledge management is the process of continually managing knowledge of all kinds to meet existing and emerging needs, to identify and exploit existing and acquired knowledge assets and to develop new opportunities" (Quintas et al., 1997, p. 387). This definition demonstrates the importance of KM to organisational success. It emphasises that both existing and emerging needs are met by knowledge. For existing knowledge it is important to capture it. It is important to capture existing knowledge as individuals are often unaware of the knowledge they actually possess (Nonaka, 1994). For emerging needs, new knowledge is required and this involves developing existing staff and their IC to generate the new knowledge, mostly based on existing knowledge. Since, it is the individual who helps to create 'knowledge assets', part of IC is to be creative and innovative. The epistemological dimension of KM is discussed in the next Sub-section.

2.4.2 The Epistemological Dimension of Knowledge Management

It is also necessary to understand the epistemology of knowledge. Knowing how individuals come to acquire knowledge is crucial for developing education and training programmes to improve IC.

The debate on the epistemology of knowledge is wide-ranging. It is at its most interesting at the philosophical level. Coffey's (2010) definition of epistemology captures the essence of epistemology: *"Epistemology or the Theory of Knowledge* is the philosophical investigation of human knowledge itself, from the standpoint of the certitude, validity, or truth-value of this knowledge" (Coffey, 2010, p. 1). This definition is important because it implies how such certain and valid knowledge is obtained. Certitude, validity and truth-value are improved with better education and training, both of which result in better competency. Whereas education provides domain-specific knowledge, training provides skills to execute work.

"Epistemology is one of the core areas of philosophy. It is concerned with the nature, sources and limits of knowledge. Epistemology has been primarily concerned with

propositional knowledge that is, knowledge that such-and-such is true, rather than other forms of knowledge, for example, knowledge on how to do such-and-such. There is a vast array of views about propositional knowledge, but one virtually universal presupposition is that knowledge is true belief, but not mere true belief" (Klein, 2005, p. 59). This agrees with Nonaka's (1994) notion of knowledge being 'justified true belief'. However, it is the case that individuals can express what they know but they are unaware of how much they actually know (Polanyi, 1966). This concurs with Klein's notion that knowledge is 'not mere true belief'. For the purpose of this thesis, the approach of Nonaka and Takeuchi is used, in which they distinguish between explicit knowledge and tacit knowledge.

At the operational level, knowledge is generated, evaluated, shared, and used either as explicit knowledge or tacit knowledge. Explicit knowledge is knowledge that can be expressed or communicated through language such as words, numbers, codes, formulas and is, therefore, easily shared. Whereas, tacit knowledge, is very personal due to its subjective and intuitive nature and it is difficult to be formalised and shared (Lustri et al., 2007; Nonaka, 1994). However, this definition depends on individuals' PC and environment. For instance, a person may come from non-sharing culture and may find it difficult to share knowledge at work. Similarly, they might want to share but their working environment hinders sharing because of organisational policies and procedures and organisational culture, which may be secretive and closed.

Having discussed the ontological and the epistemological dimensions of KM, the next Sub-section presents the theory of knowledge management that promises organisational success through its individuals.

2.4.3 Theory of Knowledge Management

KM hinges on the competency of the individual to create knowledge in an organisational setting. An individual's capability to create knowledge is assumed in the literature on KM, rather than theoretically argued or empirically established; which this thesis seeks to address. This Sub-section elaborates the theory of KM from the perspective of IC to do so.

An earlier attempt to systemically consider organisational knowledge is by Anderson (1996) who discussed the idea of knowledge creation as the ACT Model. He

described two types of knowledge. First, declarative knowledge is the cognitive and explicit kind of knowledge. The other type is procedural knowledge; it involves physical activity and is tacit knowledge.

However, the dominant ideas on knowledge creation are Nonaka & Takeuchi (1995), who developed the theory of organisational knowledge creation. They begin by discussing the nature of information and knowledge and then draw a distinction between "tacit" and "explicit" knowledge. This distinction represents what could be described as the epistemological dimension to organisational knowledge creation. The theory embraces a continual dialogue between explicit and tacit knowledge which drives the creation of new ideas and concepts and specific techniques for innovation of products.

In the application of this theory in extant literature the focus is on the organisation rather than the individual. It can be argued that the fundamental component of the theory of organisational knowledge creation is the *individual*. This fundamental component, the individual, in the theory of organisational knowledge creation is underdeveloped. The success of the organisation is based on organisational knowledge, but it should be argued that the success depends on the individual in the organisation, and therefore it is important to develop IC. Knowledge is not disembodied rather it is embodied and the individual who works with knowledge – generates it, evaluates, distributes and applies it. Therefore this theory is considered in this thesis in the next Section.

2.4.3.1 Tacit and Explicit Knowledge

There are two types of knowledge, tacit and explicit knowledge (Polanyi 1966). *Tacit knowledge* is very personal because it depends on the individual's actions, commitment and involvement, and it is hard to make it formal. *Explicit knowledge,* on the other hand, is the knowledge that can be communicated in formal language. Polanyi asserts that individuals have more knowledge embodied within them than they actually can talk about. The spoken knowledge is in fact very minor compared to what individuals know tacitly.

Technically, tacit knowledge is about know-how, crafts, and skills needed for the job. PC for instance, is important because it indicates the individual's intention and

willingness to share. If individuals choose not to share, then knowledge cannot be worked in the organisation. As Bateson (2000) described, communication between individuals or colleagues is about sharing their tacit knowledge . He described it as "parallel processing" of the current situation while dealing simultaneously with another problem or situation. Unlike explicit knowledge, which is "digital" and can be found in databases, archives and other means. Explicit and tacit knowledge are incorporated into the knowledge creation model, as discussed in the next Section.

2.4.3.2 Spiral of Knowledge Creation Model

Nonaka & Takeuchi's (1995) purpose for creating the spiral of knowledge creation model is to enable companies to convert existing knowledge, whether it is tacit or explicit knowledge, and along ontological and epistemological dimensions, to create and apply new knowledge. This model is depicted in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2. 2: The Four Modes of Knowledge Conversion
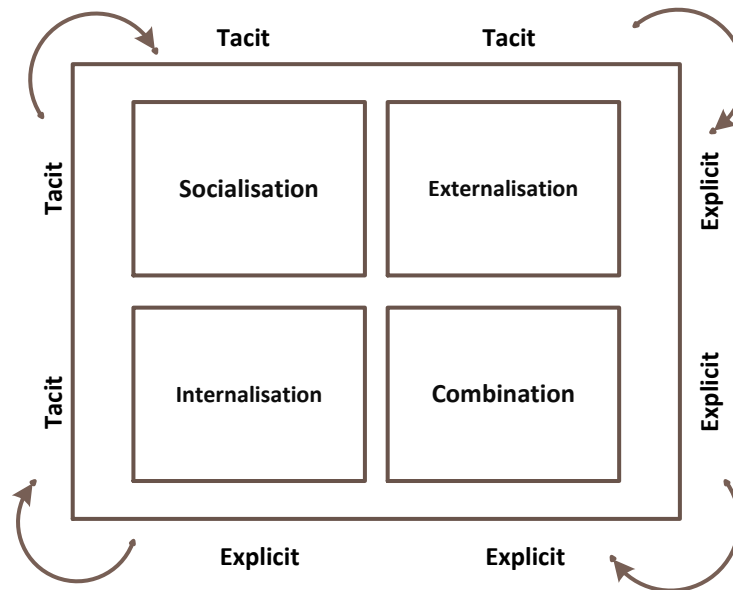
Source: Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995, p.62.

There are four modes of knowledge creation depicted in the above Figure (2.2) that consider tacit and explicit knowledge when creating new knowledge.

Socialisation Socialisation involves the transferring of knowledge, namely from *tacit knowledge to tacit knowledge*. In this mode, individuals exchange and interact with

each other through socialisation and what they are doing is conveying tacit information from one individual to the other inner tacit self. An example of socialisation is colleagues talking with each other about a problem or an experience. This knowledge could be shared or acquired through other means other than language, such as observation, imitation, and practice. For example, some organisations use on-job training (OJT) and the employees will gain their knowledge through observations and practice, and the more they practise the more solid tacit knowledge they will have through experience.

However, this assumes or takes for granted that individuals are willing to socialise. Nonaka & Takeuchi's (1995) work does not show the practical, actual mechanisms of socialisation, but they do provide the conceptual understanding. The question here is to what extant individuals are actually capable and willing to socialise to share their tacit knowledge, as required for an effective spiral of knowledge. The model also assumes that the organisational policies and practices encourage socialisation. Later, these questions will be illustrated from existing research literature to show the effect of the working environment on successful socialisation or its hindrance through lack of knowledge sharing by individuals.

Combination involves the transferring of knowledge, namely from *explicit knowledge to explicit knowledge.* This mode involves individuals using some kind of mechanism to exchange and combine their explicit knowledge, such as meetings, telephone calls and e-mails. When the explicit information gets sorted, categorized and so on, it will lead to new explicit knowledge. The process of getting explicit knowledge from the explicit knowledge is called combination.

Similar to socialisation, combination assumes that individual share their knowledge. When knowledge is explicit, individuals tend to be more willing to share their explicit knowledge such as replying to email or attending formal meetings. However, and importantly, whether the tacit knowledge is similarly shared is open to debate and evidence. This tacit knowledge may be more valuable than the explicit knowledge being shared. This all depends on the competent individual who is capable and willing of sharing it. Later, this point will be illustrated from existing research literature.

Externalisation involves the transferring of knowledge, namely from *tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge*. This mode is about metaphor and models. Lakoff & Johnson (2008) defined metaphor in terms of when a person explains or describes something using another form. Nonaka (1991) describes metaphor applied at the Japanese Honda, where top management began with the idea 'let's gamble', and gave the project team two instructions – tacit knowledge – (a) to come up with a product totally different from any previous one and (b) the car should not be expensive nor cheap. The project team leader in turn interpreted this as 'Theory of Automobile Evolution', particularly posing the question: 'If the automobile were an organism, how should it evolve? This resulted in a slogan: Man-maximum, machine-minimum.' The physical result was that of a car as a sphere – short in length and tall in height.

However, the model assumes sufficient communication skills, which can only be gained through experience and requires appropriate personal attributes to share knowledge in order to create new knowledge to invent new product. An issue here is whether metaphor could be tacit or explicit in nature, but metaphor itself is not knew knowledge. Metaphor set the challenge for the product development team and started the process of meeting the criteria of the new product.

Unlike the previous two modes where the knowledge transfer process involves two parties, the externalisation process seems to be limited to only one party, despite top management issuing the initial metaphor – the one party involved is the product development project team itself who transform tacit understanding to explicit understanding. In other words, the process of transferring tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge has been done by one party rather than two or more parties; unlike the other modes that Nonaka described. The question here is what value can be placed on metaphor to create new knowledge. Also, how does the mode of externalisation help develop IC? Metaphor is used to set the team a challenge, to get information across to the team. How can metaphor be used as a tool to develop IC? Later, this point will be illustrated from existing research literature.

Internalisation involves the transferring of knowledge, namely from *explicit knowledge to tacit knowledge*. This mode is about learning by doing. Nonaka (1991) provides the example of a financial controller introducing a new financial control

system. Other employees then use the innovation and internalise it. This however assumes that managers or HRM are giving individuals the appropriate training to develop their knowledge and skills. Also, this mode does not consider individuals who are slow learners or do not have the required skills to perform their job.

Each mode of the knowledge conversion can independently create new knowledge by itself; however, the purpose of this model is to have interaction among these modes in the context of tacit and explicit knowledge. Shifting from one mode to the other is what Nonaka & Takeuchi's (1995) call a "cycle." Starting with the first mode, socialisation, an interacting team, where individuals share their experiences and thoughts with other individuals (tacit to tacit). Second, the externalisation is effective using meaningful dialogues between individuals. To make these dialogues easier, individuals use metaphor when converting their tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge. Third, combination is when teams agree on concepts and then coordinate with each other to combine the external explicit information with the existing explicit data they have. This combined knowledge will be gathered and documented. At this stage, however, several rounds of trial and error will take place until they reach the final and desired form. Fourth, internalisation is mainly learning-by-doing; going through the experiment of combination mode and trial and error, individuals will learn a lot from their trials and sharing of experience and thoughts (explicit), and then what they learn through this process will be embedded in themselves in the form of tacit knowledge. Then, the cycle will continually repeat as the organisation progresses and will become bigger as more members join in. This cycle is called the "spiral of knowledge creation" (Nonaka, 1994). In Figure 2.2 this 'spiral' is used to depict how knowledge creation depends on previous knowledge, such as existing knowledge that is developed through individual's experience; which in turn is developed further as new needs emerge. At each turn of the spiral all four modes of knowledge creation are engaged.

The spiral of knowledge creation model (KCM) may be evaluated in terms of IC necessary for the successful implementation of this model. An interesting question is that do all the four modes have to be executed to develop new knowledge or could one or two of the modes lead to new knowledge. It is possible that one of the modes can lead to knowledge, for example tacit to explicit knowledge, as in the case of a new theory formulated by a researcher. Also, the model assumes individuals come

from the same background, having willingness to share knowledge. However, individuals' backgrounds and PC affect their willingness to share, as illustrated from the research literature later. The use of KCM is argued in the literature to lead to organisational success through successful KM implementation (Nonaka, 1991; Prahalad & Hamel, 2006). Significantly, this implementation is executed by individuals. The modes of the model not only require competent individual behaviour but as postulated in this thesis, importantly, they also develop competent individual behaviours by their very execution. For example, the Internalisation mode requires knowledge to be transferred from explicit knowledge to tacit knowledge through learning by doing. The very process of doing involves individuals in skilful experiences of their jobs. It is such skilful experiences that contribute to developing IC. Therefore, it can be inferred that the model is designed to develop IC. Hence, IC is assumed to be developed through the socialisation, combination, externalisation and internalisation modes of the spiral of knowledge model. This assumption has not been previously questioned in the literature, which is done in the present research. In addition, two questions arise: (a) do all four modes have to be used to create new knowledge or could it be done through one or two modes? And (b) can the model also actually develop IC to contribute to successful new knowledge creation, hence organisational success?

In order to develop IC, it is important to involve HRM as discussed in Section 2.3. In addition, since KM is acknowledged to have a vital role in organisational success, it has been shown logically in this Section how KM contributes to developing IC. Now, the major organisational variables effecting the development of IC, HRM and KM, have been discussed. The next Section discusses the interrelationship between HRM, KM and how they are integral to understand IC.

2.5 Human Resource Management, Knowledge Management and Individuals' Competency

This Section discusses the commonalities between and integrates the role of HRM, KM and competency as found in the literature. There is little research on the critical interface between IC, HRM and KM. This interface is crucial to understand IC for successful KM implementation. This Section begins by discussing three forms of management, namely top-down, middle-up-down, and bottom-up, to identify the role of HRM in KM to develop IC. It then covers the role of HRM in implementing KM,

and its consequent role in developing IC; this lays the foundation to articulate the reciprocal relationship between HRM and KM, which requires discussing the two levels of this reciprocal relationship: organisational and individual. Similarly, there is a reciprocal relationship between competency and KM which is then discussed. Then, this is exemplified through a conceptual model of KM and the requisite tacit and explicit knowledge for IC. This integration is necessary to understand IC better, and KM as a tool to develop IC (Alainati et al., 2011). Based on the research literature reviewed above, Figure 2.3 illustrates the relation between HRM, KM and Competency.

Figure 2. 3: The Inter-relation between HRM, KM, and IC
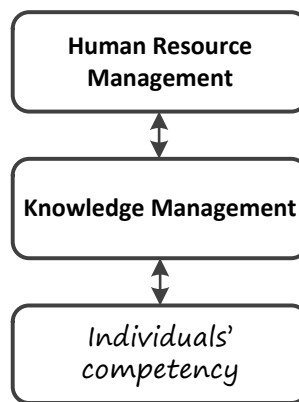
In Figure 2.3, each of the soft rectangles represents the major categorical variables in IC development. The bilateral arrows represent the reciprocal relationships between these variables. Many researchers such as Prahalad & Hamel (1990, 2006) and Storey & Barnett (2000), have argued that a firm's competitive advantage is driven from its internal resources that can add value, are unique and might be difficult for the competitors to imitate. In that sense, HRM and KM and IC fit those criteria. As part of HRM and KM integration and their effect on IC the role of management is discussed next.

2.5.1 The Role of Management

The role of higher echelon of management is critical in successful KM implementation and enabling individuals to take part in the knowledge creation process. Top management determine what HR's role should be in implementing KM and developing IC. This Sub-section identifies the type of managerial roles and organisational policies (Nonaka, 1994). Nonaka discusses how to manage the process

of organisational knowledge creation through creative chaos, redundancy and requisite variety in terms of top-down, middle up-down and bottom-up management, as shown in following Table 2.2.

Table 2. 2: A Comparison of Three Management Models.

	Top-Down	Middle-Up-Down	Bottom-Up
Agent of Knowledge Creation	top management	self-organising team (with middle managers as team leaders)	entrepreneurial individual (intrapreneur)
Resource Allocation	hierarchically	from diverse viewpoints	self-organising principle
Pursued Synergy	"synergy of money"	'synergy of knowledge"	"synergy of people"
Organisation	Big and powerful HQ. staff use manuals	team-oriented affiliated firms by intrapreneurs	Small HQ. self-organising suborganisations
Management Processes	leaders as commanders emphasis on information processing chaos not allowed	leaders as catalysts create organisational knowledge create/amplify chaos / noise	leaders as sponsors create personal information chaos/noise premised
Accumulated Knowledge	explicit computerized/documented	explicit and tacit shared in diverse forms	tacit incarnated in individuals
Weakness	high dependency on top management	human exhaustion lack of overall control of the organisation	time consuming difficult to coordinate individuals

Source: Nonaka, 1994, p. 31.

Top-down model is the traditional way of managing the organisation. It involves top management making decisions, creating concepts and passing them down to lower levels. Middle managers from that point learn these concepts and break them down to their employees, down the hierarchy. In this model however, it is only top managers who make and create information. In addition, this model is only good for implementation if top managers know exactly what they want and need and give orders to lower levels. Consequently, the model does not enable middle managers

and other employees to share their ideas, knowledge and innovation with others. Hence, this model hinders knowledge creation in the middle and lower level of the organisation. This model is not suitable for the spiral of knowledge creation.

M*iddle-up-down* model is suitable for creating a knowledge-creating organisation. It is based on creative chaos, redundancy, and requisite variety; all these major roles depend on top management's decisions. Members at all levels of the organisation are important in developing and creating knowledge. Top managers provide their vision to middle managers. Middle managers draw plans to realise these and then lower managers implement these plans. Lower managers inform middle managers about the implementation of the plan, as they are the ones who make it happen, and middle managers discuss it with the top managers and so on. It other words, managers of all levels are involved as one team to reach organisational goals and they all share developing and creating knowledge. Therefore, flow of knowledge goes around all managerial levels. So the spiral of knowledge creation is better implemented as middle-up-down. Nonaka assumes in his KCM that organisations are using the *middle-up-down* model. In reality however, the *middle-up-down* model is not always followed. In that case, it needs organisations to be willing to change policy in order to be able to implement knowledge creation.

In *bottom-up management*, which is the least used model, decisions are made by middle and bottom managers, rather than by top managers. Lower levels of managers are developed into entrepreneurs by this model. Similar to the top-bottom management, this model is not suitable to implement the KCM because knowledge is only created at lower levels and omits higher echelons of management.

Nonaka (1994) proposed that middle-up-down management is the best approach for knowledge creation, in addition to the use of hypertext; that is the ability of the organisation to switch between different contexts depending on what is needed and to accommodate to certain situations and development whether inside or outside the organisation. The role of HRM is either enabled or limited by these alternative models of management and organisational policy, as discussed next.

2.5.2 The Role of HRM in Developing Individuals' Competency to Implement Knowledge Management

This Sub-section begins by identifying HRM and its role in the organisation. As part of HRM practices, KM will be emphasised by defining its importance, and presenting KM theory in relation to HRM's role to develop IC.

The importance of KM is increasingly considered as enabling organisations to achieve the competitive advantage (Amit & Schoemaker, 1993; Barney, 1991; Grant, 1996; Jimenez-Jimenez & Sanz-Valle, 2013; Schimmel & Muntslag, 2009). Along with KM importance, is the role of HRM which is important to enable such tangible asset (Currie & Kerrin, 2003; Edvardsson, 2007; Minbaeva et al., 2009; Oltra, 2005). According to Jimenez-Jimenez & Sanz-Valle (2013), the relationship between HRM and KM meet in the individuals' ability to learn and in their willingness to share knowledge with others. In fact, HRM's main role is to positively influence individuals' knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours in order to stimulate individuals' to create and share knowledge (Currie & Kerrin, 2003; Dodgson, 1993; Edvardsson, 2007; Kamoche & Mueller, 1998; López-Cabrales et al., 2011). Thus, more research has been conducted about employees' creating, absorption, sharing and transferring KM within firms (Chung-Jen Chen & Huang, 2009; Currie & Kerrin, 2003; Edvardsson, 2007; Minbaeva et al., 2009). Therefore, the role of HRM in KM can be utilized by first using HRM practices to motivate individuals to learn and second, using HRM practices to develop the organisational culture in order to encourage knowledge sharing and knowledge transfer (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2005; DeLong & Fahey, 2000; Edvardsson, 2007).

Takeuchi and Takeuchi (2013) conducted a study that reveals that work practices do affect individuals' attitudes, which eventually affect their working behaviour and competency. In their study, they examined the effect of HRM practices on individuals' attitude and outcome and found that they do affect individuals' behaviour. Crucially for this thesis, they suggested that one way to measure HRM success is by taking individuals' behaviour and outcome as an indicator, or IC.

Despite the important role of HRM, many KM initiatives tend to neglect the role of HRM in implementing and facilitating KM in the organisation (Chen et al., 2011; Oltra, 2005). In addition, there are few studies that have explained the impact of the

role of HRM practices on implementing and facilitating KM. Rather, most of these researches consider partial roles of HRM practices that would affect KM, where there are some that consider only one role of HRM (N. Foss et al., 2009; Jerez-Gómez et al., 2005), on one of the KM processes which is knowledge sharing (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2005; Camelo-Ordaz et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2011; Foss et al., 2009; Liu & Liu, 2011). Therefore, the literature lacks the clear linkage between HRM practices to facilitate the implementation of KM within the organisation (Jimenez-Jimenez & Sanz-Valle, 2013; Theriou & Chatzoglou, 2008).

From the literature above, HRMs' concern is to utilize individuals maximally, to benefit from their knowledge and skills for organisational purposes. Individuals lead their organisation to be more competitive in the market. With the emergence of KM and its growing importance in organisational success, HRM and KM work together to ensure organisational success. Since HRM is responsible for developing IC, and as IC is enabled through appropriate knowledge, as discussed in the previous Section on IC, it is necessary for HRM to be associated with KM in the organisation.

Researchers such as Carter and Scarbrough (2003) and Robertson & Hammersley (2000) agree that individuals are the primary factor for both HRM and KM. Given the core argument of this thesis, that the spiral of KCM implicitly develops IC, it is necessary to focus on IC from the perspective of HRM and KM (Alainati et al., 2009).To illustrate this perspective, Edvardsson (2007) related HRM and KM in many different aspects:

Strategies Hansen (1999) introduced codification and personalisation. *Codification* is a form of explicit knowledge. It is stored in databases, where it is accessible by others and it is in the form of words, numbers and specifications. Organisations that deal with such knowledge tend to invest in IT more heavily. It makes individuals tend to rely on databases for any inquiry, making individuals less important for social communication. It gives a better window for having standardised learning for all individuals. *Personalisation*, on the other hand, deals with individuals' tacit information, such as their intention or their skills in handling problems. In this context, individuals socially interact, and they also learn from each other, rather than from the databases alone.

Recruitment and selection Based on Scarbrough (2003), KM is acquired by complex organisations that mostly have not specified recruitment practices. Because of this setting, it might be difficult to specifically identify the knowledge and the expertise needed in advance. Importantly, HRM identify correct job roles and make appropriate job descriptions in order to identify the knowledge and expertise needed, to subsequently build new knowledge.

Also, according to Currie & Kerrin (2003), knowledge sharing may be blocked or difficult to share between groups or departments because of the sub-culture that develops between them. For example, individuals may be loyal only to their department and not be willing to share knowledge in order to favour their department. Kristof (1996) and Judge & Cable (1997) discussed the importance of hiring individuals who fit the organisational culture in terms of their qualifications and PC.

Training and development Edvardsson (2007) discussed the use of Argyris's (1999) theory on single and double loop learning. He argued that single loop learning is used through codification strategy, while double loop learning is used to emphasise personalisation strategy. For instance, internalisation mode, which is learning by doing, is to transfer explicit knowledge to tacit knowledge, similarly in codification data is explicitly written in databases to learn tacitly by individuals, which is as described single loop learning. Whereas socialisation for example in the KCM transfers tacit knowledge to tacit knowledge between individuals through critical discussion and personalisation, which is termed as double loop learning. Therefore, single-loop is where existing paradigm of doing things is not questioned. Double-loop is where existing paradigm is questioned, so it produces innovation; also called critical thinking.

According to Armstrong (2012), the role of learning and development can be either generic (for a range of similar jobs) or individual (based on specific job) which can include required competencies. It can be used to assess the needed development of and training required by the individuals. These learning competencies should be linked to organisational competencies and competency framework.

Performance management According to Roberts (2001), performance management consists of ensuring that the performance is competently executed based on

organisational objectives, by identifying who is performing what. In order to maximize the benefit from employees' performance and to manage it, it is essential to share knowledge and resolve any conflicts.

Reward and recognition The purpose of the reward system is to show the important elements valued by the organisation (Edvardsson, 2007). To make the reward system more effective it is advisable to have a mixture of rewards in order to motivate individuals. Rewards and recognition could be in any of the following ways: providing equity share, providing employee benefits, flexible working hours and/or providing new location, promotion, financial reward, certificate, etc. (Evans, 2003).

The literature above on HRM and KM shows the importance of both managers and individuals to the success and survival of organisations. In addition, this thesis proposes the four variables; education, training, PC and environment, composing the holistic IC and that they occur as prior-to-work and on-job. In the following Sections, these variables are identified in the research literature and then conceptualised as variables that combine holistically to understand and define holistic IC in the context of KM.

2.6 Education

It can be argued that IC depends on knowledge obtained through education. Therefore, the first variable to consider is education, where research shows that prior education, the education an employee has obtained before joining the organisation, has an effect on work performance (Cronbach, 1997; Kohlberg et al., 1972; Immelt, Govindarajan, & Trimble, 2009;Kedia & Englis, 2011). Yet there is other research that argues that prior education has no effect on work performance (Elton & Shevel, 1969; Holland & Richards, 1965; McClelland, 1973; Sluis et al., 2008). Similarly, on-the-job education, meaning employees are given educational opportunities while working to improve their work performance, has an effect on work performance (Hartog & Oosterbeek, 2007).

The term 'competency' was first used in the field of education (Bowden & Masters, 1993) and through other research, discussed below, it was used in the management field. Subsequent research related education to IC (Burgoyne, 1993; Lustri et al., 2007). However, other research contradicts the above findings because it argues that

education has no effect on IC (Sluis et al., 2008). Therefore, research studies in the field of education are inconclusive on the effect of prior education on IC. However, they are conclusive on the effect of on-job learning and training. In contrast, research on in-house education shows that it does contribute to IC. Consequently, it is necessary to establish whether education affects IC as discussed in the following two Sub-sections.

2.6.1 Prior Education

The literature reviewed in this Section begins with some seminal research during the 60-70s. This is because it laid the foundation for research into the effect of education on IC. In addition, it led to major revisions in the purpose of education and vocational training. Previously, because education was delivered in the classical mode it showed no correlation between education and life/work achievement. However, modern education is directed to students' vocational needs and so recent studies have shown stronger correlation between education and work performance.

McClelland (1998) conducted a study in 1960s, involving long-graduated students who had obtained "A" grades and those who were barely passing-grade students, in different specialisations, such as lawyers, doctors, research scientists and college and high school teachers. Surprisingly he found, 15 – 18 years later, it was hard to distinguish the difference between the two groups. The only difference in the two groups was that those with higher grades were able to be admitted to higher ranked university and the ones with barely passing grades were admitted to lower ranked universities, but this latter group still did as well as the others at work. In fact, another study of the top third of researchers showed that their average college grades were 2.73 (B-), and the bottom third were 2.69 (B-). These studies showed that neither the level of education nor the total grading points correlated with these individuals' eventual success at work.

Elton & Shevel (1969) and Holland et al. (1965) also support the same conclusion, that there is no correlation between college grading and good performance at work. Other researchers tried to prove the contrary, such as Thorndike & Hagen (1959), who conducted testing on 10,000 respondents, but the test was invalid.

In contrast, other authors such as (Cronbach, 1997; Jensen, 1974; Kohlberg et al., 1972; Terman & Oden, 1990) agree that intelligence tests are a positive indicator of the individuals' abilities to be successful at work and those who are more "gifted," as they call it, tend to be more successful occupationally, martially and socially than those who achieve average grades.

However, some interesting research observation can be noted. McClelland (1973) did not mention the eventual profession of 'A' grade students and barely-passing students. Both groups could be working in good or poor jobs. Also, how good where they when they were first employed? Was their education relevant to their job? Obviously it should be, especially for doctors and lawyers, but how good were they at their jobs? To what extent did the knowledge that they gained in their prior education help them in their current job? Did their prior education (as doctors or lawyers) have any effect on their work performance? Importantly, could it be said that education may not be the only factor that affects individual competencies at work? Both of the groups were able to secure jobs, some of them did well and others were average at their job. Therefore, critically, it can be deduced that education is not the only variable that qualifies people to be competent at work. The study proved that education by itself did not make a difference between those who did well or poorly in education; however, what would have been the result if other variables of competency were considered and what are these other variables?

Contrary to the discussion above, more recent research assumes that prior education does have an effect on IC at work. Sluis et al. (2008) discuses in his research the empirical study of the effect of prior education on entrepreneurship and performance. His research was done on over hundred studies in context of economic theory. The main two findings of his study, in regards to this thesis, are: first, the meta-analysis provides weak relation of prior educational effect on entrepreneurship. In other words, the impact of prior education on the selected entrepreneurship is insignificant. Second, however, the effect of prior education on performance, regardless of the performance measures that were used, is found to be both positive and significant. They also argue that there are many variables that contribute to entrepreneurial success, and one of those variables that they specifically named, regardless of the first finding, is prior education; it is because, in the end prior education does lead to

higher entrepreneurial performances and therefore the investment in prior education is justified. Prior education is one of the variables in this thesis' study of IC.

The literature considers the effect of education on future employees; however, whether prior education should be considered as positive indicator individual competency at work is still in question. For the purpose of this thesis, study respondents will be asked whether they are working in the same field as their prior education, in order to evaluate the effect of their prior education on their current work. However, there are many workers who are not working in the same field as their prior education. They will also be asked the same question regarding the effect of prior education on their current work in order to determine the effect of prior education on IC.

2.6.2 On-job Education

Similar to prior education, on-job education shows conflicting findings. Immelt et al. (2009) argue that it is essential for schools to develop faculty knowledge by assessing market need and the education that they need to deliver.

Since this thesis seeks to investigate variables effecting IC, it is essential to investigate the effect of education (prior and on-job) on IC at work, as discussed in the next Section.

2.6.2.1 Education versus Work Dilemma

Education is increasingly being used for many different reasons other than gaining knowledge or preparing for work. Nowadays, for example, many seek higher education for reasons such as status and image (Alainati et al., 2010). Jørgensen (2004) discusses that education and work are not linked, in the sense that education is undertaken for reasons other than securing a job. Her findings are based on a comparative study carried out in Denmark and compared with France and Germany. She presents three reasons for the separation between education and work: Firstly, the purpose of education is to turn individuals into active participants in a democratic community, as well as to educate them for the market place. Secondly, the main purpose of education is not only acquiring knowledge but also to gain a certain social status. Thirdly, education is looked at from the perspective of human development;

in other words, when people become educated, they will do so because they want to develop themselves rather than vocational need.

In contrast, many authors support the opposite view that education and work are related, such as Lave & Wenger (1991). In fact, they believe in the practical application of education for the market. They discuss that if education must be developed, then it should be developed to meet market requirements. Sluis et al. (2008) argue that the measured return on education is affected by two variables; education and employment status. Education is related to the assumption that the assigned education to individuals is not related to a particular labour market outcome. They argue that two groups of students who choose different levels of schooling for example, will end up having the same income. The bias occurs when individuals with the higher level of education and who have gained more abilities and have more motivation, are being treated like the other group of students who have lower level of education. Over the past 15 years labour economists have examined several variables and their effect on return on education to employees using the instrumental variables. The main two variables that they used are family background and individuals' age. Their general finding created a situation that treats individuals differently in a way that affects their education but not their labour market. Also, even though they argue that there is insignificant effect of prior education on entry, they argue that there is a clear significant and positive effect of prior education and performance specifically in the entrepreneurial sector, which is in line with economic theory. The higher the educational level is (collage or postgraduate) the higher the chances of having better performance. It shows that it has higher effect on woman than on men; more affect among white than non-whites and the higher the level of education the more chances the individuals may have, such as having higher salaries and under better working environment. This positive relation was established in the USA; however research lacks similar results for UK. Nevertheless, there is a trend that the return on prior education is increasing and education is becoming more worthwhile over the years.

With the growing demand for technology and science, education is increasingly in demand. The following Sub-section focuses on the interrelationship between education and competency and the effect of each on the other.

44

2.6.3 Education and Competency

In this Section, research on the relationship between education and IC at work is covered. There are two schools of thought: some researchers assert a positive relationship and others argue that education has no relevance for IC. As the literature provides contradictory points of view in relation to education and competency, it is important to discuss it to understand weather education has an effect on IC.

The term 'competency' was first used in the field of education to describe and explain behaviour of trainees and their teacher (Bowden & Masters, 1993). Competency gradually became used in the management field, where it then became a widespread term and scholars started to discuss managers' competency and learning in different ways (Boyatzis, 1982). Yang et al. (2006) describes the effectiveness of competency based on the output of learning rather than intelligence (IQ). Burgoyne (1993) discusses that competency differs based on the different scenarios or contexts in order to fit its purpose. Bowden & Masters (1993) relate education to work preparation and professional recognition. As discussed earlier, competency is discussed as two units of analysis the individual and organisational competency. Lustri et al. (2007) discuss the contribution and the effect of both IC and organisational competency on individual learning and hence knowledge sharing. In other words, when the organisation invests in developing one of its important assets, that is employees; they in return will benefit the organisation and help its success through implementing their acquired knowledge at work. Hoffmann (1999) discusses competency as a way of controlling individuals' performance through learning management.

The National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) was developed: (1) to educate individuals by providing knowledge to perform vocational of work and (2) to give more training rather than knowledge to develop task-specific skills. Interestingly, the end result from the educationist point of view is not favourable. This is because it is true that trainees will be more skilful through repetition, but it will not give them knowledge of what makes their work effective or understand the logic of their work. Hence, it will be difficult for these trainees to adjust to new situations or circumstances (Burgoyne, 1993).

Consequently, one proposition of this thesis is that such interrelationship can be presented in Figure 2.4. The proposition of the thesis is that education, prior and on-job, has an effect on IC.

Figure 2. 4: Interdependency between Education and IC

Education (prior / on-job) ←— Knowledge —→ Individuals' competency
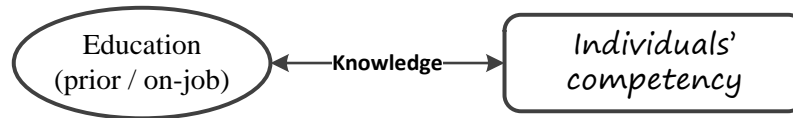
Figure 2.4 depicts the relation between education and IC. The bilateral arrow represents the transfer or knowledge gained through prior and on-job education to work in terms of IC. Based on the literature above, education provides individuals with knowledge. In terms of prior education, some authors agree that prior education provides individuals with the required knowledge to prepare them for future work (Firestone & McElroy, 2004). On the other hand, other authors assert that prior education has no effect on individuals' performance and future achievements in the workplace (Sluis et al., 2008). Since education provides knowledge to individuals, it is this knowledge that facilitates IC in the workplace. Therefore, in this thesis it is inferred that there is a positive relation between prior education as well as on-job education on IC.

Khan & Afzal (2011) assert that in order for people, nations and countries to develop investment in education is necessary. Education is important as growing the economy is; developed countries are being developed with the help of educated individuals. In fact, education not only will have positive effect on individuals, such as having better skills and knowledge which will lead to higher wages, but as a result it will effect positively the development of a country's economy. Therefore, there is no development without education especially in organisations. The more educated individuals, the better. As Awan et al. (2011) argue that education is highly correlated with growth and development.

Similar to education, training is another factor to consider that is postulated in this thesis to have an effect on IC. In the next Section the effect of training on IC is discussed.

2.7 Training

The second variable to consider to understand IC is prior training, where some research shows that there is a positive influence on IC (Mclaughlin & Talbert, 2001) and other research disagrees (Emad & Roth, 2008; Muijs & Lindsay, 2008). Therefore, it is important to establish whether it does or does not influence IC. Whereas research of on-job training shows that training does contribute to IC (Schonewille, 2001), other researchers (Eddie & Hampson, 2008) argue that the effect of training is not guaranteed.

Unlike education, which is linked to work as far back as the 1960s, training has only been recently linked to work performance. Similar to education, research on training shows that it has a positive effect or no effect on IC (Bandura, 1986; J. W. Burke, 1989; Emad & Roth, 2008; Kerka, 1998; Lewarn, 2002; Erica Smith et al., 2006). The idea of linking training to industrial/business models by linking desired outcomes to those individuals' behavioural objectives goes back as early as the 1920s (J. W. Burke, 1989). Indeed, some countries have incorporated competency-based training into their national educational system (Lewarn, 2002). For example, England, then later followed by Scotland, Wales, Australia, and New Zealand, developed and integrated the National Vocational Qualification (NVQ). In the late 1980s in Australia, the federal Labour government identified the need for a Vocational Education and Training (VET) system in order to develop individuals' skills to meet industries' needs and then eventually implemented.

Whilst countries as well organisations realize the need for training individuals to meet market needs, individuals vary in their ability to receive skills through training. Bandura (1985) discusses in his theory of social cognition the different degrees of trainees' receptiveness, which varies according to certain variables. Young & Sexton (1997) treat entrepreneurial learning as a mental process that acquires and stores knowledge, using emotional, attitudinal, motivational and personality-related variables such as, determination, confidence, self-efficacy, and motivation to achieve goals and tasks.

Training provides skills. An individual's ability to perform work depends on skills they possess, which includes prior training and on-job training. It may be argued that similar to education, training is 'knowledge processing' (Firestone & McElroy,

2004). For instance, during internalisation explicit knowledge is transferred from teachers/trainer to students/trainees, which is called 'learning by doing' in the internalisation mode in Nonaka's KCM (Nonaka, 1994). Lack of conclusion about the effect of prior training on IC is analytically discussed in the next Sub-section.

2.7.1 Prior Training

The effect of on-job training comes initially from schooling and training along with the effect of technology. In fact, the more educated and trained managers are the more creative, as they are expert in using process techniques (Nelson & Phelps, 1966). Nevertheless, some authors still find that prior training does not or lacks the evidence of having an effect on individuals' competencies (Schonewille, 2001)

In fact, Schonewille (2001) argued the return on investment was unclear that the British training system is aiming to improve their system. In addition, in 1964, the Industrial Training Act was enacted in order to provide financial support for the vocational training. In 1970s the CEDEFOP recognized that it needed more improvement. In 1986, NVQ was presented (see education and competency Section 2.6.3) in order to bring more of the real market and transparency of market into training. However, because NVQ added new qualifications without overcoming other qualifications already in the market such as the Youth Training Scheme (YTS), NVQ became another qualification that a person can have, resulting in more bodies providing qualifications in the market to choose from, yet having less rational qualification that the market or the employer can rely on. Therefore, it can be concluded that the British training system did not increase training effectiveness. However, he presented several reasons for not having clear training measurements; mainly there was lack of data which makes raising the measurement of return on school training difficult. Also, the available data are either discontinuous or short in time series, making it hard to compare data over time. Therefore, training effect is rather small.

In another study, Muijs & Lindsay (2008) discuss the continuing professional development (CPD) where people with different professions need to be examined to renew their practitioners' qualification. Yet, authors argue that it is important to evaluate their CPDs and identify those areas that need more training. Like any proficiency, school development and teachers' growth is essential, as they are the

ones who deliver their experiences to student, or the future employees (Day, 1999). In fact, Muijs & Reynolds (2010) argue that the more experienced teachers, can access new ideas, able to reflect, share their experiences with school, and where school managers encourage and support their staff, the more potential there is in the class room where student gets their knowledge and skills. Further, Mclaughlin & Talbert (2001) explain that schools should invest in developing their individuals specifically their teachers, that by itself could leverage teachers to share their best practice with others. In other words, developing teachers will not affect school as an organisation and students as customers, but also can give the opportunity for teachers to share their knowledge and experiences. Muijs & Lindsay (2008) also argue that evidence shows that teachers' learning can have a direct impact on student attitudes toward learning, curriculum, pedagogy and on the relation between teachers and their students. Nevertheless, in their study findings, CPD has a positive effect by improving teaching and learning; however, there was a lack of evidence of that positive effect. Furthermore, Sambrook & Willmott (2013) have combined Human Resource Development (HRD) with managers' education (ME) and with management learning (ML) in their study. They argue that HRD has played a positive role in the technical and vocational education and training. Further, they assess the effect of higher education on whether experienced managers and executives have actually acquired the required techniques to develop their skills.

The literature above reveals that researchers are mainly highlight the importance of prior training for future employees, and in fact training employees has some positive effect. However, the literature is lacking the evidence and the measurement of the effect of prior training on IC. For the purpose of this thesis, prior training, as one variable that composes IC, will be investigated empirically. The next Sub-section discusses the effect of on-job training on the IC.

2.7.2 On-job Training

The importance of on-job training on IC is discussed by many researchers, among them is Schonewille (2001) and Buganza et al. (2013). It is essential at this point to clarify that both education and training received by employees is called training in organisational terminology (Schonewille, 2001). In other words, many do not differentiate between education (where individuals gain knowledge by understanding concepts) and training (where individuals gain skill by physical practice); both are

called training in an organisational setting. Another important point made by Schonewille (2001), is that on-the-job training is received by employees on site; whereas off-the-job training, is training given while they are not working. In this thesis however, both on-the-job and off-the-job are called on-job training, to indicate that the training is actually provided during the period when individuals are employed, rather than the period of schooling.

Schonewille (2001) argues that on-the-job or off-the-job training are measured based on hourly bases dedicated to the activities. One observation that he emphasized is that training cannot be effective immediately when the individuals just joined the training course; rather it takes some time, at least until the course programme has been completed, to show the effect of the training programme. However, his finding shows that the effect of training is low in comparison with educational effect on individuals. Nevertheless, on-job training does have a positive effect on individuals, especially when the provided training is offered off-the-job rather than on-the-job. In addition, he found that return on both education and training is shared by the employer as well the employee, and most importantly it is considered as an important incentive to invest in human capital.

Nevertheless, the effect of knowledge and skills gained from on-job training programmes are not guaranteed, even if they are based on successful training programs (Eddie & Hampson, 2008). Therefore, more interest is drawn toward the transfer of the knowledge and skills gained from the conventional training effect on individuals' performance at work taking into consideration the important role of the trainees themselves.

Human resource has been regarded as the organisational competitive advantage (Paul S. Adler, 2002; Bontis, 2001; Hand & Lev, 2003; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Nooteboom, 2001). Accordingly, researchers argue that organisations should spend more on training their employees in order to develop their competency at work (Kelloway & Barling, 2000). According to Kirkpatrick (1967) taxonomy, he evaluated training based on four categories;

1- Student reaction; how did they feel and think about the training course?
2- Learning; have they learned knowledge or gained skills?

3- Behaviour; did the training course positively affect their behaviour at work through implementation and application?

4- Results; has it achieved its objectives through its effect on employees hence organisation?

Phillips (1996) added the fifth category, the 'ultimate level'. This fifth category compares the ROI of the four categories of Kirkpatrick (1967) taxonomy with the cost of the training course. These categories however, are not widely used by organisations. However, the first two categories are followed by most organisations and not the last two or three categories.

The importance of training lays in its assumed effect on IC at work. According to Salas & Cannon-Bowers (2001), the effect of training is indisputable when the acquired knowledge and skills are applied at work. Olsen, Jr. (1998) and Ford & Weissbein (2008) argue that training transfer occurs when gained knowledge and skills is actually used at work. Researchers (Broad & Newstrom, 1992; Goldstein & Ford, 2001; Kupritz, 2000; Dana Gaines Robinson & Robinson, 1995) however, emphasized the importance of motivating individuals to transfer their acquired knowledge and skills to work through their improved behaviour. However, we lack the understanding of how real training transfer should occur (Lisa A. Burke & Baldwin, 1999). In addition to motivation, Eddie & Hampson, (2008) emphasized on the importance of the trainees themselves; their decision whether or not they want to transfer their knowledge to their work place. In other words, it is the individuals' PC that affects their decision on whether they want to transfer the acquired knowledge or skills to their work.

In fact, Muijs & Lindsay (2008) suggest that CPD is increasingly recognized for its importance, especially in the health field. For example, a doctor is required to evidence CPD in order to continue in his proficiency as a registered practitioner. The importance of CPD is actually beyond the recognition of having the qualification, it is important to evaluate the individuals' CPD.

In another study, Buganza et al. (2013) provided evidence of the impact of on-job training on project managers' competencies. The training programme was 'project management programme' (PMP), which was a corporate training programme, however it is developed and delivered in a university. The findings of this study

indicate that there is a positive effect of training on the PMPs individuals' competencies. It also highlights two other important variables that contribute to this finding; the 'role-training matching' and environment. Most importantly, the effect of this training programme is evident in having a positive improvement of the PMP managers' behaviour. The importance of on-job training on IC is presented in the next Sub-section on training and work dilemma.

2.7.2.1 Training versus Work Dilemma

Emad & Roth (2008) conducted a study concerning maritime education and training systems. It shows that educating and training individuals did not meet the requirement of helping individuals either to acquire or to transfer knowledge to their job, nor to meet their job's objectives. The reasons for this outcome were as follows:

- Their training/education was designed as a compulsory requirement that individuals had to take and pass, achieving certain written and oral examination grades; rather than educating them to achieve and obtain competency at work.

- Student behaviour in that system was to acquire the required education or knowledge for the purpose of passing the course, rather than for the purpose of acquiring job related competencies.

- The instructors would teach their students what they needed to know, in other words the right answers in order to pass their course and they did not believe that they needed to *understand* the material.

As a result of the above, students would learn and acquire things that enabled them to pass their course rather than to understand the logic and the reason for what they were learning or being trained for. Emad & Roth's (2008) study shows that knowledge and skills are either delivered improperly when educators and trainers do not give potential employees the requisite knowledge and reasoning for their learning, but simply require them to reproduce answers by rote learning to pass, or particularly education delivered for social and societal status rather than for competent behaviour at work. Nevertheless, Emad & Roth's (2008) study shows the importance of not only individuals, but the crucial role of educator / trainers who

deliver knowledge and skills to them. The effect of training will be presented more deeply in the following Section.

2.7.3 Training and Competency

Training provides individuals' with required skills needed to perform their job (Prasad & Tran, 2013). In fact, training is needed constantly as individuals' need to develop in their profession, as Muijs & Lindsay (2008) termed it 'continuing professional development' (CPD). CPD is required in order to not only develop individuals but also to meet and compete in the market. Figure 2.5 depicts this relation. The second proposition of this thesis is that training has an effect on IC.

Figure 2. 5: Interdependency between Training and IC
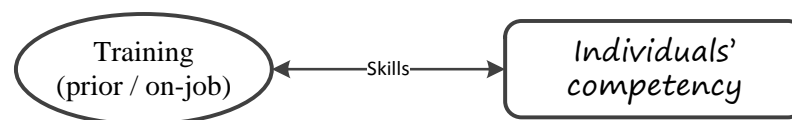
Man (2006) conducted a study in which he discusses four dimensions affecting competency: inputs, process, outputs and contexts. Each one of these dimensions has a different emphasis affecting the development of competencies.

- **Inputs** are the individual attitude, emotion, value, willingness, knowledge, skills, experience, abilities and personality-based variables that stimulate and deepen the learning process. Inputs main emphasis differs from one person to the other depending on their PC (Boyatzis, 1982; Burgoyne, 1993).

- **Process** where the individual learns mainly by doing. Later, the individual must be able to apply what they have learnt into actual practices and current situation. The process dimension mainly depends on the behaviour or the task executed by the individuals (Man, 2006; McClelland, 1998).

- **Outcome** is considered to be targets for IC that need to be acquired. The acquired outcomes differ according to different levels of competencies (Cheng et al., 2003).

- **Context** is about the internal structure and social relationships within the organisation. Context's main dimension will differ based on the different levels of the organisational hierarchy or based on the given context (Stuart et

al., 1995).

The findings of Man's study suggest that there are six behavioural patterns of entrepreneurial learning: seeking learning opportunities, learning continuously, learning selectively and purposely, learning in depth about the trade, improving the reflecting upon experience and transferring what has been learnt into current practices (Man, 2006). He stresses:

> *"In applying the competency approach, it is more important to consider whether the skills, abilities, or knowledge can be integrated with certain values and attitudes towards competence in performing the job roles, rather than the mere possession of these component characteristics. More importantly, competencies are demonstrated and observed through one's behavioural patterns, actions or activities conducted, and different levels of competence lead to different levels of outcomes. As different competencies are demonstrated under different contexts, it is necessary to identify the competencies required in the context of entrepreneurial learning" (Man, 2006, p. 312).*

This demonstrates that there is a relation between training and IC. Specifically, it shows the relevance of on-job training. Also, the six behavioural patterns of entrepreneurial learning are directly related to PC. So, this supports the argument developed in this thesis of holistic IC. For instance, seeking learning opportunities or learning continuously requires willingness and determination by the individual which reflects their PC.

Man's (2006) quote above shows a clear link between training and education in terms of skills and knowledge, which are linked to individual attitudes and values that compose PC, which together reflect IC. This argument supports this thesis' holistic view of IC. Training, which provides skills, and education, which provides knowledge, are themselves inextricably linked and linked to IC. The next Section further elaborates.

2.7.4 Competency, Education and Training

Based on the training literature reviewed, the relation that transpires between training and competency is that individuals gain work related skills. The literature on education shows that education provides *knowledge* to individuals. By the same token, the literature on training shows that training provides *skills* to individuals. Thus education and training are postulated as two inseparable variables composing IC. Education and training are interdependent (Alainati et al., 2012). For example,

one may argue that by training an individual they can perform required skills. However, critically if a new situation emerges in the future it is important for individuals to have knowledge of what (single loop learning) and why (double loop learning), and reasoning of why skills are being performed in order to be able to adapt and develop the new situation (Argyris, 1999; Edvardsson, 2007), which is knowledge creation. Therefore, the relation of both education, where knowledge is gained, and training, where skills are gained, and their interdependent relationship with IC can be illustrated as follows:

Figure 2. 6: Interdependency between Education, Training and IC
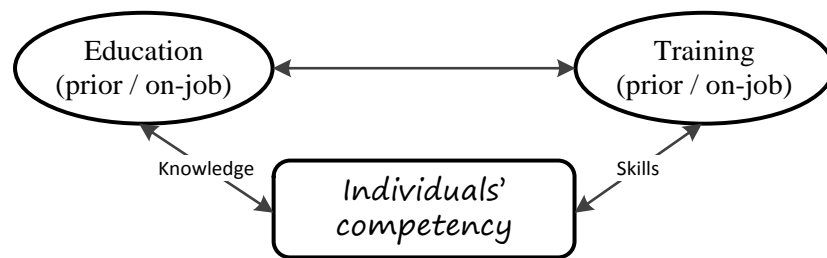
The two propositions on education and IC and training and IC can now be combined holistically, as shown in Figure 2.6. While education affects IC and training effects IC, education and training themselves are related. What individuals can absorb from any training provided depends on their education and vice versa.

Therefore, education and training have been argued for their importance. However, Khan & Afzal (2011) discuss the importance of education for the development of individuals, their organisation and the country. In fact, education has a positive impact on thinking and planning in terms of hiring individuals, training and developing them, and laying them off. Education leads to strategic human resource management which is managing people.

Some researchers argue that age variable does have an effect on individuals' education and training such as Jeffrey & Mcdowell, 2004 who argue that more younger generations are facing 'complex and contested' transition in their life and adulthood. According to Golsch (2003), younger generations are face structural changes in industrialized economies and the increase in flexibility and insecurity in employment which requires them to acquire education and training.

However, some authors argue that education and training is seen as leisure time by the younger generation rather than learning opportunity (Giddens, 1991; Gordon et al., 2005; Nilan et al., 2007). At the same time, younger generations are expected to plan highly their life paths in individualised ways; however they are not regarded as serious as the older generation. In fact other researchers extended their studies to investigate the younger generation entering work earlier, which makes understanding younger generations work identity more important (Pocock & Clarke, 2004). However, some other researchers (Brannen & Nilsen, 2002; McDonald et al., 2006) argue that younger generations are concentrating on enjoying themselves for as long time period as they can, because in their eyes 'adulthood' is considered as boring and routine. Sanders & Munford, (2008), suggests that younger generations' expectation of the future are not the result of their plan or prediction, rather it is the reflection of what they have understand their present time and what are the responsibilities that they are looking forward to handle. The literature however, lacks whether older generation are more productive than the younger generation or visa a versa? Or is it a combination of both? Similar, to education, training is also linked to KM as discussed in the following Section. The third factor to consider is PC and its effect on IC. In the next Section, individual's characteristics which affect their competency are considered.

2.8 Personal Characteristics

This Section discusses literature on the effect of personal characteristics (PC) on IC. It also discusses variables and personal domain that influences individual behaviour in knowledge creation, especially willingness to share knowledge. It critically evaluates variables that affect individual behaviour from the organisations perspectives such as trust, incentive systems and top management support.

Recalling Section 2.2.1 where PC is discussed in behavioural studies; individuals choose to selectively share their knowledge (Akgün et al., 2005; Coulson-Thomas, 2009) according to personal agenda (Akgün et al., 2005; Gleick, 1997; Searle, 1969; van der Vegt et al., 2009). It is also argued that individuals are not committed to their work for many reasons, including their imminent departure for another job or having job insecurity (Polanyi, 1966; Searle, 1969).

Psychologists, such as Stich (1985), have researched cognitive science development and its effect on human behaviour. They investigated the reasons why people act the way they do and what leads them to do certain things. Other psychologists such as Searle (1969) discussed the relationship between an individual's language and their intention and commitment. Therefore, it is important to focus on the individual's intention, belief and commitment that are embedded in the individual's belief; although this work on human behaviour and individual's belief is dated its veracity is strong. It is human behaviour embedded as intention, belief and commitment that makes individuals act the way they act. To integrate this with Nonaka's idea of justifying personal belief, it is individuals who share, develop, create and create organisational knowledge. With better knowledge of this, theorists and practitioners will overcome the issues that hinder individuals from sharing and developing knowledge. In fact, the theory of knowledge creation deals with knowledge as "a dynamic human process of justifying personal belief as part of an aspiration for the truth" (Nonaka, 1994, p. 15). Similar, to education and training, PC is discussed in terms of prior and on-job in the following Section.

2.8.1 Prior Personal Characteristics

According to Geller & Bamberger (2009), social psychologists have studied the effect of prior PC on individuals' behaviour at work. A dominant theory is attachment theory. However, it has not yet been applied to practice. Geller & Bamberger (2009) initiative is to address this gap by investigating prior PC, such as adult attachment and care-giving in relation to how it affects the individuals' behaviour at work. Their study is an extension of Bowlby (1969) attachment theory. Their findings suggest that attachment anxiety is inversely linked with helping constructs, yet it also weakens the inverse effect of avoidance on helping.

Attachment theory is about children's early age and their need and bonding experience with their caregivers and the effect of that on their personality and behaviour as they grow to adulthood (Bowlby, 1973, 2005). Social psychologists argue that through attachment theory there is a relation between relational cognition, individuals' behaviours and their caregivers, friends and others (Feeney & Collins, 2001; Mikulincer et al., 2005). According to Geller & Bamberger (2009) such findings suggests that individuals' behaviour could extend to work place, where their prior PC would influence their behaviour while interacting with others, such as

whether they are willing to share knowledge. However, individuals' attachment behaviour to colleges at work should be different than their attachment behaviour to friends, family and others (Rom & Mikulincer, 2003; E. R. Smith et al., 1999). In fact, Geller & Bamberger (2009) argue that individuals helping other people stems from individuals' own esteem of previous failure or incompatibility. So, when individuals help others it is linked to their own emotional well-being, which usually requires the willingness to share thoughts and feelings. According to Bowler & Brass (2006) and Hackman (2002), this form of helping has a high probability of positively increasing IC at work, whether working alone or within a group, because they are sharing their thoughts and exchanging their experiences.

The literature above suggests that there is a relation between prior PC and its effect on IC. The relationship is categorized by individuals' own trait, intention or willingness and EI; where it could have either a positive or a negative effect at work depending on individuals themselves. For the purpose of this thesis, prior PC will be measured in order to identify whether or not this variable has an effect on IC. The on-job PC is discussed next.

2.8.2 On-job Personal Characteristic

Unlike the other variables postulated to affect IC, such as education and training (prior and on-job), authors mainly agree that individuals' on-job PC (OJPC) is most likely to affect individuals' behaviour and performance at work, especially when combined with motivation and / or environment (Elliot & Thrash, 2002; Izadikhah et al., 2010; O'Connor & Jackson, 2008). In fact, Gray's reinforcement sensitivity theory (RST) (J. A. Gray, 1991), proposes that individuals response differently based on their innate neurological differences to reward and punishment. He links the individuals' sensitivity to punishment (SP) to negative effect, whereas individuals' sensitivity to reward (SR) to positive affect. However, Both SP and SR have been linked with positive and negative effects on individuals as well as judgment on self and situations (Avila et al., 1995; Heimpel et al., 2006; Noguchi et al., 2006; Hundt et al. 2013). According to Izadikhah et al. (2010) behavioural approach study (BAS), which is one of the three RST elements, they found that rewarding has an effect on individuals at work. The previous studies do not, however, indicate how SP and SR are expressed in reaction to experiences in daily life (Hundt et al., 2013). In their study, they assess the association of SP and SR in regards to the effects of daily life

situations. They found that SP is associated with the negative affect unlike SR; it is associated with a positive affect except for irritability and anger. In addition, Raftery & Bizer (2009) argue that prior research shows that individual differences in emotions has an important role on their relationship with others as well as on their own well-being. Their findings suggest that negative feedback affects individuals negatively, however differently, hence affecting their performance differently at work.

Another factor that should be considered and that might have an effect on OJPC and hence may affect IC is the abusive treatment of other employees, whether they are managers, supervisors or even employees among themselves. Tepper (2000) defines abusive supervisor as "subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which their supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviours, excluding physical contact" (Tepper, 2000, p. 178). For example, a supervisor saying to subordinates that his ideas are stupid or talking to them in a rude way in front of others. These kinds of abusive behaviour of superiors may not only result in negative employee behaviour and attitudes but it might extend to the psychological health (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper et al., 2008). Yet, researchers such as (Aryee et al., 2007; Hoobler & Brass, 2006) were not sure of the extent of the abuse effect on management hierarchy. For example, if the manager abused the supervisors, will the supervisors abuse their employees as well? Andersson & Pearson (1999), Bass (1995) and Myer et al. (2009) argue that workplace aggression is being looked at as the organisational system of social interaction. Accordingly, Mawritz et al. (2012) examine in their study the abusive supervisors from the perspective of socially embedded phenomenon by testing the abusive behaviour using trickle-down model. They investigated the effect of abusive behaviour starting with top level management effect on middle management, supervisors down to lower levels of regular employees. They found that abusive behaviour of a manger indirectly does affect individuals' at different levels of the organisation; specifically regular employees through their supervisors. Abusive behaviour could be something like injustice (Aryee et al., 2007; Tepper et al., 2008) and psychological abuse (Hoobler & Brass, 2006). Similarly, they worked on the opposite effect of positive attitude of management, ethical leadership, charisma, motivation and integrity at the higher levels, and these effects individuals at all levels down to regular employees.

From the literature above, OJPC has an effect on individuals' behaviour. However, does that effect of individuals' behaviour also mean that it will affect their competencies? For the purpose of this thesis and similar to PPC, the OJPC will be investigated to assess its effect on IC. In the following Sections, additional issues concerning IC and behaviour will be discussed namely trust and incentives.

2.8.2.1 The Importance of Trust

Trust is an essential element for successful knowledge sharing. Petersen & Poulfelt (2002), discuss in their study that trust is the key concept in knowledge sharing. It is also important to consider the cultural effect on employees' trust. For example, employees may want to ask a question but they do not for fear of asking a silly question or compromising their position or job prospects. Another obstacle to knowledge sharing is discussed by Henriksen (2001) (cited in Petersen & Poulfelt, 2002, p. 15). His study shows that other aspects may decrease the use of knowledge, such as "who do you think you are" kind of attitude, self-criticism and post-rationalization.

Petersen & Poulfelt (2002) show that the social life of employees in the organisation is a strategic element for knowledge sharing. One way to improve trust is through employees' socialisation with each other. Employees should develop their social skills at work in order to make it easier for them to overcome the "who do you think you are" kind of attitude. They can start by talking about general things and life just to get to know each other, and then with time it will be easier to share and to receive knowledge from others.

2.8.2.2 Incentive Systems: Beyond Financial Rewards and Promotions

Shaikh et al. (2009) and Petersen & Poulfelt (2002) discuss the importance of incentives as motivators for individuals to share their knowledge and exploit their tacit knowledge with others. These incentives could be for example financial rewards, promotion, testimonials. However, in their study, the financial and promotion incentives did not motivate individuals to share their knowledge, leaving them wondering what could be the driving force to motivate these individuals to share their knowledge. Therefore, they asked the respondents directly what would

motivate them. Only few mentioned financial rewards and the majority talked about structure, management and culture.

One of the findings however, was that for KM to be practised successfully it should be in the daily routine culture of the organisation. It is important, however, for top management to make the organisational transformation by being the role model and explaining to individuals why they should change their behaviour and how to do it. Or, as another solution, the organisation can simply assign new roles to individuals and they have to do them as part of their tasks. In this case, the organisation needs to set the guidelines about how and when to share knowledge in order to eliminate any confusion. The next Section discusses the interrelationship between PC and competency.

2.8.3 Personal Characteristic and Competency

Armstrong (2012) argues that competency is used in performance management in order to ensure that reviews of performance do not focus only on outcomes but also consider the behavioural element of individuals; specifically, how work is done in order to achieve outcomes. The aim of this performance management is to provide personal development as needed and to build learning plans accordingly.

In terms of prior PC, researchers such as Geller & Bamberger (2009) argue that there is an effect of prior PC on individuals' behaviour at work, hence competency. Instrumental helping is one of the models that can be used for interpreting such relation. According to Anderson & Williams (1996) and Van Dyne & LePine (1998), Instrumental helping are the consideration and cooperation kind of acts that individuals will take or perform in order to help and assist his/her colleagues to complete a task or to work on a work problem. Recall that KMs' main elements is knowledge sharing, in that sense the more individuals are practicing instrumental model the more they are actually practicing KM, which together will increase IC. This relationship between PC and IC is depicted in Figure 2.7. The third proposition of this thesis is that PC has an effect on IC.

Figure 2. 7: Interdependency between PC and IC
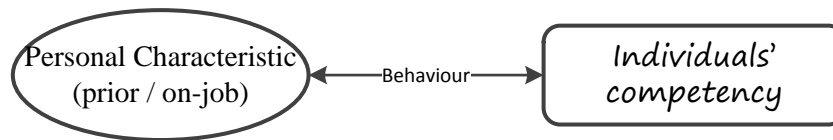
Similarly, in terms of OJPC, researchers have conducted studies on the effect of OJPC on IC at work (Fox & Spector, 2004; Jaclyn M. Jensen & Patel, 2011). They define in their study the counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) and its effect on individuals' behaviour at work. CWB is when employees intentionally intend to harm members in the organisation or the organisation itself. Individuals' harmful behaviour could range over different things, such as theft, aggression, abusive supervision, withholding information or effort, and incivility. In fact, according to Dunlop & Lee (2004) and Tepper (2000), the more CWB increases in individuals the more they decrease in their productiveness, decrease in competencies, dissatisfaction and having a higher stress. Some researcher focused on the complex view of the relationship between personality and job competency rather than simple effects, such as King et al. (2005) and Witt (2002) in a more holistic approach, where a combination of several traits effect IC at work rather than one trait (Hogan et al., 1996; Zaccaro, 2007). To support this argument, Jensen & Patel (2011) findings suggests that conscientiousness, agreeableness and emotional stability may not all together decrease CWB. However, the interrelation between emotional stability and conscientiousness and CWB suggests that individuals' conscientiousness is inseparable from their emotional stability. Having one is not sufficient. For example, it is not sufficient to have emotional stability and not have conscientiousness or visa a versa. The interrelation between emotional stability and agreeableness and CWB suggests similar pattern. Individuals with high agreeableness and emotional stability show high working performance and low in CWB. The same is true for the interrelation between agreeableness and conscientiousness. High level of combination of the two seems to be necessary for IC at work. Therefore, the fourth factor that will be discussed is environment. Environment can be categorised as personal environment or culture in which individuals live, or as organisational environment where they work.

2.9 Environment

"Management of organisations is not a precise science but more of a creative and political process, owing much to the prevailing culture and tradition in that place at that time. Organisations, like tribes and families, have their own ways of doing things, things that do work for them and things that don't work" (Handy, 2009, p. 9). In addition, Handy describes the good and wise manager as the one who understands and realizes the "truth" about the groups of individuals and their behaviour; however that by itself is not sufficient.

The importance of understanding environmental culture is presented by Eigen (1971), in his theory of evolution. He discusses that in order to have better adaptation of the process of evolution, it is essential to be able to acquire the environmental information. Shimizu (1978) (cited in Nonaka, 1994) describes how humans to survive, derive meanings from their surrounding environment and to do that they attach judgmental value to things. Therefore, the environmental culture is defined differently accordingly. These definitions represent both prior individuals' culture before work and the working environment.

Schein (2010) defined organisational culture as "*The culture of a group can now be defined as a pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems*" (Schein, 2010, p. 18).

Hofstede (1980) defines culture as "*the collective mental programming of the people in an environment. Culture is not a characteristic of individuals; it encompasses a number of people who were conditioned by the same education and life experience...Culture, in this sense of collective mental programming, is often difficult to change; if it changes at all, it does so slowly."* (Hofstede, 1980, p43).

Between 1984 and 2000 culture was researched mainly by psychologists but this research is now questionable, because culture depends on time and place (Triandis, 2004). In addition, Markus & Kitayama (1991) argue that there are major cultural differences in cognition, emotion, and motivation. Therefore, what has been

considered as 'universal culture' in psychology is actually investigated in westerns societies, and hence is only valid in them (Triandis, 2004). Hence, it can be inferred that cultures affect individuals, depending on time and place; but most importantly cultures differ from one place to another leading to different inner-individual culture as coined here. As this thesis was investigated in the context of Kuwait this conclusion is significant.

The literature lacks in-depth research on organisational culture of Gulf countries. Therefore, the question here is to what degree does culture effect IC in different settings other than the western setting? Similar to all the other variables, environment is discussed based on individuals' prior and on-job in the following two Sub-sections.

2.9.1 Prior Environment - Individuals' Culture

Researchers such as Diener, (2008); Lu, (2006) and Suh, (2002) have studied the effect of culture on the individual subjective well-being (SWB). SWB, similar to culture, has no unified definition, however it is agreed to be more than the absence of negative affect or cognition (Suh, 2002). Diener (2008) discusses SWB as a construct involving: individual experience, individual's positive measures and individual's life global assessment. In addition, SWB is defined as the individual's own evaluation to his or her life in terms of life satisfaction (cognitive evaluation) or affect (on-going emotional reaction) (Diener & Diener, 1995).

Lu (2006) argues that understanding of culture at the individual level cannot be generalised for people's behaviour in all cultures. Further, he argues that when conceptualizing culture at the individual level, it is more appropriate to investigate it in the discipline of psychology rather than sociology. Where, "culture at the societal level involves mainstream average tendencies but cannot involve all behaviours of all people in any culture" (Lu, 2006, p. 204). Suh (2002) also argues that relationships among certain culture may not necessarily exit on the individual level.

Lu (2006) argues that cultural variances exist not only at the cultural level but also at multiple levels depending on individuals' characteristics in the same culture. He adds that "on any given attribute, the within-culture variance may be as large as or even larger than the between-culture variance" (Lu, 2006, p. 204). Significantly for the

thesis propounded here, he emphasizes the importance of individuals' characteristics, which have a certain impact on individual behaviour, hence performance or competency at work. However, from the quote it can also be inferred that individuals' characteristics have more influence on behaviour than the culture. Another question is to what degree does culture affect IC? Is PC more influential than culture? Interestingly, unlike this thesis' holistic approach to IC, it can be inferred from Lu's argument that he is separating individual PC from its very culture of origin. To what degree can they be separated when individuals are a collective of all their education, training, PC and environment as propounded in this thesis?

Understanding national culture is important because it shapes PC, a significant variable of the proposed IC model. Hofstede & Bond (1984), regarded the guru of culture, presented five cultural dimensions, which apply to both prior culture and on-job environment, though he did not classify them as such. For the purpose of this thesis, Hofsted's five cultural dimensions will be classified based on prior environment in this Section and on-job environment in the following Section.

Greet Hofstede (1984), presented a national culture model of five dimensions; the fifth was recently added, over a period of six years. In his book 'cultures and organisations software of the mind' (Hofstede et al., 2010) he mentioned that twenty years prior to his study in 1954, Alex Inkeles, a sociologist and Daiel Levinson, a psychologist conducted a large survey of the English language literature on national culture. What they suggested was the bases of Hofstede's national culture model theory. He used a Chinese Value Survey (CVS) initiated by Michael Harris Bond. The CVS questionnaire used for his research was proposed by Chinese scholars. Twenty years later, Hofstede had the opportunity to conduct a study based on individuals from more than fifty countries around the world. These individuals were working in the multinational corporation International Business Machines (IBM). He discusses the main cultural differences between countries empirically. In his research, he argues that all individuals are affected by the many different elements, such as family, social, group, geographical region, and professional environment. He also argued that individuals living in one country share national characteristics that is shown in individuals mental programing in each country (Hofstede, 1984). His research shows how people are affected by their prior culture that they come from in general rather than at an individual's level. In fact, he argues that even twin brothers

who have been raised the same will not be affected equally by their culture. His research is based on general concept rather than on the individual level. Therefore, he does not discuss to what degree individuals are affected by their culture. For example, individuals are affected by their culture but how differently is each individual affected? What makes individuals being affected more or less than others from the same country? Most importantly, what are those variables that contribute to individuals being affected more or less by their culture?

The following are the five cultural dimensions developed by Hofstede from the prior environment point of view. Hofstede's studies (Hofstede & Bond, 1988; Hofstede, 1980, 1984, 1994, 2001; Hofstede et al., 2010) show a large number of different cross-national cultures. His sample was of employees from different subsidiaries of IBM. Based on these studies, he proposed five dimensions that relate to anthropological and or societal issues.

1- Power distance: is when powerful individuals affect the behaviour of less powerful individuals. Hofstede et al. (2010) traces power distance from early age childhood in a family setting, where individuals are born. From very young age children receive their "mental programing" as Hofstede called it from their families and elders. Power distance is illustrated clearly when we expect children to obey their parents and / or their older siblings.

2- Collectivism versus Individualism: Majority of individuals in the world are living in collective society were the interest of the group is more important than the interest of individuals. Very first group a person belongs to is the family group, which differs from one society to another. For example, one family may consist of parents and children, while another family could have also the grand-parents, aunts, uncles and servants. A member of this family will grow up thinking of themselves as part of the "we" group and that what a person may do should consider the group because they are the person's own protection and help in life. Therefore, members of the group are loyal to their group and the worst thing a person can do is to break this loyalty. In contrast, some people live in Individualism society. Unlike collectivism, in individualist society the individual interest is more important than the group interest. Usually, the family in this society consist of both patents with a high

possibility of having other siblings from one or both of the parents. In this family the individual will learn the "I" not based on the group, rather solely based on his/her PC. individuals in this society will choose their mates based on their preference, obtain education for the purpose of independence, leave parents' home as soon as possible and therefore they tend to dis-attach themselves from their parents, lower their relationship with them if not cut it off.

The purpose of education is also different in both groups. Collectivist will learn because they need to adapt to the skills and virtues in order to be more acceptable into the group; in other words traditions. It is seen as one time process, for younger people and to simply know *how to do* things. On the other hand individualist will learn in order to be able to deal with other individualists. They will learn new knowledge and are keener to experience new things and they are more toward *how to learn* rather than how to do.

3- Masculinity versus Femininity: Hofstede et al. (2010) presented an interesting account of masculinity and femininity; it is about two applicants from two different countries Dutch and American. The two applicants, even though they have similar societies in terms of power-distance and individualism, they differ in this dimension. He understood why once he was rejected by an American, long time ago when he applied for a job even when he was qualified. He understood this dimension when he met the American and a Dutch applicant. The American candidate will exaggerate his CV, he/she will promise things that they themselves know that they cannot deliver, and they will show the assertiveness in their behaviour. On the other hand, the Dutch applicant will propose a modest CV that will not even present all his capabilities in the belief that the interviewer will ask him/her questions in order to see how good they are. The twist is that the interviewer, if he's from America, will think that the American is more assertive and more competent based on what they have written and how they defended themselves, unlike the Dutch applicant who did not show enthusiasm in his CV and application. However, if the interviewer was Dutch, then he will see the American as braggart for the things he does, unlike the Dutch applicant who will be seen as modest and realistic. In this example masculinity is presented in the

American applicant and the Dutch represents the femininity dimension. Masculinity is more about assertiveness, acquiring money, not caring for the quality of life or people unlike femininity.

4- Uncertainty Avoidance: Hofstede et al. (2010) defines it by "*the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations*" (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 191). People will deal with anxiety differently based on their technology, law and religion. Religion in fact will help its followers to accept uncertainties against the things that they cannot defend themselves against. The feeling of uncertainty may be shared by other members of a society as these feelings are acquired and shared; and the way to deal with them depends on a cultural heritage. Anxiety is not fear.

5- Long versus Short-term orientations: Similar to the fourth dimension Long versus Short-term orientations originated from Confucius, a Chinese intellectual around 500 B.C., who was known for his wisdom. Among his famous recorded wisdoms are "The family is the prototype of all social organisations", another wisdom that Hofstede et al. (2010) used for his fifth dimension is "Virtue with regards to one's tasks in life consists of trying to acquire skills and education, working hard, not spending more than necessary, being patient, and preserving" which has also been formulated by Socrates, from ancient Greece as "persistence and thrift", and used by Hofstede et al. (2010, pp. 237-238).

He defined the fifth dimension as: "Long-term orientation stands for the fostering of virtues oriented towards future rewards - in particular, perseverance and thrift. It's opposite pole, short-term orientation, stands for the fostering of virtues related to the past and present - in particular, respect for tradition, preservation of "face", and fulfilling social obligations" (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 239).

2.9.2 On-job Environmental Culture

Like the other controversial topics in the literature review, the on-job environmental culture affects IC. Triandis (2004), who discusses Hofstede's work as interesting, believes that it may not be applicable to all cultures. He discusses that culture could

be looked at as "out there"; on the contrary culture is "inside" individual. Rather than culture being an objective entity, it is subjective.

In fact, Kotter & Heskett (2011) argue that an organisation has more than one culture. These cultures are associated with different departments, functional groups or geographical locations even if the organisation is small; the fact of having different units would create different cultures within the whole culture of the organisation. The whole culture in that sense is the shared values and practices around the organisation. On-job culture can be more stable over time. These on-job cultures can originate from top management downwards or from individuals upwards. However, with a strong organisational culture the core of the organisational culture should be associated with top managers or owners of this organisation. As they are the one who develop the organisational vision, strategy and philosophy. They believe that the stronger is the on-job environment or culture, the better the organisational competency. They argue that organisations that have long period of good organisational culture show superior performance. These cultural values that they have are the actual drive to better performance. Employees who have been working for a long time period in the organisation are found to be either part of the organisational system or part of maintaining that system. On the other hand, new employees in that sense will try to adapt to the new on-job environment or culture and try to develop their skills and knowledge accordingly.

In this sense cultures within one organisation could also differ based on the group of individuals coming from different background. For example, within one organisation there would be national and non-nationals, males and females, older and younger employee, people who came from certain cultural background. In this thesis, prior environment or the society culture that the individuals have grown up in is investigated to assess its effect on IC. Including all the above different groups mentioned.

On-job environment has an effect on organisational success. For example, Peters et al. (2012) argue that certain traits of cultural excellence are the main reason for organisational success. Ouchi (1993) discusses organisational success based on the relation between the on-job environmental culture and their productivities. Deal & Kennedy (2000) suggest that for the organisation to be successful they need to have a

strong culture that will lead them toward successful financial performance. There is not much quantitative research and statistics that support such relationship (Van der Post et al., 1998), nor are there studies found on the relation between performance and education and organisational culture and education. In this thesis however, such relationship are empirically investigate; among these investigated variables and relationships, there will be the effect of on-job environment and education in relation to IC.

Similar to prior environment, Hofstede et al.'s (2010) five cultural dimensions are initially developed to understand organisational culture or the on-job environment. Using the same five dimensions illustrated earlier from the perspective of on-job environment as follow:

1- Power Distance: is the degree to which society or organisations accept the unequal power of individuals. It is presented in individuals who have less or more power than others. These inequalities occur in places based on prestige, wealth, and power; where societies and organisation place different weights on them. In organisations, these inequalities are a must as they follow the organisational hierarchy that associate managers with their employees.

2- Individualism versus Collectivism: Individualism is "a situation in which people are supposed to look after themselves and their immediate family only". Collectivism is "a situation in which people belong to in-groups or collectivities which are supposed to look after them in exchange for loyalty" (Hofstede & Bond, 1984, p. 419).

At work, individuals in collectivism will follow their fathers' leads at work. In the organisation, if the collectivist wanted to promote or hire someone then they will hire a person that belongs to "in-group", usually a family member, and that person in return will act in the interest of the group even if the act does not match his/her interest.

On the contrary, in individualism people will tend to choose the career that matches their personality and satisfy their interest. In their society, individualist having a family member at work is undesirable as it may lead to nepotism and conflict of interest. Therefore, when individuals are rewarded it

is done based on their performances.

3- Masculinity versus Femininity: Masculinity is having success, money and things as the dominant values which create challenging situations for individuals to deal with. On the contrary, femininity is having values such as caring and justice for others, as the dominant values, which unlike masculinity creates a softer place to deal with (Hofstede, 1984).

At workplace, he described that in masculine cultures such as in USA, Britain and Ireland at the workplace when conflicts happen, they believe that they should deal with it with a fight "let the best man win", employees in this setting will believe in "live in order to work". Unlike feminine cultures such as Netherlands, Sweden and Denmark; they will deal with conflict situations through negotiation and compromising; employees in this setting believe "work in order to live". In the masculine culture, organisation will reward individuals based on performance or equity, whereas in the feminine culture they reward them based on need or quality.

Another dimension that has different effect in different cultures is religion. Hofstede et al. (2010) describes masculinity and femininity in terms of religion as well. Masculine culture in religion is about following a tough god/s that requires tough behaviour from people and its visa a versa for the feminine cultured religion. In the feminine religion they help the needy, they are more permissive and they are characterised to have more relation with human than with god. In the masculine religion they support the strong people and act as a corrective society and their relation is more with god than with human.

4- Uncertainty Avoidance: Which is developed based on three indicators rule orientation, employment satiability and stress (Hofstede, 1984). "The extent to which people feel threatened by ambiguous situations, and have created beliefs and institutions that try to avoid these" (Hofstede & Bond, 1984, p. 419).

At workplace, strong uncertainty avoidance culture is considered emotional. People in these cultures are programmed since childhood to structured setting,

71

and they feel more comfortable with this structured setting as it eliminate uncertainties. People in this culture usually have low anxiety. Having laws, rules and regulation in strong uncertainty avoidance culture could result in rules that are rituals, inconsistent or dysfunctional. These rules however, satisfy individuals' emotions, from this group, for the need of having structure. People like to work hard and keep themselves busy as they believe the time has value: "time is money". Unlike weak uncertainty avoidance culture, people are much less concerned with structures and rules. They believe that rules should be developed for necessities only because many problems can be solved without having rules. Hofstede et al. (2010) argues that in weak uncertainty avoidance culture it is found that not having rules and regulations; people will follow informal rules and regulations better than the other way around. For example, queuing for a cashier or for a bus stop in Britain does not have a rule to govern it yet people are following it properly. People in this culture do not mind to work hard when it is needed, but not constantly as they like to relax from time to time.

5- Long versus Short-term orientations: at workplace there is no clear definition of long versus short-term orientation in regards to workplace.

Hofstede et al. (2010) mentioned about other dimensions, other than the cultural dimensions; the social dimension in which he discussed the effect, on individuals, and the difference between Indulge and Restrained societies.

All of which, he argues should be compared with personality which in turn result in individuals behaviour (Hofstede, 1980). In other words, Hofstede is suggesting that individuals will be affected differently by their culture based on their personalities. This supports this thesis argument on the importance of individuals' personality, because their personality is reflected in their behaviour and therefore affects IC at work.

The interrelation between prior environment and on-job environment is highlighted by Khan & Afzal, (2011). They assert that countries have their own environment, behaviour, practices, mode of thinking, acting, beliefs, and hosts of other inter-linked variables which are all effected by their organisational culture, and hence impact on their development and organisational success.

The above analytical review illustrates the importance of culture. This is because societal culture affects organisational culture, which intern has an effect on the individuals and IC. It is necessary to understand the effect of culture on IC.

The following Sections briefly consider some on-job issues that the individuals face at work and therefore affect them; namely wrong policies, motivation and nepotism.

2.9.2.1 Other On-job Environmental Issues

The on-job environment has several issues that affect IC. Such as having wrong policies at work (Mavromaras et al., 2009), motivation (Handy, 2007) and nepotism (Hofstede et al., 2010 and McClelland, 1973b).

2.9.2.1.1 Wrong Policies

One of the on-job problems that could face both the employees as well as the employer is having policies not followed or having the wrong policies. For example, Mavromaras et al. (2009) argue that 41 per cent of the employees' are over-skilled in Australia, they are suffering an average wage penalty of 10.2 per cent. They have the wrong employee in the wrong place; their research result suggests that not only over-skilled employees are losing on wages but the employers, who are either unable or unwilling, to allow workers sufficient discretion in order to enable them to fully utilize their skills in the work place, are losing out too.

2.9.2.1.2 Motivation

Motivation encourages individuals to work more or to be competent at work (Deal et al., 2013). In fact according to Handy (2007), motivation at work was argued in many different theories; such as

1- Satisfaction theories: which argue that satisfied employee is a productive worker.

2- Incentive theories: is based on reinforcement as a way to encourage good performance. Individuals work hard in order to reach the promised reward.

3- Intrinsic theory: assumes that the individual will work at their best if given the appropriate job and allowed to do it. In this situation, the satisfaction is rewarded by work itself (Handy, 2007).

73

These theories are based on the underlying assumption of people's nature; such as rational economics, social, self-actualization and others. However, even though these theories worked in certain context, they are not universally valid. Therefore, Handy (2007), proposed the motivational calculus.

Figure 2. 8: Motivational Calculus
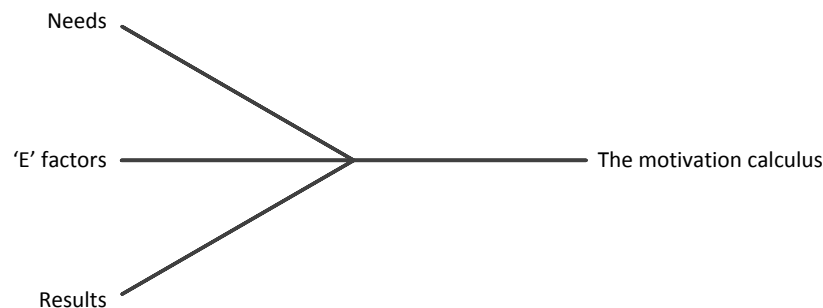
Source: Handy, 2007, p.38.

He argues that motivational calculus differ from one person to the other. However, they all have these three elements:

1- The strength of need.

2- The *expectancy* that 'E' will lead to the desired result.

3- The *instrumentality* of the result in terms of reducing the need in (1)

The need and result has been developed within the theories of motivation. However, 'E', which stands for energy, excitement, emotion, enthusiasm, expenditure of money, expenditure of time and expenditure of passion, is the one that acts as the mechanism by which the individual will decide of how much 'E' he/she will put in. Therefore, for organisation to maximize its individuals' motivations it needs to set a psychological contract that meets their individuals irrespective of the actual contract. In another words, there is no right or wrong motivational theory, rather the individuals and the particular circumstances matter (Handy, 2007). Consequently, the role of managers is essential, as they need to know what drives their employees and motivate them. Based on that, managers need to know how to reach that physiological agreement that drives these individuals to be motivated and try to work harder and be more competent.

2.9.2.1.3 Nepotism

Hofstede et al. (2010) discuss that nepotism is when people are being treated favourably because they are from the same group or because they are a family member. It could take place on-job or off job, but it is more undesirable at work as it may lead to misunderstanding and conflicts. Similarly, McClelland (1973b) argues that unhealthy aspect of organisational culture is nepotism. In USA, having socioeconomic status helps individuals in many ways. It will enable individuals, not only to be employed, but also to get into college and be secure financially.

Unlike the majority of researchers who find nepotism as a negative aspect, Jaskiewicz et al. (2013) discuss an interesting question in their research 'Is nepotism good or bad?'. They argued that nepotism has been critiqued but practiced, however little is understood. In their study they explained that in family firms' nepotism sometimes can be beneficial but sometimes it may not, depending on the type on nepotism used.

2.9.3 Environment and Competency

The importance of having a proper on-job environment does not only affect an individual's level of competency as argued above, but also organisational competency. Many researchers have investigated organisational performance (OP), in particular the relation between on-job environment and OP. Among them are Gotwon & Ditomaso (1992), who argue in their study of an insurance company in USA, that on-job environment or culture has an effect on the OP hence IC. According to Gupta (2001), organisational culture or on-job culture has connection with organisational strategy, which in return also affects OP. In another words, organisational culture, strategy and performance are all correlated. Also, Robbins & Judge (2012) believe that the stronger the on-job environment, the greater the organisational perception is of performance. He argues in his study that different intervention variables affect employees' satisfaction, which in turn affects IC. On-job cultural changes could also have an effect on the organisational finance return. Chow et al. (2003) added that for managers to have better competent employees, they need to manage, change and control their on-job environment. Figure 2.9 illustrates the relationship between environment and IC. The fourth proposition of this thesis is that environment has an effect on PC.

Figure 2. 9: Interdependency between Environment and IC.
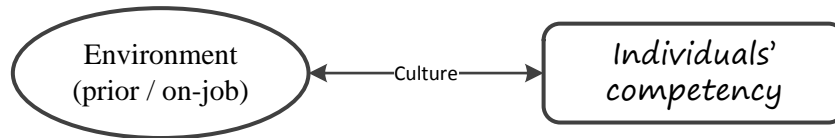
However, Lee & Yu (2004) argue that there is relatively little research that discusses the relation between organisational culture and OP or competencies. In their study, they found that the organisational culture or the on-job environment have a positive effect, not only on OP, but also on various organisational processes.

The literature supports the argument that on-job organisational environment has an effect on individuals' behaviour; simultaneously individuals' behaviour has an effect on the organisational environment. Therefore, one of the variables that will be investigated in this thesis for its effect on IC is the effect of on-job environment, and the effect of other variables in correlation with each other in order to investigate holistically these variables' effect on IC. Like the other variables, specifically the on-job environment is highly linked throughout the literature with the KM, and the importance of KM in organisational success, which is achieved through IC, as the following Section explains.

2.9.4 Environment and Personal Characteristic

The relationship between environment and PC is depicted in Figure 2.10.

Figure 2. 10: Interdependency between Environment, PC and IC.
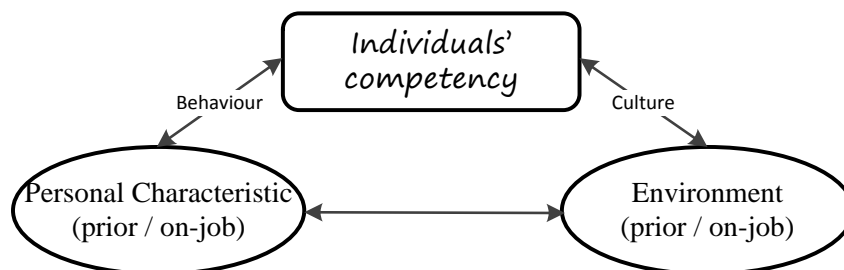
This thesis postulates that PC has an effect on IC reflected in behaviour and that environment has an effect on IC reflected in culture. Also, it is postulated that PC and environment are related, in that environment shapes PC.

Suh (2002) discusses culture as an individual psychological construct. He argues that some people talk about group culture implying that individuality is absent, where all individuals of a group are homogeneous regardless to their characteristics or behaviour, which is arguable. Rather, individuals are different in their own culture based on the degree to which they internalise their culture in terms of attitudes, belief, values and behaviour, which forms their inner-individual culture. Therefore, inner-individual culture depends on how much individuals absorb the culture, which means that they either share or not share that culture.

Pekerti (2005) conducted a study examining the effect of organisational environment on the relationship between managers and their employees and the way managers and employees behave. For example, individuals, regardless of their level in the organisation, may choose to reveal certain types of information and hide others, which could lead to either biased and or incorrect evaluation of employees' performances, and the reason for that is the organisational culture, as well as individual self-concept. His proposed solutions are to focus on reducing bias and having a more accurate evaluation of employees' performances. Similarly, Asree et al. (2010) conducted a study that confirmed that there is a positive relation between leadership competency and organisational environment with employees' responsiveness as well as their customers.

Interesting questions here for the thesis are: What if the situation has nothing to do with performance evaluation? If we remove the element of performance evaluation, will those individuals be more willing to share their knowledge with others anyway? What could be the reason for individuals choosing not to share their knowledge with others? Miron et al. (2004) discuss the generally accepted recognition that organisational culture does have an effect on employees' behaviour at different levels of the organisation. The study conducted by Chuttipattana & Shamsudin (2011) reveals the importance of organisational culture in developing individuals' personality and to develop competent managers. Nevertheless, there is still a lack of studies regarding the effect of organisational culture on the relationship between managers and their employees (Chuttipattana & Shamsudin, 2011). Interestingly, how would individuals behave if the organisational environment is perceived to be unfair but individuals' managers are perceived by individuals to be fair? More interestingly, how would individuals behave if their manager is perceived to be

unfair but organisational environment is perceived by individuals to be fair? In the following Section, the literature lacuna is discussed in order to highlight the need for the research in terms of the holistic approach to understanding IC in the context of KM.

2.10 The Four Factor Holism

As presented in this literature review, IC is related with the factors education, training, PC and environment. The research literature correlates IC with either one or some of these variables, but not holistically. Also, the literature is undecided and theory inconclusive about the contribution of these factors to IC. Consequently, this thesis seeks to investigate these factors as composing IC holistically.

Drawing on understanding from the reviewed literature, the interdependency of these factors is clearer. For example, like many researchers, Awan et al. (2011) discussed the effect of education and training on IC. This correlation between education and IC is described through knowledge gained by individuals and the correlation between training and IC is described through skills. In addition, not only do they argue that education and training has a positive effect on individuals; but also leading indirectly to effect culture, because it helps in filling basic necessities which leads to high-living standards.

Though the research literature shows either a contradicting result on some of these factors or inconclusive findings, this thesis takes the research in the field one step further by uniquely combining all these factors together as a holistic approach to investigate their effect on IC. In order to reach this holism however, smaller steps of identifying each factor to the main unit of analysis, IC is required. The four factors, education, training, PC and environment were each discussed for their effect (prior and on-job) on IC. As presented earlier, each of these factors has contradicting argument or finding. This thesis however assumes that the four factors have a holistic effect on IC at work. Therefore, since each factor effect IC, it is also assumed that the four factors as a holism also have an effect on IC. The conceptual model is therefore built on this understanding in the conceptual model (Chapter 3). This conceptual model and the effect of each factor on IC in the context of KM, and the role of HRM in developing IC, is then empirically investigated. In the following Section, the

literature lacuna is discussed in order to highlight the need for the research in terms of the holistic approach to understanding IC in the context of KM.

2.11 Theoretical Lacuna

The literature is inconclusive about certain factors that affect IC and the definition of the core unit of analysis IC. This inconclusiveness arises because each researcher and/or organisational setting investigated has its own needs and understanding of what a competent individual should be. Nevertheless, the literature is also inconclusive about the factors that affect IC.

In order to develop this holist IC approach, a wider understanding of the four factors was developed. However, the research literature reviewed presents contradictory findings in almost every aspect of the four variables. Significantly, this thesis seeks to determine the factors that affect IC using a holistic approach. This holistic approach encompasses both individuals' life before work, as all their life aspects are absorbed by them, beginning from their family and friends (prior environment) school (prior education and training) and how well they developed themselves into being responsible working individuals. The holistic IC approach takes account of individuals' range of prior experiences and how these experiences affect their performance in knowledge work, prior experiences in education, training, PC and environment but from the perspective of the organisation. In another words, their knowledge (of education), skills (of training), their behaviour (based on their personality and characteristics) and their working culture (environment), which together holistically affect their competency at work.

It is critical to point out that the reviewed research literature findings reached contradicting results because of the different contexts where the research took place, and therefore have concluded differently. For example, in Emad & Roth (2008) research, the finding was: "prior education and training do not have an effect"; this result is expected because the teachers did not follow the proper procedure of education and training. They were simply trying to pass their students rather than to educate and train them. Students were not given the required knowledge that they needed to perform their work. Therefore, students did not benefit from their education and training. Such issues will be investigated in this thesis in order to know and understand to what extent education and training (prior and on-job) has an

effect on IC. In fact, the effect of training does not only lie on the trainers only but also on the trainees themselves. According to Eddie & Hampson (2008) it is the trainees who should acquire the knowledge and skills needed in order to develop themselves and implement it at work. However, it is not guaranteed that training programs will have a positive effect on individuals' competency at work. For such an effect to take place individuals need to be motivated (Broad & Newstrom, 1992; Goldstein & Ford, 2001; Kupritz, 2000; Dana Gaines Robinson & Robinson, 1995) as well as they need be welling to transfer their acquired knowledge and skills to work (Eddie & Hampson, 2008). In addition, organisations are lightly evaluating the effect of the training programs on their employees in fear that ROI is not worth the training programs investment, leaving them preferring using mainly the first two categories of Kirkpatrick (1967) taxonomy (Blanchard et al., 2000). This reveals two issues in that regards, first it shows an insight of the organisational behaviour of lacking what the individuals have actually gained and transferred to their work willingly. Second, following that and based on organisations light evaluation of the training programs and the effect of it on their individuals leading to a weak evaluation of what has been gained and transferred and accordingly what knowledge and skills individuals need of future training, which is lacking in the research literature.

Similar contradictory research findings were found for PC. For example, researchers such as Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) and Prahalad & Hamel (1990) believe that PC is not important for better performance whether it is prior or on-job. Whereas Lu (2006) argue that PC may or may not have an effect on IC and it depends on several elements. However, PC, unlike education and training, has less contradictory evidence. Majority of researchers agree on the importance of PC on IC (Akgün et al., 2005; Bowlby, 1969; Coulson-Thomas, 2009; Geller & Bamberger, 2009). In fact, individuals' behaviour at work is based on their PC (Stich, 1985) and that individuals PC could extend to their future job, which would be evident when they interact with other individuals and weather they are willing to share knowledge (Geller & Bamberger, 2009). Similarly, it is the case for PC on-job has an affect IC.

The environment factor has similar literature evidence as PC. Researchers such as Greider (1997) and Schaeffer (2009) believe that prior environment as well as on-job environment (Chuttipattana & Shamsudin, 2011) has no effect on IC. However,

unlike education and training, environment is similar to PC in that researchers as early as Kluckhohn (1951) and Eigen (1971) believe that prior and on-job environment has an effect on IC. Kluckhohn (1951) and Eigen (1971) have developed the theory of evolution and discussed the importance of understanding the environmental culture in order to have a better understanding, not only of the processes but the individuals. In fact, it is individuals who drive the meaning of their surrounding environment and create the needed or the desired valuable outcome. Hofstede et al. (2010) who researched the effect of culture on individuals, now supports the prior and on-job culture effect. However, the definition of culture, like many other definitions, is not unified in the literature. According to Lu (2006), the understanding of culture at the individual's level cannot be generalised for all people's behaviour. With such cultural variances, individuals' characteristics also differ, which adds to the variances of people's different behaviour at work. In addition, Kotter & Heskett (2011), argue that an organisation has more than one culture that associates with different departments, functional groups or geographical locations. These different cultures however do share values and practices that tend to be more stable across the organisation and over time. Nevertheless, with such different cultural combinations, different circumstances, as well as different individuals' behaviour all of which may have a different effect on IC.

Another essential element investigated in this thesis is KM and theory of KCM developed by Nonaka & Takeuchi (1995). This theory promises organisational success through individuals' ability to take part in knowledge creation. KM is therefore investigated in terms of its effect on IC and its usability to develop IC. Much literature describes the effect of KM on both individuals and organisation; however it lacks adequate explanation and evidence of how this theory is actually applied in practice. Therefore, the four factors of holistic IC identified in this literature review will be investigated as the stated four propositions in the context of the application of KCM and supporting role of HRM.

2.12 Summary

This thesis seeks to investigate the holistic composition of IC and its four factors: education, training, PC, and environment in the context of KM and supporting role of HRM. However, the reading of the literature review shows that these four factors still remain to be satisfactorily addressed, particularly the relationship between them.

These factors themselves are composed of prior-to-work and on-job experiences. Prior-to-work is what individuals have encountered in their life before joining work and it is what prepares them for work.

Chapter 3

Conceptual Framework

3.1 Introduction

The aim of this thesis is to investigate factors of holistic IC necessary for effective knowledge creation model (KCM) implementation with the facilitation of HRM. In fact, the critical reading of the literature reveals the emerging of four themes that need to be operationalised; namely education, training, PC and environment. However, in order to operationalise them and empirically validated they will be referred to as construct or factors where data will be collected and analysed.

In addition, the literature review revealed several theoretical and empirical gaps notable in knowledge and understanding in each of the four factors composing IC. To develop knowledge to address these gaps, a theoretical framework of competency is developed in this Chapter. The framework seeks to investigate the factors composing IC and how IC can be developed through the applied modes of knowledge creation of the KCM. The framework also constitutes the methodological approach of the thesis. The following Section presents the theoretical framework of this thesis.

3.2 The Holistic Individuals' Competency Conceptual Model

The composition of IC in terms of the four factors, along with the application and the usability of the KCM, depend on the competency of the individuals and how involved they are in knowledge work. In other words, whether they choose to participate in knowledge work by sharing their knowledge. The KCM can itself be used as a tool to investigate whether it actually develops IC. Nonaka & Takeuchi's (1995) KCM suggests that following it will lead to organisational success through enacting the four modes of knowledge creation, by utilizing individuals' tacit and explicit knowledge, which implicitly implies utilizing their IC, resulting in both organisational and individual success.

Crucially, the actual working of this model depends on individuals and their competency to perform knowledge work. To improve the validity of the KCM it is necessary to examine the role of individuals and their competencies in it. This is a very important research problem because the factors that compose IC, determine whether the spiral of knowledge creation model actually works in practice.

Additionally, there is a need for formal theory of IC. Such a theory would encompass well-developed empirical knowledge of the meaning of IC. Since no theory of IC has yet been developed, an argumentation is proposed here as a theoretical base to investigate IC. This theoretical argumentation is the basis for deriving a formal model of IC for effective KM and better IC development knowledge and practice. Formal models that are derived from theoretical considerations and empirical evidence are more robust than non-theoretical models, and practically useful. Consequently, the implications of a theoretically derived formal model for practice are firmer. The theoretical framework developed for this research follows this approach.

Methodologically, the theoretical framework is composed of two phases of critical theoretical analysis as depicted in Figure 3.1. The first phase of analysis develops the theoretical argumentation. This is the theoretical grounding for investigating IC, HRM and KM. In order to achieve the aim of this thesis, it is essential to identify factors composing IC and the relationships among them, and to elaborate the theoretical base that fills the theoretical gaps in our understanding discovered in the literature review.

Figure 3. 1: Research Framework.
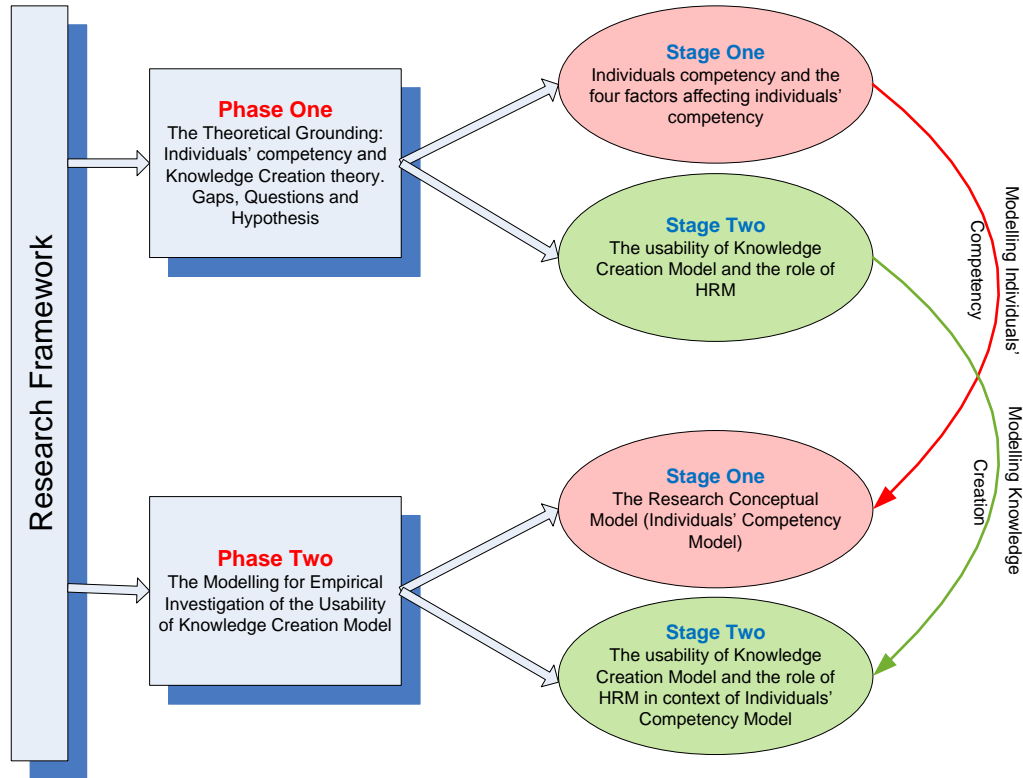
The first phase of theoretical analysis is composed of two stages of sub-analysis. Stage one, is the identification and analysis of the four factors composing IC and the derivation of hypotheses. Stage two is the usability of the KCM to develop IC through the role or the practice of HRM. The second phase of analysis derives a formal model from the theoretical base of phase one analysis to investigate empirically IC composition in the practice of KM. Stage one of this phase is the research conceptual model or the IC model, used in this thesis that contributes to theoretical understanding and knowledge of IC. Stage two of phase two is the usability of KCM that promises organisational success, which will be investigated for its implications for IC. These two stages together compose the research conceptual model. Then the thesis development plan to undertake this research is detailed and it includes diagrams and steps of how this research thesis will be developed to address the research aim, research questions and hypotheses. The following is phase one of the framework.

3.3 Phase One of the Holistic Individuals' Competency Conceptual Model

Phase one is the theoretical grounding of this thesis, has two stages. The first stage of is to understand the effect of each of the four individual factors on IC and then to understand and define the interrelationships among them as factors. This theoretical reasoning is the holistic approach to understanding of IC of this thesis. Whereas, in the second stage invokes the theory of knowledge creation model developed by Nonaka & Takeuchi (1995) in order to develop the research conceptual model, the IC model, and to understand IC in the context of KM. The theory of KCM argues that effective KM leads to organisational success; however, since it is individuals who practice the knowledge creation modes of the KCM the KCM itself is used to understand and develop a model of IC in the context of KM as follow.

3.3.1 Stage One: Competencies and Factors Composing Individuals' Competency: Research Gaps, Questions and Hypothesis

The first stage of the first phase of the theoretical grounding is to understand and define IC and its factors; these have been identified from the literature to be education, training, PC and environment as follow.

3.3.1.1 Competency

The core unit of analysis is IC. However, as noted the literature has no unified understanding and definition for competency (Boyatzis, 1982; Rothwell & Kazanas, 1993; Sandberg, 2000; Sternberg & Kolligian Jr., 1990; Yang et al., 2006). Moreover, practitioners have different strategies, aims and objectives, which vary in different public and private sectors. They follow different rules and regulations depending on the type and geographical place in which competency is invoked, leading to different meanings of the concept of competency. Thus, there is no unified model of IC in the theoretical literature or in practice. Hondeghem & Vandermeulen (2000) argue that the meaning of competency depends on several factors, including individual or organisational level of analysis, aims of the organisation, HRM instruments and structure of the HRM organisation, whether it is centralised or decentralised.

Therefore, it is important to have a clear understanding of competency within the organisation where individuals work. A crucial aspect of this understanding is to learn (1) how organisations define IC necessary for knowledge work and for individuals to meet organisational competencies expectations, and (2) how such competencies and contributions could be measured against the expected competencies (Boam & Sparrow, 1992; Bowden & Masters, 1993; Lustri et al., 2007; Strebler et al., 1997; Woodruffe, 1993).

Since there is no agreement among researchers and practitioners of the meaning of competency, and since competency has several meanings depending on the context in which it is used, it is necessary to understand competency and how organisations define it. Also, it is necessary to know how individuals define competency for themselves in their job roles in their organisation. Such individual definitions may not necessarily agree with organisational requirements, causing misunderstandings and incompetent individual behaviour. It is necessary for organisations to clearly define competency for individuals at all levels of the organisation in order to reach a common ground between both the organisation and its individuals in order to enable the latter to understand and know what is expected of them. Consequently, various issues arise. Based on the given theoretical understanding, some question arises to address the literature lacunas. For example, do individuals know what their organisational competencies are? Do they know what organisational competency requirements are and how they will be evaluated? Do individuals in the organisation hold the same meaning of competency, regardless of the organisational hierarchy at which they work, or does the meaning of competency differ according to organisational hierarchy? IC applies to regular employees and their managers and affects their working relationship. If competency is not clearly defined in the organisation, will employees be able to perform the way their managers expect them to perform? And if they performed competently, are they being assessed based on the given competencies? On the other hand, if they know their organisational competency requirements and they still perform incompetently, then what are the other factors that hindered them from or led them to this behaviour?

3.3.1.2 Education

Research shows conflicting arguments and evidence regarding the effect of prior education on IC. Some argue that prior education has an effect on IC (L. J. Cronbach, 1970; Immelt et al., 2009; Kedia & Englis, 2011; Kohlberg et al., 1972) and others argue that prior education has no effect on IC (Elton & Shevel, 1969; Holland & Richards, 1965; McClelland, 1973; Sluis et al., 2008). Similarly, for on-job education, some research agrees that on-job education has an effect on IC such as Bowden & Masters (1993) and Hartog & Oosterbeek (2007), and others who argue that it does not (Sluis et al., 2008).

In the education section of the literature review, it was argued that prior education and training does not affect on future workers (Emad & Roth, 2008). However, other research argues the positive effect of prior education on success and competency (Kedia & Englis, 2011; Yang et al., 2006). To understand individual success and IC it is necessary to consider other factors. In the case of McClelland's research for example, working environment and PC could explain individual success and competency. The same applies for on-job education.

Consequently, the theoretical grounding should address the gaps identified in the literature review and develop a research strategy to investigate the contradicting arguments regarding the effect of prior and on-job education on IC.

The issue for _prior education_, based on the literature review, is whether prior education has an effect on IC. In order to answer this question, a deeper investigation is required to know the degree to which prior education affects IC in individuals' future work. Do people working in a particular organisation work in the field of their prior education? If so, then to what extent did the knowledge that they gained in their prior education help them in their current job? Do well prior-educated individuals become more competent and perform better than those who are less educated?

Similarly, regarding _on-job education_, the question is: Does on-job education have an effect on IC? In order to investigate the effect of on-job education, it should be established whether individuals actually received education during their work or not. Assuming they did, then the next thing to investigate is whether the education received is relevant to their job? Only then, the answer can be interpreted whether

on-job education actually results in performing more competently at work or not. Also, the studies reviewed earlier were mainly conducted in Europe and USA. A pertinent question is: if the same study is conducted in a different context will the results be the same? Accordingly, the following hypotheses are generated:

H1a: Prior education has positive effect on IC.

H1b: On-job education has positive effect on IC.

3.3.1.3 Training

Similar to education, there are conflicting research findings regarding the effect of prior training on IC. Some research argues that prior training has an effect on IC (J. W. Burke, 1989; Mclaughlin & Talbert, 2001; Muijs & Reynolds, 2010; Nelson & Phelps, 1966; Erica Smith et al., 2006) and other research argues the opposite such as (Emad & Roth, 2008; Schonewille, 2001). Recall Emad & Roths' (2008) study of maritime education and training, where the finding of their study shows no effect of prior training on IC. Similarly on-job training, some studies agree that on-job training has an effect on IC such as (Buganza et al., 2013; Firestone & McElroy, 2004; Man, 2006; Muijs & Lindsay, 2008) whereas others argue that it does not (Emad & Roth, 2008; Schonewille, 2001).

The theoretical argument proposed here recognises both prior training and on-job training. Concerning the *prior training*, therefore, it is essential to ask whether prior training has an effect on IC at work. In order to investigate this matter further, we need to ask deeper questions such as, to what degree does prior training affect IC at work? Was prior training relevant to the job? To what extent do the skills gained in prior training help them in the current job? Also, based on Emad & Roth's (2008) study of maritime education and training, where the study shows no effect of prior education and training on the future work of the individuals, then we should investigate whether trainers and/or educators are competent at delivering materials to individuals.

Concerning *on-job training*, similarly to prior training, it is essential to ask whether on-job training has an effect on IC. Again, in order to investigate this matter further, we need to ask deeper questions such as, to what degree does on-job training actually affect IC at work? This effect of on-job training on IC should start by the

organisation recognizing that individuals need to be trained based on their particular needs and job requirements. Such needs and requirements should be carefully assessed by the organisation, including HRM and department managers. In addition, the organisation needs to encourage its individuals to be educated. At the same time, organisations needs to enable their individuals to put their knowledge and skills into practice through sharing. In fact, it is the organisation's role to make sure that they utilize whatever knowledge and skills individuals possess, in order to maximize the benefit from individuals. However, training should not be the responsibility of the organisation alone, as individuals share that responsibility. In fact, it is individuals' personal characteristics, such as ambition and initiative that will determine whether they are willing to be receptive to learning and acquire new knowledge and skills and use them in their work (Akgün et al., 2005; Searle, 1969; van der Vegt et al., 2009). Therefore, it essential to investigate the following questions: Did individuals receive prior training? If they did, was the training relevant to their current job? To what extent does prior training affect IC? Are they receiving any training on-job? If yes, is the on-job training relevant to their work? To what extent does on-job training affect IC? Is this knowledge of European and USA workers also true in other countries? Therefore, the following hypothesis can be generated accordingly.

H2a: Prior training has positive effect on IC.

H2b: On-job training has positive effect on IC.

3.3.1.4 Personal Characteristics

The theoretical argument concerning PC reveals contradicting arguments, which will be addressed to investigate whether they have an effect on IC. The importance of PC relies on the behaviour of individuals. It is individuals who choose to behave the way they behave to meet their own agenda (Akgün et al., 2005; Gleick, 1997; Searle, 1969; van der Vegt et al., 2009) and it is they who choose whether to share their knowledge with others or not (Akgün et al., 2005; Coulson-Thomas, 2009). This theoretical argument is developed to recognise both prior PC and on-job PC. Concerning *prior PC*, starting with prior to work individuals' PC, it is necessary to investigate whether prior individuals' PC has an effect on the way individuals work. According to Geller & Bamberger (2009), who studied the attachment theory which discusses children's early age needs and bonding with their caregivers, suggests that

individuals' behaviour could extend to the workplace and influence their behaviour while interacting with others. In addition, with emergence of the importance of Emotional Intelligence (EI), psychologists such as Gao et al. (2013) and Kunnanatt, (2008), argue that EI demonstrates important role in improving IC, yet a fuller understanding of the concept is not yet reached. However, Gardner (2000); Goleman et al. (2006) and Wheatley (2001) suggest that managers who have a good understanding of their own emotions have a better ability to connect with their employees, effectively inspire and encourage their individuals, and therefore are more competent than traditional managers. In order to better understand this, more focus should be applied on the way individuals behave prior and outside work. Are individuals affected by the way they were raised? Do they have a strong personality that they learn and develop themselves to be a better individual? Therefore, are they considered as optimistic and motivated individuals or pessimistic and unmotivated?

Concerning the _on-job PC_, it is necessary to investigate whether on-job PC has an affect the way individuals behave or perform at work and hence affects their competency. Also, does their PC affect the way they receive, interpret and hence share knowledge? Do they trust their organisation and colleagues in order for them to share their knowledge with others? Are they willing to share their knowledge? Based on extant research of Akgün et al. (2005); Searle (1969) and van der Vegt et al. (2009), they argue that the effect of sharing and commitment are based on individuals' commitment to their organisation. Moreover, the organisation plays important role in encouraging knowledge sharing and commitment; in other words, does the organisation provide them with incentives to gain their trust and enable them to be more competent? If individuals show signs of incompetency, is it intentional or is it because of other factors? Based on the above theoretical discussion and questions the following hypotheses are drawn:

H3a: Prior PC has positive effect on IC.

H3b: On-job PC has positive effect on IC.

3.3.1.5 Environment

The theoretical issue here is to recognise both individual environment, the prior environment, which is the individual's own culture and background, and the working

culture or on-job environment, where individuals come to work. Concerning the *prior environmental culture*, it is necessary to investigate the effect of individuals' own culture on their competency and whether personal culture has an effect on IC. As Suh (2002) and Lu (2006) argue, the effect of individuals' culture varies from one individual to another depending on their PC. Personal cultural effect, in other words, does vary from one individual to another. Therefore, it is essential to investigate individuals' attachment to their own culture and whether their culture is an open culture that accepts and allows its members to interact and trust others from different cultures. According to Hofstede et al. (2010) there are five dimensions to culture, whether it is prior environment or on-job environment; power distance, collectivism versus individualism, masculinity versus femininity, uncertainty avoidance and long versus short-term orientations. In each of the cultural groups the individuals' behaviour changes based on the group they belong to. Therefore, according to Hofstede et al. (2010) prior environment has an an effect on individuals way of behaving, and hence ontheir IC at work. Therefore, to better understand the effect of prior environemt on IC, it is essential to investegate the degree to which culture effects IC.Is PC more influential than culture? Are people from certain cultures likely to behave more or less competently? Is people's belonging affecting the way they work?

Concerning the *on-job environment*, it is strongly essential to investigate whether organisational culture has an effect on IC. According to Hofstede et al. (2010), on-job environmentis simillar to prior environment where individulas will behave differently according to their organisational cultural settings. Therefore, it is essential to investegate howindividuals would behave if the organisational environment or culture is perceived to be unfair. Specifically, according to Chuttipattana & Shamsudin (2011) who argue that there is still a lack of studies regarding the effect of organisational culture on the relationship between managers and their employees: How would individuals behave if their managers are perceived by individuals to be fair or unfair? And to what degree does culture affect IC in different settings other than the European and American settings? Based on the above questions the following hypotheses are inferred:

H4a: Prior environment has positive effect on IC.

H4b: On-job environment has positive effect on IC.

H5: All factors holistically have positive effect on IC.

3.3.2 Stage Two: Knowledge Management Theory: Research Gaps, Questions and Hypothesis

The second stage of the first phase of the theoretical grounding is about the theory of knowledge creation developed by Nonaka & Takeuchi (1995). This theory has been argued by knowledge management gurus as leading to organisational success (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Prahalad & Hamel, 2006). Critically, it fundamentally assumes that individuals share their knowledge leading to developing each other, as well as the organisation. The literature provides no empirical assessment of this fundamental assumption. Additionally, the literature review reveals little study of the practical operation or process of the knowledge creation model. In fact, Nonaka (1994) argues that when organisations are faced with new knowledge they look at it as a new challenge or a problem to solve, rather than a new knowledge opportunity that can lead the organisation to success.

Since knowledge creation theory is designed to develop the organisation and lead to organisational success, and since it is individuals who enact knowledge management through creating, developing and sharing knowledge, this stage suggests using the theory of knowledge creation to develop IC along with factors that affect IC development. Assuming that the postulated four factors do affect IC, KM can be used to develop the very essence of organisation which is its individuals. The question here is how to maximize the benefit from individuals' tacit knowledge and convert it to explicit knowledge. Is the organisation helping and enabling individuals to share their knowledge? More importantly, does the organisation practice true KM? Are individuals willing to share their knowledge?

At this stage of the theoretical argument, the four modes of knowledge creation will be discussed in terms of their usability to develop IC. They are as follow:

Socialization is transferring t*acit knowledge to tacit knowledge*. This mode requires individuals to exchange and interact with each other. The question here is: are individuals willing to socialize and share their knowledge? Is socialization an actual practice in the organisation?

Combination is transferring *explicit knowledge to explicit knowledge*. This mode involves individuals exchanging and combining their explicit knowledge, through meetings, telephone calls and e-mails and other explicit media or communicative artefact. Do individuals find sharing explicit knowledge easier than sharing their tacit knowledge? Does the organisation encourage and use this practice?

Externalization is transferring *tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge*. This mode is about individuals using metaphor and models. It is the least defined mode of the knowledge creation model (Lakoff & Johnson, 2008; Nonaka, 1991). How can metaphor be used as a tool to develop IC?

Internalization is transferring *explicit knowledge to tacit knowledge*. This mode is about learning by doing. Are individuals willing to train and educate themselves and each other? If someone asks them a question or for help, are they willing to share their tacit knowledge?

Based on the above the hypothesis follows that:

H6: Knowledge management has positive effect on IC.

3.3.2.1 The Role of HRM in Knowledge Management

The literature review discussed the important role of HRM in the organisation to develop IC and for organisational development. The main role consists of recruitment and selection, training and development, reward and recognition, selecting, hiring and other roles according to organisational strategies and operations. HRM has the essential role of facilitator of KM implementation in the organisation; its role revolves around developing individuals and organisation. Petersen & Poulfelt (2002) argue that for KM to be successful it should not only be introduced in some parts of the organisation, rather it needs to be integrated in the whole organisation to be successful. In other words, all levels of the organisation should practice KM in order for it to be effective. However, Newell et al. (2009) assert that the role of HRM is limited in such development, according to the structure and policies of the organisation. In other words, unless strategy, rules and policies enable HRM to take part in developing and implementing KM, HRM role may be limited in that regards. Therefore, the above argument suggests the link between HRM by enabling KM creation through individuals.

The literature shows little comprehension of the integrated nature of HRM, KM and IC. Therefore, for the purpose of this thesis, which is to investigate holistic factors effecting IC, HRM is one of the enablers that develops individuals to be more competent at work. So, the role of HRM in KM should be identified and recognized by the organisation. Thus, this research will investigate whether the role of HRM in the organisation is utilized, not only to assess, hire, train and develop individuals, but also whether they are participating in implementing KM in the organisation. It will also investigate the limitations of the role of HRM. Does its role extend to participating in organisational strategies and KM? More importantly, to what degree do they have the power to develop IC?

Based on the above arguments the hypothesis follows that:

H7a: HRM has positive effect on KM.

H7b: HRM has positive effect on IC.

H8: HRM and KM have positive effect on IC.

The next phase derives and demonstrates a research model based on the above theoretical grounding, research questions and hypotheses. Phase two consists of the research conceptual model which is the postulated IC model and the usability of the KCM. The theory of knowledge creation will be presented in order to study its usability for developing successful individuals and IC, as the knowledge creation model suggests.

3.4 Phase Two of the Holistic Individuals' Competency Conceptual Model

Having set the theoretical grounding in phase one; now the theoretical grounding is translated into a conceptual model in phase two. Phase two consists of two stages as depicted in Figure 3.1. The first stage is to reflect on the theoretical discussion in the first stage of phase one as the research conceptual model or the *Individuals' Competency Conceptual Model* (IC conceptual model). The second stage is to reflect on the theoretical discussion in the second stage of the phase one as the usability of the knowledge creation model and the role of HRM in facilitating IC and KM model.

3.4.1 Stage One: The Research Conceptual Model: Individuals' Competency Conceptual Model

Since the aim of this research is to identify holistic factors effecting IC, competency is the focus or unit of analysis. In the graphical representation of the IC conceptual model (Figure 3.2), IC is depicted in the centre representing its essentiality as a dependent variable. At present, the other four factors are assumed to affect IC, as independents variables. HRM and KM are also depicted in the conceptual model because they have a role in developing IC, based on the organisational rules and regulations. The conceptual model illustrates the hypothesised relationships among the factors that are assumed to affect IC.

Figure 3. 2: IC Conceptual Model.
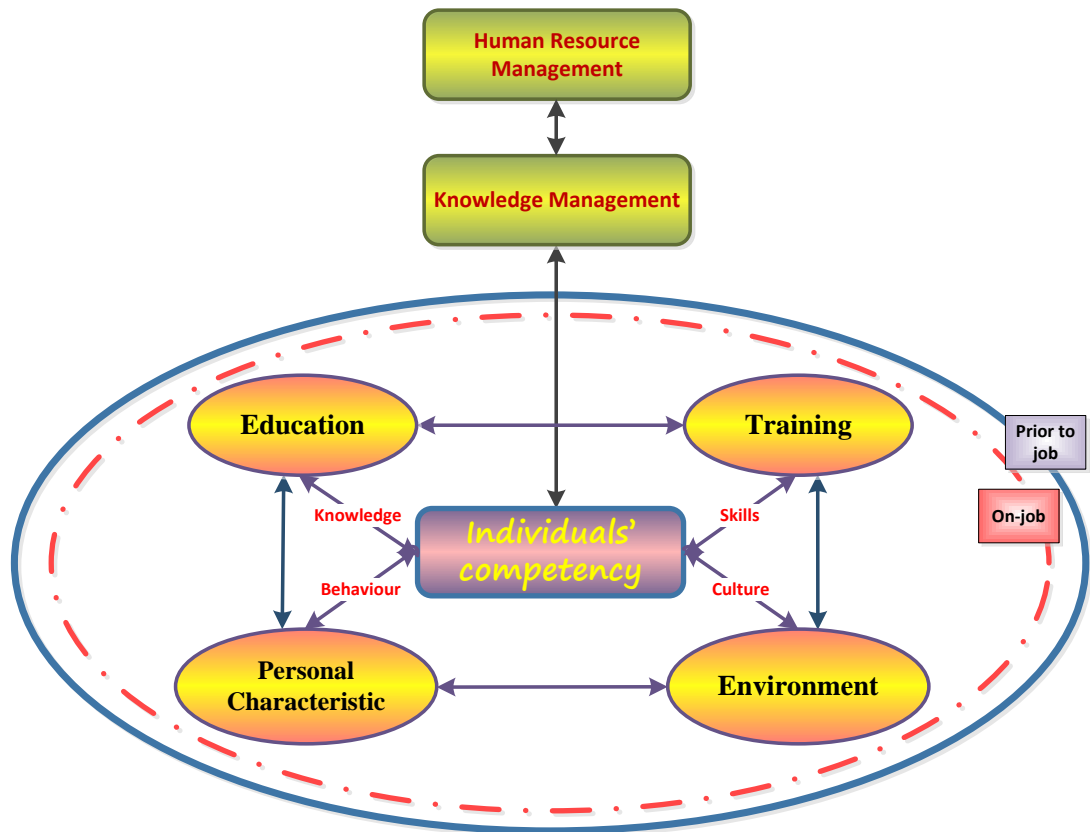
The importance of IC is emphasised in the postulated holistic IC model by depicting it in the centre of Figure 3.2. As discussed earlier, competency is defined variously by many scholars such as Athey & Orth (1999); Kurz & Bartram (2003); Lustri et al. (2007); McClelland (1973); Thornton III & Rupp (2005); Winterton (2009) and others. Competency does not have a unified definition or meaning in the literature let alone in practice (Jubb & Robotham, 1997). Therefore, the meaning and usage of

competency is determined by the organisations based on the context that it is used for. In other words, in order to investigate competency, we need to know what the definition of competency is in any given organisation based on its context. Assuming the meaning is clearly stated and shared with working individuals, it is then necessary and possible to investigate whether those individuals are competent at work and if they are following the organisational competencies expected from them. This necessitates examining the factors that affect IC. It is therefore essential to know whether the proposed factors have an effect on IC, namely education, training, PC and environment. A summary of conflicting research findings, as to whether these factors have an effect or not on IC is presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3. 1: The Contradicting Literature Findings of the Effect of Each Factor on IC.

Factor	Prior / on-job experience	<u>Has</u> an Effect on IC	<u>Has No</u> Effect on IC	Competency gained or involved
Education	Prior experience	Cronbach (1970); Immelt et al. (2009); Kedia & Englis (2011); Kohlberg et al. (1972); Yang et al. (2006).	Elton & Shevel (1969); Holland & Richards (1965); McClelland (1973); Sluis et al. (2008).	Knowledge
	On-job experience	Bowden & Masters (1993); Boyatzis (1982); Hartog & Oosterbeek (2007); Yang et al. (2006).	Sluis et al. (2008).	
Training	Prior experience	Bandura (1986); Burke (1989); Kerka (1998); Lewarn (2002); Mclaughlin & Talbert (2001); Muijs & Reynolds (2010); Nelson & Phelps (1966); Smith et al. (2006).	Emad & Roth (2008); Schonewille (2001).	Skills
	On-job experience	Bandura (1986); Buganza et al. (2013); Burke (1989); Firestone & McElroy (2004); Kerka (1998); Lewarn (2002); Man (2006); Muijs & Lindsay (2008); Smith et al. (2006).	Emad & Roth (2008); Schonewille (2001); Eddie & Hampson (2008).	
Personal Characteristics	Prior experience	Gao et al. (2013); Geller & Bamberger (2009); Goldberg (1992); Hofstede & Bond (1984); Hofstede (2001); Hofstede et al. (2010); Korzaan & Boswell (2008);	Nonaka & Takeuchi (1995); Nonaka (1994); Prahalad & Hamel (2006) (Lacking the importance of prior PC in their	Behaviour

		Kunnanatt (2008); Lu (2006); Salaman & Taylor (2002); Suh (2002); van der Vegt et al. (2009).	study). Lu (2006) (It depends).	
	On-job experience	Coulson-Thomas (2009); Gao et al. (2013); Hofstede & Bond (1984); Hofstede (2001); Hofstede et al. (2010); Kunnanatt, (2008); Petersen & Poulfelt (2002); Searle (1969); Shaikh et al. (2009).	Nonaka & Takeuchi (1995); Nonaka (1994); Prahalad & Hamel (2006) (Lacking the importance of on-job PC in their study). Chiang et al.(2011); Lu (2006); Muscatello (2003) (It depends).	
Environment	Prior experience	Hofstede & Bond (1984); Hofstede (1994), (2001); Hofstede et al. (2010); Leung et al. (2005); Markus & Kitayama (1991); Matsumoto & Juang (2012); Suh (2002); Triandis (2004).	Nonaka & Takeuchi (1995); Nonaka (1994); Prahalad & Hamel (2006) (Lacking the importance of prior environment in their study). Greider (1997); Lu (2006); Schaeffer (2009) (It depends).	Culture
	On-job experience	Cameron & Quinn (2011); Hofstede (1980), (2001); Hofstede et al. (2010); Pekerti (2005); Schein (2010).	Nonaka & Takeuchi (1995); Nonaka (1994); Prahalad & Hamel (2006) (Lacking the importance of on-job environment in their study). Lu (2006) (It depends). Chuttipattana & Shamsudin (2011) (lack of study).	

Each one of the four factors, as discussed earlier in the literature review, the lacuna and the theoretical grounding, is based on *prior experiences*, which is an individual's life experience before joining work; and *on-job experiences*, which is experience gained at work. In the IC model, the outer and bigger circle represents prior experiences that the individuals' gain before joining works. It consists of what individuals experienced in their life; therefore it is in lined with a solid line. One the other hand, the inner circle represents on-job experiences only. It is therefore the smaller inner circle. It is presented with a dashed line to represent one of the assumptions that prior and on-job experiences are interrelated and that they both effect IC at work. In addition, the interrelation of all four factors; namely education, training PC and environment, are postulated between each other and to IC.

3.4.1.1 The Holism of IC Model

From the understanding of the literature review, lacunae in knowledge and the theoretical grounding, the four factors, including prior experiences and on-job experiences, are assumed in the IC conceptual model to have an integrated effect, or

compose the holism of IC. Both the hypotheses and the postulated IC model express the holism web, as shown by the arrows from each of the factors linked to all the other factors and IC, which represents their theorised connectivity.

Education results in knowledge as an attribute of IC, as shown in Figure 3.2. According to Armstrong (2012), the role of learning and development can be either general, where all or the majority of the working individuals should learn it (generic), or specific for individual/s, where it has to be tailored based on the job requirement, the individual or the organisational need (individual). These learning competencies should be linked to the organisational competencies and competency framework.

The educational factor is therefore related with training, as discussed above. However, it is not the only factor needed for individuals to learn; PC is also another factor that should be considered, as it affects individuals' learning and therefore IC. For example for individuals to learn, the single or double loop learning, they need to have the ability to acquire such learning from developed programmes (Edvardsson, 2007). In addition, without the organisational environment enabling such programmes to take place in the organisation, it would be very hard for individuals to execute tasks themselves. Simply because the organisation does not support specific developmental program and individuals may decide it is a waste of time or risk doing something that may well be ignored because it is not required by the organisation and it may also be considered as a threat of trying to break the organisational norm, culture or policies. Therefore, to gain new knowledge education alone may not be sufficient by itself and other factors should be assumed to be involved as depicted in Figure 3. 2.

Training results in skills as an attribute of IC, as shown in figure 3.2. Lewarn (2002) argues that many countries have incorporated competency-based training into their national educational system. Countries such as England, Scotland, Wales, Australia, and New Zealand, have developed and integrated the National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) in their systems. It is believed that the skills gained from NVQ will help individuals to be able to work more competently. For instance, Emad & Roth's (2008)findings suggests that prior training has no effect on IC. The findings outcome is questionable; because the training was not properly conducted, consequently the result is not representative or generalizable from this case. Unlike

Khan & Afzal (2011)who discuss the importance of education and training on IC, the organisation and the whole country in general.

Similarly to education, training cannot stand alone; it needs other factors to have the desired effect; namely PC and environment as depicted in Figure 3.2. Without the proper personality predisposition and commitment to work, individuals will not have the desire to learn and acquire the required skills (Polanyi, 1966; Searle, 1969). Similarly if they are not motivated or their working environment is not motivating them, then the skills they do gain from the training will be minimized (Elliot & Thrash, 2002; Izadikhah et al., 2010; O'Connor & Jackson, 2008). Consequently, it is concluded that training alone is not the only factor effecting IC at work.

Personal Characteristics results in behavioural features as an attribute of IC, as shown in Figure 3.2. Salaman & Taylor (2002) argue the behavioural outcomes of individuals' result from their PC. PC involves intention, belief and commitment that are embedded in the individual's belief system, which result in behaviour that will be reflected in their future job. However, individuals' prior behaviour, regardless of being good or poor, is also affected by the organisational culture. For example, Pekerti (2005) discuss the effect of the organisational environment on the change of behaviour of managers, who are biased or incorrect in their evaluation of their employees. Therefore, it is postulated that PC is not the only factor resulting in individuals' behaviour which may or may not affect their competency.

Environment results in personal culture as an attribute of IC, as shown in Figure 3.2. Suh (2002) argues that individuals are different in their own prior culture based on the degree to which they internalise their culture in terms of attitudes, belief, values and behaviour, hence having an own culture, as opposed to an organisational culture. However, this prior personal culture or prior culture may have a different effect on individuals from the same culture, as individuals absorb their culture differently depending on their personality (Lu, 2006). Therefore, it is concluded that environment is not the only factor affecting IC.

As discussed above research shows either one, two or three of the postulated factors together affecting IC. Muscatello (2003) study is the most inclusive of all the four postulated factors affecting IC, including only on-job experience of the four factors but lacks the prior experiences. However, no research has combined all four factors

in the context of prior experience and on-job experiences. Therefore, the proposed holistic relationships are represented in the IC conceptual Model by depicting interrelated arrows among all the factors. This holism of the four factors will be investigated empirically and the data will be analysed in order determine their holistic effect on IC.

3.4.1.2 Knowledge Management

On top of the competency sphere there is the KM module (Figure 3.2), which was concluded above to have a positive effect on organisation and therefore IC. KM will be investigated to determine whether it itself can be used as a tool to develop IC, since it is individuals who enact organisational success through KM. This argument concerning the possibility of using KM to develop IC will be discussed in Sub-section 3.4.5 on the KCM, where the IC model expounded will be elaborated further in the context of KCM.

3.4.1.3 Human Resource Management

On top of the KM module, there is the HRM module (Figure 3.2), which was concluded above to have an important role to develop IC and to implement KM. However, HRM can only be useful for both IC and KM if the organisational policies and regulations empower and enable it to take part in developing the organisational development and to practice its roles. Researchers such as Carter and Scarbrough (2003) and Robertson & Hammersley (2000) agree that individuals are the primary factor for both HRM and KM.

The important role of HRM has been recognized, however many KM initiatives tend to neglect the role of HRM in implementing and facilitating KM in the organisation (Chen et al., 2011; Oltra, 2005). There are few studies that have explained the impact of the role of HRM practices on implementing and facilitating KM. Most of these researches focused on the partial role of HRM in regards to KM, mainly on the KM process of knowledge sharing (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2005; Camelo-Ordaz et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2011; Foss et al., 2009; Liu & Liu, 2011). Therefore, the literature lacks the clear linkage of HRM practices in context of facilitating and implementing KM within the organisation (Jimenez-Jimenez & Sanz-Valle, 2013; Theriou & Chatzoglou, 2008).

In fact, it is mainly the HRM role to develop and positively influence individuals' knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours in order to stimulate those individuals' to create new knowledge and share it (Currie & Kerrin, 2003; Dodgson, 1993; Edvardsson, 2007; Kamoche & Mueller, 1998; López-Cabrales et al., 2011). Therefore, the role of HRM in KM can be utilized by: first, using HRM practices to motivate individuals into learning and skills gaining and therefore developing IC. Second, using HRM practices to develop the organisational culture in order to encourage knowledge sharing and knowledge transfer among its individuals. This role of HRM, however, can only be highly beneficial if the organisational settings, rules and regulation allow such involvement of HRM to take place; such as the proposed model developed by Nonaka (1994) (See Table 2.2, Section 2.5.1).

Nevertheless, suppose the organisational setting is not as Nonaka (1994) discribes. What if the organisational setting is the down-bottom kind of organisation or the traditional top-down which is the case in many organisation? Is the role or HRM and their practices limited or chaged? Apparently, the flow of knowledge and organisational levels will present a different setting that may effect the HRM role in the organisation. Nevertheless, the more the organisation is knowledge oriented the more positive effect of HRM role will be on implementing and excuting knowledge creation kind of practice. Also, the more the organisatin allows HRM to practice its role the more effect it will have on IC. Therefore, it is essential to know whether the role of HRM in a given organisation is recognized. Does HRM patrticipate in the oragnizational strategies? Do organisations support the HRM participation and enable them to take part in, not only developing individuals, but also participating in KM implementation in the organisation? HRM practices are only effective based on how much organisations allow them to participate with their role. All these questions will be adressed in the analysis and discussion chapter where the role of HRM will be investegated in terms of its role in developing IC and implimenting KM.

3.4.5 Stage Two: Integrating the Knowledge Creation Model with the Individuals' Competency Conceptual Model

Nonaka & Takeuchi (1995) proposed the theory of knowledge creation. Since then many authors have cited them for their research. In fact, many scholars such as Edvardsson (2007); Foote et al. (2001); Lustri et al. (2007); Prahalad & Hamel, (2006); Storey & Barnett (2000) and many others, argue that KM is the essential

factor in driving organisations to success. This implies that such organisational success is driven by individuals' success, which is reflected as the organisational success. Therefore, and for the purpose of this thesis, the knowledge creation model will be investigated for its usability as a tool to develop IC. Figure 3.3 is the knowledge creation model developed by Nonaka & Takeuchi (1995).

Figure 3. 3: The Four Modes of Knowledge Conversion.
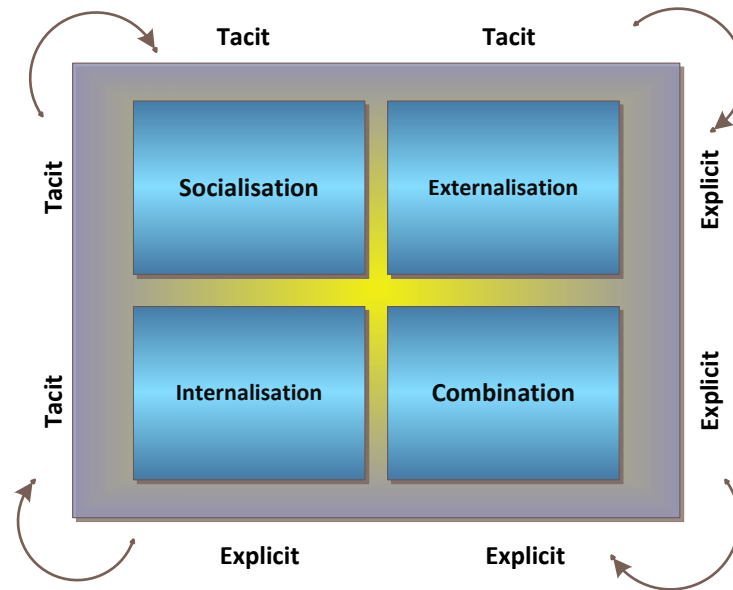
Source: Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995, p.62.

Critically, this model assumes the sociability of individuals and organisation. The act of creating knowledge requires the interaction of individuals and the organisation. Crucially, it assumes that individuals are sociable, whereas individuals own personal culture or prior culture, as discussed above, may preclude them from such sociability. In particular, it assumes that individuals are willing to share their tacit knowledge and explicit knowledge with others. As discussed in the literature review, behavioural studies, show that individuals choose to selectively share their knowledge (Akgün et al., 2005; Coulson-Thomas, 2009), only to serve individuals' agenda (Akgün et al., 2005; Gleick, 1997; Searle, 1969; van der Vegt et al., 2009). This assumption may not hold because, as discussed earlier in the IC conceptual model, individuals' PC may preclude them from sharing knowledge. Therefore, the

socialness of individuals is a core assumption of the knowledge creation model which will be empirically investigated.

In addition, the successfulness of KM implementation, KM should not only be introduced in some parts of the organisation, rather it needs to be integrated in the whole organisation (Petersen & Poulfelt, 2002). But what will happen if individuals do not want to share their knowledge? Individuals may intentionally choose to conceal knowledge, but why would they do that? On the other hand, individuals may fear to share their knowledge because of losing their job or losing a promotion opportunity; what can the organisation do in that case? A critical challenging problem faced by the organisation is how to extract tacit knowledge and convert it to explicit knowledge. The KCM assumes that individuals are willing to share their knowledge with others. Therefore, KCM is not clear on its practical consideration of individuals.

The following are the four modes of knowledge creation model developed by Nonaka & Takeuchis' (1995). Each mode will be questioned for it application and usability in terms of postulated IC model.

3.4.5.1 Socialization

Socialisation is transferring t*acit knowledge to tacit knowledge.* In this mode, individuals exchange and interact with each other through socialization. The tacit knowledge that individuals are sharing with other individuals is the most difficult knowledge to be shared by an individual, as it involves one's own knowledge to be shared with others and individuals have to be willing to share it. In this mode, it is essential to know whether individuals are actually willing to share their knowledge or not. If not, then does the organisation encourage its individuals to share their knowledge? For example, by providing individuals with rewards or other motivational incentives. Assuming that individuals do share their knowledge, does their organisation recognize them and encourage them? Does the organisation encourage socialization within its organisation? Does this mode have an effect on IC and its factors?

3.4.5.2 Combination

Combination is transferring *explicit knowledge to explicit knowledge.* This mode involves individuals using some kind of mechanism to exchange and combine their explicit knowledge, such as meetings, telephone calls and e-mails. The transfer of explicit knowledge to explicit knowledge is considered to be the easiest knowledge for individuals to share and or execute. Unlike the socialization mode, combination mode requires the transformation of an already existing explicit knowledge. The knowledge shared in this mode does not pose threats to individuals. For example, sharing with others the up-coming department meeting, time and location (through telephone or e-mails etc.). Or looking for certain information in the organisational data and sharing it with others. In this mode it is unlikely for individuals not to share their knowledge. In fact, it may be considered as not doing their job properly if they did not share that knowledge. The question here is: What does this mode require in developing IC or effecting IC?

3.4.5.3 Externalization

Externalisation is transferring tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge. This mode is about metaphor and models. In other words, sometimes individuals may find it difficult to express their tacit knowledge, as that knowledge may not be clear to the individuals themselves and they use metaphor and models to help them to transfer that knowledge to explicit knowledge. As discussed in the literature of Nonaka's (1991) Japanese Honda. In the Honda example, the top management issued the initial metaphor for building a car that is totally different from any previous one and the car should not be expensive or cheap. The question here is: Is metaphor considered as new knowledge? In Honda example, individuals, or the project team leader and his team, used the metaphor and developed a new car based on the top management desire and metaphor provided. This mode is similar to the other modes that it is concerning the on-job experiences but omitting the prior experiences.

It is important to bring the attention that in this mode the knowledge transfer is unclear as to whether the knowledge transfer is between one or two parties. Unlike the other two modes, it was clear that the knowledge transfer occurred between at least two parties. Despite top management issuing the initial metaphor – the one party involved is the product development project team itself who transform tacit

understanding to explicit understanding. Since metaphor is not new knowledge, the process of transferring tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge has been done by one party rather than two or more parties. Metaphor is used to set the team a challenge, to get information across to the team. However, how can metaphor be used as a tool to create new knowledge? It seems that metaphor is a vague indicator. However the team members, based on this metaphor developed the new knowledge (new car). Therefore, metaphor may have been set as a challenge to create new knowledge in the Honda case. Does metaphor act as motivator to develop IC at work?

3.4.5.4 Internalization

Internalization is transferring *explicit knowledge to tacit knowledge.* This mode is about learning by doing. It is the clearest and the easiest mode to execute for its simplicity. In this mode, the existing explicit knowledge will be given to individuals to learn and for individuals to understand it and transfer it into tacit knowledge. Using the Honda example again, once the new product is developed, proved and agreed upon by the management, then this new knowledge of how to make the new product, will be taught to other employees in order for all individuals to follow the new successful production and design.

In the Honda example, it is logical to teach others how to manufacture this new developed product. However what if it was a different setting? For example, if the new gained knowledge is cognitive; will individuals be willing to share their knowledge with others? If the individuals are out-sourced however, for example a trainer, then such knowledge concealing in very highly not occurring as this individuals is paid for their training services. However, what is important is the knowledge sharing among individuals from the same organisation, in order for them to collaborate in developing their organisation. Therefore, does the organisation consider sharing knowledge as part of IC? Do they require their individuals to share their knowledge with others? Critically, KM deals with new knowledge as an opportunity to develop the organisational edge for success. Given the postulated IC as new knowledge, how would the KCM use this new knowledge to benefit its organisation? This question will be analysed and discussed in the subsequent chapters.

3.5 The Operationalization of the Conceptual Model

The hypotheses are operationalization on the conceptual model. Considering the conflicting findings and arguments of the conflicting literature review of the effect of the each of the factors individually and/or collectively, the developed IC conceptual model is developed based on the assumption that the four factors do have an effect on IC. This assumption is depicted in Figure 3.4 in hypothesis H1a through H5. The four factors hypothesis (H1a-H4b) are presented by two hypothesized circle for each factor; one for prior experiences and the other for on the job experience, with the corresponding colour that represent its hypothesised of a positive effect on IC. H5, on the other hand, represent the hypothesis of the four factors collectively to have a positive effect on IC.

In addition, the implementation of KM and the role of HRM are also assumed to have a positive effect on the IC; as predicted in Figure 3.4; hypothesis H6 to H7b. H6, is the hypothesis that KM has a positive effect on IC, H7a is the hypothesis that HRM has a positive effect on KM and H7b is the hypothesis that HRM has a positive effect on IC.

As a holism approach, together; IC, KM and HR are hypothesised in H8; that is HRM and KM has a positive effect on IC. This conceptual model is operationalized and measured in the analysis and the discussion chapter in order to investigate its effectiveness on the IC. As depicted in the following Figure.
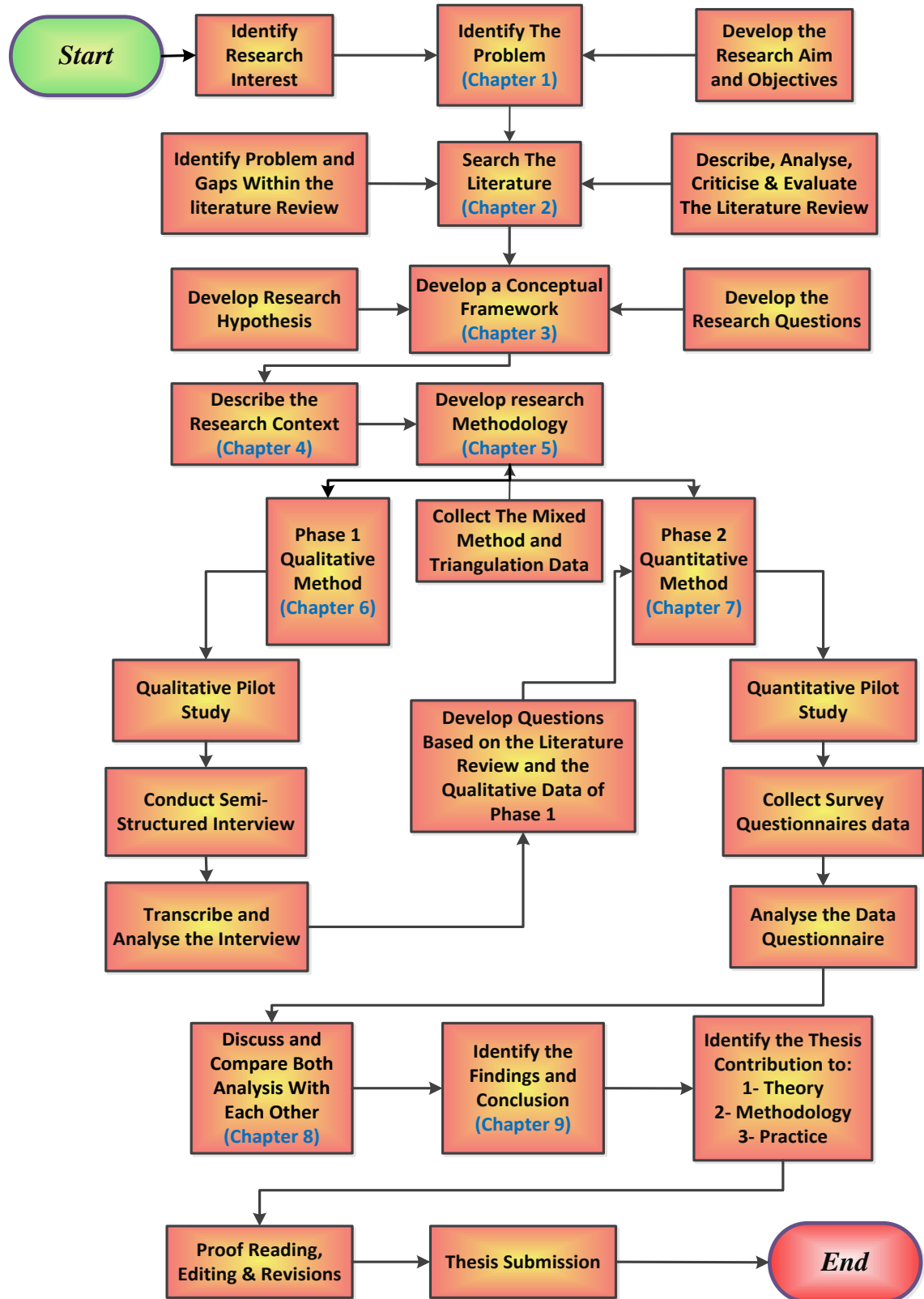
Figure 3. 4: Operationalization of the Conceptual Model Hypotheses.
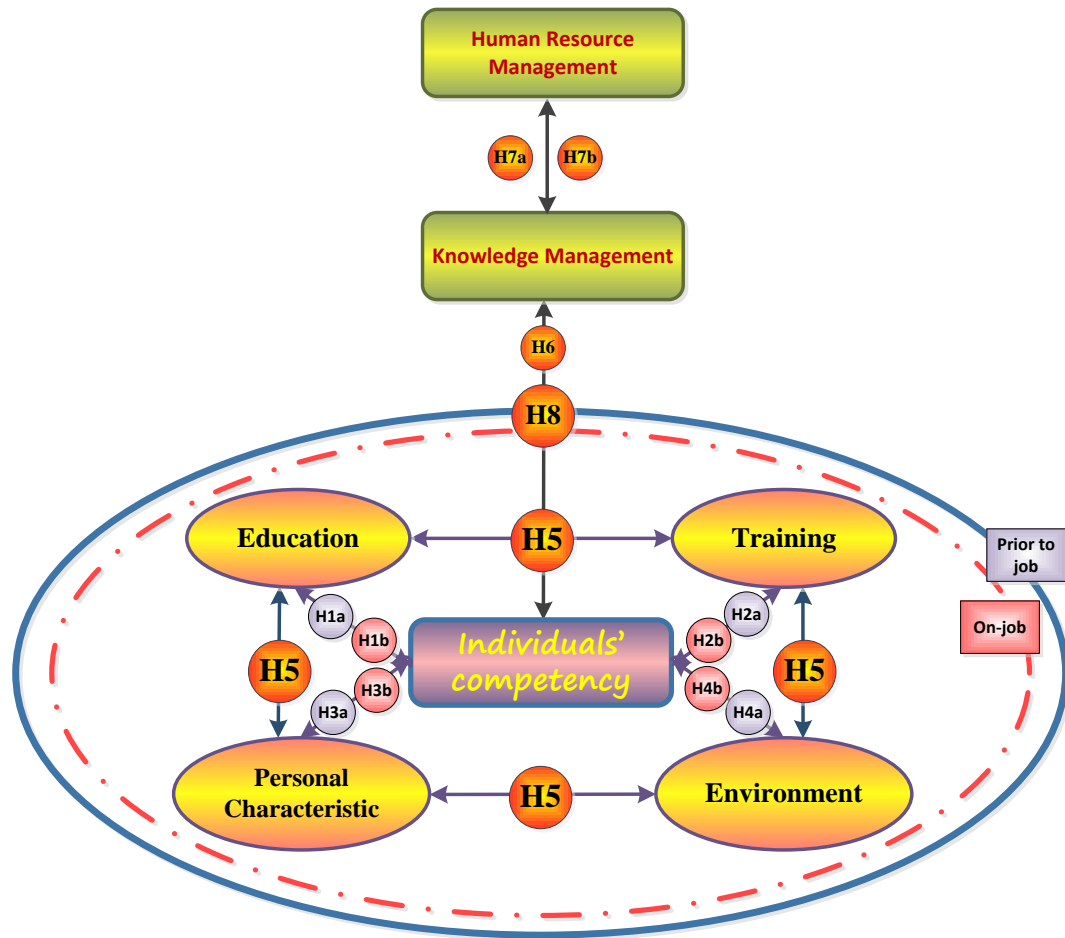
3.6 Work Programme

The work programme will involve the steps depicted in Figure 3.5.

Figure 3. 5: Thesis Work Programme.

3.7 Summery

The importance of the logical order of the theoretical framework can be interpreted in terms of an organisation wanting to develop its IC, in which the HR department has an important role, as well as the individual departments. To develop competency requires appropriate knowledge. As the literature reviews demonstrates, KM is important for the success of the organisation. Therefore, IC is developed through relevant strategic HRM policies and KM tools.

Therefore, is thesis' conceptual framework was derived by critical analysis the extant literature on competency, KM and HRM, which revealed the theoretical gaps in knowledge of successful KM implementation requiring IC and contributing role of HRM in developing requisite IC. Our understanding of IC is developed in the two phases of the framework. Phase one is the theoretical grounding; where IC and the four factors were discussed and questioned (Stage One) and the usability of KM and HRM (Stage two). Phase two where the IC conceptual model is develop based on the theoretical understanding in phase one (Stage One) and the usability of KM and HRM role and usability in the context of IC.

The IC conceptual model will be investigated empirically for the four factors that constitute its holism; namely education, training, PC, and environment (prior and on-job). KCM Then the IC conceptual model will be associated with the KCM in order to investigate its usability through IC and its effect on IC development.

Chapter 4

Research Context: Kuwait

4.1 Introduction

This Chapter is an analysis of secondary data relevant to the postulated IC model. It describes the practical and practice-based context of the study. It illustrates and justifies the hypotheses of the model in terms of the macro economic variables such as employment patterns and organisational variable such as education and culture of Kuwait and its impact on IC.

The first Section is the background description of the state of Kuwait, in order to understand the nature of the study place, and covers Kuwaiti geography, language, religion, population and economy.

The second Section relates the research context through secondary data analysis to the aim of this thesis. Since the aim of this thesis is to investigate IC factors education, training, PC and environment, in terms of prior and on-job experiences, a closer analysis of the context of the research is necessary to serve the purpose of this study. Thus education in Kuwait is analysed and explored. Environment or the culture in Kuwait, prior and on-job, is also described in terms of extant literature and other sources in order to understand the working environment that the individuals encounter. Evidence-based analysis into Kuwaiti organisation where individuals work is presented. Finally, employment and issues faced by employees in private and Kuwaiti government organisations is discussed.

4.2 Background on the State of Kuwait

This Section provides a description of the state of Kuwait The description includes Kuwait geography, government, language, religion, population and economy.

4.2.1 Geography

Kuwait is the in Middle East, located in the northwest part of the Arabian Gulf, between south east of Iraq and north and north-east of Saudi Arabia; between the

latitudes 28.30 and 30.06 north, and longitudes of 46.30 and 49.00 east. The total area is17.818 square kilo meters. Its special location provides Kuwait with a natural outlet for the northern part of the Arabian Gulf and therefore of commercial importance (Kuwait Government Online, 2013). Kuwait main natural resources are petroleum, natural gas, fish and shrimp (Central Intelligence Agency, 2013). The capital of Kuwait is Kuwait City and it is divided into six provinces: the capital, Hawalli, Farwaniya, Mubarak Al-Kabeer, Al-Ahmadi and Al-Jahra. Each province is subdivided into areas.

Figure 4. 1: Map of the State of Kuwait.

Source: (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2013)

4.2.2 Government of Kuwait

After the death of the later Amir (Prince) Jaber Al-Ahmad Al-Sabah on the 29th of January 2006, Kuwait is ruled by His Highness the Amir Sabah Al-Ahmad al-Jabir al-Sabah and Crown Prince NAWAF al-Ahmad al-Jabir al-Sabah. Sheik Sabah Al-Ahmad al-Jabir al-Sabah is the 15th Emir of Kuwait. It is the Emir who appoints the government, some of whom are from the ruling royal family.

Kuwait is a constitutional monarchy established in 1962, after gaining its independency from British rule. Kuwait has a National Assembly called *Majlis Al*

Umma with 50 parliament members. Elections are held every four years; members of police and armed forces are not eligible to vote in order for these bodies not to be influenced and remain independent (Sheena Smith et al., 2006).

4.2.3 Language

Arabic is the official language of Kuwait. The Arabic language is spoken by all Kuwaitis and it is also the language of the Holy Qur'an, the holy book of Islam.

English is the second language and it is widely used. It is a compulsory language used in early stages of schooling and it is also used in business. There are other languages much less spoken based on the other nationalities living in Kuwait (Kuwait - Language, Culture, Customs and Etiquette | global-etiquette | resources, 2013).

4.2.4 Religion

Islam is the official religion of Kuwait. 95% of the Kuwaiti populations are Muslims and the other 5% are other religions such as Christians, Hindus and others. Islam is practised by the majority of Kuwaitis and it governs their political, personal, economical, and legal life. The majority of Kuwaitis are Sunni and there is Shi'a as well (Smith et al., 2006; Kuwait - Language, Culture, Customs and Etiquette | global-etiquette | resources, 2013).

4.2.5 Population

Kuwait population, based on the latest estimated statistics from the Central Statistical office April 2011 is 3,065,850. The majority of the population is Non-Kuwaiti, about two third of the population 1,975,881, and Kuwaitis are 1,089,969 or 35.6 percent (Kuwait Government Online, 2013).

The first official census carried out was in 1957. Kuwaiti population was 206,473 with 113,622 Kuwaitis and 92,851 Non-Kuwaitis or 55% percent national.

Table 4. 1: Population by Nationality in Selected Census Years.

Year	Kuwaiti	Non-Kuwaiti	Total	% of Kuwaitis
1965	168,793	298,546	**467,339**	36.1
1975	307,755	687,082	**994,837**	30.9
1985	470,473	1,226,828	**1,697,301**	27.7
1995	653,616	921,954	**1,575,570**	41.5
2005	860,324	1,333,327	**2,193,651**	39.2
2011	1,089,969	1,975,881	**3,065,850**	35.6

Source: (Kuwait Central Statistical Bureau, 2013)

In 1990, the population reached 2,141,465 persons. The Kuwaiti national population was 599,610 whereas the Non-Kuwaitis was 1,541,855; a percentage of only 28% Kuwaitis to 72% Non-Kuwaiti. In the same year, Kuwait was invaded by Iraq. As a result, large number of the non-Kuwaitis emigrated. Kuwait population changed accordingly.

The population in 1995 reached 1.577.598 persons with a similar percentage to the one in late 50s early 60s; the Kuwaiti percentage was 41.5% Kuwaiti national to 58.5% Non-Kuwaiti. Since then the number of immigrating foreigners increased year upon year. The number of Kuwaitis to Non-Kuwaiti declined every year (Kuwait Central Statistical Bureau, 2013).

4.2.6 Economy

Even though Kuwait is a small country, it is considered wealthy because of the discovery of crude oil. Oil is the most important resource in Kuwait; with a 95% of export revenues, 95% of government income and nearly half of gross domestic product (GDP) (Central Intelligence Agency, 2013).

Prior to the discovery of oil, Kuwait's main resources were fishing, agriculture and trade. In 1934 oil was discovered and Kuwait Oil Company (KOC) was established by Anglo-Persian. KOC operations includes drilling of test wells and the development of producing wells, exploration operations, onshore and offshore surveys, in addition to crude and natural gas exploration (Kuwait Oil Company, 2013).

In 1990, when the Iraq invaded Kuwait, Kuwait was able to earn through its foreign investments. However, the invasion left Kuwait with heavy economic burden due to the expenses of Kuwaiti-Iraqi war and reconstruction of the country and in mid 1990s Kuwait was able to reach pre-invasion prosperity.

Nevertheless, Kuwaiti economy is considered to be small base on its small budget, small population and area. Therefore, Kuwait suffered from major economic challenges that hindered its development (Arab Planning Institute, 2002).

4.3 Kuwait and Individuals' Competency

This Section invokes statistical data that better describes individuals' work in Kuwait in terms of the IC four factors. In particular, it explains the educational and training system in Kuwait, Kuwaiti culture, Kuwaiti organisation and employment. However, PC factor is omitted because of lack of secondary data. In addition, this Section provides the development and use of KM in Kuwaiti organisation. The coverage of these issues with secondary data is necessary because such data validates the postulated IC model and potentially may have an effect on this research's findings.

The patterns revealed by the secondary data in this Section on education, employment, culture and practices of Kuwaiti organisations, has direct relevance to the postulated IC model and hypothesised relations.

4.3.1 Education

According to the International Bureau of Education Every-UNESCO (2010/2011) citizen in Kuwait has the right to education by law. The overall goal of education in Kuwait is to prepare individuals to be an active person in the society, whether they choose private or public life. In addition to education, Kuwaiti institutions are keen to train individuals to gain important skills required for work. Education is therefore viewed as the building tool to have high performing individuals in all aspects of life and economy (International Bureau of Education, 2011).

The majority of the schools try to employ staff with teaching qualification. However, number of schools are experiencing high staff turnover in the private schools. Therefore, many schools turned to non-teaching staff to cover their class (Sheena Smith et al., 2006).

Since education is hypothesised to have an effect on IC, the following is a scenario critique of Kuwait education practice based on the above analysis. It is essential at this point to bring attention that schools are employing unqualified or uncertified individuals in order to cover their teacher shortage. Unqualified staff affect the quality of teaching and therefore the young children who may not receive the proper education. Like any working individuals, teachers need to be qualified in order to be able to deliver in the class room. Not all teachers are capable of performing to the standard, similar to other professionals. The problem extends beyond the teacher; students are the one who will be disadvantaged. They will not be able to receive schools' promise of 'the maximum knowledge', rather they may get confused or they may not get the knowledge because of the unqualified teacher. All of that will have a long negative side effect because education is a cumulative process. These young students are the future workers; since this thesis assumes that prior education has an effect on individuals' future work and on their IC, these individuals are assumed to be a collective of many factors that develop a person, as their unique personality and individuals. Therefore, receiving education from unqualified teachers, who do not know the methods of teaching and how to deliver information, will result in incompetent delivery, not intentionally but because they are not capable of teaching. If unqualified teachers keep teaching in this manner, then more students would be disadvantaged because they would leave education with poor facility to become competent employees. Such effect may not be reversible and it may affect them throughout their educational processes and hence affecting college or university specialization they decide to choose.

This example is one reason for incompetent individuals; the organisational policies should not allow unqualified staff to be employed in a place that they are not ready for or are not trained for. This example presents the possible effect of prior education on IC at work.

4.3.1.1 Kuwait Educational Statistics

Table 4.2 shows latest statistics of the educational levels in Kuwait, including government, vocational and private education.

Table 4. 2: Schools and Institutes by Educational Level (2011/2012).

Item Government Education	Schools	Classrooms	Students	Teachers	Students per Teacher
Kindergarten	201	1,824	44,743	5,755	8
Primary	253	5,690	135,878	21,520	6
Intermediate	204	4,480	107,616	17,404	6
Secondary	136	2,992	69,036	12,363	6
Total	**794**	**14,986**	**357,273**	**57,042**	6
Vocational Education					
Religious Institutes	9	121	2,708	699	4
Special Training	29	241	1,694	1,285	1
Total	**38**	**362**	**4,402**	**1,984**	2
Private Education*					
Kindergarten	105	1,225	37,433	1,888	20
Primary	132	3,026	94,260	5,204	18
Intermediate	133	1,912	57,743	3,065	19
Secondary	105	1,219	34,832	2,872	12
Total	**475**	**7,382**	**224,268**	**13,029**	17

Source: (Kuwait Central Statistical Bureau, 2013, 36th ed.)

From the above table it is apparent that most schools, student and teachers are from the government schools sector. Comparing the percentage of the number of students per teacher, there is a big difference in all school types. In vocational education it is logical to have the lowest student per teacher, as students receives training and they need one-to-one training to master new skills. In government schools, apart from Kindergarten level (8 students per one teacher), all other educational levels consists of 6 students per one teacher. Unlike in the private sector, where it exceeds double that amount, on average there are more than 17 students per one teacher. This ratio of students to teachers may put more pressure and more responsibility on teachers as they deliver their materials. Therefore, one of the reasons for high turnover in private schools could be the high working demands and their on-job environment that requires high workload on these teachers. On the other hand, these teachers competency, especially in the private schools, is not measured. Many of the private school teachers are not qualified resulting in skewed competency outcomes. In addition, assuming a good working environment to keep these teachers in their job, it is both the lack of qualification and working environment that may have contributed to teachers leaving their jobs. Culture is another factor hypothesised to affect IC discussed in the following Section.

4.3.2 Culture

As an Arabic country, similar to many Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries, including Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates, Islam is deeply ingrained in the Kuwaiti culture and tradition (Smith et al., 2006). Because of Islam and the Arabic language, Kuwait shares many cultural values not only with GCC but with other Arabian countries. In particular, Kuwait has close cultural characteristics with the GCC countries because of their tribal origins as well as their collectivist behaviour (Al-Twaijri & Al-Muhaiza, 1996). According to Wilkins (2001) the Arab world has their-own unique culture that is vital for every organisation and therefore should not be ignored in any analysis. However, these cultural values are not exactly the same and do have differences from one country to another. For example, unlike the other GCC countries and many Arabian countries, women in Kuwait can vote, stand for public office, be a parliament member, hold ministerial position as well as join the police force.

Nevertheless, Kuwait has similarities with the GCC countries in tribal issues. For the purpose of this thesis it is essential to clarify Kuwaiti culture because it influences Kuwaiti behaviours particularly at work and daily life. For example, the Bedouin (tribal) traditions have more strict rules in terms of gender and religion. They have more value towards collectivism; unlike the modern Kuwaiti who are more individualistic. In addition, non-Kuwaitis who outnumber indigenous Kuwaitis in population and in employment, have their own different national culture that they bring with them. According to the Embassy of The State of Kuwait (2013) website, Kuwaiti oil changed not only the country's physical infrastructure and population structure, but also its human resources, leaving Kuwaiti nationals as minority in their own country.

The postulated IC model assumes that prior environment or culture has an effect on IC and that the on-job environment or culture has an effect on IC. The dominance of non-Kuwaitis, especially in employment, has resulted in various cultures in the work force. The different cultures within any organisation should be recognized and understood in order to avoid any misunderstanding among individuals doing collaborative work such as knowledge work. This is because varying cultures would have to be overcome in order to facilitate knowledge sharing. This is evidence for including cultural diversity in terms of prior and on-job in the postulated IC model,

which will be empirically investigated to determine how it affects individuals at their work and specifically IC.

4.3.2.3 Kuwait Cultural Effect

Kuwait nationals have two different cultures; Badouin (Tribal) and Hadar (Urban). In the Bedouin culture for example, family members hold are near and dear to an individual to the point that defines own identity. Unlike the Hadar society, individuals are more independent and receptive to opinions. Therefore, nepotism is more widely used among Bedouin than Hadar.

In terms of Hofstede et al.(2010), Bedouin culture has more power distance among its members than Hadar. Bedouin culture, respect and give power distance to any older member resulting in power distance over younger person, where younger person is more obliged to his family and tribe members, and is expected to care for their needs. However, what is more apparent is the collectivism among the Bedouin culture versus Individualism among Hadar culture. In the Bedouin culture the group members are more loyal to each other. To them, the group is more important than the individuals; unlike individual identity in the Hadar culture. Therefore, the practice of nepotism is higher among Bedouin group than the Hadar. To them, nepotism is a way of taking care of each other and helping each other because they are from the same family or tribe. They use nepotism to hire or promote a family member at work. However, McClelland (1973) argued that nepotism is an unhealthy practice in the organisation, because individuals will be selected based on their connections rather than on their qualifications. In addition, this kind of practice will make other individuals feel unfairly treated, as they are more worthy and qualified for a position than a member of a certain tribe. In fact, according to Abuznaid (2009) examined business ethics from the Islamic perspective and discussed factors that affect Muslims' ethical behaviour, whether regular employee or manager. The two factors, family and peers' influence result nepotism, which in Islam is considered as unethical and unacceptable.

Nepotism will leave others feeling inequality and exclusion. If nepotism is not addressed it will strengthen sectarianism in the society(Al-Kandari & Al-Hadben, 2010). In other words, one will feel unjustly treated that they will themselves use nepotism to have what they qualification deserves.

It is essential to understand the culture of the context of this study. Culture is postulated as a factor that affects IC, so it important to describe and clarify the Kuwaiti culture. However, other factors such as education, training, PC are postulated. Since the literature lacks PC of Kuwaitis, education, training, and organisation will be described and discussed in the proceeding Sections. The following is about Kuwaiti organisation or the working environment.

4.3.3 Kuwaiti Organisations

Al-Kazemi & Zajac (1999) argue that few organisations in Kuwait have well-developed working ethical codes. They used individuals' beliefs of what is right and wrong as a proxy to investigate the codes of ethical behaviour within the organisation. According to Ayubi (1990), public organisations dominate Kuwaiti economy and society. Kuwaiti public organisations employ the majority of the workforce and therefore occupies many social and economic roles commonly serving the private organisations (Abdel-Halim & Al-Tuhaih, 1989). Even though the private sector is increasingly being accepted in Kuwaiti public administration, the public sector dominates and drives Kuwaiti social and economic force.

Besides the ethical issues, most Kuwaiti organisations lack the analytical tools to know and understand the problem that they are facing in terms of individuals as well as organisation, and associated operations with managing complexity. Organisations are trying to reduce complexity through the restructuring and implementing organisational changes. In fact, Kuwaiti organisations face many different challenges, inside and outside of the organisation. Inside the organisation, executives are faced with managing and responding to more work diversity, more variation of the goals and aims their organisations are driving for. On the other hand, outside the organisation, the organisation is faced with higher variation, such as different cultural ethics or values, heterogeneous customer demands; different stakeholders' demands, changes in politics; economy; regulations; and competitors' new strategies. This complexity is ever increasing. Therefore, Kuwaiti organisations should be more focused on their executives and managements' core competency. Organisation may not be able to ever master complexity, however they need not only to find their way through these complexities but be able to make the most of them for their own advantage (Alfadly, 2011).

Researchers, Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti, such as Al-Athari & Zairi (2001), Rehman (2005) and Chaudhry (2013) show an interest in KM and its implications in Kuwaiti organisation. Al-Athari & Zairi (2001) conducted a survey of 5 UK KM organisation and 77 Kuwaiti organisations (40 governmental and 37 private) to investigate the availability of KM, examine the organisational KM, the feasibility of improving KM through training and HRM investment. Their study reveals that most of the respondents in both governmental and private organisations felt that KM is important for their organisation and the most important knowledge creation was developed by individuals who used their own and the organisational knowledge. Other knowledge was also extracted from supplier knowledge, customer knowledge, research journals and conferences. One the other hand, many individuals from governmental and private sectors see their knowledge as their own privilege and power, and sometimes they treat it as something private to them. Therefore they tend not to share their knowledge with others in order to protect their-own power or position.

Al-Athari & Zairi (2001) study respondents reveal that the most important desire of individuals in implementing KM is first to learn, build an environment that encourages team work, to have their organisation benchmarked with others, and finally to change the individuals' behaviour. Second is to investigate how to share knowledge between departments, especially if they share the same goals or needs. It is therefore essential that individuals understand the importance of KM and participates, as it will not only benefit the individual alone but also the department and the whole organisation. At the same time, managers should know how to facilitate KM among their employees. Doing so will encourage knowledge sharing and transfer among individuals, and prevent confusion when one employee resigns.

4.3.4 Employment

As stated in the population Section 4.2.5, Kuwait latest estimated populated is 3,065,850. The majority are Non-Kuwaiti, reaching 1,975,881, whereas Kuwaiti 1,089,969 (35.6%) (Kuwait Government Online, 2013).

Due to the invasion of Kuwait in 1990, the majority of Non-Kuwaiti workers emigrated. However, soon after the liberation (February 26th 1991), many expatriates moved into Kuwait; after 1991 the number of Non-Kuwaiti population percentage increased every year as detailed in Table 4.1. Accordingly, the number of Non-

Kuwaiti workers in Kuwaiti also increased in government and private sectors, as detailed in Table 4.3.

Table 4. 3: Employees in the Government Sector (2011).

Nationality	Gender	Total Workers	Percentage of total workers	Total Nationality	Percentage of Nationalities
Kuwaiti	Male	104,855	33.45		
	Female	124,306	39.65	229,161	73.10
Non-Kuwaiti	Male	50,705	16.17		
	Female	33,623	10.73	84,328	26.90
Total	Male	155,560	49.62		
	Female	157,929	50.38		100.00
Total Workers in Government		**313,489**			

Source: (Kuwait Central Statistical Bureau, 2013)

Table 4. 4: Employees in the Private Sector (2011).

Nationality	Gender	Total Workers	Percentage of total workers	Total Nationality	Percentage of Nationalities
Kuwaiti	Male	29,101	2.50		
	Female	32,334	2.78	61,435	5.27
Non-Kuwaiti	Male	1,015,799	87.21		
	Female	87,567	7.52	1,103,366	94.73
Total	Male	1,044,900	89.71		
	Female	119,901	10.29		100.00
Total worker in Private		**1,164,801**			

Source: (Kuwait Central Statistical Bureau, 2013)

There are more recent statistics for 2012 employment (see Appendix A). However, 2011 statistics have more comprehensive data that can be used to explain the employment situation in Kuwait. Besides, there is a minor difference between 2012 statistics and 2011.

The number and percentage of workers' nationality varies according to private and governmental organisations. Most of the Kuwaiti Nationals work in government organisations. There are more females than males work in the government sector, but

there are more Non-Kuwaiti males than females. In general, the government sector has 313,489 of total workers, of which the majority are Kuwaiti 229,161 (73.10%) of total government workers; whereas Non-Kuwaitis are 84,328 (26.90%) of total government sector (Table 4.3).

The private sector shows reverse percentages. Similar to the government sector, there are slightly more Kuwaiti females in the private sector than Kuwaiti male. Also, there are more Non-Kuwaiti male than Non-Kuwaiti female. The reason for more Kuwaiti females in both sectors than Kuwaiti males is that, there are more Kuwaiti female in the population than male (540,960 Kuwaiti male to 549,009 female). Therefore, in both private and public sectors Kuwaiti female outnumber male. On the contrary, there are more Non-Kuwaiti male than female for the opposite reason (1,197,412 Non-Kuwaiti male to 778,469 female). What is critical in Table 4.4 however, is the number of Kuwaiti to Non-Kuwaiti workers. Out of the total workers in the private sector (1,164,801), only 5.27% (61,435) of the total private sectors workers are Kuwaiti national and the rest 94.73% (1,103,366) are Non-Kuwaiti workers (Kuwait Central Statistical Bureau, 2013). Government and private sectors combined Non-Kuwaiti workers are greatly more than the Kuwaiti nationals.

Table 4.5 presents the total number of workers in government and private sectors. The total workforce in Kuwait is 1,478,290; of which 290,596 Kuwaiti nationals and 1,187,694 is Non-Kuwaiti. So Kuwaitis are as low as 19.66% of the total working force and the Non-Kuwaiti are 80.34% of the working force. In another words, for every five working individuals there are four Non-Kuwaiti workers and one Kuwaiti worker.

Table 4. 5: Number of Total Workers in both Sectors; Governmental and Private (2011).

Nationality	Gender	Total workers gender	Total workers	Percentage of total workers
Kuwaiti	Male	133,956		
	Female	156,640	290,596	19.66
Non-Kuwaiti	Male	1,066,504		
	Female	121,190	1,187,694	80.34
Total	Male	1,200,460		
	Female	277,830		100.00
Total worker in both sectors		**1,478,290**		

Source: (Kuwait Central Statistical Bureau, 2013)

One may argue however that the Non-Kuwaiti population (1,975,881) is about double the population of the Kuwaiti (1,089,969), therefore this figure could be reasonable; however, this is not the case. To understand employment even more and to analyse employment in Kuwait, it is essential to look at other end; to those who are looking for jobs shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4. 6: Individuals who are Seeking Jobs in Kuwait 2011.

Nationality	Gender	Applying for First Job	Applying for second or more job	Total work seeking	Percentage of total work seeking	Total Nationality	Percentage of total Nationalities
Kuwaiti	Male	10,425	1,474	11,899	18.38		
	Female	11,784	935	12,719	19.64	24,618	38.02
Non-Kuwaiti	Male	21,391	1,691	23,082	35.65		
	Female	15,863	1,185	17,048	26.33	40,130	61.98
Total	Male			34,981	54.03		
	Female			29,767	45.97		100.00
Total Workers Seeking Jobs				**64,748**			

Source: (Kuwait Central Statistical Bureau, 2013)

Table 4.6 shows important information regarding employment in Kuwait for both sectors. There are 64,748 persons seeking work; of which 24,618 are Kuwaiti

nationals (38.02% of total work seekers) and 40,130 are Non-Kuwaiti seeking work (61.98% of total work seekers). However, in terms of population percentage, the total of job seekers in each group (Kuwaiti and Non-Kuwaiti), there is a bigger percentage among Kuwaiti nationals seeking jobs compared to Non-Kuwaiti national, shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4. 7: Population Seeking Jobs 2011.

Nationality	Population	Seeking jobs	Percentage of total population
Kuwaiti	1,089,969	24,618	2.26
Non-Kuwaiti	1,975,881	40,130	2.03
Total	**3,065,850**	**64,748**	

Source: (Kuwait Central Statistical Bureau, 2013)

Table 4.7 presents the number and percentage of individuals seeking jobs according to their nationality. Out of the Kuwait total population (3,065,850), 64,748 are looking for jobs. Out of the Kuwaiti National (1,089,969), there are 24,618 individuals seeking jobs (2.26%). Out of the total Non-Kuwaiti National (1,975,881), there are 40,130 individuals seeking jobs(2.03%) (Kuwait Central Statistical Bureau, 2013). In other words, there is a small but better chance for Non-Kuwaiti to get a job before a Kuwaiti national. This statistic many have an effect on both Kuwaiti and Non-Kuwaiti; positively and/or negatively, discussed in later chapters. In fact, on Kuwaiti embassy website it is stated:

> *"The post-oil boom era of about four decades transformed Kuwait not only in its physical infrastructure, the population structure also changed completely with the huge influx of manpower for the development. Today's population of Kuwait comprises of over 100 nationalities reducing Kuwaiti citizens to a minority in their own country" (Embassy of The State of Kuwait, 2013).*

Kuwait is realizing the effect of this issue of their Kuwaiti national. Therefore, as early as 1997, the Kuwaiti government agreed on a plan with several sections; one of the sections is to replace Non-National workers in the government sector with Kuwaiti nationals. The goal was to gradually replace all Non-Kuwaiti with Kuwaitis from the period of 1997 to 2008. In 1997, the total Non-Kuwaiti workers were 32% of the Kuwaiti workers. In 2008 however, this figure decreased to only 30% Non-

Kuwaiti to Kuwaiti workers. The reason for this percentage is that superiors kept Non-Kuwaiti and even employed more by justifying (a) that they hold rare specialization and (b) that they are needed at their current job and releasing them may effect on the job flow (Al-shemery et al., 2013). The question here however is whether this is evidenced with facts. In contrast, Kuwaitis are varied in their educational specializations and they are well educated compared to the working Non-Kuwaiti. Table 4.8 provide the evidence of Kuwaitis educational level in comparison to the Non-Kuwaitis.

Table 4. 8: Educational Level the Working Force in Kuwait 2011.

Nationality	Gender	Illiterate	Read and Write	Primary School	Intermediate School	Secondary School	Collage level	Graduate and post graduate	Total
Kuwaiti	Male	6,694	24,965.00	64,393	100,186.00	86,280	48,779	67,042	398,339
	Female	21,253	32,078.00	62,535	84,860	82,166	52,611	76,512	412,015
	Total	**27,947**	**57,043**	**126,928**	**185,046**	**168,446**	**101,390**	**143,554**	**810,354**
	Percentage	**3**	**7**	**16**	**23**	**21**	**13**	**18**	
Non-Kuwaiti	Male	101,772	240,455.00	210,899	167,377.00	157,164	48,819	158,581	1,085,067
	Female	88,680	181,251.00	154,367	55,202	71,196	28,706	97,999	677,401
	Total	**190,452**	**421,706**	**365,266**	**222,579**	**228,360**	**77,525**	**256,580**	**1,762,468**
	Percentage	**11**	**24**	**21**	**13**	**13**	**4**	**15**	
Total	Male	108,466	265,420	275,292	267,563	243,444	97,598	225,623	1,483,406
	Female	109,933	213,329	216,902	140,062	153,362	81,317	174,511	1,089,416
Total Workers' Education		**218,399**	**478,749**	**492,194**	**407,625**	**396,806**	**178,915**	**400,134**	**2,572,822**

Source: (Kuwait Central Statistical Bureau, 2013)

Figure 4. 2: Educational Percentage of the Working Force.
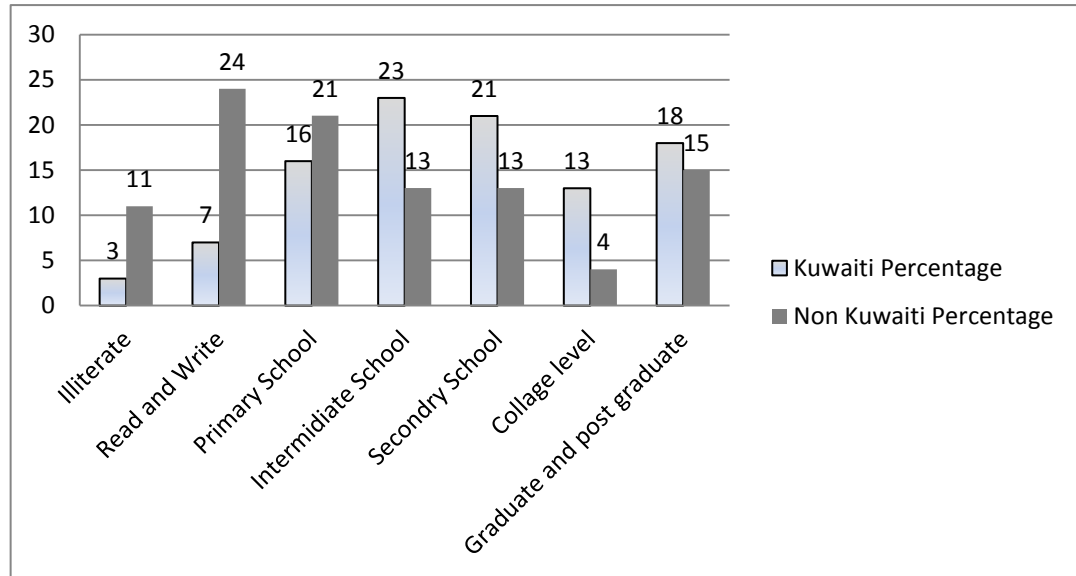
Source: (Kuwait Central Statistical Bureau, 2013)

According to Figure 4.2, the percentage of Kuwaitis who are literate, who can read and write and who finished primary school is much lower than the Non-Kuwaiti. Pertinently, as depicted in Figure 4.2, the percentage of Kuwaiti education, staring from intermediate school to graduate and post graduate, is significantly higher than Non-Kuwaiti percentage (Kuwait Central Statistical Bureau, 2013). In other words, there are qualified Kuwaiti workers in the market, but the question is why they are not employed? Why are they suffering unemployment more than Non-Kuwaitis? In accordance with the government plan, why cannot these people replace Non-Kuwaitis? Based on Table 4.2 statistical figure, Kuwaiti are more educated and therefore more qualified. Since nepotism is widely used in Kuwaiti organisation, it is therefore inferred that this plan did not succeed because the Non-Kuwaiti where favoured by their manager to keep their job by writing exception letters to justify their decisions. This, however, increases the emotional stress between Kuwaiti and the Non-Kuwaiti. The Kuwaiti would feel that they are deprived from working opportunity by being favoured by Non-Kuwaiti. On the other hand, Non-Kuwaiti feels they are not favoured and uses nepotism to secure a job. Another implication is that regardless of the nationality of the job seekers, individuals are clearly not being hired or promoted based on their competencies, but rather by their connections and nepotism. This clearly has bearing on the postulate IC model in terms of incompetent individuals.

Another Section in the 1997 law is to involve the private sector in employing Kuwaitis by stating a minimum quota of Kuwaiti to work in the private sector. In 1996 the total Kuwaiti working force was 1.3% in the private sector, and the government goal was to increase this percentage to 4.8% by 2008. However, in 2008, the percentage of Kuwaiti workers was only 2.68% of total working population in the private sector. Once again, the government had a continuance plan of increasing the Kuwaiti nationals in the private sector from 4.8% in 2008 to 8% by 2014. Based on 2011 statistics, Kuwaiti workers have decreased to 2.26% rather than increase from 2.68% in 2008 (see Table 4.7). The Kuwaiti government is fully aware of the situation and realized that their plan failed and the unemployed Kuwaiti problems are only increasing. In fact, in 2008 Kuwait reached its lowest percentage of Kuwaiti to Non-Kuwaiti workers. Kuwaiti national employment was 31% of the total population and the total working force was only 15.5% Kuwaiti to Non-Kuwaiti of both sectors combined.

According to the statistics Kuwaiti unemployment has increased from 1.4% in 1998 to 5.9% in 2008 and still increasing. In fact, many problems have been raised that requires further analyses and long term solutions, such as inequality between Kuwaiti and Non- Kuwaiti workers, the big difference between wages in the government and the private sectors, misuse of rules and regulations that promote Kuwaiti workers, increasing number in underemployment (where people have jobs in name but are not giving real work to do), and continued decrease in Kuwaiti national workers to the total Non-Kuwaiti workers (Al-shemery et al., 2013).

One of the worrying issues that are facing Kuwait is of unemployment. Both Kuwaitis and Non-Kuwaiti are seeking employment and year after year it is getting increasingly hard to find a job. However, the issue here is for those who are already employed, why do they work incompetently? What are the factors that contribute to this behaviour? In this chapter the context of the study was explained and in the next chapter the methods and methodologies to conduct this research will be presented.

4.4 Summary

The importance of this chapter is in understanding the context of this thesis study. As discussed in the literature review, studies of the same nature may result in different findings. One of the elements that affect these results is the context of the study.

Analysis of the secondary data suggests quite a significant relevance of the four factors postulated in IC model to explain IC at work.

This thesis context is Kuwait an Arabian Muslim country that has a different culture compared to the European. Therefore, it is essential to describe and discuss the context of the study, especially as most of the research is conducted in either Europe or US, as evidenced in the literature review. The Kuwaiti setting therefore may have a different perspective; consequently the findings of this study could be affected as a result.

Chapter 5

Methodology

5.1 Introduction

Bryman (2012); Lincoln & Guba (2011); Neuman (2013) and Saunders et al. (2012) and other researchers recommend different methodologies to understand, explore and investigate a phenomenon. These are quantitative and qualitative research methodologies according to the nature of the research and the research problem. The actual choice of research methodology depends on the research problem, research aim and objectives, research questions, nature of the possible data, the researcher's philosophy and ontological and epistemological consideration of the research. In fact, Tuli (2010) discuses that social scientists differ in the choice of their methodology when studying complex social phenomenon, ranging from having thousands of people as the sample size to the in-depth analysis of one individual for his/her personal experience. The actual research methodology is thus determined by considering the varied aspects of the research problem and available research methodologies.

The critical and evaluative reading of the literature in Chapter 2 revealed significant theoretical lacunae, misunderstanding among researchers, and contradictory data and evidences on the four emerging themes of the proposed holistic IC model. These four themes, namely education, training, PC, and environment, were conceptualised in Chapter 3 as variables composing the holistic IC model, and the variables were defined for the purpose of this research, asserting relevant propositions about them and propositional relations among them, to explain the nature of IC in the context of KM. Now, that conceptual holistic IC model, particularly the variables need to be operationalized as 'constructs' for which empirical data can be collected and analysed. The operationalisation of the model's variables needs to be able to produce evidence to substantiate them as empirical constructs and support the holistic model of IC.

This Chapter details the methodological design to operationalise the constructs and carry out the empirical investigation of the holistic IC model. It begins with the discussion on the foundations of any research methodology; namely research philosophy, nature of the phenomenon to be studied or ontology, and the way in which knowledge of it can be constructed or epistemology. This research thesis uses pragmatism philosophy. An explanation of this approach is provided, as well as a critique of its usability. The philosophical approach of this research, the mixed methods approach is elaborated; which composed the qualitative semi-structured interview method and quantitative statistical survey method. Each of these research methods for collecting and analysing empirical data is explained in terms of its strategies and processes.

5.2 Research Philosophy

The importance of research philosophy lies in the belief, the methods and the tools that are used in any given research project, because it affects the research results and the contribution to knowledge. The research philosophy is based on what the individual researcher believes as an acceptable knowledge and therefore choosing the appropriate application or methods. According to Saunders et al. (2012, p127), research philosophy is "the development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge". Development of new knowledge may be foundational, such as developing new theory that establishes a discipline or as modest as answering a research question or problem of a particular research project. The value of careful consideration of research philosophy is in producing new valid and believable knowledge.

Crossan (2003) argues that research philosophy depends on the nature of the philosophical questions, which in turn demonstrate the philosophical understanding of the research. The combination of research philosophy and research questions stimulates further questions in relation to the subject at hand, leading the researcher towards in-depth thinking about the potential contribution to knowledge that is expected from the research design. Therefore, it is essential to clarify the researcher's epistemological assumptions and values or axiological basis. Such assumptions and values are embedded in the research philosophy of the research project.

According to Bassey (1992), there are two kinds of research: one that seeks to understand a particular phenomenon and the other seeks to change a particular situation of interest to the researcher. This research project is classified in the first category because it seeks to explain and understand the factors that determine IC and to understand the usability of the KCM and the role of HRM in KM.

Therefore, this section sets out the research philosophy of this thesis by considering the interrelationships between ontology; the nature of reality and humanity (Holden & Lynch, 2004; Tuli, 2010) or "what is the nature of reality?" (Crossan, 2003, p.47); and epistemology the theory of knowledge which informs the researcher (Holden & Lynch, 2004; Tuli, 2010) or "what can be known?" (Crossan, 2003, p.47) and how knowledge of it can be obtained; and methodology or how can that knowledge can be gained (Holden & Lynch, 2004; Tuli, 2010) or "how can a researcher discover what she believes can be known?" using empirical methods (Crossan, 2003, p.47).

5.2.1 Ontology

Ontology is concerned with the nature of reality and how the world is operating according to particular views (Saunders et al., 2012). It is "concerned with the nature of social entities… the question of whether social entities can and should be considered objective entities that have a reality external to social actors, or whether they can and should be considered social constructions built up from the perceptions and actions of social actors. These positions are frequently referred to respectively as objectivism and constructionism" (Bryman, 2012, p. 32). Thus Neuman (2013) argues that there are two different positions in ontology; the objectivism positon which states that there is an independent reality and the constructionism position which believes that reality is based on and the product of social process. Watson (2011) argues that the daily concept of 'how the world works' is what moves us form epistemology to ontology aspect.

5.2.2 Epistemology

Epistemology is the constitution of acceptable knowledge in the field of study (Saunders et al, 2009 & 2012). It is a philosophical aspect concerned with how new knowledge is created; specifically with how we know what we know, or what are the most valid ways available to help us to reach the truth (William Lawrence Neuman, 2013). Crucially, it is concerned with what can be considered as acceptable

knowledge in a given discipline. These definitions of epistemology are generally accepted in the natural sciences like physics and chemistry. However, there is an epistemological debate on whether social science can be regarded and studied along the same principles as natural science (Bryman, 2012).

Epistemology poses three questions: "What is the relationship between the knower and what is known? How do we know what we know? What counts as knowledge?" (Tuli, 2010, p. 99). In fact, Pallas (2001) argues that epistemology is the core of the research process. As researchers engage with the research process it shapes their abilities and they learn from other scholars engaged in the same core process. According to Easterby-Smith et al. (2012), each one of the epistemological philosophies is different, as each has its own strength and weaknesses; and it is the researcher who should decide and justify which one(s) to use.

The ontological and epistemological aspects of any research project are discussed in terms of the appropriate research philosophy, methodologies, strategies…etc. Saunders et al., (2012) proposed the 'research onion' which encompasses business and management research philosophies, approaches, methodologies, strategies, time and techniques and procedures (Figure 5.1).

Figure 5. 1: The Research Onion.
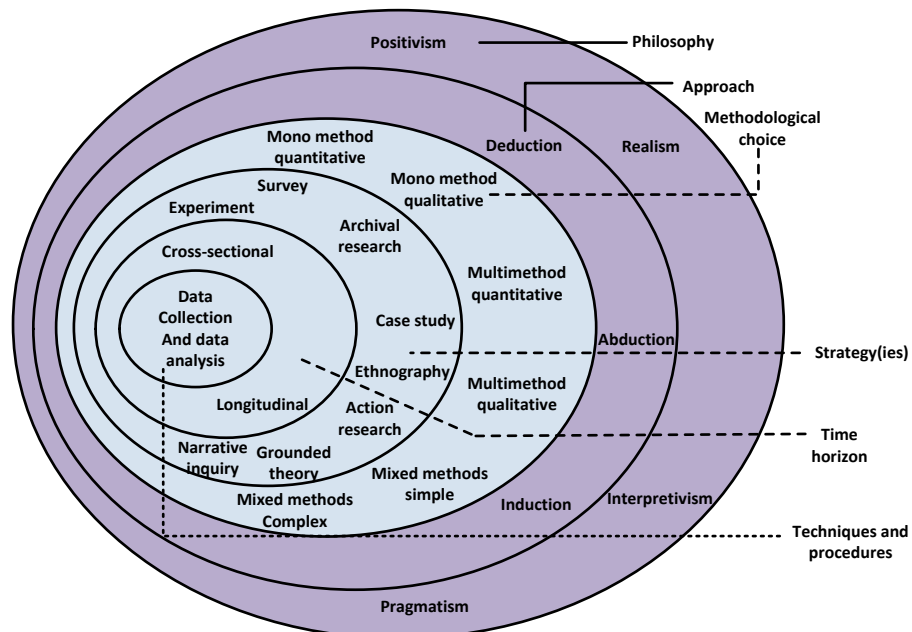
(Source: Saunders et al., 2012, p. 128).

Since Saunders et al.'s (2012) research onion shown in Figure 5.1 depicts many different kinds of research philosophies, approaches, methodologies and methods, relevant layers for this research project are discussed and the appropriateness of each choice and the reason for choosing the pragmatism methodology for this thesis are elaborated in the following sections.

5.2.3 Research Philosophy Approach

The choice of relevant research philosophy is crucial for any research because it determines the research's results. Therefore, understanding the strength and limitation of each research philosophy is essential (see Appendix B-1 for comparison of philosophies). The research philosophy is the way in which the researcher chooses to generate new knowledge of the research. In addition, each research philosophy has its own preferences of research methods that the researcher has to follow to address research questions (Saunders et al., 2012).

As well as selecting this thesis' research philosophy, the research methodology used is also closely considered in order to ensure that the aim of this thesis can be achieved and the research questions can be properly investigated and thoroughly answered.

This thesis uses pragmatism as the research philosophy. Mounce (2000) and Easterby-Smith et al. (2012) discuss the history of pragmatism philosophy. Pragmatism is developed by the American philosopher C.S. Peirce (1839-1914). He characterizes pragmatism as achieving true knowledge and understanding its meaning only when one knows how to use it; he focused on the *difference* knowledge makes to practice from an epistemological perspective. However, other philosophers like William James (1907-1979) and John Dewey (1916) have different views. William James defined pragmatism as a theory of truth. He believed that truth is the result of experience, which led him to adopt radical forms of "*empiricism*" and "*nominalism*".

Since the foundations of pragmatism laid by Peirce, other researchers' reflections have led to different schools of thought (Kelemen & Rumens, 2008; Saunders et al., 2012; Watson, 2011) For example, Kelemen & Rumens (2008) argue that one point of view may not be the whole truth, as the truth could actually be based on multiple

realities which could itself be obtained in different ways when conducting research. Thus a particular method or several methods could be used in a particular research project based on their relevance or even necessary to make it more credible and reliable. Obviously, such multiple methods of observation would yield different datasets or versions of reality, which when interpreted would lead of generalisations about 'multiple realities'.

Saunders et al. (2012) suggest that pragmatism is used when the research question is considered as the focus of the research project. In another words, the research questions and its consequences determine the research position. In addition, and relevant to this research project, it is perfectly acceptable to use more than one philosophical position even in one particular study. Critically, what is important for pragmatism is the practical consequences of the idea or the research findings. Therefore, because of multiple research philosophies, Kelemen & Rumens (2008) argue that there are many different ways of interpreting reality; accordingly, there are many different methodologies to study reality, and there is a high probability of having multiple realities rather than only one. This, however, for pragmatism does not necessarily mean the use of multiple methods when conducting research, but rather using the necessary methods to achieve more reliability and well-founded and relevant dataset that yield better results.

Using the pragmatism approach, this thesis seeks to explain the nature of IC and identify the factors affecting the development and composition of IC. The research seeks to understand the actuality about the role of HRM and KM in regards to IC. In fact, the truth, according to Kelemen & Rumens (2008), could be based on multiple realities that requires one or more research methods, which result in a more credible and reliable research result. Therefore, the phenomenon of IC could hold multiple truths within it. Consequently, it is essential to investigate other factors that may have an effect on IC in order reach the truth about why individuals are incompetent or competent at work. Watson (2011) argues that pragmatism is most suited for researchers seeking to find the truth specifically in organisational, managerial and individual settings.

Therefore, pragmatism is the most suitable research philosophy for this thesis argumentation because it is the most comprehensive. It covers all the required

elements of the research problem, the research questions and objectives; consideration of individuals and organisation, and it allows different research methods and approaches depending on the thesis research requirements. In fact, it covers the limitations of some research philosophies such as interpretivism and positivism, because it allows multiple research methods that enable the researcher to answer this thesis questions.

To be able to investigate the phenomenon of IC it is essential to investigate and understand underlying causes of competent and incompetent behaviour, and other factors contributing to such behaviour. Also, it is necessary to understand and investigate the role of HRM and KM in developing IC in the organisation. In fact, Watson (2011) argues that unless researchers get close to individuals and social interaction, they will not be able to know much about identities and organisations, and how things actually work in the organisation. Therefore, the research design for this research requires semi-structured interviews with individuals to obtain deep understanding of individuals' intentions and their social interaction. Also, in order to enable generalisation, survey questionnaire is necessary. The survey is also used to validate the findings from the interviews and confirm anomalies arising from analysis of the qualitative data.

In order to operationalise the holistic IC model using the pragmatist approach detailed above, it is necessary to develop the measuring instrument for the quantitative survey and design the questions for the qualitative interviews, which is elaborated next.

5.3 Development of Measuring Instrument

In order to achieve the aim of this thesis, a thorough development of the measuring instrument is required. This measuring instrument seeks to answer the research questions and to test the developed hypotheses. Therefore, the following Sub-section is the description of how the measuring instrument or research questions were developed for both the qualitative and quantitative methods. Since the context of this study is Kuwait the measuring instrument should suit the respondent of that country. Therefore, the language translation of the measuring instrument is required for both the interview questions and the survey questionnaires.

5.3.1 Developing the Measuring Instrument

It is essential to understand the processes preceding the development of the research question. According to Alvesson & Sandberg (2013), a research question is developed through sequential steps. First, the researcher should identify the specific domain or subject of the research. Second, the researcher should aim at specific topic. Third, the research problem should be formulated in relation to the chosen topic while considering the theoretical, practical, and motivational or rational aspect of the research. Fourth, define the purpose of the study. Finally, specify more narrow direction using the research questions. To develop the research questions of this thesis the specific domain is the HR domain; within this domain the specific topic is IC in the context of KM. The research problem is to understand the holistic nature of IC and its usability for KM; which encompasses the theory of knowledge creation. The motivation is to improve the development of IC and the role of HRM for effective KM. Accordingly, the thesis problem and purpose is stated and subsequently the thesis questions and hypotheses are developed.

Interview questions are developed and originate from four sources; namely society (Silverman, 2011), personal experience (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012), existing scientific literature (White, 2008), and empirical material (Alvesson, 2011).

First, developing the interview questions based on *society*. It is crucial however, not to use the broader society to generate interview questions, but rather it should be specific. Also, the questions should not be fabricated in a way that would drive respondents in certain direction or to follow a certain agenda. Also a research question should not be complex in nature in order for it to be researchable (Silverman, 2011). Finally, they should be questions that contribute to society and make some difference (N. J. Adler & Hansen, 2012).

Second, developing the interview questions based on *personal experience*. According to Easterby-Smith et al. (2012) researchers can extract interview questions based on various events they personally have experienced. There are many different categories of life experiences, including the most common three; work, life and study.

Third, developing the interview questions based on *existing published studies and influential theories*, which, according to White (2008) is the most common way and

important source researchers should follow to develop their interview questions, for several reasons. First, even if the researcher used society or personal experience to develop interview questions, they still need to rely on existing theory in the literature to further develop interview questions. Examining the existing literature also ensures that the research question being developed has not already been satisfactorily addressed. Nevertheless, if such a question has not been addressed, it does not mean that the question should be pursued, for the reason that it may not be researchable or it may not contribute to knowledge.

Fourth, developing the research questions based on *empirical material being produced in the research process*. Specifically, in qualitative studies and using interview strategy, the researcher should investigate and review the initial intention behind the study and its questions to uncover emerging questions. In fact, there are studies were the researcher initiated the interview thinking the root problem to be one thing, but turns out to be some other thing that they did not think about, leading the research to take a different direction. The emerging and unexpected material could have either a positive consequence, such as developing more questions than anticipated, or a negative consequence, such as taking the research into unexpected direction. The formulation of research questions is the result of multiple source interaction, in order to alter each other's weaknesses. The research question should also add scientific value. If that is not the case, then the question should either be reframed or dropped (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2013).

The research questions of this thesis emerged mainly from the review of the literature and which were stated as propositions for investigation in Chapter 2. These propositions were then formulated in further detail for the semi-structured interviews and survey questionnaire used in this research. It is essential to point out that the semi-structured interview questions consist of pre-determined questions, as derived from the literature, as well as others emerging out of the momentum of the actual interview, which are based on interviewees' answer and interaction with the researcher. Therefore, the developed semi-structured questions are the pre-determined questions used in all the interviews. They are mainly based on the literature gap-spotting as propositions to be corroborated to support the development of the IC conceptual model (Figure 3.2). Next, the research measuring instruments, semi-structured interviews and survey method, used to collect data are elaborated.

5.3.2 Translation of the Measuring Instrument

Since this study is conducted in Kuwait, an Arabian country, the measuring instrument should suit the respondent of that country. Therefore, the translation of the measuring instrument into Arabic is required for both the interview questions and the survey questionnaire. The majority of the respondents were Arabic speakers and some English speakers with different English language levels. Therefore, the research is conducted in Arabic and English, which required translating the research instruments, the semi-structured interview and the survey questionnaires, into both languages.

According to Weeks et al., (2007) translation is time consuming but it has its advantageous. The importance of having proper translation is a matter of having reliable and valid measuring instruments. There are several ways to maximize measuring instrument equivalence while minimizing translation errors; as follows:

1- One-way translation. When a bilingual person translates the measuring instrument from one language to the targeted language.

2- Back translation. This is practiced by qualified or credited translators.

3- Bilingual techniques. When a bilingual person answers the measuring instruments in both languages.

4- Committee approach. When a bilingual committee is formed to translate from one language to the other.

5- Pre-test procedures. After translation, the measuring instrument is validated through answering the questions (Weeks et al., 2007).

The translation of the interview questions and survey questions followed the first two steps. For both steps, two academic professionals were asked for their help. One is a linguistic bilingual academic university professor and the other is an HRM bilingual academic university professor, both competent in the English language. Prior to conducting the translation, some terminologies were discussed and agreed upon by both professors in order to reduce any translation error. According to Geisinger (1994) and Nicholson (2008), there should be discussion and agreement about wording, phrasing and the meaning of some phrases in order to maximize equivalent translation.

The bilingual professor is asked to translate the measuring instrument from English to Arabic. Then, the HRM professor is asked to translate it back to English (back translation). There were minor differences between the back translation and the original English document. These minor differences are accepted as there is no immediate and exact translation between two languages. Nevertheless, both of the professors discussed these differences and finalized the final version of the measuring instrument translations. The translation is conducted for both of the research methods, qualitative and quantitative (See Appendix B-2 - Appendix B-5).

5.4 Mixed Method Approach

This thesis adopted the mixed method approach. Both the qualitative method elaborated later in Section 5.6 and the quantitative method elaborated in Section 5.7 were deployed to understand and answer this thesis questions as well as to meet its aim. Several researchers have used the mixed method in their research of competency such as Bronstein et al., (2011); Lee, (2010); Martin & Staines, (1994); Ng et al., (2011).

The importance of using mixed method lies in the idea that all methods have their limitations and biasness. Therefore, by using qualitative and quantitative methods such weakness and limitations can be overcome. Mixed methods are also intrinsically supported by triangulation (Creswell, 2013). According to Venkatesh (2013), qualitative and quantitative mixed methods is expected to enrich the insight into the holistic nature of IC, which if only one method is used, whether quantitative or qualitative, it will not provide the same quality of data and findings as if both research methods were combined .

There are three main types of mixed methods in social science:

1- Convergent parallel mixed methods: The researcher converges or merges both qualitative and the quantitative methods and then the integrated datasets are interpreted in the result, depicted in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5. 2: Convergent Parallel Mixed Methods.
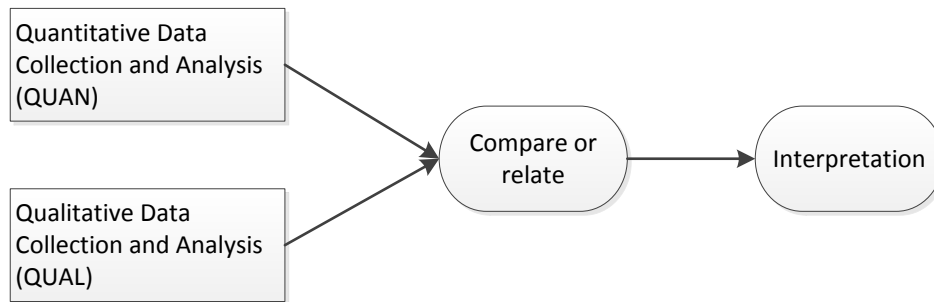
Source (Creswell, 2013, p. 220)

2- Explanatory sequential mixed methods: The researcher starts with conducting quantitative research. Then analyses the quantitative datasets and based on the results, develops qualitative data collection instruments to explain any anomalies and the results in more detail. Therefore, it is considered as an explanatory and sequential phase, because it explains the qualitative results further with the assistance and the sequential use of the qualitative method, depicted in Figure 5.3.

Figure 5. 3: Explanatory Sequential Mixed Methods.
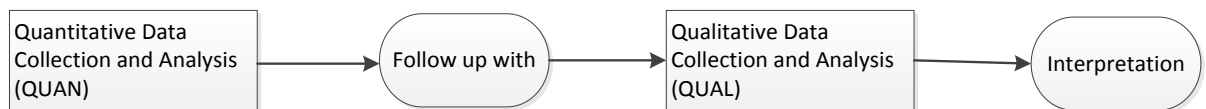
Source (Creswell, 2013, p. 220)

3- Exploratory sequential mixed methods: Unlike the explanatory sequential mixed methods, in the exploratory sequential mixed methods, the researcher starts with the qualitative research strategy in order to explore the interviewees' point of view. Then based on the qualitative data analysis and results, the quantitative method is built as a measuring instrument that best addresses the research questions. Quantitative method is also used to follow up on the qualitative phase, as well as to develop variables that can be followed in the quantitative method (Creswell, 2013). As depicted in Figure 5.4.

Figure 5. 4: Exploratory Sequential Mixed Methods.
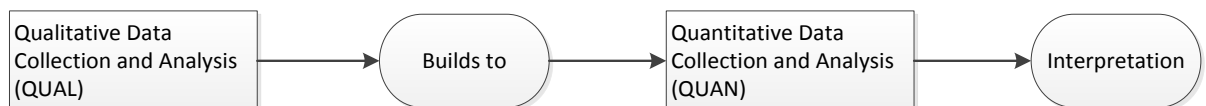
Source (Creswell, 2013, p. 220).

Since the unit of analysis of this research is IC in the context of KM and the role of HRM in developing it, the exploratory sequential mixed method is adopted in this

thesis. Also, as this thesis is conducted in different context other than the American and the European context, namely in Kuwait the exploratory sequential mixed methods is suitable, because the different context may raise unexpected results which need further investigation. Thus, the researcher will begin by exploring IC from the perspective of working individuals' through the qualitative interview method, to understand the phenomenon of IC in Kuwait. Then after analysing the dataset, when knowledge is gained by using interviews, the results and any anomalies will be further investigated through the quantitative survey method to develop robust generalizations. Watson (2011) discusses that when interviews are accompanied, if possible or required, with other methods such as survey questionnaire, the research results are strengthened.

Therefore, the research design of this research consists of the pragmatism research philosophy and exploratory sequential mixed methods. The first phase will be the qualitative exploration through interviews of factors that affect IC, the role of HRM and the effect of KM itself at work, as detailed in Section 5.6.1. From the explorative qualitative findings, the quantitative survey phase will be developed on a bigger scale using a larger sample. This process leads to triangulation; which is substantively more than a validation stage of this research's finding, as discussed in the following Section.

5.5 Triangulation

The role of triangulation in research developed alongside mixed method approach. Its origin extends from the military and navigation strategy; where multiple points of reference are used to locate the exact object location of a target to ensure greater accuracy (Herman W. Smith, 1975). The same principle can be applied to research, where the researcher can improve accuracy of the research results by using different kind of data to investigate the same phenomenon (Creswell, 2013; Jick, 1979).

Mixed methods and triangulation are used interchangeably; however triangulation is based on mixed methods. Whereas mixed methods refer to the mixes of different qualitative and quantitative methods, perspectives, analytic findings and sets of data; triangulation incorporates the epistemological dimension about the research's outcome. It is 'to know more' about a phenomenon through the use of different data collection and analysis methods (Moran-Ellis et al., 2006).

The benefit of mixed methods lies in increasing the research findings accuracy (Kelle, 2001), generating more knowledge using different strategies while investigating one phenomenon (Creswell, 2013; Christina Foss & Ellefsen, 2002) and reflecting on complex and multi-faced ontology of a phenomenon (Coyle & Williams, 2000; Deren et al., 2003). Similarly, the benefit of triangulation lies in its epistemological claim to acquiring more knowledge, especially when the data collected is analysed against each other (Moran-Ellis et al., 2006). In fact, Flick (2014) argues that triangulation is more than a validation of research methods, since it allows the usage of another methodological approach, which in itself expands the possibility of acquiring more knowledge. According to Creswell (2013) when triangulated data are gathered they are examined based on different sources to build a coherent justification of variables. Therefore, according to Creswell (2013) and Nick Lee & Lings (2008) if these variables are based on several sources of data then this process will add validity to the study. In addition, triangulation can be used with many different research strategies, as triangulation depends on the research question and the field it is used for (Flick, 2014).

Triangulation assumes that if the different research methods provided similar result(s) about the one phenomenon then the used measures are considered to be accurate. On the other hand, if the research methods provided different result(s) about the one phenomenon then one or more used measures are considered flawed (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Moran-Ellis et al., 2006).

Therefore, "triangulation means that researcher take different perspective on an issue under study or-more generally speaking-in answering research questions… Triangulation should produce knowledge on different levels, which means insights that go beyond the knowledge made possible by one approach and thus contribute to promoting quality in research" (Flick, 2014, p. 184). There are four types of triangulation:

1- Data triangulation: Involves using different kind of data sources; specifically to use different time, space and person. For example, to study the phenomenon using different time, place and people.

2- Investigator triangulation: Involves performing different observations or interview different people in order to minimize biasness.

3- Theory triangulation: Involves approaching data with different perspectives in mind. The purpose of this triangulation is to expand the possibility of our gained knowledge.

4- Methodological triangulation: Involves two types; within-method, where one method is used and analysed differently; and between-methods when two methods are combined, such as semi-structured interview and questionnaire (Denzin, 1978; Flick, 2014).

This research adopts methodological triangulation. The IC phenomenon will be investigated from different methodological perspectives to gain more and in-depth knowledge. Therefore, the between-methods triangulation method is used. For the qualitative method, interview is chosen as the research strategy and for the quantitative method survey questionnaire is chosen as the research strategy as justified in Section 5.6.1 and Section 5.7.1 respectively. Both of these methods and strategy results will be triangulated in the discussion Chapter. Also, the gained knowledge from these two methods is investigated from the perspective of the KCM to assess its usability and effect on IC at work (See Chapter 8). The next Section details this thesis's research strategy used to undertake research to address the research aim and answer the research question.

5.5.1 Research Strategies of the Mixed Method

Research strategy is the plan of how the researcher intends to answer the research question. It is also a linking point of the research philosophy and the research methodology which reflects the way the researcher will collect and analyse the data to meet the research aim (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Saunders et al., 2012).

The research strategies used for this thesis, based on this thesis choice of pragmatism philosophy and the mixed method approach, is interview strategy for the qualitative method, and the survey questionnaire strategy for the quantitative method, as discussed and justified in Sections 5.6 and 5.7.

5.5.2 Mixed Method and Triangulation Techniques and Analytical Procedures

Since the type of mixed method used is exploratory, the data collection will start with the semi-structured interview in order to explore the IC phenomenon (Creswell, 2013); according to Gill & Johnson (2010) it helps the researcher investigate and

explain the relationships between the research variables (cause and effect). Then, according to Gill & Johnson (2010), the survey questionnaire will enable the researcher to provide description and explanation of the research phenomenon. In fact, it will facilitate the researcher to identify and describe the research variables.

In the qualitative phase, the researcher explores the IC phenomenon using semi-structured interviews where questions were specified, but respondents have the freedom to elaborate on the phenomenon, which enables other consideration through follow-up questions that were not originally specified. Therefore, semi-structured interviews enabled deep investigation and understanding of IC, KM and HRM role. Based on the result of the first phase, the second quantitative method, or the survey questionnaire measuring instrument is developed and analysed to follow and enhance the first phase.

Thus by deploying the exploratory sequential mixed method, using qualitative interviews, led to the resulting findings, which were used to build the quantitative survey. Subsequently, through methodological triangulation, namely the between-methods triangulation, the resulting knowledge is incorporated and compared to provide understanding of IC, KM and HRM leading to fruitful findings and at the same time to having more validated data. In fact, Creswell (2013) argues that the purpose of the exploratory mixed method is to develop a better measurement using the small sample of the qualitative semi-structured interviews and then to generalize the findings over a larger number of population through survey questionnaires. The following Section is developed to explain the themes into which the research variables are classified.

5.5.3 Research Themes

For data analysis, interpretation and discussion, this research will pursue certain developed themes. According to Braun & Clarke (2006), who discusses thematic analysis, a theme encompasses the important things found about the data in relation to the research question. It should also encompass patterned responses or meaning within the collected data set. In order to develop a theme, the researcher needs to look for patterns or meanings of certain issues that represent the collected data. This pattern or meaning can be noticed and developed as early as the data collection stage or during data coding (in the interview phase) or as late as the time of reporting the

findings of the data. Braun & Clarke (2006) developed a guideline of the six phases of thematic analysis (Table 5.1).

Table 5. 1: Phases of Thematic Analysis.

Phase	Description of the process
1. **Familiarize yourself with your data**	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, nothing down initial ideas.
2. **Generating initial codes**	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code.
3. **Searching for themes**	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.
4. **Reviewing themes**	Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic 'map' of the analysis.
5. **Defining and naming themes**	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme.
6. **Producing the report**	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.

Source: Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 87

Accordingly, the research developed these thesis themes derived from the critical analysis of findings and explanation in the literature: the developed factors, research question, research hypothesis, and the data patterns. The developed themes of the thesis are:

1. Competency
2. Prior Education
3. On-job Education
4. Prior Training
5. On-job Training
6. Prior Personal Characteristics
7. On-job Personal Characteristics
8. Prior Environment
9. On-job Environment
10. Knowledge Management
11. Human Resource Management

These developed themes are used to classify the research variables, in the analysis of the two phases of the interviews and the survey questionnaires, and formed the basis of the discussion of the findings in the discussion Chapter 8. Meanwhile, the following Section is the elaboration of data collection used for this thesis.

5.5.4 Data Collection

The method used for data collection, in both research methodologies, is snowballing. The data collection for the exploratory mixed method strategy occurred over two phases, starting with the qualitative data collection and followed by the quantitative data collection. The critical challenge in this strategy is using the first phase findings in the second phase. One useful procedure to move from phase one to the second, is to use the first phase semi-structured interviews findings or quotes, codes and themes to develop the second phase survey questionnaire measurement instruments using appropriate psychometric properties (validity, reliability... etc.). This way, the research is progressed from the interview data analysis to the scale development for the survey questionnaire, taking into consideration proper procedure in the instrument design. The instrument design procedure involved item discrimination, construct validity, and reliability estimates (DeVellis, 2012).

Similarly, Creswell (2013) argues that exploratory mixed method allows the researcher, in the qualitative phase, to develop new variables, to identify the scale types of an existing instruments or to develop new categories that could be further explored in the quantitative phase. In addition, since the first phase qualitative sample size is small, its result cannot be generalized. However, as the second quantitative phase sample size is much larger it could be generalized through appropriate statistical techniques.

A good procedure for a researcher to follow when conducting both phases of the mixed method approach is to have different participants in each of the research phases in order to introduce confounding factors into the study (Creswell, 2013); which is explained in the following two Section (5.6 and 5.7).

5.6 Qualitative Method

The qualitative research methods seek to understand the phenomenon through those who have experienced it (Yegidis et al., 2011). It relies on words or images for its analysis (Creswell, 2013). It is mainly designed to help researchers understand what individuals are doing and saying, and hence understand the social and cultural context of individuals or subjects.

Qualitative method is particularly suited for an in-depth study, exploratory research, when the subject researched is new; and it is most suited for social, cultural and

political aspect of individuals and organisations (Michael D. Myers, 2013). All these criteria apply to this research. It mainly reports word descriptions such as subjective, contextual, or relative (Mutch, 2005; Yegidis et al., 2011). Unlike the quantitative methods, the qualitative method considers the individuals as *research participants* rather than looking at them as objects. In fact, participants can be seen as writing their own history rather than being regarded as the research objects (Casey, 1993). Therefore, this methodology enables participants to express their reality from their own understanding of practical knowledge, as they feel free when expressing their point of view (Cohen et al., 2007). Since the unit of the analysis of this research is IC, it is logical to search an answer to the research question from those who have experienced it, 'the working individuals'; because they can explain why they are behaving the way they are behaving, whether intentionally or unintentionally.

This method is essential to support this thesis argumentation that the nature of IC is holistic, as it allowed the researcher to make sense of the social construct of IC. It allowed the working individuals to explain the phenomenon of IC from their own practical experience, and therefore provided the researcher with an in-depth understanding of this phenomenon, through interview questions. In fact, the majority of the researchers who have investigated competency have used qualitative methods, such as Emad & Roth, (2008); Martins, (2007); Millman & Wilson, (1996); Reynaud & Simon, (2006); Rothwell & Kazanas, (1993); Ruuska & Vartiainen, (2003); Sandberg, (2000); Simon, (2010); and Yang et al., (2006). Therefore, the main emphasis of this thesis is the qualitative interview method. There are several different strategies that the researcher can follow in conducting the qualitative method. This research used the semi-structured interview, as explained in the following section.

5.6.1 Justification for Semi-structured Interview Strategy

The reason for choosing the semi-structured interview method is that it permitted the researcher to gather facts from the interviewees' own perspective; to see what they consider as facts from their own point of view, to understand their meaning and what they consider to be knowledge of IC. In other words, to understand the individuals' own mind set and meaning of IC.

As the researcher could not observe every aspect of the individual, such as feelings, thoughts and intentions at certain place and at certain time, and how the subjects

think and reaching their meaning of the world around them, the researcher had to questioning people about all these aspects of IC (Patton, 2002). In fact, Saunders et al. (2012) argued that the importance of interview is in allowing the interviewer to ask concise questions about ambiguous situations or circumstances to obtain clearer understanding of issues. Also, semi-structured interview is used to help the researcher to refine the research idea, especially when the idea had contradicting results and explanations in the literature, and had not been initially clearly developed for the different context of the study, namely Kuwait.

Using interview strategy enabled the researcher to understand deeply the reasons why individuals are incompetent or competent at work, especially intentionally not sharing knowledge, and to identify factors that affect IC at work. It helped to identify other factors affecting IC. Additionally, it provided data to understand the role and effect of HRM and KM on IC. Since individuals are the unit of analysis, the interview strategy not only enabled the researcher to see from the perspective of each interviewee, but also to understand their feelings and the reason for the interviewees' behaviour at work, giving a deep and rich understanding of why individuals are incompetent and competent at work.

There are several kinds of interview strategies, namely non-standardized interview, focused interview and non-direct interviews (Saunders et al., 2012). Three main interview types are:

1- Structured interview: the researcher asks all interviewees the same questions using the same wording, and usually the researcher has predetermined answers and asks interviewees to choose from the provided choices. This is a very detailed interview.

2- Semi-structured interview: the researcher usually uses a specific set of questions in the interview. However, the researcher permits interviewees to elaborate and express their feelings. This technique enables the researcher to deeply investigate issues and to gain insight of the subjects from interviewees own perspective.

3- Unstructured interview: the researcher usually does not have specific questions and interviewees simply narrate about the subject or the issue (Blumberg et al., 2011).

The structured interview is usually associated with quantitative methods (Blumberg et al., 2011; Bryman, 2012). Therefore, this interview type is not used in this research. The unstructured interview is too informal. It is used to explore the researcher's area of interest; which is not the case in this thesis, therefore it is not used. However, the semi-structured interview is considered appropriate for this research (Michael D. Myers, 2013; Ritchie et al., 2003).

The purpose and the importance of interviewing is, to enable the researcher to see things from the interviewees' own eyes and to know the meanings they hold in their mind. It is highly appropriate for this research. It enabled asking key questions on IC. During the interview, the researcher is able to use different questions, but with the main questions set and the order varied depending on the interview or the conversation flow. Also, this interview type permitted the researcher to add and/or omit questions based on interviewees' responses to enrich the deep investigation the interviewer is conducting and exploring (Saunders et al., 2012). Using semi-structured interviews, as the first stage of the qualitative method, enabled the researcher to explore the IC phenomenon, as well as to understand and explain why individuals work incompetently at work.

5.6.2 Development of the Semi-structured Interview Questions

According to Myers (2013), to achieve understanding, knowledge and answer the research questions, the researcher should ask questions such as: What is happening? Why is it happening? How it happened? And, when it happened? All these questions are potential and typical questions the researcher should use as needed. Such questions were especially important to ask and understand IC.

It is essential to develop the qualitative interview questions and to follow the proper procedure of semi-structured interview, in order to maximize the extracted knowledge to build the second phase survey questionnaires. The justification of the semi-structured interview questions are presented in Appendix B-6. All of these questions are rived from the literature and based on the theoretical lacunae identified in Chapter 2. The following an elaboration of how the semi-structured interview data is collected, recoded and transcribed.

5.6.3 Data Collection, Recording and Transcribing

Interview data is collected from 41 participants. This consisted of 6 top managers, 22 middle managers and 13 employees. Of these, 31 were from the government sector and 10 from the private sector, and 16 were male and 25 female; 38 were Kuwaiti nationals and 3 expatriates.

For ease of data collection, audio recording and note-taking is used. Both are considered beneficial for interviews. Note-taking is beneficial for recording things that the audio recording may not pick, such as facial expression, body language. Also, it gives respondents the feeling of importance, which will encourage them to participate. Both the audio and the note-taking were compiled for analysis purposes. The interviews were then transcribed as written document. This included recording the way respondents answered the questions, as these details add to the meaning of the analysis. For example, were respondents happy or sad in their feelings; eager, neutral or reluctant to participate? The downside of transcribing however is that it is time consuming (Saunders et al., 2012). Each interviewee is coded by special code in order to conceal their identity and protect their right and saved separately. This code is developed to identify some demographic features of the interviewees while protecting their identity. For example, the first interviewee's code is 1-FKP-M-BA; this means that this person is the first person that is interviewed, Female, Kuwaiti, Private sector, in Middle-level of management, and is working in banking. These demographic data were used to code the interview participant to conceal their identity, whilst providing the researcher with extra knowledge about whom and why they said it and what they said. All the transcribed files were imported into NVIVO for data analysis, as explained next.

5.6.4 Data Analysis

The forty-one interview transcripts were imported into NVIVO 10 qualitative data analysis software. The imported interview data files were stored under the 'Source' in NVIVO. Source is where all the interviews raw data is stored for analysis purposes. The second step is 'classifying'; this feature in NVIVO is used to classify each of the interviewees based on their demographic data. The demographic data for the interviews were: name (which is substituted with codes to conceal their identity), gender, nationality, organisational sector and organisational level. This is useful to analyse the respondents' opinion against their demographic data and helped predict

whether demographic data has any effect on their responses. The third step is data coding; according to Edhlund (2011) and Gibbs (2002), coding is associating certain data with a term or keyword called 'code'. These codes were all organised under the node option in NIVIO.

There are no published systematic processes to analyse interview data. Rather it depends on the researcher who has to make several autonomous decisions during the data analysis. Prior to coding the interview data, the data were organised in the Node section of NVIVO, based on the Interview Question number. For example, for Question 1 the node is labelled Q.1 and included the text of that Interview Question. In NVIVO when that node Q.1 is selected it displays all the forty-one interviewees' answers to that particular question 'Q.1'. This is helpful in investigating each question separately. This procedure permitted the researcher to cross investigate each question separately and deeply, according to the factors and themes developed for investigation. Then the researcher coded the interview data, which according to Gibbs (2002), is the most important part of interview data analysis, where each question is coded using keywords or 'codes' to develop themes. Some codes are from terms developed to write the interview questions; others codes emerged during the interviewing and are named according to their usage. The new emerging codes were in fact expected; as predicted by the exploratory mixed methods strategy. These emerging codes enriched the findings of research and were incorporated in the quantitative phase of the data collection for further investigation.

Exploration and analysis of the collected data is done in terms of the developed themes of the holistic IC model namely, competency, education, training, PC, environment, KM and HRM. After coding all the data, other procedures were conducted to explain and explore the coded data further; such as testing data against the demographic data, and building explanatory models that depict the relationships between two or more categories, as discussed in the analysis Chapter 6.

5.6.5 Reliability and Validity of the Semi-structured Interviews

Reliability and validity of the interview questions is checked in the pilot study. No significant anomalies emerged during the pilot study. Some questions had to be re-worded to make them clearer. The validity of the interview questions stems from their sourcing from the critical literature review and emerging research propositions concerning education, training, PC and environment, and their effect on IC at work.

However, Neuman (2013) states perfect reliability and validity is impossible because the research constructs are usually not observable, diffuse and ambiguous. The importance of reliability and validity lies in enabling the research credibility, truthfulness and believability of the findings.

5.6.6 Rigour and Relevance of the Semi-structured Interview

It is essential to consider research rigour and research relevance. *Rigour* is defined as research that follows a scientific model and meets the scientific method. Such research is published in academic journals, and is considered more theoretical than of practical relevance to business profession. On the other hand, *relevance* is defined as a research that is directly related to business profession and therefore, relating to consultancy. This kind of research is hardly published in academic journals because it lacks the theoretical aspect of research (Michael D. Myers, 2013).

Bennis & O'Toole (2005) argue that business management is not a scientific discipline, rather a profession. However, Myers (2013) argues the focus of research in business schools has shifted over the years, from being vocational and consultancy oriented to more proper scholarship oriented. Nevertheless, the scholarly nature of academic researchers may not have immediate relevance to the business profession, but it might in the longer term. Myers (2013) argues that business professionals should not seek the 'silver bullets' for quick solutions, rather they should seek solutions that deal with the root problems of organisations with a longer last effect. Consequently, in this research rigour and relevance are essential to understand the root problem that leads individuals to behave incompetently at work in order to develop robust explanation of IC in the context of KCM and the role of HRM.

In addition, Myers (2013) argues that business research now should be more relevant to business profession in order to deal with the complex issues that organisations are facing in real life, and qualitative research is appropriate to do this because it enables the researcher to achieve both rigorous and relevance. For relevant qualitative research, the researcher needs to engage with actual working people in organisations. This validates the main qualitative focus of this research, enacted by the semi-structured interview, where the researcher is able to understand the root problems of working individuals from the way they perceive it, understand it and interact with it.

The next section defines and elaborates second phase of the exploratory sequential mixed method. It is the quantitative method, survey questionnaire.

5.7 Quantitative Method

Quantitative method is associated with the scientific methods; sometimes called empirical research (Yegidis et al., 2011). Unlike the qualitative method that is associated with interpretivism and induction, the quantitative method is associated with positivism and deduction, and hypotheses are formulated to test a theory. However, it could use the inductive approach if the intention is to build or develop a theory. The main feature of positivism is to investigate whether independent and dependent variables have statistically significant relationships, such relationship can be measured using different statistical techniques. The measurement success however, depends on having or developing clear research questions that the participants understand. Researchers' usually use the survey questionnaire strategy in the quantitative approach. From successful measurements and statistical significance, generalizations can be drawn. The researcher is totally independent or objective in the positivist, quantitative approach from the researched respondents (Saunders et al., 2012).

Many researchers have used quantitative method in their research of competency, such as Coulson-Thomas, (2009); Davidson et al., (2011); Foschi, (2000a); Heffernan & Flood, (2000); Heijke et al., (2003); Heinsman et al., (2008); and Kong, (2013). Quantitative methods seek to describe a problem or phenomenon by providing accurate measurement of the explaining and responding variables, as well as identifying the strength of relationship among them. According to Yegidis et al. (2011), quantitative methods usually involves the following steps:

1- "Problem identification
2- Research question formulation
3- Literature review
4- Constructing hypotheses and/or refinement of research questions.
5- Design planning
6- Data collection
7- Sorting and analysis of data
8- Specification of research findings.
9- Interpretation of research findings.
10- Dissemination of research findings.

11- Use of findings by the social worker" (Yegidis et al., 2011, p. 20-21).

Since the survey questionnaire is the most used strategy in the quantitative method (Saunders et al., 2012), the survey questionnaire is the chosen method of this research.

5.7.1 Justification of Survey Questionnaire Strategy

This Section is the justification for the use of survey questionnaire strategy in this research. There are several quantitative strategies that the researcher could have used; all of which are classified as highly structured strategies that is measured numerically using different kind of statistical techniques. Among them is the structured interview, experimental research, structured observation etc. However, the most common strategy is the survey questionnaire (Saunders et al., 2012). The importance of quantitative methods lies in providing the descriptive and inferential aspect of research strategy (Saunders et al., 2012; Venkatesh, 2013) which will be carried out through the survey questionnaire strategy.

Easterby-Smith et al. (2012) argues that survey questionnaire is a good way of collecting data from a large number of people concerning their opinion and behaviour. Neuman (2013), argues that if survey is conducted with good effort and thought, it can produce the most accurate, reliable and valid data. Survey can encompass questions related to the respondents' beliefs, opinions, characteristics, and behaviour. Also, since survey questionnaires are conducted based on a large number of respondents, it produces multiple variables, allowing the researcher to test multiple hypotheses from one single survey, as well as producing descriptive information about the participants. In fact, Bryman (2012) argues that the survey questionnaire is a valuable strategy that uses statistics to uncover regularities which contribute to the analytical aspect of the research. Therefore, this thesis choice of quantitative method is the survey questionnaire strategy. The justification of this thesis survey questionnaire is presented in Appendix B-7.

The following Sub-section covers the survey questionnaire techniques and analytical procedures.

5.7.2 Survey Questionnaire Process

The researcher developed the research hypothesis through the critical reading of the extant findings and explanations in the literature, which is stated in the Framework Chapter 3, Sections 3.3. As mentioned earlier, the survey questionnaire is developed based on the lacunae or gap-spotting of the literature review and from the interview data analysis phase. Once the survey questionnaire is developed, first stage is the pilot study consisting of 33 participants; where the collected data is checked for its reliability, validity and therefore usability for the main sample study. The second stage is the data screening, describing survey data, analysing the correlation between data, factor analysis and hypotheses testing. The purpose of this stage is to determine the reliability, validity and the usability of the data, and determine correlation between the constructs. Third stage consisted of checking the themes of the survey with the themes in the interview data. This stage enabled the triangulation of the data by comparing and analysing the finding of the qualitative and the quantitative phases in the discussion Chapter 8.

The data collection and analysis consisted of two phases; qualitative and quantitative phases. Qualitative phase is the fundamental study that aimed to explore and understand IC as the unit of analysis, understand and investigate the proposed four elements that affect IC, understand the effect of KCM on IC, and the role of HRM in IC. The findings from this phase were incorporated to the second quantitative phase. The second phase involved large-scale data collection and analysis through a survey, to test hypotheses in order to answer the research questions and generalise findings to the population. Neuman (2013) suggests six steps to design and conduct survey questionnaires (See Appendix B-8).

Step one is developing hypotheses as done in the Chapter 3, Sections 3.3. Step two is the use of SPSS software as a means for data recording. In fact, SPSS is used for both the pilot study and the analysis of main sample study (See Chapter 7). Step three is to determine the target population. First, a sample size is determined (See Chapter 7, Section 7.4) and second the population is targeted using snowballing. Step four, is already carried out semi-structured interviews (Chapter 6). Step five is the survey questionnaire analysis (See Chapter 7). Finally, step six the reporting of the findings, which is data analysis (See Chapter 7) and discussion (See Chapter 8).

5.7.3 Survey Questionnaire Pilot Study

After developing the survey questionnaire (See Appendix B-3), its usability as a reliable and valid measuring instrument is assessed through the pilot study. The pilot study is conducted before the main study in order to verify the measuring instruments' validity and reliability, and therefore improve the design of the measuring instruments; as well as to ensure that the whole questionnaire design functioned well as a whole (Bryman, 2012). The recommended pilot study size is usually 10 to 30 (Luck & Rubin, 1987b). The actual pilot study sample for this research is 33.

5.7.4 Data Collection

There are several data collection methods for survey questionnaires; among them is snowball sampling, used in this research. According to Bryman (2012), snowball sampling is when the researcher targets a small group of people who are relevant to the research topic, this small target group are asked to propose other participants to take part in the survey. This group in turn target another group, leading to generation of multiple survey participants.

5.7.5 Data Analysis

As noted above, data analysis is to be conducted in three main stages of the quantitative analysis. First stage is to conduct the pilot study. Second stage is to conduct multiple statistical operations to explore and test the thesis hypotheses. Third is to selectively conduct statistical investigations on equivalent variables of the first phase in order to compare the two methodological findings.

In the second sage, the survey data is coded and entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS 18) for analysis. Data is screened for missing data and outliers. Then the data is tested with several statistics to ensure its usability. First check is for Normality; to check that all data are normally distributed (Field, 2013). Second, Linearity to ensure that the data is in a straight line relationship (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012 and Hair et al., 2013). Third, Homoscedasticity, is to ensure that the score of one continuous variable is similar to all the other continuous variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Fourth is Multicollinearity to investigate the relationship between two or more variables.

The sample size is then checked to agree with sample size criteria. It is important to ensure the sample size is correct before data collection and analysis. An insignificant sample size may result in inadequate data to conduct the proper statistical analysis. A bigger than required sample size is only beneficial if it is closer to the population size, and will strengthen the findings. Also, it is essential to identify the response and non-response biasness in order to ensure that the selected sample actually is representative of the population.

Regression and ANOVA tests were conducted to determine the fit of the thesis hypotheses and variance model. Also, data were measured descriptively for the respondents' demographic data which includes: gender, age, marital status, nationality, educational level, location where high school education is obtained, location where university is obtained, work experience, job position, organisational sector, organisational domain, province, and some other knowledge demographic data.

Critically, several important tests were done to investigate the factor correlations. Factor analysis is also used to investigate the correlation between one set of observed variable against latent variables. Factor analysis is used to identify the underlying structure of the variables. Also, communality is used to decide which factors are meaningful and reliable, and which ones need to be disregarded because of low values (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Therefore, factor analysis enabled the researcher to only retain those variables that are unique, reliable and share communality with the other variables. Accordingly, several measuring instrument were used to ensure data quality and usability; such as Scree plot, Oblique Rotation and Pattern Matrix. Factor loads were also considered. Also, a confirmatory factor analysis is conducted to specify the model factors.

Third stage is to use cross tab and frequencies to selectively conduct statistical investigations on equivalence of variables of the first phase with second phases, in order to compare the veracity of two methodological findings. This enabled the researcher to compare the findings of both qualitative and quantitative methods (See Chapter 6 and 7) with each other using triangulation (See Chapter 8).

5.7.6 Reliability and Validity

SPSS is used to assess the reliability and validity of the data in the pilot stage and the main stage of data sampling.

Data reliability is an essential stage because it assesses the degree of consistency between several measurements of the variables. It is important because it assesses the measuring instrument's use for interpretation across different conditions (Field, 2013). In other words, it measures whether the used measuring instruments are actually measuring the target construct.

Validity assess whether an instrument is actually able to measure what it is designed to measure. It is essential, but there is no specific statistical measurement used for validity. For an instrument to be valid it has to be reliable first (Pallant, 2013). Both reliability and validity are discussed further and shown in Appendix D-12 (reliability) and Appendix D-13 (validity).

5.8 Ethical Considerations and Anonymity

According to Saunders et al., (2012) research ethics is the researcher's behaviour, standards and conduct in relation to the participants' rights, and protection of participants from any harm arising from the research. Codes of ethics are a list of principles that outline the nature of ethical research, as well as the statement of the ethical standards which act to guide the researcher's conduct.

The researcher ensured not to pressurise the participants to take part in this research, nor to seek access to data that is not permitted. In fact, the researcher willingly accepted rejection from the participants to take part in this research. At the same time, the researcher ensured not to harm the participants by the nature of the questions posed or by taking excessive time (Blumberg et al., 2014; Robson, 2011). Saunders et al. (2012), recommend that the researcher should develop 'participant information sheet'. It should include all necessary and adequate information needed by the participant to enable them to make a decision on whether to participate or not, which is done (See Appendix B-10). The sheet is sent prior to interviews and with the survey questionnaire. It contained information on: the nature of the research, the right to participate, participants' rights, the reporting and storing of the data, and participant privacy.

Another important ethical matter is the researcher objectivity. During the data collection, researchers need to ensure that they collect data fully and accurately, especially for interviews and not to omit any of the participants' responses. That is why audio recorder is used in order to register all the participants' talk. This added more data reliability and validity (Saunders et al., 2012). The researcher maintained objectivity during data analysis to not misrepresent the collected data. Thus the researcher is not being selective of what data to represent or to omit. This is based on the researcher's own integrity of how to collect and interpret the research data (Zikmund et al., 2012).

The researcher followed Brunel Business School Research Ethics policy consisting of several procedures for the researcher, supervisor and the Brunel Business School Ethical Committee. Brunel Business School requires the researcher to submit two forms; 'Participant Consent Form' and 'Participant Information Sheet'. In the 'Participant Consent Form', the researcher detailed information of the research project; such as the thesis title and the description of the data collection process. Also, the researcher identified any ethical issues or risks associated with the research project, and finally a signed declaration (See Appendix B-9). In the 'Participant Information Sheet', the researcher is required to state the research aims and Participants involvement rights; for this research information is provided on both the interview and the survey questionnaire. This sheet clearly stated the right of the participants not to answers uncomfortable questions and the right to withdraw from the research at any time, the confidentiality of participants, safe storage of the data and the purposes for which it would be used (See Appendix B-10). Both forms were approved by Brunel Business School Research Ethical committee.

5.9 Summery

Research design is the cornerstone of any research project because it determines the veracity and validity of the collected empirical data and the consequent interpretation of the data, to formulate plausible theoretical explanation. The strength of generalisations from research is based on a rigorous research methodology. This Chapter considered available research philosophies and methodologies to investigate the holistic IC model. This research project seeks to explain IC in the context of KCM and the role of HRM, as the holistic IC model, and support it with verifiable empirical data deductively. So, a pragmatist research philosophy is adopted and a

mixed methods data collection and analysis research design is thought appropriate. The pragmatist approach is meant for research that seeks to develop knowledge that is of practical use and which can be applied.

Chapter 6

Semi-Structured Interview Analysis

6.1 Introduction

The semi-structured interview data is important because it provides understanding of the IC phenomenon from the perspective the people who experience it, as noted by Patton (2002). This was the first phase of the analysis, where the researcher explored IC, the four factors, the role and effect of KM and HRM on IC. The data analysis in this Chapter is based on the developed themes in the methodology Chapter. Each theme will be analysed according to its assigned factor.

The findings of this first phase were then incorporated into a measuring instrument for a survey. This measuring instrument will add value to the research in two ways; first the findings of the interview phase are developed on a larger scale of the survey questionnaire. Second, the survey phase will further explore issues that may rise from the first interview phase of the analyses, in order to understand IC and its factors casually and statistically.

6.2 Demographic Data

The semi-structured interview demographic data were minimized to gender, organisational sector (private/governmental), nationality (Kuwaiti/non-Kuwaiti), respondents' organisational level (Top management, middle management or employee), and organisational sector (bank, education, medicine, military, oil, and other). Other demographic data such as age and salary were eliminated because they may be seen as sensitive and uncomfortable by respondents, and may be perceived as invading their privacy.

The demographic data were analysed as the 'people attributes' nodes in the *classification* tab of QSR NVIVO 10 software. Respondents' demographic data are related later to the interview analysis (see Appendix C-1). There were 41 interview respondents; among those 16 (39%) are male and 25 (61%) are female (Figure 6.1).

Figure 6. 1: Interviewees' Gender.
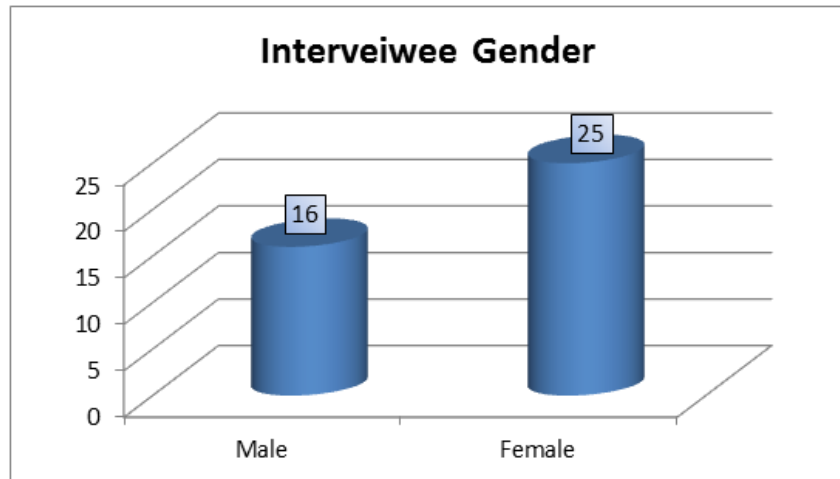
Among those, 30 participants from the governmental sector (73%), and 11 from the private sector (27%) (Figure 6.2).

Figure 6. 2: Respondents by Sector.
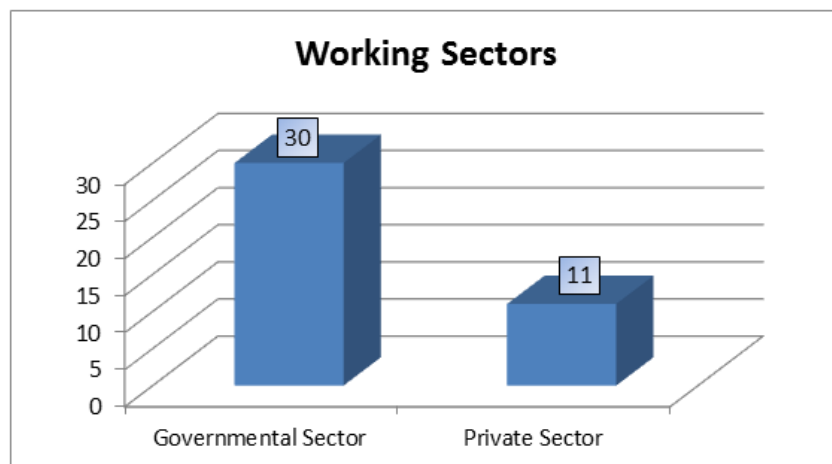
The participants were nationals and non-nationals. However, it was not easy to convince non-Kuwaiti to participate in the semi-structured interview. Ethically, an individual can choose to participate or not, as it is the participants' rights to reject any involvement in the research. Therefore, there were 38 Kuwaiti respondents (93%), and 3 non-Kuwaiti respondents (Figure 6.3).

Figure 6. 3: Interviewee Nationality.
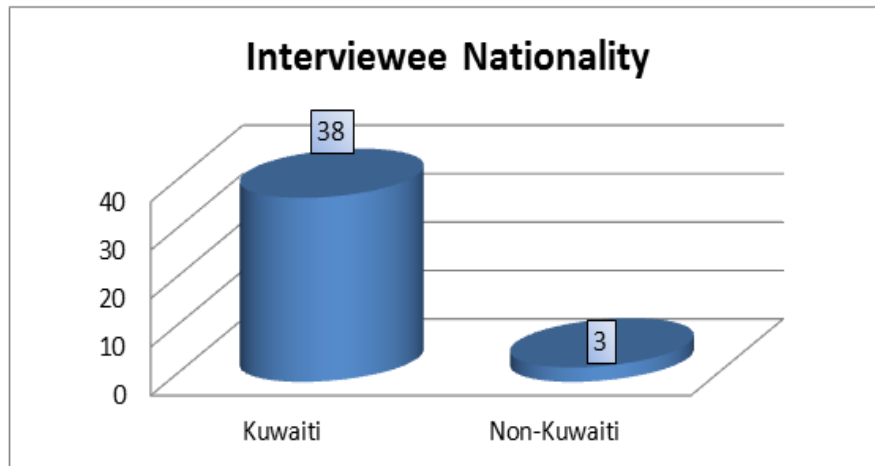
Respondents' organisational level was according to three levels; six respondents were top management (14.6%), 22 middle management (53.7%), and 13 regular employees (31.7%) (Figure 6.4).

Figure 6. 4: Organisational Level.
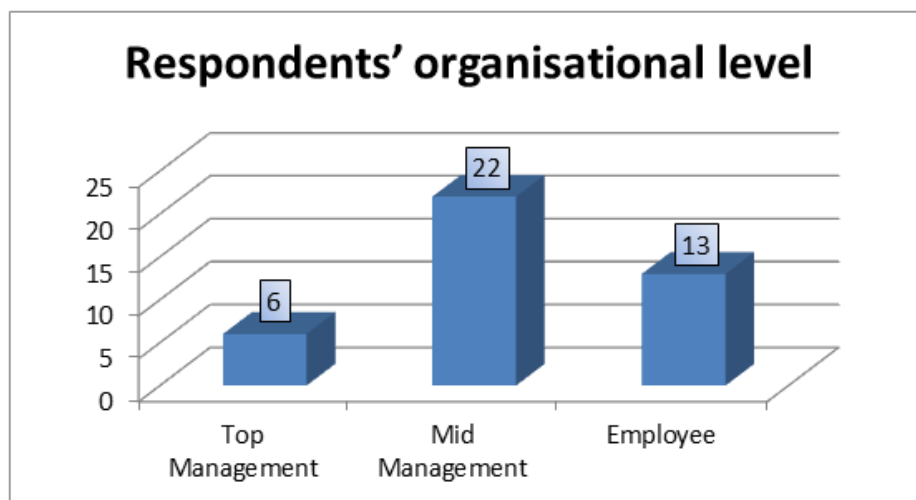
In terms of industrial sectors, the majority, twelves respondents (0.29%), were from the oil sector, (Figure 6.5). This is because the oil sector constitutes several different types of organisations. Importantly, the majority of these organisations implement KM. For the purpose of this research, IC as well as KM is considered while targeting the respondents in their organisation.

Other organisational sectors are four respondents (0.10%) from the education sector, another four respondents from the medical sector, three from the banking sector and three from the military sector; each with frequency of 0.07%. The remaining fifteen respondents were from other sectors (0.37%).

Figure 6. 5: Organisational Sector.
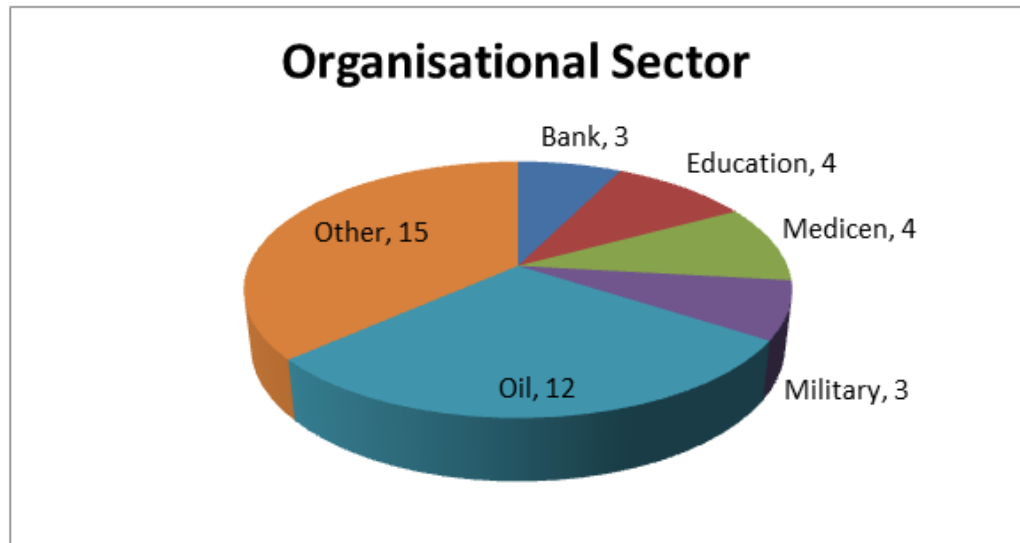
Respondents' demographics are necessary and are related later to the interview analysis and findings. For example, the findings may be related to gender group, organisational sector group etc.

6.3 Research Themes

The research themes were developed throughout this research in a certain order. The very same order is followed in this phase of the interview analysis; in second phase of the survey questionnaire and in the discussion chapter.

The transcribed semi-structured interview data were imported into QSR NVIVO 10 software for analysis. Forty-one interviews were imported into the internal 'sources' tab. This data was organised based on the developed semi-structured questions (See Appendix B-2) in order to analyse data according to the developed research themes (Section 6.3). Therefore, they were imported in the 'Nodes' tab for text coding. The semi-structured interview consists of fixed questions asked of the majority of the respondents and other questions emerging during the interview based on the respondent's answers; the emergent questions varied across interviewees. Each of these emergent questions is linked to its respondent source (see Appendix C-2).

In addition, each of the semi-structured interview questions was developed to investigate a single theme. So, there is one, or more, main question(s) for each theme, which is the fixed questions, and there are a variety of emergent questions that differ among respondents. Therefore, each respondent was not asked all the

emergent questions, because each respondent differs in his/her thinking, reasoning, knowledge and justifications (see appendix C-3).

After all the semi-structured interview questions, fixed and emergent, were imported to the Nodes tab, coding or text coding was performed. According to Edhlund & McDougall (2013), coding is considered the most important procedure in the interview analysis. It requires associating certain text with a key word or term.

Coding is also linked to each of the interview source (See Appendix C-4). This linking of sources, classification and codes enabled the researcher to investigate and analyse the interview findings in many different ways, by developing multiple links and relations. For example, a linking relationship can be performed between a personal attribute of a respondent to a certain code. Therefore, other respondents' attributes may be investigated as well, for a deeper understanding of that particular code.

After coding each question of the interview, the researcher analysed the codes in relation to its theme (See appendix C-5 for coding frequencies). This relationship between questions, codes, and their related themes enabled the researcher to not only analyse the research theme and answer the research questions, but also to find any gaps or inconsistencies among the interviewees' data. This qualitative first phase, as discussed in the methodology Chapter 5 (Section 5.6) was important to develop the measuring instruments for the survey questionnaire, the quantitative second phase, which took the findings of interview phase to a larger scale of respondents in order to determine more robust generalizations from the research findings.

6.3.1 Competency

IC is the unit of analysis of this thesis. Therefore, the main research question is based on those factors that affect IC. In the following Sub-sections, competency is investigated and analysed according to how respondents know and understand competency and the factors affecting them.

6.3.1.1 Factors Affecting IC

Interviewees were asked about the main question of this research: What are the factors that affect IC? Therefore, the following question.

Q. 01 What do you think affects employees' competency? (See appendix B-2).

The purpose of this question is to explore the factors that may contribute to IC from the workers' perspective. This question was coded according to the emerging key words that the interviewees used. The interviewees produced seventeen different responses of what are the factors that they believe affect IC. They are: "motivation, religious scruples, salary, bonuses and incentives, training, loyalty, experience, personal characteristics, rewards, commitment, conscience, responsibility, punishment, leadership, productivity, qualification, sharing knowledge", which were codded accordingly (see Appendix C-6).

The top three factors effecting IC are motivation, religious scruples, and salary. The least effecting factors are sharing knowledge, productivity, leadership, and qualification (see Appendix C-6).

The following is one of the interviewees' responses to the first question, organised according to top three factors.

1. Motivation: is the most frequent response: 21 interviewees (18.7%) commented that motivation has an effect on IC. According to Interviewee 28 - FKG-E-OIL, she responded:

"The other factor that affects me is motivation. When I say motivation I don't mean money; I don't care about money, if I care about money I would have gone to a private sector. What you should care about is your employees; they are the one who will give you their best and work to the end of the year."

The above interviewee commented on self motivation and the manager's effect when using motivation on their employees' competency. Therefore, motivation is associated with self motivation and managers' support and motivation.

2. Religious Scruples: Is the second highest response by the interviewees. Fifteen respondents (16%) commented that being religious drive them to work more competently. Kuwait is a Muslim country and even in its modernized society, it is still strongly Islamic and people practice Islam faithfully. Therefore, it is not surprising that individuals are affected by their religion; which also affects their competency. Interviewee 15 - FKG-E-MED stated:

"It depends if the person has the religious scruples and wants to serve people. We work to help people in the end. The more you do thing for the sake of God the more god will make things for you".

    3.   Salary: was the third highest response. Thirteen interviewees (12.7%) mentioned salary when asked about what affects IC. This however, does not mean that the interviewees think that salary will make individuals more competent, rather salary in addition to other factors affects IC. For example, interviewee 39 - MKG-M-MED said:

"If the salary will be given to me at the end of the day then that will lead to frustration. It is not fair to give those who work and don't work the same salary. I'm a heart surgeon, I don't want to be paid every month; rather I want to be paid per case just like a consultant. That's what they do in North America… Here, whether you performed 20 open heart surgeries or 30 or one, at the end of the month we will all receive the same salary… The salary system is not good. I'm against a fixed salary that will kill employees' ambitions. That's, what I will say, at the managerial level".

From the above example, even though 0.32% of the respondents talked about salary, they explained that salary alone is not sufficient to lead individuals to be competent at work. None of the interviewees specifically mentioned this research's conceptualised factors (PED, OJED, PT, OJT, PPC, OJPC, PE, and OJE). However, their responses are related to them. For example, 'Motivation' is based on the individual motivation, which in turn is based on the individuals' OJPC, and managerial motivation is based on OJE. Similarly, religious scruples are based on PPC and salary is based on individuals' OJPC. These relationships will be further supported with data later according to their themes.

Interviewees were also asked the same question differently: What do you think will make individuals work more? This produced 22 answers presented in Appendix C-7.

Interviewees commented that the reason for individuals to work competently is mainly based on their good personality (17.5%), ambition (12.6%) and motivation (10.7%) (see Appendix C-7). Accordingly, there are repeated codes in both of the factors that affect IC and the reason for wanting to work more. An opposite question was also asked to maximize new codes relating to IC. Interviewees were asked: What do you think will make individuals work less? There answers are shown in Appendix C-8. The highest four are: not caring (12 interviewee, 29.3%) with a percentage of (9.2%), over employment (7 interviewee, 17%) with a percentage of (8.2%), unfairly

treated (10 interviewee, 24.4%) with a percentage of (7.7%), and unappreciated (12 interviewee, 29.3%) with a percentage of (7.1%).

According to the above three questions on factors affecting IC, this analysis indicates that good personality, ambition and motivation are the most common factors affecting IC, and they are related to individuals' OJPC. It also indicates that not caring, over employment, unfairly treated, and being unappreciated are related to OJPC and OJE. In other words, they are compensatory of OJPC and OJE.

6.3.1.2 Meaning of Competency

The question on factors affecting IC was asked at the beginning of the interview, but the following question was asked at the end of the interview.

Q. 23 In your opinion, how do you define competency?

This is because the researcher wanted to cross-check the interviewees' answers at the beginning and at the end of the interview. In addition, asking direct questions may embarrass some interviewees, especially if the interviewee does not know the answer, asking indirect questions is less embracing to answer. If however, they know the answer they will be asked again directly to state the definition of competency in their organisation.

Interviewees defined competency differently according to their interpretation rather than being defined by their organisation. For example, interviewee 08 - FKG-M-MIL confirmed that they do have job descriptions that she has seen. However, when asked about competency her answer was:

> *"If he did his job on time and with good quality and made me feel good about his work, then he's competent. If the undersecretary asked me for work to be finished or order to be finished and I asked that employee to do it, if he did what I asked him for right away then that's what I will consider as competent employee".*

The above Interviewee is a middle manager. Her answers indicate that competency is not agreed for managers nor their employees. Though she classified competency based on the quality of the work performed, yet the measurement of competency or the definition of competency is not defined at her organisation.

6.3.1.3 Others' Individuals' Competency

Interviewees were asked about their opinion of their managers' competencies. Only two interviewees (10-MKG-M-OIL, and 21-MKG-E-O) commented that their managers were competent at their work. On the other hand, seven interviewees said that their managers are not competent and as a result it did affect them and their competency.

> *"It will affect us highly. If the manager is not competent how do you trust that you are doing the right work? I remember once that I did something, my former team leader, did not check the work and I was being training. He left me in a meeting without telling me what to do! He doesn't care about us. He's one of the people who is in the job I think by good luck. I guess they had an opening and they didn't find someone to fill the place, so they put him there" (28 - FKG-E-OIL).*

Therefore, IC as well as managerial competency is essential because each will affect the other. Interviewee 28 - FKG-E-OIL commented that their manager neglected him and his lack of competency affected them as employees. Reverse is also true, interviewee 08 - FKG-M-MIL, a middle manager has to relies on her employees to do certain tasks, their lack of IC affects her as a. Therefore, IC at different levels of the organisation is essential and would affect other individuals' competencies.

6.3.2 Prior Education

PED is considered in this thesis as a factor affecting IC. Accordingly, PED questions were asked.

Q. 02 Do you think prior education has an effect on employees' competency?

Interviewee (27 - FKG-M-OIL), commented:

> *"The academic education is very important because it is the foundation of these employees when they start working. But, the academic education is not enough to create a competent employee. We need to train the new employee and invest in him to create an employee. In fact, we will call the new employee; the fresh graduate for the first two years until s/he finishes his/her educational materials at work, such as English, computer and other classes, only then s/he will start working. If these students were trained and were given enough education prior to work, we wouldn't have to educate them on these basics things. If they were educated in those areas then they will be ready to work with us".*

Another interviewee commented:

> *"I believe that our prior education is fine because we cannot depend a lot on what we have learned prior to work. The academic life is different than the practical working life". (21-MKG-E-O)*

In both of the interviewees' comments, it is apparent that PED is important due to its effect on IC at work. The majority of the interviewees had similar opinion. However, PED is not the only factor that contributes to IC.

One interviewee believes that education has to do more with Breeding and giving individuals the proper manners rather than the required competencies. Another interviewee believes that PED is not related to actual work. At this point, it was challenging to understand and explore the reason behind their answers. Therefore, they were asked the following question:

Q. 03 Are you and/or other employees working in the same field of your/their prior education?

> *"There are many employees who are not". (21-MKG-E-O)*

> *"Yes, there are employees who are working in the same field of their education and others who are not". (01 - FKP-M-BA)*

Therefore, since many individuals are not working in the same field of their PED, it is understandable that it is hard to reflect the effect of PED of their working competencies. Nevertheless, two interviewees justified the reason for individuals not working in the same field as their PED. They argued that it depends on the individuals' specialization; as some specialization can entitle a person to work in multiple places and other specialization is restrictive.

> *"If the job were technical kind of job; such as engineer, doctor, and lawyer then the answer is yes. They are supposed to work in the same field of their prior education. However, if the employee is specialized in administrative or business kind of qualification then they can work in any kind of administrative job. The accountant and the lawyers however will receive higher salaries, and that's why they work in the same field as their qualification". (17 - FKG-M-O)*

Another issue which is part of the effect of PED, could be based on the educational curriculum. Interviewees were asked their opinion of the educational curriculum in Kuwait. Almost all of them agreed that the educational curriculum is good.

"I did my university at UK and when it comes to general subjects, me and the other guys from Kuwait, did not suffer, these classes where easy, because our curriculum where tough so when we came to study in the UK it was an easy thing for us...But do we really have to take that much of biology?" (30 - MNKP-M-O)

Therefore, interviewees agreed on the good quality of the educational curriculum in Kuwait, to the point that it benefited them when studying in other countries.

6.3.2.1 Teachers' Competencies

The literature revealed the importance of having competent teachers and trainers (Section 2.6). They are the one who will benefit their student through knowledge. If they were incompetent then that will negatively affect the students' gained knowledge. Therefore, interviewees were asked about their opinion of their teachers' competencies.

"So some teachers will teach us to understand and that's what stays in our mind and make us understand. The teacher that I'm telling about… he helped us and taught us in way that he prepared us for our future jobs. So we did have good doctors as I mentioned earlier but and we also have very bad instructors. To the point that you will never understand what he's saying, he will make everyone lose their attention; the exams are not very relevant, at the end he will use the grading curve and he will also grade up some of the students that he knows. Those are Kuwaitis and non-Kuwaitis instructors". (25 - MKG-E-OIL)

The majority of the interviewees recalled having both good and weak teachers. However, their comments on weak teachers are more frequent than their comments on good ones. In fact, one particular interviewee, who is also a teacher herself in elementary government school, expressed the effect of weak or bad teachers on their students in detail. The following text is long but noteworthy because it illustrates the effect of incompetent teachers on future IC.

"At one point they encouraged people to be teachers and they increased teachers' salaries… But then many negatives thing happened… They employed non-Kuwaitis who are not qualified to… these teachers are coming from all different Arabian countries and they have totally different accent than our accents and they insist on doing what they are doing. I tried to tell them that we have to read Arabic the proper way; that is the way of the original Holly Quran, the classical way. But they will never do that and they will keep on reading the way they are used to with their native accent rather than the proper Arabic way.

These non-Kuwaiti teachers said that our curriculums are fantastic, and if we compared their text with ours, you will find that our texts are much better and advanced. Could you imagine that these teachers are here to teach our kids; the things that they did not learn themselves! Would you believe that?!

Interviewer: How about her work?

The one we have is good. But the one, who is teaching my daughter, non-Kuwaiti as well she's from..., she's terrible, my daughter way of pronouncing English is terrible, she is pronouncing English like her teacher is in a very bad accent. In fact, we will laugh every time she speaks in English; she will pronounce it in a funny accent... Would you believe that they have many from that same nationality who cannot talk English properly to teach our kinds?!

Interviewer: Do they have a teaching background?

Interviewee: That's what they claim (she said it in disbelief), the funny thing is that the newspapers wrote about them that they are not specialized as teachers and there has been fraud in their documentation and they did that for the sake of working here in Kuwait. In fact it shows very clearly that they know nothing... They are not as the previous non-Kuwaiti teachers who were competent at their job long time ago... They cannot give good work because they are not capable of giving good work, that's the problem... These teachers even say to our kids 'do whatever you want I don't care' she will simply lecture the lesson and leave it as it is.

In the end they are young kids and they don't protest on anything because they don't know what they are offered, but in the end it is our kids who get harmed by such bad learning. The curriculums are very good but the teachers are bad. For English for example, the failing percentage in that class is about 40%, which is very high... It's terrible. And that is the biggest indicator that these teachers are not being able to teach these kinds. The problem is not the kids; rather it is because of the incompetent teacher who cannot deliver.

Interviewer: What was the school's action?

They called two old Kuwaiti teachers and they gave these kids extra classes in English. Poor kids, they have to take their classes twice in order to increase their knowledge in English.

Interviewer: But how about the incompetent teachers?

Interviewee: They did not say nor did anything to them... Also, there is one of the non-Kuwaiti teachers, she's a PE (physical education) teacher, she hit several students...

Interviewer: What!!! Oh my god!!!

Interviewee: Yes, she did that even though she knows that hitting students is against the law! Do you know what her punishment was?

Interviewer: What?

Interviewee: Written warning and they also moved her to another school.

Interviewer: Do you know if she's doing the same thing in the other school?

Interviewee: Yes, she is doing the same, she was in another school before ours; and she was transferred from that school because she hit students and she did the same at our school and of course she will keep on doing it because there is no punishment... They did not deduct from her salary and everything is ok with

her, so why would she act in any different way. Most foreigners will care about their salary the most but they did not even try to deduct her salary as punishment". (07 - FKG-E-ED).

This very same problem was also expressed by several interviewees. The above interviewee revealed the problem of incompetent teachers and the effect not only on the students (as future workers), but also on the other colleagues and the school itself. In addition, not having proper organisational policies seems to affect other working individuals by making them feel frustrated.

Therefore, according to the above interviewees, it is essential to have competent teachers in order not only for the knowledge to be delivered, but also for the students, or the future workers, to gain knowledge, and to maintain a healthy working environment for other employees.

6.3.2.2 Prior Education and Individuals' Competency

The relation between PED, IC and other factors is evident in many different contexts. For example, in interviewee 27 - FKG-M-OIL (Section 6.3.2) emphasised the importance of PED as the foundation of new starting employees. However, she emphasized that PED and training affect IC.

The interviewee mentioned several factors associated with PED. In order for individuals to be competent, they need PED through schooling, OJED through research, OJT through their organisational training programs, and OJPC through having the desire to work hard. At this stage of the data analysis however, PED and IC are associated solely based on interviewees' data. Therefore, the researcher ran the PED and IC model explorer in QSR NVIVO 10 software to explore the association between the two constructs.

The output (Appendix C-9) shows that PED and IC association through various themes codes. For example, IC associates with PED based on four codes; factors effecting competency-Beginning, Competency of others, other factors effecting IC, and Factors effecting competency – End. PED also associates well with IC on seven other codes; educational curriculum, motivation, Importance of PED, teachers' competencies, education system, PED Interaction With other Factors, and PED policies – Rules. In other words, PED and IC associate well from the qualitative interview data.

6.3.3 On-job Education

OJED was investigated for its effect on IC. Interviewees were asked:

Q. 04 Do you think that if the organisation provided its individuals with education then it will affect the employees' competency?

It is essential at this point to point out that in Kuwait, people will call any educational courses and practical training as 'training course'. The researcher however, differentiated between the educational programs and the training programs when asking the question. The majority of the interviewees commented that OJED is important for IC.

> *"It's very important" (34 - MKP-E-O)*

> *"Education at work has positive effect on our performance" (13 - FKG-M-O)*

In fact, in some organisations, OJED is considered as a job requirement.

> *"We do have a system and a process which requires that you get trained. They teach and address employees' weakness and what they need to improve. This is part of the performance appraisal process... But that is not always being implemented... It is by choice of the department. Some departments they do care...*
>
> *My wife, who is working in the oil sector as well, since the beginning of this system, they never sat down with their employees. The manager and the team leader will sit together and fill it up and send it". (10 - MKG-M-OIL)*

Even though OJED is a requirement at this organisation; some departments chose to not follow these requirements. The importance of OJED is recognized by the organisation, that they set targets to develop their individuals and praise their development according to that plan. However, if individuals were not educated at work, then their appraisal will not be fair. According to interviewee 10 - MKG-M-OIL, manager will not sit with employee to discuss it rather they will meet with the team leader and fill it based on their judgment.

Nevertheless, this is true in many different sectors in Kuwait. Yet, many interviewees demonstrated their desire to learn at work regardless. For example:

> *"There was one employee who taught me and I took a three day- training course. I learn everything based on these two sources... because I love my work" (06 - FKG-E-O).*

In addition to the department or the manager not providing training courses to their individuals, sometimes the received training courses are not effective. Therefore, individuals may not benefit from these courses.

> "They are investing financially in that matter, but the outcomes of these trainings are not as good as we hoped for". (25 - MKG-E-OIL).

> "You can always beat with a hummer, not necessarily that you are beating on the nail. Yes, they do invest and yes, they do care. But, I will say no when it comes to improving the overall competency". (18 - MKP-M-O).

6.3.3.1 On-job Education Choice of Educational Courses

Another issue that was discussed regarding OJED is the choices of education programs or the training courses. It was found that the training courses (OJED) can be assigned by the managers, based on what they think their employees need to develop. It can also be requested by the employees themselves based on what they think they need. Or sometimes it is assigned by the organisation or HR department because it is a required course for their employees. This however, may have some downside depending on the circumstances. For example:

> "We have a training centre called the Training and Education Centre, inside our organisation... Every three months they will send us these lists of training courses of computers and other things.
>
> Interviewer: Who would choose these courses for you, the manager or you?
>
> Interviewee: I will choose it. It depends on the employee himself and on their capabilities to learn… For example, I did take Word and Excel courses but I didn't implement these courses in my department… I can register taking these courses again if I wished to do so. They will not say 'no' to you… We have plenty of training courses provided by many different companies… One of the reasons that some employees don't register for these courses is because of the timing of the training courses. Most of the training courses are one week long; but this is the scenario, we go to work at 7:00 am leave at 2:00 pm then I have to go to the training course at 5:00 pm which is a tight schedule to me. The organisation however can provide these training courses during the working hours, but they don't want to do that". (03 - FKG-E-O)

In other words, for this particular organisation, educational and training courses are optional and the individual chooses to take any of the provided courses as they wish. However, because the timing courses are after working hours, some employees decided not to take them. Therefore, they do not learn new knowledge and the organisation does not benefit from potential gained knowledge. In addition, individuals may take training courses that are irrelevant to their organisation. Thus

there are two outcomes: first the organisation is paying for employees to be educated in a course that they may not need or use at work, and second the employee is wasting their time and effort on the wrong courses. It is the gained knowledge that the organisation needs from its individuals. As described earlier, many interviewees commented on the importance and the effect of OJED on IC. In addition:

> "If the organisation is realizing the importance of education and training and believe in human sources then they will have some understanding of training. For example, the oil sector is forced to follow an international standard. The same thing applies to the banking sectors; where they have to hire those who have qualifications and provide them with training. So these are required international standards. Only few organisations consider training as a need and have interest in career development. I have only seen that in the oil sector and the bank sectors". (20 - FKP-T-O)

Therefore, the OJED is not only essential for educating individuals but also for organisation to meet certain standards or certain criteria.

6.3.3.2 On-job Education and Individuals' Competency

Interviewees were asked whether they think that their organisation has provided them with good or sufficient OJED. Appendix C-10 depicts the interviewees' responses. About half of the interviewees (57.5%) think that their organisation 'do invest' in their OJED.

> "Yes they do that very much" (08 - FKG-M-MIL).

> "At one point our organisation sent many employees to finish their education abroad. They gave them a study vacation where they can go and come most of the time". (03 - FKG-E-O)

Of the 24.2% of the interviewee who thinks that their organisation 'somewhat invest', some commented:

> "They are not doing enough to train us. It's supposed to be much more than that". (11 - FKG-E-O)

Only one interviewee (0.03%) who said that 'it depends on the manager':

> "As for the policy and the system they are supposed to do that, but it also depends on your managers. Do they like you? Do they want you to learn and move up? Then yes and they will send you; If not then NO... Once I had my team leader, who is in the first line of management, he didn't even want me in his division. He didn't even care what I was doing; he didn't even care if I showed up to work.

However, many times I've been blessed with others who do care. For example, my manager right now he likes me because he knows that I'm a hard worker and because he's a good honest man, recently he registered me to be certified in six sigma course". (10 - MKG-M-OIL)

Finally, 15.2% of the respondents think their organisation 'do not invest' in their individuals' OJED. However, when associating IC with OJED using the NVIVO model (see Appendix C-11), it shows that OJED and IC do associate well based on based on four codes; Competency of others, factors effecting competency-Beginning, Factors effecting competency – End, and other factors effecting IC. OJED is also associates with IC on five codes: OJED is important, Kuwaiti vs. Non-Kuwaiti, Organisational invest in Education, the effect of OJED, and OJED with other factors. In fact, PED, OJED and IC altogether associate well with each other as depicted in the following Figure (Figure 6.6).

Figure 6. 6: PED, OJED and IC Association.
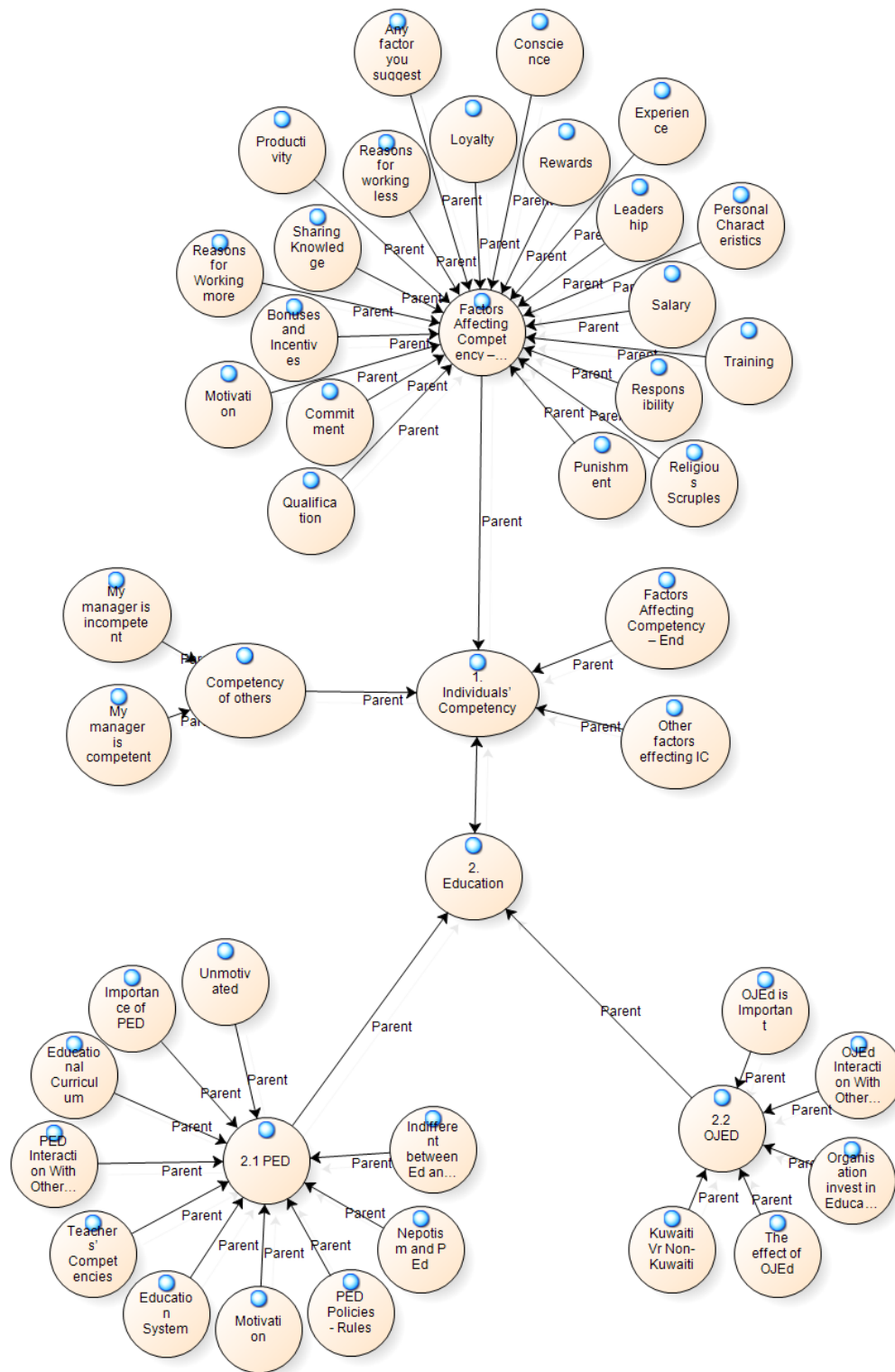
6.3.4 Prior Training

PT was investigated to understand its effect on IC. Respondents were asked:

Q. 05 Do you think prior training has an effect employees' competency?

There are three opinions on this question. Some interviewees' think it does (the majority), some think it somewhat effects IC, and that group thinks it has no effect. In the first group, 0.67% of the interviewees who answered this question commented that PT does have an effect on their IC. Some examples of their comments:

> *"Yes it (PT) affected the way I work too" (05 - FKG-M-MED)*

> *"Yes it was very suitable and useful as well. I have gained a lot through prior training" (07 - FKG-E-ED).*

In the second group there are 0.33% of the respondents who commented that PT will have somewhat effect and that it depends on several elements; such as the individuals' desire to learn and managers offering employees training. For example,

> *"They (organisation) will give you all that you need and in the end it is your choice whether you want to learn or not. Personally, I took training courses before applying to this organisation, it saved me a lot of time and effort. In fact, many organisations now days prefer that applicants have already received training before applying for work; it will make the employees more desirable by the organisation". (21 - MKG-E-O)*

In the third group, there were only 0.11% of the respondents who think that PT does not have an effect on IC.

> *"Prior training is different because they trained me somewhere that has nothing to do with my future work, it's totally different. They trained me somewhere and they evaluated me as high as possible but it will still have nothing to do with the nature of work of the social security, it is totally different work that I cannot benefit from at all". (03 - FKG-E-O).*

Thus, the majority (0.67%) of the interviewees do agree that PT has an effect on IC. As a result, interviewees were also asked about what they think about the importance of PT; they commented:

> *"As for sending students to work in real life organisations, I think it is very important and students do need it. Our organisation did participate in training students; they will offer them orientation at the beginning and then train them at work. They will train them for three to six months and it's very beneficial for them". (31 - MKG-M-OIL).*

More interviewees commented on the importance of how much it has affected them positively and prepared them for work.

Interviewees were asked whether they have received PT courses or not. 0.12% of the interviewees said that they did not receive PT. They also explained how negatively it affected them:

> "At PAAET (the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training) they do send their student to work for at least one semester… Nevertheless, everything that I have to learn for my work I learned it at work" (27 - FKG-M-OIL).

The effect of not receiving PT is that employees do not know how to act, behave or how to execute a required task. For example, in interviewee (27 - FKG-M-OIL), she did not receive PT and had to learn everything herself. This took more time than if she had been trained prior to work. Therefore, both the individual and her organisation wasted time and effort.

6.3.4.1 Prior Training and Individuals' Competency

The PT and IC were investigated to understand their relation with each other. Therefore, QRS NVIVO 10 model was run to depict their association based on the interview data, shown in Appendix C-12. It shows that PT and IC do associate based on the following code themes: factors effecting competency-Beginning, competency of others, other factors effecting IC, and factors effecting competency – End. Similarly, PT associates with IC on following code themes: no prior training, effect of prior training, PT is important, PT interaction with other factors.

6.3.5 On-job Training

Interviewees were asked about the effect of OJT on IC.

Q. 06 Do you think that if the organisation provided its individuals with training then it will affect the employees' competency?

Interviewees answered this question variously. Their answers were in four different groups: Positive effect of OJT, Somewhat effect of OJT, No-minor effect for OJT, and Negative effect of OJT, which were coded accordingly.

The majority of the interviewees (63.3%) argued that OJT positively affects their competency at work. In fact, these training courses are taken to be implemented at their work. For example,

> *"From what I see that those who are following the training programs intensively of Six Sigma and leadership talent management, they are working very well. I can feel that some of them are working very well". (24 - FKG-M-OIL)*

Therefore, PT for the above interviewee is not only beneficial for the working individuals' themselves, but it is also beneficial to their organisation too. However, not all the interviewees share the same opinion. Another group of interviewees (18.3%) argued that there is 'somewhat effect of OJT' on individuals. Their opinion is based on the following reasons:

> *"Yes, they did give that kind of training. But it was not sufficient. What I mean is that it was for a short time period which was not enough to be well trained. (13 - FKG-M-O)*

> *"What they have given him in this course is not necessarily to learn something, but is given to encourage him and please him! He said it's not exactly a training course. He was sent to… relax and enjoy their time". (29 - MKG-E-OIL)*

The third group who responded to the effect of OJT on IC argued that there is no or minor effect of OJT on IC (10.2%). They gave several reasons that have been coded as depicted in Appendix C-13. The majority of the respondents argued that OJT may have no effect to minor effect because of the following reasons: because the individuals is not serious about it (36.4%), because OJT is irrelevant (24.2%), because the training was not good (15.1%), because they do not follow training effect (12.1%), because they couldn't implement what I learned (9%), and some did not give any reason (3%). The following is an example of one interviewee who argued that OJT may have minor or no effect on IC.

> *"Employees will look at it as a break". (13 - FKG-M-O)*

The group who commented that OJT has a negative effect represent 8.2% of the total interviewees. The following is an example of their reasoning.

> *"Managers like to go travelling... you know even those training courses that they went for overseas, believe me they are not necessary at all. It's only a waste of money and these things are not being monitored properly". (10 - MKG-M-OIL)*

Nevertheless, as discussed earlier the majority of the interviewees (63.3%) argued that OJT is positively affecting their competency at work. In other words, its importance exceeds its negatives. For example:

> "Do you know how important that is? Let me tell you a simple and naive example, if they told me that they will train me on how to sit properly at work, I will go for it. The effect of this training will help me to prevent myself from being injured or have back pain and so on; you will be trained on how to sit properly and make the most of it in order to be able to work better and more comfortably. Looking around you, you will find many training programmes that they offer now and then for many different purposes and qualifications. If I don't get trained, then how can I improve myself? Also I will be board of doing the same thing all the time if I don't get updated.

> He said the effect of this course on me was tremendous; there were some problems at my work that I used to think that they are difficult to do, but after this course I solved them easily... So they did something to him that made him think differently. He exactly said 'I came back to work with a great deal of optimism'". (29 - MKG-E-OIL)

6.3.5.1 Individuals' Perception of On-job Training

Since there are some interviewees who argued that OJT is not effective because it may be taken for the wrong reasons; such as a break, vacation or simply because the person is not caring, interviewees were asked about their perception of why they are taking OJT. Appendix C-14 depicts that the majority (57.1%) of the interviewees commented that they are receiving the OJT in order 'to gain skills'. However, the second major group (28.6%) commented, that they took OJT for 'Leisure or break'. Also, some commented that they received OJT because 'it is a must' (10.1%); others (1.8%) received it as 'reward' and (1.8%) received it for their good employment record. The following is an example of receiving OJT 'to gain skills'.

> "Here in Kuwaiti we have many people who do special training for themselves; at their own cost. The reason why they do that is because they want to be better than other workers". (18 - MKP-M-O)

Following is an example of an interviewee's comment on the second most answer, which is receiving OJT 'for leisure or a break'.

> "He said it's not exactly a training course. He was sent to Netherlands and the purpose was to relax and enjoy their time". (29 - MKG-E-OIL)

Therefore, OJT will be beneficial if individuals took it seriously, if they were sent to the training course that suite their need and the need of their organisation. On

the other hand, if these OJT courses were not followed properly and were looked upon as leisure, a break or anything else other than to gain knowledge and skills, then individuals will not benefit from them nor will their organisation.

During the interview process, it was evident that many of the respondents blamed others for not being serious about OJT. Therefore, the researcher asked cross-check questions in order to identify the interviewees' own attitude toward OJT. Appendix C-15 presents their responses. It shows that 46.2% of the interviewees' attitudes was 'serious about training', 22% were 'not serious about training', 12.1% argued that they are receiving 'the right kind of training', 9.9% argued that they 'are not receiving the right kind of training', 7.7% commented that they did not receive enough training and 2.2% argued that they 'did not receive any kind of training'. For the last two groups, it is hard for them to comment on OJT as they did not experience it properly or enough to comment on its effect. Nevertheless, it is apparent that the majority did receive OJT and therefore the majority did comment on its positive effect as well as its importance.

6.3.5.2 On-job Choice of Training

Some interviewees had mentioned that they themselves can chose and register their training courses; while others argued that it is either a combination of them and their managers or only their managers. Thus in both cases there are advantages and disadvantages as mentioned by the interviewees. For example, if the individual is a manager and can choose his/her training courses, then they may choose it based on the location of the course rather than the usability of it. On the other hand, individuals are the one who know their point of weakness and can address them with the OJT. Similarly, if the manager is the one who is deciding on the choice of training course then, he or she may not know their employees' needs of training and so on. Nevertheless, he/she will choose the OJT course that is needed for their department or organisation. Therefore, interviewees' were asked who chooses the OJT for them.

Appendix C-16 shows that the majority (47.6%) of the interviewees have the privilege of 'them and the manager' to choose training courses. The second major group (28.6%) are 'the manager or superior' who decide, then 'Myself' (14.3%), and then 'Other' people (9.5%). The following is an example;

"Mostly, the employees will ask for it. He is the one who will say I need to be trained on something. Our manager got a lot of employees around him and he wouldn't know exactly what you need to be trained for. The work is being executed and he wouldn't be able to know who can't do what because of our large number. However, the manager may say no to training courses that we ask for and he might say it's not that good and he might suggest that you go for another kind of training". (21 - MKG-E-O)

6.3.5.3 On-job Training and Individuals' Competency

OJT was also investigated for its relation to IC. NVIVO 10 software model was developed to show the association between OJT and IC (see Appendix C-17). In addition, the model depicts that OJT and IC are well associate. Also, OJT and PT associate with IC as in following Figure (Figure 6.7).

Figure 6. 7: PT, OJT and IC Association.
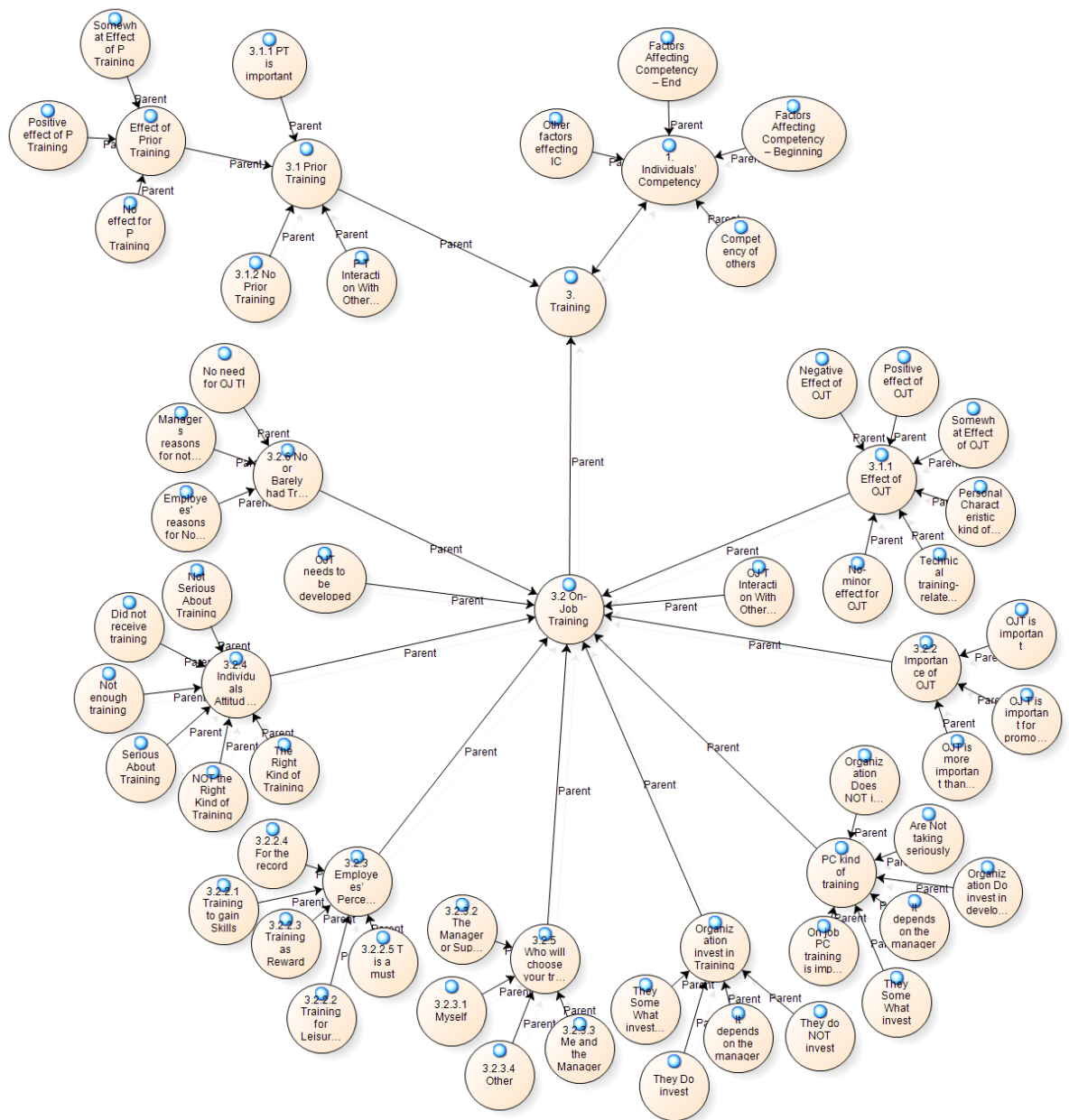
6.3.6 Prior Personal Characteristics

PPC was investigated for its effect on IC. Therefore, interviewees were asked:

Q. 08 Each individual has their own personal characteristics; to what degree do you think employees' own personal characteristics affect their own competency at work?

The majority of the interviewees argue not only PPC has an effect on IC, but it is also importance. The following is interviewee (24 - FKG-M-OIL), who gave a very clear example of the effect of PPC on IC.

"Prior personnel characteristics are a very important factor… Every year, our organisation will advertise job opportunities especially for new graduates. One of the applicants was exceptional in many ways. She was specialized in a rare major; chemical engineer, she graduated with the highest GPA among her peers, she achieved the highest scoring points of the organisational tests and she was excellent at the interview. She was considered by the organisation as a good asset. Therefore she was employed at one of our important branches. This branch location however, is considered to be far in distance from the city when compared to the other branches. She complained and said that she doesn't like to drive long distances and would like to move to one of the closer locations. The organisation did agree on her request and moved her to the main office. After few days, she complained that the working hours were long for her. Her manager said that he cannot allow her to do less working hours nor to treat her differently than the other employees. She decided to resign.

For the new employees, they need to spend three months period as probation before they get officially hired by our organisation; she resigned after fifty something days, in other words she couldn't even wait for her probation period to pass. What is funny is that after short time period she came back asking to be employed again. This time, her request was rejected because she couldn't wait to finish her probation period. The only way for her to be employed again is by applying when the ads comes up and go through the whole procedure again.

Her actions reflect her personnel characteristics. She is the best in term of education, gaining the best scores at our exams and doing great at the interview, yet she didn't appreciate her working opportunity nor was she eager to work. I'm not saying that the other factors are not important, such as education… but what I'm trying to say is that employees must have the full package. There is no use of them if they are highly educated but don't have the right attitude to work or if they don't have communication skills. If I need that employee to work for me then I need them to be willing to work. Education alone is not enough and they have to have the right attitude along with it. At the same time if they are willing to work they need to have the right knowledge and skills to be able to perform their work. (24 - FKG-M-OIL)

The above interviewee's comment reveals the effect and importance of PPC on IC. There were some interviewees who mentioned other elements that would affect PPC. Among them is motivation; the more individuals are motivated the more it will positively affect their PPC. As follows:

"What I'm seeing from where I am there is a beautiful spirit arising among the Kuwaiti youths. Many of them are now starting new business projects and there are many of them who are working extremely hard… in the new generation". (20 - FKP-T-O)

Another interviewee mentioned that individuals' status and gender will also affect IC.

"Women nevertheless are ambitious. But their ambition before being a mom is different than their ambition after being a mom… In the past she may not accept a position less than something, now you will find her forced to accept any position because she's a mom and she will take it for her kids' sake… She will

accept it and the most important thing in her mind is the working hours, the weekends are for two days and not to travel. All of these things did not exist in the past, before getting married... It is very important that you include gender, because no matter how we progressed, it is still a man's world all over the world... Therefore, it is very, very different between single or not, woman or man. A man will work hard, and will leave kids' matter on the mom without even thinking about it. But the mother cannot". (35 - FNKP-M-O)

6.3.6.1 Prior Personal Characteristics and Individuals' Competency

PPC was investigated for its effect on IC. A model of the gathered interview data on the relation between PPC and IC is presented in Appendix C-18. It depicts the elements and their association with PCC and IC. Prior PCC is composed on gender, marital status, motivation and interaction. IC is composed of competency of others, other factors affecting competency as mentioned by the interviewees at the beginning of the interview and at the end, and factors affecting competency. Therefore, PPC has an effect on IC.

6.3.7 On-job Personal Characteristics

Unlike interviewees' responses to any other question concerning the effect of OJPC on IC, the PC factor was conclusive by all the interviewees for its effect and importance on IC.

> *"Yes 100%. Personal characteristics is very important, in fact when promoting someone to certain position, we would look into their personal characteristics and try to develop their personality; it is indeed very important, in fact it will affect him always and affect those around him and his career path". (31 - MKG-M-OIL)*

The interviewees have also argued that there are several other elements that would affect the individuals' OJPC depicted in Appendix C-19. It shows that the majority of interviewees argue that motivation will affect individuals' OJPC (44%). The following is an example:

> *"Motivation is also important. The more these employees are encouraged the more they will work competently... Also, do those employees have the inner motivation to produce, to work or to reach higher levels. Some of the employees are devastated and cannot produce under his/her circumstances... They don't have the love or the desire to work nor the strong motivation". (01 - FKP-M-BA)*

The second most mentioned element that would affect the interviewees' OJPC is rewards (25.1%). Within rewards, there are several elements that will also affect the individuals such as financial rewards, non-financial rewards, any Reward, negative

effect of having reward (see Appendix C-20). Financial reward was the most discussed elements among the interviewees (50%). The following is an example of its importance and effect.

> *Some employees will feel down if they did not receive financial reward at the end of the year; most of those employees if you give them work they will say 'oh I don't feel like working' they should ask themselves 'have you done your work properly to deserve that money or reward?' (03 - FKG-E-O)*

Non-financial rewards (43.8%) were the second important element discussed by the interviewees. In fact, the financial and non-financial are nearly of equal percentage importance.

> *Our organisation is very structured even in their appreciation of their employees. For example, they will immediately send their employees a thank you card for helping other employees; that card will have even a stronger affect if it was from another department to that employee. They do reward them financially as well, but it is not as effective as those written thank you cards. They also give bonuses they used not to have, and now it is being activated again. We also have the employee of the month and so on. If we have a project and if there was a person who worked hard at that project, a committee will be informed to reward the hard workers. (33 - FKG-M-OIL)*

In addition, interviewees talked about the importance of 'any Reward' (3.1%). Just the idea of being appreciated and rewarded makes them more motivated to work harder. On the other hand, some interviewees mentioned that reward may have some 'negative effect' (3.1%). Some interviewees also mentioned punishment as an element that will affect OJPC of the individuals. The following is an example:

> *"Punishment is required but people should gradually punish their employees. In other words, you shouldn't punish your employees from the first mistake and issue him warning note, talk to him first". (17 - FKG-M-O)*

The third element depicted in Figure 6.19 is loyalty (20%), fourth is commitment (2.3%) and trust (0.6%). However, mid and upper managers mentioned Loyalty as a major concern. For example:

> *"But there is a problem here is that employees don't have loyalties. If you train him and develop him he will leave you for other places; that's the problem. I'll give you an example, when other organisations that operate on the same line as we do opened up the opportunities for employment. All those we have trained were offered double the salary and they went for the other organisation... The funny thing is that the new organisation could not keep up with the high salaries and they had to reduce their salaries! And they frankly told them 'that's what we can offer you for your job take it or leave it'. Many of them came back to us to work but we did not accept to take them back. Other employees have to learn from this incident". (02 - MKP-T-O)*

6.3.7.1 Individuals' Behaviour

Individuals' behaviour at work constitutes the factor of OJPC. Their competency was investigated through their behaviour at work. First to be investigated is their attributes at work. They mentioned many different attributes that will affect their own IC and other employees' at work. These attributes are presented in Appendix C-21. It reveals that the most common attribute individuals mentioned is 'feeling devastated' (20%). One may assume that this would lead them to do less work. However, this is not the case. The second common answer is the 'bad OJE but I do work' (10%). This indicates that even though employees feel devastated and their working environment is not good, yet they choose to work. To support their inner feeling and OJPC, they described their 'Ambition' (9%), as the third common answer. The following is an example of devastation:

> *"You will find a lot of people who gets devastated when they know that their evaluation and the evaluation of incompetent employees is the same. Nevertheless, if you talk to those employees they will tell you that they will keep on doing whatever they are doing, but they will also say that they are hurt from the inside. I think we are better off without the evaluation system. (23 - FKG-E-OIL)*

However, as mentioned earlier, though some interviewees mentioned that their environment is 'bad'; they are still willing to do their job.

> *"Would you believe me if I told you that one of the employees purchased a printer from her own expenses and brought it to work to make things look better and neater and in order for work not to stop; another employee took our news cover to a designing place to make it look better and more presentable, but doing all of that does not make a difference to our superior… When it comes to justice, there is no justice in here". (36 - FKG-E-ED)*

The above shows their OJPC and how employees deal with 'bad' or unfair situation. That is why it is not surprising that the third common element is ambition, as in the following example:

> *"When I first got employed, I was a diploma employee (two years collage). Back then there was a chance to reposition myself, but once I got employed, regulations got changed that the diploma employees will remain as diploma employee and when I obtained my bachelor they had another new regulation! If an employee obtained bachelor, they will not modify their position especially if they are Kuwaiti secretarial or typist because they don't have many of them, and they can't find a lot of Kuwaitis who are secretarial or typist; and that's not my ambition to stay as I am… now I really would like to do my masters and PhD". (40 - FKP-M-BA)*

The response above presents the proper or the competent kind of behaviour required of individuals. However, this is not always the case. Appendix C-22 depicts the different kinds of individuals' behaviour. The majority of the interviewees talked about the individuals' 'positive behaviour' (51.9%). However, there are 36.8% that talked about the 'negative behaviour'; this includes their own behaviour as well as 'others'. Only 10% of the interviewees talked about 'the effect of colleagues' on their own or 'others' behaviour. Finally, only 4% mentioned that 'others are helpful and friendly'. The following is an example of the positive behaviour:

> *"I listen to others and I'm very respectful to mom, dad, and older employees… Once an elder employee made mistakes. My employees said 'why didn't you yell at him for such a mistake?' I said: 'I will never do that, if he made a mistake I will bring his attention to it, but I will not do more than that'. I think it is the way we are raised which is to respect others especially if they are elderly". (11 - FKG-E-O)*

On the contrary the following is an example of individuals' 'negative behaviour'.

> *"I saw people who are not working, they did not come to work for 7 months, yet they still receive their salary! They did send them to the legal department to investigate their absence for the past three or four times and they still keep on doing it! If they fire one of them, then they might change their behaviour because deducting their salary is not working even though they are deducting a lot, they are still doing it!". (19 - FKG-M-MIL)*

Also, the following is an example of how colleagues can help each other at work:

> *"Because I couldn't take training courses, we used to teach ourselves by ourselves. One of our colleagues who wanted to attend the visual class, our department didn't approve it for him. So we agreed to cover up for him when he went to the course. Every time he comes from his course we will sit together, during work or after work, and he will explain what he learnt that day… We will sit and practice on it and we decided to work on a project. During that time my colleagues couldn't keep on going. So we used many things, such as books to learn". (34 - MKP-E-O)*

6.3.7.2 Managers' Behaviour

Managers are also considered as working individuals and therefore their competencies are also investigated. In fact, managers may have a bigger role as they manage more employees and their behaviour at work would affect a larger number of individuals at work. Therefore, interviewees were asked:

Q. 09 Managers have their own personal characteristics; to what degree do you think that they can influence their employees' competency?

Appendix C-23 depicts that the majority of the interviewees commented on their managers' 'negative behaviour' (53.5%). For example:

> *"If you have a bossy administration then no, they will not work. When I was a teacher, we used to love our work and we used to produce highly at work, but because of our bad supervisor who was very rude, annoying and very demanding and all she knows is giving orders, we hated our work. We hated the room and even walking by her office door… the way they give orders make a huge difference". (14 - FKG-T-ED)*

Following is an example of the positive behaviour of managers (32.5%).

> *"I worked under three managers. One of them is the one who developed my performance… At that time I was a phone officer in the call centre. Every week he would ask us what are we going to do for the next stage, we were only phone officers, and we used to think why he is putting such pressure on himself? we are only phone officers. He will ask us 'what have you accomplished?', 'what ideas do you like to suggest?', 'what things do you like to add?' 'What kind of training courses do you need?' and so on. For example, he arranged with the British Council in Kuwait to give us training courses in English, he also arranged with several training institutes to train us and to see which one is the best for us. At the end he knows the personality and the skills of his employees. He found that some of his employees did not believe in themselves and after taking those test they started to believe more in themselves and they even wanted more.*
>
> *Personally I felt encouraged and anxious to learn more. I was very good as the service quality progressed, so he trained me to become a coach and trained others as well. I didn't ask to be a coach; it was his choice because he believed that I have good potential in being a good coach. So that manager was very brilliant because he thinks about his employees and cares for them greatly". (09 - FKP-M-BA)*

The above examples of managerial behaviour show the extreme effect on their individuals. Interviewee (34 - MKP-E-O) resigned from his job along with one of his colleagues, whereas interview (09 - FKP-M-BA) is promoted from phone officer to a trainer in one year.

6.3.7.3 On-job Personal Characteristics and Individuals' Competency

OJPC and IC were investigated to understand their relation and interaction. Appendix C-24 depicts the interviewees' responses. In addition to the association between OJPC and IC, Figure 6.8 depicts the association between PPC, OJPC and IC.

Figure 6. 8: PEPC, OJPC and IC Association.
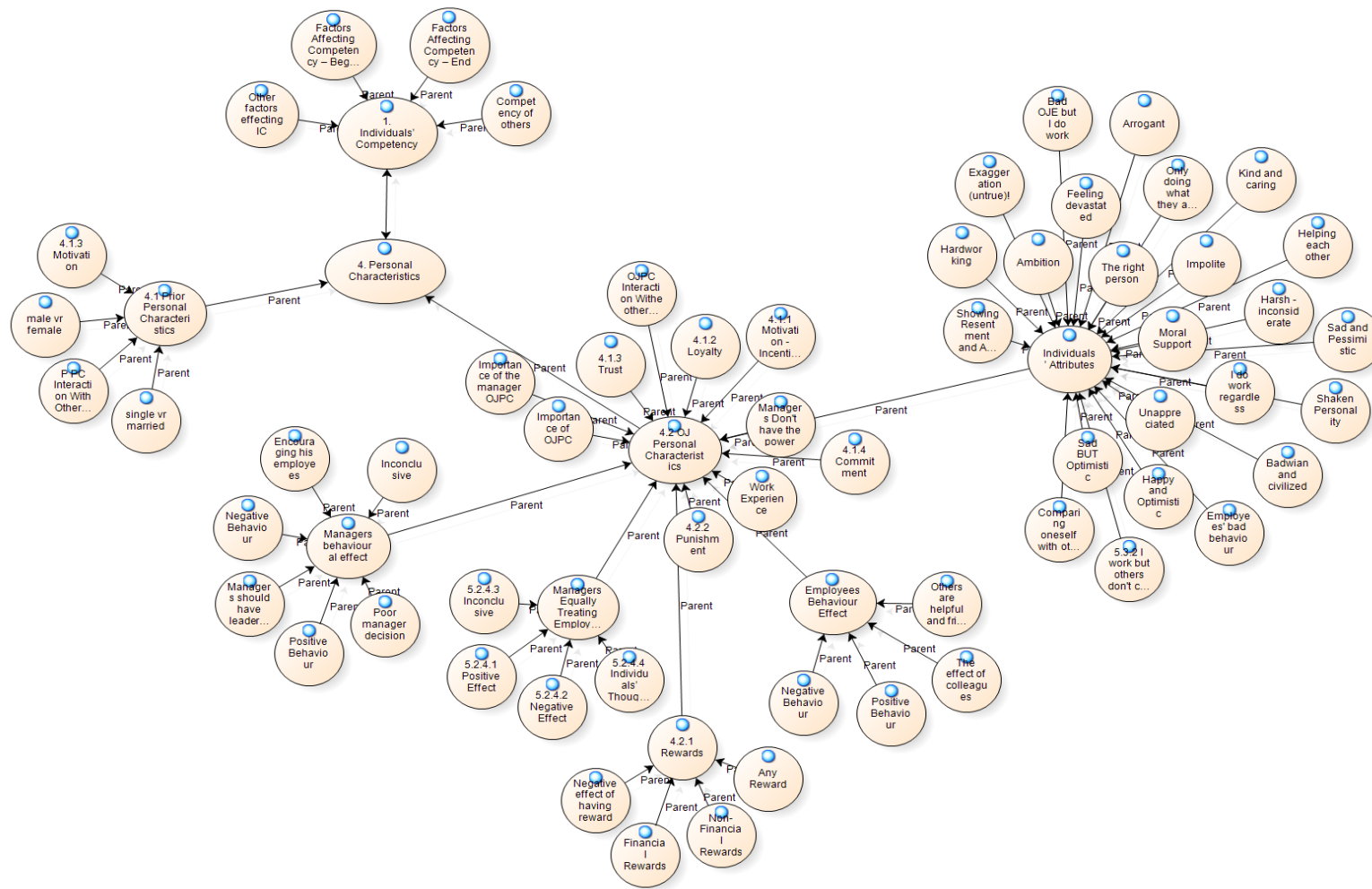
6.3.8 Prior Environment

PE is the culture where interviewees have lived and experienced; it is their home culture. Interviewees were asked the following two questions:

Q. 10 Individuals come from different cultures. Do you think individuals' competency is affected by their own culture?

Q. 11 Managers have their own culture. Do you think that the managers' culture affects the way they treat their employees, hence affecting their employees' competency?

Appendix C-25 depicts the importance of PE on IC. 93.3% of the respondents commented on its importance, while 5% commented that it may have an effect, and only 1.7% argued that it does not have an effect. The following is an example of the importance of PE on IC.

> *"Yes of course. If you were raised in a bad environment then you will behave similarly. If I'm bad at home then I'm bad at work... If I don't have respect for my father, then I will not have respect for my teacher for example nor will I respect my manager. If I see that my father does not respect people then I will not respect people as well. If I see my father yelling at his employees or other people or behaving in a certain way, then I will behave like him". (18 - MKP-M-O)*

The following example is from an interviewee who thinks that PE may have an effect on IC.

> *"I don't think that is related. This could be related to how he was raised and his morals". (20 - FKP-T-O)*

Finally, there is only one interviewee who commented that PE has no effect on IC without even justifying their comment.

> *"No. I don't think so". (15 - FKG-E-MED)*

In addition, interviewees discussed that there is positive and negative effect of PE on IC. This is depicted in Appendix C-26. The majority were commenting on the negative effect of PE on IC (84.6%); whereas 18.2% commented on the positive effect. This percentage does not mean that PE has a negative effect on IC; rather it reflects the amount of comments and discussion about this matter. The following is a sample of the negative effect of PE's on IC.

"It is because of the culture. Everyone has the same education but each is exposed to different cultures that affect employees' personality differently, specially the new ones. For example, one candidate said to me: 'Oh wow, that's a long time period of work, do I have to work every day till that time?' Our working hours is from 8:00 am to 4:00 pm, which is normal for a private sector. When a candidate says that, you can tell that she can't give much nor is she willing to try. It's strange behaviour! In the past our education and culture affected us, you will still see good production and you will see all those people working around you. You will see the mother, the father and other relatives reaching the highest levels of leading positions in the organisation. You will look up at them as a role model. Now, they don't have a role model to follow their lead and unfortunately they know that they can have these positions through nepotism, therefore they are not motivated, because they know they will get it in the end". (01 - FKP-M-BA)

On the other hand the following interviewee's comment is on the positive effect of PE on IC.

"The culture has a big influence because it is the culture that planted loyalty, the love to work, doing duties and being conscientious. A conscientious employee will say: "no I should not do anything wrong", so these things are very important, religion also has an effect… It is not only the culture there is also religion, house environment and the external environment; all of which does have an effect on the individuals' competency". (01 - FKP-M-BA)

6.3.8.1 Prior Environment and Individuals' Competency

PE relation with IC is depicted in Appendix C-27 using a model developer. It depicts that the two constructs do associate with each other.

6.3.9 On-job Environment

OJE was a factor investigated for its effect on IC. It is the context where individuals need to prove that they are competent individuals, at the same time, it is the context where organisations relay heavily on IC to succeed in the market place. Accordingly, this thesis argues that OJE have an effect on the productivity of their individuals. Therefore, interviewees where asked the following:

Q. 12 Each organisation has its own culture. Do you think that organisational culture affects employees' competency?

Interviewees were generous about describing their working environment and about giving examples. Therefore, many interviewees talked and described their working environment. The following is one of the arguments they presented about the cultural importance and its effect on IC.

"That's because of the working environment; it will make the person not loyal to the organisation, and he does not have to use what he discovered. For example, assume that if I'm a new engineer who is working at the KNPC (Kuwait National Petroleum Company) and I discovered a new formula, I will not give it to the KNPC. I will take it and send it somewhere else, and operate it and I will not use it for work… Because the organisation is not helping him to use it for work and because if he used it for work, he will not receive any incentives for it". (16 - MKP-T-O)

Interviewees were also asked about whether their working environment encourages them to work.

Q. 13 Does your working environment encourage you and others to perform competently at work?

According to Appendix C-28, 52.7% of the interviewees argued that OJE does encourage employees to be competent at work. For example:

"Yes to the better. He's active and he will usually encourage us verbally (their manager)… Yes, it depends on how good the person is to connect with others. He will tell us some jokes, uses nice words, encourages his employees, if something was wrong then they will guide us... Yes, he does. Even if the rules were against us he will say: 'I cannot do that because of the rules and regulation, but I will do other things'. Just saying that is good enough. It is the art of talking, even if someone makes mistake he will tell him repeat it in a nice way and he will make sure that that employee does it right and then encourage him even more. And it's all for free, but it will make all the difference for us and it will affect our psychology". (21 - MKG-E-O)

Some interviewees argued that their working environment is somewhat encouraging (3.2%). At the same time, there are 44.1% of the interviewees who argued that OJE is not encouraging them, as follows:

"Our working environment does not encourage employees… It's because of the bad management". (01 - FKP-M-BA)

To understand the effect of OJE on individuals, interviewees were also asked whether they are happy or unhappy with their working environment. 57.7% of the interviewees are happy at their work and they do love their work (see Appendix C-29). For example:

"I thought of doing like others but I love my work". (06 - FKG-E-O)

"It is very important that employees should like their work in order to perform. For example, my previous job, they used to pay me much more than this job but I did not like the previous one and I still prefer this job even though they pay me less… At this job, regardless of the long working hours and the less payment I still prefer this job". (29 - MKG-E-OIL)

On the other hand, 42.3% of the interviewees commented that they are unhappy about their working environment. For example:

> *"They should have promoted me that time in 2007 but because I was taking maternity leave during that time and they did not give it to me. Now it's been five years and they still did not change my title, because of that time that I took for maternity leave. If you compare me with the other employees, I have worked in so many projects that not even the older employees did as much work as I did". (19 - FKG-M-MIL)*

Even though the majority of interviewees (57.7%) are happy at their work and they do 'love' their work, the majority of the interviewees described their organisational environment as poor 62.9% (See Appendix C-30). The following is an example:

> *"We have unfortunately bad management practices. This bad practice is affecting employees' performance and their productivity… Many of them are either doing the minimum work or not even working". (01 - FKP-M-BA)*

6.3.9.1 Organisational Rules' Effect

Organisational rules govern individuals and their organisation. Interviewees were asked about the importance of their organisational rules and policies; the following is an example:

> *"Regulations are there to protect our organisation, whether they are regulation, rules or anything of that sort. If they breach any of their rules and regulation then they will be punished. Let's assume that he verbally insulted you, then he will be investigated. They might give him a verbal warning for the first time, the second time they may give him a written warning, the third time they will give him an issued warning, the fourth time they may fire him… So these regulations will harm that employee who breached those rules and regulations… It will also be the same thing if a manager did that to his employee. In other words, these regulations are not there for certain person, rather they are there for everyone's sake". (22 - MKG-M-OIL)*

Nevertheless, these rules and policies are not always serving the right purpose or properly followed and implemented, as depicted in Appendix C-31. 70.2% of the respondents talked about the negative effect of organisational rules, while 29.8% talked about its positives. Within the negatives effect of rules, the majority talked on how the organisational rules are negatively affecting employees (48.8%).

> *"There are rules and regulations but they are not implementing them the right way. We have the best system but they are not implementing it properly, such as the appraisal; if they do it right then our work will be perfect". (27 - FKG-M-OIL)*

In addition to the negative effect of rules on employees, rules and regulation are also mainly effecting organisation negatively (15%) and managers (8.7%). The following is an example of the effect of rules and regulation on organisations:

> *"On an annual basis the company will do a pinch marking between Kuwait refineries and Europe refineries. One of the measures is... or one of the pinches marking is the number of employees we have... The scale has four quadrants. They are called top tier refineries which are in quadrant 1; that means that their powers are much optimized... We were off the scale in terms of man power employment... We have more employees than we need... So instead of having one employee... I have ten employees... The problem is that I have a huge number of overstocked employees... Some of them don't even come to work". (10 - MKG-M-OIL)*

However, 29.8% of the respondents talked about the positive effect of rules and regulation. Within the positive effect of rules, 40.7% of the respondents commented on its positive effect on employees, 13% on organisation, and 9% on manager. The following is an example of good rules affecting individuals:

> *"Once I was expecting a bonus and they didn't give it to me. One of the bonus criteria requires me to do two jobs which I did, so I called the higher manager and asked him about it. He said: 'that's not right and I know that your name should be there how come they didn't give you any?' He ordered them to do a rearrangement and believe it or not I was not the only one who did not receive the bonus and we all received it. The reason I'm telling you this, is that things like that do happen". (27 - FKG-M-OIL)*

Based on negative and positive effects of rules and policies, it is clear that the regular working employees are the most affected individuals of these rules are. The second affected is the organisation and the least affected are managers. Therefore, employees are rightly considered to be the organisation's important assets, because with their success entails organisation success.

6.3.9.2 Managers' Treatment and Employees' Behaviour

There were many issues discussed by the interviewees. These issues do have an effect on both managers and employees. According to Appendix C-32, the majority of these issues are based on the way employees are working in relation to their generation (young employees versus older employees) (40.4%). Appendix C-32 depicts that younger employees are working less than older employees. The following is an example:

"We, the older employees who have been employed for more than 15 years, are the one who work very hard and studious at our work, mind you that we don't have to sign in for our attendance. We, who don't have to sign in and out of work, are disciplined at work. On the other hand, those employees who have to punch in their attendance cards or sign in for their work; are the undisciplined ones. We are calling them the new generation of nonworking employees... They will not care about the work flow... if they are in different section then they will not care to help, but in the end we are all working for the same department and we should help each other". (13 - FKG-M-O)

On the other hand, there are other interviewees who argued the opposite opinion. For example:

"What I'm seeing from where I am, there is a beautiful spirit arising among the Kuwaiti youths. Many of them are now starting new business projects and there are many of them who are working extremely hard". (20 - FKP-T-O)

In addition, there are the government versus private sector issue (23.2%).

"I should say that there is a difference between private and governmental sectors. In the governmental sector, after certain number of years they will automatically be promoted by default... In our private sector, that does not apply... it is your performance that will promote you". (22 - MKG-M-OIL)

Also, there are the evaluation criteria (14.1%), for example:

"Because we have weak rules and that does affect employees. For example, if I couldn't go to work for any reason, I will be reported as I did not work that day and they will report that toward my evaluation, but the next day I work very hard and they don't know about that... they are not following that with everybody. Some will be punished others may not be punished. If they punished everyone only then, no one will neglect their work. Also what is making everyone devastated is the use of nepotism. If I don't have connection and I'm a hard worker then they may not evaluate me as excellent, but other employees, who don't work, have connections, and you will see their manager giving them excellent for their evaluation". (06 - FKG-E-O)

There is also an on-job security (14.1%) issues. For example:

"So the reason they will leave you and go for someone else is probably because you are not offering them what they need... Not necessarily money wise, it could be motivation... you know. For some people it's the money for others its job security, for others it's the right challenge". (30 - MNKP-M-O)

In addition, the other issues are 'it's hard to get a job' (3%), 'not having the proper tool to evaluate IC' (3%), 'it's not hard to get a job' (1%), and 'location effect' (1%).

6.3.9.3 Nepotism

One of the important issues that the interviewees discussed is Nepotism and its effect. The majority of the interviewee complained about the negative effect of nepotism on them (92.1%). While 4.8% of the interviewees argued that nepotism has a positive effect and only 3.2% who commented that they are not using nepotism (see Appendix C-33). The following is an example of the negative effect of nepotism:

> *"Also what is making everyone devastated is the use of nepotism. If I don't have connection and I'm a hard worker then they may not evaluate me as excellent, but other employees, who don't work, have connections, and you will see their manager giving them excellent for their evaluation". (06 - FKG-E-O)*

On the other hand the following is an example of interviewees who argued that nepotism had a positive effect on them:

> *"That thing happened to me personally… I provided all the required papers to get applied in this organisation… however they did not sign my papers and left them a side. I had to use nepotism, so my connection called the one in charge of employment and asked when I will be employed? The next day I was employed… What is happening is a huge problem. People will keep on using nepotism and frankly we all need it, however it should be used in the right way". (29 - MKG-E-OIL)*

Therefore, nepotism can be either positive or negative. It is negative when unqualified individuals are being hired or promoted in a position. They will not be able to perform, to direct or to manage their job or other employees. On the other hand, nepotism can be positive if it is used when one person is being unfairly treated and they use nepotism to help them secure their right.

6.3.9.4 Kuwaiti versus Non-Kuwaitis

Another issue discussed by the interviewees are nationals and the non-nationals. According to Kuwait central statistical bureau 2013, the total percentage number of Kuwaiti in governmental and private sectors is 19.66%, whereas the non-Kuwaiti are 80.34% (See Chapter 4, Table 4.5). In other words, for every one Kuwaiti worker there are four non-Kuwaitis. Additionally, employment is getting harder for both nationals. In addition, there are many complaints about the incompetent employees from both groups of nationalities. Therefore, each group is blaming the other. Nevertheless, non-Kuwaitis are incompetent as discussed in the local newspapers.

Appendix C-34 depicts that 66.7% of the respondents argued that non-Kuwaitis are behaving badly or poorly at work. The following is an example:

> "Also we have another non-Kuwaiti who is very careless; we are very surprised of her behaviour that none of us will ever do what she is doing no matter how confident we are or how secure we are at our jobs. If anyone tells her anything, she will not come to work regardless whether she has excuse or not! I think it's because of the contracts. And if they deducted from her salary because she didn't attend work she will get them sick leave and they cannot do anything to her". (07 - FKG-E-ED)

On the other hand, 27.3% of the respondents argued that non-Kuwaitis are good and they are behaving positively at work. For example,

> "Non-Kuwaitis are hardworking people and they are accurate at their attendance". (13 - FKG-M-O)

The above comment is argued by Kuwaiti nationals. On the other hand, non-Kuwaiti have harsh feelings about Kuwaitis as well. The following is one of the non-Kuwaiti interviewees:

> "I am also against employing locals. I'm not exactly against it but enforcement of doing that in such a short time period is wrong. They asked for high quota of Kuwaitis to be employed in the private sector... There are foreigners who have been waiting for a job for several years... How can that bank be able to find those qualified Kuwaiti now? If that Kuwaiti did not work in the bank sector, then that will take a long time period to hire him, to train him and hopefully he will understand and in the end we cannot guarantee if he will turnout good or bad. There are good people (non-Kuwaiti)
>
> I tell you something. A person who has been working in a company for four or five years and they had to release him because they have to replace him by a Kuwaiti, how will that employee understand that?... Therefore, they should consider their situation. I'm not defending them because I'm Arabian, but they should think of how it will make them feel. A person may go on vacation, when he comes back, he might find himself fired!
>
> Do you know how many employees did (name of company) Company fired in total? 1,500 employees. The number of their employee is 4,000. Can you imagine how many of those are married? In other words, there are families that suffer because of it. I personally know someone (non-Kuwaiti) who has been unemployed for one and half year. He's fabulous on what he does. He's got two young girls, his wife who is unemployed and both of his parents to support. He's very unlucky!
>
> Interviewer: However the same thing is happening to Kuwaiti national. One of my best friends, (Kuwaiti) lost her job; they did the same to her. They asked her to leave. She's at least not married. I know another Kuwaiti man, and that's the problematic one, they asked him to leave and he is the only financial provider for his wife and kids... Government policy encourages Kuwaiti workers... now the government support is reaching the point where you have a 100 days of employment trial, during that time period the government will pay those

employees' salary. All of that for the sake of quota, but that's wrong. It is wrong to entice these organisations and have the government pay for their salary… The organisation can tell him to leave for any reason. The problem is that they are supporting the things to the point where these Kuwaitis are hired in a place when he is not wanted or he is not fit. In that case the government is not working for his benefit". (35 - FNKP-M-O)

As seen from the above comments of this interviewee (non-Kuwaiti), it can be inferred that they consider themselves better qualified than Kuwaiti. They also see themselves as being unjustly treated because of their nationality. The problem is that they see the truth from their own eyes. Regarding the firing of the employees from a number of organisations is true. However, when they fired employees, they fired individuals from all nationalities, regardless if they are Kuwaitis or non-Kuwaitis, whether they are the only financial provider to their family or a single person. Therefore, everyone was affected by this, regardless of their nationality.

According to Shimizu (1978) (cited in Nonaka, 1994) he describes how humans, as part of their survival pursuit, will derive meanings from their surrounding environment and to do that they will have to give their judgmental value to these things. Therefore, when the researcher mentioned the effect of firing individuals on Kuwaitis as well, the interviewee did not acknowledge that fact rather kept on given other example of how wrong of the Kuwaiti government to encourage its nationals to be employed in the private sector by paying their first three months' salary, in order for the organisation to decide whether they are qualified to be hired or not.

According to Kuwait central statistical bureau 2013, there are only 5.27% Kuwaitis in the private sector, whereas non-Kuwaitis are 94.73% (Table 4.4). Therefore, the government of Kuwait encouraged their national to work in the private sector by giving the organisation incentives to employee them.

6.3.9.5 On-job Environment and Individuals' Competency

OJE does associate well with IC, as depicted in Appendix C-35. Using a model developer, the depicted association reveals the relation between the two constructs. In fact, OJE and PE associate well with IC (Figure 6.9).

Figure 6. 9: OJE, PE and IC Association.
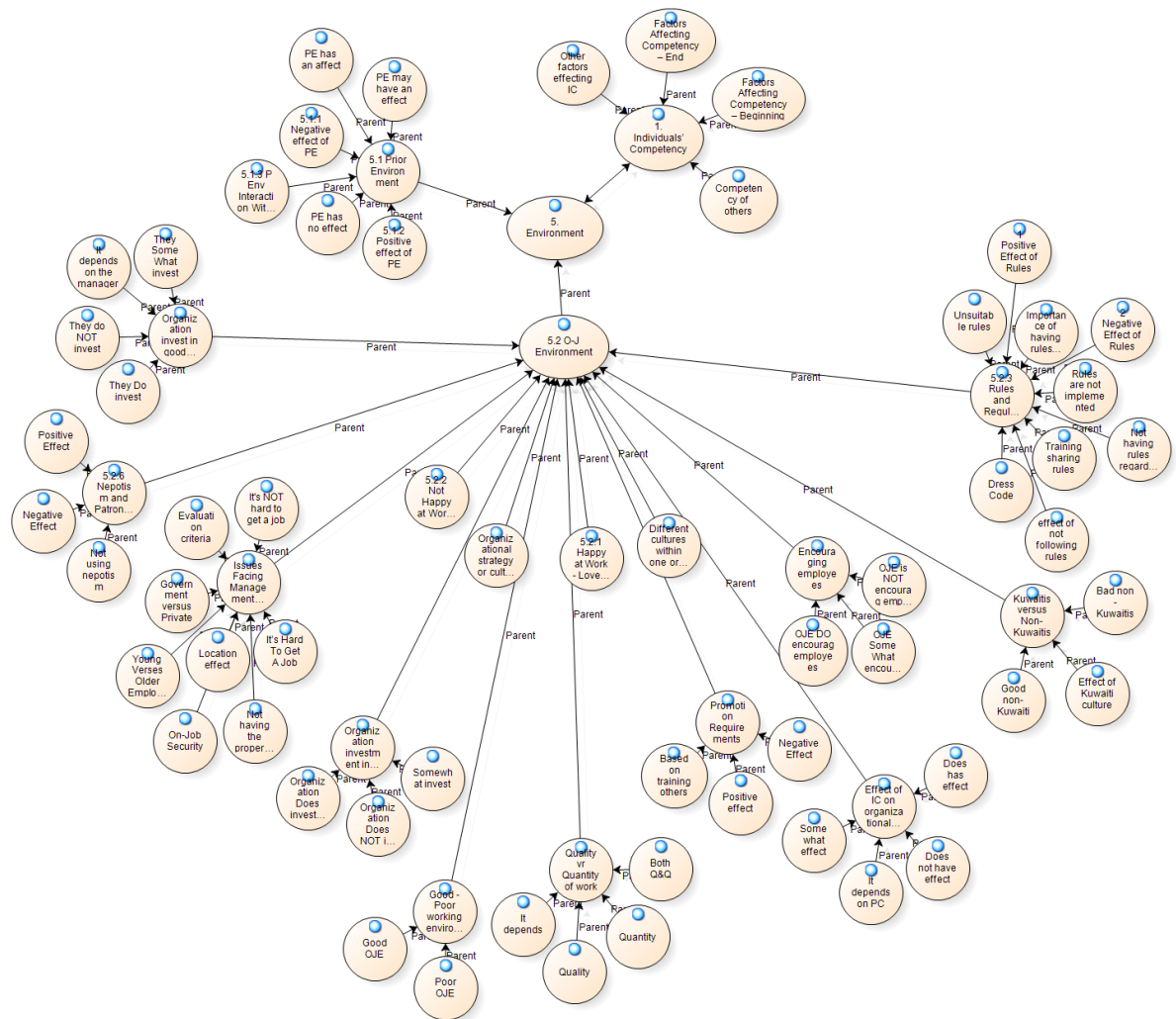
6.3.10 Knowledge Management

KM was investigated for its usability and its effect on IC. However, not all of the organisations in Kuwait use KM. Interestingly, there are many organisations that practice KM but not for the purpose of implementing KM rather for other purposes, such as keeping their employees updated, and sharing knowledge to develop a project… etc. However, the managerial and the organisational roles are important for KM to work in an organisation and for individuals to follow their role model, and to share their knowledge with each other and within their organisation.

6.3.10.1 Managers' Role in KM

Managers' role is essential in encouraging their individuals to share their knowledge. In fact, interviewees were asked whether their managers are encouraging them or

others to share their knowledge. The finding shows that 93.8% of the respondents argued that their manager does encourage knowledge sharing; while 6.2% do not (see Appendix C-36). The following is an example of the important role of managers in knowledge sharing:

> *"If I take a training course, that training course will not be exclusively for me, we learned that. If I gained knowledge, then I will share that knowledge with the other employees. I shouldn't hide knowledge… it is the nature of our work. For example when I first got employed, and after my training courses my superior asked me what have you learned? At that time I thought she was only chatting with me. But then, after sometimes, I realized that they want me to share my knowledge and that everyone was doing that. So, we will do that after every training course and now we will not even wait for the superior to ask us rather we will tell each other immediately and we will ask each other for clarification too. This thing is also part of our religion that we have to teach each other and god will be more pleased if people do good things like that". (07 - FKG-E-ED)*

One the other hand, only 6.2% of the respondents argued that their organisation is not encouraging them to share their knowledge, for example:

> *"This is the word of one of the girls actually used in the compensation department. 'I want to keep it as evidence'. I said 'evidence! Are we on trial?' she said 'I have to have it' I said 'why do we have to have finger prints, it all came from our HR department' but she will say 'No, no I need to keep evidence' But evidence is a word... it's too much, it's like saying I don't trust the guy and these are not behaviours that she learned by herself, she learned it from her team leader. He made them like that, I know the girl from the beginning, and she wasn't like that before. Her team leader is the kind of person who will use the strategy of 'divide and concur'. He would actually give work to each one of the girls and he will tell each one of them to keep the work from each other… That will also create mistrust within the team". (28 - FKG-E-OIL)*

6.3.10.2 Organisational Role in KM

Similar to the managerial role, the organisation also plays an important role in encouraging their individuals to share their knowledge. Therefore, interviewees were asked the following:

Q. 16 How would you describe your organisational environment in terms of knowledge sharing? (SECI)

The following is an example:

"In our working environment they do help each other a lot… This is in my section. We are few people and our work is very specialized and we do help each other because in the end our responsibility is based on the team responsibilities. So if I did not help my colleague... let's assume that my manager needs to make a good presentation for the board members and the overall presentation is a reflection of the whole team work. If my manager got underscored then we get underscored as well. We all know where each of the information comes from because we are only three to four employees working together. So if we did not help each other, we will not be in a good shape". (18 - MKP-M-O)

Therefore, when the organisational setting is based on knowledge sharing, individuals will not have any option but to share their knowledge. In fact, connecting one's success with group success will encourage those individuals to work harder and share their knowledge for the sake of success, as commented by interviewee 18 - MKP-M-O.

6.3.10.3 Sharing Knowledge

The above argument and analysis of knowledge sharing is actually assumes that individuals are willing to share their knowledge. Therefore, interviewees were asked whether they and their colleagues do share their knowledge, their answers are presented in Appendix C-37. The majority of interviewees argued that they or their colleagues do share their knowledge (62.7%). Within this code however, 9.5% argued that they share their knowledge because they have to. The following is an example of sharing knowledge.

"They are so kind. Both our superior and our colleagues were very nice with us. Even the school advisory, many people complained about him, but he was good to me. At least he brought my attention to many things that I have to be aware of and careful with. I learned so much form him and I appreciate everything that he taught me… He taught me more than the supervisors did". (07 - FKG-E-ED)

On the other hand, 31.8% of the respondents argue that individuals choose not to share their knowledge with others. The interviewees gave several reasons for individuals not sharing their knowledge; because of job security (30%), because of seeking promotion (20%), and other reasons (50%). The following is an example of individuals not sharing their knowledge in fear of losing their job.

"I told you, it's a very highly competitive market. They will not feel safe to tell others of what they know; telling you means that you will work instead of me. So they fear to be replaced specially now with the quota regulation. Therefore, you will see him holding onto the information he knows… Yes it is for his job

security. Even if he tells you few things he will not tell you everything he knows, he's too scared to do that". (20 - FKP-T-O)

Also, the following is an example of individual not sharing in fear of losing job position or promotion:

"Another important point that I should mention, is that sometimes people don't want to share their knowledge because they don't want others to be more recognized than they are". (17 - FKG-M-O)

Finally, there are other individuals who are not in fear of losing their job or promotion. They simply do not share their knowledge for other reasons (5.5%). For example:

"In this thing I would say it all depends on the employees themselves and in the end even if the organisation tried it still depends on the person and where he was raised and his culture and how he was raised, whether being secretive or open". (25 - MKG-E-OIL)

Therefore, sharing knowledge depends on several aspects; for example the managers' role in encouraging their individuals, the organisational role, job security, promotion system and the individual's personality.

6.3.10.4 Knowledge Management and Individuals' Competency

KM and IC associate well with each other. Using a model developer, the depicted relation reveals the association between the two constructs (see Appendix C-38).

6.3.11 Human Resource Management

HRM is investigated for its effect on IC. Interviewees were asked:

Q. 20 What is the role / effect of HRM in your organisation?

Only few interviewees answered this question as the majority of the interviewee could not identify the role of their HRM. One particular interviewee, who is from the upper management, argued the importance and the role of HRM as follows:

"The main thing is personality... Part of being HRM, you need to investigate your potential employees' background in the interview before hiring him. HRM may be reluctant to ask certain questions but they still can by doing it indirectly. For example, they can ask about his experience... You can judge one persons' education through his certificates, where as you judge his personality based on what he went through in his life.

If you look at individual who comes from incoherent families, they may be able to achieve the highest levels of education, but their moral is very weak… That's the main problem that might happen. Therefore HRM should have certain criteria to examine those individuals with, in order to maximize that they are trust worthy, they will perform competently and they will deal professionally with their colleagues". (02 - MKP-T-O)

One interviewee, however, commented the poor role of HRM:

"One time they send us on a training course… we were 7 employees. I and two other employees attended constantly, but the others would come for two or three hours late and leave two hours earlier. In addition, there are two that we did not even see the whole time. We all got certificate of attendance! All these companies that provide these courses are commercial kind training company. Our HR department don't care. The whole department don't care. The norm used to be that if they want to send someone for training they will send him in order to please that person (as a reward or a break)". (10 - MKG-M-OIL)

HRM is not only associated with individuals and their competencies but also associated with KM, as follows:

"Nowadays sharing the knowledge is the latest concept. So here, we also share our knowledge, not only with our colleagues but with others. In our CM division, we have HR forum. In the HR forum we prepared our newsletter and other things then distributed them electronically. And we are all also giving information to inform them. It's a periodical. Everyone should contribute in the forum. So knowledge sharing is very much important. And then keeping the information confidential... you have to discipline yourself, by doing that we can identify our problems or weakness. Suppose if we keep our information confidential and if there is any wrong or mistake in the report or anything then I wouldn't be able to handle it. If somebody sees or shares it with other, only then we can identify the problem and then we can develop it. So knowledge sharing is important. So, here we are doing the knowledge sharing not only with our colleagues, but also with our HR department. So it is a good thing. Knowledge sharing is a good thing". (26 - MNKG-M-OIL)

Therefore, HRM is important to develop IC and to facilitate KM within the organisation. However, this can only be achieved based on empowering HRM role. However, there were only few interviewees who were knowledgeable of the role of HRM. This gives an indication that HRM role is not major in their organisation. Therefore, for organisations to achieve the positive effect of HRM, organisations need to empower the HRM role.

6.3.11.1 Human Resource Management and Individuals' Competency

According to the above analysis, HRM does associate with IC. This relation is depicted in Appendix C-39. In addition, according to the above analysis, HRM is also associated with KM and IC (Figure 6.10).

Figure 6. 10: HRM, KM, and IC Association.
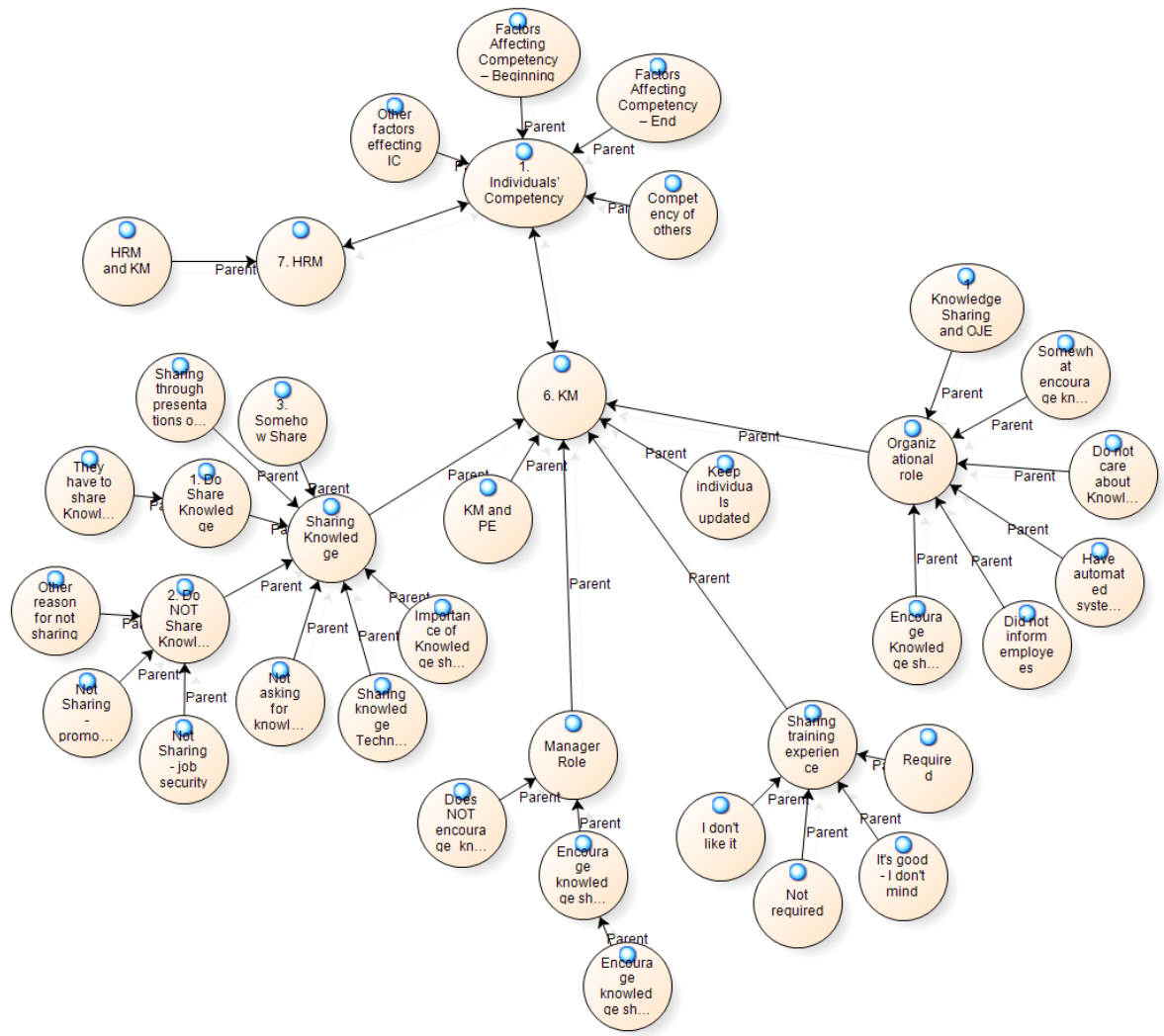
6.4 The Association between IC and the Developed Factors

The above analysis suggests the interrelation and association of IC with all the developed factors. Therefore, QSR NVIVO 10 model developer was used to depict the association between the dependent variable IC and the independent variables PED, OJED, PT, OJT, PPC, OJPC, PE, OJE, KM, and HRM, as shown in Figure 6.11. In addition, a word query was also developed to depict the most used words (Appendix C-40). It depicts that the most used words are mainly 'training', 'competency', 'job', 'education', 'people', 'manager', 'organisation' and others.

Figure 6. 11: The Association between IC and the Developed Factors.
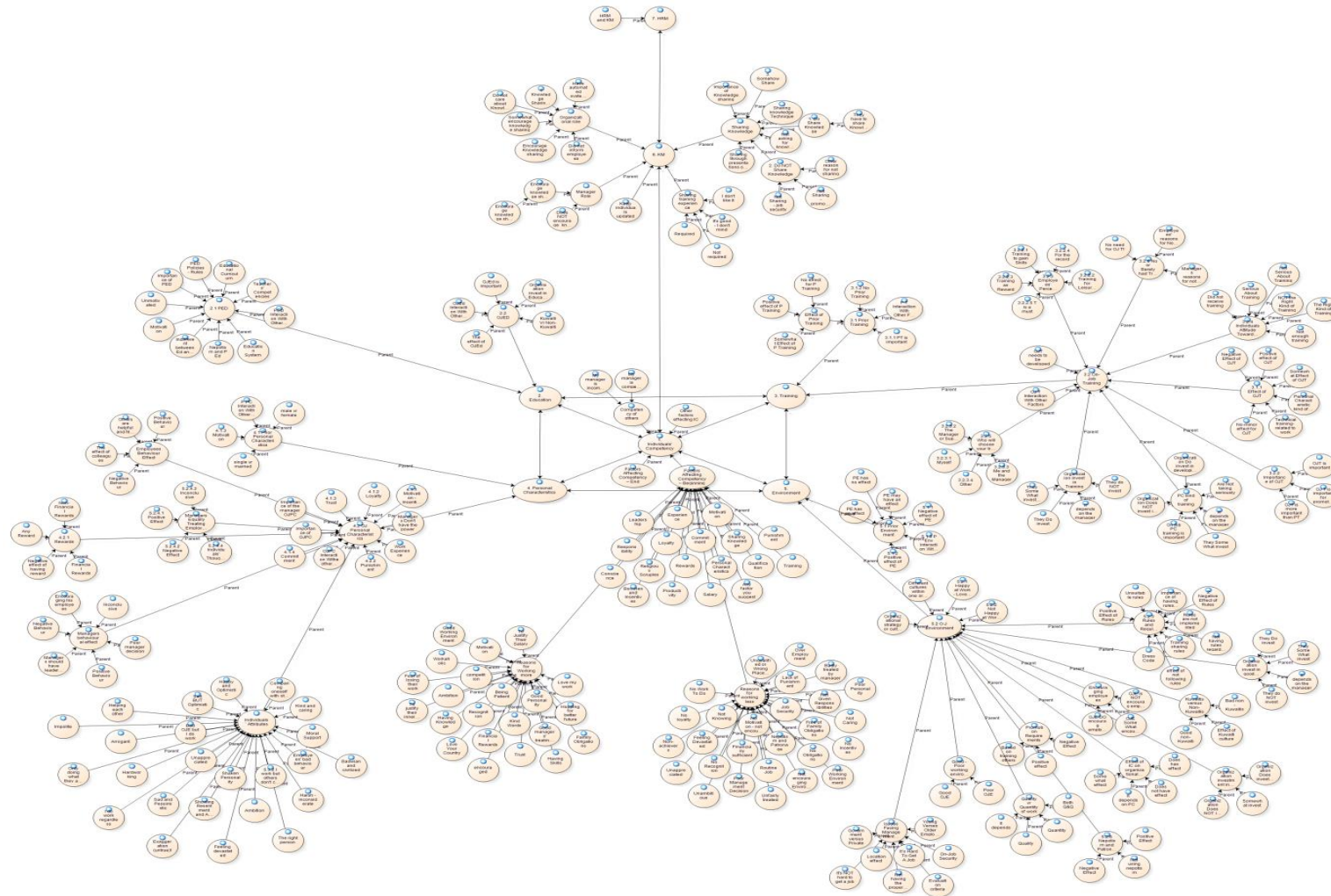
6.5 Summary

According to the developed themes, the empirical data supports the development of the research constructs. Each of the research themes holds the corresponding factor that is analysed in relation to its effect on IC. The research findings of this phase reveal that correlation between IC and each of the factors. While, the majority of the themes hold a clear position of what the interviewees think, there are few issues that the interviewees were not conclusive about. This however, can be overcome with the quantitative approach of second survey phase. Therefore, the first interview phase findings are developed further for further research exploration that was carried out in the second survey phase of analysis.

Chapter 7

Survey Questionnaire Analysis

7.1 Introduction

This Chapter is the data analysis of the second quantitative phase. The findings of the semi-structured interviews were used to further develop the same measuring instruments quantitatively and by adding new emerging issues as further research items.

The data is analysed in three stages. In the first stage of pilot study, the measuring instrument is tested to check reliability and validity. The second stage consisted of data screening, sample data analysis, factor analysis, and hypothesis testing. The third stage consisted of statistical tests to assess the significance of the results.

7.2 First Stage: Pilot Study

A pilot study should be conducted prior to the main survey questionnaire (Saunders et al., 2012). According to Creswell (2013), pilot study is an important process to ensure data validity and reliability of the measuring instrument. It is also essential for improving the questions formatting and scale design. Creswell (2013) and Saunders et al. (2012), argue that survey questionnaires help to refine the questionnaire and incorporate what respondents think of the survey, which helps to improve it for the bigger scale sample. Critically, pilot study is an indicator that the developed questions will succeed in answering the research questions, as well as to test the thesis hypotheses.

The pilot study was conducted in December 2012 by email to 40 respondents in Kuwait. The pilot study size should be less than 100 respondents according to Diamantopoulos & Siguaw (2000) and at least 10 respondents (Fink, 2013), or according to Luck & Rubin (1987) between 10 to 30 respondents. Out of the 40 surveys, 2 were not completed, 5 had large number of missing data. Therefore, 7 were excluded and 33 completed questionnaires were collected for the pilot study. The pilot study response rate was 83%. A five point Likert scale is used ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree and distributed to working individuals to

investigate their competency, and to assess whether the developed measuring instrument is actually measuring what it is intended to measure.

After collecting the pilot study questionnaire, respondents' comments to improve the survey questionnaire were discussed and minor modifications were made. Then, the pilot study is measured for its reliability (Appendix D-1) and validity (Appendix D-2). The first stage of the pilot study indicates that the survey questionnaires are indeed reliable and valid. Therefore, the researcher moved to the main study analysis (second stage).

7.3 Second Stage: Data Screening, Analysis and Factor Analysis

The research survey questionnaire took over three months to conduct. More than 1200 survey questionnaires were distributed in Arabic and English as hard copy (See appendix B-2 to B-5). The snow ball sampling method is used to collect the survey questionnaire data (Section 5.7.). Surveys were distributed to private, governmental and joint venture organisations, and covered different levels within organisations, in all six provinces of Kuwait and with a combination of other demographic data, to develop better understanding of the factors affecting IC in Kuwait (Appendix D-14, Table D-14.1). Fifty survey questionnaires were distributed using Monkey Survey website; of which 27 were completed. Among the rejected surveys: one is illegible because the respondent chose 'Agree' to almost all of the questions, and 22 have more than 50% missing answers. Email was also used: 6 were e-mailed and 2 were completed but their answers were illegible, and 4 were eliminated because of missing answers. Hard copy distribution was also used. Of the 1200 distributed questionnaire, 898 were answered. Monkey survey, emails survey and hard copy survey underwent visual screening to check initial legibility. Of the 898 questionnaires only 734 were accepted and 164 eliminated. The reasons for elimination included: 103 surveys were missing more than 50 % of the data, 30 survey respondents chose mainly 'Agree', 6 chose mainly 'Neutral', 14 were making random responses and 11 surveys had duplicate answers. Therefore, the total completed legible survey questionnaires for data analysis is 763 (27+2+734). Data and variable screening is performed. Data is entered into SPSS. Prior to this procedure the researcher ensures that the sample size is acceptable. Two steps in data and variable screening were followed to prepare the

data for effective analysis: missing data (Appendix D-3) and outlier (Appendix D-4) checks.

7.4 Sample Size

Determining the required sample size is the critical initial stage of the research. The sample represents the population. An appropriate and adequate sample size is required because of its effect on research accuracy and quality (Barlett et al., 2001; Field, 2013). Since the quantitative method used is based on continuous and categorical variables, using multiple regression and factor analysis, the procedure for determining the sample size is based on Cochran's (1977) formula.

Generalizations from the sample size can be considered as representative of the population, if the sample size is within the limit of random error (Barlett et al., 2001). Random error is part of sample error. Wunsch & Gades (1986) state that the most common mistakes are not considering the sample error when determining the size of the sample and disregarding response and non-response bias (Appendix D-11). To determine this thesis sample size two estimations were considered, variance estimation (Appendix D-5) and categorical sample size (Appendix D-6).

7.5 Normality, Linearity and Homoscedasticity, Multicollinearity and Response Rate and Non-Response Biasness.

Multivariate analysis normality assumes that all variables and each linear combination are normally distributed. Using normal distribution improves significant tests' veracity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). The more variables are apart from the distribution line, the less robust they become. The more the data are normally distributed, linearity and homoscedasticity, the more the analysis will be enhanced (Bradley, 1982 and Hair et al. 2013 and Gray & Kinnear, 2011). Therefore, it is essential to test the research data for Normality (Appendix D-7), Linearity (Appendix D-8), Homoscedasticity (Appendix D-9), Multicollinearity (Appendix D-10) and Response rate and non-response biasness (Appendix D-11).

The next step is similar to the pilot study; where the reliability (Appendix D-12) and validity (Appendix D-13) of the sample size is investigated. The investigation shows

that the sample size is reliable and valid. Therefore, the proceeding Section is the analyses of the respondents' demographic data.

7.6 Respondents' Demographic Details

The demographic data of the respondents are grouped into two different sections. The first section is about the general demographic data of the respondent (Appendix D-14, Table D-14.1). The second section of the demographic data is about respondent's nature of work and the working environment (Appendix D-14, Table D-14.2).

The first demographic data contains the following items; Gender, Age, Marital Status, Nationality, Educational level, High school location, University location, Work Experience, Job Position, Organisational Sector, Organisational Domain and Province. In the gender item, both genders were close in distribution to each other. However, 56.9% (n=434) of the respondents were female and mainly from the age groups of 19 to 49. The majority of the respondents were married (60.4%, n=461), followed by 30.9% single respondents (n=236). 77.1 % (n= 588) of the respondent were Kuwaiti national, and 18.2% (n=139) were other Arabian nationality and 4.7% (n= 36) were non-Arabian. The work force in Kuwait is 1,478,290 for the year 2013. Among them 80% (1,187,694) are non-Kuwaiti and 19.66% (290,596) are Kuwaitis (see Chapter 4, Table 4.5); it is harder to convince some non-Kuwaiti to participate in the research.

The educational level of the respondents is fairly high. 54.7% (n= 417) of the respondents had bachelor degrees, and 24.1% (n=184) heled diplomas. Since education is a variable predicted to affect IC, more education demographical questions were asked. For example, they were asked where they did their high school qualification. The demographic data for this question is not surprising, since the majority of the respondents were Kuwaiti national; 74.8% (n= 571) of the respondents obtained their education in Kuwait. This high percentage permits better understanding of the effect of Kuwaiti education system on IC. University level education was different; 53.6% (n=409) received their bachelor degree in Kuwait and 27.1% (n=207) from abroad. The majority of the respondents worked for 15 years or less; specifically, 31.3% (n= 239) worked for 0 – 5 years and 37.9% (n= 289) worked for 6 – 15 years. Among them, 30.4% (n= 232) were in middle management

positions. Different economic sectors were represented: education (17%, n=130), oil (10.2%, n= 78), banking (10.1%, n= 77) and others. For organisational domain, the highest representation was from the governmental sector (64.2%, n=490) and lowest in the joint venture (6.6%, n= 50) (See Appendix D-14, Table D-14.1).

The other kind of demographic data is based on the respondents' job. It investigated the respondents' working environment; namely, decision making, policies, training, promotion, personal characteristics, reward, assessment and fair treatment (See Appendix D-14, Table D-14.2). It shows that the majority of decision making was done traditionally as Top-down decision making (53.9%, n=411) and the ideal way of decision making is the 'Middle-up-down' which was only 38% (n= 290). Since this study focused on IC, respondents were asked what they think constitutes the meaning of competency; 60.3% (n= 460) chose that is a combination of several categories. Also, as a way of developing IC, respondents were asked about the number of training courses they attended. They were fairly distributed; 29.9% (n=227) twice or more a year, 24.8% (n= 188) once a year and 23.9% (182) once every several years. Personal characteristics is another factor under investigation; so respondents were asked what they would do to be promoted; 80.2% (n= 612) chose that they will do anything as long as it is right and to work in a governmental sector. Surprisingly, 19 respondents (2.5%) actually admitted that they will do anything for promotion even if it is unethical. This answer could either be intentional or unintentional; however it can be linked to their personal characteristics. In fact, there were respondents (9.85, n= 75) who did not have the ambition to be promoted.

Respondent were also asked about their preference of organisational sector; the majority prefers working in the governmental sector (32.4%, n=247). However, what is interesting is the respondents' commitment to work; only 18.5% (n=141) preferred to maintain their current job. The mass majority wanted financial or non-financial rewards (86.5%, n=660). Among respondents who like to work: 32.5% wanted to work the majority of their working hours, however, 60% (n=458) preferred a mix of work and break. To determine personal characteristic respondents were asked how would they behave if they were treated unfairly by their manager, the majority responded they would work hard to prove themselves (33.8%, n=258), followed by 31.8%, (n=243) who agreed that they would carry on working the same way.

The last three demographic questions are based on the respondents work demographic data, the manager is the one who evaluates his/her employees (79.9%, n=610), rewards them (61.7%, n=471) and promotes them (61.7%, n=471) (See Appendix D-14, Table D-14.2). The next section is the factor analysis.

7.7 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is a multivariate technique to identify correlation between one set of observed variables and one or more latent variables, where each takes the form of linear model (Field, 2013). Hair et al. (2013) define it as an interdependence technique to identify the underlying structure among the variables in the analysis.

Pallant (2013) states factor analysis is a data reduction technique, rather than hypothesis testing; it indicates whether one group is significantly different from another. Factor analysis is a technique that summarizes or reduces large sets of variables by defining a smaller set of factors or coherent subscales. These smaller sets of factors are easier to manage, especially if they are used in multiple regression or multivariate analysis. According to Field (2013a), there are three main uses for factor analysis; first, to understand the structure of a set of variables; second, to construct a survey questionnaire to measure the underlying variable; third, to reduce the dataset to a more manageable, smaller size and, at the same time, retain as much of the original data as possible.

There are two approaches to factor analysis:

1- Exploratory factor analysis (EFA). The EFA is usually used at the early stages of the research in order to explore or gather information about the interrelationships among a set of variables (See Sub-section 7.7.1).

2- Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The CFA is a more complex and sophisticated set of techniques used to confirm the research hypothesis and theories about the structure of the underlying set of variables (Pallant, 2013) (See Sub-section 7.7.2).

Factor analysis has many techniques that are similar to principle component analysis, researchers use them interchangeably (Pallant, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). They both reproduce the original variables in similar number of linear combinations

that present them in pattern correlations. Nevertheless, they differ in other ways. Factor analysis uses mathematical model to estimate its factors, whereas principle component analysis transforms the original variables into a smaller set of linear combinations (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Therefore, experts such as Stevens (2002) and Tabachnick & Fidell (2012) differ in their opinions on which method is appropriate. Stevens (2012) suggests that principle component analysis is simpler to use and it avoids some of the potential problems faced by factor analysis. Tabachnick & Fidell (2012) believe that if the researcher is interested in proving hypotheses and a theoretical solution, uncontaminated by error or unique variability, then the researcher should conduct factor analysis. However, if the researcher simply requires an empirical summary of the data set, then the principle component analysis can be used (Field, 2013). In this study, the principle component analysis was used to explore the study factors as a first stage. In the second stage, the researcher used confirmatory factor analysis to test the developed hypotheses, as in the following two Subsections.

7.7.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

According to Brace et al. (2012) and Hair et al. (2013), the purpose of EFA is to identify the structure of the factors or the model of the variable set. This process involves determining the number of factors and the pattern of factor loading. Although SPSS software, and other software, provide number of factors, it is not possible for this software to load certain items into the specific group of factors. There are number of possibilities that represent factors differently using different calculations and data rotations. The final choice among alternatives depends on the researcher's own judgement of its usefulness (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). These decisions, however, have to be explored by the researcher, based on trial and error until the researcher reaches the optimum factor loading of the data. Consequently, EFA is considered as theory-generating process (James P. Stevens, 2002). In addition, Hair et al. (2013) argue that factor analysis was originally developed to explore data and, based on that, one can generate hypothesis where the used sample is considered to represent the population.

In this study, EFA was performed to investigate whether there is a structure in the data collected and whether correlations exist between the variables. There are several different options available in SPSS that the researcher needs to decide on in order to

perform EFA. According to Pallant (2013), the first step is to assess the suitability of the study data for factor analysis by considering the sample size and the strength of data correlation between each variable and their reliability; as follow:

7.7.1.1 Sample Size and Reliability of Factor Analysis

Sample size has an effect on other statistical measurements, such as factor analysis and reliability. The larger the sample size, the less is the value of a variable required and the more reliable is the data sample. The reliability of factor analysis also depends on the sample size. Researchers suggest different sample size; for example, Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) recommend having 10 times as many as the variables, whereas Kass & Tinsley (1979) recommend having 5 and 10 participants for every variable, up to the total of 300 participants. Field (2013) argues that regardless of the widely followed rule of obtaining at least 10 to 15 participants per variable, this rule does not have a clear empirical base. Tabachnick & Fidell (2012) and Comrey & Lee (1992), agree that a sample size of at least 300 is good to conduct factor analysis; Comrey & Lee (1992) add that a sample size of 100 is poor and 1000 sample size is excellent. According to Guadagnoli & Velicer (1988), sample size, as well as the absolute magnitude of factor loading, are two important elements for factor analysis. Pallant (2013) suggests the general rule: the larger the data size, the better and more reliable. For this study, the sample size is 763, which agrees well with the above researchers to conduct the factor analysis. Part of the factor analysis data reliability is the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test; as described in the following Sub-section.

7.7.1.2 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's Test

Another important measurement to be considered in factor analysis is the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (Kaiser, 1974). KMO can be used to calculate each variable as well as the total of all variables. Its values range between 0 and 1. Value 0 indicates diffusion in the correlation pattern, which makes it inappropriate for the factor analysis. Value 1 indicates that patterns are correlated and relatively compact. Therefore, it is reliable and can be used. Values ranging between 0.5 and 0.7 are considered mediocre; values ranging between 0.7 and 0.8 are considered good; values ranging between 0.8 and 0.9 are considered great; and values above 0.9 are considered superb (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999).

Another statistical measurement assessing the factorability of the data is Bartlett's test sphericity (Bartlett, 1954). It indicates whether the correlation matrix is in fact significantly different from the identity matrix. If it is significant then it means that variables correlate. Bartlett's test value should be significant ($p< 0.05$) in order for the factor analysis to be considered acceptable (Pallant, 2013). Bartlett's test also depends on the sample size; the larger the better. However, significant correlation does not mean that the data are meaningful; therefore, it is necessary to identify variables with low values of correlation and exclude them from the factor analysis output (Field, 2013). Table 7.1 is the study data output using KMO and Bartlett's test.

Table 7. 1: EFA KMO and Bartlett's Test.

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.852
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	14492.325
	Df	780
	Sig.	.000

The KMO value is 0.852, which is, according to Hutcheson & Sofroniou (1999), considered as a great value for the research study and EFA. Also the Bartlett's test is significant; according to Pallant (2013) less than $p< 0.05$.

7.7.1.3 Communality

In communality, variables are presented as a proportion of the common variance. It is important to be considered because it enabled the researcher to decide which factors are meaningful and reliable and which ones need to be disregarded because of their low values (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). However, retained variables may not explain all data variance; they merely reflect the common data. In addition, in this case the communality will always be less than 1 because of the distraction (Field, 2013).

The total variance for any particular variance will have either a unique variance; which is a variance that can be reliable and can be attributed to one measure, or random variance; which is also called error, or not reliable variable even though it can be attributed to one measure. Random variance will have a communality value of 1. On contrary, variables that do not share any of their variance with any other

variable will have a communality value of 0. However, finding communality among variables is required; which means that the data variables have the common underlying dimensions and the variances are reliable (Field, 2013). According to Dunteman (1989), there are two techniques to find common variances in data; first is the principle component analysis (PCA); which assumes that all variance has the value of 1 and transforms all the data to constituent linear components. This method merely decomposes the original variance into a set of linear variances. Second, is to estimate the communality values for each variable in order to estimate the common variances. This method derives the mathematical model from the estimated factors, and only factor analysis can do that.

Communality can be extracted by choosing several options; for this study, the researcher has chosen the PCA; where all variances have the value of 1. As for the extraction value, the closer the communality values to 1, the better the factors are in explaining the original data. In fact there are many different techniques for estimating communality, one of the most widely used one is alpha factoring (Field, 2013).

The accepted communality value is shown under extraction title (Table 7.2). MacCallum et al., (2002) indicated that the lower the communalities becomes, the more important is the sample size. For a sample size less than 100, the acceptable communality value is 0.6 and above; for a sample size of 100 to 200, the acceptable communality value is 0.5 and above, and for a sample size more than 500, the acceptable communality value could be below 0.5. In some cases, 0.3 cut-off value of communality is also accepted (Pallant, 2013 and Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). In this research, principle component analysis was used for the above explained reasons and because it is the most used approach in depicting the communality value (Pallant, 2013); as presented in Table 7.2.

Table 7. 2: EFA Communality Using Principle Component Analysis.

Item	Initial	Extraction	Item	Initial	Extraction
Q12_OJED	1.000	.586	Q52.5_OJE	1.000	.855
Q17_OJT	1.000	.844	Q58_OJE	1.000	.518
Q18_OJT	1.000	.816	Q72_KM	1.000	.508
Q22_OJT	1.000	.629	Q73_KM	1.000	.535
Q35.4_OJPC	1.000	.680	Q74_KM	1.000	.555
Q35.5_OJPC	1.000	.744	Q75_KM	1.000	.453
Q35.6_OJPC	1.000	.718	Q76_KM	1.000	.591
Q35.7_OJPC	1.000	.776	Q77_KM	1.000	.562
Q35.8_OJPC	1.000	.512	Q78_KM	1.000	.689
Q35.9_OJPC	1.000	.588	Q82.2_KM	1.000	.798
Q36.1_OJPC	1.000	.597	Q82.3_KM	1.000	.814
Q36.2_OJPC	1.000	.757	Q82.4_KM	1.000	.797
Q36.3_OJPC	1.000	.751	Q82.5_KM	1.000	.747
Q37.6_OJPC	1.000	.603	Q83.1_KM	1.000	.741
Q37.7_OJPC	1.000	.801	Q83.2_KM	1.000	.783
Q37.8_OJPC	1.000	.757	Q83.3_KM	1.000	.676
Q38.3_OJPC	1.000	.790	Q83.5_KM	1.000	.423
Q38.4_OJPC	1.000	.805	Q84.1_KM	1.000	.764
Q38.5_OJPC	1.000	.681	Q84.2_KM	1.000	.767
Q52.4_OJE	1.000	.853	Q84.3_KM	1.000	.694
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.					

Table 7.2 shows all variances have value of 1 (Dunteman, 1989) for the research data. Based on the research sample size of 763, the acceptable communality value or extraction value should be 0.3 or above to be acceptable (Pallant, 2013 and Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). The lowest extraction value is 0.423, which indicates that all the above values are reliable and acceptable to be used for the EFA.

7.7.1.4 Factor Extraction

Since factor analyses only retain variables that are unique, reliable and share communality with other variables, not all the variables will be retained in the analysis. EFA produces a matrix called total variance explained, that depicts correlations between variables (see Table 7.3). The resulting matrix is then represented in linear components called factors or variables. Based on this matrix, the eigenvalue is calculated, which is the loading value of one particular variable in relation to a particular factor. Eigenvalue represents the importance of that variable within that factor loading. Therefore, only those variables with high values within the factors should be retained (Field, 2013).

Jolliffe (1986) suggests that the researcher should retain all factors with eigenvalues more than 0.7. However, factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 should be retained and all the other factors equal or less than 1 should be removed as they are insignificant (Hair et al., 2013 and Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). For this study the loading factors are 11, based on the calculated eigenvalues more than 1; as presented in Table 7.3.

Table 7. 3: Eigenvalues and Extracted Values for Each Factor Loading.

Total Variance Explained							
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings[a]
	Total	% of Varianc	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	7.463	18.659	18.659	7.463	18.659	18.659	5.798
2	4.596	11.490	30.149	4.596	11.490	30.149	4.079
3	3.463	8.657	38.805	3.463	8.657	38.805	5.421
4	2.145	5.362	44.168	2.145	5.362	44.168	3.064
5	2.009	5.021	49.189	2.009	5.021	49.189	3.300
6	1.651	4.127	53.316	1.651	4.127	53.316	3.196
7	1.460	3.650	56.966	1.460	3.650	56.966	3.197
8	1.378	3.446	60.412	1.378	3.446	60.412	2.908
9	1.246	3.114	63.526	1.246	3.114	63.526	3.410
10	1.133	2.832	66.358	1.133	2.832	66.358	2.732
11	1.014	2.535	68.893	1.014	2.535	68.893	2.893
12	.829	2.073	70.966				
13	.756	1.889	72.856				
14	.748	1.869	74.725				
15	.679	1.698	76.422				
16	.667	1.669	78.091				
17	.597	1.493	79.583				
18	.585	1.462	81.045				
19	.551	1.377	82.422				
20	.519	1.297	83.719				
21	.514	1.285	85.004				
22	.490	1.224	86.228				
23	.458	1.146	87.374				
24	.442	1.106	88.480				
25	.425	1.063	89.543				
26	.397	.991	90.535				
27	.378	.946	91.480				
28	.364	.910	92.390				
29	.333	.833	93.223				
30	.319	.798	94.022				
31	.294	.735	94.756				

32	.277	.692	95.448				
33	.268	.671	96.119				
34	.261	.652	96.771				
35	.255	.638	97.409				
36	.231	.577	97.986				
37	.214	.536	98.522				
38	.210	.524	99.046				
39	.204	.509	99.555				
40	.178	.445	100.000				
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.							
a. When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.							

7.7.1.5 Scree Plot

An important statistical measurement is the Scree plot developed by Cattell (1966). Scree plot technique enables the researcher to make the decision whether or not the eigenvalue is large enough to represent a meaningful factor. According to Cattell (1966), scree plot is a graph that depicts eigenvalues on the Y-axis in association with factors on the X-axis, hence the relative importance of each factor becomes apparent.

In the scree plot, there is a point where the line tails off. This cut-off point of a particular factor is the inflexion point of this curve, where the slope of the line changes substantially. For a reliable scree plot, a sample of at least 200 is required (James P. Stevens, 2002). This study sample size is substantially larger (763) making the eigenvalue presented in the scree plot in Figure 7.1 meaningful.

Figure 7. 1: Scree Plot of the Data.
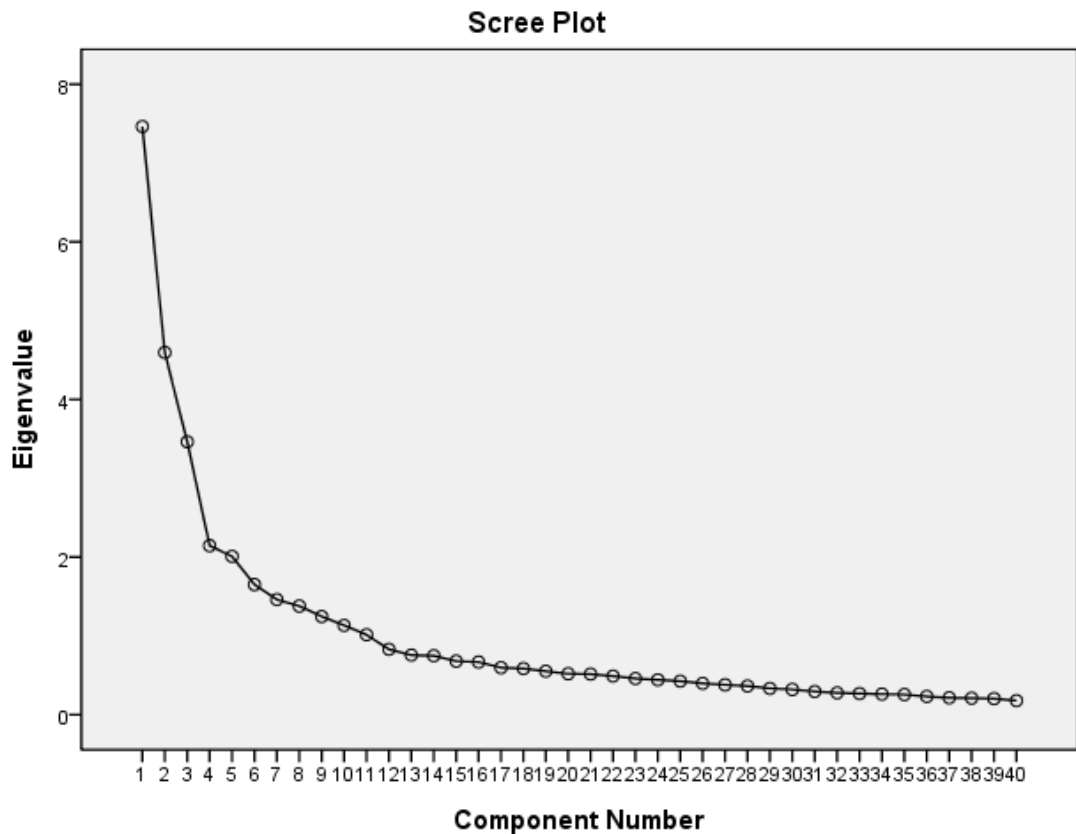
7.7.1.6 Oblique Rotation

Factor rotation is a technique to interpret factor loading from the perspectives of factors' relationships. Factor rotation, however, is used to discriminate between factors and effectively rotates the factors' axis in order to load variables onto one factor. There are two kinds of factor rotations; orthogonal rotation and oblique rotation. In the orthogonal rotation, all factors are considered as independent and they do not correlate with each other. There are three methods of orthogonal rotation; varimax, quartimax and equamax. In the oblique rotation, factors are allowed to correlate with each other and there are two methods of oblique rotation, direct oblimin and promax. The choice between these two factor rotations depends on whether a researcher is looking for a correlation between the study variables (Field, 2013 and Hair et al., 2013). In this study, the researcher is looking for correlation among the data variable. Therefore, the oblique rotation was chosen. Promax was chosen because it is a faster process and it is designed for a large dataset, which is the case in this study; whereas direct oblimin is about the degree to which factors are

allowed to correlate, which is determined by alpha and which is also set by default in SPSS with a value of 0 (Field, 2013 and Hair et al., 2013).

When performing the oblique rotation two outputs are produced; pattern matrix and structure matrix. Both of these matrices are required in factor analysis. The pattern matrix is the factor loading matrix (Table 7.4), which is presented in the next section (pattern matrix), and the structure matrix which represents the relationships among factors (Table 7.16).

7.7.1.7 Pattern Matrix

Factors are the linear combination of the original items or variables. Factor loading is the correlation between the factors and the original variables that enables confidence in the understanding provided of each factor. Square factor loading represents the variables' percentage that is explained within each factor (Hair et al., 2013).

Pattern Matrix is about factor loading. Many factors will have high loading value on a factor value, but may have low loading values on the other factors. In such cases, it is problematical to interpret the factor and the researcher needs to decide on its usefulness (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). However, to overcome researcher's judgement, which may be biased, in this study the communality value and eigenvalue were used to assess the usefulness and meaningfulness of factor loading. As a result the high values of eigenvalues are loaded in 11 factors in Table 7.4.

In factor loading, certain variables are loaded into individual factors. In this sense, it is important to distinguish the acceptable variable in the factor based on a high variable value. According to Stevens (2002), the size of the sample should determine the acceptable variable value. For a sample size of 50, 0.722 or greater is the acceptable loading value, for a sample size of 100, 0.52 or greater, for a sample size of 200, 0.364 or greater, for a sample size of 300, 0.298 or greater, for a sample size of 600, 0.21 or greater, finally for a sample size of 1000, 0.162 or greater is acceptable. These values are based on alpha level of .01. The larger the sample size, the smaller loading values provide more statistical meanings.

In this study the sample size was 763, which requires the variable data to be approximately 0.162 or greater. However, Stevens (2002) recommends that for factors loading, value of 0.4 or greater is the acceptable loading value, because that

value explain about 16% of the variable variances. Accordingly, Table 7.4 presents the pattern matrix which is the factor loading of this thesis. Guadagnoli & Velicer (1988) note that if a factor has four or more loading greater than 0.6 then it is considered reliable regardless of the sample size. Also, if the factor has 10 or more loading greater than 0.40 then it is also reliable, but on the condition that the sample size is more than 150.

Table 7. 4: Pattern Matrix (Factor Loading).

Variables	Pattern Matrix[a]										
	Component										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Cronbach's alpha	0.861	0.888	0.841	0.810	0.824	0.810	0.759	0.744	0.765	0.858	0.835
Q78_KM	.801										
Q77_KM	.800										
Q74_KM	.793										
Q73_KM	.717										
Q76_KM	.704										
Q72_KM	.670										
Q75_KM	.652										
Q58_OJE	.420										
Q82.4_KM		.914									
Q82.3_KM		.898									
Q82.2_KM		.879									
Q82.5_KM		.877									
Q83.5_KM		.516									
Q35.7_OJPC			.937								
Q35.6_OJPC			.865								
Q22_OJT			.737								
Q12_OJED			.704								
Q35.8_OJPC			.573								
Q38.4_OJPC				.900							
Q38.3_OJPC				.878							
Q38.5_OJPC				.834							
Q84.1_KM					.891						
Q84.2_KM					.854						
Q84.3_KM					.828						
Q83.3_KM						.846					
Q83.1_KM						.844					
Q83.2_KM						.841					

227

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Q37.7_OJPC							.922				
Q37.8_OJPC							.876				
Q37.6_OJPC							.649				
Q35.5_OJPC								.844			
Q35.4_OJPC								.792			
Q35.9_OJPC								.745			
Q36.2_OJPC									.863		
Q36.3_OJPC									.820		
Q36.1_OJPC									.782		
Q52.5_OJE										.939	
Q52.4_OJE										.933	
Q17_OJT											.880
Q18_OJT											.832

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Table 7.4 depicts variances that are loaded in 11 factors. These variances are reduced in quantity to those variables that represent meaningful and correlated variables. The lowest variable value is 0.420, which is acceptable according to Stevens (2002), Guadagnoli & Velicer (1988) and Field (2013). The importance of reducing variances to a smaller group of interrelated variables of factor sets, is to statistically explain the maximum amount of variances using the smallest number of exploratory variables (Field, 2013). The following Section (factor loading explanation) explains each factor loading result from SPSS, to identify variables within factors that are representative of the majority of the variables.

7.7.1.8 Factor Loading Explanation

Once factors have been extracted and loaded, it is important to know to which factor they have been loaded in order to interpret them (Pallant, 2013). Factor loading depicts the correlation between the original variable in the context of other factors (Hair et al., 2013). Therefore, it is not surprising to find variables from constructs, providing different understanding, grouped together. SPSS statistically depicts variable relationships and group these relations in certain factors. What is interesting

is that the statistical output of these factors may show another perspective of the collected data.

For this study, Table 7.5 is the explanation of each grouped variable within the first factor (Factor 1). In addition, each factor is assessed and identified using Cronbach's alpha measurement, which determines the reliability of the data (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Table 7. 5: Explanation of Factor 1.

Variable	Question Content	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Q78_KM	Our organisation encourages us to share knowledge in order to create new concept, solution, product etc.	.801	
Q77_KM	Knowledge is being stored in the Organisational data base	.800	
Q74_KM	We use metaphor and models when discussing problems.	.793	
Q73_KM	We combine our knowledge through meeting, telephone or e-mail	.717	
Q76_KM	Our organisation encourages team work.	.704	0.861
Q72_KM	Upper management practice knowledge sharing	.670	
Q75_KM	We help each other to learn by demonstrating how to do something	.652	
Q58_OJE	Our organisation is trying to provide us with good working environment	.420	

Factor 1: the first factor identified statistically in factor analysis is composed of 7 items from KM variables and one item from the on-job education variable. SPSS identifies these eight items as being clustered in one factor. Factor one main theme is mainly the four modes of KCM (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Specifically; Q78_KM and Q72_KM measures the socialisation mode, where knowledge is transferred from tacit knowledge to tacit knowledge through socialization. Q73_KM measures the combination mode, where knowledge is communicated from explicit knowledge to explicit knowledge using certain means. Q74_KM measures the Externalisation mode, where knowledge is transferred from tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge using metaphor. Finally, Q75_KM measures the internalization mode, where knowledge is transferred from explicit knowledge to tacit knowledge through learning by doing. Q77_KM and Q76_KM measure the usability of KM through individuals and in the organisation and Q58_OJE measures the appropriateness of the organisational environment. Factor analysis has identified the link between all these variables and KM, accept for Q58_OJE. Nevertheless, the common obvious relation

is that it associates KM with good working environment. Additionally, this factor has a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.861 indicating that it is reliable, according to Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) and Hair et al. (2013).

Table 7. 6: Explanation of Factor 2.

Variable	Question Content	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Q82.4_KM	I do not want to share my knowledge with others in fear of: *To be used against me*	.914	
Q82.3_KM	I do not want to share my knowledge with others in fear of: *Losing my job*	.898	
Q82.2_KM	I do not want to share my knowledge with others in fear of: *Delaying my promotion*	.879	0.888
Q82.5_KM	I do not want to share my knowledge with others in fear of: *Others will not find it good enough*	.877	
Q83.5_KM	I don't share my knowledge at all with any one	.516	

Factor 2: The second factor is also about KM and it consists of five variables depicted in Table 7.6. The main theme of this factor is to identify elements that hinder individuals from sharing their knowledge with others. Factor analysis identifies this factor as being bond with each other. In this factor, individuals expressed their concern about sharing their knowledge; specifically, because of the fear of having their knowledge used against them, lose their job, delay in promotion, or because it is not good enough to be shared, or a combination of all or some of these elements. This factor has Cronbach's Alpha of 0.888 indicating that this factor is reliable according to Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) and Hair et al. (2013).

Table 7. 7: Explanation of Factor 3.

Variable	Question Content	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Q35.7_OJPC	I am happy with my Organisational training for me	.937	
Q35.6_OJPC	I am happy with my Organisational education for me	.865	
Q22_OJT	My organisation is providing me with enough training to be competent at work.	.737	0.841
Q12_OJED	My organisation is providing me with sufficient education to be competent at work.	.704	
Q35.8_OJPC	I am happy with my Organisational environment	.573	

Factor 3: The third factor considers three different elements of measurements; OJPC, OJT and OJED. The main theme of this factor is individuals' satisfaction with

their working environment and provision of education and training at work, depicted in Table 7.7. The OJPC, (Q35.6,7 and 8_OJPC) specifically describes how content or satisfied individuals are with their organisational environment, education received and training received. The Q22_OJT is mainly about the adequacy of training received and the Q12_OJED is mainly about the adequacy of education received. This factor Cronbach's Alpha is 0.841 indicating that this factor is reliable according to Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) and Hair et al., (2013).

Table 7. 8: Explanation of Factor 4.

Variable	Question Content	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Q38.4_OJPC	If I was offered another job by another organisation then the reason for leaving would be: *Because I'm having problems with my manager or colleagues in my current job.*	.900	
Q38.3_OJPC	If I was offered another job by another organisation then the reason for leaving would be: *Because they did not treat me fairly at my current job.*	.878	0.810
Q38.5_OJPC	If I was offered another job by another organisation then the reason for leaving would be: *Because of some or all of the mentioned above.*	.834	

Factor 4: The fourth factor is about OJPC and the working environment; specifically, why would individuals choose to leave their job. Factor analysis found that the three variables in Table 7.8 cluster with each other; which is expected as they investigated why individuals leave their job; such as problems with the manager or colleagues, or because they were treated unfairly. The Cronbach's Alpha of this factor is 0.841, indicating that this factor is reliable according to Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) and Hair et al. (2013).

Table 7. 9: Explanation of Factor 5.

Variable	Question Content	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Q84.1_KM	I believe sharing my knowledge could be beneficial to *Other employees*	.891	
Q84.2_KM	I believe sharing my knowledge could be beneficial to *My organisation*	.854	0.824
Q84.3_KM	I believe sharing my knowledge could be beneficial to *Myself*	.828	

Factor 5: The fifth factor is about KM and the individuals' belief in the importance of practicing KM in their organisation. In Table 7.9 the clustering of these three

factors three variables provides the measurement on how individuals perceive the importance or benefits of sharing knowledge at their organisation; specifically its importance to other employees, organisation and ones' self. This factor's theme is the opposite of second factor's theme where individuals fear sharing their knowledge. The Cronbach's Alpha of this factor is 0.824, indicating that this factor is reliable according to Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) and Hair et al. (2013).

Table 7. 10: Explanation of Factor 6.

Variable	Question Content	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Q83.3_KM	I share my knowledge with other employees when: *My manager asks me to*	.846	
Q83.1_KM	I share my knowledge with other employees when: *There is a problem that we need to be solve*	.844	0.810
Q83.2_KM	I share my knowledge with other employees when: *There is a new project*	.841	

Factor 6: The sixth factor is also about KM. Its main theme is about when individuals would share their knowledge. The provided choices are; when they are asked by their manager, when there is a problem that they need to work on, or when there is a new project. The variables in Table 7.10 are clustered in a meaningful way. The Cronbach's Alpha is 0.810, indicating that this factor is reliable according to Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) and Hair et al. (2013).

Table 7. 11: Explanation of Factor 7.

Variable	Question Content	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Q37.7_OJPC	The following motivates me to work harder at work and seek competency: *Being empowered or promoted*	.922	
Q37.8_OJPC	The following motivates me to work harder at work and seek competency: *Receiving education and training*	.876	0.759
Q37.6_OJPC	The following motivates me to work harder at work and seek competency: *Working environment*	.649	

Factor 7: The seventh factor is about OJPC. Its main theme is what motivates individuals to work harder; being empowered or promoted, receiving education and training, or the working environment. In Table 7.11 it is meaningfully clustered together. The Cronbach's Alpha is 0.759, indicating that this factor is reliable according to Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) and Hair et al. (2013).

Table 7. 12: Explanation of Factor 8.

Variable	Question Content	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Q35.5_OJPC	I am happy with my: *Skills*	.844	
Q35.4_OJPC	I am happy with my: *Own current knowledge*	.792	0.744
Q35.9_OJPC	I am happy with my: *Myself*	.745	

Factor 8: The eighth factor is also about OJPC, shown in Table 7.12. However, the main theme is individuals' self-esteem or self-confidence; whether they are happy with their skills, current knowledge and/or themselves. This factor is mainly about how individuals see and evaluate themselves. The Cronbach's Alpha is 0.744, indicating that this factor is reliable according to Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) and Hair et al. (2013).

Table 7. 13: Explanation of Factor 9.

Variable	Question Content	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Q36.2_OJPC	Sometimes I work less than what I am capable of, because: *I was mistreated by the manager or the organisation*	.863	
Q36.3_OJPC	Sometimes I work less than what I am capable of, because: *I do not care since my hard work was not appreciated.*	.820	0.765
Q36.1_OJPC	Sometimes I work less than what I am capable of, because: *I know that if I work less, they will still pay me my salary anyways.*	.782	

Factor 9: The ninth factor is also about OJPC. Importantly, the theme of this factor is about why individuals' choose to work less; which is an essential element to understand IC. The possible reasons in Table 7.13 are, because they were mistreated by their managers or their organisation, or because they are not appreciated or / and because there is no punishment if they work less. This factor clusters the incompetent individuals together. The Cronbach's Alpha is 0.765, indicating that this factor is reliable according to Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) and Hair et al. (2013).

Table 7. 14: Explanation of Factor 10.

Variable	Question Content	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Q52.5_OJE	In my organisation, I will be promoted based on: *Mutual Favour-giving*	.939	
Q52.4_OJE	In my organisation, I will be promoted based on: *Nepotism*	.933	0.858

Factor 10: The tenth factor consists of two variables from the OJE construct. Specifically, its main theme is how would individuals most likely be promoted; through mutual favour-giving or / and nepotism shown in Table 7.14. These subjects are sensitive and consist of only two variables, but the factor analysis found significant clustering. the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.765, indicating that this factor is reliable according to Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) and Hair et al. (2013).

Table 7. 15: Explanation of Factor 11.

Variable	Question Content	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Q17_OJT	The training I received at work is relevant to my job need	.880	
Q18_OJT	The skills I gained from training make me competent at work.	.832	0.835

Factor 11: The eleventh factor is also consisted of two variables within the OJT construct (Table 7.15). Its main theme is about training effect on IC. It measured whether individuals are actually receiving training at work and if they are, whether this training is contributing to their competency at work. This factor is reliable according to Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) and Hair et al. (2013) with Cronbach's Alpha of 0.835.

In summary, all the factors are significant to address the main question of what factors effect IC. Also, some factors correlated because the questions relate to other questions and factors. The next Section provides further statistical evidence on the factor correlations using factor rotation.

7.7.1.9 Structure Matrix

The structure matrix produces the angle of the rotated factors to optimize the factor solution. It is an analysis of variables shared by more than one factor; unlike the pattern Matrix which restrict variables in certain factors. Specifically, it depicts the correlations between variables and factors (Field, 2013 and Pallant, 2013). Table 7.16 is the research study's structure matrix.

Table 7. 16: Structure Matrix.

Variables	Component										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Q78_KM	0.819		0.465								
Q76_KM	0.744		0.424								
Q77_KM	0.728										
Q74_KM	0.724										
Q73_KM	0.703										
Q72_KM	0.689		0.419								
Q58_OJE	0.639		0.553								
Q75_KM	0.63										
Q82.3_KM		0.897									
Q82.2_KM		0.888									
Q82.4_KM		0.888									
Q82.5_KM		0.856									
Q83.5_KM		0.594									
Q35.7_OJPC			0.869								
Q35.6_OJPC	0.413		0.837								
Q22_OJT	0.424		0.765								0.449
Q12_OJED	0.432		0.739								0.407
Q35.8_OJPC	0.427		0.651								
Q38.4_OJPC				0.894							
Q38.3_OJPC				0.885							
Q38.5_OJPC				0.82							
Q84.2_KM					0.87	0.458					
Q84.1_KM					0.87	0.418					
Q84.3_KM					0.827	0.413					
Q83.2_KM					0.493	0.878					
Q83.1_KM					0.461	0.858					
Q83.3_KM						0.813					
Q37.7_OJPC							0.882				
Q37.8_OJPC							0.857				
Q37.6_OJPC	0.41		0.42				0.721				
Q35.5_OJPC								0.859			
Q35.4_OJPC								0.81			
Q35.9_OJPC								0.751			
Q36.3_OJPC									0.86		
Q36.2_OJPC									0.857		
Q36.1_OJPC									0.74		
Q52.4_OJE										0.922	
Q52.5_OJE										0.92	
Q17_OJT			0.401								0.913
Q18_OJT			0.447								0.886

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

Unlike the pattern matrix that depicts the highest correlated group of variable in each factor, structure matrix depicts variables within one factor and their correlation with other factors. This presents the correlation not only among variables within one factor but also within other factors at the same time. In this study the majority of variables in factor 1 and 3 are correlated with each other. In another words, variables of the four modes of knowledge creation model composing Factor 1 correlate with the individuals' satisfaction of their working environment and what is being provided for them in regards of education and training at work in Factor 3. Also at another level, variables composing factors 1, 3 and 11 correlate; which supports the same interpretation of the previous two factors. Factor 1 and 3 variables also correlated with education effect on individuals' competencies, Factor 3. At another level Factors 1, 3 and 7 variables correlated with what motivates individuals to work harder. Finally, Factor 3 and 11 also correlate. Some Factors' variables did not correlate with other factors, but only within themselves, such as Factor 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, and 10.

7.7.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

EFA is more of a theory-generating process, CFA is more of theory testing procedure (James P. Stevens, 2002). Whereas EFA focuses on theory-generating and the researcher has to explore the factor items but not choose the item factors, CFA focuses on stronger empirical foundation and allows the researcher to specify the model factors. It depicts which variables load into which factors and which variables correlate with which other variables. Hair et al., (2013) describes CFA as a 'hypothesis tester' focusing on the structure of latent variables and their correlations. It requires a complex calculation that can be performed using structural equation modelling; using computer software such as AMOS.

Though the researcher did not use AMOS, Appendix D-15 depicts the correlated relations between all the CFA factors. This research was designed to test hypotheses. The developed model fit can still be obtained using other statistical methods using SPSS. Therefore, the researcher chose to use ANOVA using Pearson's Correlations (Appendix D-8, Table D-8.1).

7.8 Hypothesis Testing

Inferential statistics is used to accept or reject a hypothesis. The hypothesis, or the model fit, can be tested for the significant fit of data using test statistics. It involves systematic variation, which explain the model or hypothesis, and the unsystematic variation, which cannot explain the model. There are several tests that can be used including t, F, χ^2, normality tests…etc. The more the variation the hypothesis explains, the higher the test statistic confidence. In other words, the hypothesis reflects the population (Field, 2013).

The hypotheses of the developed model of IC were tested using its 'fit'. This was to assess whether the developed model is fit and the statistical tests are significant, to be accepted as representative of the population.

Hypothesis testing is conducted based on three main measure; normal distribution, ANOVA and MANOVA. Normal distribution is the normality of the distributed data in which the variables are clustered around the mean forming the bell shape. ANOVA is based on univariate test; that is composed of only one dependent variable whereas MANOVA is based on multivariate test, that can investigate several dependent variables simultaneously (Hair et al., 2013).

7.8.1 Normality of the Data

As discussed in Appendix D-7, normal distribution is considered as the preliminary and essential stage of hypothesis testing. According to Field (2013), if the assumption of normal distribution is not met then hypothesis will be flawed.

One technique to check the normal distribution of the collected data is the distribution shape. This shape is measured using kurtosis and skewness of the data. The closer the values of kurtosis and skewness to 0, the more normally the data is distributed, and hence forming the bell shape.

For this research, Appendix D-4, Figure D-4.1 depicts the normal distribution of the sample data. It shows that all of the sample data are normally distributed. Therefore, the initial stage of hypothesis testing is met; and both ANOVA and MANOVA can be subsequently performed.

7.8.2 Hypothesis Testing Using ANOVA

ANOVA assumes that the dependent variable is normally distributed. It is used to test the overall fit of the model based on univariate variable; in this research the IC model, using the significance value of $p < 0.05$.

Table 7. 17: ANOVA.

ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
PED	17.479	37	.472	1.796	.003
OJED	74.995	37	2.027	7.141	.000
PT	32.755	37	.885	2.267	.000
OJT	27.802	37	.751	5.343	.000
PPC	18.036	37	.487	2.075	.000
OJPC	52.629	37	1.422	12.784	.000
PE	26.414	37	.714	1.107	.307
OJE	26.364	37	.713	5.046	.000
KM	58.886	37	1.592	14.950	.000
HRM	127.017	37	3.433	5.213	.000

The ANOVA Table 7.17 depicts the relation between groups within the independent variables; PED, OJED, PT, OJT, PPC, OJPC, PE, OJE, KM, and HRM. Each constructs was univariate tested. All of the constructs or independent variables and their F test show that they are significant ($p < 0.05$); except for PE which has a p value of 0.307 ($P > 0.05$). In other words, all of the independents variables are accepted, except for PE.

Another statistical test is required in order to give confidence to our understanding of the findings, especially in relation to the dependent variable of competency and to test the hypotheses. This test is the Pearson's correlation (See appendix D, Table D-8.1), which is used to identify the correlated independent variables with the dependent variable. The output of this test depicts that all the dependent and independent variables correlate with each other; except for the correlation between independent variable PE and OJED (shaded cell). Pearson's correlation results in Table D-8.1 conclude that all the variables of this study are significantly correlated accept for the PE and OJED. Since PE and OJED do not define the developed hypotheses, such as PE has an effect on OJED, this means that all of the *one way* developed hypothesis are significant and accepted; namely H1a, H1b, H2a, H2b, H3a, H3b, H4a, H4b, H6, H7a, H7b (See Table 7.18).

7.8.3 Hypothesis Testing Using MANOVA

Unlike ANOVA that can only test one dependent variable; MANOVA can test several dependent variables. Therefore, it can be used to identify the relationship between all independent and dependent variables simultaneously, rather than variable by variable, or one variable against another. MANOVA was used in this research to assess the overall fit of the IC model.

The MANOVA test reveals that the Box's M test has an F value of 1.250 with a P value of 0.00. In other words, it is highly significant. Also, the multivariate tests of Pillai's Trace, Wilks' Lambda, Hotelling's Trace, and Roy's Largest Root are all highly significant with p value of 0.00 (See Appendix D-16). This test depicts that the assumption of the model fit and the hypothesis have met the predictions of the IC Model. Therefore, the multivariate test is accepted for H5 and H8 hypothesis (see Table 7.18).

7.8.4 Hypothesis Decisions

According to the normality distribution, ANOVA, and MANOVA (Appendix D-8, Table D-8.1 and Appendix D-16) results of this study, the decision whether to accept or reject this thesis hypotheses are summarized in following table (Table 7.18).

Table 7. 18: Hypothesis Acceptance Rejection Decisions.

	Hypotheses	Decision
1	**H1a:** Prior education has positive effect on IC.	Accepted
2	**H1b:** On-job education has positive effect on IC.	Accepted
3	**H2a:** Prior training has positive effect on IC.	Accepted
4	**H2b:** On-job training has positive effect on IC.	Accepted
5	**H3a:** Prior PC has positive effect on IC.	Accepted
6	**H3b:** On-job PC has positive effect on IC.	Accepted
7	**H4a:** Prior environment has positive effect on IC.	Accepted
8	**H4b:** On-job environment has positive effect on IC.	Accepted
9	**H5:** All factors holistically have positive effect on IC.	Accepted
10	**H6:** Knowledge management has positive effect on IC.	Accepted
11	**H7a:** HRM has positive effect on KM.	Accepted
12	**H7b:** HRM has positive effect on IC.	Accepted
13	**H8:** HRM and KM have positive effect on IC.	Accepted

In summary, the pilot study first stage was to ensure the usability of the research measuring instrument; the second stage consisted of screening and analysing the research data, factor analysis and hypothesis testing. Now, the third stage is to explore certain questions in relation to the interview findings.

7.9 Phase Three: Statistical Exploration of the Main Research Themes

This stage of the analysis was specifically conducted to target variables from the interview phase in order to explore the variables even further and to identify new variables. This stage investigated the specific findings from the first interview phase to compare them statistically with their counterparts in the second survey phase. Therefore, the findings were analysed based on the developed research themes. The statistics used to analyse the survey data are frequency, and Pearson's chi-square-test using cross tabulation. According to Field (2013), Pearson's chi-square-test detects the relationship between two categorical variables.

7.9.1 Competency

Competency is analysed according to the output of the first interview phase. In Section 6.3.1, competency was developed based on three themes as follows.

7.9.1.1 Factors Affecting IC

Based on the first interview phase analysis, there are several concerns regarding competency (Section 6.3.1). Interviewees gave seventeen reasons for the factors that could affect IC (Section 6.3.1.1). The most common one is motivation. Similarly, when they were asked what they thought would make individuals want to work more, their most common answer was good personality, ambition, and motivation.

Accordingly, to explore this further, question 37 of the survey questionnaire was developed (Appendix B-7). This question contains 8 sub-questions all based on what motivates individuals or as the questions states: "*37. The following motivates me to work harder at work and seek competency*".

According to Table D-17.1 (Appendix D-17), the majority of the respondents stated that what motivate individuals to work harder are personnel culture (84.3%), own self (92.9%), living happy personal life (85.2%), family encouragement (71.6), working environment (71.2%), being empowered (81.9%), and receiving education and training (80.3%). Question 37.4 is called 'reverse question'. It was intentionally developed to make sure that the respondents are not simply agreeing; rather they are intentionally making these choices.

Respondents were asked about other individuals' effect on their own competency: "*The following individuals are contributing to developing my competency*" (Q.67). Their responses are in Table D-17.2. The respondents agree that oneself, their colleagues, manager, organisational policies and working environment all contribute to developing their competencies. Most importantly, the frequencies depicts that ones' competency is most affected by the individual himself (91.3%) and the least is the organisational policies (48.5%), followed by the working environment (61.3%). Interestingly, respondents feel that their work colleagues (72.0%) have affected their competencies more than their managers did (64.6%).

On the contrary, when interviewees were asked what do they think that will make individuals want to work less, their most common response was not caring, over employment, unfairly treated, and unappreciated. Accordingly, Question 36 is: "*Sometimes I work less than what I am capable of, because*", (Table D-17.3). Respondents were asked what would lead them to work less. When asked about the fact that they will still receive their fixed salary, they mainly disagreed with that option (63.8%). Nevertheless, respondents would be more affected by their managers' mistreatment. 48.9% disagreed that their managers' mistreatment will make them work less. However, 29.5% of the respondents agreed that their managers' mistreatment would make them work less. As a close approximation, not being appreciated affects 25.2% of the respondents leading them to work less. However, the majority (54.3%) disagree. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (81.9%) agreed that they had always worked as hard as they can.

7.9.1.2 Meaning of Competency

The meaning of competency in the organisation is also considered important for the individual to follow. Therefore, respondents were asked: Q.65 "*In my organisation, the concept or the meaning of (work competency) is clear to me*" (Table D-17.4). 65.7% of the respondents agree that they know the organisational meaning of work competency. 34.3% (16.8% + 16.8%) of the respondents either were neutral or disagreeing. In other words, even though about two thirds of the respondents know what their organisation meant by competency, one third did not know what it meant. This means that one third of the working individuals are performing based on their guess of what constitutes competency at their organisation.

7.9.1.3 Others Individuals' Competency

IC was investigated at all levels of the organisation. Therefore, individuals were asked about their opinion of other individuals' competencies, including their managers. Therefore, Q.66 states: "The following individuals are competent at work" (see Table D-17.5). The majority of the respondents rate themselves as competent at work (87.8). They also rate their colleagues (79.7%), managers (75.8%), and employees (52.4%) as competent. However, it is clear from Table D-17.5 that 75.8% of the individuals feel that their managers are competent; however only 52.4% of the

managers think that their employees are competent as well. This however, could be the result of years of experience item.

Therefore, cross-tabulation is performed. It enables the researcher to consider the same variables in addition to adding the work experience as categorical variable. The output (Appendix D-17, Table D-17.6 to Table D-17.9) reveals that work experience does have an effect on how individuals rate theirs and others' competencies. Table D-17.1 (Appendix D-17), depicts that individuals who have more work experience feel that they are more competent at work (Q.66.1). However, individuals who have been working for 26 to 35 years feel somewhat less competent. This could be due to the advanced technology. Also, Table D-17.7 and D-17.8 depicts that individuals with more work experience think that their colleagues and managers are less competent (Q66.2 and Q66.3). Nevertheless, Table D-17.9 shows that the more the managers' work experience is the more they think that their employees are competent. Therefore, work experience does have an effect on how individuals rate other individuals' competencies.

7.9.2 Prior Education

PED was investigated for its effect on IC. The interview phase produced evidence that PED has an effect on IC. Therefore, the same investigation was carried on in the survey phase on a larger scale.

Respondents were asked: "Prior education helps me to perform my job" (Q. 3) and "I'm working in the same field as my prior education". (Q.1). Respondents' frequencies show that 70.5% (538) of the respondents believe that PED helped them with their performance at work. Also, 59.2% (452) of the respondents are working in the field of their PED (Table D-17.10). In other words, the majority are from both groups. However, it is essential to investigate how many of those working in the same field of their PED also believe that PED helped them at work. Therefore, the cross-tabulation or Pearson's chi-square-test was used for this purpose (Table D-17.11). It depicts that, 83.5% (375) of those respondents working in the same field of their PED also agree that PED is helping them at work. In addition, the p value of this test is 0.000, which means that it is highly significant. In other words, this means that the more respondents are working in their field of PED, the more they can relate PED's usefulness to their work competencies.

Cross-tabulation was used to investigate the same questions on the demographic data of educational level on Q.1 and Q.3 (Table D-17.11). When correlating Q.1: "I'm working in the same field as my prior education" with the demographic data of educational level (Table D-17.12), it was found that 40% of respondents agree that they are working in the same field of their PED are 'below high school', 37.9% are 'high school', 54.4% 'two years diploma', 63.3% 'Bachelor degree', 68.6% 'Masters', and 91.7% 'PhD'. Therefore, the higher the educational level, the more likely the individual will work in the same field of their PED.

Similarly, Q.3: "I'm working in the same field as my prior education" is also correlated with educational level (Table D-17.13). It was found that 61.9% of respondents who agree that PED helped them at work are 'below high school', 58.6% are 'high school', 59.7% 'two years diploma', 75.2% 'Bachelor degree', 84.3% 'Masters', and 91.7% 'PhD'. Therefore, the higher the educational level, the more likely these individuals will benefit from PED at work (Q.4 and Q.5).

Another issue investigated is the individuals' specialization at school. In the first interview phase, it was argued that different specializations may lead individuals to work either in the same field or different field leading to different levels of competencies at work (Q.4 and Q.5). In both questions, respondents agree (62.9% and 67.0%) that both major groups do have an effect on IC at work (see Table D-17.14).

7.9.2.1 Teachers' Competencies

Teachers' competencies are also important, as the future working individuals will be affected by their teachers' competency. Therefore, respondents were asked in Q. 2: "When I was in school, teachers were competent at their teaching". The output is in Table D-17.15. It is clear that 76% of the respondents think that their teachers are competent as teachers. Only 8.2% disagrees and 15.5% are neutral. Question (Q.2), teachers' competencies, is also instigated according to educational level (see Table D-17.16). It is noticed from the table that the higher the educational level the more individuals believe in their teachers' competencies. For example, respondents agree that their teachers are competent at 'below high school' level for 71.4%; at 'high school' level for 78%, at 'two years diploma' for 64.8%, at 'Bachelor degree' level for 79.8%, at 'Masters' level for 84.3%, and 83.3% for 'PhD' level. These figures are

increasing; accept in the 'two years diploma' for 64.8%, where there was a drop in frequency. Nevertheless, looking at the opposite responses of those who believe that their teachers were incompetent; there was constant decrease as the educational level decreases. Namely, 'PhD' level 0% disagree; 'Master' level 5.7% disagree, 'Bachelor degree' level 6.5% disagree, 'two years diploma' level 11.5% disagree, 'high school' level 10.2% disagree, and 'below high school' level 19% disagree. The Pearson chi-square test is 0.007 p value, which is highly significant. In other words, this indicates that the lower the educational level is, the more respondents think that their teachers are incompetent.

7.9.2.2 Prior Education and Individuals' Competency

PED is one of the developed factors of the IC model. Therefore, it was investigated for its correlation with IC. In fact, this has been reported earlier in this Chapter. Pearson's Correlations (Appendix D-8, Table D-8.1) depicts the positive correlation between PED construct and Competency construct, therefore the following hypothesis is accepted:

H1a: Prior education has positive effect on IC.

7.9.3 On-job Education

According to the first phase of interview, interviewees were asked about the effect of OJED on IC. Similarly, in this phase, respondents were asked: "At work I received education that helps me to perform better at work"; there respond is in Table D-17.17. It depicts that 72.1% of the respondents agree that the OJED received is helping them perform better at work; 16% are neutral, and 11.8% disagree.

Nevertheless, respondents were also asked about the number of training courses that they are receiving per year (if any) (See Table D-17.18). There are similar percentages in almost every group shown in Table D-17.18. 29.8% had 'two or more' courses per year, 24.6% had training courses 'once a year', 23.9% had training 'once in several years', and 17.2% 'did not receive any' training. This indicates that 78.3% of the respondents did receive training course at one point. Therefore, another cross-tabulation was performed to investigate how many out of the working individuals who received training also think that it helped them perform their job. 758 respondents answered both questions. Among those who received training

(regardless of the times they had it), 59% (186 + 148 + 114 = 448 / 758) of the respondents also stated that these training courses had helped them at work as well. Nevertheless, this 59% of the total respondents is actually 82.3% of those who stated they took training courses and said that it helped them at work as well (with $p < 0.000$) (see Table D-17.19).

7.9.3.1 On-job Education Choice of Educational Courses

OJED has other implication that may affect the decision on taking OJED. Organisations differ in their policies of who can decide on the kind of educational course. According to the first interview phase, course training can be assigned by managers, HR department or individuals themselves. Also, interviewees discussed the different sources of OJED where they can receive their education, such as courses, colleagues, and/or manager. Therefore, in this phase, respondents were asked how they would like to receive their OJED, (Q9) (Table D-17.20). The Table depicts that the majority of the respondents prefer to receive their OJED through training courses (86.1%), second preference is through colleagues (71.3%), and the least preferred source of OJED is through their manager (61.6%).

7.9.3.2 On-job Education and Individuals' Competency

Respondents were also asked what they think of the amount of OJED that they are receiving from their organisations; whether it is enough or not (Q.12). Only 52.2% of the respondents think that they are receiving sufficient OJED, 21.9% are neutral, and 25.8% disagrees. This is a clear indicator that about half of the respondents think that they are not receiving enough OJED (See Table D-17.21).

At the same time, respondents were asked about another way of receiving OJED, other than courses, colleagues and manager; which is to access the organisational data base and learn from it. The frequency of their responses is similar to the previous question. 49.3% of the respondents can access the organisational database and learn from it. Therefore, the other half cannot access it to learn from it (Table D-17.22).

Nevertheless, when investigating the correlation between OJED and IC, it is evident that they do correlate. Pearson's Correlations (Appendix D-8, Table D-8.1) depicts

246

the positive correlation between OJED and Competency. Therefore H1b, 'On-job education has positive effect on IC' is accepted (Section 7.8.4).

7.9.4 Prior Training

PT was investigated for its effect on IC. In fact, PT questions are following similar patterns to PED questions (Section 7.9.2). Therefore, respondents were asked whether PT helped them perform their job (Q.13) (Table D-17.23). 64% (488) of respondents believe that PT helped them at work or contributed to their competencies; 22.1% (169) are neutral and 13.9% (106) disagreed. Recall Q. 3, which is the equivalent question on education, 70.5% of the respondents agreed that PED did affect them at work. The two questions are similar (Q.3 and Q.13). However, PT has a lower percentage of acceptances. Nevertheless, this question will be investigated further based on the link of PT with the market needs.

Therefore, respondents were asked: "Training at Kuwaiti school *is* linked with the market needs or work expectation" (Q.14.). This question is essential as some of the interviewees from the first interview phase thought that the provided training courses may not be relevant to the individuals or the organisational needs. Their response is presented in table D-17.24. The majority of the respondents (39.7%, 303) are neutral or not sure about whether PT is linked to the market need. There are only 23.1% (176) who agree and 37.2% (284) who disagree. These percentages depict that PT is not highly linked to the market needs, therefore only 23.1% of respondents agree.

Based on the results of Q.13 and Q.14, it is now possible to investigate the effect of the two questions on each other; having training that is linked to the market need in relevance to the effect of PT on IC or performance at work (see Table D-17.25). It depicts that 86.9% of the respondents agree that "Training at Kuwaiti school *is* linked with the market needs or work expectation" also agreeing that "Prior training helps me to perform my job"; with high significance value of 0.000. Therefore, the more training linked to the market need, the more individuals will benefit from these PT at their future work.

Another issue that was explored in the PED is the effect of individuals' specialization at school on their future competency. Similarly, the same issue was investigated from the PT perspective as depicted in Table D-17.26. Respondents agree on both

questions (15 and 16): both groups of school specialization (77.2% and 81.0%) have an effect on IC at work.

7.9.4.1 Prior Training and Individuals' Competency

The PT and IC were investigated for their correlation with each other. The correlation between these two constructs was discussed earlier in this Chapter. In Appendix D-8, Pearson's Correlations was used (Appendix D-8, Table D-8.1). The Table depicts the positive correlation between PT construct and Competency construct, therefore the following hypothesis is accepted (Table 7.18).

H2a: Prior training has positive effect on IC.

7.9.5 On-job Training

Similar to the interview phase, this survey phase of the analysis also investigate the relation of OJT on IC. Therefore, the following two questions are addressed (see Table D-17.27). The majority of the respondents (74.2%) agree that the OJT they receive is relevant to their job needs. On the other hand, only 9.3% disagree. Therefore, it is not surprising that 77.2% (589) of the respondents agree that OJT is positively contributing to their competency at work. In fact, to investigate this finding deeper, cross-tabulation was used for both questions (17 and 18) in order to understand their correlation (see Table D-17.28). 93.6% of those who agrees that OJT is relevant to their job needs also agree that skills gained from OJT makes them more competent at work. Therefore, it can be inferred that the more the training courses are related or relevant to individuals' job need, the more they will gain the required skills that contribute to their competency at work. In addition, both of these questions (17 and 18) are correlated with the demographic question of how many times individuals have taken OJT per years (Q.89). The results reveal that 82.7% of the respondents who have received OJT have also agreed that their OJT is relevant to their job need. Similarly, it was found that 83.3% of the respondents who received OJT also agreed that their OJT has positively affected their competency at work (Table D-17.29 and D-17.30).

Nevertheless, when respondents were asked whether the OJT they receive is enough for their competency, only 46.4% agreed, whereas 26.6% believed that it is not enough (Table D-17.21).

7.9.5.1 Individuals' Perception of On-job Training

In the interview phase, it was argued by the interviewees that the reason for some individuals not benefiting from their OJT is that they are not serious about their work. Nevertheless, many expressed their interest in OJT to gain skills. Therefore, respondents were asked the following set of questions on how they perceive OJT (Q.23). Table D-17.32 depicts that the majority of the respondents (90.6%) agree that OJT is to develop their competency need. This percentage is followed by 85.1% who agree that OJT is a learning experience, and 64.4% agree that OJT is considered as reward for their performance. The minority, on the other hand, agree that OJT is for leisure or vacation (28.8%), and that they are taking OJT because they are following the organisational plan. In fact, when correlating Q.23.1 and Q.17, it was found that 94.3% of those who agree that they are taking OJT to develop their competency need (Q.23.1) also agree that their OJT is relevant to their job needs (Q.17). Also, when correlating Q.23.1 and Q.18, it was found that 93.9% of those who agree that they are taking OJT to develop their competency need (Q.23.1) also agree that the skills their gaining from OJT are making them more competent at work (Q.18) (Table D-17.33 and D-17.34). On the other hand, when correlating Q.23.3 (leisure or vacation) with Q.17 and Q.18, it was also found that only 27.2% of those who think OJT is for 'leisure or vacation' also think that their received OJT is relevant to their work (Q.17). Also, it was found that 26.6% of those who think OJT is for 'leisure or vacation' also think that the skills they gained from OJT are making them more competent (Table D-17.35 and Table D-17.36). Therefore, the more the individuals' perception of OJT as gaining skills and competency, the more they will benefit from their OJT.

In addition, respondents were asked about where they would prefer to receive OJT, and how motivated they are to receive it. According to Table D-17.37, only 57.1% of the respondents prefer receiving their OJT outside their organisation. This indicates that individuals' priority is OJT rather than having a break or vacation by going out for training as an excuse. In fact, Q.20 supports this argument; it was found that 68.9% of the respondents agree that if they did not receive the OJT they need, then they will ask for one. Also, it was found that 60% of the respondents are willing to pay for their own training courses if their employer did not send them for one. These

three questions and their percentages depict that the majority of the individuals are serious about OJT.

7.9.5.2 On-job Choice of Training

The choice of assigning OJT is based on many individuals, including the same person going to the training course. Therefore, Q. 24 is to measure the percentage of each person's involvement in sending individuals to OJT (Table D-17.38). The choice of sending individuals to OJT is mainly based on two people; the choice of the individual himself (59.5%) and their manager (58.8%). The HR and training manager can also have a role (44.6%) to send individuals to OJT.

7.9.5.3 On-job Training and Individuals' Competency

OJT and IC correlate according to Pearson's Correlations (Appendix D-8, Table D-8.1). Accordingly, H2b hypothesis 'On-job training has positive effect on IC' is accepted (See Table 7.18).

7.9.6 Prior Personal Characteristics

Consequent to the interview analysis, this section developed several questions in order to deeply understand PPC and its effect on IC. The developed questions are Q.25 – Q.27 (See appendix B-3).

Respondents were asked about several issues concerning their PPC that may have an effect on their competency. Among those questions is whether the problems at home will affect their performance at work negatively (Q.25). The percentage of respondents who agreed (41.8%) are also close in percentage to the respondents who disagreed with it (38.3%). Nevertheless, 72.2% of the respondents agree that living hard personal experiences will make them more determined to achieve more at work (Q.27). In other words, having problems at home may affect their performance at work. It will also make them more determined to achieve at work. At the same time, respondents were asked about their relation with family and friends. The majority of the respondents (95.3%) agree that they have a good relationship with their family and friends (Q.26) (See table D-17.39, Appendix D).

Also, Q.25 and Q.27 were correlated with the demographic data of gender and marital status. In both of these questions respondents were asked about the effect of

living hard lives and their determination to work. The correlation will depict if there is any effect or difference that gender and marital status has on these two questions. The output correlation between Q.25 and gender (Appendix D, Table D-17.40) reveals that 53.9% of males agree that their work is affected by home problems; while the percentage of females affected is 46.1%. Even though males seem to be more effected by home problems, females' percentage is close to their male counterparts. Also, Q.27 is correlated with gender (Appendix D, Table D-17.41). The correlation reveals that 46.6% males are less determined to achieve at work if they are living hard lives, compared to 53.4% of their females' counterparts. Even though both questions (Q25. And Q.27) are close to their output of gender, however, the output of both questions reveal that the more individuals have problems at home, the more they will be determined to achieve at work. Therefore, the more males facing family problem, the less determined they are to achieve at work. The opposite is true for their counterpart females.

The same questions (Q.25 and Q.27) are correlated with marital status, in order to identify the status effect on the respondents' answers. In both questions the biggest two groups of the marital status are singles and married, therefore only these two will be considered for correlation. The correlation reveals that 61% of the married respondents agree that home problems affect their work; while only 31.4% of singles are affected as well (Appendix D, Table D-17.42). At the same time, it was found that 61.9% of the married respondents agree that living a hard life will make them more determined to achieve at work; while only 28.8% of the single respondents are determined as well (Appendix D, Table D-17.43). This interesting finding reveals that even though married individuals are more affected by family problems (61%), nevertheless they are more determined to achieve at work (61.9%). In other words, marital status has more effect on individuals' behaviour and determination at work than gender does.

7.9.6.1 Prior Personal Characteristics and Individuals' Competency

PPC and IC correlates according to Pearson's Correlations (Table D-8.1) (Appendix D-8). Therefore, hypothesis H3a 'Prior Personal Characteristics has positive effect on IC' is accepted (See Section 7.8.4).

7.9.7 On-job Personal Characteristics

In the interview phase several elements were found to have an effect on individuals' OJPC such as motivation, reward and loyalty. First, motivation has already been discussed (Section 7.9.1.1). Second, rewards found that the majority of the respondents (61.7%) will receive rewards based on their managers' decision (Q.96). These respondents were asked, what is "The most important kind of reward" to them? 86.5% said that 'both' financial and non-financial rewards are the most important. There were 6.8% who said that the financial is the most important and 6.2% who said the non-financial is the most important. However, the majority of the respondents thought both financial and non-financial are most important.

Third is loyalty; some interviewees commented on the problem that some individuals are not loyal to their organisation. They mentioned that individuals would leave their organisation when they have spent effort on training them, or if they received a better offer from other organisations. Therefore, survey respondents were asked for their reason for leaving their organisation and their loyalty or commitment (Q. 38 and 32) (Table D-17.44). The majority of the respondents (78.8%) agreed that if they were offered another job by another organisation that offered a higher salary or a better position, then they would leave their current organisation. Nevertheless, when they were asked about their commitment to their organisation, 84.8% of the respondents agree that they are committed to their organisation.

Respondents were also asked about the effect of work problems on their personal lives. Recall Q.25 (Table D-17.39) when respondents were asked about the effect of home problems on their work performance; by the same token, respondents were asked the opposite scenario: "When I have problems at work, it affects me negatively at home" (Q.31) (Table D-17.45). The output is close in its value to Table D-17.39. 45.6% of the respondents agree that when they have problems at work, it will affect them negatively at home; however 29.5% disagree. For Q.25, 41.8% agree that when they have problems at home it will affect their work negatively. This gives an indication that work problems are more negatively affecting individuals than home problems.

7.9.7.1 Individuals' Behaviour

In the interview phase, interviewees expressed their feeling mainly as being devastated by having bad OJE, nevertheless they work hard and they are ambitious. In the survey phase however, respondents were asked whether they are happy about several different elements as in Q. 35 (Table D-17.46). This question Q.35 started by understanding how content or happy an individual is at work, and therefore has a better understanding of his behaviour (negative or positive) at work. In Table D-17.46, the majority of the respondents are happy or content with their colleagues, managers' treatment, employees' performance, their own knowledge, skills, organisational levels, themselves, and current job in general. However, the least they are happy with is their organisational education and training. In fact, this is also backed up by Q.40, where only 51.5% of the respondents agree that their organisation is developing their PC through training. Therefore, it can be inferred that the respondents are happy with their working environment and colleagues, except for the amount of education and training which they feel that they need to have.

In addition to their feelings about their surroundings, respondents were asked whether they like to work alone or in groups, the effect of other individuals on them and their effect on others. Table D-17.47 depicts that the majority of the respondents (88.5%) like to socialize with other colleagues. Therefore, it makes sense that they also prefer working with others or in a group (79%), to working alone (45.5%). In addition, 82.4% of the respondents also agree that when their colleagues work harder, that makes them work harder as well. In other words, working together or as a team and socializing is actually promoting competition among individuals. In addition, 76.7% of the respondents agreed that if they were working on something new or creative, they would share it with their colleagues. The following Subsection is about the managers' behaviour.

7.9.7.2 Managers' Behaviour

According to Table D-17.46, the majority of the respondents (75%) agree that they are happy with their managers' treatment, whereas only 10.7% disagree. Accordingly, respondents were asked whether they follow their managers'

instruction. 79.8% of the respondents do agree that they follow their managers' instruction (Table D-17.48).

7.9.7.3 On-job Personal Characteristics and Individuals' Competency

According to Pearson's Correlations (Table D-8.1), OJPC and IC do correlate (Appendix D-8). Therefore, H3b hypothesis 'On-job Personal Characteristics has positive effect on IC' is accepted (See Section 7.8.4).

7.9.8 Prior Environment

Respondents were asked about the effect of PE on other colleagues. For example, if they will be treated better if they are from a similar background (Q.42). Also they were asked about the individuals' own culture and how they work with people from different cultures (Q.43). According to Table D-17.49, respondents think that they will be better treated if they were from the same cultural background (53.6%) and/or from the same department (52.9%). However, the highest percentage belongs to the sub item of 'as long as the employee is not a threat to them' then he/she will be better treated (56.4%).

In addition, respondents also feel that their culture does encourage them to work with others. When respondents were asked if their culture is conservative and does not encourage them to work with others, 54% of the respondents disagreed. In other words, respondents do interact with other individuals who are from different PE or culture but with some favour to their own culture. Also, as long as one individual is not a threat to the others, they will be better treated.

7.9.8.1 Prior Environment and Individuals' Competency

It was found that PE and IC correlate when using Pearson's Correlations (Table D-8.1) (Appendix D-8). Therefore, hypothesis H4a 'Prior environment has positive effect on IC' is accepted (See Section 7.8.4).

7.9.9 On-job Environment

OJE was investigated in this thesis. In fact, it is one of the most important factors, because it is based on where the individuals' show their competencies. It was, therefore investigated for its effect on IC.

Respondents were asked several questions in regards to receiving their job description and their understanding of their job requirement (Q.44 and Q.45). According to Table D-17.50, 60.7% of the respondents were provided job description by their manager and 79.4% of the respondents agree that their job description is clear to them.

Respondents were asked about the nature of their job and if their organisation provides them with good working environment. 54.4% of the respondents agree that their job is considered as a routine job. Nevertheless, 60.6% of the respondents agree that their organisation is trying to provide them with good working environment.

7.9.9.1 Organisational Rules' Effect

Respondents were asked about their organisational rule. Table D-17.51 depicts that only 55.3% of the respondents think that their organisational rules are fair. Whereas 22.9% of the respondents think they are not fair. This, however, is considered as high percentage of having unfair rules. In addition, 64.1% of the respondents agree that rules and regulation do affect the way they work. Therefore, having fair rules is importance because of their effect on individuals' performance.

7.9.9.2 Managers' Treatment and Employees' Behaviour

In the first interview phase, interviewees argued that young and old employees' competencies differs. Therefore, the same variables are developed for the larger scale survey, using the following question Q.68 'I believe that employees, who work for 10 years or more in their current job, are more competent than those who worked for less than 10 years'.

To better understand the respondents' position and opinion, this question was cross tabulated with age in order to identify whether each age group is defending itself, or if they do agree with Q.68 statement. The findings reveal that respondents' position differs according to the age category (Appendix D-17, Table D-17.52). The older the respondents are, the more they agree with the statement and the younger the respondents are, the more they disagree. Therefore, it can be inferred that each group age sees itself as more competent than the other group age.

In addition, respondents were asked what they think of their reward system. According to Table D-17.53, 46.7% of the respondents think that their reward system is fair and 40.2% think that their promotion is fair. Again, this indicates that the reward and the promotion system are not fair from respondents' perspective.

Therefore, respondents were also asked whether they will be affected by the unfair evaluation of their manager. 52.6% of the respondents will be negatively affected by the unfair assessment.

7.9.9.3 Nepotism

Nepotism was investigated for its use and effect in the first phase of the interview. Therefore, in this survey phase it is further explored for its effect. One element that associates with nepotism is promotion. Therefore, respondents were asked about their job promotion bases (Q.52). Table D-17.54 depicts respondents agreement that they will be promoted mostly based on their competencies (70.4%), manager recommendation (65.1%), years' of experience (60.8%), nepotism (37.9%), and the least is mutual favour giving (35.5%). Nevertheless, the Table reveals an interesting finding; while 70.4% of the respondents (the majority) agree that they will be promoted based on their competency, 51.5% of the respondents know someone who was promoted based on nepotism. In other words, they agree that they will be promoted based on their competency, while knowing that there are many who got promoted based on nepotism in their organisation.

In addition, respondents were asked further about the use of nepotism in order to identify the degree of its usability and effect on IC. The majority of the respondents disagree that they are hired using connections or nepotism (50.7) or have helped someone to be hired through nepotism (49.5) (Table D-17.55). Nevertheless, this Table also reveals interesting findings. While 77.6% of the respondents agree that nepotism negatively affects individuals' behaviour, 63.8% also agree that nepotism may be good in some cases. In other words, even if nepotism is negatively hurting them, it may be good in some cases.

7.9.9.4 Kuwaiti Versus Non-Kuwaitis

Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaitis issue was discussed in the first phase. Therefore, this issue is developed further in the survey phase for further exploration. Respondents

were asked several questions about their job security and national job security (Q.59 – Q.62) (Table D-17.56 – D-17.59). They were also asked about their belonging to certain group and its effect on them (Q.63 and Q.64) (Table D-17.60 - 18.61). For these questions, the researcher used the cross-tabulation is order to explore each question with respect to respondents' nationality.

The outputs reveal interesting findings (See Appendix D-17, Table D-17.56 to Table D-17.61). It was found that the least to fear from losing their job are the non-Arabian (25%), then Kuwaitis (28.5%) and then Arabian (45.3%) (Q.59). Similar results are also true for respondents feeling insecure about their job status (Q.60) (Table D-17.57). However, Arabian nationals think that Kuwaitis nationals do have job security (82%) (Q.61) (Table D-17.58). Also, the non-Arabian nationals believe the same about Kuwaitis (75%). In fact, both groups (Arabian and non-Arabian) believe it more than the Kuwaitis themselves believe it (71.8%). On the other hand, most Kuwaitis think that non-Kuwaitis have job security (29.8%), while 22.1% of the Arabian thinks they have job security and the least are non-Arabian (16.7%). In another words, it is evident that each group, Kuwaiti, Arabian, and non-Arabian, believe that the other groups are more secure in their job than they are. As a result each group feels threatened by the other.

Also respondents were asked about their work performance in comparison to other individuals from different country (Q.33). Table D-17.62 depicts that respondents feel that they are more competent than individuals from the same country (66.3%). However, they feel less sure of their competency when compared to individuals from different countries (51.2%). This could also contribute to their insecurity when it comes to other individuals who are from different countries.

7.9.9.5 On-job Environment and Individuals' Competency

OJE correlates with IC. According to Pearson's Correlations (Table D-8.1, Appendix D-8), it was found that they do affect each other positively. Therefore, hypothesis H4b 'On-job environment has positive effect on IC' is accepted (See Section 7.8.4).

7.9.10 Knowledge Management

KM was investigated for its usability and usefulness for IC. Nevertheless, not every organisation practices KM. Therefore, respondents were asked whether they practice

KM and how did they gain their own knowledge (Table D-17.63). Only 34.6% of the respondents agree that their organisation is practicing KM. In other words, only one third of the organisation in Kuwait practices KM. At the same time, respondents were asked from whom they gained their knowledge the most. The majority of the respondents (77.3) agree that they gained their knowledge mostly by themselves. Also, teachers and trainers contributed by 53.9% of the respondents' knowledge.

In addition, respondents were asked about the four modes of knowledge creation model (Q.73 – Q.75) (Table D-17.64). Respondents were asked about the spiral of knowledge creation model. Socialisation (Q.81 – Q.86) is for the first mode. This mode will be discussed later (Sub section 7.9.10.3). The majority of the respondents agree that they are practicing the four modes of knowledge creation model. The mode they practice the most is Internalisation (Q.75). It was found that 74.6% of the respondents agree that they help each other by demonstrating in practice. The second most practiced mode is Combination (Q.73). 59.8% of the respondents agree that they combine their knowledge through meeting, telephone or e-mails. The least used mode is Externalisation (Q.74). 47.2% of the respondents agree that they use metaphor when discussing problems. Therefore, it can be inferred that the modes of knowledge creation model are being practiced by the majority of respondents. This however, does not mean that they are practicing KM knowingly. There are some respondents who are practicing KM for other purposes without knowing that these are the modes of knowledge creation model.

7.9.10.1 Managers' Role in KM

According to the first interview phase of analysis, the role of managers in encouraging their individuals to share their knowledge is essential. In the survey phase however, respondents were asked whether their management is actually practicing knowledge sharing. Table D-17.65 reveals interesting findings; the output of Q.72 is very close to the findings of Q.71 (Table D-17.63). Since 34.6% of the organisation practices KM (Q.71), only 32.8% of the upper managers practice their knowledge sharing. In other words, if KM is not embedded in the organisational setting then it is the least likely to be practiced by their managers and hence their individuals.

7.9.10.2 Organisational Role in KM

Respondents were also asked about the role of their organisation in encouraging them to share their knowledge with others. Table D-17.66 depicts that 54.4% of the respondents agree that their organisation is encouraging them to share their knowledge; while 28.2% are neutral and 17.4% disagree. This percentage is higher than the percentage of organisation practicing KM. Therefore, it is a good indicator given the fact that only 34.6% of the organisation practices KM (Q.71).

7.9.10.3 Sharing Knowledge

Sharing knowledge is the most vital practice in the knowledge creation model and in KM in general. If individuals are not willing to share their knowledge then the four modes of knowledge creation model cannot be implemented. Thus in the Socialisation mode individuals share their knowledge with others socially.

In Table D-17.67, the majority of the respondents will share their knowledge with everyone in their organisation. However, individuals will share their knowledge most with their colleagues from the same department (88.2%), and second those who helped him/her before (81.8%), and who they can benefit from (79%). However, the least they will share with is anyone in general (72.2%). In addition, respondents were asked under what circumstances they will share their knowledge (Q.83). The majority of the respondents agree when they have a new project to work on (90.3%), or when there is a problem that needs to be solved (89.5%), or when their manager asks them to (84.5%). Therefore, it can be inferred from this output that the majority of the respondents are willing to share their knowledge.

On the other hand, respondents were also asked when they will not share their knowledge. Table D-17.68 depicts that the majority of the respondents disagreed with these statements. Nevertheless, it can be inferred from the results that respondents mostly agree that if the information or the idea they have could be used by someone else's benefit, then they will not share their knowledge.

In addition, respondents were asked who will be benefiting from their knowledge when shared. As well as whether they are willing to give or ask others for knowledge. Table D-17.69 depicts that respondent agree that their knowledge sharing will be beneficial to other employees (88.7%), to their organisation (88.1%),

and to themselves (86.5%). Also, 92.4% of the respondents agree that they are willing to ask others for information if they needed to. At the same time, respondents were inconclusive in their opinion in regards to not receiving knowledge from those who they shared their knowledge with (Q.86). Once again, it can be inferred that respondent are mainly willing to share their knowledge with others.

7.9.10.4 Knowledge Management and Individuals' Competency

According to the above, it was found that KM correlates with IC. The researcher used Pearson's Correlations (Table D-8.1) to investigate the correlation (Appendix D-8). Therefore, hypothesis H6 'Knowledge management has positive effect on IC' is accepted (See Section 7.8.4).

7.9.11 Human Resource Management

HRM role is also essential in developing IC and in implementing KM. Therefore, respondents were asked about the role of HRM at their organisation. The finding reveals that 56.7% of the respondents agree that HRM role is essential for developing their competency; 27.1% were neutral, and 16% disagreed. This finding reveals however, that HRM can only participate if permitted or if the role of HRM is being validated or emphasized by the organisation (Table D-17.70).

7.9.11.1 Human Resource Management and Individuals' Competency

HRM is found to correlate with IC. Pearson's Correlations (Table D-8.1) were used for this purpose and the output reveals their correlations (Appendix D-8). Therefore, hypothesis H8 'HRM and KM have positive effect on IC' is accepted (See Section 7.8.4).

7.10 The Correlation between IC and the Developed Factors

For the test between the dependent variable of IC and independent variable of the entire developed factor, MANOVA test was used (Appendix D-16). This test output has a p value of 0.00 indicating that there is a high correlation between IC and all the other factors. Therefore, H5 'All factors holistically have positive effect on IC' is accepted.

7.11 Summary

This chapter is developed according to three stages. The first stage is the pilot study. In this stage the researcher confirmed the validity and reliability of the measuring instrument before it is applied on the research sample. In the second stage, the sample data was screened, analysed, developed factor analysis, and hypothesis were proven to be positively correlate with IC and the model was proven to fit. In the third stage, the developed measuring instrument were analysed according to the findings of the first interview phase of analysis in order to be compared for similarities and difference in the following discussion Chapter.

The importance of this second survey phase is not only that the validated hypotheses and statistical measures for generalization, but also that this survey phase support the first interview phase analysis well. In addition, it explores unclear or undecided variables of the first interview phase.

Chapter 8

Discussion

8.1 Introduction

This research makes a significant contribution to our understanding of competency in the context of knowledge work. The holistic model of IC is largely verified by the research findings. The exploratory sequential mixed method requires that both phases of data analyses are discussed to show similarities and difference in the findings, to arrive at a combined result where there are similar findings in both phases, which confirms the accuracy of the developed measuring instruments. Some of the first phase interview findings were inconclusive. Consequently, the second phase had more measurement, to add to the first phase findings. Nevertheless, similar measuring instruments were developed in both phases to enable comparison between the phases. According to the exploratory sequential mixed methods and the triangulation techniques, if the results support both phases, then the measuring instrument is accurate; however, if the findings of both phases are contradictory, then the measuring instrument is considered as flawed (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Moran-Ellis et al., 2006).

In this research the accuracy of the measuring instruments is confirmed by similar findings in both the interview and survey data analysis phases. These conclusive findings are then discussed in terms of the understanding, knowledge and findings of the extant literature. This Chapter is the elaboration of this process of data discussion in the exploratory, sequential mixed methodology.

8.2 Research Themes:

The research theme of the discussion Chapter follows the same theme order developed in the methodology Chapter (Section 5.5.3), which has also been followed in the qualitative interview analysis Chapter and in the quantitative survey questionnaires analysis Chapter.

8.2.1 Competency

IC is the dependent variable and the unit of analysis of this research. Each of developed factors, or the independent variables, is discussed in terms of its effect on IC. Therefore, this theme is a discussion of those factors that affect IC, meaning of competency and individuals' competency.

8.2.1.1 Factors Affecting IC

In the first phase of the interview analysis, respondents were asked about what would affect IC. Majority of the interviewees responded "motivation". When they were asked what the reasons are for individuals to work competently, their answers were mainly good personality, ambition and motivation. Therefore, further inquiry into motivation was carried out in the second phase of the survey questionnaire. This research finds that individuals derive motivation from several sources: their personal culture, from themselves or self-motivation, living happily, family encouragement, working environment, being empowered and through receiving education and training. Both phases of analysis support the importance and positive effect of motivation on IC.

In fact, this finding is supported by critical understanding of the literature. According to Handy (2007), many theories were built on motivation and motivating individuals at work. Also, Deal et al. (2013) argue that motivation is one of the main encouraging drives for individuals to do more work. Consequently, the role of individuals' manager is essential, as the manager can influence individuals positively to work more and should know what motivates individuals. In addition to the managerial role, individuals themselves can and should motivate themselves. Gagne et al. (2010) argue that self-determined motive is an intrinsic motivational drive. It is evident when individuals perform their work because they want to and because they find it satisfying. Such motivation is based on having good personality and ambition; as found in the interview phase (Section 6.3.1.1). In fact, self-determination and ones' motivational drive is also evident in responses to Q.67 (Table D-17.2). When respondents were asked who contributed to their own competencies, the majority of the respondents (91.3%) agreed that it is themselves who contributed to their own development. They also believe that their work colleagues contributed to their competencies (72.0%) more than their manager did (64.6%).

On the contrary, participants were asked about what will make individuals work less. The majority of the interviewees commented that individuals will work less because they are not caring (12 interviewee, 29.3%), working with over employment (7 interviewee, 17%), unfairly treated (10 interviewee, 24.4%), and unappreciated (12 interviewee, 29.3%). Similarly, in the survey phase, 29.5% of the respondents agreed that their managers' mistreatment (or unfairly treated) will make them work less. Also, 25.3 % of the respondents agreed that being unappreciated will affect them negatively, leading them to work less. In other words, even though these elements of not caring, over employment, unfair treatment, and un-appreciation effect individuals to work less, the majority of the respondents disagreed that these will affect them negatively (Table D-17.44).

8.2.1.2 Meaning of Competency

Controversies over the meaning of competency were discussed in the literature review (Section 2.2.2). Competency has been conceived in different ways; as the desired work output by individuals (Boam & Sparrow, 1992; Bowden & Masters, 1993; Strebler et al., 1997; Woodruffe, 1993 and Rothwell & Kazanas, 1993), as individuals performing work to predetermined standard (Hager et al., 1994; Rutherford, 1995; Strebler et al., 1997), and as personal attributes, such as knowledge, skills and the ability to execute the knowledge and skills in particular work contexts (Boyatzis, 1982; Hunt & Meech, 1991; Sternberg & Kolligian Jr., 1990). Crucially, organisation decide the required definition that suit their purpose the best (Burgoyne, 1993; Hoffmann, 1999).

Interviewees did not have a clear understanding of their organisational meaning or definition of competency. In the literature competency is considered as the desired work output by individuals (Strebler et al., 1997; Woodruffe, 1993), as individuals performing work to predetermined standard (Hager et al., 1994; Rutherford, 1995; Strebler et al., 1997), and as personal attributes, such as knowledge, skills and ability to execute work (Boyatzis, 1982; Hunt & Meech, 1991). In addition, competency was defined based on the quality of the individuals' output and therefore competency is based on work standards (Hager et al., 1994; Rutherford, 1995; Strebler et al., 1997). Therefore, according to the literature there is no unified meaning of competency theoretically nor practically (Yang et al., 2006). However, organisations

should define competency based on their desired end result and what serves their purpose (Burgoyne, 1993; Hoffmann, 1999).

In the interview phase, interviewee 05 - FKG-M-MED stated *"His work will tell me that. For example, I will give him work to do and I will see how well he will perform it"*. Only one interviewee (25 - MKG-E-OIL) stated that *"it depends on how I measure competency... For example, what I will be looking for, his quality of work or his commitment to coming to work. So it depends on your measures"*. Based on the majority of the interviewees' responses, it is clear that the organisation did not define what constitutes competency for their individuals. Consequently, these individuals constituted their own understanding of what defines competency based on their work. This individual interpretation could be right to an extent, based on each of the individuals' experiential understanding of their work. Critically, their interpretation could be wrong and may not be working toward the organisational purpose. Therefore, competency meaning was measured on a bigger scale in the survey questionnaires. It was found that two thirds of the survey respondents know what their organisation meant by competency and one third are either not sure or do not know. This means that one third of the working individuals are not sure or don't know what things define them as competent individuals in their work. Therefore, however hard they work it may not mean that they are performing competently towards the organisational purpose.

8.2.1.3 Others Individuals' Competency

In this research, IC was investigated at all levels of the organisation. Individuals at middle, lower and top levels all contribute to their organisation. Therefore, individuals were asked about others' individual competencies.

In the first phase of the interview, the majority of the interviewees argued that their managers are not competent at their work. They cited some incidents that reveal how incompetent their managers are. Some also added that their managers' incompetency affected them and shook their trust of their managers' abilities. Similarly, some senior management interviewees reveal that their employees are the ones who are incompetent and they are the one who were affected by their employees' behaviour and incompetency. It can be inferred that individuals are not satisfied or satisfied by others' IC.

The same theme was investigated in the second phase of the survey questionnaire. Unlike the interview analysis, the majority of the respondents agreed that they, their colleagues, managers and employees are competent at their work (Q.66). However, based on Table D-17.8, the output depicts that the majority of the lower level individuals (75.8%) believe that their managers are competent. This is not the case with the managers. Only 52.4% of the managers think that their employees are competent at work (Table D-17.9). So a cross-tabulation was done to identify the effect of years of experience and how individuals perceive others' competencies. The output reveals that the greater individuals' work experience, the less they think their colleagues and manager are competent (Appendix D-17, Table D-17.7 and D-17.8). Therefore, in comparison to the first phase, interviewees may be affected by the years of work experience. On the contrary, the more work experience the managers have the more they think their employees are more competent (Appendix D-17, Table D-17.9). Once again, it is evident that work experience does have an effect on how one individual rates other individuals' competencies. Therefore, the two phases' output cannot conclusively be compared as one phase (interview), lacking the effect of years of experience.

In addition, recall the findings of Q. 67 (Table D-17.2), respondents believe that their work colleagues have contributed to their competencies (72.0%) more than their manager did (64.6%). This finding supports the idea that individuals believe that their colleagues (79.7%) are more competent than their manager (75.8%) Q. 66. In other words, individuals have more confidence in their colleagues' competency than they do in their managers' competency.

The construct competency is the independent variable in this thesis. Therefore, competency will be discussed according to the other dependent variable in all of the following themes.

8.2.2 Prior Education

The literature review provided a contradictory conclusion for the effect of PED on IC. Researchers such as Elton & Shevel (1969) and McClelland (1998) argued that PED does not have an effect on IC. Whereas researchers such as Riley (2002) and Spence (1973) argued that PED has an effect on IC. Another research by (Sluis et al., 2008) argued that the relationship between PED and IC is weak.

A similar result occurred in the first phase of the interview analysis. Nevertheless, majority of the interviewees argued that PED has an effect on IC, mainly because it will prepare employees for future work (30 - MNKP-M-O), and it is the foundation employees relay on when starting their work (27 - FKG-M-OIL). To investigate why some individuals would think that PED has no effect on IC, they were asked whether they are working in the same field of their PED. It was found that there are large numbers in both groups (who are working in the same field of their PED and who are not). Therefore, the same two questions were developed for the second phase survey questionnaires. In this phase it was found that only 59.2% (452) (Table D-17.10) of the respondents are actually working in the same field of their PED (Q.1); leaving 40.8% (307) who are not. In addition, when respondents were asked about the effect of PED on IC (Q.3), 70.5% (Table D-17.10) of the respondents agreed that PED helped them perform their work.

Based on both phases of analysis, it can be argued the effect of PED will not be properly experienced by individuals if they are not working in the same field as their PED. In fact, interviewees who worked at the same field as their PED valued the effect of PED on IC. Similarly, 83.5% of the survey respondents who were working in the same field as their PED also agreed that PED has positively affected them at work (Table D-17.12). Therefore, the more individuals work at the same field of their PED, the more it will positively affect their competency at work.

In addition, both questions (Q.1 and Q.3) were compared to the demographic data of educational level. It was found that the higher the educational level of the individuals, the more they will work at the same field of their PED, and therefore the more they will benefit from PED at work.

Another issue of PED is the individuals' specialization or major at school. Two interviewees explained that if the individuals were specialized in school with majors such as administrative or in the business field, then they could work in any kind of administrative job. In other words, individuals do work in a different field than their PED. Whereas, individuals specialized in majors such as engineering, medical, or law, then they will be working in the same field of their PED. To investigate this matter further, survey respondents on both of the group majors (Q.4 and Q.5) agree (62.9% and 67.0%) that both groups will have an effect on IC. Comparing the two

phases, it is evident that they do agree, as the majority of the interviewees think that PED has an effect on IC regardless of the individuals' school major. The survey respondents rating of both major groups were almost the same.

8.2.2.1 Teachers' Competencies

The importance of having the proper teacher or instructor has been demonstrated in the literature review in Emad & Roth's (2008) study (Section 2.7.2.1). In their study, it shows that the maritime students did not benefit from their PED and Training. The reason is that their teachers where educating and training them to simply take and pass the exam rather than to understand and to gain knowledge. Therefore, the student did not acquire the required knowledge for their work. As a result, they did not succeed at work. This study reflects on the importance of having the proper teachers and trainers for the students in order to maximize their knowledge and skills for their future work.

Therefore, interviewees were asked about teachers' competencies. Almost every interviewee had a good and a weak teacher. They reflected on how good teachers affected them at work. For example, interviewee (25 - MKG-E-OIL) commented "*He (the teacher) helped us and taught us in a way that he prepared us for our future jobs*". Nevertheless, they commented on the incompetent teachers much more than the good ones. This is an indicator that they were negatively affected by their bad treatments, lack of knowledge or neglect. One interviewee who is a teacher herself in an elementary government school gave a few examples of incompetent teachers. She mentioned that some non-Kuwaiti teachers were not able to speak proper Arabic and they were using their national accent, leaving the students unable to understand what the teacher is delivering. In addition, she questions their qualification, which is also argued in Kuwait local newspapers. Finally, she mentioned the physical violence of one of them towards the students and not having her punished, but simply moving her to different schools where she kept on committing the same physical violence on other students. These, cases have resulted in failure of 40% of students, and reported on by two more parent interviewees. The literature review revealed the effect of incompetent teachers on students as well as its effect on other teachers. Mclaughlin & Talbert (2001) argued that schools should invest in developing their teachers. Their development will enable the teachers to share their best practice with students

as well as with other colleagues and hence will be reflected on the organisation. Also, in Muijs & Lindsay's (2008) research they argue through suggestive evidences that teachers' learning can have a direct impact on student attitudes toward learning, curriculum, pedagogy and on the relation between teachers and their students. Nevertheless, it is clear that the teachers in Kuwait are receiving training as part of their organisational roles and promotion requirement. However, according to the interviewees, it is clear that some of those teachers are not only incompetent in delivering their educational material in the original Arabic language; some are unfortunately also violating the law and not being punished. Moving a teacher from one school to another repeatedly is definitely not a punishment, nor is it stopping them from such behaviour. This interviewee (teacher 07 - FKG-E-ED) was expressing these cases in a sad tone that reflects here frustration and disappointment in both the incompetent teacher as well as the way their organisation ideals with such cases.

This case of incompetent teachers was further investigated in the second phase survey questionnaires. The outcome reveals that 76% of the respondents feel that their teachers were competent, 15.5% were neutral, and only 8.1% disagreed (Table D-17.15). Nevertheless, this outcome is based on respondents who mainly obtained either a two years diploma or Bachelor degree holders (78.8). There are only 2.8% who have 'below high school' qualification; whereas, in the interviewee phase the discussed cases of incompetent teachers are in the elementary level. Nevertheless, Table D-17.16, indicates clearly that the lower the educational level of individuals the less competent their teachers are, with high significance of p value = 0.007. In addition, according to interviewee 07 - FKG-E-ED: "*In the end they are young kids and they don't protest on anything because they don't know what they are offered, but in the end it is our kids who get harmed by such bad learning*". Thus both phases of data analysis reveal that the incompetent teacher is evident more at lower levels of education.

8.2.2.2 Prior Education and Individuals' Competency

PED and IC are found to be correlated empirically in both phases of the analysis. In the first phase of the interview (Appendix C-9) depicts the correlated coding of IC with the coding of PED, using QSR NIVIVO 10 software. Similarly, in the second

phase of the survey analysis, Pearson's Correlations (Appendix D-8, Table D-8.1) depicts the positive correlation between PED construct and Competency construct. Therefore, empirically, PED has an effect on IC.

8.2.3 On-job Education

The findings of the OJED in both phases (interview and survey) are very similar. In the first phase, several interviewees discussed the importance of OJED and its effects on IC. The problem however is that even though OJED is a requirement of their organisation policies, it does not mean that individuals are regularly receiving OJED. In fact, it is part of individuals' appraisal requirements. Regardless of the amount individuals are receiving OJED, interviewees demonstrated their desire to be educated on-job. Similarly, in the second phase respondents were asked whether the received OJED is helping them at work. The output (Table D-17.17) reveals that 72.1% of the respondents agree that the OJED they received is helping them perform better at work; as for those who think that OJED did not help them (11.8%) it may be due to several reasons. For example, that they did not receive OJED, therefore it is understandably hard for them to identify its measure, or they could have received OJED that is not related to their work, or maybe because individuals did not have the will to learn at work.

The literature argued that the importance of OJED is increasingly rising. However, individuals may take these courses for many other reasons, such as seeking a higher status or self-image (Alainati et al., 2010); whereas the purpose of education is to develop individuals and turn them into active participants (Jørgensen, 2004). It is also to provide individuals with the required knowledge (Firestone & McElroy, 2004).

To investigate respondents' choice of answer, they were also asked about the number of training courses that they are receiving per year (if any). Their response (Table D-17.18) reveals that the respondents' amount of training received varied but is closely distributed between 'two or more' (29.8%) training courses per year, 'once a year' (24.6%), and 'once in several years' (23.9%). In total, 78.3% of the respondents received training at one point, and 17.2% 'did not receive any' training.

Among those who received training (78.3%), 82.3% of them also think that OJED helped them at work (See Appendix D-17, Table D-17.19). This percentage is high with a p value of 0.000 which is highly significant. Therefore, it can be inferred that the more individuals receive OJED, the more they can relate OJED as a factor that helps them to perform at work.

8.2.3.1 On-job Education Choice of Educational Courses

The first phase of the interview reveals that the HR department, manager and/or individuals themselves could assign the OJED. Interviewees explained that the down side of this system may lead managers relaying on their individuals for signing up for courses. These courses may be chosen for their suitability of time or desire, rather than for their relevance and importance for work. Therefore, the organisation may pay for the wrong course and individuals may be attending redundant courses. Having the right OJED is a win-win situation if it has been taken for the right reasons, which are to gain the required knowledge and transform that knowledge for work.

In the literature, Khan & Afzal (2011) assert the importance of OJED. They argued that education will not only have positive effect on individuals, such as skills and knowledge, but will also have a positive effect on the development of a country's economy. Similarly, Awan et al. (2011) argues that education is highly correlated with growth and development.

Accordingly, in the second phase of the survey, respondents revealed their preference on how to receive the OJED. The majority was to receive it through courses (86.1%), then colleagues (71.3%), and the least preferred is through their manager (61.6%) (Table D-17.20).

8.2.3.2 On-job Education and Individuals' Competency

Receiving sufficient amount of OJED is also important, since it will provide the individual with the required knowledge. In the first phase, 57.5% of the interviewees said that they do believe that their organisation has invested enough for them to learn (Figure 6.10). In the second phase, 52.2% of the respondents agree that their organisation is providing them with sufficient education at work (Table D-17.21).

The importance of OJED is reflected in the literature. Lustri et al. (2007) discuss the effect of both IC and organisational competency on individual learning or OJED. They argue that when the organisation invests in developing their individuals, who are considered the organisational most important asset, they in return will benefit their organisation through successful implementation of the knowledge they have learnt.

Respondents were also asked about learning by accessing the organisational data base. The result shows that there are 49.3% of the respondents can access the organisational database and learn from it (Table D-17.22). Importantly, in both phases of data analysis the interview (Figure 6.11) and the survey questionnaire (Pearson's Correlations, Appendix D-8, Table D-8.1), OJED and Competency do correlate. This finding supports the literature which also agrees that OJED has a positive effect on IC.

8.2.4 Prior Training

Conclusions on the effect of PT on IC in the literature were contradicting. Some researchers, such as Schonewille (2001) and Emad & Roth (2008), argue that PT has no effect or lacks evidence for its effect on IC. On contrary, researchers such as Nelson & Phelps (1966) not only emphasized the importance of PT, but they also argue that training should continue on job as well, to maintain and have more creative and expert individuals.

Working individuals were asked in both of the analytical phases their opinion on the effect of PT on IC. In the first phase, similar to the literature discussion, there were three groups of opinion on the effect of PT on IC. The majority of the interviewee (67%) believed that PT does have an effect on IC; where as 33% commented that it has 'somewhat effect', and 11% who argued that PT has no effect. The percentage for those who believe it has an affect may not be very high, however there are other reasons for this. For example, one interviewee 03 - FKG-E-O, said: "*Prior training is different because they trained me somewhere that has nothing to do with my future work, it's totally different. They trained me somewhere and they evaluated me as high as possible but it will still have nothing to do with the nature work of the social security, it is totally different work that I cannot benefit from at all*". Nevertheless, this is a minority, because the majority (67%) believe that it has an effect.

In the second phase of the survey analysis, respondents were asked the same. (Q.13). their response was similar to interviewees' responses (Table D-17.23). It was found that 64.0% (488) of the respondents agree that PT did help them at their future work. At the same time 22.1% (169) are neutral and 13.9% (106) disagreed. In fact, it was found that 0.12% of the interviewees did not receive PT. Nevertheless, to understand this result deeper in terms of how it is determined, it was necessary to establish whether they received the proper PT or not. Therefore, respondents were also asked whether the training they received is linked to the market need (Q.14). Only 23.1% (176) of the respondents believe that their PT was linked to the market needs; while the majority (39.7%) were neutral. Therefore, it is clear that the provided PT is low in its relevance to the market need, which is why many think that it is relevant. But what if these individuals received the proper PT? When correlating those respondents who agree that PT is linked to the market need (Q.14) and those who think that PT helped them at work (Q.13), it was found that 86.9% are correlated in both groups (Table D-17.25). This means, the more PT is linked to the market need, the more individuals will benefit from PT at their work. This agrees with the interviewee analysis where interviewee 03 - FKG-E-O commented that the PT that she received: "*has nothing to do with the nature work of the social security*" or her current job. That is why her opinion is that PT has no effect on IC; which is understandable. This was also found in the survey analysis. Nevertheless, it is empirically evident that PT should be linked to the market needs in order to have a positive effect on future employees' competency. This is also true regardless of school specialization that the individuals chose (Table D-17.22)

8.2.4.1 Prior Training and Individuals' Competency

In both phases of the exploratory sequential analysis, PT is found to be empirically correlated with IC. In the first phase of the interview, a model was developed to represent this correlation (Figure. 6.12). In the second phase, Pearson's Correlations was used (Appendix D-8, Table D-8.1) to depict the same correlation. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted (H2a: Prior training has positive effect on IC).

8.2.5 On-job Training

OJT was investigated for its effect on IC. In the literature, there are contradicting findings on its effect on IC. For example, Emad & Roth (2008) argued, according to

their research, that OJT and OJED has no effect on IC. Whereas, researchers such as Buganza et al. (2013) and Muijs & Lindsay (2008) argued not only the positive effect of OJT, but its importance on individuals at work and their organisation. Therefore, both phases of the analysis were investigated the effect of OJT on IC.

In the first phase of the interview, interviewees responded according to four different opinion groups. The first group, the majority of the interviewees (63.3%), argued that OJT positively affects their competency at work. In addition, they argued that they are receiving OJT in order to implement those skills they have gained at their work. The second major group of interviewees (18.3%) argued that there is 'somewhat effect of OJT' on individuals. For example, "*The problem is that the training courses are not enough because they don't evaluate you based on what you need*" (23 - FKG-E-OIL). The third major group (10.2%) argued that there is no or minor effect of OJT on IC. They gave several reasons for this occurring; because individuals are not serious about OJT (36.4%), OJT is irrelevant (24.2%), OJT was not good (15.1%), individuals did not follow OJT effect (12.1%), individuals could not implement what they have learned (9%), and only 3% did not give any reason. The Fourth and final group (8.2%) argued that OJT has a negative effect rather than a positive effect. For example, "*when other organisations that operate on the same line as we do opened up the opportunities for employment. All those we have trained were offered double the salary and they went for the other organisation. The funny thing is that the new organisation could not keep up with the high salaries and they had to reduce their salaries! And they frankly told them 'that's what we can offer you for your job take it or leave it'. Many of them came back to us to work but we did not accept to take them back. Other employees have to learn from this incident*" (02 - MKP-T-O). However, the majority of the interviewees (63.3%) argued that OJT is affecting their competency at work.

The third major group of respondents who argued that OJT has no or minor effect of OJT on IC is similar to Emad & Roth (2008). They investigated the effect of maritime education and training systems on individuals' competency. Their study shows that both education and training did not benefit individuals to be more competent at work. There are several reasons for these results: first their training and education was designed based on a written and oral examination where the students had to take and pass, rather than achieve certain competencies. Second, the students

behaved accordingly to pass rather than to acquire skills and knowledge. Third, the teachers taught the students what they needed to know to pass, rather than to acquire skills and knowledge. In other words, what the interviewees voiced is that individuals are not going to benefit from the OJT if their intention is not to learn. By the same token, students in Emad & Roth (2008) study, will not acquire the required knowledge and skills if they are concentrating on passing alone rather than learning and being trained.

In the second phase of the survey questionnaire, similar results are obtained. It was found that 77.2% of the respondents agree that OJT is affecting their competency at work (Q.18). Similarly, it was found that 74.2% of the respondents agree that the OJT they received is relevant to their job requirements (Q.17) (Table D-17.27). In addition, when correlating both questions (17 and 18), the findings show that 93.6% of those respondents who agree that OJT has affected their competency at work are also the ones who agree that the OJT is relevant to their job needs or requirements (Table D-17.28). Nevertheless, only 46.4% who agree that their organisations are providing them with enough training, whereas 26.6% think that the OJT they are receiving is not enough. Therefore, this could be the reason why some respondents did not find the OJT is effective for their IC.

Comparing the two phases, even though in the interviewee phase 63.3% agrees on the positive effect of OJT on IC, the second phase of survey confirmed the result of the first phase with even a higher percentage of 77.2%. Therefore, both data analysis phases support the finding that OJT positively affects IC. Therefore, the majority of the interviewees emphasised the importance of OJT.

8.2.5.1 Individuals' Perception of On-job Training

In the first phase of the interview, individuals' perception of the OJT is found to be unique. While majority of the respondents (57.1%) argued that OJT is 'to gain skills' that are required for them to be competent, 28.6% commented that they do OJT for 'Leisure or break'. These are two significant groups on how individuals' perceive OJT, yet they seem to be two different purposes. Therefore, the researcher asked a more direct question on how serious they are about the OJT. The results were similar, 46.2% of the respondents commented that they are 'serious about training', whereas 22% were 'not serious about training'.

To investigate this matter deeply, the second phase of the survey asked respondents multiple questions (Q.23) of how they perceives the OJT. It was found that 93.9% of them think that the gained skills from OJT made them more competent at work (Q.18), they are the same respondents who think that training courses are to develop their own competency needs (Q.23.1) (Appendix D-17, Table D-17.34). It was also found that 26.6% of those who think OJT is for 'leisure or vacation' (23.3), also think that the skills they gained from OJT are making them more competent (Q.18) (Appendix D-17, Table D-17.36). Therefore, the more individuals associate their OJT with the purpose of 'developing their competency need', the more they acquire the required skills and become competent at work (Q.18). On the contrary, the more individuals associate their OJT with the purpose of 'leisure and vacation', the more they less competency they gain (Q.18).

The second phase of the survey provided more concrete evidence on how individuals' perceives OJT. While only 57.1% of respondents argued that OJT is to gain skills, 93.9% of the survey respondents agree that OJT is for developing their skills and competencies. Also, while 28.6% of the interviewees commented that OJT is for 'Leisure or break', only 28.8% of the survey respondents think that OJT is for 'leisure or vacation' (Table D-17.32). Therefore, both phases support each other's findings.

This is further supported from responses to Q.20 and Q.21; their desire for learning and acquiring skills to develop their competency. 68.9% of the respondents agree that if they were not offered OJT, they would ask for one (Q.20) and they are willing to pay for it themselves in order to learn (Q.21) (Table D-17.37). This indicates individuals' willingness and motivation to learn and gain new skills.

8.2.5.2 On-job Choice of Training

The On-job choice of training was also investigated, because interview participants argued that many will choose their OJT based on its location or convenience rather than it usability. Therefore, when analysing the choice of OJT, it was found that the majority (47.6%) of the interviewees will choose the OJT programs along with their managers, 28.6% 'the manager or superior', 14.3% 'Myself', and 9.5% 'Other' people.

In the second phase survey analysis, it was found that the majority who make the decision regarding the OJT are themselves or 'Myself' (59.5%) and the 'manager' (58.8%). The least are 'HR / Training Manager' (44.6%). This finding too supports the interview phase.

8.2.5.3 On-job Training and Individuals' Competency

In both phases of the data analysis, OJT is found to be correlated with IC. In the interview phase, Figure 6.17 depicts the relation between OJT and IC. Similarly, the survey questionnaires phase Pearson's Correlations (Appendix D-8, Table D-8.1) depicts the positive effect of OJT and IC.

8.2.6 Prior Personal Characteristics

In the literature review, it was shown that Geller & Bamberger (2009) discuss PPC gaps such as adult attachment and caregiving in relation to how it affects individuals' behaviour at work. Their study is an extension of Bowlby's (1969) attachment theory. Their findings reveal that attachment anxiety is inversely linked with helping constructs, yet it also weakens the inverse effect of avoidance on helping. This finding suggests that individuals' PPC would influence their behaviour at work while interacting with others. This behaviour is translated in their willingness whether or not to help their colleagues at work. However, according to Rom & Mikulincer, (2003) and E. R. Smith et al. (1999), individuals' attachment to colleagues at work should be different than their attachment behaviour to friends and family.

In the interview phase, majority of the interviewees not only commented on the positive effect of PPC on IC, but also its importance. Specifically, interviewee (24 - FKG-M-OIL), provided a real life example of well-educated new graduate who obtained the highest grades at the university as well as the organisational examinations. Nevertheless, her PPC led her to lose her job. Therefore, even if the person has good qualifications, their personality is essential to succeed at work. In addition, interviewees mentioned other elements that could affect individuals PPC and therefore their work; namely, motivation, gender and marital status.

In the second phase of the survey analysis, PPC was investigated deeply. It was found that the majority of the respondents do have a good relationship with their friends and family (95.3%), yet if they were faced with problems at home, then

41.8% of the respondents will be negatively affected at work. However, having hard personal experience will make them more determined to achieve more at work (72.2%) (Table, D-18.25).

Additionally, gender and marital status were incorporated in the PPC investigation (accept motivation which was discussed in Section 8.2.1.1). It was found that the more individuals have problems at home, the less they will be determined to achieve at work. This result however has a minor difference between genders. Nevertheless, marital status has an effect of IC. It was found that married individuals have more family problems that affect their work than single individuals. Nevertheless, married individuals are found to be more determined to achieve at work (Appendix D-17, Table D-17.42 and D-17.43). Accordingly, the survey phase results support the interview phase findings.

In the literature review emotional intelligence (EI) was discussed, because it also has a role on how individuals deal with family and work pressure. According to Gao et al. (2013) when individuals are faced with work-family conflict (WFC) and/or work-to-family interference (WFI), if they have a high level of EI then they will not be effected by these problems. The opposite is also true, if individuals are with low EI then these problems will affect them.

8.2.6.1 Prior Personal Characteristics and Individuals' Competency

In both interview and survey analysis phases, PPC is found to correlate with IC. In the interview phase, Figure 6.18 depicts the relation between PPC and IC. Similarly, in the survey phase, Pearson's Correlations (Appendix D-8, Table D-8.1) depicts the positive effect of PPC and IC.

8.2.7 On-job Personal Characteristics

OJPC was explored in the first phase of the interview and further explored in the survey phase. In the first phase, interviewees argued that there are several elements that would affect an individuals' behaviour at work. Mainly, they are motivation, reward and loyalty. First, motivation has already been discussed (Section 8.2.1.1). Second, rewards were classified by interviewees mainly as financial and non-financial. Both had similar percentages. 50% of the interviewees talked about financial and 43.8% about the non-financial rewards. In the second phase of the

survey analysis, 86.5% of the respondents agree that both financial and non-financial rewards are important (Q.92). Therefore, both phases of the data analyses agree about the findings.

This finding however differs from extant research in literature. According to Petersen & Poulfelt (2002), the financial reward was not motivating the individuals; rather it was the structure, the management and the culture of the organisation that motivate individuals. Nevertheless, their research purpose was to motivate individuals to share their knowledge. Unlike the purpose of this research which is to motivate individuals to be more competent at work.

Third is loyalty. In the interview phase, loyalty was a big concern of the upper management. They mentioned that the reason they are not spending much on training employees is that because they are not loyal. Individuals will tend to leave their organisation after they have been trained, especially in the private sector. They will leave their organisation for a better salary or position. This was confirmed in the second phase of the survey analysis, with 78.8% agreeing that they will leave their organisation for a better opportunity, salary or position (Q.38.2). Nevertheless, when the respondents were asked about their commitment to their organisation, 84.8% of the respondents agreed that they are committed to their organisation (Table D-17.44).

Loyalty, as confirmed in the extant literature, is an important aspect of collective society. For loyal individuals the interest of the group is more important than the interest of individuals (Hofstede et al., 2010). Kuwait is a collective kind of society, where loyalty is considered an essential part of the culture. Being disloyal is not acceptable. Polanyi (1966) and Searle (1969) added that individuals may not be committed to their work for many reasons, among them job insecurity.

Another finding of the survey analysis concerns the effect of work problems on individuals' personal life. 45.6% of the respondents agree that if they had a problem at work it will affect them negatively at home (Q.31) (Table D-17.45). By the same token, 41.8% of the respondents agree that if they had problems at home it will affect them negatively at work. The two percentages are close to each other. However, this finding indicates that work problems have more of an effect than home problems on an individuals' psychological state.

279

8.2.7.1 Individuals' Behaviour

This Sub-section is the discussion of new variables and exploration of known ones. In the exploratory sequential mixed methods, and according to Creswell (2013), the researcher starts with the qualitative research strategy in order to explore the interviews' point of view. Then, the quantitative method is used to follow up on the qualitative phase and develop more variables.

In the first phase of the interview analysis, interviewees discussed more elements that would affect their OJPC on work. The most common element is 'feeling frustrated' (20%). Even though it is a negative indicator, the other two common elements were 'bad OJE but I do work' (10%) and being ambitious (9%). This indicates that even though many of the interviewees are devastated and are working in a 'bad' working environment, they are still working to their best ability and they are still ambitious.

In the second phase of the survey analysis, respondents were asked whether they are satisfied about several elements (Q.35). These elements differed from the first interview phase. In accordance with the exploratory sequential mixed methods at this phase, more variables were developed to explore OJPC further. It was found that the majority of the respondents were happy with their colleagues, managers' treatment, employees' performance, their own knowledge, skills, organisational levels, themselves and current job in general. On the other hand, the least they were happy with is their organisational education and training they received (Table D-17.46). Respondents were also asked about their preference of working alone or with others. It was found that 79% of the respondents like to work with others or in teams, and 88.5% of the respondents like to socialize with other colleagues (Table D-17.47).

Though the second survey phase established that individuals are happy with many elements at their work, in the first phase of the interview analysis it was clear that individuals' behaviour contained both positive and negative behaviours. The majority of the interviewees discussed individuals' 'positive behaviour' (51.9%), while 36.8% of the interviewees discussed individuals' 'negative behaviour'. In fact, in the second phase of the survey analysis, 82.4% of the respondents agree that if their colleagues are working hard, it will also motivate them to work harder and compete. In addition, 76.7% of the respondents agreed that if they were working on

280

something creative, they will share it with their colleagues. This confirms their positive behaviour.

In the literature, Searle (1969) discussed the importance of focusing on individuals' intention, belief and commitment embedded within individuals' belief, because it is what makes them act the way they do.

8.2.7.2 Managers' Behaviour

This Sub-section also reports new variables of OJPC. In the first phase of the interview analysis, 53.3% of the interviewees commented on their managers' negative behaviour. On the contrary, 32.5% of the respondents commented on their positive behaviour of their managers. However, in the second phase of the survey analysis, 75% of the respondents agree that they are happy with their manager, and only 10.7% are not happy (Table D-17.46). In addition, 79.8% of the respondents agree that they follow their managers' instructions.

Therefore, there is conflicting finding on how individuals perceive their managers. There are several possible reasons. First, in the interview analysis, interviewees were talking about and giving examples of several different incidents. Therefore, the accumulation of negative managerial incidents increased the percentage of how interviewees truly feel about their current manager. Another explanation is that the researcher's use of the snowballing techniques for collecting data, which could result in some respondents being given this survey questionnaire through their manager. Therefore, knowing that the manager will collect their survey questionnaire to return it to the researcher, they may have been guarded about their answers.

8.2.7.3 On-job Personal Characteristics and Individuals' Competency

OJPC is found to be correlated in both interview and the survey analytical phases. This relation is depicted in Figure 6.23, for the interview analysis. Similarly, Table 7.6 'Pearson's Correlations' depicts the correlation.

8.2.8 Prior Environment

PE is about the individuals' own culture. According to Hofstede (1984), all individuals are affected by their culture which includes family, social, group, geographical region, and professional environment. Individuals who live in one

country share national characteristics. Schein (2010) described that culture provides its individuals with a sense of identity and values that contribute to their self-esteem. Therefore, Lu (2006) argues that understanding of culture at the individual level cannot be generalized for people's behaviour in all cultures. Cultural variances exist at the cultural level as well as at multiple levels in the same culture depending on individuals' characteristics. Individuals' characteristics also play a part on individual behaviour, hence performance or competency at work.

In the first phase of the interview analysis, interviewees were asked whether they think that PE has an effect on IC or not. 93.3% of the respondents argued that PE does have an effect on IC. 5% of the respondents commented that it might have an effect, and only one interviewee (1.7%) commented that it does not. Majority of the interviewees committed on the effect of PE on IC, especially in relation to individual's family values and how a person is raised. Respondents also combined PE with PC; together they will determine to what degree individuals are affected by their culture and therefore reflected on their IC at work. In addition, when interviewees were asked about the effect of PE on IC, 84.6% of the respondents discussed the negative effect of PE. This however, does not mean that PE is negatively affects IC 84.6% at work. Rather, it is the amount of how many times interviewees discussed a negative incident that is in relation to PE. When individuals are faced with negative circumstances and they are affected or hurt by these incidents, they do recall them for their effect.

Similar to the discussion in Sub-section 8.2.7.1, after exploring the first interview phase, the second survey phase was developed to explore PE further. Hence, in the second phase of the survey analysis, respondents were asked about the effect of PE on other colleagues. It was found that the most important element for individuals when dealing with other employees is not to be a threat to them (56.4%). Second is that they are from the same cultural background (53.6%) and third that they are from the same department (52.9%). Nevertheless, the majority of the respondents feel that their culture is encouraging them to work with others (54%).

8.2.8.1 Prior Environment and Individuals' Competency

It was found that PE and IC correlate when using Pearson's Correlations (Appendix D-8, Table D-8.1). Therefore, hypothesis H4a 'Prior environment has a positive effect on IC' is accepted (See Section 7.8.4).

8.2.9 On-job Environment

The literature review found that an organisation can have more than one culture within it. These culture will be associated with not only the different nationals working, but also across different departments, functional groups or geographical locations (Kotter & Heskett, 2011). These different culture have an effect on organisational success (Peters et al., 2012). Accordingly, this thesis explored the effect of OJE on IC; which is the prime asset of any organisation.

In the first phase of the interview analysis, interviewees were asked about whether their organisation is encouraging them to work. 52.7% of the interviewees agreed that their organisation is encouraging them, while 44.1% argued that it is not (Figure 6.28). To confirm this finding, interviewees were asked to classify their working environment as 'good' or 'bad' working environment. It was found that majority of interviewees described their organisational environment as poor working environment (62.9%) (Figure 6.30). In addition, interviewees were asked to classify themselves as 'happy' at their work or 'unhappy'. Interestingly, it was found that 57.7% of the interviewees are happy at their work (Figure 6.29). In other words, even though interviewees think that their working environment is poor, they still think to some degree that it is encouraging them to work and they are happy at work and love to do their job. In fact, according to the literature, motivation is considered one driver that encourages individuals to work more or to be competent at work (Deal et al., 2013). Therefore, these individuals who describe themselves as happy at work are most likely could be motivated; either by others or by themselves.

When comparing this finding with second survey phase analysis; it is found that 60.6% of the respondents agree that their organisation is trying to provide them with good working environment. In fact, 60.7% of the respondents agree that they were provided with job description by their manager and 79.4% of the respondents agree that their job description is clear to them. Therefore, it can be inferred that good or

283

positive working environment has an effect on motivation. However, further research is needed.

8.2.9.1 Organisational Rules' Effect

The effect of rules and policies was discussed in the literature review, specifically in terms of Individualism versus Collectivism (Section 2.9.1). Kuwait has a collective kind of society than individualist, where individuals take care of each other in exchange for loyalty. The same thing is also true in most of the Arabian Nationals. Therefore, the organisational setting is affected by the external culture, since each individuals brings their culture to work. According to Hofstede et al., (2010), in a collective organisation, individuals will promote or hire those individuals who belong to their group rather than consider skills or competencies.

Accordingly, interviewees were asked about rules and regualtions. They do agree that rules are created to not only potect individuals but to protect the organisation as well. Nevertheless, 70.2 % of the interviewees argue that rules have negative effect on them, because they are not being followed properly by everyone; therefore, it leads to unjust consequences. For example, one employee was givin a study leave to finish her university. They changed the rules and she was not upgraded because her organisation needed her as secratery. This rule was developed to protect the organisational interest, however, they lost that individual because she resigned. Therefore, this rule effected the individual and the organisation negatively. Nevertheless, 29.8% of the interviewees commented on the positive effcet of rules on individuals and their organisation.

It is inferred from the first phase that when rules are unfair it will affect individuals mainly and then their organisation. Therefore, in the second phase of the survey analysis, respondents were asked about the fairness of their rules and its effect on them. 64.1% of the respondents agree that rules do affect them at work, and there are 55.3% of the respondents who believe that their organisational rules are fair (Table D-17.51). This result is expected, because 70.2 % of the interviewees argued the negative effect of rules. Recall that the majority of the interviewees described their organisational environment as poor working environment (62.9%) (Section 8.2.9), this findings is not surprising. In fact, it suggests that one of the reasons that individuals classified their organisation as poor is their unfaire rules.

Respondents were asked about their reward and promotion; whether they are fair or not (Sub-section 7.9.9.2). It was found that 46.7% of the respondents think that their reward system is fair and 40.2% think that their promotion is fair. These percentages are less than half of the participants who believe that they are fair. This could also be the result of poor rules or poor implementation of the rules.

8.2.9.2 Managers' Treatment and Employees' Behaviour

In both phases of the analysis, several issues were discussed for their effect on IC, whether a manager or a regular employee. In the first phase of the interview analysis, interviewees argued that the older working generation are the more competent because they have worked longer. In other words, younger generation are less competent.

In the literature review, some research argues that younger workers are not serious about their work (Giddens, 1991; Gordon et al., 2005; Nilan et al., 2007). In fact, even though younger generations are expected to plan their life paths highly; they are not regarded as serious as the older generation (Pocock & Clarke, 2004).

On the other hand, in the second phase of the survey analysis, it was found that the older respondents are, the more they believe that: 'employees, who work for 10 years or more in their current job, are more competent than those who worked for less than 10 years'. In contrast, younger generation believe that they are more competent than the older generation.

8.2.9.3 Nepotism

Nepotism is one of the main concerns in Kuwait. Kuwait is considered a collectivist society where people stand by each other in exchange of loyalty. According to Hofstede et al. (2010), individuals will be treated favourably because they are from the same group or because they are a family member. Nevertheless, McClelland (1973b) argues that nepotism is considered an unhealthy aspect of organisational culture.

In the first phase of the interview, 92.1% of the interviewee complained about the negative effect of nepotism on them and their organisation. Many good working individuals resigned because they lost a promotion because of nepotism. The

negative effect is therefore experienced by individuals as well as the organisation that lose qualified people. On the other hand, 4.8% of the respondents argued that there is positive effect of nepotism. They argue that nepotism helped them to gain back their right to be promoted or secure a job.

In the second phase of the survey, the findings were interesting; while 77.6% of the respondents agree that nepotism negatively affects them, 63.8% of the respondents agree that nepotism may be good in some cases. In other words, nepotism is negatively hurting but it does have its advantages. To understand this deeply, respondents were asked how they are promoted. The majority (70.4%) of the respondents agree that they will be promoted based on their competencies and their manager's recommendation (65.1%). 51.5% of the respondents also personally know someone who has been promoted based on nepotism. In other words, they believe that they will be promoted based on their competency, while knowing that there are others who have been promoted based on nepotism. This could indicate that nepotism is not highly used and they believe that they will be promoted according to their competencies. Nevertheless, this nepotism is affecting them negatively even though it may be good on some occasions.

This finding is similar to Jaskiewicz et al.'s (2013) argument. They discussed that in family firms' nepotism sometimes can be beneficial. It depends on the type of nepotism being used, but sometimes it may not. Therefore, it can be inferred that nepotism usually has a negative effect on individuals and therefore the organisation. Nevertheless, when an individual is unfairly treated, then they can use nepotism to get what they deserve or consider being their right.

8.2.9.4 Kuwaiti versus Non-Kuwaitis

Another issue concerning working individuals is the Kuwaitis versus the non-Kuwaitis; with a high population of non-Kuwaiti work force compared to Kuwaiti workers. According to Kuwait central statistical bureau 2013, Kuwaitis are mainly working in the governmental sector. 73.1% of total governmental workers are Kuwaitis and 26.9% are non-Kuwaitis (Table 4.3). However, in the private sector only 5.27% are Kuwaitis to 94.73% non-Kuwaitis (Table 4.4). In addition, only 19.66% of total working sectors (governmental and private) are Kuwaitis and 80.34% are non-Kuwaitis (Table 4.5). In other words, for every one Kuwaiti worker

there are four non-Kuwaitis workers. 66.7% of the interviewees argued that the non-Kuwaitis are behaving badly or poorly at work; while 27.3% of them argued that they are good and competent at work.

In the second phase of the survey, this issue was taken further by investigating how the national issue affect the respondents' job security. It was found that the least to fear their position and specifically losing their jobs are the non-Arabian (25%), second are Kuwaitis (28.5%) and finally Arabian (45.3%). Arabian nationals fear losing their job the most; they think that Kuwaitis have job security the most (825%). Non-Arabian (75%) also thinks that Kuwaitis have more job security than the Kuwaiti themselves (71.8%). On the other hand, most Kuwaitis think that non-Kuwaitis have job security, more than non-Kuwaitis believe. In other words, each national group thinks that the other national group is more secure than they are. This unfortunately, increased the animosity between nationals.

For example, one non-Kuwaiti interviewee (35 - FNKP-M-O) reveals her feeling towards Kuwaiti workers. She expressed that non-Kuwaitis are more competent, without any evidence. She also claims that they are firing non-Kuwaiti to replace them with Kuwaitis, when the reality is that people were released from all nationality because of the economic situation. In addition, with the local government encouraging local national to work in the private sector; she objects to this decision because it threatens non-Kuwaitis from being able to find jobs; the reality is that both are struggling to secure jobs. This however, is explained in the literature review. For example, Shimizu (1978) (cited in Nonaka, 1994) discussed how humans will derive their meaning and give their judgment based on their surrounding as a survival mechanism. In addition, Schein (2010) defined organisational culture as "The culture of a group can now be defined as a pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems" (Schein, 2010, p. 18). Therefore, it can be inferred that if a group of individuals fear the competition of another group, they will think and feel in relation to the best way to face the other group. It was found that 66.3% of the respondents feel that they are more competent than individuals who are from the same country. On the other hand, 51.2% of the respondents agree that they work better than employees from another

country. This however, suggest that respondents are more secure around individuals from the same country as themselves, and less secure around other employees from other countries. Once again, this will only increase the animosity between different national groups.

8.2.9.5 On-job Environment and Individuals' Competency

In both phases of the analysis, interview and survey, OJE correlates with IC. For the first interview phase analysis, Figure 6.35 depicts the relation; for the survey phase analysis, Pearson's Correlations (Table D-8.1) depicts the positive correlation between OJE and IC (Appendix D-8).

8.2.10 Knowledge Management

KM was investigated for its effect on IC and for its usability. The literature defines knowledge as "a dynamic human process of justifying personal belief as part of an aspiration for the truth" (Nonaka, 1994, p. 15). It is composed of explicit knowledge and tacit knowledge (Polanyi, 1966). The literature also discusses the importance of KM; Edvardsson (2006) researched the effects of KM in small and medium size firms. He found that KM has positive effects on the managerial and financial outcomes as well as on the organisation as a whole. Therefore, Nonaka (1994) argues that organisations need to emphasise how to manage their information, knowledge and decisions efficiently, and in an uncertain working environment.

In the first phase of the interview, it was found that some of interviewees were not familiar with the concept KM. Therefore, in the second phase of the survey analysis, respondents were asked whether they are using KM in their organisation. The finding shows that only 34.6% of the respondents agree that their organisation is practicing KM. In addition, when they were asked about the use of the four modes of KM; the findings reveal that they do use the four modes of knowledge creation model. This however, shows that participants are practicing KM but it may not be for implementing KM, but rather as an organisational system. In another words, participants may be sharing their knowledge because they are working on a project rather than executing one of KCM modes.

The results show that KM effects IC and also that respondents are using the four modes of knowledge creation model. Nevertheless, they are not sharing their

knowledge as required practice of knowledge creation model, rather as an organisational system. Therefore, the usability of knowledge creation model on IC can be argued theoretically (See Sub-section 8.2.10.4).

8.2.10.1 Managers' Role in KM

Managers play an important role in the successful implementation of KM and in encouraging individuals to the practice knowledge creation model (Nonaka, 1994). In particular, knowledgeable individuals must be encouraged to share their knowledge with others in order for the organisation to maximize benefits. Also, when knowledge is created, it is important to create a mechanism for both individuals and groups to transfer their knowledge to others (Lustri et al., 2007).

In the first phase of the interview, 93.8% of the respondents commented about managers' encouragement of their individuals and its effect on their performance and competency at work. However, the second survey phase analysis reveals that only 34.6% of the organisations practice KM; therefore, there are only 32.8% of the upper managers who practice KM as well. If KM is not part of the organisational setting, individuals will not practice KM, or specifically the knowledge creation model.

8.2.10.2 Organisational Role in KM

Similar to the managerial role, organisations also play an important part in encouraging their individual to share their knowledge. In fact, according to Jimenez-Jimenez & Sanz-Valle, (2013) and Schimmel & Muntslag (2009), for organisations to achieve competitive advantages, they need to enable KM in their system. Therefore, Nonaka (1994) argued the importance of the role of managers in enabling their individuals to take part in knowledge creation process. This role however, should be enabled by the organisation to take an effect.

There are three organisation management models; top-down, middle-up-down and bottom-up (Section 2.5.1). The ideal type of management is the middle-up-down management. This type will enable knowledge creation to flow in all of the organisational levels; therefore knowledge creation model can be implemented in this model of organisational setting. According to Edvardsson (2006, 2007) and Petersen & Poulfelt (2002) this model will benefit organisation by increasing the improvement of decision-making, productivity, product creativity and profits.

Therefore, according to (Kluge et al., 2001) for organisation to benefit from KM, they need to construct KM throughout the organisation to give successful outcomes.

In the first phase of the interview, interviewees were asked about the practice of KM at their organisation. Some described that their organisation is based on knowledge sharing. In other words, one's success is based on the success of the group and therefore the managerial and the department success.

In the second phase of the survey, respondents were then asked whether their organisation encourages them to practice knowledge sharing. The output reveals that only 54.4% of the respondents agree that their organisation encourages them to share their knowledge. This is not surprising, as only 34.6% of the respondents agree that their organisation is practicing KM. Nevertheless, it can be inferred that organisations that practices KM do encourage their individuals to share knowledge.

8.2.10.3 Sharing Knowledge

For KM to succeed, individuals need to be willing to share their knowledge. Nonaka (1994), argued the importance of individuals' interaction for the development of the organisational level. This interaction takes place through individuals' social interaction within the organisation, to share and develop knowledge. However, their interaction is based on their willingness to share their knowledge. Akgün et al. (2005) and Coulson-Thomas (2009) argued that individuals choose to selectively share their knowledge. Individuals will do that in order to serve personal agenda. Another reason, according to Polanyi (1966) and Searle (1969) for individuals not to share, is individuals are not committed to their work because they may leave a job or because of job security (Polanyi, 1966; Searle, 1969). A third reason is discussed by Currie & Kerrin (2003), they argued that knowledge sharing may be blocked or difficult to share between groups or departments, because of the sub-culture that develops between them. For example, individuals may be loyal to their department and may not be willing to share knowledge in order to favour their department. Therefore, Kristof (1996) and Judge & Cable (1997) discussed the importance of hiring individuals who fit the organisational culture based on their qualifications and PC.

In the first phase of the interview, interviewees were asked whether they and their colleagues share their knowledge. 62.7% of the interviewee commented they do share their knowledge. On the other hand, 31.8% of the respondents argue that their colleagues choose not to share their knowledge with them or others. Interviewees gave two main reasons for individuals not sharing their knowledge; first, 30% of the interviewees argued it is because of job security, second 20% is because others may get promoted using their knowledge. These findings do support extant findings in the literature that individuals choose to selectively share their knowledge in order to serve personal agenda (Akgün et al., 2005; Coulson-Thomas, 2009), and that they are about to leave their job (Polanyi, 1966; Searle, 1969).

In the second phase of the survey analysis, respondents show that they are more willing to share their knowledge. Most of the respondents will share their knowledge with their colleagues from the same department (88.2%), with someone who helped him/her before (81.8%), with someone who can be of benefit to them (79%), when they have a new project (90.3%), and when there is a problem that needs to be solved (89.5%). Interestingly, respondents disagreed with the idea of not sharing because of losing their job (59.2%), or it could cause delay in their promotion (57%) (Table D-17.68). In this case, the second phase of the survey analysis presented different results; that individuals do share their knowledge regardless of losing a job or promotion. One reason for this different result could be that individuals believe that they will share knowledge, but others will not. Therefore, when individuals are asked about sharing knowledge, they disagreed that they will not share. However, respondents were not asked about what they think about others' sharing.

8.2.10.4 Theoretical Argument of the Usability of Knowledge Management for Individuals' Competency Model

The model of knowledge creation described earlier (Section 2.4.3.2) leads to organisational success through the competency of individuals. Knowledge creation model is based on creating, developing and sharing knowledge. The conceptual model of IC in this case could be considered new knowledge. This new knowledge of IC was investigated in the four modes of KCM for its usability in each of its four modes.

Socialization is transferring t*acit knowledge to tacit knowledge.* In this mode individuals exchange and interact with each other through socialization. The tacit knowledge that individuals are sharing with other individuals is the most difficult knowledge to be shared by an individual, because it involves one's own knowledge to be shared with others and they have to be willing to share it. This mode takes place in the organisation.

Each of the four factors effecting IC were considered in context of the socialization mode. In this mode, individuals have collected knowledge through education. This knowledge, since they are using their tacit knowledge, will be a collection of prior educational knowledge and on-job knowledge. An individual needs to have basic knowledge about a subject in order for that person to build up a working knowledge. If individuals did not have prior knowledge, in that case the individuals need to acquire the knowledge that they need in order to perform their job. It will vary from one person to another, as individuals have different capabilities to understand new knowledge. Therefore, for individuals to share their knowledge they need their on-job knowledge and, to some extent depending on the knowledge they share, their prior knowledge. This relation, education and socialization is depicted in the Figure 8.1, with a strong red solid line for on-job education and a faded red line for the prior education, because the usability of prior education is not emphasized in the model. However, as discussed earlier, prior education is the basis for individuals to build their new knowledge.

Training, unlike education, where individuals gain their skills competency, has a weak link with the socialization mode for both prior and on-job experiences. The mode does not show any usability of skills exchange. Therefore, the relation between training and socialization mode is very limited if not negligent. It is depicted with two faded blue lines for both prior and on-job experiences.

PC factor has a significant role in the socialization mode. The knowledge creation model assumes that individuals will share their knowledge. However, sharing knowledge depends totally on the individuals' PC and willingness to share their own knowledge. Behavioural studies, including personal characteristics, show that individuals choose to selectively share their knowledge (Akgün et al., 2005; Coulson-Thomas, 2009). Individuals' personal culture, or prior PC, has an effect on

such individuals' behaviour. Suh (2002) for example, discusses that individuals will be affected differently by their own personal culture depending on the degree to which they internalise their culture in terms of attitudes, belief, values and behaviour, hence having their own culture. By the same token, on-job PC is also affect by the organisational culture that makes individuals behave in a certain way (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Schein, 2010). Researchers such as Akgün et al. (2005); Gleick (1997); Searle (1969) and van der Vegt et al. (2009) discussed that individuals share knowledge only to serve personal agenda. In addition, if individuals are not committed to their work for many reasons, including their imminent departure for another job or having job insecurity, they will not share their knowledge (Polanyi, 1966; Searle, 1969). Therefore, PC has an essential role on individuals' behaviour for sharing knowledge. This relation between the factor and the mode is depicted with two solid green lines to represent the affect, role and usability of both prior and on-job experiences on individuals executing this mode.

The knowledge creation model assumes that organisations provide their individuals with the proper working environment that will encourage knowledge sharing. Even if that is true, it does not mean that individuals will share, because it depends on their personality. The effect of environment is not clear, as the role of socialization is mainly performed by individuals. However, organisations provide the proper working culture for individuals to help them socialize. The prior environmental culture also has an effect on how individuals will behave in this mode, specifically in terms of sharing their knowledge. Some individuals may be from a closed culture that makes them prefer to hide knowledge than to share it with others. Nevertheless, as Lustri et al. (2007) discussed, individuals coming from the same cultural background may also differ in their behaviour depending on their absorption and effect of their own culture. The relationship between environment and socialization mode is depicted by two solid orange lines to represent the prior and on-job culture affecting individual behaviour to share their knowledge.

Figure 8. 1: The IC Four Factors Integration with Socialization Mode.
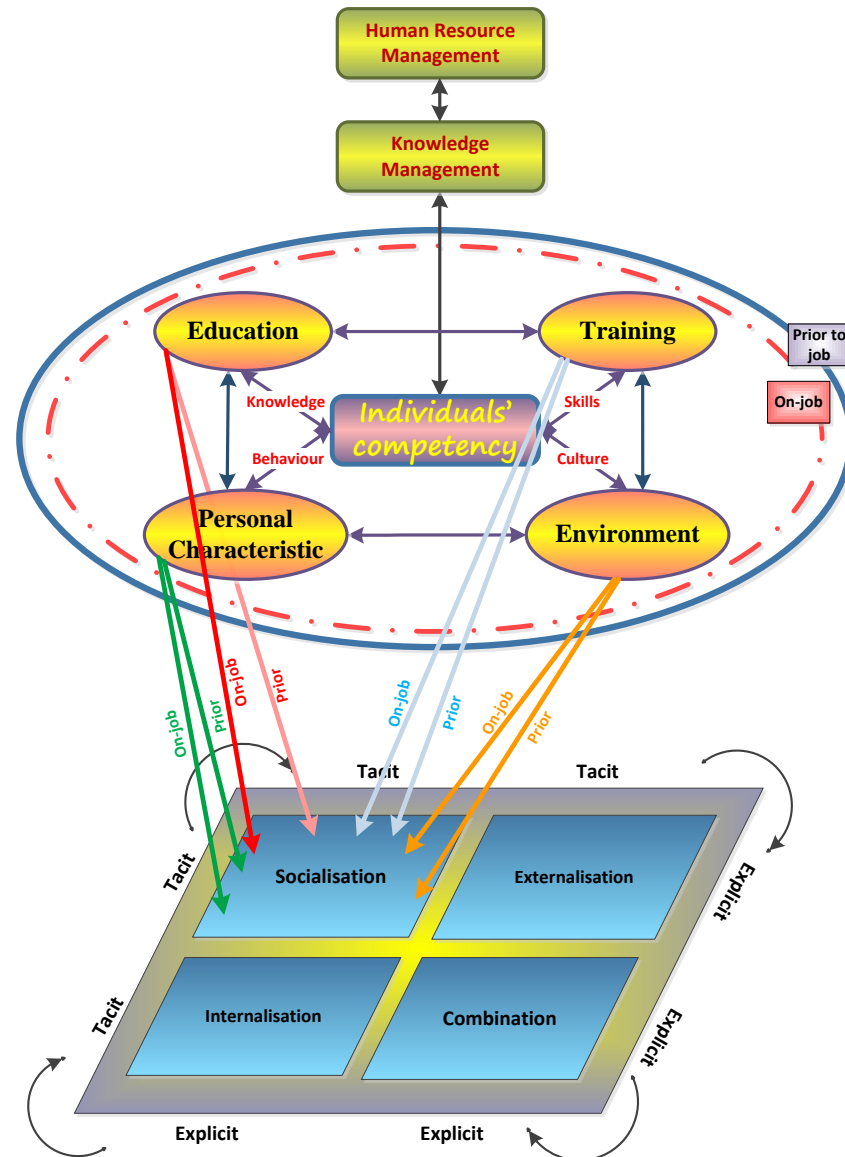
It is necessary at this stage to highlight the interrelationship between education, PC and environment. Individuals will not share their knowledge if they have not acquired knowledge, the proper personality or the right environment. Therefore, for individuals to execute this mode, they need to have the three mentioned factors for this mode to be used.

Combination is transferring *explicit knowledge to explicit knowledge.* This mode involves individuals using some kind of mechanism to exchange and combine their explicit knowledge, such as meetings, telephone calls and e-mails. The transfer of explicit knowledge to explicit knowledge is considered to be the easiest knowledge for individuals to share and or execute. Unlike the socialization mode, combination

mode requires the transformation of an already existing explicit knowledge. It is as simple as replaying to an e-mail or confirming something over the phone.

This mode, similar to all of knowledge creation model mode, implicitly concerns the on-job individuals' experiences and lacks the prior experiences. Each of the four factors effecting IC will be considered in context of the combination mode.

For the Education, both prior and on-job experiences, the usability of this factor in this mode is minimal. For example, individuals' prior education will barely have any effect on individuals replaying to an e-mail or answering a phone call. The knowledge that these individuals are using already exists and it may not have any relation to their prior education. Unlike on-job education or knowledge, the relation here is somewhat stronger for executing this mode. For example, they need to know the knowledge that they learned at their job and transfer that through the media, such as confirming something over the phone or e-mail. Therefore, in Figure 8.2 the relationship of education is represented by one soft red line depicting the requirement of a milled on-job experience needed to execute this mode.

Similar to education, training factor is where individuals gain their skills competency. This has a weak link with combination mode for on-job experiences and almost no link for the prior experience. The mode shows a very mild usability of skills. Individuals do not need to have the prior training experience to transfer explicit knowledge through media. They may, however, need to be trained on-job lightly on how to use a device, if they have not previously used it. Therefore, the relation between training and combination mode is very limited if not negligible. It is depicted with one faded blue line for on-job experiences.

PC factor has an effect in the combination mode. Similar to socialization mode, individuals need to share their knowledge and this mode assumes that they will. However, sharing knowledge, even if it is explicit knowledge, depends on the individuals' PC and willingness to learn and share their knowledge. Individuals may lack the interest to learn or to know simple knowledge that will help them to execute their job. Individuals may not be motivated and may be careless on how to handle their work leading them to know less than they should and hence not being able to execute their job competently. The relation between the PC factor and combination

mode is depicted with two light green lines to represent the affect, role and usability of both prior and on-job experiences on individuals executing this mode.

The environment plays an essential part in combination mode. It is the organisation that provides their individuals with the needed media for the individuals to be able to transfer their explicit knowledge. Also, it is the organisational rules and regulation that requires individuals to transfer their explicit knowledge from one person to the other, as part of their job. For example, replaying or helping a customer through e-mail or phone calls. Prior individual culture, on the other hand, has a minor effect similar to PC, where individuals may lack interest in their job leading them to be less competent. Therefore, the relationship between environment and combination is depicted by one solid orange line depicting the on-job environmental culture and a faded orange line depicting the prior environmental culture affecting individual behaviour to share their explicit knowledge.

Figure 8. 2: The IC Four Factors Integration with Combination Mode.
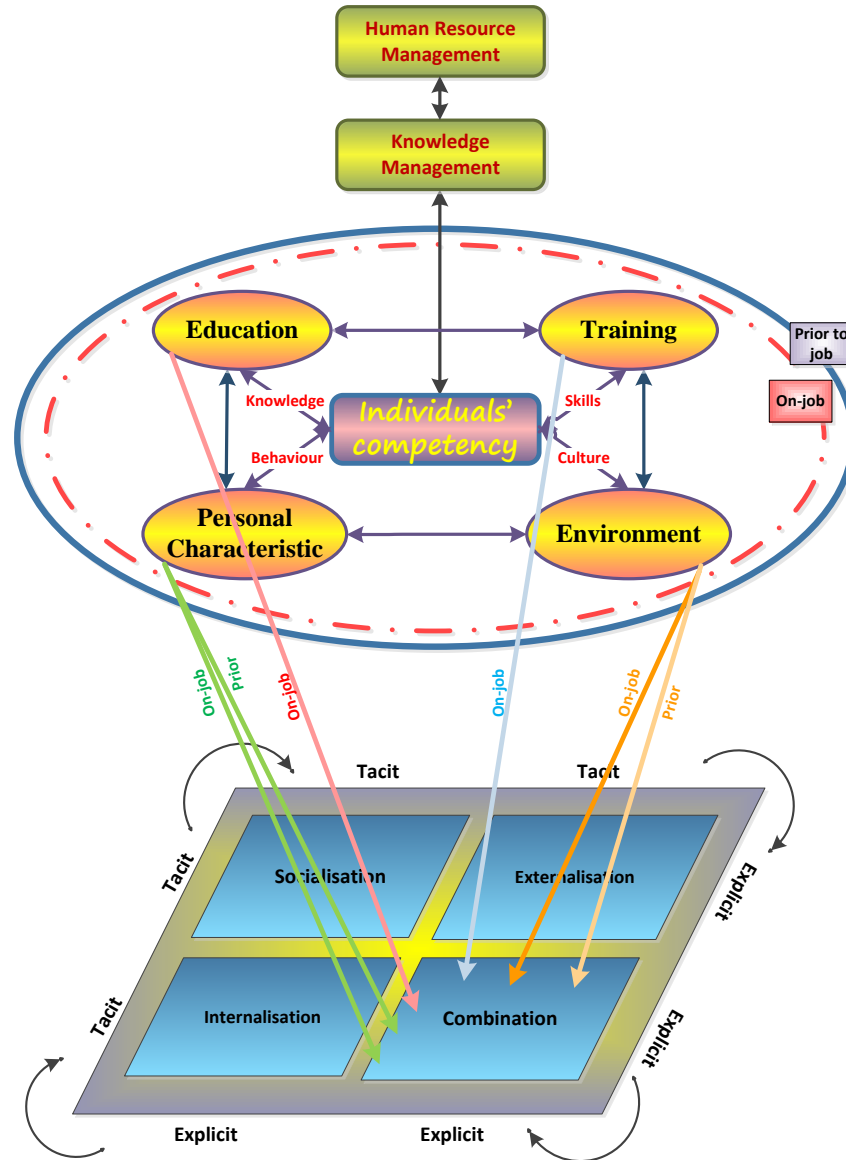
The interrelationship between education, PC and environment factors of IC in this mode is not very clear, except the one between PC and environment where individuals need to have the attitude to execute their job given the proper working environment.

Externalization is transferring *tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge.* This mode is about metaphor and models. In other words, sometimes individuals may find it difficult to express their tacit knowledge, as that knowledge may not be clear to the individuals themselves, and they use metaphor and models to help them to transfer that knowledge to explicit knowledge. As discussed in the literature, Nonaka (1991) described the Japanese Honda as an example of externalization. In the Honda

example, the top management issued the initial metaphor for building a car that is totally different from any previous one and the car should not be either expensive or cheap. The question here is metaphor itself considered as a new knowledge? In the Honda example, individuals, or the project team leader and his team, used the metaphor and developed a new car based on the top management desire and metaphor. This mode is similar to the other modes, that it is concerning the on-job experiences and omitting the prior experiences.

Each of the four factors effecting IC will be considered in context of the Externalization mode. Education factor, where knowledge is acquired, both experiences have an effect on this mode. For example, when the top management used the metaphor to develop a new product, it is the team leader and the team member's prior education and knowledge that have been used as the ground base for developing the new product, which in the Honda example is mechanism; along with the on-job education or knowledge that enabled them to execute this order. Therefore, both prior and on-job educational experiences have a strong link with this mode to be executed. This relation, education and externalization are depicted in Figure 8.3 with two strong red solid lines for prior and on-job education to indicate their usability and their effect for this mode.

Training, similar to education, where individuals gain skills competency, has a strong link with the externalization mode for both of the experiences, prior and on-job experiences. In the Honda example, once again it is the team leader and the team member's prior training and skills, along with the on-job training and skills that enabled them to execute this order. Therefore, training similar to education has a strong link with this mode to be executed. This relation, between training and externalization is depicted in Figure 8.3 with two strong blue solid lines for prior and on-job training to indicate their usability and their effect for this mode. It is essential for individuals to be educated or knowledgeable in order to know the logic in performing their skills or training. Therefore, the relation between training and externalization mode is essential. It is depicted with two solid blue lines for both prior and on-job experiences.

PC factor also has a significant role in the externalization mode. As described in the other modes above, the knowledge creation model assumes that individuals will

share their knowledge. However, it is based on the individuals prior and on-job PC experiences. For example, in the Honda case, individuals may choose to work together to reach the desired outcome. The desired outcome in the Honda case is mutual to all parties, namely top management, team leader and team members. However, if externalization does not serve the individuals they may choose not to participate in transferring their tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge. Akgün et al. (2005) and Coulson-Thomas (2009) discussed, that individuals selectively choose to share their knowledge. Therefore, the relation between PC and externalization mode is depicted in Figure 8.3 with two solid green lines to represent the affect, role and usability of both prior and on-job experiences on individuals executing this mode.

The environment usability is not clear as for this mode. The organisation does not need to do any kind of physical or cultural setting for this mode to take place and it depends on the individuals to use metaphor whenever suitable. Therefore, the organisational culture has limited nor negligible effect. As for the personal culture, it is also very limited, because it depends on the persons' way of thinking and aptitude, rather than on their prior and on-job culture and how it affected them. The relationship between environment and externalization mode is depicted in two faded orange lines to represent the prior and on-job culture affecting individual behaviour to execute this mode.

Figure 8. 3: The IC Four Factors Integration with Externalization Mode.
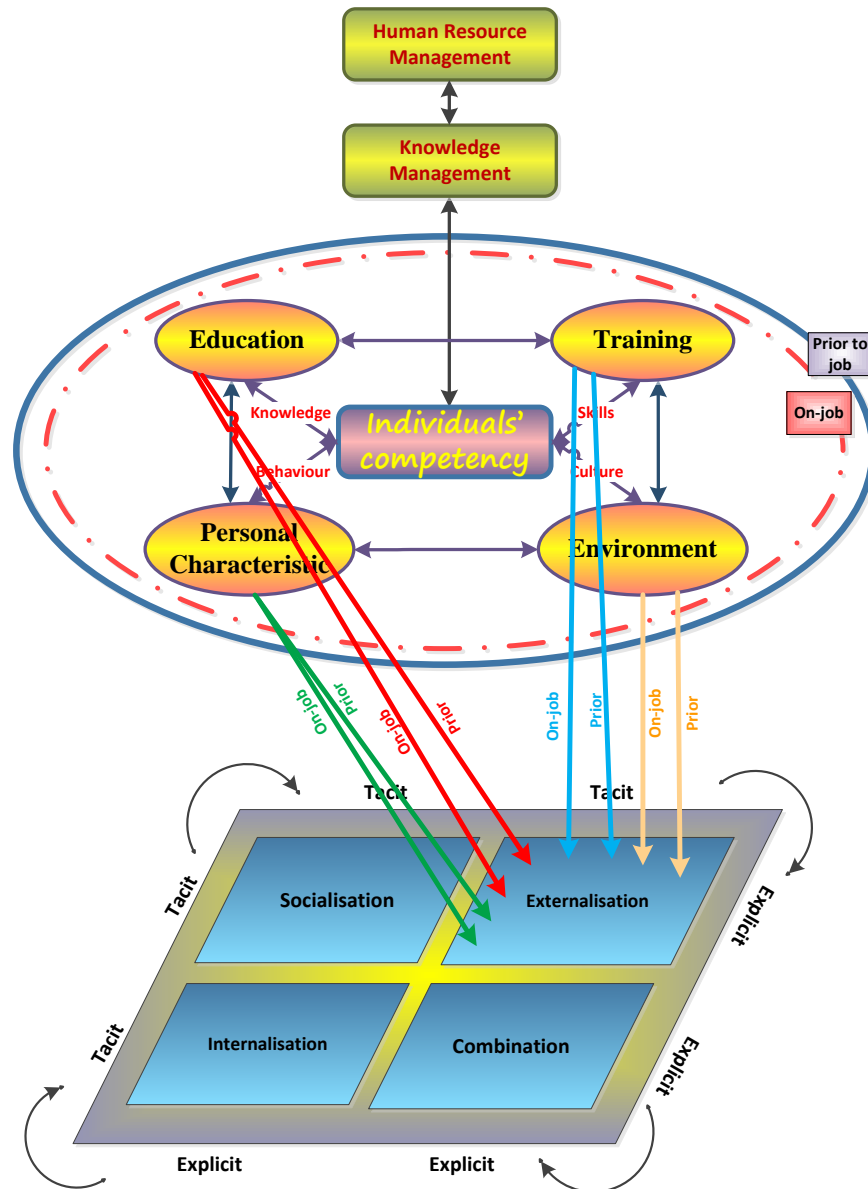
In this mode, Nonaka (1991) illustrated an example of how to use metaphor. It is easier to follow an example in order to understand the way it should be used in the mode. As discussed in the literature, the knowledge creation model is designed to create knowledge that will lead to organisational success. However, executing externalization does not lead to new knowledge by using metaphor or model as discussed in the Honda example. Instead, it was the team leader and the team members that have to work around this metaphor and produce new knowledge, hence a new product. In other words, metaphor was used as a means to give a description of a desired outcome, where the team are the one who came with the new ideas and knowledge creation in order to develop that product. The success of this mode is

based on the competent team members more than the given metaphor from the top management.

It is also essential at this stage to highlight the interrelationships among education, training and PC in this mode. That is, individuals will not be able to execute this mode if they do not have the proper prior and on-job experiences in education for knowledge, the proper prior and on-job training for skills and the proper prior and on-job PC for proper behaviour.

Internalization is transferring *explicit knowledge to tacit knowledge.* This mode is about learning by doing. This mode is the clearest and the easiest mode to execute for its simplicity. In this mode, the existing explicit knowledge will be given to individuals to learn from and for individuals to understand it and transfer it into tacit knowledge. For example, using the Honda example again, once the new product has been developed, proved and agreed upon by the management, then this new knowledge of how to make the new product, will be taught to other employees in order for all individuals to follow the new successful new production and design.

Each of the four factors effecting IC will be considered in context of the Internalization. Concerning education, both experiences are needed for this mode; prior and on-job experiences. Individual needs to have a basic knowledge about their subject, in Honda case, about car mechanics, in order for that individual to understand the logic of manufacturing the new product. Without this prior education or knowledge individuals will not be able to understand the new emerging knowledge from their organisation, especially if the new product or service is scientific in its nature. The same thing applies for on-job knowledge. Individuals need to have the experience of how things operate at their organisation, for the Honda example, in order to be able to understand the given knowledge. The acquisitions of new knowledge differ from one person to the other depending on their capability to understand the given knowledge. The relation, between education and externalization is depicted in the Figure 8.4 with two strong red solid lines for both prior and on-job education, and knowledge.

Training, similar to education, where individuals gain their skills competency, has a link with the internalization mode, however it depends on the nature of the job individuals are doing. For example, in the Honda example, individuals will have a

strong link between training and internalization. In order for these individuals to understand the new skills to build a new car, they need the prior training skills experience to understand the basic of how to build a car. In addition, they need to have the on-job training in order to gain the required skills needed to manufacture the car. However, if we consider another kind of example, such as how to attend to a customer, for example, in that case prior educational experiences may have a weak link, because what individuals need to learn as a skill is how their organisation receive and serve their customers. Therefore, in the internalization mode, the prior training is used depending on the nature of the job; therefore it is depicted in this mode with a blue medium solid line. The on-job training, however, is essential for this mode and therefore it is depicted with a solid blue line.

PC factor also has a significant role in the internalization mode. The knowledge creation model assumes that individuals are able and willing to learn new knowledge or skills. However, it is based on individuals both PC experiences, prior and on-job, as to whether they will learn new explicit knowledge. Korzaan & Boswell (2008) argues that individuals are affected by their own traits; that is they will exhibit a behaviour that relates to that particular trait. In other words, individuals in this case may vary from very interested in learning new knowledge to not being interested in learning. At the same time, individuals have different capabilities for internalizing new knowledge and skills. Therefore, the relation between personal characteristic and internalization mode is depicted in Figure 8.4 with two solid green lines to represent the affect, role and usability of both prior and on-job experiences on individuals executing this mode.

The environment factor is also important in this mode. It is the organisation that provides their individuals with explicit knowledge in order for them to understand what is required from them to perform through seminars or training courses. This mode however, may require some individuals to share their explicit knowledge by demonstrating how to do something for other individuals, who in turn will acquire this knowledge tacitly. Both of the environment experiences is required, the prior as well as the on-job environmental experience. The personal prior culture or prior environment may have some effect on the individuals' behaviour. For example, an individual may not want to share their knowledge for certain reasons, such as being biased or to serve personal agenda. Akgün et al. (2005); Gleick (1997); Searle

(1969); van der Vegt et al. (2009) discussed that individuals share knowledge to serve personal agenda. If the organisation however, is providing their individuals with external educators and trainers then this problem is much likely not to occur. Similar to personal culture, the on-job culture or the organisational culture is important in the internalization mode. It is the organisation that decides and trains their individuals. If the training need has been identified for individuals, then the organisation needs to provide their individuals with required training in order to make them more competent at work. The relationship between environment and internalization mode is depicted by two solid orange lines to show the prior and on-job culture effect of the environment on individual behaviour to execute this mode.

Figure 8. 4: The IC Four Factors Integration with Internalization Mode.
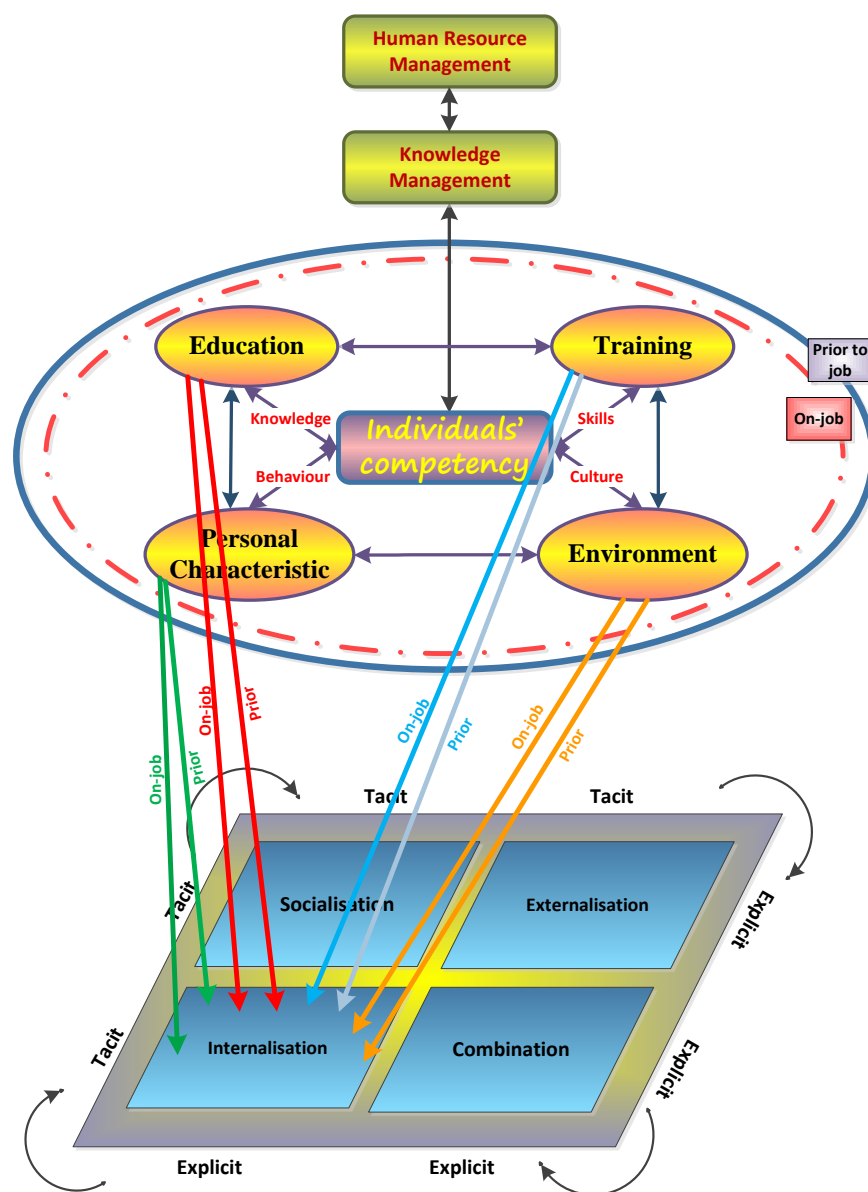
Unlike the other four modes, the internalization mode is used by the four factors of IC. The interrelationships among education, training, PC and environment factors in this mode is clear and do exist. For individuals to learn new knowledge, they need to have the prior experience in order to build the new knowledge; in addition to the on-job knowledge, beside their own knowledge. Also, in order for individuals to be able to gain skills they need logic and knowledge in order to understand how things work. In order for individuals to be able to behave in the required way, they need to have the will and incentives to do so. Finally, without the organisational recognition of individuals need and how to fulfil these needs, individuals will not be able to perform the way their organisation needs them to. Therefore, for individuals to be competent in executing this mode, they need to have all the four factors in this mode.

8.2.10.5 Knowledge Management and Individuals' Competency

Based on the above discussion and on both phases of the analysis, KM does correlate with IC. In the first phase of the interview, this relation is depicted in Figure (6.38) and for the survey analysis phase, KM and IC are positively correlated based on Pearson's Correlations (Appendix D-8, Table D-8.1).

8.2.11 Human Resource Management

HRM has been argued in the literature for its importance in the organisation. Combs et al. (2006), Delery & Doty (1996), and Huselid (1995) and practitioners argue the positive impact of HRM on IC. Guest et al. (2003) suggest organisations should have a set of HR practices because of its positive effect on employees. Yang et al. (2006) argued that HRM role is to accumulate a talent pool of employees. This can be achieved by identifying clearly individuals' core competencies. According to Lado & Wilson (1994) core competency is the trigger to all related managers' activities, as well as the organisational strategy.

In the first phase of the interview, interviewees were asked about the role or effect of HRM in their organisation. Not many interviewees were able to identify the role of HRH in their organisation. However, those who did argued that HRM plays an important role in their organisation. The most important is to identify the potential competent individuals to be hired and to develop the competencies of their individuals.

Similarly, in the second phase of the survey analysis, respondents were asked whether they agree about the role of HRM in regards to their competencies. 56.7% of the respondents agree that HRM role is essential for developing their competency. This percentage may seem to be low. There are two possible reasons for this; first, there are many individuals who are not familiar with the role of their HRM, second because their organisation is limiting the role of HRM and therefore it cannot influence individuals' competencies.

HRM does not only have a positive effect on IC, but it also enables KM and facilitate its process (Currie & Kerrin, 2003; Edvardsson, 2007; Minbaeva et al., 2009; Oltra, 2005). According to Jimenez-Jimenez & Sanz-Valle (2013), HRM and KM meet in the individuals' ability to learn and in their willingness to share knowledge with others. The role of HRM, in this case is to positively influence individuals' knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours in order to encourage individuals' to create and share knowledge. Therefore, the role of HRM in KM can be utilized by: first, using HRM practices to motivate individuals to learn and second, using HRM practices to develop the organisational culture in order to encourage knowledge sharing and knowledge transfer (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2005; DeLong & Fahey, 2000; Edvardsson, 2007).

In the interview phase, HRM was evident to have a positive effect on implementing KM. HRM will facilitate the implementation of KM within the organisation. In the survey phase, however, it is apparent that only few organisations are empowering their HRM to develop IC, and fewer facilitating KM, as only few organisations practice KM in Kuwait.

8.2.11.1 Human Resource Management and Individuals' Competency

HRM and IC have been found to correlate positively with each other. In the first phase of the interview, this correlation is depicted in Figure (6.39); while in the second phase of the survey analysis, this correlation is depicted using Pearson's Correlations (Appendix D-8, Table D-8.1).

8.3 The Correlation between IC and the Developed Factors

According to both phases of analysis, interview and survey, and as argued in this discussion Chapter, IC correlates positively with all the independents variables PED,

OJED, PT, OJT, PPC, OJPC, PE, OJE, KM, and HRM. In the first phase of the interview, Figure 6.40 was developed to depict their interrelations. Also for the second survey phase analysis MANOVA statistic was used and the output reveals their positive correlations. Therefore, the developed model of IC can be inferred as a fit model.

8.4 Summary

The discussion of each theme is based on either a comparison between the two interview and survey phases of the analysis and / or an addition of the exploration of IC and its factors. The analyses of both phases produced confirming results across both the phases. This means that the measuring instrument of this research is accurate (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Moran-Ellis et al., 2006). In addition, the data analyses are discussed in relation to the critical reading of the literature, which argues the effect of the factors on IC. The outcomes of both phases of analysis in this research conclude that the four factors have a positive effect on IC. The developed factors of this research have a positive correlation with IC. Therefore, the findings of this research support the literature that also agrees with the effect of those on IC. Therefore, this thesis confirms the effect of PED, OJED, PT, OJT, PPC, OJPC, PE, OJE, KM, and HRM on IC.

Chapter 9

Conclusion

9.1 Research Conclusion

This research explored the effect of the four factors education, training, PC and environment on IC. It also integrally explored the effect of KM on IC and practical implementation of IC model through the KCM as facilitated by HRM. The literature review revealed controversial findings on the single or dual factor analysis on IC. The critical analysis of the literature, however, surfaced controversial findings on the effect of the four factors on IC; where some research reported an effect and other research argued for no effect. In addition, the factors have not been investigated holistically, as this research proposed. This research produced empirical evidence that each of the four factors has an effect on IC and, more importantly, that the four factors holistically affect IC, along with KM and the role of HRM.

This thesis study concludes that each of the four factors separately, and all the four factors holistically effect IC. These findings were investigated and explored using the exploratory sequential mixed methods which was conducted over two phases. In the first interview phase the researcher interviewed 41 interviewees from different organisational sectors and from different levels of the organisations. The findings of this phase reveal empirical evidence that each of the IC model factors (prior and on-job) has an affect IC. For example, PED was analysed for its relation and effect on IC and it was found that PED and IC correlate statistically. Similarly, each of the four factors (prior and on-job) were explored and investigated for their effect on IC and statistically significant correlations were found. In addition, the second survey phase too supports the findings of the first interview phase. For example, for the same variable of PED, the survey analysis involved several statistical tools to investigate its effect on IC; such as Pearson's Correlations (Appendix D-8, Table D-8.1), frequencies and cross tabulation. The statistical findings show a positive relation with significance and a correlation between PED and IC; and therefore hypothesis H1a 'Prior education has positive effect on IC' is accepted. Therefore, this research empirically confirms the effect of PED on IC.

More importantly and unique to this research, this research also provides the empirical evidence of the effect of the four factors holistically on IC. To the best knowledge of the researcher, the literature does not have the holistic approach on the study of IC. Therefore, this thesis not only provides that new holistic conceptual understanding of IC as the holistic IC model, but also empirical support for it. In the first interview phase this holistic approach is depicted in Figure 6.40 'The correlation between IC and the developed four factors, KM and HRM'. Similarly, in the second survey phase MANOVA was used as a statistical tool to depict the effect of all four factors and KM and HRM on IC. The MANOVA test provided a p value of 0.00 indicating that there is a high significant correlation between IC and all the other factors. Therefore, H5 'All factors holistically have positive effect on IC' is accepted (Appendix D-16).

Another important contribution of this thesis is the KM findings. While organisations argue the positive effect of KM on the success of their organisation, it is IC which is needed for the successful processing and application of the KCM. The literature review argued its importance and positive effect and the empirical evidence of this thesis, in both of the analytical phases, supports its effect on IC. Nevertheless, the literature lacks practical application of KM. Therefore, this thesis regarded IC model as new gained knowledge and operationalized it statistically through the four modes of the KCM. This statistically operationalized model reveals the limitations of the four modes of the KCM to process the IC model. In fact, each of the four modes of the KCM has a certain process; these certain process constrain the use of each mode according to that process making each mode limited in its ability to cope with the holistic IC model. Therefore, the IC model as the new knowledge could not be fully absorbed by the KCM. This statistical operationalisation is shown in the discussion Chapter eight, with strong, weak or no relation or linkage between the IC factors and the KCM's four modes.

This research also signifies the important role of HRM. Even though the literature argued the importance of HRM on IC as well as on KM, HRM role is minimized by researchers. This research however, emphasise the role of HRM. The findings of both the interview and survey analytical phases reveal the important role and effect of HRM on IC and KM. In the first interview phase, HRM's relation to IC was depicted through the developed model (Figure 6.39) 'HRM and IC correlation'. Also,

in the second survey phase, Pearson's Correlations (Appendix D-8, Table D-8.1) depicts the positive significant correlation. Therefore, in signifying the role of HRM, this thesis is recommends that organisation do empower the role of HRM, because of its positive effect not only on their essential assets, employees, but also because of its significant effect in implementing KM, and encouraging and enabling individuals to practice it, for instance through better and effective knowledge sharing; leading their organisation to success.

9.2 Research Contribution

The contribution of this study is based on the exploration of factors affecting IC, the role of KM on IC and its usability, and the role and effect of HRM on IC. Therefore, this thesis presents several contributions to theory, to practice through recommendation, and to methodology.

9.2.1 Contribution to Theory

The critical analysis of the literature review and its controversial findings about the effect of the four factors on IC led the researcher to explore and investigate their effect on IC. Therefore, the following are this thesis contribution to knowledge in terms of the four IC factors.

First, education is one of the identified factors that has been explored and investigated for its effect on IC. Prior education, where individuals gain knowledge from school and higher education, is found to have an effect on future employment. In the interview phase, some interviewees argued that it may or may not have an effect. Their perception of the effect of prior education is highly linked to their current job, because they are working in a different field than their school qualification. The second survey phase supports this conclusion. Similarly, the on-job education is where individuals gain their knowledge at work. Since this knowledge is usually work related, it was found that on-job education affects IC. Most recent studies focus only on prior or on-job education effects. This study, however, examined both prior and on-job educational effect on IC using the same context. This research finding provides the empirical evidence that education (prior and on-job) does affect IC at work.

Second, the effect of training on IC is also controversial in the literature. While some researches argue its effect, others refute that effect. Among the researchers who argued the weak or null effect of training on IC is Emad & Roth (2008). Their findings are used to argue the poor implications of training. However, the findings of this research provide evidence that prior training as well as on-job training has a positive effect on IC. This is to confirm the effect of training on IC; and if training did not result in a positive effect then further investigation is required on the methods used and / or the material provided.

Third, PC also has contradicting arguments for its effect on IC. However, PC, unlike education and training, has less contradictory evidence in the literature. In fact, this research presents an example that even a top class graduated student may not succeed in their work because of the importance and effect of PC on IC. This research provides empirical evidence of the effect of prior and on-job PC on IC.

Forth, environment, similar to the other factors, is composed of prior environment and on-job environment. In prior environments, individuals are affected by their living culture such as friends, family and their societies; whereas the on-job environment is the working organisational environment. Both of the environmental occurrences have been empirically supported in this research for their effect on IC. This finding confirms the importance of environment on IC.

Fifth, the four factors collectively or holistically have an effect on IC. The literature provided researches that have linked to one factor or more for its effect on IC. However, to the best knowledge of the researcher, there is no research that has been conducted to explore the effect of the four factors holistically, the effect of KM and HRM holistically on IC. This research empirically supports the positive effect of the four factors holistically on IC.

KM and HRM also have an effect on IC in addition to the effect of the four factors, resulting in the following knowledge contributions:

Sixth, while KM is argued in the literature to lead to organisational success, it is IC that will create and implement knowledge work. The literature assumes that individuals will share their knowledge with others. However, this research provides some factors that may hinder individuals from sharing their knowledge. The

310

literature, mainly argued that individuals may not share their knowledge to serve personal agenda (Akgün et al., 2005; Gleick, 1997; Searle, 1969; van der Vegt et al., 2009). This research however, provided evidence that the use of nepotism and unfair treatment affects some individuals to not share their knowledge. Also, the findings of this research support the positive effect of KM on IC.

Seven, this thesis investigated the usability of the four modes of KM. Considering the four factors of IC as new knowledge; IC model was operationalized based on the four modes of the KCM. This leads to the contribution that the four factors of IC cannot be fully processed on the four modes of KCM. Therefore, even though KM is empirically supported for its positive effect on IC, the actual implementation of IC in the KCM faces practical issues. Thus the theory of the KCM is not confirmed empirically in terms of IC for knowledge work.

Eighth, the role of HRM is argued in the literature for its importance for KM. However, many KM initiatives tend to neglect the role of HRM in implementing and facilitating KM in the organisation (Chen et al., 2011; Oltra, 2005). This research provides evidence that HRM role does have an effect on IC and KM.

9.2.2 Contribution to Practice Through Recommendation

The practical or managerial contribution is provided through recommendation. According to the aim, analysis and findings of this thesis, managers can be aware of the following recommended contributions.

First, when hiring or promoting individuals in the organisation, managers can use the IC model developed in this thesis as a guideline for assessing IC. For example, when hiring an individual, mangers ought to investigate individuals' prior education, prior training, prior PC, and prior environment or culture. All of these factors have been statistically supported for their effect on future workers. Similarly, when promoting an individual, managers ought to check, in accordance to both prior and on-job, the individuals' education, training, PC and environment.

Second, this model can be used as an assessment model for the working individuals. For example, if one individual lacks a certain kind of skill or knowledge, their organisation can send them for training or education. However, organisations or managers need to follow up on the development of their employees. In case the

individuals did not gain the required skills or knowledge, then this is an indication to the managers that the training or education was not conducted properly, or the provided practice is not proper, or that the individual may not be interested. In all cases, the manager needs to identify the effecting element in order to deal with it in order to maximize their individuals' competencies.

Third, in addition to the four factors, managers should investigate whether an individual is willing to share their knowledge with others. In the case of individuals not wanting to share, managers need to explore the effecting factors behind their behaviour and try to remove any obstacle to encourage them to share their knowledge.

Fourth, HRM is statistically supported for its effect on IC and KM. Therefore, the role of HRM in KM should be enabled in the organisation in order to maximize the positive effect from the individuals within their organization. Also, HRM plays an important role in encouraging individuals to share their knowledge. Nevertheless, organisations need to not only have the proper middle-down-up management structure that enables knowledge sharing, but also to enable HRM to encourage and facilitate knowledge sharing amongst individuals. It is the HRMs roles to develop individuals and maximize IC inputs because individuals are the main contributors in creating, sharing and implementing KM that leads to organisational success.

9.2.3 Contribution to Methodology

First, this thesis contributes to methodology used in HRM research by developing a new conceptual model of the holistic IC. The developed conceptual model is derived through critical analysis of the literature lacunae.

Second, to the best knowledge of the researcher, the exploratory sequential mixed methods and triangulation research approach has not been used in HRM research to investigate the factors effecting IC. In fact, the rigorousness of this method contributes to the accuracy of the used measuring instrument. This method was developed in two phases; the qualitative interview phase and quantitative survey phase. The findings of the first interview phase are the bases for developing the measuring instrument of the second survey phase. In accordance with the triangulation method, the results of both the qualitative and quantitative methods

phases are compared. In this research, the findings of both phases reveal confirmatory findings. Therefore, this strongly supports the conclusion that the measuring instruments are accurate and therefore the research results are reliable. Accordingly, the research results also support positive effects of the four factors, KM and HRM on IC.

9.3 Recommendation for Management

This thesis provides several recommendations based on the empirical findings to the managers and their organisations. The following recommendations are developed for managers, or specifically for HRM, based on IC and its four factors.

First, when considering hiring, promoting, and evaluating individuals, managers should consider individuals' education. Individuals should be checked for their prior school achievement. They should also be checked for both their prior and on-job education for promotion or performance evaluation. The output of education is knowledge; therefore, individuals should be checked for their acquired knowledge. For example, if the job occupation is general doctor, then this individual should not only be checked on prior education but also on his updated knowledge of the filed. This will increase the potential of having a competent individual at work.

Second, while education provides knowledge, training provides skills. Therefore, managers are equally encouraged to investigate their individuals' training or required skills. For example, if there is an engineer vacancy, then the organisation needs to ensure that the candidates have the skills to design blueprints for their customers. This thesis produced empirical evidence that individuals' skills will have an effect on their competency at work.

Third, managers ought to pay close attention to the personnel characteristics of employees. This thesis provided evidence on the effect of individuals' negative behaviour. Regardless of the individuals' organisational level, with poor personal characteristics, individuals will negatively affect or workers' work or behaviour. For example, if one individual is working in customer relations, with his/her poor personal characteristics they may lead their organisation to lose customers. Therefore, managers should evaluate and monitor their individuals' personal

characteristics, because this has an effect not only on their own IC but also on others, as well as on their organisation.

Forth, this research provides empirical evidence on the effect of prior personnel culture as well as on-job working environment on IC. Even though individuals' prior culture cannot be controlled by managers, managers ought to consider providing a good working environment for their individuals. This thesis produced evidence on the negative effect of nepotism, patronage and poor treatment on individuals' behaviour. In fact, according to the first interview phase, some interviewees resigned because of nepotism and unfair treatment. Therefore, a good working environment is essential for competent individuals to perform well.

Fifth, this thesis presents the new concept of the holistic IC. This is a significant conceptual contribution to theory and practice. Managers ought to consider all of the above recommendations together or as a whole. In other words, if a manager wants to hire the best competent individuals for a new job or position, then they need to consider the individual's education, training, PC and environment holistically rather than separately.

In addition to the recommendations stemming from the findings on IC and its four factors, the following are recommendations in regards to KM and HRM.

Sixth, when applying KM in the organisation, managers need to encourage their individuals to share their knowledge with others. In fact, KM should be structured and embedded within the organisational setting for it to work well. For example, the organisational setting should be based on middle-up-down management structure in order to allow knowledge to flow between the different organisational levels. Also, develop team work which encourages individuals to share their knowledge with their team members. In addition, to relate the success of the team work with the mangers' work, and his success with the department work and the department success with the top managers and the organisational work. This will provide the culture that ones' success is related to the others' success; therefore, leading individuals to share their knowledge for their own and others' success.

Seventh, organisation can achieve the sixth recommendation by empowering HRM to facilitate IC and KM. In fact, it is the role of HRM to ensure the competency of

individuals and work on developing their competencies. It is also HRM's role to encourage individuals to create, share and implement knowledge work. Therefore, HRM are the one that marry IC and KM; this marriage will benefit not only individuals but their organisations as well.

9.4 Research Limitation

This research has several limitations that are discussed in relation to their developed themes and variables as follows.

Competency Theme: It was found in the interview and survey phases some inconsistency regarding how individuals rate others' individual competencies. Interviewees argued that older employees are more competent than younger employees. However, through deeper analysis in the second survey phase, it found that the respondents' choices are affected by their years of experiences. In other words, older generation agree that they are more competent; while younger generation employees think they are the more competent. This comparison of between age group was done only in the survey phase analysis, because the interview phase did not have that element of years of experience in its demographic data. Therefore, a conclusive comparison is not possible.

Another limitation is based on one of the interviews' findings that reveal that individuals have more confidence in their colleagues' competency, more than with their managers. This result could be explored even further. For example, this finding could be because individuals are closer to their colleagues than they are to their manager and that is why they perceive them as more competent. It could also be due to the fact that individuals socialise with each other that they think that their colleagues are more competent based on socialization rather than on other solid evidence. Or it could be based on the poor treatment by their managers that they perceive their colleagues are more competent.

PED Theme: The effect of PED on IC has been empirically investigated. Part of the effect of PED on individuals is related to the teachers who deliver the educational material. It was found in the first interview phase analysis that some non-Kuwaiti teachers were incompetent, which resulted in 40% of the students failing. Part of this is due to the inability of the student to understand the non-Kuwait teachers' accent,

and in addition to the incompetent behaviour of teachers' themselves. In the second survey phase analysis, it was noted that the lower the respondents' level of education, the more they believe that their teachers are incompetent. In other words, the incompetent teachers are mainly in the early stages of school years; such as elementary and secondary schools. However, the percentages of respondents who are 'below high school' level are only 2.8% (21 respondents). Therefore, the effect of incompetent teachers on future employees cannot be conclusively stated, because of the few respondents that belong to that group.

OJPC Theme: In the first interview phase analysis, managers were concerned about the loyalty of their individuals. Especially in the private sector, they argued that when they train and educate their individuals, they leave their organisation for a higher salary or better status position. They feel that they spend money on their individuals' training only for them to not appreciate it and leave them to work elsewhere. This finding is confirmed in the second survey phase (Table D-17.44). 78.8% of the respondents agreed that they will leave their current job if they were offered by another organisation a higher salary or a better position. However, when the respondents were asked about their commitment to their organisation, 84.8% of the respondents agree that they are committed and loyal to their organisation. Therefore, commitment or loyalty is not being perceived with the same meaning by managers and their employees. Managers think that when individuals leave their organisation then they are disloyal; while individuals feel it is acceptable to move to another job when it is justified with higher salary or better position. There could be more reasons for such conflicting understanding which need to be explored.

PE Theme: To understand the PE variable, more research can be done in order to understand the effect of each element of individuals' culture such as family, social, group, geographical region, and professional environment on IC. This research can also be categorized based on demographic data such as nationality, province, and gender.

OJE Theme: In the interview phase, interviewees were found to classify their OJE environment as poor (62.9%). On the other hand, 52.7% of the interviewees argued that their organisation is encouraging them to work. However, 57.7% argued that they are happy at work and 'love' to do their job. This research however, did not

measure the effect of organisational encouragement on their individuals' feeling if happy and to 'love' their work.

In addition, one finding of this research reveals that the majority of the interviewees argued that their organisational rules are having negative affect on them (70.2%). This research did not measure whether rules are part of the reasons that individuals classified their organisation as poor. Also, there could be other reasons that made interviewees classify their organisation as poor, which also need to be explored.

KM Theme: In both phases of the analysis, KM has been empirically investigated for its positive effect on IC. Nevertheless, only 34.6% of the respondents agree that their organisation is practicing KM. Therefore, even though the four modes of knowledge creation model practiced, it is not being practice as the KCM. Therefore, the output of the four modes of KM is not reflecting the practice of the four modes; rather it is reflecting actual organisational processes. Therefore, for more accurate effect of the KCM, only knowledge workers should be investigated in this matter.

Also, in Sub-section 8.2.10.3, the discussion showed different result in both analysis phases. In the first phase, interviewees argued that some individuals are not willing to share their knowledge because they are in fear of losing their job or postponing their promotion; which is also supported in the literature. However, in the second survey phase, respondents disagreed on the statement that they will not share their knowledge because they fear losing their job or postponing their promotion. One reason for such different result is that in the first phase interviewees were asked about themselves; they argued that they do share their knowledge. However, when they were asked about other individuals' sharing knowledge, they argued that they do not fear of losing a job or promotion. In the second phase, respondents were only asked about their behaviour in terms of sharing knowledge. Their answers were confirming that they do share knowledge. However, if they were asked about others sharing their knowledge, they may response differently.

HRM Theme: The research evidence supports the important role of the HRM in IC development and KM facilitation, its role is minimized in literature review. This thesis supports the important role of HRM; however, their role is not being optimized in organisations, therefore, their effect is only limited to IC and KM.

Also, in this thesis, the four factors of education, training, PC, and environment are empirically evident for their effect on IC. However, each of the independent variables was not investigated for their effect on each other. For example, this research did not investigate the relation between OJT and OJPC. Nevertheless, in Table 7.6 (Pearson's Correlations) it depicts the positive correlation between all its independents variables, except between PE and OJED9.4 Further research:

This research suggests several research themes that need to be pursued:

- Interviewees were found to have an opinion of the competency of older versus younger generation. Each group argued that they are more competent than the other age group. This argument can be further investigated for its validity. Future research can be applied in order to recognize the working age groups' effect. Also, further research can be conducted to measure the competency of each group. That will provide solid evidence of this argument.

- Further research can be conducted in relation to the effect of teachers, at different school levels, on the future working individuals. Each school level can be separately investigated for its effect on future IC. In addition, teachers' competencies should also be considered within this research.

- OJT has been empirically supported as having a positive effect on IC. However, 5.1% disagree on its effect on IC and there are 9.3% who thinks that OJT has no relevance to their working needs (Table D-17.27). Also, 26.6% of the respondents think that their organisation is not providing them with enough OJT (Table D-17.31). Therefore, further research could be conducted on how to measure the individuals' need of OJT. Also, there are some researchers such as Hartog & Oosterbeek (2007), who argue that there is positive return on investment in education. However, Schonewille (2001) argued that the return on investment is unclear for the training system. Therefore, other research could be conducted to identify the return on investment of the provided OJT.

- Training is controversial in the literature. Some researches argue its positive effect, while others refute that effect. Emad & Roth (2008) study is one that refutes the effect on IC. However, their finding is unreliable because trainers

provided poor training. Nevertheless, the findings of this research provide evidence that poor training will result in minor or no effect on IC. Therefore, to confirm this effect on IC and assess whether training did not result in a positive effect, further investigation is required on the training methods used and / or the material provided.

- The finding of this thesis on rewards differs from the extant literature. According to According to Petersen & Poulfelt (2002), individuals were not motivated by the financial rewards, rather they are more motivated with the structure of their organisation, the management and the culture of their organisation. On the other hand, this thesis finding, in both analysis phases support the idea that both rewards, financial and non-financial, together are important to individuals. In Petersen & Poulfelt (2002) study however, the study of reward was based on motivating and encouraging individuals to share their knowledge; whereas, in this thesis, the reward was based on motivating individuals to be more competent at work. Therefore, the purpose of each study is different. Therefore, the result of both researches may have been affected by the purpose of research. Therefore, further research can be undertaken on either purpose to conform or negate their finding.

- In Section 8.2.7.2, individuals were asked about their managers' behaviour. The findings of both analysis phases are not similar. There could be several reasons for such differences; among those, respondents may fear that their manager will read his responses and therefore they answered it safely. However, this finding could be explored deeper using anonymous data collecting techniques.

- It was found that only 52.7% of the respondents feel that their OJE is encouraging them to work harder. In addition, 62.9% of the interviewees classified their OJE as poor working environment. At the same time, 60.6% of the respondents agree that their organisation is trying to provide them with good working environment. In addition, 70.2% of the interviewees argued that rules are having negative affect on them. Also, only 55.3% of the respondents agree that their organisational rules are fair. Therefore, more research can be conducted to understand why individuals have classified their

working environment as poor. Are rules one reason? What are other possible factors that need to be considered? How can their organisation develop its OJE in order to enable their individuals to be more competent at work?

- It was found in this research and in the literature that older working generations are more competent at work than the younger generation. However, when cross tabulating age with Q.68, it shows that the younger the respondents are the more they disagree that older generation are more competent than they are. This however can be further investigated for its accuracy. For example, the individuals' competency can be measured and then compared to group age. Only then, the researcher can establish whether older generation are more or less competent than younger generation.

- Further longitudinal research can be developed to measure the effect of each of the four factors (prior and on-job) on IC. For example, a group of students can be monitored for their competency development at high school and then at university level to measure their competency at work (PED). Also some working individuals, who continue their education, can also be monitored for their competency before and after completion their education; and same for every factor of the IC model.

- This research established the importance of KM and its effect on IC. In fact, in both phases research participants are not only practicing KM, but also are willing to share their knowledge. Even though in the second survey phase, respondents are shown to practice the four modes of the KCM, they are not implementing KM for the intention of practicing KM rather; they are practicing their organisational system. Therefore, these measurements should be used on organisations that do use and apply knowledge work in order to measure the KSM's effect. Therefore, the sample should target those organisations that do practice KM in their organisation; only then, the representative empirical data can be collected to understand the effect of the KCM on IC.

- In Sub-section 8.2.10.3 each analysis phase showed different results on individuals sharing knowledge. In the first interview phase, interviewees argued that they do share knowledge but others do not for fear of losing a job

or a promotion. However, in the second survey phase, respondents were only asked about themselves whether they do share their knowledge. They agreed that they do. However, they were not asked about other individuals' sharing knowledge. Therefore, the comparison between both the two phases has no equivalent unit thereby producing the different results. So, further research can be conducted by asking respondents about other individuals' sharing knowledge to enable fair comparison.

- The role of HRM is limited in the literature review as well in this thesis. This is due to organisation limiting the role of their HRM. However, this research provided evidence for its effect on IC and KM. But further research can be conducted to explore deeply the role of HRM in implementing the KCM.

- While this research investigated the independent variables, education, training, PC and environment holistically it did not seek to investigate the relations among themselves. Further research can be developed to understand the effect of each of the independent variable on each other. This will enrich our theoretical understanding of IC and its holistic nature.

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Appendix A

Appendix A: Number of Employees in Kuwaiti Organisations; Governmental and Private for 2012

Employees in the Government Sector (2012)

Nationality	Gender	Total Workers	Percentage of total workers	Total Nationality	Percentage of Nationalities
Kuwaiti	Male	109,326	33.00	240,170	72.49
	Female	130,844	39.49		
Non Kuwaiti	Male	54,597	16.48	91,163	27.51
	Female	36,566	11.04		
Total	Male	163,923	49.47		100.00
	Female	167,410	50.53		
Total worker in Government sector		**331,333**			

Source: (Kuwait Central Statistical Bureau, 2013)

Employees in the Private Sector (2012)

Nationality	Gender	Total Workers	Percentage of total workers	Total Nationality	Percentage of Nationalities
Kuwaiti	Male	28,611	2.34	61,890	5.07
	Female	33,279	2.72		
Non Kuwaiti	Male	1,065,183	87.18	1,159,987	94.93
	Female	94,804	7.76		
Total	Male	1,093,794	89.52		100.00
	Female	128,083	10.48		
Total worker in Private sector		**1,221,877**			

Source: (Kuwait Central Statistical Bureau, 2013)

Appendix B

Appendix B-1: Research Philosophies

Comparison of three research philosophies in management research. Source: (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 140).

Dimension	Interpretivism	Positivism	Pragmatism
Ontology: the researcher's view of the nature of reality or being	Socially constructed, subjective, may change, multiple	External, objective and independent of social actors	External, multiple, view chosen to best enable answering of research question
Epistemology: the researcher's view regarding what constitutes acceptable knowledge	Subjective meanings and social phenomena. Focus upon the details of situation, a reality behind these details, subjective meanings motivating actions	Only observable phenomena can provide credible data, facts. Focus on causality and law like generalization, reducing phenomena to simplest elements	Either or both observable phenomena and subjective meanings can provide acceptable knowledge dependent upon the research question. Focus on practical applied research, integrating different perspectives to help interpret the data
Axiology: the researcher's view of the role of values in research	Research is value bound, the researcher is part of what is being researched, cannot be separated and so will be subjective	Research is undertaken in a value-free way, the research is independent of the data and maintains an objective stance	Values play a large role in interpreting results, the researcher adopting both objective points of view
Data collection techniques most often used	Small samples, in-depth investigations, qualitative	Highly structured, large samples, measurement, quantitative but can use qualitative	Mixed or multiple methods designs, quantitative and qualitative

Appendix B-2: Semi-structured Interview Questions

01 Competency (beginning of interview)

Q. 01 What do you think affects employees' competency?

02 Prior Education

Q. 02 Do you think prior education has an effect employees' competency?

Q. 03 Are you and/or other employees working in the same field of your/their prior education?

03 On-Job Education

Q. 04 Do you think that if the organisation provided its individuals with education then it will affect the employees' competency?

04 Prior Training

Q. 05 Do you think prior training has an effect employees' competency?

05 On-Job Training

Q. 06 Do you think that if the organisation provided its individuals with training then it will affect the employees' competency?

05.1 On-Job Education/Training

Q. 07 Do you think that the more on-job education and training achieved of employees the more competent the employee will be?

06 Prior Personal Characteristics

Q. 08 Each individual has their own personal characteristics; to what degree do you think employees' own personal characteristics affect their own competency at work?

07 On-Job Personal Characteristics

Q. 09 Managers have their own personal characteristics; to what degree do you think that they can influence their employees' competency?

08 Prior Environment

Q. 10 Individuals come from different cultures. Do you think individuals' competency is affected by their own culture?

Q. 11 Managers have their own culture. Do you think that the managers' culture affects the way they treat their employees hence affecting their employees' competency?

09 On-Job Environment

Q. 12 Each organisation has its own culture. Do you think that organisational culture affects employees' competency?

Q. 13 Does your working environment encourage you and others to perform competently at work?

10 Combination of the four factors

Q. 14 Do you think that if individuals are given special training on how to work with other employees, on what is expected from them and if provided with the appropriate environmental culture that they will perform more competently?

Q. 15 What other factors do you think affect individual competency other than the ones mentioned above?

11 Knowledge Management

Q. 16 How would you describe your organisational environment in terms of knowledge sharing? (SECI)

Q. 17 Some organisational policies require that employees share their information and knowledge with other employees as a requirement of promotion; do you have the same system in your organisation? (SECI)

Q. 18 What do you think of promotion dependent on knowledge sharing? Do you agree or disagree and why? (SECI)

Q. 19 Does your organisation invest in employees' education, training, self improvement and providing the appropriate working environment? (SECI)

12 HRM

Q. 20 What is the role / effect of HRM in your organisation?

13 Organisational Performance

Q. 21 Do you think that by promoting individuals' competency, organisations will affect the overall organisational performance? Please explain.

Q. 22 In terms of job quality and quantity, which one do you think is the most important for work?

14 Competency (in the end of interview)

Q. 23 In your opinion, how do you define competency?

Note about the interviewee:

Appendix B-3: Survey Questionnaire

Competency Survey Questionnaire

Section One: Demographic Data

Questions 1 – 12 are about personal questions. Kindly, choose one answer by clicking inside the box or by inserting ⊠							
1	Gender	☐ Male	☐ Female				
2	Age	☐ $\leq$ 18	☐ 19 - 29	☐ 30 - 39	☐ 40 - 49	☐ 50 $\geq$	
3	Marital Status	☐ Single	☐ Married	☐ Divorce	☐ Widow	☐ Other (Specify)	
4	Nationality	☐ Kuwaiti	☐ Arabian	☐ Non Arabian			
5	Educational Level	☐ Below High School	☐ High School	☐ Diploma (2 years)	☐ Bachelor Degree (4 years)	☐ Master	☐ PhD "Doctorate"
6	High School Education Obtained in	☐ Kuwaiti Governmental Schools		☐ Private Schools		☐ Outside Kuwait	☐ Not Applicable
7	University Obtained in	☐ Kuwait	☐ Arabic Countries	☐ Non Arabic Countries	☐ Not Applicable		
8	Work Experience	☐ 0 – 5	☐ 6 – 15	☐ 16 to 25	☐ 26 - 35	☐ 36 or more	
9	Job Position	☐ Top Management (CEO, Deputy, Top managers, etc.)		☐ Middle Management (Managers, Supervisors, Team leaders, etc.)		☐ Regular employees	
10	Organisational Sector	☐ Education	☐ Oil	☐ Banking	☐ Medical	☐ Military	☐ Other (Specify)
11	Organisational Domain	☐ Governmental	☐ Private	☐ Joint Venture	☐ Not sure		
12	Province (Home Address)	☐ Capital	☐ Hawalli	☐ Farwaniya	☐ Mubarak Al-Kabeer	☐ Al-Ahmadi	☐ Al-Jahra	☐ Not Sure

358

Section Two: Education

	Q Num	The Question	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		Questions 1 – 12 are about prior and on-job education. Kindly, choose one answer by clicking inside the box or by inserting ⊠					
Prior Education	1	I'm working in the same field as my prior education.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	2	When I was in school, teachers were competent at their teaching	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	3	Prior education helps me to perform my job	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	4	In my opinion majors such as **chemist, doctors, engineers**... etc., does have an effect on individual's competency at work.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	5	In my opinion majors such as **business, secretary, history**... etc., does have an effect on individual's competency at work.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	6	Graduates from private high schools are better qualified then graduates from government high schools.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	7	Graduates from Universities outside Kuwait are better qualified than graduates from Kuwait Universities.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	8	I chose my own major at school	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
On-job Education	9	**At work, I prefer to receive education through:** 9.1 Courses	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		9.2 Colleagues	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		9.3 Managers	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	10	At work I received education that helps me to perform better at work	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	11	I can access the organisational data base and learn from it.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	12	My organisation is providing me with sufficient education to be competent at work.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐

Section Three: Training

	Q Num	The Question	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		Questions 13 – 24 are about prior and on-job Training. Kindly, choose one answer by clicking inside the box or by inserting ⊠					
Prior Training	13	Prior training helps me to perform my job.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	14	Training at Kuwaiti school _is_ linked with the market needs or work expectation	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	15	The more training the employee receives in majors such as chemist, doctors, engineers..., the more competent they will be at work.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	16	The more training the employee in majors such as business, secretary, history..., the more competent they will be at work.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐

			1	2	3	4	5
On-job Training	17	The training I received at work is relevant to my job need	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	18	The skills I gained from training make me competent at work.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	19	I prefer to receive training courses outside of my organisation rather than on-the-job	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	20	If I do not receive the training courses I need then I will ask for it.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	21	If my employer does not send me on a training course that I need or asked for, I am willing to pay for it to develop myself.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	22	My organisation is providing me with enough training to be competent at work.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	23	**To me training courses are:** 23.1 To develop my competency need	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		23.2 Reward for my performance	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		23.3 Leisure or vacation	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		23.4 Learning experience	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		23.5 Following Organisational plans and not necessarily to develop myself.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	24	**My training courses are chosen by:** 24.1 Myself	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		24.2 Manager	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		24.3 HR / Training Manager	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		24.4 Other (Specify)	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐

Section Four: Personal Characteristics

Questions 25 – 41 are prior and on-job personal questions. Kindly, choose one answer by clicking inside the box or by inserting ☒							
	Q Num	**The Question**	**Strongly Agree**	**Agree**	**Neutral**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Prior Personal Characteristics	25	When I have problems at home, my performance at work is affected negatively.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	26	I have good relationship with the majority of my family and friends	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	27	My life's hard personal experience makes me more determined to achieve more at work.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	28	I believe that my cultural background is good.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	29	My culture affects the way I work in my organisation.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
On-job Personal Characteristics	30	When I am working on something new or creative I will tell my colleagues about it.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	31	When I have problems at work, it affects me negatively at home.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	32	I am committed to my organisation.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐

	Q Num	The Question	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	33	**I mostly tend to work better than:** 33.1 Employees who are from the same country as mine.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		33.2 Employees who come from different country than mine.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
On-Job Personal Characteristics	34	**At work I like to:** 34.1 Work alone	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		34.2 Work with others or work with a team	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		34.3 Socialize with others	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	35	**I am happy with my:** 35.1 Colleagues' behaviour towards me.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		35.2 Manager treatment of me.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		35.3 Employees performance	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		35.4 Own current knowledge	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		35.5 Skills	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		35.6 Organisational education for me	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		35.7 Organisational training for me	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		35.8 Organisational environment	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		35.9 Myself	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		35.10 Current job in general	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	36	**Sometimes I work less than what I am capable of, because:** 36.1 I know that if I work less, they will still pay me my salary anyways.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		36.2 I was mistreated by the manager or the organisation	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		36.3 I do not care since my hard work was not appreciated.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		36.4 Not sure	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		36.5 I always worked as hard as I can	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		36.6 Other (Specify)	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	37	**The following motivates me to work harder at work and seek competency:** 37.1 My personnel culture	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		37.2 Myself	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		37.3 Living happy personnel life	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		37.4 Living hard personnel life	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		37.5 Family encouragement	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		37.6 Working environment	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		37.7 Being empowered or promoted	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		37.8 Receiving education and training	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐

			Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		37.9 Other (Specify)	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	38	**If I was offered another job by another organisation then the reason for leaving would be:** 38.1 Because I'm an active person who likes to work and there is not much work to do at my current job.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		38.2 Because I will have a better opportunity to be recognized (salary or position).	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		38.3 Because they did not treat me fairly at my current job.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		38.4 Because I'm having problems with my manager or colleagues in my current job.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		38.5 Because of some or all of the mentioned above.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		38.6 Other (Specify)	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	39	When my colleagues work hard, that makes me work harder to be more competitive than they are	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	40	My organisation is developing my personal characteristics (For example, providing me with courses such as time management, how to deal with others ...etc.)	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	41	I **always** follow my manager's instructions	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐

Section Five: Environment

Questions 42 – 64 are prior and on-job culture questions. Kindly, choose one answer by clicking inside the box or by inserting ☒

	Q Num	The Question	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Prior Culture	42	**Other employees will treat me better if I am:** 42.1 From the same cultural back ground	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		42.2 From the same department	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		42.3 Not a threat to them because I have different interests.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	43	Our personal culture is conservative as it does not encourage us to work with others from different cultures (different country).	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
On-job Culture	44	My organisation or manager provided me with my job description manual (duties and rights)	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	45	My job requirements are clear to me.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	46	The Organisational rules and regulations are fair.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	47	The Organisational rules and regulations effect the way I work	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	48	I consider my work as routine	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	49	My rewards are fair	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	50	My promotions are fair	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	51	At the end of the year, if my manager assess me less than what I believe I deserve, then my performance will be affected negatively	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐

	52	**In my organisation, I will be promoted based on:** 52.1 My competencies	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		52.2 Manager recommendation	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		52.3 Years of experience	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		52.4 Nepotism	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		52.5 Mutual Favour-giving	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		52.6 Other (Specify)	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	53	In my organisation I know that an employee was promoted because of Nepotism	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	54	I have been hired for this job through someone's connections	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	55	I have helped other employees to be hired or promoted	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	56	Nepotism may be good in some cases	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	57	Nepotism negatively effects employees' behaviour at work	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	58	Our organisation is trying to provide us with good working Environment	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	59	I'm afraid to lose my job	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	60	I feel insecure regarding my job status (demotion)or losing my power	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	61	I think that Kuwaitis have job security	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	62	I think that non-Kuwaitis have job security	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	63	I belong to a certain group in the organisation, where we help and take care of each other.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	64	Belonging to a certain group is beneficial to me	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐

Section Six: Competency

Questions 65 – 68 are about competency. Kindly, choose one answer by clicking inside the box or by inserting ⊠

	Q Num	The Question	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Competency	65	In my organisation, the concept or the meaning of (work competency) is clear to me	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	66	**The following individuals are competent at work:** 66.1 Myself	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		66.2 My colleagues	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		66.3 My manager	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		66.4 My employees	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	67	**The following individuals are contributing to developing my competency:** 67.1 Myself (by motivating myself)	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐

		67.2 My colleagues	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		67.3 My manager	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		67.4 My Organisational policies	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		67.5 My working environment	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		67.6 Other (Specify)	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	68	I believe that employees, who work for 10 years or more in their current job, are more competent than those who worked for less than 10 years.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐

Section Seven: HRM & Knowledge Management

Questions 69 – 86 are about HRM and KM. Kindly, choose one answer by clicking inside the box or by inserting ☒							
	Q Num	The Question	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
HRM	69	The role of HRM in my organisation is essential for developing my competencies at work	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	70	My managers should be given more power in order to control work and employees	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
Knowledge Man	71	My organisation practices KM.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	72	Upper management practice knowledge sharing	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	73	We combine our knowledge through meeting, telephone or e-mail	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	74	We use metaphor and models when discussing problems.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	75	We help each other to learn by demonstrating how to do something	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	76	Our organisation encourages team work.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	77	Knowledge is being stored in the Organisational data base	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	78	Our organisation encourages us to share knowledge in order to create new concept, solution, product etc.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	79	I gained my knowledge mostly from teachers and trainers.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	80	I gained my knowledge mostly by myself.	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	Q Num	The Question	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Knowledge Management	81	**I will share my knowledge with:** 81.1 My manager	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		81.2 colleagues in the same department	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
		81.3 Employees from the same cultural back ground (from the same country)	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐

		1	2	3	4	5
	81.4 Those who helped me before	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	81.5 Those who I will benefit from	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	81.6 Everyone in general	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	81.7 As few employees as possible with the least possible information	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
82	**I do not want to share my knowledge with others in fear of:** 82.1 They will use my ideas for their own benefit	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	82.2 Delaying my promotion	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	82.3 losing my job	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	82.4 To be used against me	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	82.5 Others will not find it good enough	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	82.6 Other (Specify)	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
83	**I share my knowledge with other employees when:** 83.1 There is a problem that we need to be solve	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	83.2 There is a new project	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	83.3 My manager asks me to	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	83.4 Only when I have to	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	83.5 I don't share my knowledge at all with any one	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
84	**I believe sharing my knowledge could be beneficial to:** 84.1 Other employees	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	84.2 My organisation	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
	84.3 Myself	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
85	If I need to know something then I am willing to ask others for their knowledge	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐
86	Employees usually ask me for knowledge but they are not willing to share their knowledge with me	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐

Section Eight: Mixed Questions

Questions 87 – 11 are mixed questions. Kindly, choose one answer by clicking inside the box or by inserting ⊠

87	Usually work ideas and decisions are made by	☐ Top managers down to employees where employees are **not** enabled to share their ideas (top-down management)		☐ Managers from different levels of the organisation that these ideas are spread to all levels of the organisation (middle-up-down management)	☐ Lower managers, by being entrepreneurship, and communicated to top managers whose role is limited (bottom-up management)	
88	Competency should be considered as the work standard of	☐ Minimal acceptable performance	☐ Maximum acceptable performance	☐ Individuals' attributes	☐ A Combination of all	☐ Not Sure
89	I have taken training courses	☐ Twice or more a year	☐ Once a year	☐ Once In several years	☐ Did not receive any training courses	☐ Not sure
90	To get promoted, I will	☐ Do anything, including things that I consider unethical (I don't approve of)	☐ Do anything as long as they are right.	☐ Not interested to get promoted	☐ Other (Specify)	
91	I prefer to work in	☐ Private sector	☐ Government sector	☐ Stay where I am	☐ Any other job with at least the same salary and position	☐ Not sure
92	The most important kind of reward for me is	☐ Non-financial (Emotional or recognition)	☐ Financial	☐ Both	☐ Not sure	☐ Other (Specify)
93	The nature of work I prefer to do is	☐ Lots of work _most_ of the time during the year to keep me busy and functioning.	☐ Minor work _most_ of the time during the year as I like to relax at work	☐ A mix of work and breaks (50% to 50%)	☐ I prefer to stay at home and not go to work.	☐ Not sure
94	If my manager was unjust to me, then	☐ I will work the same way as I am (not affected)	☐ Work less or carelessly	☐ Work harder to prove myself to him or her	☐ Leave work	☐ I'm not sure how I will act
95	My assessment or evaluation is executed by my	☐ Manager	☐ HRM	☐ Other (Specify)	☐ Not sure	☐ not applicable
96	My reward determined by my	☐ Manager	☐ HRM	☐ Other (Specify)	☐ Not sure	☐ not applicable
97	My promotion is determined by my	☐ Manager	☐ HRM	☐ Other (Specify)	☐ Not sure	☐ not applicable

أسئلة المقابلة لكفاءة العمل :Appendix B-4

<u>أسئلة المقابلة لكفاءة العمل</u>

(أربعة متغيرات: التعليم، التدريب، الصفات الشخصية، التقاليد)

1- في رأيك، ما الذي يؤثر على كفاءة الموظفين؟

2- في رأيك، ما الذي يؤثر على أداء عمل الموظفين؟

3- هل تعتقد أن التعليم الدراسي له تأثير على أداء الموظفين الجدد؟

4- هل موظفينك أو زملائك بالعمل يعملون في نفس مجال تعليمهم الدراسي؟

5- هل تعتقد تعليم الموظفين بالوظيفة تؤثر على كفائتهم / أدائهم بالعمل؟

6- هل تعتقد أن التدريب المسبق / الدراسي له تأثير على أداء الموظفين الجدد؟

7- هل تعتقد تدريب الموظفين بالوظيفة تؤثر على كفائتهم / أدائهم بالعمل؟

8- لكل موظف صفاته الشخصة، إلى أي درجة تعتقد الصفات الشخصية تؤثر على كفائتة أو أداءة بالعمل؟

9- لكل مدير صفاته الشخصة، إلى أي درجة تعتقد أن صفاة المدير تؤثر على كفائتة أو أداءة عمل الموظف لأداء ماهو مطلوب من الموظف؟

10- الموظفين يأتون من عدة تقاليد مختلفة، إلى أي درجة تعتقد بأن كفاءة أو عمل الموظفين تتأثر بتقاليدهم الأجتماعية؟

11- المدراء يأتون من عدة تقاليد مختلفة، إلى أي درجة تعتقد بأن تقاليد المدراء الإجتماعية تؤثر كفاءة أو عمل الموظفين لديهم؟

12- في رأيك، هل تعتقد بأن هناك عوامل أخرى تؤثر على كفاءة أو أداء الموظفين / المدراء، غير الذي سبق ذكره؟

13- هل تعتقد أنه إذا تم تعليم وتدريب الموظفين لديكم ستكون كفائتهم وأدائهم أفضل؟

14- هل تعتقد بأن الموظفين سيعملون بكفاءة أعلى إذا تدربوا؟ على سبيل المثال، إذا تدربوا على كيفية التعامل مع الموظفين الآخرين، بحيث يكونون على علم لما هو متوقع منهم أداءه وتحت تقاليد وظروف بيئة عملهم، فهل هذا سيؤثر على عملهم؟

(الكفاءة، إدارة المعرفة)

15- بالنسبة إلى أداء العمل من حيث الكم والجودة؟ برأيك، ما الأهم الكمية المنجزة من العمل أم جودة العمل؟

16- هل بيئة العمل، حيث يعمل الموظفين، تشجع العمل بكفاءة؟

17- كيف تصف بيئة العمل لديكم من ناحية مشاركت الموظفين بما يعرفونه من معلومات (سواء ما يعرفونه أو ما تعلموه من دورات أو تدريبات أثناء العمل.

18- بعض قوانين المؤسسات تتطلب من الموظفين بأن يشاركوا في نقل المعلومات التي تعلموها كأساس لترقيتهم، هل لديكم نفس هذا النظام؟

19- ما رأيك بهذا النظام (السالف ذكره في سؤال 18)؟ هل توافق أو لا توافق ولماذا؟

20- هل تستثمر مؤسستكم في موظفينها، كالأهتمام بتعليمهم وتدريبهم وتطوير شخصيتهم وتوفيرهم ببيئة العمل المناسبة؟

21- هل تعتقد بأن التركيز على تطوير كفاءة الموظفين ستؤثر على عمل / كفاءة المؤسسة عموما؟

22- في رأيك كيف تعرف كفاءة العمل؟

Appendix B-5: استبيان عن كفاءة العمل

استبيان عن كفاءة العمل

القسم الأول: البيانات الشخصية

السؤال 1 – 11 عبارة عن أسئلة عن بياناتك الشخصية. يرجى اختيار **اجابة واحدة** بالضغط داخل المربع أو بوضع علامة ☒						
1	الجنس	☐ ذكر	☐ أنثى			
2	السن	☐ 18≥	☐ 19 - 29	☐ 30 - 39	☐ 40 - 49	☐ 50 ≤
3	الحالة الإجتماعية	☐ أعزب	☐ متزوج	☐ مطلق	☐ أرمل	☐ أخرى
4	الجنسية	☐ كويتي	☐ عربي	☐ غير عربي		
5	المستوى التعليمي	☐ ما دون المرحلة الثانوية	☐ الثانوية	☐ دبلوم (سنتين بعد الثانوي)	☐ بكالريوس (4 سنوات بعد الثانوي)	☐ ماجستير	☐ دكتوراة
6	تم دراسة المرحلة الثانوية في:	☐ المدارس الكويتية الحكومية	☐ المدارس الخاصة	☐ مدارس خارج دولة الكويت	☐ لا ينطبق	
7	تم دراسة الجامعة في:	☐ الكويت	☐ دولة عربية	☐ دولة أجنبية	☐ لا ينطبق	
8	سنوات خبرة العمل	☐ 0 – 5	☐ 6 – 15	☐ 16 – 25	☐ 26 - 35	☐ 36 أو أكثر
9	المستوى الوظيفي	☐ الإدارة العليا (المدير العام، الرئيس التنفيذي، وكيل... وغيرها)	☐ الإدارة الوسطى (مدير، مشرف، مسؤول فريق العمل... وغيرها)	☐ موظف عادي		
10	القطاع الوظيفي	☐ سلك التعليم	☐ النفط	☐ البنوك	☐ الطب	☐ العسكري	☐ أخرى
11	نوع المؤسسة	☐ حكومية	☐ خاصة	☐ قطاع مشترك	☐ لست متأكد	
12	المحافظة (مكان السكن)	☐ العاصمة	☐ حولي	☐ الفروانية	☐ مبارك الكبير	☐ الأحمدي	☐ الجهراء	☐ لست متأكد

368

القسم الثاني: التعليم

رقم السؤال	السؤال	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد أو لا ينطبق	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة
	السؤال 1 – 12 عبارة عن أسئلة عن التعليم أثناء الدراسة وأثناء الوظيفة. يرجى اختيار اجابة واحدة بالضغط داخل المربع أو بوضع علامة ☒					
		أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد أو لا ينطبق	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة
1	أعمل حالياً في نفس مجال تعليمي الدراسي	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
2	حين كنت في المدرسة، أساتذتي كانوا على كفاءة في تدريسهم	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
3	تعليمي الدراسي ساعدني على تأدية وظيفتي	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
4	في رأيي، التخصصات الدراسية كالكيمياء والطب والهندسه وغيرها لها تأثير على كفاءة الموظف عند العمل بالمستقبل	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
5	في رأيي، التخصصات الدراسية في الإدارة والسكرتارية والتاريخ وغيرها لها تأثير على كفاءة الموظف عند العمل بالمستقبل	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
6	الأشخاص الذين درسوا في مدارس خاصة لمرحلة الثانوية على كفاءة أعلى من أقرانهم الذين درسوا في المدارس الحكومية	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
7	الأشخاص الذين درسوا في جامعات خارج دولة الكويت على كفاءة أعلى من أقرانهم الذين درسوا في الجامعات الحكومية	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
8	أنا اخترت تخصصي الدراسي بنفسي	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
9	**في العمل، أنا أفضل تلقى تعليمي خلال:** 9.1) دورات تدريبية	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
	9.2) زملائي بالعمل	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
	9.3) مدراء	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
10	أثناء الوظيفة تلقيت تعليما ساعدني في العمل بطريقة أفضل	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
11	يمكنني الدخول على النظام الآلي للمؤسسة وأتلقى ما احتاجه من علم	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
12	مؤسستي قامت بتعليمي بما فيه الكفاية للقيام بعملي بكفاءة	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5

القسم الثالث: التدريب

رقم السؤال	السؤال	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد أو لا ينطبق	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة
	السؤال 13 – 24 عبارة عن أسئلة عن التدريب أثناء الدراسة وأثناء الوظيفة. يرجى اختيار اجابة واحدة بالضغط داخل المربع أو بوضع علامة ☒					
		أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد أو لا ينطبق	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة
13	التدريب أثناء الدراسة ساعدني على تأدية وظيفتي	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
14	التدريب في المدارس الكويتية مرتبط باحتياجات سوق العمل أو متطلبات العمل	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
15	كلما تدرب الأشخاص ذو التخصصات كالكيمياء والطب والهندسه وغيرها كلما زادت مهارتهم في تأدية وظيفتهم بالمستقبل	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
16	كلما تدرب الأشخاص ذو التخصصات كالإدارة والسكرتارية والتاريخ وغيرها كلما زادت مهارتهم في تأدية وظيفتهم بالمستقبل	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5

	5	4	3	2	1	السؤال	17
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	التدريب الذي تلقيته أثناء وظيفتي على صلة بإحتياجات وظيفتي	17
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	المهارات التي اكتسبتها من التدريب كانت مفيدة لكفاءتي بالعمل	18
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	أفضل تلقي التدريب خارج موقع مؤسستي بدلا من التدريب داخل المؤسسة	19
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	إذا كان هناك تدريب أحتاجه ولم أبعث له فسوفه أطالب لأن أبعث لهذا للتدريب	20
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	إذا كان هناك تدريب أحتاجه أو طلبته ولم أبعث له فأنا على استعداد بأن ادفع ثمنه بنفسي في سبيل تطوير نفسي	21
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	مؤسستي قامت بتدريبي بما فيه الكفاية للقيام بعملي بكفاءة	22
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	**بالنسبة لي دورات التدريب هي عبارة عن:** 23.1) تطوير لكفائتي بالعمل	23
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	23.2) مكافئة لجهدي بالعمل	
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	23.3) عطلة أو ترفيه	
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	23.4) مجال للتعليم	
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	23.5) مجرد اتباع تعليمات المؤسسة وليس بالضرورة لتطوير نفسي	
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	**دورات التدريب التي أحصل عليها يتم اختيارها من قبل:** 24.1) نفسي	24
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	24.2) المدير	
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	24.3) مدير الموارد البشرية أو مدير التدريب أو شؤن الموظفين	
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	24.4) أخرى (يرجى التحديد)	

القسم الرابع: الصفات الشخصية

السؤال 25 – 41 عبارة عن أسئلة عن **الصفات الشخصية في خارج وداخل بيئة العمل**. يرجى اختيار **اجابة واحدة** بالضغط داخل المربع أو بوضع علامة ☒

	لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	محايد أو لا ينطبق	أوافق	أوافق بشدة	السؤال	رقم السؤال
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	عندما تحصل لي مشاكل في البيت فأن أدائي الوظيفي يتأثر سلبا	25
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	علاقاتي الاجتماعية بمعظم أهلي وأصدقائي جيدة	26
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	خبرتي القاسية في الحياة جعلتني أكثر اصرارا لتحقيق الأفضل في عملي	27
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	أنا اعتقد بأن العادات والتقاليد التي أتيت منها جيدة	28
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	العادات والتقاليد التي أتيت منها لها تأثير على كيفية عملي بالمؤسسة	29
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	عندما أعمل على شيئ جديد أو مبدع، أخبر زملائي بالعمل بما أقوم به	30
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	عندما تحصلي مشاكل في العمل فهذا يؤثر علي سلبا في البيت	31
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	أنا لدي ولاء لمؤسستي	32
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	**عادةً أدائي الوظيفي أفضل من:** 33.1) موظفين من **نفس** الدولة التي أنتمي لها	33
	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	33.2) موظفين من دولة **مختلفة** عن الدولة التي أنتمي لها	

لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	محايد أو لا ينطبق	أوافق	أوافق بشدة	السؤال	رقم السؤال	
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	**في العمل أحب أن:** 34.1) أعمل بمفردي	34	
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	34.2) أعمل مع موظفين آخرين أو مع فريق عمل		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	34.3) أكون اجتماعيا مع الآخرين		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	**أنا سعيد بـ :** 35.1) تصرفات زملائي معي بالعمل	35	
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	35.2) معاملة مديري لي		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	35.3) أداء موظفيني		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	35.4) ما لدي من معلومات		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	35.5) مهاراتي		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	35.6) ما تقدمه مؤسستي لي من تعليم		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	35.7) ما تقدمه مؤسستي لي من تدريب		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	35.8) بيئة العمل		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	35.9) نفسي (راض عن نفسي)		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	35.95) وظيفتي بالعموم		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	**أحيانا أعمل بأقل جهد مما يمكنني أدائه والسبب في ذلك:** 36.1) أنا أعلم بأنهم سيدفعون لي راتبي بكل الأحوال حتى لو كان أدائي أقل من السابق	36	
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	36.2) أنه تم ظلمي من قبل مسؤلي أو المؤسسة		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	36.3) لم يتم تقديري على اجتهادي في العمل، ولذلك أنا لا أهتم بالعمل		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	36.4) لست متأكدا		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	36.5) أنا دائما أعمل بكل جهدي		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	36.6) أخرى (يرجى التحديد)		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	**فيما يلي المحفز الذي يجعلني أعمل بكفاءة أكبر أثناء وظيفتي، هو:** 37.1) عاداتي وتقاليدي الشخصية	37	
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	37.2) نفسي		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	37.3) العيش بحياة شخصية سعيدة		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	37.4) العيش بحياة شخصية قاسية		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	37.5) تشجيع عائلتي لي		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	37.6) تشجيع العمل لي		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	37.7) حين يتم تخويلي لعمل ما أو ترقيتي		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	37.8) حين يتم تعليمي وتدريبي		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	37.9) أخرى (يرجى التحديد)		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	**إذا عرض علي العمل في وظيفة أخرى لدى مؤسسة أخرى، فالسبب لترك مؤسستي الحالية هو:** 38.1) لأن في أغلب الأحيان لا يوجد ما يمكن عمله وأنا شخص أحب العمل أو الإنجاز	38	
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	38.2) لأنني سأحصل على فرصة أفضل للتميز إما من خلال راتب أفضل أو مسمى وظيفي أعلى		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	38.3) لسوء معاملتهم لي		

	لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	محايد أو لا ينطبق	أوافق	أوافق بشدة	السؤال	رقم السؤال
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	38.4) لدي مشاكل مع مديري أو زملائي بالعمل في وظيفتي الحالية	
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	38.5) بسبب بعض أو جميع ما ذكر	
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	38.6) أخرى (يرجى التحديد)	
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	حينما يعمل زملائي بالعمل بجد، فهذا يحفزني لكي أعمل أكثر لأكون أكثر تميزا عنهم	39
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	مؤسستي تقوم بتطوير صفاتي الشخصية (على سبيل المثال تبعثني في دورات مثل كيف تنظم وقتك؟ كيف تتعامل مع الآخرين؟ ... وغيرها)	40
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	أنا **دائماً** أقوم باتباع تعليمات مديري	41

القسم الخامس: البيئة

السؤال 42 – 64 عبارة عن أسئلة عن بيئة المجتمع وبيئة العمل . يرجى اختيار اجابة واحدة بالضغط داخل المربع أو بوضع علامة ☒

	لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	محايد أو لا ينطبق	أوافق	أوافق بشدة	السؤال	رقم السؤال
البيئة المجتمعية	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	**زملائي في العمل سيعاملونني بطريقة أفضل إذا كنت:** 42.1) من نفس البيئة ونفس عاداتهم وتقاليدهم التي هم منها	42
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	42.2) من نفس الإدارة	
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	42.3) لا أشكل أي خطر على وظيفتهم لأن لدي اهتمامات مختلفه عنهم	
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	تعتبر عاداتنا وتقاليدنا متحفظة بحيث أنها لا تشجعنا على العمل مع الآخرين إذا كانوا من بيئات حضارية مختلفة (من دول أخرى)	43
بيئة العمل	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	مؤسستي أو مديري زودوني بالوصف الوظيفي الذي يبين ما هي واجباتي وحقوقي	44
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	متطلبات العمل الوظيفتي واضحة بالنسبة لي	45
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	أعتبر القواعد واللوائح الوظيفية عادلة	46
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	القواعد واللوائح الوظيفية تؤثر على طريقتي في أداء عملي	47
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	أعتبر عملي روتينيا	48
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	**المكافأة** التي أحصل عليها عادلة	49
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	**الترقيات** التي أحصل عليها عادلة	50
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	إذا كان تقييم مديري لي في نهاية السنة المالية أقل مما أعتقد انني استحق فإن أدائي الوظيفي سيتأثر سلبا	51
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	**في مؤسستي، سيتم ترقيتي بناء على:** 52.1) كفائتي في العمل	52
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	52.2) توصيات المدير	
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	52.3) عدد سنوات الخبرة	
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	52.4) الواسطة	
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	52.5) المصلحة المتبادلة	
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	52.6) أخرى (يرجى التحديد)	
	☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	أنا أعرف شخصاً في المؤسستي تم ترقيتة عن طريق الواسطة	53

☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	لقد تم توظيفي لهذه الوظيفة عن طريق علاقات شخص أعرفه	54
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	لقد ساعدت شخصاً للقبول في الوظيفة أو للترقية	55
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	الواسطة قد تكون جيدة في بعض الأحيان	56
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	الواسطة قد تؤثر سلبا على تصرفات الموظفين بالعمل	57
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	مؤسستنا تحاول أن توفر لنا بيئة عمل جيدة	58
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	أخشى من فقدان وظيفتي	59
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	أخشى من التقليل بمسماي الوظيفي أو صلاحياتي بالعمل	60
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	أعتقد بأن الكويتيين لديهم أمان وظيفي	61
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	أعتقد بأن الغير الكويتيين لديهم أمان وظيفي	62
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	أنا أنتمي لمجموعة معينة في المؤسسة بحيث نساعد ونعتني بعضنا البعض	63
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	الأنتماء لمجموعه معينة مفيد بالنسبة لي	64

القسم السادس: الكفاءة بالعمل

السؤال 65 – 68 عبارة عن أسئلة عن الكفاءة بالعمل. يرجى اختيار اجابة واحدة بالضغط داخل المربع أو بوضع علامة ☒

لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	محايد أو لا ينطبق	أوافق	أوافق بشدة	السؤال	رقم السؤال	
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	مفهوم أو معنى (الكفاءة بالعمل) في مؤسستنا واضح بالنسبة لي	65	
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	**هؤلاء الأشخاص لديهم كفاءة بالعمل:** 66.1) أنا شخصياً	66	
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	66.2) زملائي بالعمل		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	66.3) مديري		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	66.4) موظفيني		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	**هؤلاء الأشخاص ساعدوني على تطوير كفائتي:** 67.1) أنا شخصياً (وذلك عن طريق تحفيز نفسي بنفسي)	67	الأسئلة الإيجابية
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	67.2) زملائي بالعمل		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	67.3) مديري		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	67.4) قوانين ولوائح مؤسستي		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	67.5) بيئة العمل التي أعمل بها		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	67.6) أخرى (يرجى التحديد)		
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	أعتقد بأن الأشخاص الذين عملوا في وظيفتهم لمدة عشر سنوات فما أكثر، على كفاءة أعلى من هؤلاء الذين عملوا بأقل من عشر سنوات	68	

القسم السابع: الموارد البشرية وإدارة المعرفة (HRM & Knowledge Management)

رقم السؤال	السؤال	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد أو لا ينطبق	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة
	السؤال 69 – 86 عبارة عن أسئلة عن الموارد البشرية. يرجى اختيار اجابة واحدة بالضغط داخل المربع أو بوضع علامة ☒					
69	الدور الذي يقوم به مدير الموارد البشرية (HRM) في مؤسستي هو ضروري لتطوير كفائتي بالعمل	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
70	يجب اعطاء مديري المزيد من الصلاحيات وذلك ليتسنى له التحكم بالعمل والموظفين	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
71	تقوم مؤسستي بتطبيق إدارة المعرفة (Knowledge management)	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
72	المسؤلين في مؤسستي يقومون بممارسة إدارة المعرفة (Knowledge management)	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
73	في مؤسستي نقوم بجمع معلوماتنا عن طريق الإجتماعات أو المكالمات الهاتفية أو البريد الإلكتروني	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
74	عندما نناقش مشكلة فإننا نستعين بعرض نماذج أو نستخدم اسلوب الاستعارة (استخدام كلمة للتعبير عن شيئ أخر)	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
75	نساعد بعضنا البعض عن طريق تنفيذ العمل أمام بعضنا البعض لكي نتعلم	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
76	مؤسستنا تشجع على العمل الجماعي	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
77	المعلومات المكتسبة (من اجتماعات وغيرها) يتم تخزينها في قاعدة البيانات الخاصة بالمؤسسة	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
78	مؤسستنا تشجعنا على مشاركة معلوماتنا وذلك للتوصل إلى مفهوم جديد أو لحل مشكلة أو للتوصل لمنتج جديد	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
79	اكتسبت معظم معلوماتي عن طريق مدرسيني ومدربيني	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
80	اكتسبت معظم معلوماتي بنفسي	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
81	أنا أشارك معلوماتي مع: 81.1 مديري	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
	81.2 زملائي الذين في نفس إدارتي	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
	81.3 زملائي الذين من نفس حضارتي (من نفس الدولة)	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
	81.4 الأشخاص الذين ساعدوني من قبل	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
	81.5 الأشخاص الذين يمكن أن أستفيد منهم بالمستقبل	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
	81.6 الجميع عموماً	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
	81.7 أقل عدد من الموظفين وبأقل معلومات ممكنه	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
82	أنا لا أريد المشاركة بمعلوماتي مع الآخرين خوفا من: 82.1 أن الموظفين الآخرين سيستخدمون معلوماتي لمصلحتهم الخاصة	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
	82.2 أن تتأخر ترقيتي	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
	82.3 أن أخسر وظيفتي	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
	82.4 أن تستخدم معلوماتي ضدي	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
	82.5 أن يظن الآخرين بأن معلوماتي غير قيمة	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
	82.6 أخرى (يرجى التحديد)	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
83	أشارك معلوماتي مع موظفين آخرين في حالة: 83.1 وجود مشكلة ويجب حلها	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5

(عمود جانبي: الموارد البشرية / إدارة المعرفة (Knowledge Man))

374

☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	(83.2) وجود مشروع جديد يجب العمل عليه	
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	(83.3) طلب مديري أن أشارك معلوماتي مع الآخرين	
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	(83.4) فقط عندما اضطر لذلك	
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	(83.5) أنا لا أشارك معلوماتي مع أي شخص بتاتاً	
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	**باعتقادي، أن مشاركة معلوماتي مع الآخرين هو مفيد لـ:** 84.1) الموظفين الآخرين	84
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	84.2) مؤسستي	
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	84.3) لي أنا شخصيا	
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	إذا احتجت أن أعرف شيئاً أو أتعلم، فأنا على استعداد بأن أسأل الآخرين عن معلوماتهم في هذا المجال	85
☐ 5	☐ 4	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	عادةً، الموظفين يسألونني عن ما أعرفه من معلومات ولكن بالمقابل هم ليسوا على استعداد بأن يشاركوني معلوماتهم	86

القسم الثامن: أسئلة مختلفة

السؤال 87 – 97 عبارة عن أسئلة متنوعة تهدف لأنفس الأسئلة السابقة. يرجى اختيار اجابة واحدة بالضغط داخل المربع أو بوضع علامة ☒					
☐ المدراء في المستوى الأدنى للمؤسسة، بحيث يخولون بإدارة مشاريع ومن ثم يبلغون الإدارة العليا بالمستجدات. دور الإدارة العاليا محدود (الإدارة باتجاه واحد من الأسفل للأعلى)	☐ مدراء من مختلف المستويات بالمؤسسة بحيث يتم تدوير ونشر الإقتراحات والقرارات لجميع مستويات المؤسسة (الإدارة تتم بكذا اتجاه ـ بالمستوى الأوسط ثم للأعلى ثم للأسفل)	☐ الإدارة العليا ومن ثم إلى الموظفين، حيث أن هؤلاء الموظفين لا يتسنى لهم مشاركة اقتراحاتهم (الإدارة باتجاه واحد من الأعلى للأسفل)		عادةً، المقترحات والقرارات تأخذ عن طريق	87
☐ لست متأكد	☐ جميع ما سبق ذكره	☐ الصفات الشخصية	☐ الحد الأعلى الذي يمكن أن يصل إليه الموظف	☐ الحد الأدنى الذي يجب أن يؤديه الموظف	من المفروض أن تقاس الكفاءة بـ	88
☐ لست متأكد	☐ لم أستلم أي دورات تدريبية	☐ مرة واحدة لأكثر من سنة	☐ مرة واحدة في السنة	☐ مرتين أو أكثر في السنة	تلقيت دورات تدريبية	89
	☐ أخرى (يرجى التحديد)	☐ لست مهتما لكي أترقى بالعمل	☐ أعمل أي شيئ طالما كانت أشياء مسموح بها	☐ أعمل أي شيئ حتى لو كانت أشياء غير مسموح بها	لكي أترقى في العمل سوف	90
☐ لست متأكد	☐ أي مكان آخر بشرط أن لا يقل الراتب أو المسمى الوظيفي	☐ أن أبقى حيث أنا	☐ القطاع الحكومي	☐ القطاع الخاص	أنا أفضل العمل بـ	91
☐ أخرى (يرجى التحديد)	☐ لست متأكد	☐ الأثنان معاً (المعنوية والمالي)	☐ المالية	☐ المعنوية	أهم أنواع المكافأة بالنسبة لي هي المكافأة	92

375

93	طبيعة العمل التي أود أن أكون بها هي	☐ الكثير من العمل المطلوب انجازه على مدار السنة وذلك لتعطيني الاحساس بالأداء ولتملئة وقتي	☐ القليل من العمل المطلوب انجازه على مدار السنة وذلك لأنني أحب أن أرتاح وقت العمل	☐ خليط بين الأثنين (أحيانا الكثير من العمل وأحيانا القليل من العمل)	☐ أفضل البقاء بالبيت وعدم الذهاب للعمل	☐ لست متأكد
94	إذا ظلمني مديري بالعمل فـ	☐ سأعمل كما كنت أعمل دائما غير متأثرا بما حصل	☐ سأعمل بجهد أقل أو بدون اهتمام	☐ أعمل بجهد أكبر لأثبت له قدرتي	☐ أترك وظيفتي	☐ لست متأكداً كيف سأتصرف
95	يتم تقييمي عن طريق	☐ المدير	☐ مدير الموارد البشرية (HRM)	☐ أخرى (يرجى التحديد)	☐ لست متأكد	☐ لا ينطبق
96	مكافأتي يتم تحديدها عن طريق	☐ المدير	☐ مدير الموارد البشرية (HRM)	☐ أخرى (يرجى التحديد)...	☐ لست متأكد	☐ لا ينطبق
97	ترقيتي تتم تحديدها عن طريق	☐ المدير	☐ مدير الموارد البشرية (HRM)	☐ أخرى (يرجى التحديد)	☐ لست متأكد	☐ لا ينطبق

Appendix B-6: Justification of the Semi-structured Interview Questions

The semi-structured interview questions were categorised, developed and organised based on the propositions identified from the literature review, the developed conceptual framework or holistic IC model, and categorized in the methodology (Section 5.5.6). These themes and the same structure will be continued in the analyses and discussion chapters too. Accordingly, the structure of interview questions followed the themes of the IC model but the actual questioning sequence varied between respondents (See Appendix C-3 for semi-structured interview questions). The interview questions, as discussed earlier, were sourced from societal issues (N. J. Adler & Hansen, 2012; Silverman, 2011), researcher's personal experience (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012), existing published studies and extant theories (White, 2008) and literature gap-spotting (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2013). The designed interview was pilot tested using three respondents, their responses and queries to the questions were used to make corrections to the phrasing of the questions and the final interview questions were thus determined, as elaborated next.

First Theme: Competency

Q. 01 What do you think affects employees' competency?

This question is the main thesis question. Since IC is the main concern, it is essential to understand factors affecting IC. The strength and importance of open interview questions like this first one, is it allows participants to talk freely about IC. This enabled the researcher to fully understand the subject from the point view of the practitioners themselves. In fact, it enabled the researcher to uncover new elements that had been neglected or gone unnoticed during this thesis search, and was critical and explored later in the survey questionnaire. That is why this phase is considered an in-depth and exploratory study (Michael D. Myers, 2013).

This question is an issue for society (N. J. Adler & Hansen, 2012; Silverman, 2011). It concerns both organisations and individuals themselves. Organisations are concerned with IC and individuals are concerned with their performance and satisfying their superiors. Also, this question stems from the lacunae identified in the literature or gap-spotting (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2013). The critical analysis of the literature revealed contradicting findings and explanations on the effect of the four

factors affecting IC, namely, education, training, PC and environment. This question in particular enabled the researcher to explore other possibilities that may affect IC from the practitioners' perspectives.

In the semi-structured interview, responses to this particular question by interviewees raised further questions which are used for this thesis; this means that the measuring instruments are a combination of structured and unstructured questions. There are, however, many other unstructured questions that were asked. These other questions included: What is the definition of competency in your organisation? Is that definition followed? Is it unified or does it differ by departments? Such questions varied by each interviewee depending on their answer. The reason for these questions was to understand deeply and explore thoroughly the research problem, and uncover any potential avenues of research that should be investigated.

Q. 2 *Do you think that by promoting individuals' competency, organisations will affect the overall organisational performance? Please explain.*

Competency was questioned in terms of its effect on the overall organisational performance. This question sought to understand what interviewees thought of the effect of IC at the organisational level. In fact, according to Lahti (1999) and Muffatto (1998), it is important to link individuals and organisational levels in order to better formulate company strategy. Therefore, according to Burgoyne (1993) and Hoffmann (1999), the debate on competency concerns the end result expected of employees, in other words the organisational purpose that competency serves. Therefore, the participants were also asked about their organisational preference in terms of quality and quantity. This question was developed to understand the organisational setting of IC.

Q. 23 *In your opinion, how do you define competency?*

At the very end of the semi-structured interview the participants were asked the same question on the definition of competency. The purpose of this question at the end of the interview was to ensure participants' consistency of their understanding of competency. This question is based on interviewees' personal experience (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012); some individuals may feel shy or reluctant to answer 'I don't know' if they do not know, and they may respond with an answer they believe is

right. Therefore, at the end of the interview process, when all factors were discussed and covered, they were asked again to ensure consistency in their answers. During data analysis, these two questions were compared against each other for more understanding.

The following are the four factor themes that were investigated in this thesis.

Second Theme: Education

Prior Education

The theme of education concerned education prior to work (PED) and on-job (OJED). The PED semi-structured questions were designed to explore and to investigate educational effect on IC, as well as on the other factors. The critical reading of the literature provided contradicting findings on the effect of PED and OJED on IC. Researchers (Charles F Elton & Shevel, 1969; McClelland, 1998; Sluis et al., 2008) argue that PED has no effect on IC, whereas other researchers (Hartog & Oosterbeek, 2007; Sluis et al., 2008; Weick, 1996) argue that PED does have an effect on IC. Subsequently, the following are the PED semi-structured interview questions:

Q. 02 Do you think prior education has an effect employees' competency?

This question was asked after interviewees' defined competency according to their organisation or their own understanding. The question was asked to explore the possible relation between PED and IC from the respondents or the workers' point of view.

Q. 03 Are you and/or other employees working in the same field of your/their prior education?

Hartog & Oosterbeek (2007), Sluis et al. (2008), and Trostel et al. (2002) argue that PED is not being acknowledged for its productivity effect; one way to measure its productivity effect is by estimating education for its rate of return. For a proper measurement, individuals ought to work in the same field as their PED; hence the above question.

On-job Education

Lustri et al. (2007) argued that the more organisations invest in their individuals' learning or OJED, the more their competency will increase, and therefore will benefit their organisation in return. Therefore, participants were asked:

Q. 04 Do you think that if the organisation provided its individuals with education then it will affect the employees' competency?

Third Theme: Training

Prior Training

The literature provided contradicting evidence on the effect of PT on IC; some researchers argue that PT does have an effect (Nelson & Phelps, 1966) while some researchers argue that it does not (Schonewille, 2001). Therefore, the following question:

Q. 05 Do you think prior training has an effect on employees' competency?

On-job Training

Many researchers (Mclaughlin & Talbert, 2001; Muijs & Lindsay, 2008; Muijs & Reynolds, 2010) argue the importance of organisations providing OJT. They described that as organisations invest in educating and training their individuals, individuals in return will reflect their new acquired knowledge and skills back into their organisation.

Q. 06 Do you think that if the organisation provided its individuals with training then it will affect the employees' competency?

Q. 07 Do you think that the more on-job education and training achieved of employees the more competent the employee will be?

Fourth Theme: Personal Characteristics

Prior Personal Characteristics

Geller & Bamberger (2009) suggest that individuals' prior behaviour could extended to workplace where their prior PC would influence their behaviour while interacting

with others, such as whether they are willing to help colleagues at work and share knowledge.

Q. 08 Each individual has their own personal characteristics; to what degree do you think employees' own personal characteristics affect their own competency at work?

On-job Personal Characteristics

Researchers agree that on-job personal characteristics (OJPC) is most likely to affect individuals' behaviour and performance at work, especially when combined with motivation and / or environment (Elliot & Thrash, 2002; Izadikhah et al., 2010; O'Connor & Jackson, 2008). At the same time, studies of managers' performances reveals that managers who have a good understanding of their own emotions have a better ability to connect with their employees, effectively inspire and encourage them, and therefore are more competent than traditional managers who separate emotions from work and use hard supervision (Gardner, 2000; Goleman et al., 2006; Wheatley, 2001).

Q. 09 Managers have their own personal characteristics; to what degree do you think that they can influence their employees' competency?

Fifth Theme: Environment

Prior Environment

According to Hofstede et al. (2010) all individuals are affected by their prior culture that they come from in general, rather than at an individual's level. They are affected by family, social, group, geographical region, and professional environment. However, they argue that even twin brothers who have been raised the same will not be affected equally by their culture.

Schein (2010) argues that culture provides individuals with sense of identity and values that contributes to their self-esteem. Researchers such as Triandis (2004) argue that what has been considered as 'universal culture' in psychology is actually investigated only in western societies, and hence is only valid in them. Therefore, Kuwait as a different culture, that also has expatriates culture of others working there, does assume an effect on working individuals and managers.

Q. 10 Individuals come from different cultures. Do you think individuals' competency is affected by their own culture?

Q. 11 Managers have their own culture. Do you think that the managers' culture affects the way they treat their employees, hence affecting their employees' competency?

On-job Environment

As the literature review revealed, an organisation has more than one culture within it. These cultures are associated with different departments, functional groups or geographical locations even if the organisation is small; by having different organisational units, different cultures would be created within the culture of the organisation as a whole. The whole culture in that sense is the shared values and practices around the organisation. These on-job cultures can originate from top management downwards or from individuals upwards (Kotter & Heskett, 2011). Therefore, the following questions were asked:

Q. 12 Each organisation has its own culture. Do you think that organisational culture affects employees' competency?

Respondents were also asked whether they think that their OJEN is encouraging them to work competently:

Q. 13 Does your working environment encourage you and others to perform competently at work?

Also, the proposition that there is an association between PC and environment propounded in the literature was examined:

Q. 14 Do you think that if individuals are given special training on how to work with other employees, on what is expected from them and if provided with the appropriate environmental culture, that they will perform more competently?

Since the thesis proposes the holistic effect of education, training, PC and environment on IC, accordingly this association was also investigated:

Q. 19 Does your organisation invest in employees' education, training, self-improvement and providing the appropriate working environment? (SECI)

To explore other variables not covered, respondents were asked if they can think of any other factor(s) that are omitted.

Q. 15 What other factors do you think affect individual competency, other than the ones mentioned above?

Sixth Theme: Knowledge Management

KM promises to lead organisations to competitive advantages (Amit & Schoemaker, 1993; Barney, 1991; Grant, 1996; Jimenez-Jimenez & Sanz-Valle, 2013; Schimmel & Muntslag, 2009). This research particularly investigated the KCM, developed by Nonaka & Takeuchi (1995). This model however may not be followed by many organisations. Initially, each respondent was asked if they know KM and whether they are practicing it at their organisation. Regardless of the respondents' answer, the following four questions were developed to underpin the use of each of the four modes of KCM (whether it is practiced or not in any given organisation) and to understand individuals' intention to participate in knowledge sharing. The role of the organisation in encouraging the use of KM through the organisational policies was also investigated.

Q. 16 How would you describe your organisational environment in terms of knowledge sharing? (SECI)

This question was developed based on the socialisation mode of KCM. The main purpose is to acknowledge the use of KM and to enact it through knowledge sharing. It also identifies the individuals' tendency to share knowledge with others, which is essential for enacting KCM.

Q. 17 Some organisational policies require that employees share their information and knowledge with other employees as a requirement of promotion; do you have the same system in your organisation? (SECI)

Q. 18 What do you think of promotion dependent on knowledge sharing? Do you agree or disagree and why? (SECI)

Both these questions are concerned with organisational policies, as one means of knowledge sharing. In fact, these questions are based on the internalisation mode of KCM, where knowledge is transferred among individuals from tacit to tacit. However, this transfer is linked to the organisational policies.

Seventh Theme: HRM

Q. 20 What is the role / effect of HRM in your organisation?

This question is based on the explanation in the literature of the important role of HRM on individuals as the most valued assets and development of their competencies (Armstrong, 2003). Specifically, many researchers (Combs et al., 2006; Delery & Doty, 1996; Huselid, 1995) argue the positive impact of HRM on IC. According to Guest et al. (2003), HRM has a positive effect on productivity, profit, quality and commitment.

As explained earlier, this is not the only question on HRM that was asked. Each participant was asked different supplementary questions depending on their answer.

Appendix B-7: Justification of the Survey Questionnaire Questions

The items of the survey questionnaire were developed, as discussed earlier, based on societal issues (N. J. Adler & Hansen, 2012; Silverman, 2011) that concern both the organisation and the individuals themselves. Also these questions are based on the identified lacunae in the literature review or gap-spotting (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2013).

The second phase survey questionnaire of this research contained questions similar to the interview questions, as well as new questions or variables. The similar questions were developed to investigate further the same question but on a larger scale and to confirm its validity. It had additional questions to investigate further the issues that emerged from the interview data, where the data was not conclusive. Also, the sequence in which the questions are administered is different because a different order may provide different insight. Hence, the survey questionnaire Sections were in different order. Nevertheless, in the analysis and the discussion chapters, they followed the theme structure followed in the literature, framework and methodology Chapters.

The survey questionnaire consisted of nine Sections: (1) demographic data, (2) education, (3) training, (4) PC, (5) environment, (6) competency, (7) HRM, (8) KM and (9) Mixed questions. Sections 2 to 8 are based on the propositions developed through the critical reading of the findings and explanation in the extant literature. Section 1 and Section 9 were to collect demographic data. However, Section 2 to Section 7 deployed a five point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5). Some of the questions include 'Other (specify)'; this open question was to allow the respondents the scope to provide explanation if needed and to provide the researcher insight.

Demographic Data (Section One of the Survey Questionnaire)

Demographic data are items like gender, age, marital status, nationality, educational level, location where high school is obtained, location where university is obtained, work experience, job position, organisational sector, organisational domain, and province (See Appendix B-3 for survey questionnaire).

First Theme: Competency (Section Six of the Survey Questionnaire)

This Section's justification is the same as the interview Section (Section 5.6.3, first theme: competency) which was developed based on society and gap-spotting in the literature. In addition, it was developed based on the findings of the first phase of the interview (see Chapter 6, Section 6.3.1).

There were several issues arising from the interview data that needed to be measured to determine their significance in the population. First, a common issue that became clear during the interview phase is that interviewees did not have a clear definition (if none) about the meaning of competency. They did not have a clear answer or defined definition of competency and did not know how their organisation defines competency/competent employee. As discussed in the literature review Chapter 2, competency needs to be defined in order for individuals to act upon that definition or expectation (Falender & Shafranske, 2007). Researchers such as Boam & Sparrow, (1992); Bowden & Masters, (1993); Strebler et al., (1997); Woodruffe, (1993) and Rothwell & Kazanas, (1993) argue that competency is conceived as the desired work output by individuals. It is also conceived as individuals performing work to predetermined standard (Hager et al., 1994; Rutherford, 1995; Strebler et al., 1997). Therefore, the following question was developed to measure whether working individuals know, or at least are familiar with their organisation's definition of competency.

65   *In my organisation, the concept or the meaning of (work competency) is clear to me*

Second, the semi-structured data analysis (See Section 5.6.3) revealed that interviewees believe that they are more competent than others, and that they are the main contributor to their organisation based on their competency. To obtain further accurate measurement the following question was asked:

66   *The following individuals are competent at work:*

   66.1 Myself

   66.2 My colleagues

   66.3 My manager

66.4 My employees

67   The following individuals are contributing to developing my competency:

67.1 Myself (by motivating myself)

67.2 My colleagues

67.3 My manager

67.4 My Organisational policies

67.5 My working environment

67.6 Other (Specify)

Some interviewees argued that older employees are more competent and responsible at work, while the younger generation of employees are not, and provided many reasons. However, some respondent argued the opposite (See Section 6.3.9.2). Therefore, the following question was developed to gather data on a larger scale of respondents:

68   I believe that employees, who work for 10 years or more in their current job, are more competent than those who worked for less than 10 years.

At the end of the survey questionnaire, in the demographic data Section (Section eight, Q 88, See Appendix B-3) respondents were asked their opinion of what constitutes competency? Since competency is defined differently in many different settings and organisations, respondents were asked in order to establish a statistical mean of what should be considered as competency.

Q.88 Competency should be considered as the work standard of,

☐ Minimal acceptable performance, ☐ Maximum acceptable performance, ☐ Individuals' attributes,

☐ A Combination of all, ☐ Not Sure

Second Theme: Education (Section Two of the Survey Questionnaire)

The education Section contains questions derived from the propositions developed in literature review, and elaborated in the holistic IC model (See Figure 3.2). There are two constructs in this factor; namely the prior education and on-job education. Each has its own developed measurement items, as explained in the following two Sections.

Prior Education

The questions are based on Hartog & Oosterbeek (2007), Sluis et al. (2008), and Trostel et al. (2002) studies of return on education. The demographic data, especially the first section of the questions, are obtained to cross tabulate other questions. For example, whether any item in sections 2 to 8 will provide different insight across gender, age… etc. Two questions seek to further investigate issues arising from the data analysis of the semi-structured interviews (See Section 6.3.2). Some respondents commented on the level of education system, in and outside Kuwait, whether it was high school or university level, which needed to be investigated to determine the population parameter.

Similar to the interview questions, the measuring instrument of the PED Section, and all the succeeding Sections of the survey questionnaires are based on issues worthy of research arising as concern of society (N. J. Adler & Hansen, 2012; Silverman, 2011) and gap-spotting in the literature (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2013). Critically, the value of the exploratory qualitative semi-structured interviews is that these Sections also include specific questions arising from the qualitative data analysis, where conflicting or indecisive issues raised by interviewees' answers require further investigation. Thus questions posed in the semi-structured interview were reformulated for the survey questionnaire as follows:

1   I'm working in the same field as my prior education.

One of the issues arising from the interview data is the quality of teachers (see Section 6.3.2). The effect of lecturers or educators is important for individuals to gain knowledge that enhances their IC.

2   When I was in school, teachers were competent at their teaching

388

Also, Hartog & Oosterbeek (2007), Sluis et al. (2008), and Trostel et al. (2002) (See Section 2.6.1), argued that for PED to be acknowledged for its productivity effect, an estimation of the rate of return on education should be conducted. Hence,

3   Prior education helps me to perform my job

Also, the interview data analysis (See Section 6.3.2.2), shows that the PED effects on IC depends on the type specialization the individuals achieved in the PED. In other words, different PED specialization has different effect on IC. Therefore, the following questions were included:

4   In my opinion majors such as chemist, doctors, engineers... etc., does have an effect on individual's competency at work.

5   In my opinion majors such as business, secretary, history... etc., does have an effect on individual's competency at work.

5+   I chose my own major at school.

Similarly, the following two questions arose from the uncertain interview data about type of PED at high school; as government school outputs are different from private school output for their effect on IC (Section 6.3.2).

6   Graduates from private high schools are better qualified then graduates from government high schools.

7   Graduates from Universities outside Kuwait are better qualified than graduates from Kuwait Universities.

On-job Education:

Also, the interview data analysis (Section 6.3.3) reveals the different options available for respondents to receive on-job education. It could be information provided by working colleagues, seminar course in-house or out-side the organisation. So, the following question sought to determine individuals' preference for receiving education in-house. This question in fact, also gave an indicator of how comfortable these participants feel with others at work.

9   At work, I prefer to receive education through:

9.1 Courses

9.2 Colleagues

9.3 Managers

The OJED effectiveness on individuals' performance was also investigated. Interviewees' opinion provided an indicator of the effect of OJED on IC.

10   At work, I received education that helps me to perform better at work

Firestone & McElroy (2005) discuss that IC not only depends on individuals' PED, but also the OJED that they can access from their organisational database, or as they call it the 'distributed organisational knowledge base'. When individuals use the organisational database, it is called single-loop learning.

11   I can access the organisational data base and learn from it.

The following question is similar to the semi-structured interview question (Q. 04). According to Lustri et al. (2007), the more organisations invest in educating their individuals, the more competent they will be and hence will benefit their organisation. Therefore, do respondents think that they are receiving enough OJED?

12   My organisation is providing me with sufficient education to be competent at work.

Third Theme: Training (Section Three of the Survey Questionnaire)

Similar to the education Section, the Training Section consists of prior training (PT) and on-job training (OJT).

Prior Training

Researchers such as Emad & Roth (2008) and Schonewille (2001) argue that PT does not have an effect on IC. Further, Schonewille (2001) argues that the British NVQ did not have a clear return on investment in terms of its effect on future employees. On the other hand, other researchers (Mclaughlin & Talbert, 2001) argued the opposite effect. Therefore the following questions were required:

13   Prior training helps me to perform my job.

390

Some countries developed competency-based training for their national educational system (Lewarn, 2002). A similar system exists in Kuwait; hence:

14   *Training at Kuwaiti school is linked with the market needs or work expectation.*

The following two questions are related to the responses of interviewees differentiating the effect of prior education and/or training based on the individual's major at school.

15   *The more training the employee receives in majors such as chemist, doctors, engineers..., the more competent they will be at work.*

16   *The more training the employee in majors such as business, secretary, history..., the more competent they will be at work.*

On-job Training

This Section also contains one demographic data item that is essential to the research findings and can be used as a base for the respondents answer regarding training. It is to determine whether respondents have actually received training courses at their organisation or not, based on the answer, the other questions follow.

 89I have taken training courses

☐ Twice or more a year ☐ Once a year ☐ Once In several years ☐ Did not receive any training courses ☐ Not sure

Muijs & Lindsay (2008) discuss the importance of OJT through continuing professional development (CPD), where professionals need to be examined to renew their practitioners' qualification. In other words, this kind of training is directly linked to the individuals' work and IC. Therefore,

17   *The training I received at work is relevant to my job need.*

18   *The skills I gained from training make me competent at work.*

According to Schonewille's (2001) research finding, OJT training has a positive effect on individuals, especially when the provided training is offered off-the-job rather than on-the-job.

19   *I prefer to receive training courses outside of my organisation rather than on-the-job*

In addition, training and seeking to be more competent individuals, relies on individuals themselves as well as organisations. Young & Sexton (1997) treat entrepreneurial learning as a mental process that relies on individual's personality-related factors such as determination, confidence, self-efficacy and motivation to achieve goals and tasks.

20   *If I do not receive the training courses I need then I will ask for it.*

21   *If my employer does not send me on a training course that I need or asked for, I am willing to pay for it to develop myself.*

The importance of developing IC through training is discussed by Mclaughlin & Talbert (2001). The more organisations invest to train their individuals, the more will not only affect their organisation and its customers positively, but also can give the opportunity for individuals to share their knowledge and experiences.

22   *My organisation is providing me with enough training to be competent at work.*

Emad & Roth's (2008) study of maritime training shows that training does not have an effect on IC. This finding, however, is the result of several dysfunctional reasons which include individuals not taking training seriously and teachers/trainers not imparting the knowledge/skills that individuals need, but rather cramming them to pass a test.

23   *To me training courses are:*

    23.1 To develop my competency need

    23.2 Reward for my performance

    23.3 Leisure or vacation

23.4 Learning experience

23.5 Following Organisational plans and not necessarily to develop myself.

Training should be given based on the individual's required needs (Kelloway & Barling, 2000). This need should be evaluated and maybe recognized by superiors or maybe the individuals themselves.

24   My training courses are chosen by:

24.1 Myself

24.2 Manager

24.3 HR / Training Manager

Fourth Theme: Personal Characteristics (Section Four of the Survey Questionnaire)

This Section contained questions to investigate the effect of demographics, PPC, and OJPC, as follows:

Demographic Personal Characteristics

The following demographic data was collected to design some of the measuring instruments. Individuals choose to behave selectively based on their own agenda (Akgün et al., 2005; Gleick, 1997; Searle, 1969; van der Vegt et al., 2009). Therefore,

90 To get promoted, I will ☐ Do anything, including things that I consider unethical (I don't approve of) ☐ Do anything as long as they are right. ☐ Not interested to get promoted ☐ Other (Specify)

Semi-structured data analysis revealed that respondents were inconclusive about their choice of type of organisation in which to work, because each type has its own negatives and positives.

91 I prefer to work in ☐ Private sector ☐ Government sector ☐ Stay where I am ☐ Any other job with at least the same salary and position ☐ Not sure

Semi-structured data analysis also revealed that respondents were keener to receive non-financial rewards than the financial. Reward, as an important incentive, was therefore investigated further:

92 The most important kind of reward for me is ☐ Non-financial (Emotional or recognition) ☐ Financial ☐ Both ☐ Not sure ☐ Other (Specify)

Te semi-structured data analysis revealed concern over unequal working load; some complained about having no work to do, while others complained about the extra load within the same organisation.

93 The nature of work I prefer to do is

☐ Lots of work most of the time during the year to keep me busy and functioning

☐ Minor work most of the time during the year as I like to relax at work

☐ A mix of work and breaks (50% to 50%)

☐ I prefer to stay at home and not go to work.

☐ Not sure

Also, many semi-structured interviewees mentioned unfair treatment by their manager. It was thought that the survey question below would enable respondents to answer freely, because they do not have to face the interviewer.

94 If my manager was unjust to me, then ☐ I will work the same way as I am (not affected) ☐ Work less or carelessly ☐ Work harder to prove myself to him or her ☐ Leave work ☐ I'm not sure how I will act

Prior Personal Characteristics

According to Geller & Bamberger (2009) individuals' prior PC and behaviour could extended to the work place. In fact, Gao et al. (2013) argue that if an individual is faced with family problems, then if that individual has high emotional intelligence (EI), such problems would not affect their performance at work. To understand this better the following questions were posed:

25   When I have problems at home, my performance at work is affected negatively.

26   *I have good relationship with the majority of my family and friends*

27   *My life's hard personal experience makes me more determined to achieve more at work.*

Goldberg (1992) argues that there are some cultures that are intellectual and open. Such cultural traits can be achieved if the individual has experience and the mental ability to describe their knowledge. However, semi-structured data analysis revealed that some nationalities do not like to share, therefore the questions posed were:

28   *I believe that my cultural background is good.*

29   *My culture affects the way I work in my organisation.*

On-job Personal Characteristics

Individuals choose to selectively share their knowledge (Akgün et al., 2005; Coulson-Thomas, 2009) according to personal agenda (Akgün et al., 2005; Gleick, 1997; Searle, 1969; van der Vegt et al., 2009). The semi structured interview data analysis revealed that interviewees were willing to share their knowledge and were cooperative hence:

30   *When I am working on something new or creative I will tell my colleagues about it.*

Gao et al. (2013) argue that individuals with high EI level do not bring work problems home to their family.

31   *When I have problems at work, it affects me negatively at home.*

Individuals' commitment to their organisation is important; Polanyi (1966) argues that individuals' commitment is not only important for creating knowledge, but it is the most important factor in promoting the creation of knowledge within the organisation. In fact, human behaviour embedded as intention, belief and commitment makes individuals act the way they act Stich (1985). Thus the question was posed:

32   *I am committed to my organisation.*

The interview data analysis revealed that many respondents believed they were better workers than their colleagues; therefore the following two questions are classified according to employees within the same country or different country.

33   I mostly tend to work better than:

    33.1 Employees who are from the same country as mine.

    33.2 Employees who come from different country than mine.

Trust is an essential element in individuals' PC (Petersen & Poulfelt, 2002). The following question measured to identify the individual trust of others.

34   At work I like to:

    34.1 Work alone

    34.2 Work with others or work with a team

    34.3 Socialize with others

The interview data analysis revealed that the majority of the interviewees were unhappy at their job. This feeling is therefore taken to the larger scale, while covering different aspects that may contribute to their dissatisfaction.

35   I am happy with my:

    35.1 Colleagues' behaviour towards me.

    35.2 Manager treatment of me.

    35.3 Employees performance

    35.4 Own current knowledge

    35.5 Skills

    35.6 Organisational education for me

    35.7 Organisational training for me

    35.8 Organisational environment

35.9 Myself

35.10 Current job in general

Similar to the previous question, the following question was developed as a consequence of the individual negative behaviour at work, as revealed in the interview data analysis.

36   Sometimes I work less than what I am capable of, because:

36.1 I know that if I work less, they will still pay me my salary anyways.

36.2 I was mistreated by the manager or the organisation.

36.3 I do not care since my hard work was not appreciated.

36.4 Not sure.

36.5 I always worked as hard as I can.

36.6 Other (Specify).

In contrast to the previous question, the following question sought to measure what motivates individuals to perform better at work. As argued by Deal et al. (2013), motivation is one of the encouraging drives to drive individuals to work more competently.

37   The following motivates me to work harder at work and seek competency:

37.1 My personnel culture

37.2 Myself

37.3 Living happy personnel life

37.4 Living hard personnel life

37.5 Family encouragement

37.6 Working environment

37.7 Being empowered or promoted

37.8 Receiving education and training

37.9 Other (Specify)

According to Polanyi (1966) individuals' commitment is what makes them active in creating knowledge. Searle (1969) also argues the importance to focus on the individual's intention, belief and commitment, as it drives individuals to certain behaviours. The following question sought to measure individuals' motivations, their commitment to their organisation, and their behaviour at work.

38   *If I was offered another job by another organisation then the reason for leaving would be:*

    38.1 Because I'm an active person who likes to work and there is not much work to do at my current job.

    38.2 Because I will have a better opportunity to be recognized (salary or position).

    38.3 Because they did not treat me fairly at my current job.

    38.4 Because I'm having problems with my manager or colleagues in my current job.

    38.5 Because of some or all of the mentioned above.

    38.6 Other (Specify)

39   *When my colleagues work hard, that makes me work harder to be more competitive than they are.*

40   *My organisation is developing my personal characteristics (For example, providing me with courses such as time management, how to deal with others ...etc.)*

41   *I always follow my manager's instructions.*

Fifth Theme: Environment (Section Five of the Survey Questionnaire)

This Section contained questions about demographic, prior environment (PE) and on-job environment (OJE).

Demographic Environment

The following three questions are on organisational policies for evaluation, rewards and promotion.

 95My assessment or evaluation is executed by my

☐ Manager ☐ HRM ☐ Not sure ☐ not applicable ☐ Other (Specify)

 96My reward is determined by my

☐ Manager ☐ HRM ☐ Not sure ☐ not applicable ☐ Other (Specify)

 97My promotion is determined by my

☐ Manager ☐ HRM ☐ Not sure ☐ not applicable ☐ Other (Specify)

Prior Environment

All individuals are affected by many different elements such as family, social group, geographical region, and professional environment. Therefore, individuals who belong to one country usually share national characteristics (Hofstede et al., 2010). Hofstede et al., research shows that people are affected by their prior culture. Critically, in earlier research Hofstede argued that even twin brothers raised the same will not be affected equally by their prior culture (Hofstede, 1984). Therefore, the inner-individual culture depends on how much individuals absorb the culture. Consequently, Suh (2002) asserts that for certain cultures individuals sharing the culture is restricted to their group culture they belong to. So, the question on culture was posed:

42   Other employees will treat me better if I am:

42.1 From the same cultural back ground.

42.2 From the same department.

42.3 Not a threat to them because I have different interests.

43   *Our personal culture is conservative as it does not encourage us to work with others from different cultures (different country).*

On-job Environment

The interview data analysis revealed that many respondents did not receive job descriptions from their manager or organisation. Therefore:

44   *My organisation or manager provided me with my job description manual (duties and rights).*

45   *My job requirements are clear to me.*

'Wrong' policies were mentioned by respondents in the interviews, as well as in the literature, which have negative effects on individuals. For example, Mavromaras et al. (2009) argue that 41 per cent of the employees' are over-skilled in Australia; they have the wrong employee in the wrong job. As a result, not only are over-skilled employees receiving less wages, but the employers are not fully utilizing their skills in the work place.

46   *The Organisational rules and regulations are fair.*

47   *The Organisational rules and regulations effect the way I work.*

Many interviewees complained that they have routine jobs; routine, as argued by Nonaka (1994), which has an effect on individuals' willingness to share knowledge and to be creative.

48   *I consider my work as routine.*

Also, many interviewees argued that rewards, promotions and assessments are not done fairly.

49   *My rewards are fair.*

50   *My promotions are fair.*

51 *At the end of the year, if my manager assess me less than what I believe I deserve, then my performance will be affected negatively.*

Unfair promotion is due to several reasons; however the following measured several potential reasons, as well as promotion policies of the organisation.

52 *In my organisation, I will be promoted based on:*

    52.1 My competencies

    52.2 Manager recommendation

    52.3 Years of experience

    52.4 Nepotism

    52.5 Mutual Favour-giving

    52.6 Other (Specify)

The following questions specifically gathered data on nepotism and its effects. Hofstede et al. (2010) discuss collectivism versus individualism. In collectivist culture, individuals are promoted and hired based on a person's membership of a group, usually a family member, which is nepotism. That person will return the favour by acting in the interest of the group, regardless of whether their promotion or hiring matches their qualifications. In contrast, in individualist culture individuals are promoted and hired based on their qualifications and interest. The following questions measure not only the organisational collectivism and individualism, but also its effect.

53 *In my organisation I know that an employee was promoted because of Nepotism.*

54 *I have been hired for this job through someone's connections.*

55 *I have helped other employees to be hired or promoted .*

56 *Nepotism may be good in some cases.*

57 *Nepotism negatively effects employees' behaviour at work.*

The following question was asked in the first and second phases; the latter to take a larger scale view:

58   Our organisation is trying to provide us with good working environment

Many interviewees argued that one of the reasons why individuals do not to share their knowledge with others is because of job security or promotion; especially if the person is a foreign worker. Therefore:

59   I'm afraid to lose my job.

60   I feel insecure regarding my job status (demotion)or losing my power.

61   I think that Kuwaitis have job security.

62   I think that non-Kuwaitis have job security.

Belonging to a group or collectivism, is argued by Hofstede et al. (2010). The following two questions are to measure its existence and effect on individuals.

63   I belong to a certain group in the organisation, where we help and take care of each other.

64   Belonging to a certain group is beneficial to me.

Sixth Theme: Knowledge Management (Section Seven of the Survey Questionnaire)

The analysis of KM interview data revealed that even though knowledge is being shared in the majority of the organisations, they do not have explicit KM as part of their system or procedures (Section XXX-analysis). Therefore, to be able to generalize this finding, survey respondents were asked whether they agree or disagree about the following:

71   My organisation practices KM.

The sharing of knowledge was also investigated at the upper level of organisational management. This provided evidence on whether KM is being developed and promoted, specifically in upper level of the organisation where decisions are made.

72   Upper management practice knowledge sharing.

Even though KM is practiced in few organisations that may not necessarily use the KCM. The following four questions were asked to explore the four modes of KCM (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995).

73   We combine our knowledge through meeting, telephone or e-mail (combination).

74   We use metaphor and models when discussing problems (externalisation).

75   We help each other to learn by demonstrating how to do something (Internalisation).

76   Our organisation encourages team work (socialisation).

The following question was on how organisations deal with the newly generated knowledge.

77   Knowledge is being stored in the Organisational data base.

According to the literature, Edvardsson (2006, 2007) and Petersen & Poulfelt (2002) argue that KM is not only effective, but also increasingly used to improve decision-making, productivity, product creativity and profits. However, all of this depends on the willingness of individuals to share their knowledge. In fact, it is the HRM's role to positively influence individuals' knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours in order to stimulate them to create and share their knowledge (Currie & Kerrin, 2003; Dodgson, 1993; Edvardsson, 2007; Kamoche & Mueller, 1998; López-Cabrales et al., 2011). Consequently, these questions were posed:

78   Our organisation encourages us to share knowledge in order to create new concept, solution, product etc.

79   I gained my knowledge mostly from teachers and trainers.

80   I gained my knowledge mostly by myself.

Knowledge sharing is not only based on HRM or managers' encouraging individuals, it is also based on the individuals PC, as they selectively share their knowledge with

others (Akgün et al., 2005; Coulson-Thomas, 2009). Some researchers argue that individuals do that only to serve personal agenda (Akgün et al., 2005; Gleick, 1997; Searle, 1969; van der Vegt et al., 2009). In fact, the following survey questions affirm that, but also sought to explore other reasons which hinder individuals from sharing their knowledge, or asking for knowledge from others.

81   *I will share my knowledge with:*

     81.1 My manager

     81.2 Colleagues in the same department

     81.3 Employees from the same cultural back ground (from the same country)

     81.4 Those who helped me before

     81.5 Those who I will benefit from

     81.6 Everyone in general

     81.7 As few employees as possible with the least possible information

82   *I do not want to share my knowledge with others in fear of:*

     82.1 They will use my ideas for their own benefit

     82.2 Delaying my promotion

     82.3losing my job

     82.4 To be used against me

     82.5 Others will not find it good enough

     82.6 Other (Specify)

83   *I share my knowledge with other employees when:*

     83.1 There is a problem that we need to be solve

     83.2 There is a new project

83.3 My manager asks me to

83.4 Only when I have to

83.5 I don't share my knowledge at all with any one

84   *I believe sharing my knowledge could be beneficial to:*

84.1 Other employees

84.2 My organisation

84.3 Myself

85   *If I need to know something then I am willing to ask others for their knowledge*

86   *Employees usually ask me for knowledge but they are not willing to share their knowledge with me*

As discussed in the literature review, an important element of KM is the managerial role and the organisational policies of the organisation. Nonaka (1994) discusses three types of managerial models; top-down, middle-up-down and bottom-up. He asserts that the middle-up-down model is the only model that is suitable for KM. In this model, members at all levels of the organisation are important for developing and creating knowledge. Therefore, the following question sought to identify the managerial role in organisations.

87 *Usually work ideas and decisions are made by*

- *Top managers down to employees where employees are not enabled to share their ideas (top-down management).*

- *Managers from different levels of the organisation that these ideas are spread to all levels of the organisation (middle-up-down management).*

- *Lower managers, by being entrepreneurship, and communicated to top managers whose role is limited (bottom-up management)*

Seventh Theme: HRM (Section Seven of the Survey Questionnaire)

The interview data showed that respondents did not highlight or identify the role of HRM (Section 6.3.11), this question sought to understand survey respondents' views on the importance of the role of HRM.

69   *The role of HRM in my organisation is essential for developing my competencies at work.*

The interview data analysis established that some interviewees associated the improvement of IC with the fact that the more managers are empowered, the more they can participate in IC development. Consequently, this was explored further:

70   *My managers should be given more power in order to control work and employees*

Appendix B-8: Steps in the Process of Survey Research.

Step 1:
- Develop hypothesis.
- Decide on type of survey (mail, interview, telephone).
- Write survey questions.
- Decide on response categories.
- Design lay out.

Step 2:
- Plan how to record data.
- Pilot test survey instrument.

Step 3:
- Decide on target population.
- Get sampling frame.
- Decide on sample size.
- Select sample.

Step 4:
- Locate respondents.
- Conduct interviews.
- Carefully record data.

Step 5:
- Enter data into computers.
- Recheck all data.
- Perform statistical analysis on data.

Step 6:
- Describe methods and findings in research report.
- Present findings to others for critique and evaluation.

Source (Neuman, 2013, p. 312).

Appendix B-9: Ethical Form

Brunel Business School
Research Ethics Form
PhD Students and Staff

Any research that involves human participation, the collection or study of their data, organs and/or tissues, and that is carried out on Brunel University premises and/or by Brunel University staff or Brunel University students under the supervision of Brunel University staff requires ethical approval.

This document is designed to help you ensure that your research is conducted in an ethical manner. It is the "Ethical Clearance" part of your research (whether it requires funding or not). You need to submit this form with your research documents. In addition to this and other requirements for your project, you might need to submit three documents – see Ethics Submission Guidelines for PhD-Staff for consideration by BBS Research Ethics Committee (via your supervisor if you are a PhD student:

1. A Participant Information Sheet (created by you)
2. A Participant Consent Form (created by you)
3. A Company Confidentiality Agreement Form (created by you, not always required)

Section A – Information About You and Your Research Project

This is used to identify you and to give us a brief overview of your project.

Name:	Contact email address:
Shaikhah J. Al-ainati	Shaikhah.Al-Ainati@brunel.ac.uk
Date: Click here to enter a date.	
Name of Supervisor (if PhD student): Sarmad N. AlShawi	
Title of Research Project: FACTORS EFFECTING EMPLOYEES' COMPETENCY: A KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE	

Section B – Identification of Ethical and Risk Issues

Most research projects involve a number of potential risks (either to participants or yourself). The more risk factors that can be identified at the start, the easier it will be to guard against them. Answer the questions below to identify potential risks in your project. Please refer to the guidelines if you are unsure about your answer to any of these questions. Please indicate your answer by selecting either "Yes" or "No" options.

1. Is it possible participants might have been told to co-operate rather than freely volunteering? Sometimes it is difficult to ensure interviewees do not feel "obligated" in some way. You will need gatekeeper consent for this.	Yes ○ No ⦿
2. Is it possible that participants might be under eighteen years of age? Normally minors are not legally able to give their consent to participation.	Yes ○ No ⦿
3. Is it possible that participants might be required to discuss sensitive issues (e.g. private or of criminal nature)? Such discussion could put yourself or the participants in danger.	Yes ○ No ⦿
4. Is it possible that your research might cause clinical or psychological harm to participants or yourself? This may include discussion of topics of sensitive nature or prolonged strenuous psychological or physical pressure for participants and/or yourself.	Yes ○ No ⦿
5. Are all or some of the participants unable to give their own consents Including organisations with gatekeepers (e.g. schools and prisons); or vulnerable participants (e.g., children, people with learning disabilities, your own students).	Yes ○ No ⦿
6. Will you be recording the identity of any participants (e.g. their name or employee number)? Sometimes it is difficult to guarantee anonymity. If so, you will need explicit consent.	Yes ○ No ⦿

7. **Is it possible that identity of participants could be traced (e.g. their name or employee number)?** Sometimes anonymity can be broken by combining information from more than one source. If so, you will need explicit consent.	Yes ○ No ⦿
8. **Will you be storing traceable participant data on a laptop or in a file at any point during and/or after the duration of your project?** There is a risk if a laptop or file is lost or stolen.	Yes ○ No ⦿
9. **Is it possible that your company will want the research kept confidential?** Some companies allow research only on condition that the results are not made public. If so, you will need to fill in Company Confidentiality Form.	Yes ○ No ⦿
10. **Is it possible that copyright material might be copied?** It may be necessary to get permission to use it.	Yes ○ No ⦿
11. **Will the study involve recruitment of patients or staff through the NHS?** If you answered 'Yes', you will have to submit an application to the appropriate external health authority ethics committee, **after** you have received approval from the School Research Ethics Committee.	Yes ○ No ⦿

- If you have answered 'No' to all questions, you may upload **the completed form to your supervisor via uLink** (see submission guidelines)**.**
- If you have answered 'Yes' to *any* of the questions **1 – 5**, you will need to describe more fully how you plan to deal with the ethical issues raised by your research. You should use the University by clicking on this link: [Application Form for Research Ethics Approval](#). You will need to submit the form via uLink.
- If you have answered 'Yes' to *any* of the questions **6 – 10**, please tell us in the box below how you are planning to mitigate against these risks. On completions you may upload **the completed form to your supervisor via uLink** (see uLink submission guidelines)**.**
- If you answered 'Yes' to *question* 11, you will have to submit an application to the appropriate external health authority ethics committee, **after** you have received approval from the School Research Ethics Committee.

Describe which risks (6-10) you have said "Yes" to and your mitigation plans:

Section C – Declaration

Please note that it is your responsibility to follow the University's Code of Research Ethics and any relevant academic or professional guidelines in the conduct of your study. **This includes providing appropriate information sheets and consent forms, and ensuring confidentiality in the storage and use of data.** We should be notified of any significant changes in the protocol over the course of the research and may require a new application for ethics approval.

You need to indicate that you have carried out various activities prior to submitting this form along with your proposal.

I have read through and understood the Brunel University Code of Ethics (available at: http://intranet.brunel.ac.uk/registry/minutes/researchethics/CoEv6.pdf**).**	Yes ◉ No ○
I have written and attached a Participant Information Sheet ONLY needed if your research involves direct data collection from people.	Yes ◉ No ○
I have written and attached a Participant Consent Form ONLY needed if your research requires *explicit* consent.	Yes ○ No ◉
I have written and attached a Company Confidentiality Agreement Form Only needed if your research involves a company that is concerned about information being made public.	Yes ○ No ◉

For PhD students ONLY

I confirm that I am the supervisor mentioned in Section A and that I have discussed and fully support the application submitted by the PhD student named in Section A and confirm that the information entered is correct. This to be answered by a supervisor in case the applicant is a PhD student.	Yes ◉ No ○

Appendix B-10: Participant Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet

Researcher Information:

Name: Shaikhah Alainati

       PhD Student

       Brunel Business School

Supervised by: Dr. Sarmad ALShawi

E-mail: Shaikhah.Al-Ainati@brunel.ac.uk

Research Title: FACTORS AFFECTING INDIVIDUALS' COMPETENCY IN ORGANISATIONS USING KNOWLEDGE CREATION MODEL AND HRM PRACTICES

The aim of this research:

The aim is to identify and test factors affecting individuals' competency. Organisations are seeking the competent individuals, where individuals are seeking to meet those standards and requirements.

There are several factors affecting individual competency. One factor is education; in school or in the organisation. Another is training; which provides individual with skills needed to perform a task. There are other factors, however, that affect those individuals; such as individual traits and cultures.

Participant Involvement (Interviews and Surveys):

Participant will be asked questions on what they think. It is completely voluntary, and participants have the right to not answer any question if they choose to. They can also choose to withdraw at any time. The identity of the participant will not be

revealed. All the data collected will be stored securely, and used for this research and future publication.

<u>For Personal interview</u>: The interview duration will be around 45 minute for each interviewee. During the interview, a tape recorder will be used to save some time. However, if the participant is not comfortable then a written note will be taken. All the data collected, will be stored securely.

Thank you in advance for your co-operation

Sincerely yours

Shaikhah Alainati

PhD Student

Appendix C

## Appendix C-1: Interview Demographic Data.

QSR NVIVO 10 output of demographic data

People Attributes	Gender	Government – Private	Nationality	Organisational level	Sector
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\01 - FKP-M-BA	Female	Private	Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Bank
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\02 - MKP-T-O	Male	Private	Kuwaiti	Top Management	Other
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\03 - FKG-E-O	Female	Government	Kuwaiti	Employee	Other
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\04 - FKG-T-ED	Female	Government	Kuwaiti	Top Management	Education
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\05 - FKG-M-MED	Female	Government	Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Medical
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\06 - FKG-E-O	Female	Government	Kuwaiti	Employee	Other
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\07 - FKG-E-ED	Female	Government	Kuwaiti	Employee	Education
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\08 - FKG-M-MIL	Female	Government	Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Military
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\09 - FKP-M-BA	Female	Private	Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Bank
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\10 - MKG-M-OIL	Male	Government	Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Oil
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\11 - FKG-E-O	Female	Government	Kuwaiti	Employee	Other
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\12 - FKG-E-O	Female	Government	Kuwaiti	Employee	Other
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\13 - FKG-M-O	Female	Government	Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Other
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\14 - FKG-T-ED	Female	Government	Kuwaiti	Top Management	Education
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\15 - FKG-E-MED	Female	Government	Kuwaiti	Employee	Medical
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\16 - MKP-T-O	Male	Private	Kuwaiti	Top Management	Other
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\17 - FKG-M-O	Female	Government	Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Other
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\18 - MKP-M-O	Male	Private	Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Other
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\19 - FKG-M-MIL	Female	Government	Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Military
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\20 - FKP-T-O	Female	Private	Kuwaiti	Top Management	Other
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\21 - MKG-E-O	Male	Government	Kuwaiti	Employee	Other

Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\22 - MKG-M-OIL	Male	Government	Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Oil
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\23 - FKG-E-OIL	Female	Government	Kuwaiti	Employee	Oil
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\24 - FKG-M-OIL	Female	Government	Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Oil
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\25 - MKG-E-OIL	Male	Government	Kuwaiti	Employee	Oil
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\26 - MNKG-M-OIL	Male	Government	Non-Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Oil
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\27 - FKG-M-OIL	Female	Government	Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Oil
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\28 - FKG-E-OIL	Female	Government	Kuwaiti	Employee	Oil
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\29 - MKG-E-OIL	Male	Government	Kuwaiti	Employee	Oil
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\30 - MNKP-M-O	Male	Private	Non-Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Other
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\31 - MKG-M-OIL	Male	Government	Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Oil
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\32 - MKG-M-OIL	Male	Government	Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Oil
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\33 - FKG-M-OIL	Female	Government	Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Oil
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\34 - MKP-E-O	Male	Private	Kuwaiti	Employee	Other
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\35 - FNKP-M-O	Female	Private	Non-Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Other
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\36 - FKG-E-ED	Female	Government	Kuwaiti	Employee	Education
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\37 - MKG-T-O	Male	Government	Kuwaiti	Top Management	Other
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\38 - FKG-M-MED	Female	Government	Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Medical
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\39 - MKG-M-MED	Male	Government	Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Medical
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\40 - FKP-M-BA	Female	Private	Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Bank
Nodes\\Interviewee Attributes\\41 - MKG-M-MIL	Male	Government	Kuwaiti	Mid Management	Military

Appendix C-2: Question One Link with the Interviewees.

Linking Question One with the Interviewees (Source)
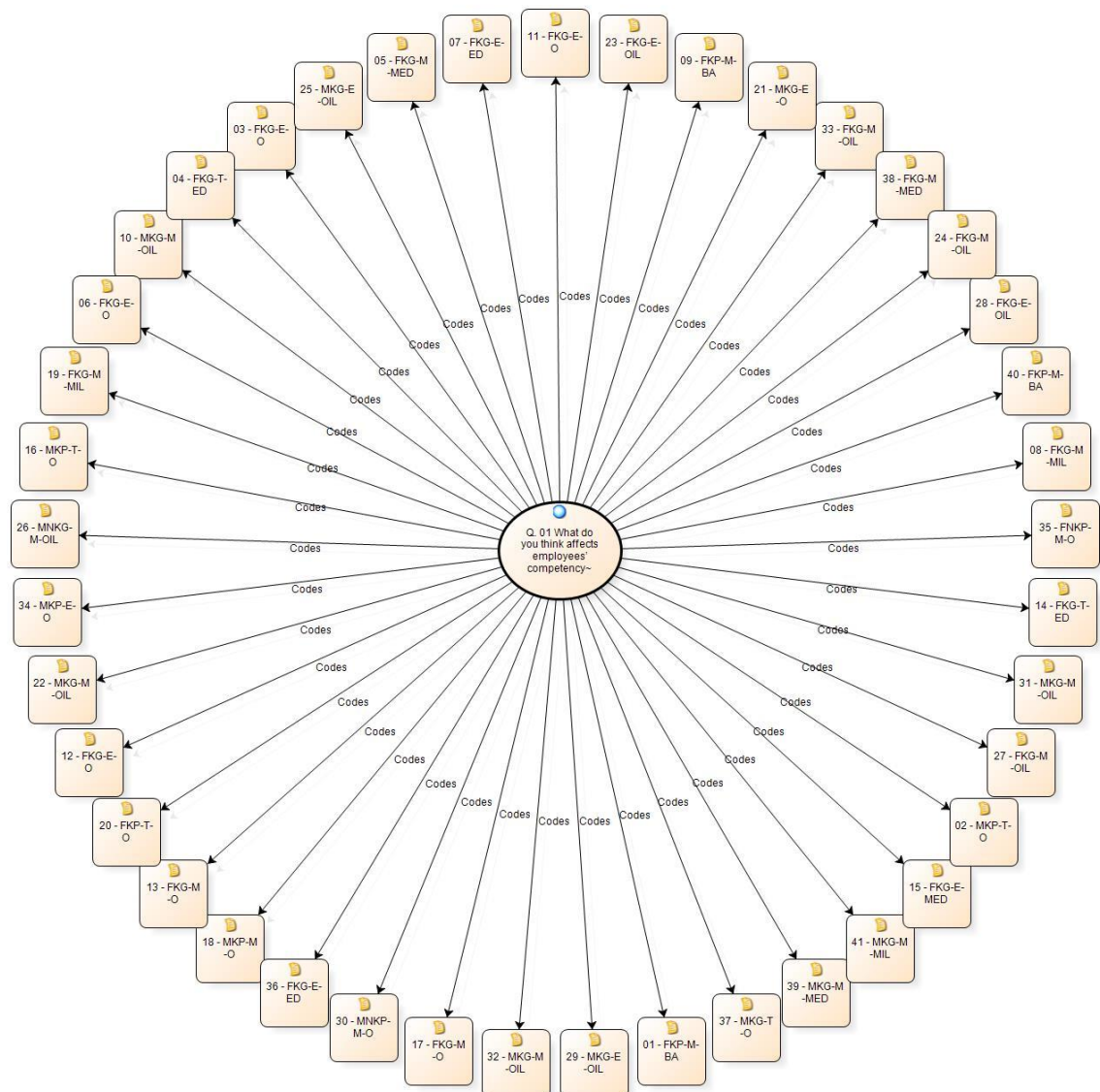
Each of the semi-structured interview questions (in the Nodes tap) were linked to their interview sources (in sources).

Appendix C-3: Interviewees' Question Sheet.

The semi-structured interview questionnaires and the corresponding interviewees' responses.

Interviewee Number	Interviewees Code	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9	Q10	Q11	Q12	Q13	Q14	Q15	Q16	Q17	Q18	Q19	Q20	Q21	Q22	Q23
1	1-FKP-M-BA	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	-	-	✓	-
2	2-MKP-T-O	✓	✓	-	-	✓	✓	-	✓	-	✓	-	✓	-	-	✓	✓	-	-	-	-	✓	✓	-
3	3-FKG-E-O	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-	-	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	✓
4	4-FKG-T-ED	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-	-	-	-	✓	✓	✓
5	5-FKG-M-MED	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓
6	6-FKG-E-O	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-	-	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓
7	7-FKG-E-ED	✓	✓	-	-	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	-	-	✓	✓
8	8-FKG-M-MIL	✓	✓	✓	-	-	✓	-	✓	-	-	✓	✓	-	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓
9	9-FKP-M-BA	✓	✓	-	-	-	-	-	-	✓	-	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	-
10	10-MKG-M-OIL	✓	-	-	✓	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-	-	✓	-	✓	-	✓
11	11-FKG-E-O	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓
12	12-FKG-E-O	✓	-	✓	-	-	✓	-	-	-	✓	-	-	✓	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	✓	✓	✓
13	13-FKG-M-O	✓	-	✓	✓	-	✓	-	✓	-	✓	-	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓
14	14-FKG-T-ED	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	-	-	✓	-
15	15-FKG-E-MED	✓	-	✓	-	-	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	-	✓	✓	-

Interviewee Number	Interviewees Code	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9	Q10	Q11	Q12	Q13	Q14	Q15	Q16	Q17	Q18	Q19	Q20	Q21	Q22	Q23
16	16-MKP-T-O	✓	-	-	-	-	✓	-	✓	-	-	-	✓	-	-	-	✓	-	-	-	-	✓	✓	✓
17	17-FKG-M-O	✓	✓	✓	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	-	-	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓
18	18-MKP-M-O	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-	✓	✓	-
19	19-FKG-M-MIL	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	✓
20	20-FKP-T-O	✓	✓	-	✓	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	-
21	21-MKP-E-O	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-	-	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	✓
22	22-MKG-M-OIL	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	-	✓
23	23-FKG-E-OIL	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-	✓	✓	-
24	24-FKG-M-OIL	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	✓
25	25-MKG-E-OIL	✓	-	✓	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	-	✓	✓	✓
26	26-MNKG-M-OIL	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	-	✓	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	-
27	27-FKG-M-OIL	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	-	✓	✓	✓
28	28-FKG-E-OIL	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-	-	✓	-	✓	-	✓	-	-	-	-	✓	✓	-
29	29-MKG-E-OIL	✓	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	✓
30	30-MNKP-M-O	✓	✓	✓	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	-
31	31-MKG-M-OIL	✓	-	✓	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	-
32	32-MKG-M-OIL	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	-	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	-	-	✓	-	-	-	-	✓	-	-

418

Interviewee Number	Interviewees Code	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9	Q10	Q11	Q12	Q13	Q14	Q15	Q16	Q17	Q18	Q19	Q20	Q21	Q22	Q23
33	33-FKG-M-OIL	✓	-	✓	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	-	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	-	✓	✓	-
34	34-MKP-E-O	✓	✓	-	✓	-	-	-	✓	-	✓	-	-	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	-
35	35-FNKP-M-O	✓	✓	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-	✓	-	-	✓	-	-
36	36-FKG-E-ED	✓	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	-
37	37-MKG-T-O	✓	✓	-	-	-	-	-	✓	✓	✓	-	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-	✓	-	-
38	38-FKG-M-MED	✓	✓	-	-	✓	-	-	✓	-	✓	-	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	-	✓	✓	-
39	39-MKG-M-MED	✓	-	-	-	-	✓	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	✓	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
40	40-FKP-M-BA	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	-	✓	-	✓	-	-	-	✓	✓	-	-	-	-	-	✓	✓	-
41	41-MKG-M-MIL	✓	✓	-	-	-	-	✓	✓	-	-	-	✓	-	✓	✓	✓	-	-	-	-	✓	✓	-

Appendix C-4: Interviewee's Codding.

First Source of Interviewee's Text Codding in the Node.
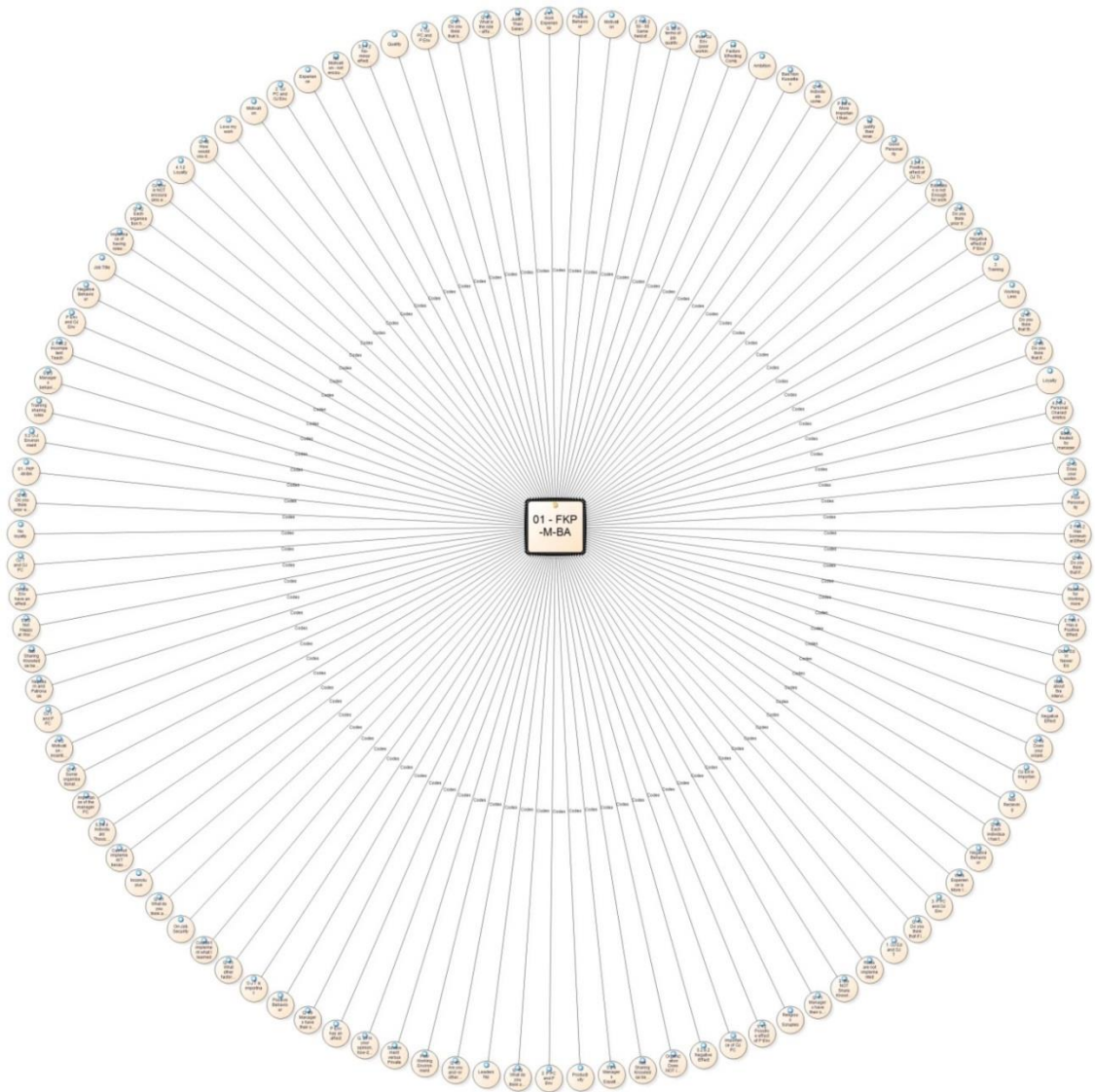
Each of the interviewee's sources are coded in the Node

Appendix C-5: Codding Frequency.

The Coding Frequency Table (Up to Three Levels of the Codding)

| Name	Sources	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On
1. Individuals' Competency	0	0	28/04/2013 11:45	S	14/06/2014 20:41
Competency of others	0	0	06/11/2013 16:30	S	07/06/2014 19:36
My manager is competent	2	2	06/11/2013 16:31	S	30/11/2013 15:03
My manager is incompetent	7	13	06/11/2013 16:31	S	29/11/2013 17:18
Factors Affecting Competency – Beginning	40	56	28/04/2013 12:43	S	12/06/2014 00:15
Any factor you suggest	1	1	19/11/2013 21:13	S	19/11/2013 21:15
Bonuses and Incentives	8	17	30/04/2013 07:41	S	07/06/2014 19:20
Commitment	5	6	30/04/2013 11:25	S	19/07/2013 16:39
Conscience	4	4	30/04/2013 13:45	S	23/05/2013 23:52
Experience	5	8	30/04/2013 07:34	S	30/04/2013 23:13
Leadership	1	1	30/04/2013 07:36	S	30/04/2013 07:37
Loyalty	5	9	30/04/2013 07:35	S	23/11/2013 10:45
Motivation	21	28	30/04/2013 07:36	S	15/11/2013 21:54
Personal Characteristics	5	6	18/07/2013 01:43	S	26/11/2013 20:12
Productivity	1	1	30/04/2013 12:46	S	23/05/2013 23:52
Punishment	2	2	15/11/2013 22:07	S	16/11/2013 15:09
Qualification	1	1	05/05/2013 01:07	S	07/06/2014 19:07
Reasons for working less	7	17	30/04/2013 08:37	S	23/05/2013 23:52
Reasons for Working more	8	11	30/04/2013 08:44	S	05/11/2013 12:20
Religious Scruples	15	24	30/04/2013 10:26	S	23/11/2013 18:46
Responsibility	4	4	30/04/2013 15:59	S	19/07/2013 18:32
Rewards	6	6	01/05/2013 14:29	S	16/11/2013 15:09
Salary	13	19	30/04/2013 07:41	S	06/11/2013 14:17
Sharing Knowledge	1	1	04/05/2013 12:43	S	23/05/2013 23:52
Training	10	13	05/07/2013 18:55	S	21/11/2013 18:53
Factors Affecting Competency – End	21	24	28/04/2013 12:43	S	12/06/2014 00:16
Other factors effecting IC	21	24	23/11/2013 12:28	S	30/11/2013 15:03
2. Education	0	0	28/04/2013 11:40	S	12/06/2014 00:19
2.1 PED	8	12	28/04/2013 11:51	S	15/06/2014 22:56
Education System	0	0	23/05/2013 17:34	S	12/06/2014 00:17
Educational Curriculum	1	1	23/05/2013 17:22	S	12/06/2014 00:18
Importance of PED	1	1	07/05/2013 22:15	S	12/06/2014 00:22
Indifferent between Ed and T	6	6	20/05/2013 18:28	S	06/07/2013 16:21
Motivation	4	4	20/05/2013 19:04	S	23/05/2013 18:38
Nepotism and P Ed	0	0	25/05/2013 09:55	S	25/05/2013 09:57
PED Interaction With Other Factors	1	1	24/05/2013 00:43	S	12/06/2014 00:24
PED Policies - Rules	0	0	21/05/2013 11:24	S	12/06/2014 00:24
Teachers' Competencies	1	3	22/05/2013 17:59	S	12/06/2014 00:23
Unmotivated	3	3	20/05/2013 19:02	S	23/11/2013 20:22
2.2 OJED	6	6	28/04/2013 12:34	S	15/06/2014 22:56
Kuwaiti Vs Non-Kuwaiti	6	8	20/05/2013 14:03	S	17/11/2013 13:10

OJEd Interaction With Other Factors	0	0	24/05/2013 18:57	S	14/06/2014 20:36
OJEd is Important	6	7	22/05/2013 22:58	S	14/06/2014 20:36
Organisation invest in Education	0	0	17/11/2013 21:32	S	14/06/2014 21:10
The effect of OJEd	0	0	20/11/2013 18:08	S	14/06/2014 20:36
3. Training	3	3	28/04/2013 11:41	S	24/05/2013 01:08
3.1 Prior Training	0	0	28/04/2013 11:56	S	28/04/2013 22:30
3.1.1 PT is important	13	16	21/05/2013 12:07	S	16/06/2014 14:21
3.1.2 No Prior Training	5	5	24/05/2013 19:52	S	06/11/2013 19:06
Effect of Prior Training	1	1	24/05/2013 19:56	S	04/07/2013 22:31
P T Interaction With Other Factors	0	0	24/05/2013 19:40	S	24/05/2013 19:40
3.2 On-Job Training	7	15	28/04/2013 12:36	S	17/06/2014 16:12
3.1.1 Effect of OJT	0	0	28/04/2013 15:08	S	17/06/2014 15:05
3.2.2 Importance of OJT	1	1	24/05/2013 18:29	S	17/06/2014 15:05
3.2.3 Employees' Perception of Training	0	0	28/04/2013 15:13	S	24/05/2013 18:30
3.2.4 Individuals Attitude Towards Training	0	0	23/05/2013 23:59	S	24/05/2013 18:31
3.2.5 Who will choose your training	0	0	28/04/2013 15:19	S	24/05/2013 18:31
3.2.6 No or Barely had Training	5	8	22/05/2013 23:17	S	30/11/2013 13:01
OJ T Interaction With Other Factors	0	0	24/05/2013 19:33	S	24/05/2013 19:34
OJT needs to be developed	9	11	05/07/2013 22:54	S	17/06/2014 15:06
Organisation invest in Training	0	0	17/11/2013 21:32	S	17/11/2013 21:32
PC kind of training	2	3	06/11/2013 14:41	S	19/11/2013 00:19
4. Personal Characteristics	0	0	28/04/2013 11:42	S	28/04/2013 11:48
4.1 Prior Personal Characteristics	1	1	28/04/2013 12:04	S	23/11/2013 21:06
4.1.3 Motivation	7	7	24/05/2013 20:24	S	26/11/2013 22:41
male vr female	2	2	23/11/2013 21:06	S	25/11/2013 13:27
P PC Interaction With Other Factors	0	0	24/05/2013 20:01	S	24/05/2013 20:01
single vr married	1	3	23/11/2013 21:06	S	23/11/2013 21:16
4.2 OJ Personal Characteristics	1	1	28/04/2013 12:05	S	23/06/2014 00:15
4.1.1 Motivation - Incentives	34	77	28/04/2013 22:50	S	21/06/2014 21:10
4.1.2 Loyalty	16	35	28/04/2013 22:48	S	30/11/2013 15:22
4.1.3 Trust	1	1	29/11/2013 17:20	S	21/06/2014 21:10
4.1.4 Commitment	3	4	30/11/2013 15:15	S	21/06/2014 21:09
4.2.1 Rewards	7	12	28/04/2013 15:33	S	22/06/2014 13:22
4.2.2 Punishment	12	14	05/07/2013 22:31	S	22/06/2014 13:22
Employees Behaviour Effect	3	3	22/05/2013 20:54	S	30/11/2013 14:59
Importance of OJPC	37	110	15/07/2013 20:43	S	21/06/2014 21:09
Importance of the manager OJPC	33	84	06/11/2013 19:42	S	21/06/2014 21:09
Individuals' Attributes	3	4	24/05/2013 00:27	S	14/11/2013 13:52
Managers behavioural effect	15	22	28/04/2013 12:19	S	22/06/2014 13:22
Managers Don't have the power	3	3	21/11/2013 19:04	S	29/11/2013 17:21
Managers Equally Treating Employees	3	3	28/04/2013 15:34	S	22/06/2014 13:22
OJPC Interaction With other Factors	0	0	24/05/2013 20:48	S	21/06/2014 21:10
Work Experience	5	8	28/04/2013 22:46	S	21/06/2014 21:08
5. Environment	0	0	28/04/2013 11:43	S	28/04/2013 11:49
5.1 Prior Environment	13	22	28/04/2013 12:00	S	14/11/2013 13:11
5.1.1 Negative effect of PE	8	11	08/11/2013 07:48	S	25/06/2014 18:31
5.1.2 Positive effect of PE	2	2	08/11/2013 07:48	S	25/06/2014 18:31
5.1.3 P Env Interaction With other factors.	0	0	08/11/2013 07:48	S	10/11/2013 21:58
PE has an affect	32	56	10/11/2013 22:03	S	25/06/2014 18:28
PE has no effect	1	1	13/11/2013 11:26	S	25/06/2014 18:28

PE may have an effect	3	3	13/11/2013 11:32	S	25/06/2014 18:29
5.2 O-J Environment	5	5	28/04/2013 12:02	S	06/07/2013 19:54
5.2.1 Happy at Work - Love my work	10	15	28/04/2013 21:34	S	29/11/2013 17:43
5.2.2 Not Happy at Work - Hate my work	8	11	28/04/2013 21:35	S	23/11/2013 20:09
5.2.3 Rules and Regulations	10	15	28/04/2013 12:29	S	18/11/2013 20:33
5.2.6 Nepotism and Patronage	6	6	28/04/2013 15:23	S	28/11/2013 20:38
Different cultures within one organisation	2	2	16/11/2013 11:42	S	24/11/2013 21:08
Effect of IC on organisational performance	0	0	26/11/2013 21:57	S	26/11/2013 21:58
Encouraging employees	0	0	27/06/2014 12:17	S	27/06/2014 12:17
Good - Poor working environment	0	0	27/06/2014 12:15	S	27/06/2014 12:15
Issues Facing Management and Employees	0	0	30/04/2013 08:14	S	24/05/2013 20:58
Kuwaitis versus Non-Kuwaitis	22	53	30/04/2013 08:12	S	30/11/2013 12:42
OJE and IC	0	0	27/06/2014 12:19	S	27/06/2014 12:19
OJE have an effect on individuals	35	100	13/11/2013 11:40	S	27/06/2014 20:05
Organisation invest in good OJE	0	0	17/11/2013 21:50	S	27/06/2014 21:20
Organisation investment in the 4 factors	0	0	26/11/2013 18:14	S	26/11/2013 18:14
Organisational strategy or culture	11	20	16/11/2013 16:39	S	30/11/2013 15:53
Promotion Requirements	6	9	16/07/2013 14:10	S	29/11/2013 17:38
Quality vr Quantity of work	0	0	27/11/2013 23:27	S	28/11/2013 10:15
6. KM	0	0	28/04/2013 11:50	S	23/11/2013 12:27
Keep individuals updated	3	3	17/11/2013 11:05	S	24/11/2013 18:57
KM and PE	5	5	24/11/2013 13:57	S	29/06/2014 21:11
Manager Role	0	0	24/11/2013 12:52	S	24/11/2013 12:52
Does NOT encourage knowledge sharing	1	1	24/11/2013 12:53	S	30/06/2014 00:52
Encourage knowledge sharing	12	15	24/11/2013 12:52	S	29/11/2013 10:24
Organisational role	1	1	24/11/2013 12:50	S	24/11/2013 17:50
1 Knowledge Sharing and OJE	23	38	24/11/2013 16:01	S	30/06/2014 00:11
Did not inform employees	1	1	29/11/2013 17:00	S	29/11/2013 17:00
Do not care about Knowledge sharing	4	5	24/11/2013 12:51	S	24/11/2013 19:59
Encourage Knowledge sharing	15	20	24/11/2013 12:51	S	27/11/2013 21:53
Have automated system for KM	5	5	17/11/2013 11:04	S	25/11/2013 13:52
Somewhat encourage knowledge sharing	2	2	24/11/2013 12:52	S	24/11/2013 17:17
Sharing Knowledge	1	1	22/05/2013 23:51	S	24/11/2013 17:50
1. Do Share Knowledge	34	63	23/05/2013 16:32	S	27/11/2013 22:56
2. Do NOT Share Knowledge	5	5	23/05/2013 16:33	S	24/11/2013 20:47
3. Somehow Share	6	6	28/04/2013 12:08	S	30/06/2014 02:57
Importance of Knowledge sharing	3	3	24/11/2013 17:54	S	25/11/2013 12:22
Not asking for knowledge because	1	1	24/11/2013 19:49	S	24/11/2013 19:49
Sharing knowledge Technique	1	1	25/11/2013 11:04	S	25/11/2013 11:04
Sharing through presentations or seminars	4	4	24/11/2013 13:53	S	30/06/2014 02:56
Sharing training experience	0	0	24/11/2013 12:31	S	24/11/2013 12:31
I don't like it	0	0	25/11/2013 13:02	S	25/11/2013 13:03
It's good - I don't mind	3	3	25/11/2013 13:02	S	07/06/2014 19:55
Not required	2	2	24/11/2013 14:43	S	25/11/2013 13:47
Required	1	1	24/11/2013 14:42	S	25/11/2013 12:02
7. HRM	5	6	28/04/2013 11:46	S	24/11/2013 14:49
HRM and KM	3	3	24/11/2013 17:55	S	27/11/2013 22:20

Appendix C-6: Factors Effecting IC.

Factors Effecting IC

Nodes compared by number of coding references
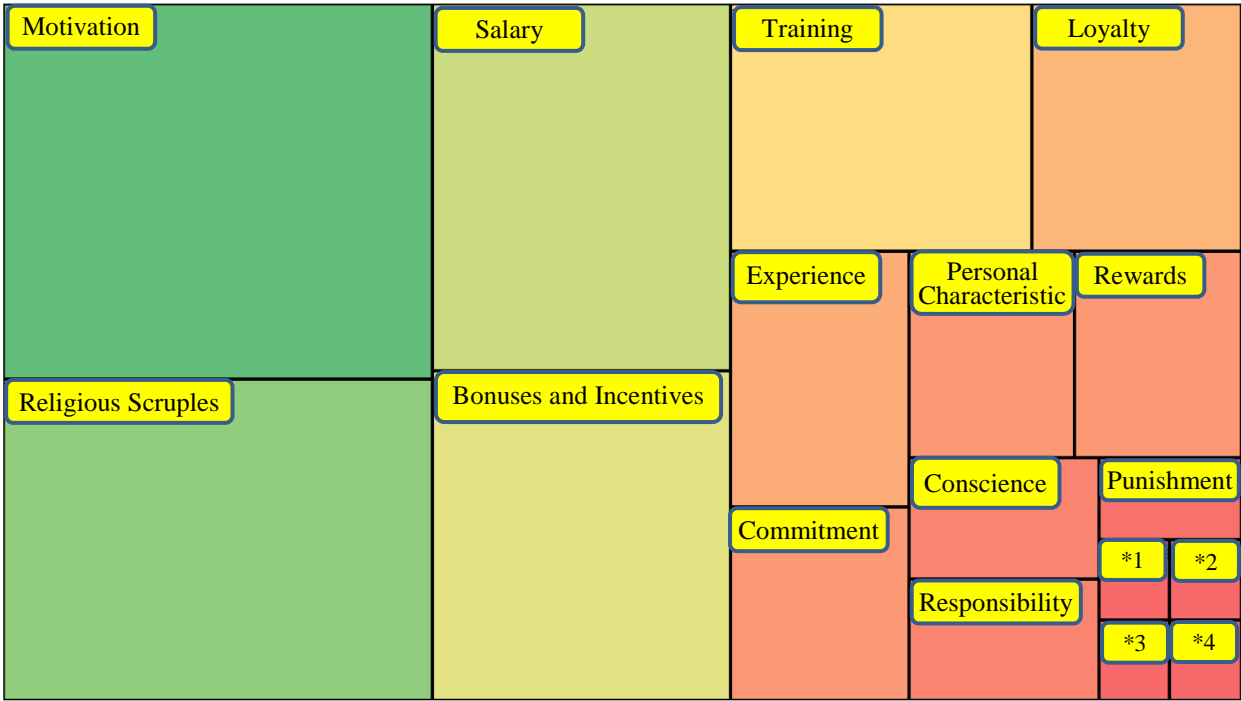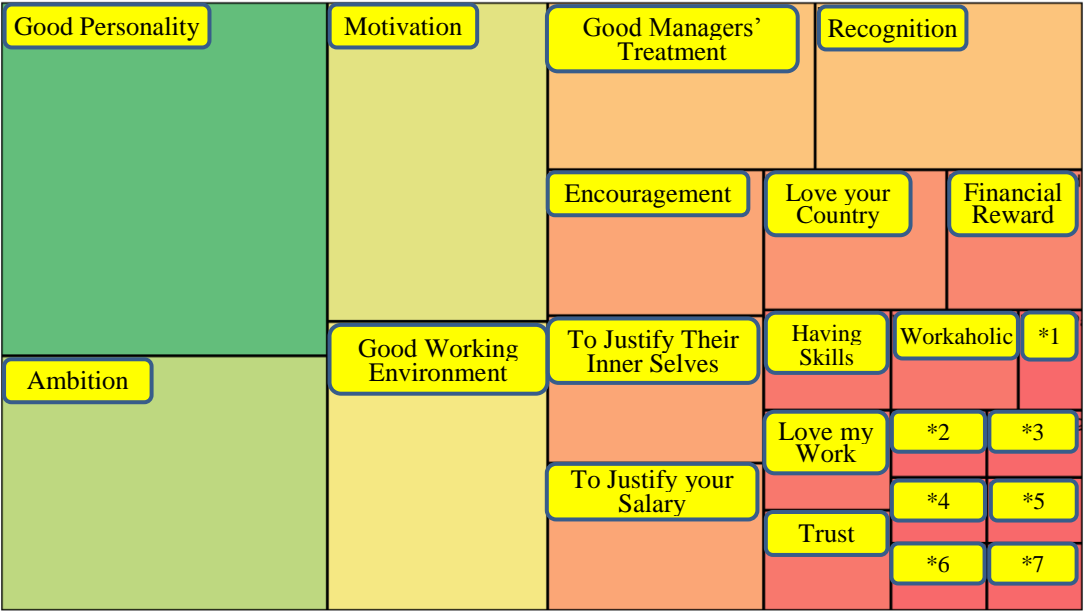

*1 = Leadership   *2 = Productivity

*3 = Qualification   *4 = Sharing knowledge

Appendix C-7: Reasons for Working More.

Reasons for Working More or Wanting to Work More.

Nodes compared by number of coding references

*1 = Being Patient   *2 = Competition

*3 = Family Obligations   *4 = Fear of losing their work

*5 = Hoping for better future   *6 = Having Knowledge

*7 = Kind words

Appendix C-8: Reasons for Working Less.

Reasons for Working Less.

Nodes compared by number of coding references

*1 = Financialy Suffecint   *2 = Job Security   *3 = No Loyalty   *4 = No Obligations

*5 = Not Given Responsibilities   *6 = Not Knowing   *7 = Non-achiver   *8 = Unambitious
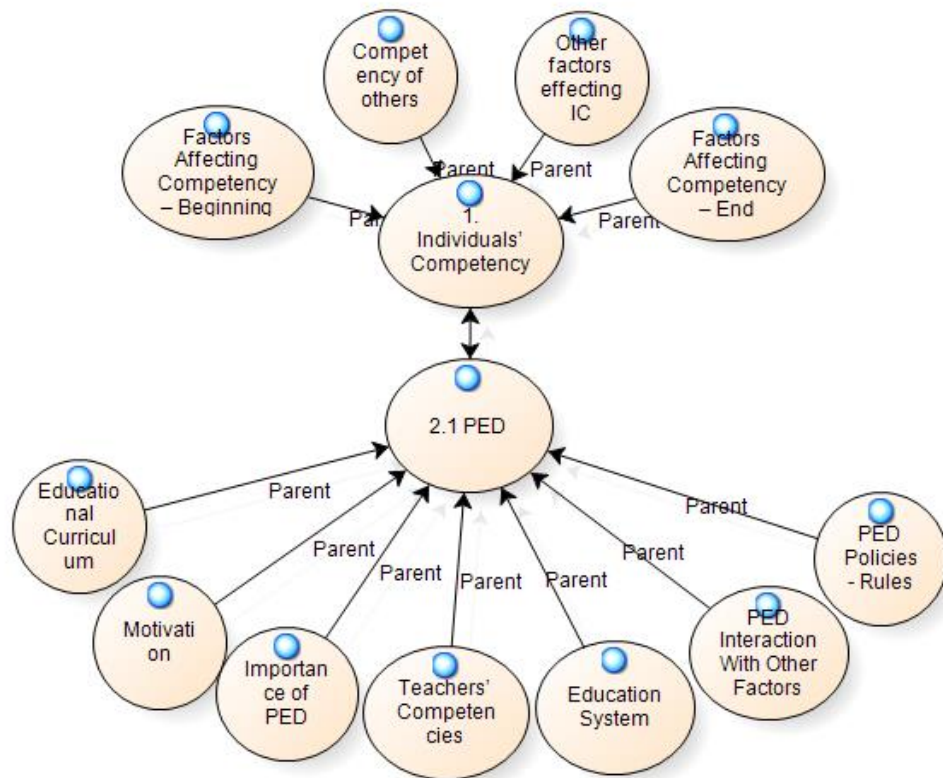
*9 = Free of Family Obligations   *10 = No Incentives   *11 = Not Encouragong Environment   *12 = Routine Job
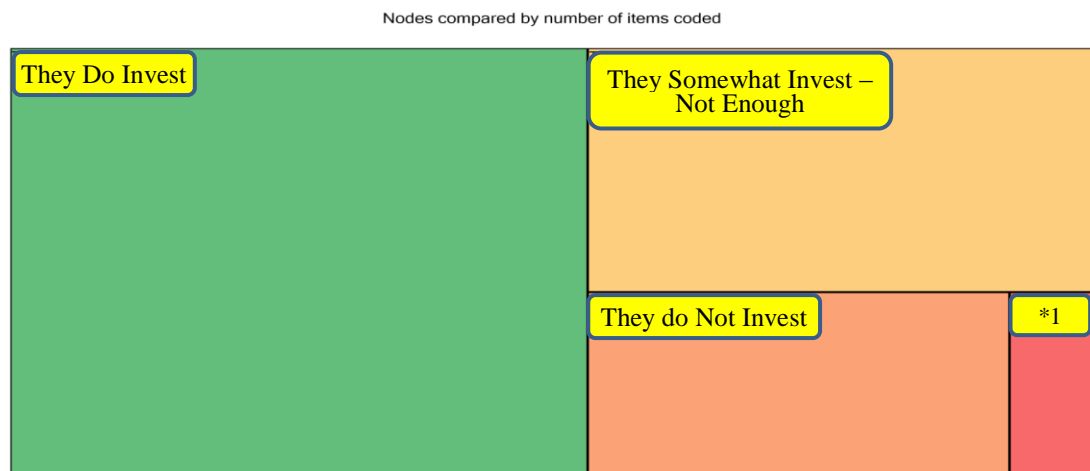
Appendix C-9: PED and IC Association.

PED and IC Association.

Appendix C-10: Individuals' Opinion of their Organisation Investment in OJED.

Individuals' Opinion of their Organisation Investment in OJED.

Nodes compared by number of items coded

*1 = It Depends on the Manager

Appendix C-11: OJED and IC Association.

OJED and IC Association.
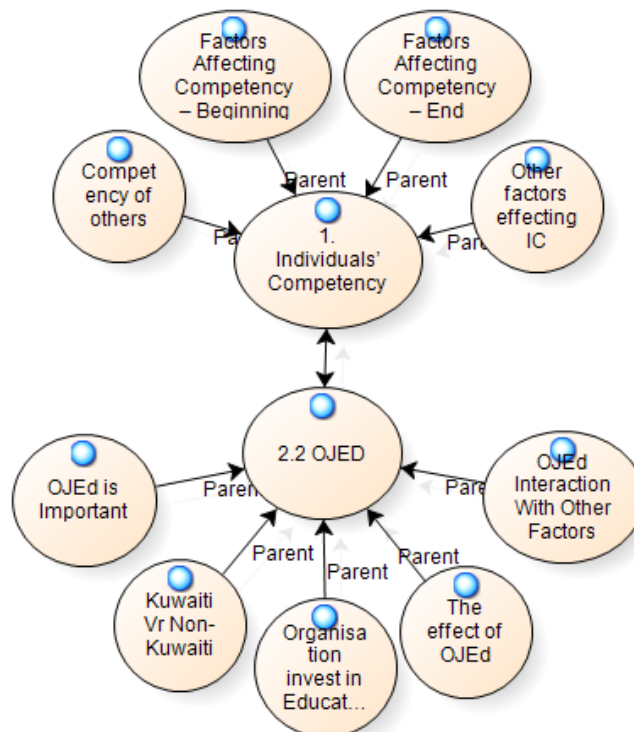
Appendix C-12: PT and IC Association.

PT and IC Association.

Appendix C-13: Reasons for OJT May Not have an Effect on IC.

Reasons for OJT May Not have an Effect on IC.

Nodes compared by number of coding references
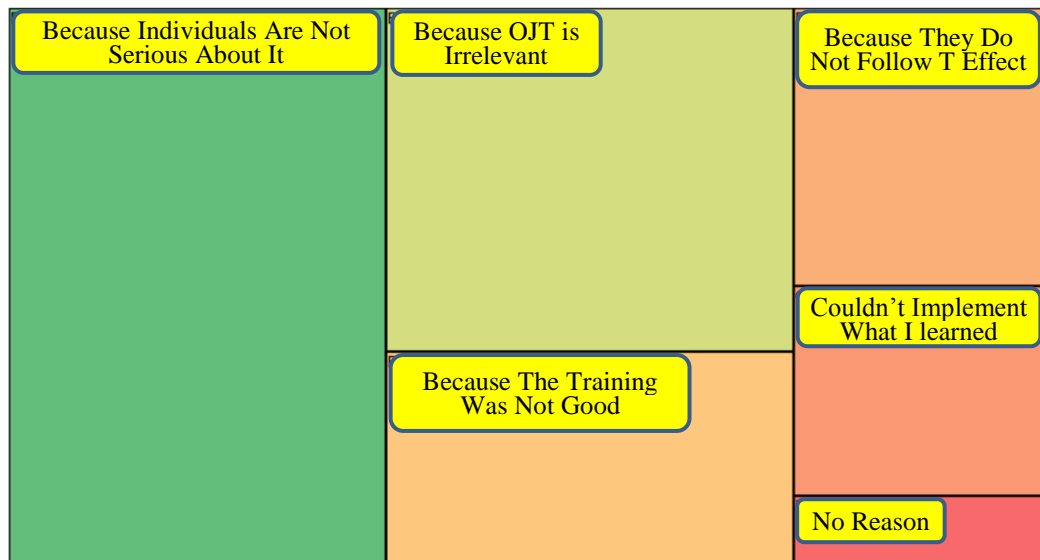
Appendix C-14: Interviewees' Perception about OJT.

Interviewees' Perception about OJT.

Nodes compared by number of coding references
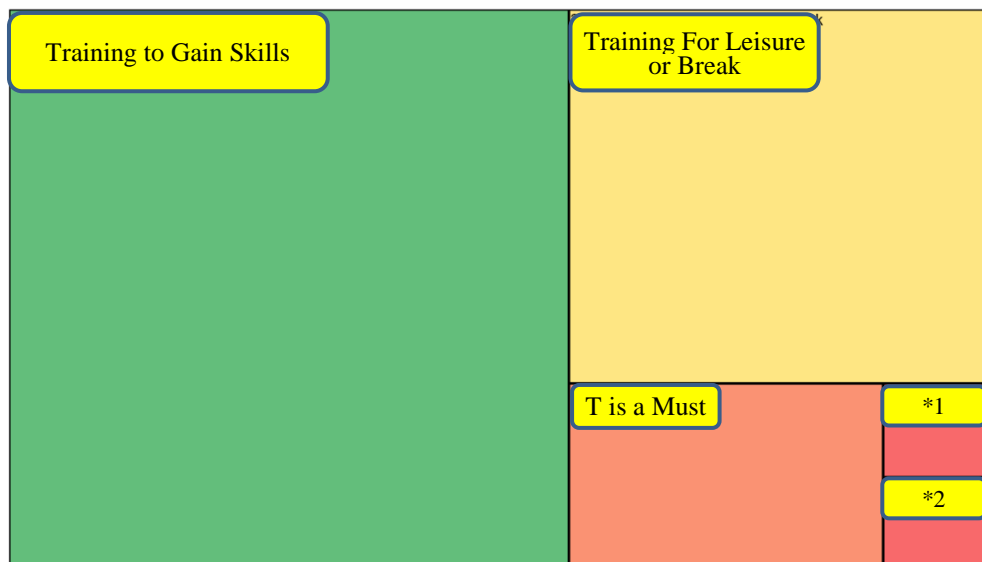
*1 = Training as Reward   *2 = For the Record

Appendix C-15: Interviewees' Attitude Towards OJT.

Interviewees' Attitude Towards OJT.

Nodes compared by number of coding references
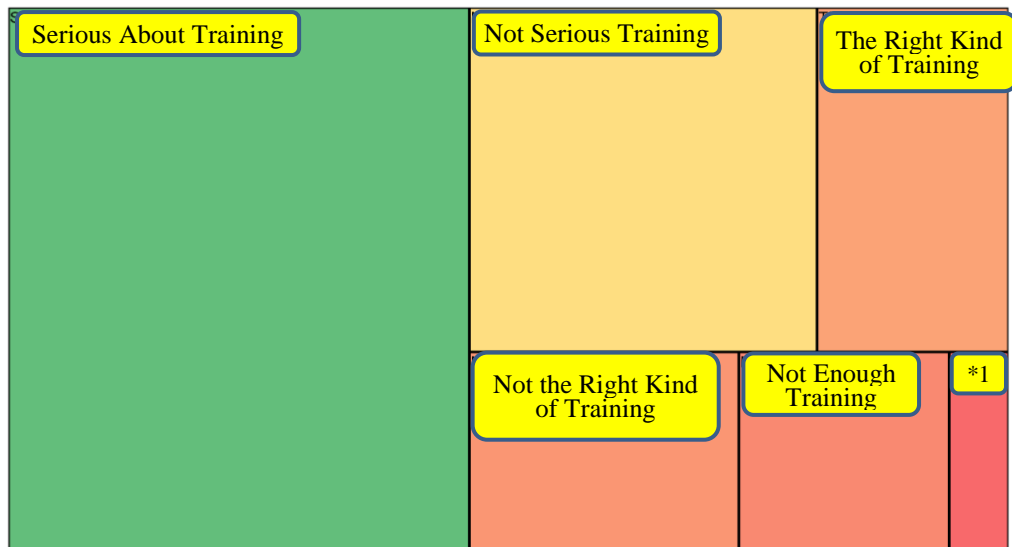
*1 = Did Not Receive Training

Appendix C-16: OJT Decision Makers.

OJT Decision Makers.

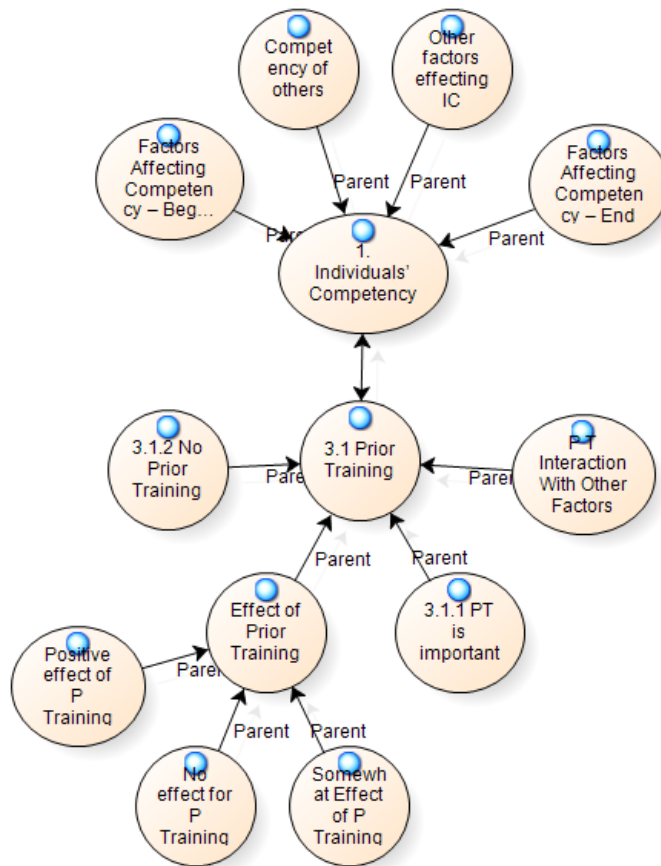Nodes compared by number of coding references
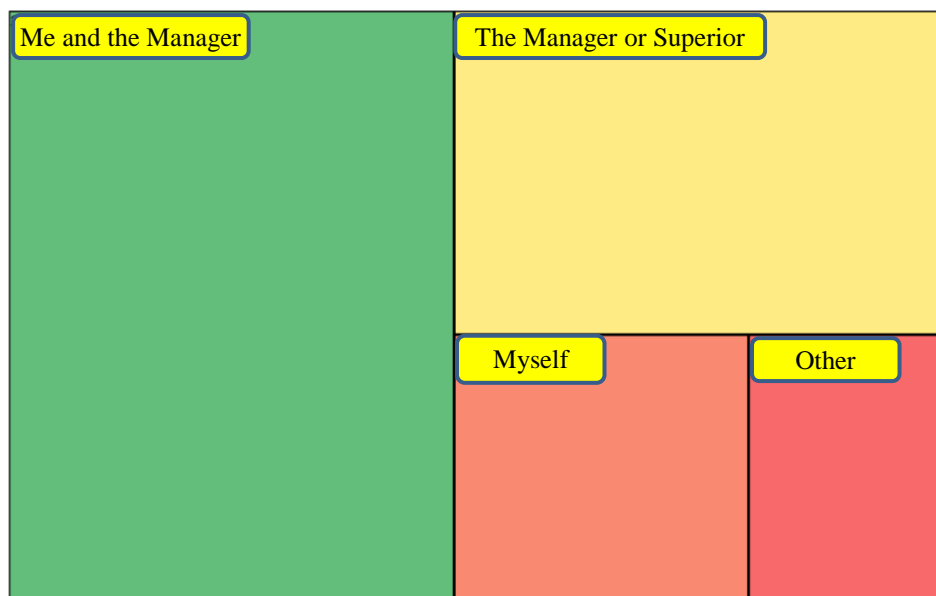
Appendix C-17: OJT and IC Association.

OJT and IC Association.
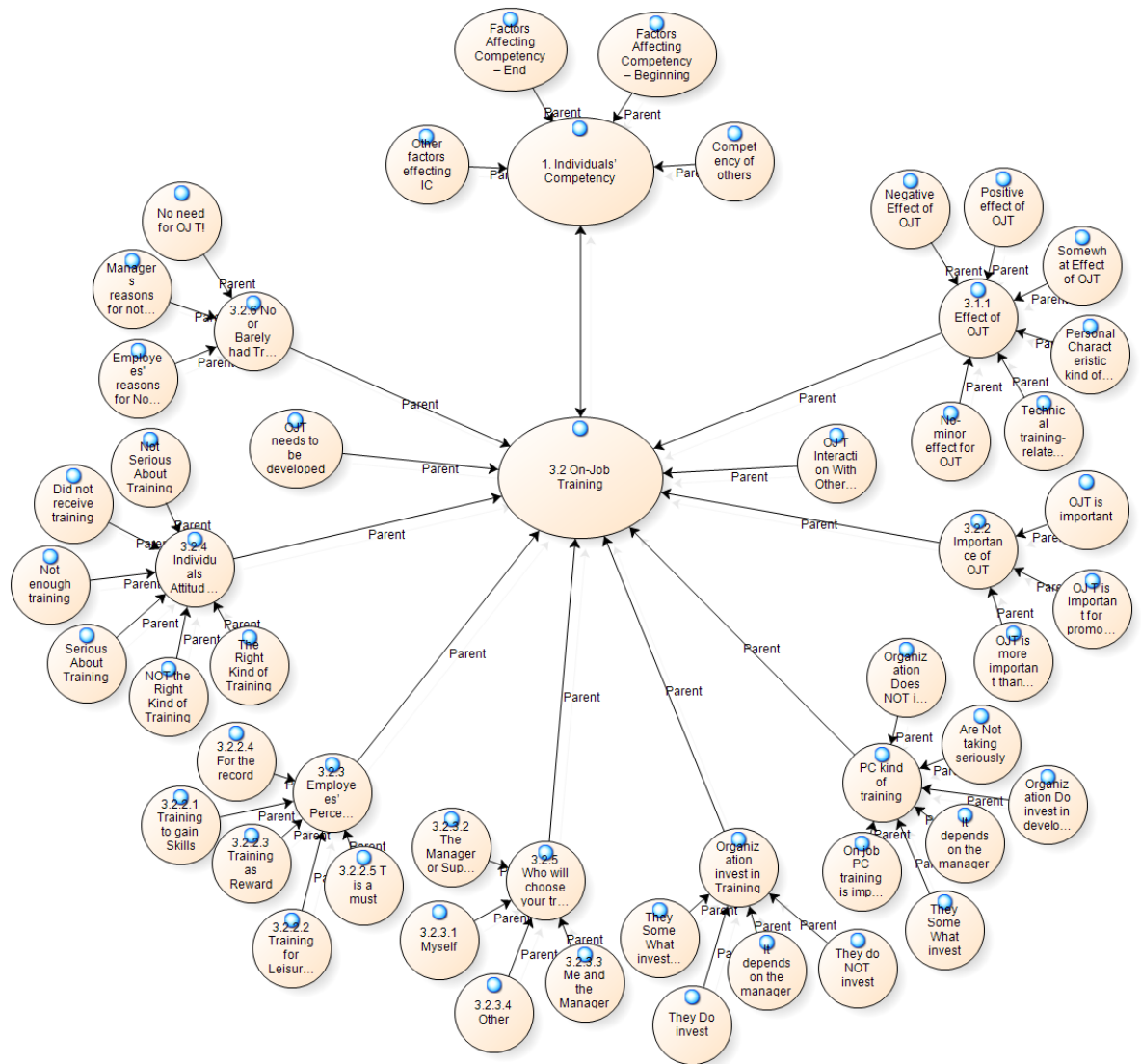
Appendix C-18: PPC and IC Association.

PPC and IC Association.
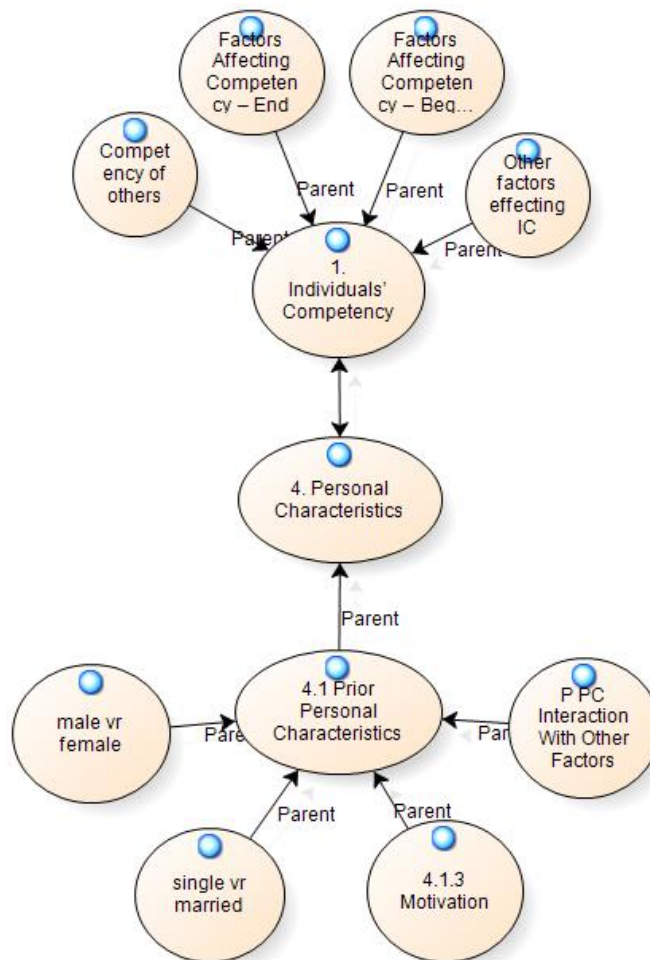
Appendix C-19: Elements Effecting OJPC.

Elements Effecting OJPC.

Nodes compared by number of coding references
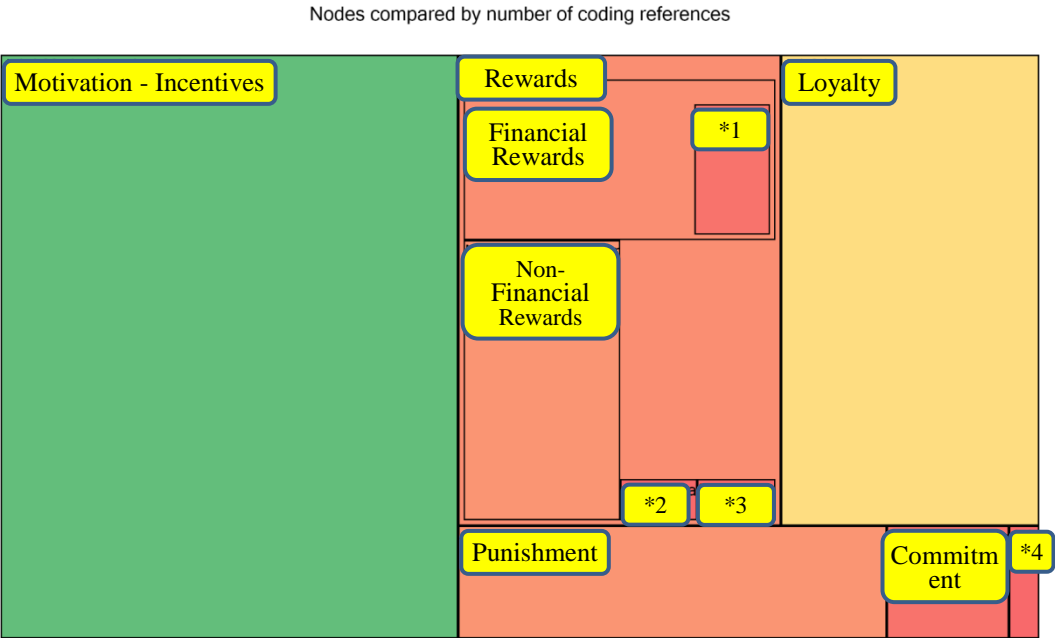
*1 = Negatives   *2 = Any Reward
*3 = Negative Effect of Having Reward   *4 = Trust

Appendix C-20: Rewards.

Rewards.

Nodes compared by number of coding references
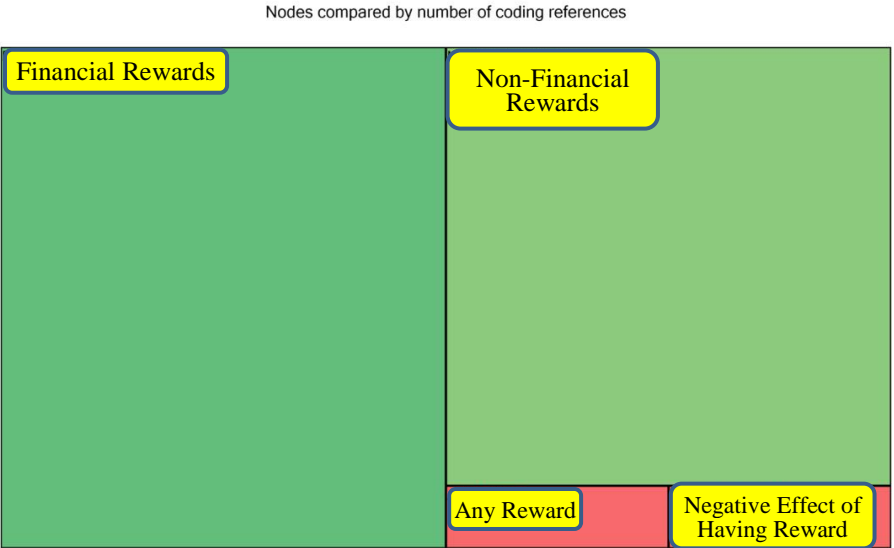
Appendix C-21: Individuals' Attributes.

Individuals' Attributes.

Nodes compared by number of coding references
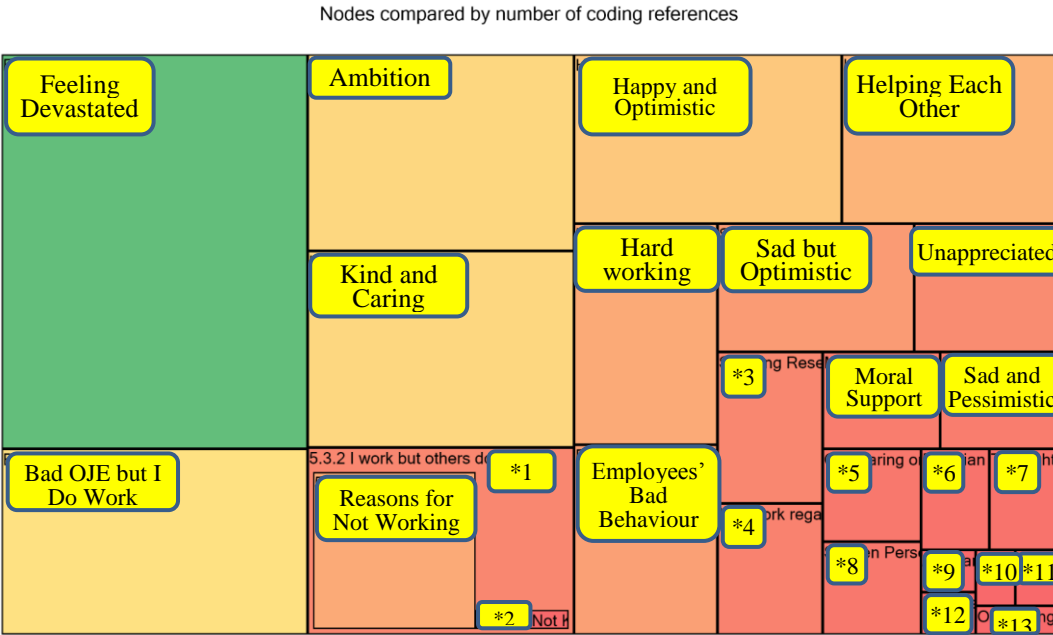
*1 = I Work but Others Don't Care
Anger

*2 = Not Knowing the Reasons

*3 = Showing Resentment and

*4 = I do Work Regardless

*5 = Comparing Oneself with Others

*6 = Bedouin and Civilized

*7 = The Right Person

*8 = Shaken Personality

*9 = Arrogant

*10 = Harsh – Inconsiderate

*11 = Impolite

*12 = Exaggerating (Untrue)!

*13= Only Doing What They are Asking Me to Do – Nothing More

Appendix C-22: Individuals' Behaviour.

Individuals' Behaviour.

Nodes compared by number of coding references
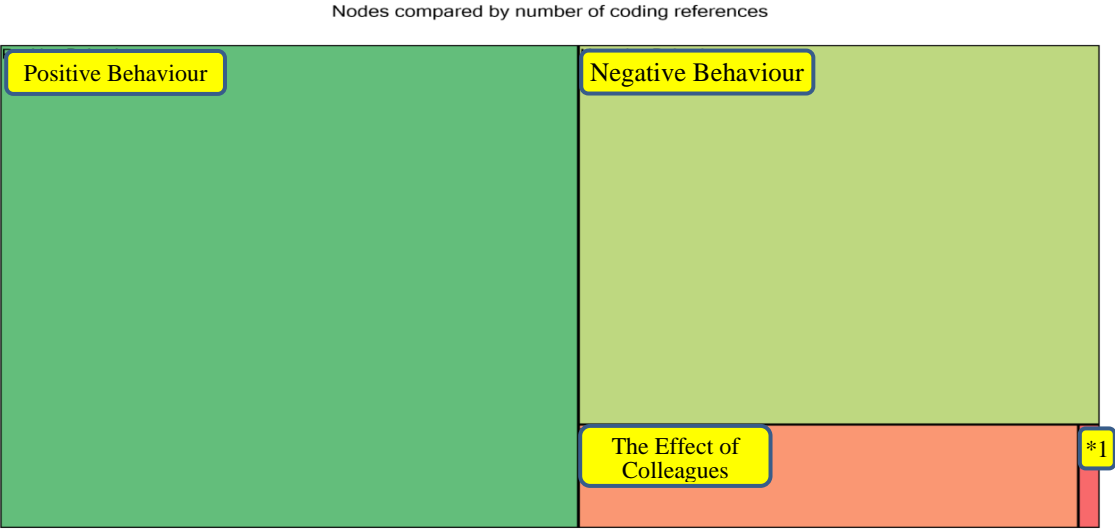
*1 = Others are Helpful and Friendly

Appendix C-23: Managers' Behaviour.

Managers' Behaviour.

Nodes compared by number of coding references

| Negative Behaviour | Positive Behaviour |

Poor Management Decision | Inconclusive | *1 | *2
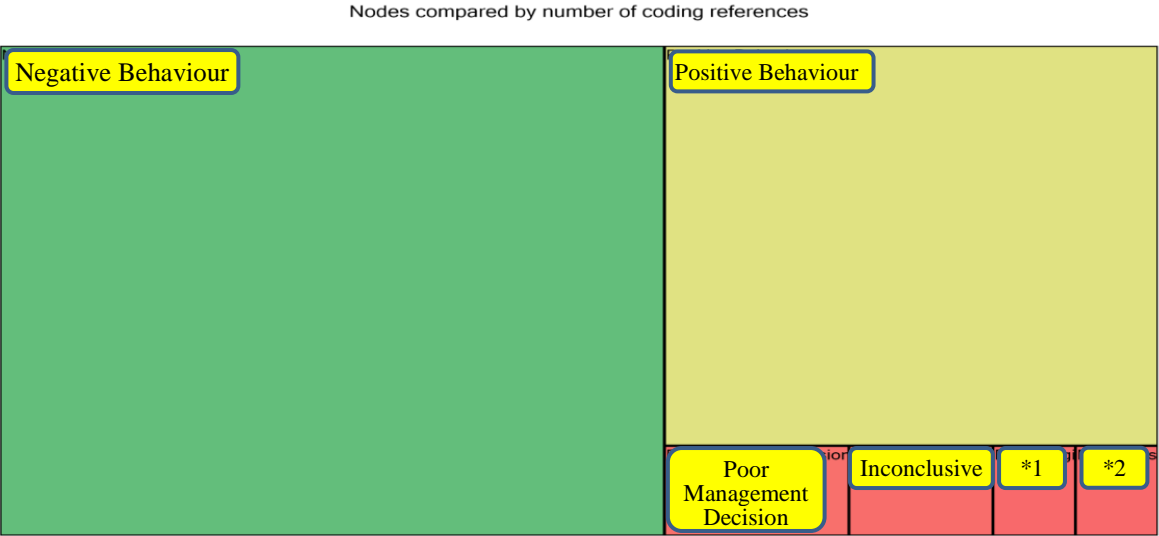
*1 = Encouraging His Employees   *2 = Managers Should Have Leadership

Appendix C-24: OJPC and IC Association.

OJPC and IC Association.
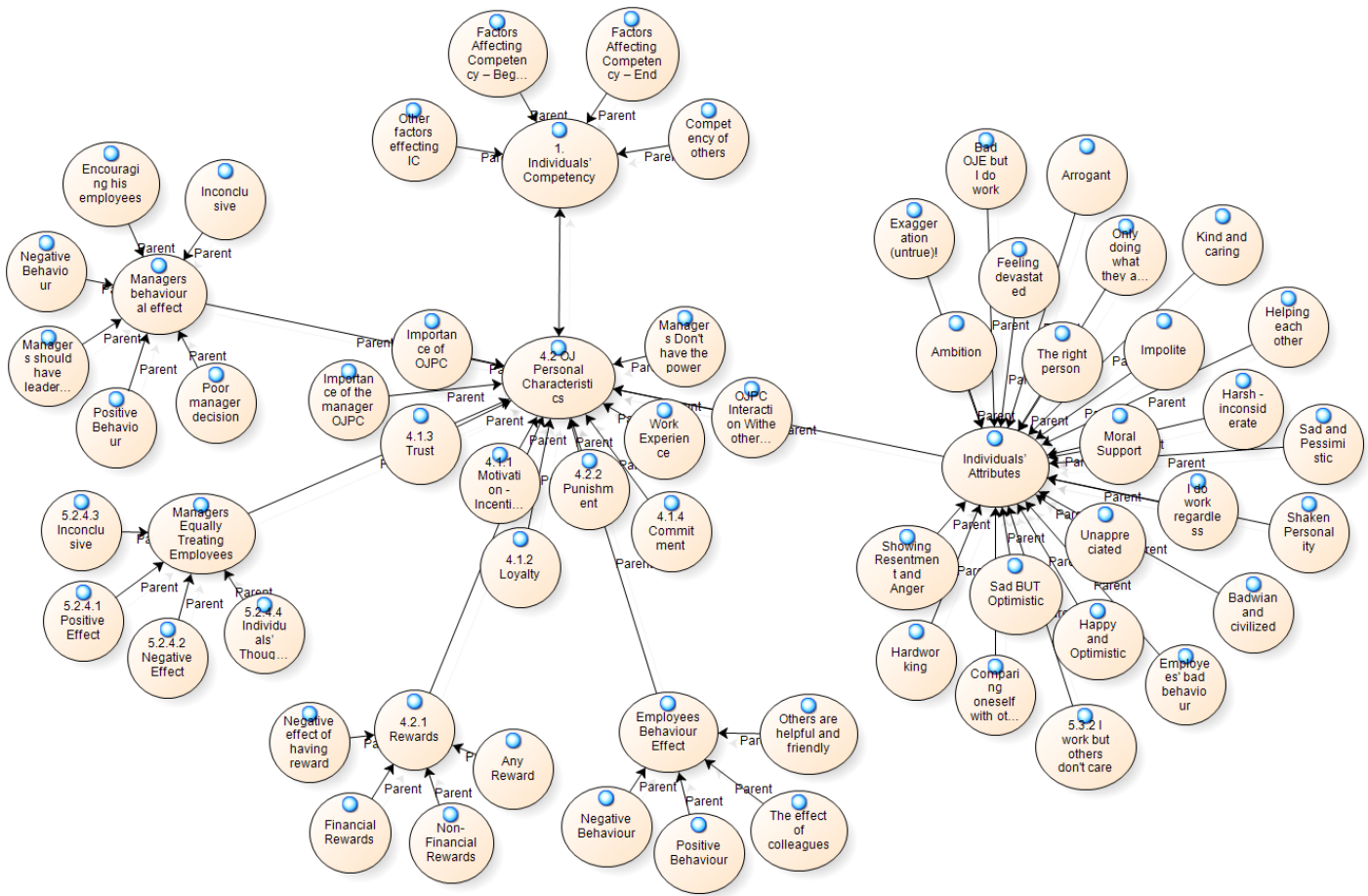
Appendix C-25: Importance of PE on IC.

Importance of PE on IC.

Nodes compared by number of coding references

*1 = PE may Have an Effect   *2 = PE Has no Effect
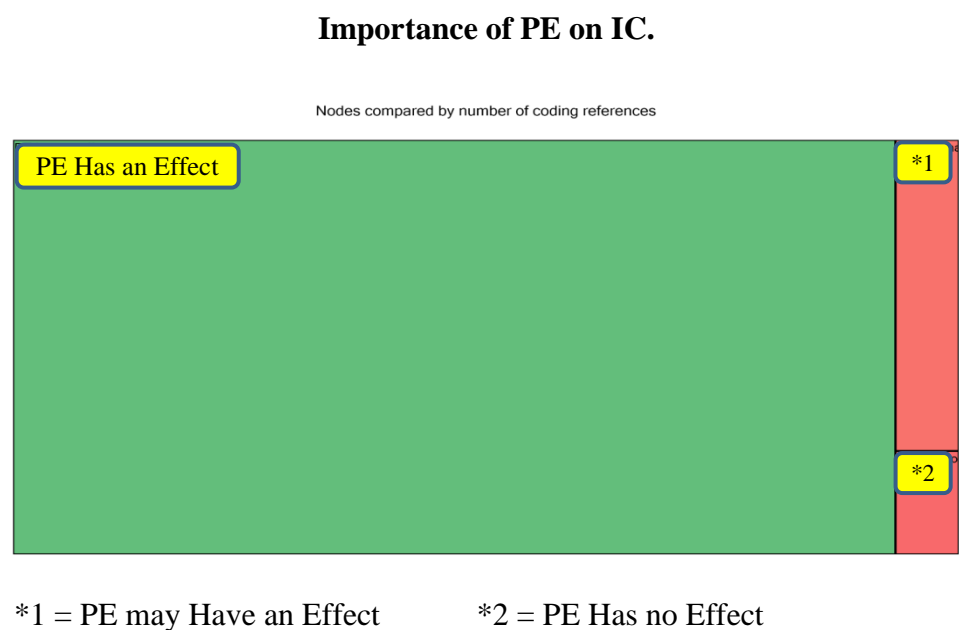
Appendix C-26: Positive and Negative Effect of PE on IC.

Positive and Negative Effect of PE on IC.

Nodes compared by number of coding references
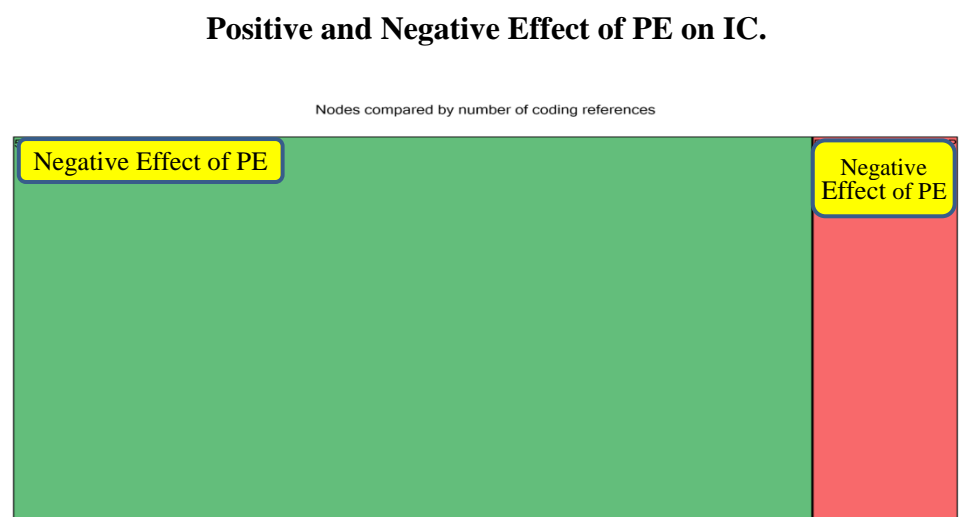
Appendix C-27: PE and IC Association.
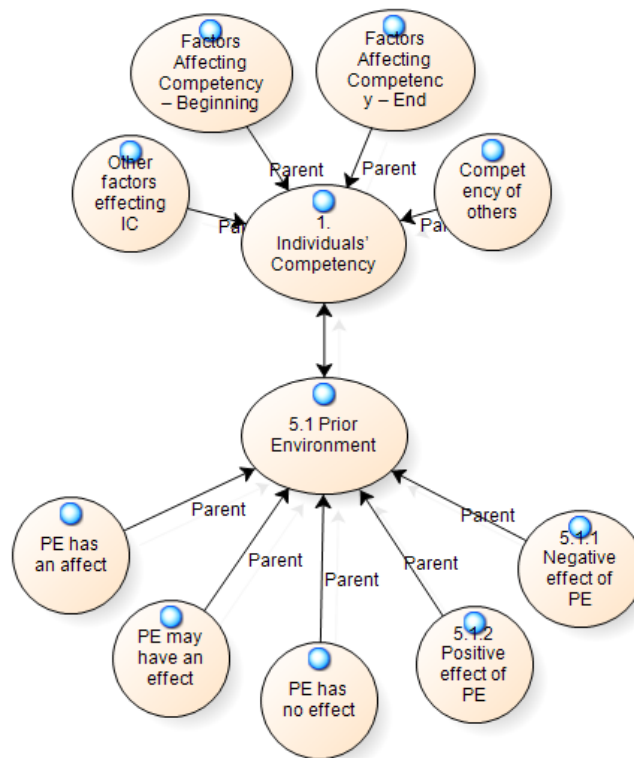
Appendix C-28: The Encouragement of OJE to their Individuals.

Nodes compared by number of coding references

*1 = OJE Some What Encourages Employees

Appendix C-29: Employees Happy and Unhappy about their OJE.

Employees Happy and Unhappy about their OJE.

Nodes compared by number of coding references

Happy at Work – Love my Work	Not Happy at Work – Hate my Work
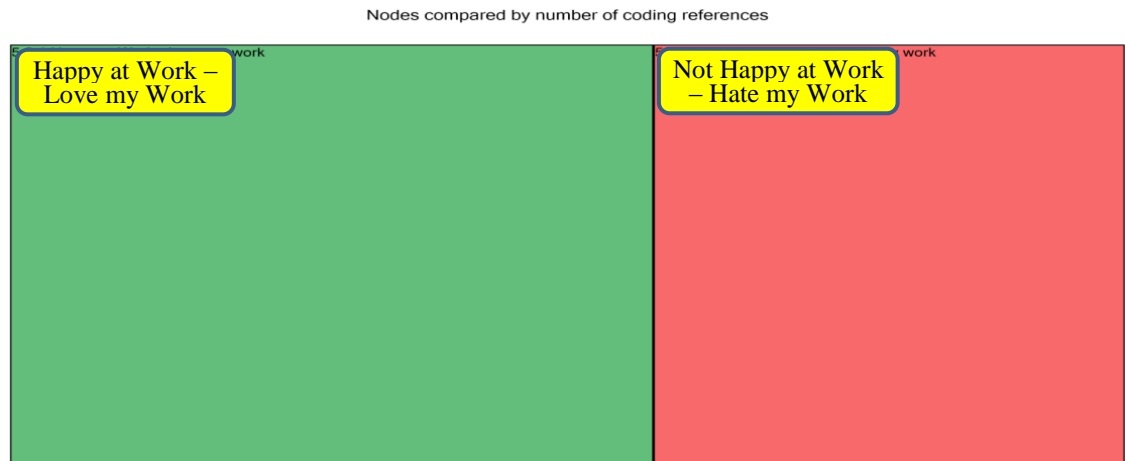
Appendix C-30: Poor – Good OJE.

Poor – Good OJE.

Nodes compared by number of coding references

Poor OJE	Good OJE
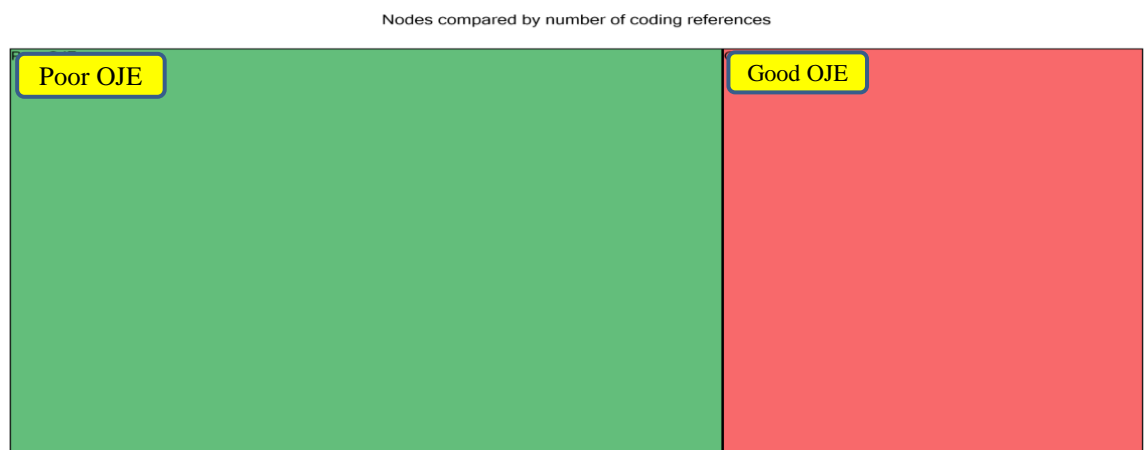
Appendix C-31: Positive and Negative Effect of Organisational Rules.

Positive and Negative Effect of Organisational Rules.

Nodes compared by number of coding references
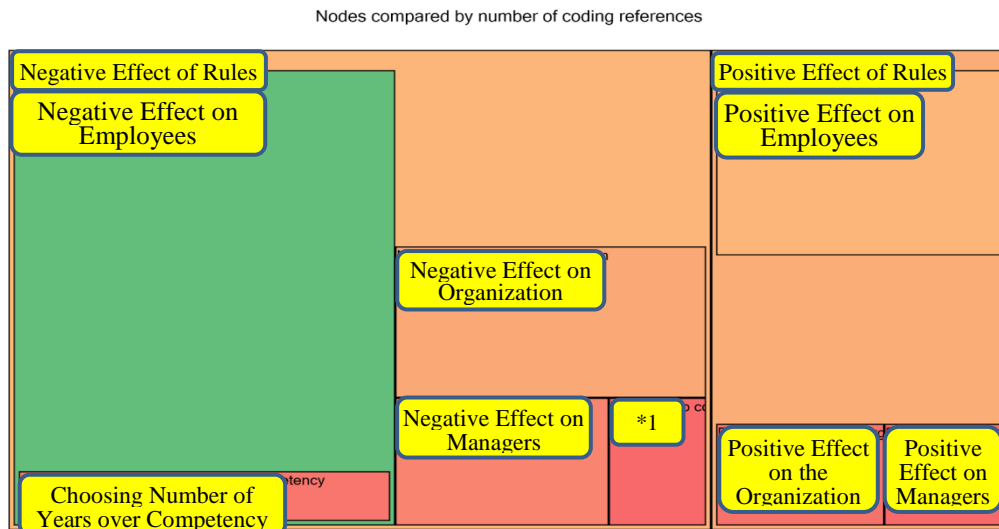
*1 = Irrelevant to Competency

Appendix C-32: Issues Facing Managers and Employees.

Issues Facing Managers and Employees.

Nodes compared by number of coding references
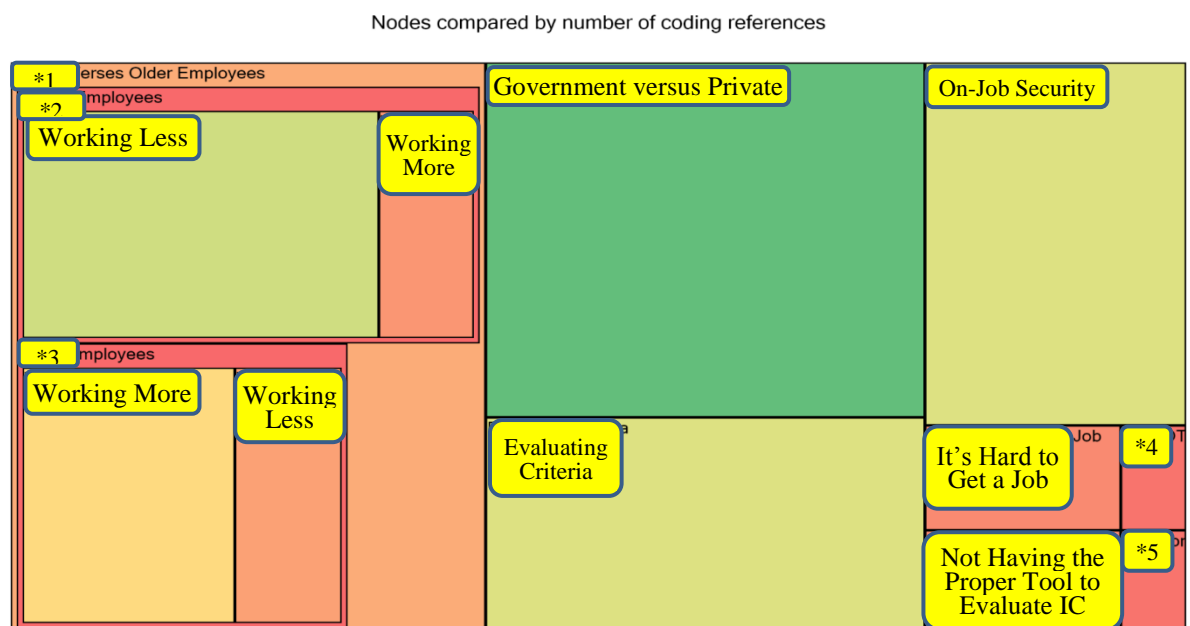
*1 = Young Verses Older Employees   *2 = Young Employees   *3 = Older Employees

*4 = It's Not Hard to Get a Job   *5 = Location Effect

Appendix C-33: Nepotism Effect on Individuals.

Nepotism Effect on Individuals.

Nodes compared by number of coding references
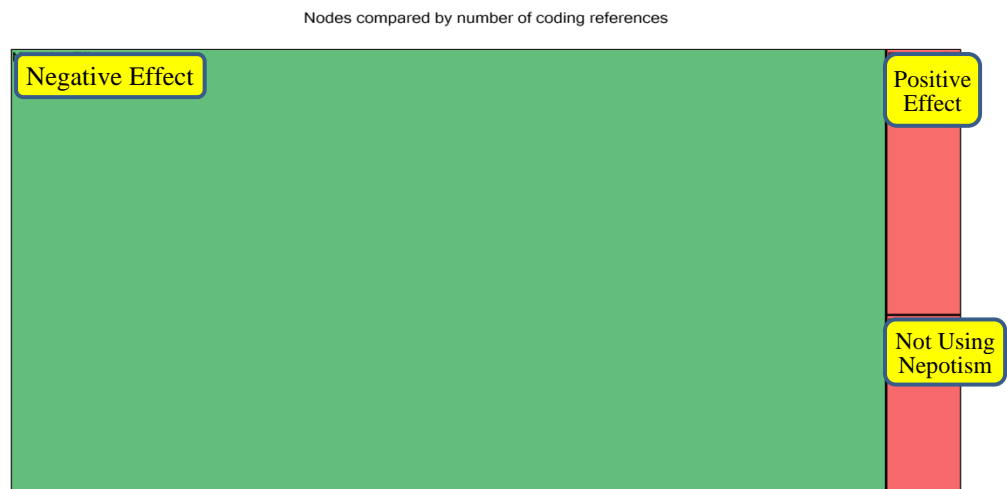
Appendix C-34: The Effect of Non-Kuwaitis.

The Effect of Non-Kuwaitis.

Nodes compared by number of coding references
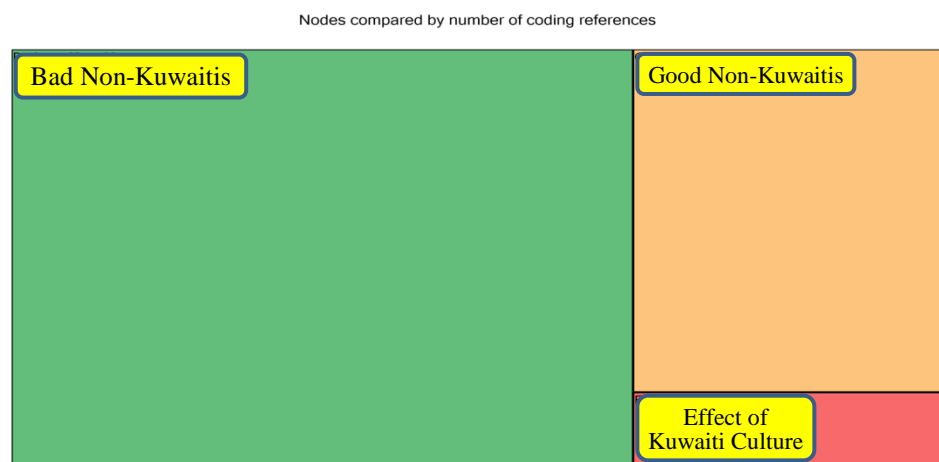
Appendix C-35: OJE and IC Association.

OJE and IC Association.
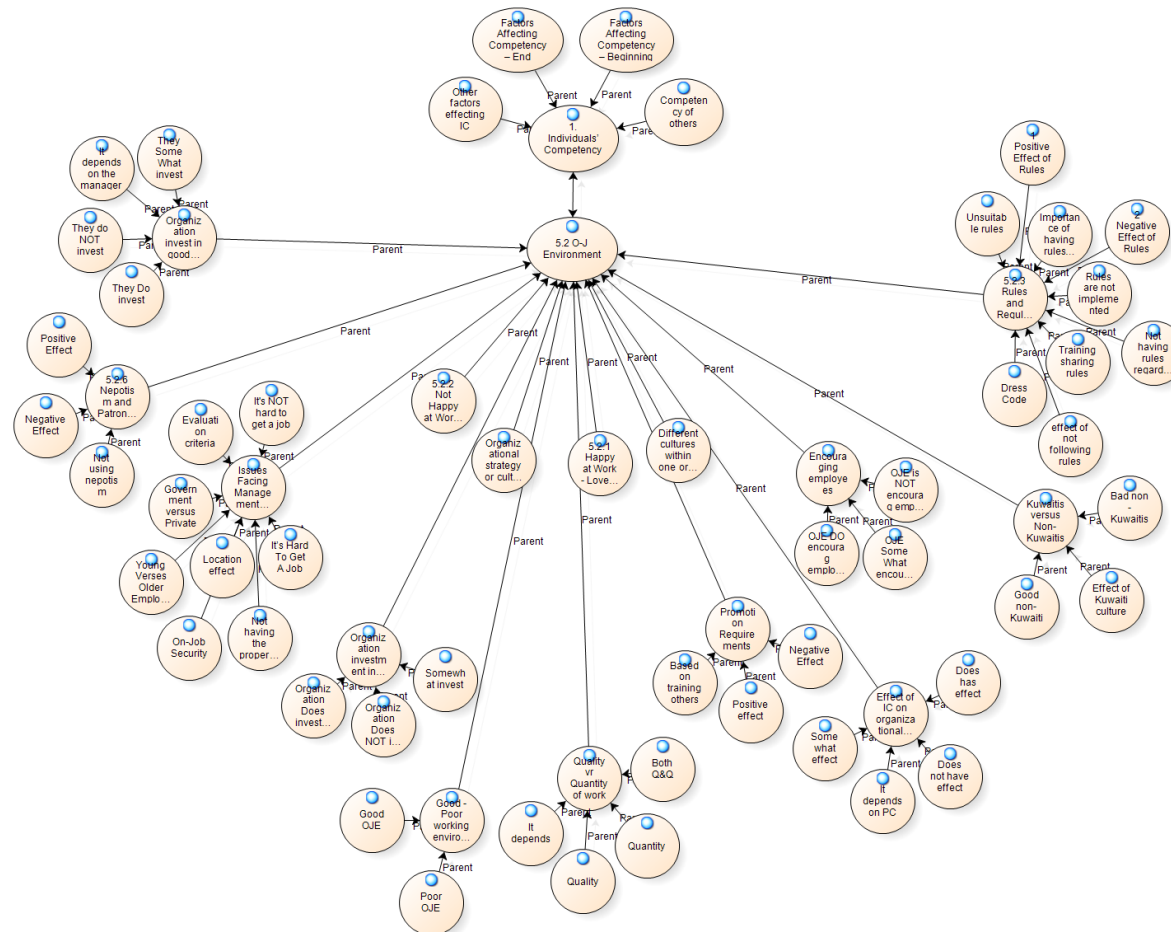
Appendix C-36: The Role of Managers in Encouraging Knowledge Sharing.

The Role of Managers in Encouraging Knowledge Sharing.

Nodes compared by number of coding references
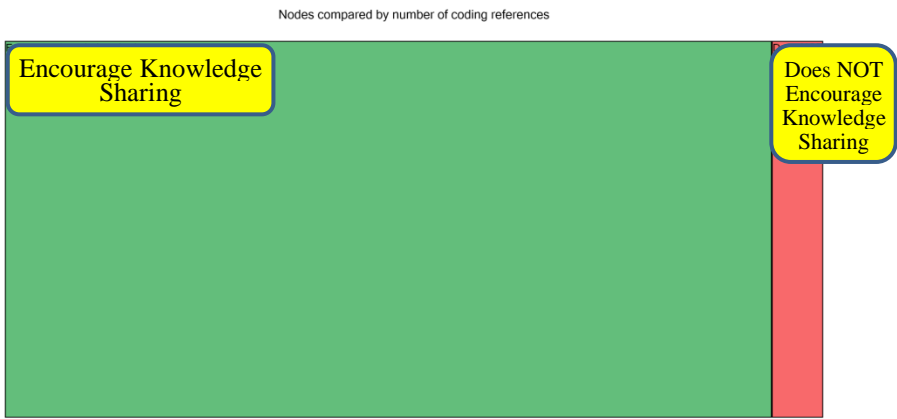
Appendix C-37: Individuals' Willingness to Share their Knowledge.

Individuals' Willingness to Share their Knowledge.

Nodes compared by number of coding references
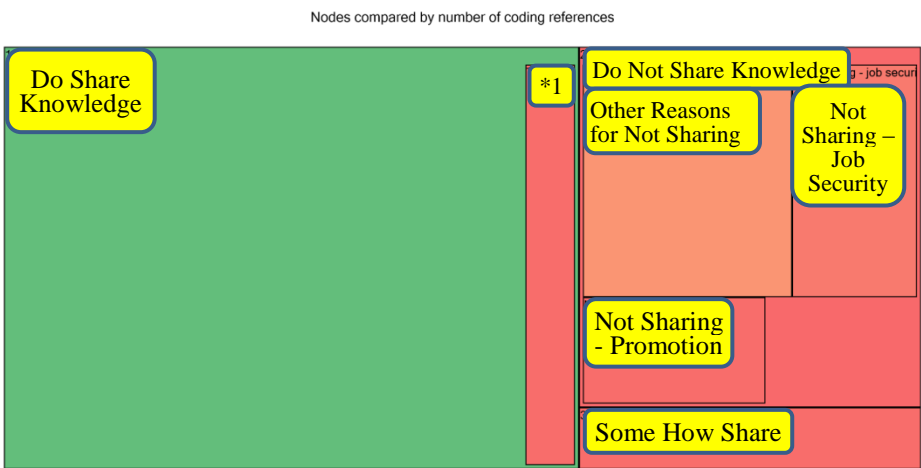
*1 = They Have to Share Knowledge

Appendix C-38: KM and IC Association.

KM and IC Association.
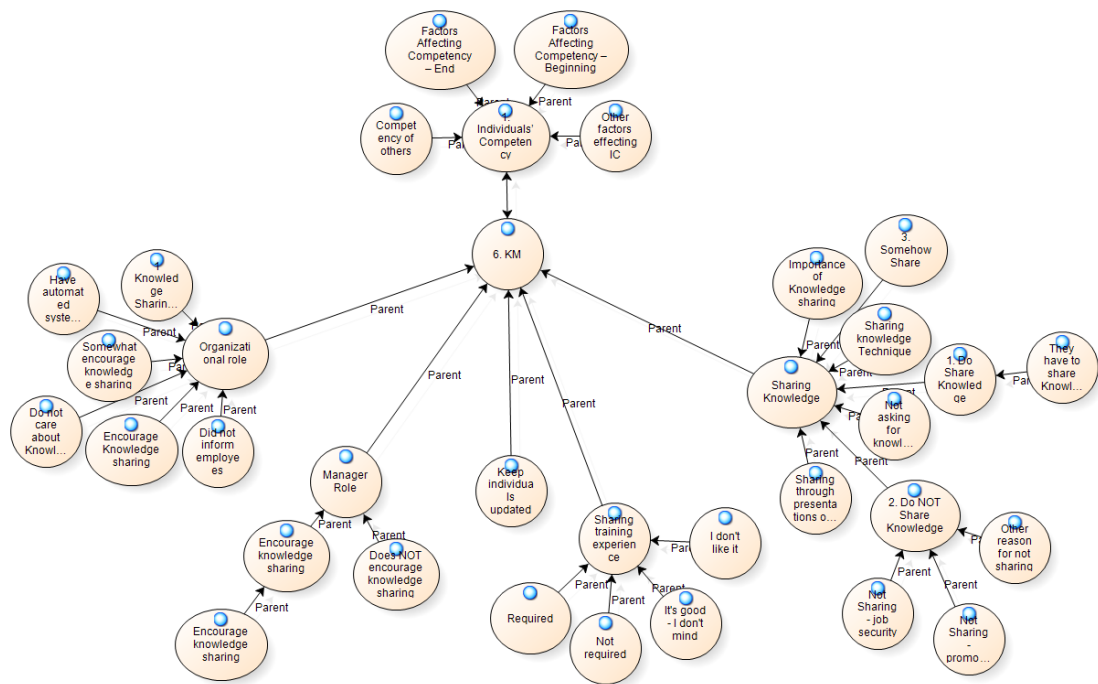
Appendix C-39: HRM and IC Association.

HRM and IC Association.
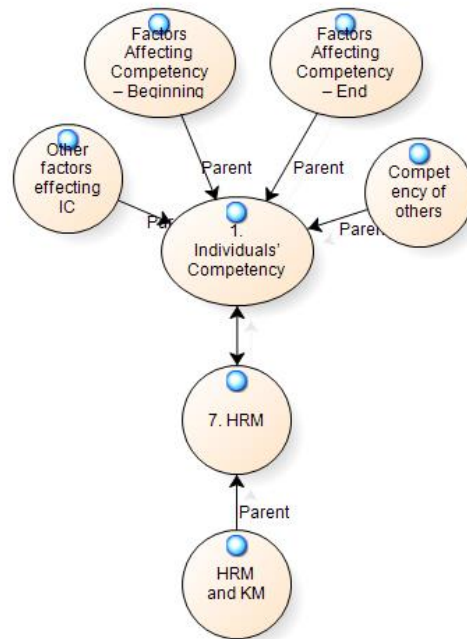
Appendix C-40: Word Query

Word Query

Appendix D

Appendix D-1: Pilot Study Reliability

Reliability is important because it measures data consistency. If the reliability of the pilot study proves to be acceptable, then the survey questionnaire can be used as the main study. Otherwise the weak item(s) need to be deleted to increase the construct reliability. According to Saunders et al. (2012), reliability indicates whether the techniques and analytical procedures will provide consistent findings, if they were repeated by different researcher or at a different time. Bryman (2012) discuses three types of reliability:

1- Stability: Involves doing more than one test of the survey questionnaire. The researcher distributes the survey questionnaire and, after some time period, distributes the same survey to the same respondents; the result should present a high correlation between the two survey questionnaires.

2- Internal reliability: To measure multiple indicators and test for data coherence. As the survey questionnaires had multiple items to be measured the responses were aggregated to form an overall score. Internal reliability checked whether they are related to each other or not. The closer the percentage is to 1, the more perfect is the data consistency; the closer the percentage is to 0, the more the data is not correlated and therefore not consistent.

3- Inter-observer consistency: Involves having multiple observers for a large amount of subjective judgment; such as recorded observations, and organising data into categories. This may result in lack of consistency among the subjective judgments.

The pilot study checked for internal reliability. Cronbach's alpha was used, which is the most used measure by researchers (Saunders et al., 2012). Each constructs' reliability was measured separately. A high level of Cronbach's alpha of at least 0.6 (Keil et al., 2000) was used to accept a construct. Otherwise, the weakest item was removed to achieve higher reliability. Also, the item-total correlation was used. According to Field (2013), the Cronbach's alpha measure is suitable for constructs that contains 10 or more items, whereas item-total correlation is suitable for

constructs that contains less than 10 items. With a construct less than 10 items, the item-total correlation value should be at least .20. The survey has constructs with 10 or more items and constructs with less than 10 items. Table D-1.1 is the initial Cronbach's coefficient alpha value and corrected item-total correlation for each construct.

Table D-1.1: Pilot Study Reliability Measures.

	Constructs (Variable)	Mean	Standard Deviation	Number of Item	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	Average Corrected Item-Total Correlation
Education	PED	2.398	4.572	8	.584	.289
	OJED	2.226	3.325	6	.564	.334
Training	PT	2.636	2.785	4	.618	.400
	OJT	2.360	5.409	15	.602	.223
Personal Characteristics	PPC	1.970	3.012	5	.684	.453
	OJPC	2.411	13.594	42	.828	.288
Environment	PE	2.625	2.724	4	.643	.412
	OJE	2.640	9.821	26	.677	.226
Competency	Comp	2.423	9.491	12	.913	.665
HRM	HRM	2.328	1.807	2	.432	.275
KM	KM	2.316	9.491	33	.868	.387

Table D-1.1 shows there are 11 constructs; 5 constructs with more than 10 items: OJT, OJPC, OJE, Comp, and KM; and 6 constructs are with less than 10 items: PED, OJED, PT, PPC, PE, and HRM (shaded cells).

For the constructs with more than 10 items, Cronbach's alpha (α) value was used (Field, 2013). For OJT α = 0.602, OJPC α = 0.828, OJE α = 0.677, Comp α = 0.913, and KM α = 0.868; all of these values are above α = 0.60 (Keil et al., 2000), which means that they are all acceptable and reliable constructs. For the constructs with less than 10 items the Item-Total Correlation was used. Results were PED = 0.289, OJED = 0.334, PT = 0.40, PPC = 0.453, PE = 0.412, and HRM = 0.275; all are more than 0.20 (Briggs & Cheek, 1986 and Hair et al., 2013) which means that this group of constructs are also reliable.

Appendix D-2: Pilot Study Validity

Validity of the pilot study is the same as the validity of the main study (Section 7.8). The validity of the measuring instrument of this second quantitative phase is based on data analysis and findings of the first qualitative phase, strengthening the validity of the measuring instrument. According to Creswell (2013), qualitative research is stronger in terms of validity, because the researcher can determine whether the findings of the research are accurate.

Validity is concerned with measuring whether a construct is actually measuring the intended object. There are many different kinds of validity (Section 7.8). The most relevant one for a researcher developing new measures, such as in this thesis, is Face validity. Face validity ensures that the content of the measuring instruments is reflected in the content of the question. This can be operationalized by the researcher asking pilot study respondents whether the question is understood for the intended meaning. The researcher validated the content of the survey with two groups; the translators, who conducted the one way and the back translation (Section 5.3.2). One of the group members is a professor in HRM and the other is linguistic academic professor; both have discussed the translation and language of the measuring instrument. The other group are the pilot study respondents. Both groups' opinion was discussed and incorporated into the survey questions to improve validity.

Appendix D-3: Missing Data

Missing data check is to find respondents' missing data. According to Zikmund et al. (2012), when a survey is manually administrated it is very rare to obtain complete data. Tabachnick & Fidell (2012) argue that missing data is the most common problems in data analysis. Missing data checks for how much data is missing data patterns and why it is missing. The pattern of missing data is more important than the amount of missing data. Having non-random data is considered to be a serious problem even if there are few because it affects the overall result. There are three kinds of missing data: missing completely at random (MCAR), missing at random, called ignorable non response (MAR) and missing not at random or non-ignorable (MNAR).

After collecting the respondent surveys, visual screening was used to identify whether the respondents completed the majority of the questionnaire. 103 questionnaires had substantial missing data; more than half of the questionnaire were missing and therefore were illuminated. Then in SPSS thorough data screening was conducted to identify any missing data. Missing data statistic should not exceed more than 10% of the total questions (Hair et al., 2013). Three cases were found to miss more than 10% (ID 11, 12, 318). For data that has less than 10% missing data, a remedy can be used; however, based on Tabachnick & Fidell (2012), missing data needs to be categorized into MCAR, MAR or MNAR to rectify. Missing data was identified in two locations, demographic data and measurement items. For the demographic missing data analysis, the expectation maximization (EM) techniques revealed that Little's MCAR test was insignificant at each item level (Chi-Square = 134.182, DF = 132, Sig. = .431). The same test was conducted on the measurement items, but the result of the EM is significant (Chi-Square = 21453.544, DF = 20366, Sig. = .000) as depicted in table D-3.1 and table D-3.2 bellow.

Table D-3.1: Missing Data Value of the Demographic Data.

Univariate Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Missing Count	Missing Percent	No. of Extremes[b] Low	No. of Extremes[b] High
Gender	760	1.57	.495	0	.0	0	0
Age	759	3.05	.964	1	.1	0	0
Status	756	1.80	.697	4	.5	0	16
Nationality	760	1.28	.543	0	.0	.	.
EdLevel	760	3.64	.911	0	.0	21	12
HighSchLoc	760	1.40	.755	0	.0	0	9
UniLoc	760	1.96	1.193	0	.0	0	0
WorkExp	760	2.10	.990	0	.0	0	0
JobPosition	760	2.61	.573	0	.0	0	0
OrgSector	760	4.29	2.026	0	.0	0	0
OrgDomain	760	1.47	.712	0	.0	0	16
Province	760	2.35	1.475	0	.0	0	34
Q87_OJE	757	1.54	.636	3	.4	0	0
Q88_Comp	760	3.32	1.067	0	.0	0	0
Q89_OJT	756	2.41	1.198	4	.5	0	0
Q90_OJPC	757	2.22	.603	3	.4	.	.
Q91_PPC	760	2.45	1.200	0	.0	0	0
Q92_PPC	760	2.82	.543	0	.0	.	.
Q93_OJPC	759	2.33	.981	1	.1	0	0
Q94_OJPC	760	2.55	1.370	0	.0	0	0
Q95_OJE	760	1.46	1.018	0	.0	.	.
Q96_OJE	760	1.90	1.325	0	.0	0	0
Q97_OJE	760	1.92	1.343	0	.0	0	0

a. . indicates that the inter-quartile range (IQR) is zero.

b. Number of cases outside the range (Q1 - 1.5*IQR, Q3 + 1.5*IQR).

Little's MCAR test: Chi-Square = 134.182, DF = 132, Sig. = .431

Table D-3.2: Missing Data Value of the Variables.

Univariate Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Missing Count	Missing Percent	No. of Extremes[a] Low	No. of Extremes[a] High
Q1_PED	756	2.47	1.331	4	.5	0	0
Q2_PED	757	2.10	.876	3	.4	0	61
Q3_PED	755	2.19	1.034	5	.7	0	23
Q4_PED	759	2.27	1.091	1	.1	0	26
Q5_PED	759	2.26	.986	1	.1	0	18
Q6_PED	760	2.89	1.197	0	.0	0	0
Q7_PED	760	2.83	1.169	0	.0	0	0
Q8_PED	741	1.78	1.025	19	2.5	0	67
Q9.1_OJED	758	1.74	.860	2	.3	0	41
Q9.2_OJED	755	2.17	.911	5	.7	0	66
Q9.3_OJED	753	2.37	1.016	7	.9	0	32
Q10_OJED	759	2.16	1.022	1	.1	0	25
Q11_OJED	758	2.66	1.140	2	.3	0	53
Q12_OJED	759	2.69	1.129	1	.1	0	55
Q13_PT	760	2.33	1.031	0	.0	0	28
Q14_PT	760	3.21	.995	0	.0	30	0
Q15_PT	760	1.91	.914	0	.0	0	43
Q16_PT	760	1.88	.865	0	.0	0	40
Q17_OJT	759	2.12	.945	1	.1	0	18
Q18_OJT	759	2.02	.836	1	.1	0	39
Q19_OJT	758	2.35	1.068	2	.3	0	17
Q20_OJT	758	2.14	.952	2	.3	0	14
Q21_OJT	759	2.39	1.156	1	.1	0	44
Q22_OJT	758	2.77	1.101	2	.3	0	56
Q23.1_OJT	760	1.73	.740	0	.0	0	21
Q23.2_OJT	758	2.30	1.047	2	.3	0	25
Q23.3_OJT	757	3.20	1.174	3	.4	0	0
Q23.4_OJT	757	1.85	.783	3	.4	0	29
Q23.5_OJT	759	3.45	1.113	1	.1	38	0
Q24.1_OJT	759	2.43	1.221	1	.1	0	57
Q24.2_OJT	756	2.45	1.100	4	.5	0	46
Q24.3_OJT	759	2.71	1.102	1	.1	0	56
Q25_PPC	760	2.97	1.188	0	.0	0	0

Q26_PPC	759	1.56	.643	1	.1	0	35
Q27_PPC	760	2.03	.991	0	.0	0	14
Q28_PPC	760	1.57	.704	0	.0	0	59
Q29_PPC	758	1.87	.944	2	.3	0	61
Q30_OJPC	758	2.04	.898	2	.3	0	62
Q31_OJPC	759	2.80	1.189	1	.1	0	0
Q32_OJPC	758	1.76	.864	2	.3	0	33
Q33.1_OJPC	756	2.16	.931	4	.5	0	13
Q33.2_OJPC	751	2.41	.990	9	1.2	0	20
Q34.1_OJPC	758	2.79	1.146	2	.3	0	0
Q34.2_OJPC	759	1.98	.868	1	.1	0	47
Q34.3_OJPC	757	1.71	.752	3	.4	0	21
Q35.1_OJPC	760	2.04	.882	0	.0	0	52
Q35.2_OJPC	758	2.08	1.019	2	.3	0	25
Q35.3_OJPC	757	2.28	.862	3	.4	0	7
Q35.4_OJPC	758	1.99	.820	2	.3	0	47
Q35.5_OJPC	758	1.87	.751	2	.3	0	27
Q35.6_OJPC	759	2.59	1.132	1	.1	0	45
Q35.7_OJPC	759	2.60	1.070	1	.1	0	45
Q35.8_OJPC	757	2.32	1.008	3	.4	0	32
Q35.9_OJPC	759	1.79	.789	1	.1	0	29
Q35.10_OJPC	758	2.09	.929	2	.3	0	68
Q36.1_OJPC	758	3.67	1.236	2	.3	59	0
Q36.2_OJPC	760	3.26	1.277	0	.0	0	0
Q36.3_OJPC	759	3.40	1.248	1	.1	0	0
Q36.4_OJPC	697	3.43	.988	63	8.3	19	0
Q36.5_OJPC	754	1.86	.898	6	.8	0	44
Q37.1_OJPC	747	1.74	.845	13	1.7	0	32
Q37.2_OJPC	759	1.54	.693	1	.1	0	51
Q37.3_OJPC	760	1.76	.791	0	.0	0	20
Q37.4_OJPC	759	3.36	1.134	1	.1	58	0
Q37.5_OJPC	755	2.05	.902	5	.7	0	43
Q37.6_OJPC	760	2.12	1.017	0	.0	0	25
Q37.7_OJPC	760	1.86	.872	0	.0	0	34
Q37.8_OJPC	760	1.93	.867	0	.0	0	38
Q38.1_OJPC	758	2.85	1.282	2	.3	0	0
Q38.2_OJPC	759	1.91	1.033	1	.1	0	70

Q38.3_OJPC	760	3.01	1.234	0	.0	0	0
Q38.4_OJPC	758	3.29	1.213	2	.3	0	0
Q38.5_OJPC	697	2.89	1.129	63	8.3	0	0
Q39_OJPC	759	1.83	.880	1	.1	0	42
Q40_OJPC	758	2.63	1.207	2	.3	0	0
Q41_OJPC	752	1.94	.839	8	1.1	0	41
Q42.1_PE	758	2.56	1.169	2	.3	0	52
Q42.2_PE	757	2.59	1.085	3	.4	0	39
Q42.3_PE	758	2.42	1.062	2	.3	0	27
Q43_PE	754	3.51	1.121	6	.8	37	0
Q44_OJE	760	2.49	1.101	0	.0	0	50
Q45_OJE	759	2.09	.909	1	.1	0	65
Q46_OJE	759	2.63	1.140	1	.1	0	63
Q47_OJE	753	2.35	.985	7	.9	0	28
Q48_OJE	758	2.57	1.175	2	.3	0	48
Q49_OJE	760	2.81	1.169	0	.0	0	0
Q50_OJE	757	2.94	1.183	3	.4	0	0
Q51_OJE	759	2.58	1.202	1	.1	0	50
Q52.1_OJE	760	2.19	1.139	0	.0	0	44
Q52.2_OJE	755	2.25	1.061	5	.7	0	24
Q52.3_OJE	759	2.41	1.131	1	.1	0	49
Q52.4_OJE	758	2.85	1.316	2	.3	0	0
Q52.5_OJE	757	2.94	1.273	3	.4	0	0
Q53_OJE	757	2.45	1.282	3	.4	0	0
Q54_OJE	751	3.33	1.349	9	1.2	0	0
Q55_OJE	749	3.43	1.201	11	1.4	57	0
Q56_OJE	758	2.42	1.191	2	.3	0	73
Q57_OJE	756	1.96	1.033	4	.5	0	31
Q58_OJE	758	2.44	1.087	2	.3	0	40
Q59_OJE	758	3.17	1.235	2	.3	0	0
Q60_OJE	759	2.95	1.220	1	.1	0	0
Q61_OJE	760	2.08	1.091	0	.0	0	25
Q62_OJE	758	3.17	1.131	2	.3	0	0
Q63_OJE	759	2.66	1.151	1	.1	0	64
Q64_OJE	759	2.55	1.152	1	.1	0	59
Q65_Comp	754	2.38	1.059	6	.8	0	37
Q66.1_Comp	759	1.81	.711	1	.1	0	16

Q66.2_Comp	760	2.06	.751	0	.0	0	31
Q66.3_Comp	752	2.08	.964	8	1.1	0	26
Q66.4_Comp	754	2.41	.809	6	.8	0	12
Q67.1_Comp	757	1.65	.725	3	.4	0	17
Q67.2_Comp	759	2.18	.877	1	.1	0	60
Q67.3_Comp	758	2.34	1.059	2	.3	0	35
Q67.4_Comp	756	2.64	1.031	4	.5	0	41
Q67.5_Comp	758	2.41	1.003	2	.3	0	35
Q68_Comp	760	2.73	1.230	0	.0	0	0
Q69_HRM	759	2.46	1.045	1	.1	0	32
Q70_HRM	759	2.53	1.105	1	.1	0	44
Q71_KM	759	2.88	1.013	1	.1	0	60
Q72_KM	758	2.94	.990	2	.3	0	55
Q73_KM	760	2.47	1.031	0	.0	0	38
Q74_KM	760	2.65	.987	0	.0	0	37
Q75_KM	760	2.14	.904	0	.0	0	62
Q76_KM	757	2.25	.989	3	.4	0	25
Q77_KM	759	2.58	1.067	1	.1	0	41
Q78_KM	760	2.54	1.045	0	.0	0	39
Q79_KM	759	2.60	1.003	1	.1	0	28
Q80_KM	759	2.05	.827	1	.1	0	45
Q81.1_KM	759	2.09	.967	1	.1	0	17
Q81.2_KM	759	1.83	.709	1	.1	0	20
Q81.3_KM	758	2.35	1.000	2	.3	0	29
Q81.4_KM	759	1.98	.790	1	.1	0	37
Q81.5_KM	759	2.04	.850	1	.1	0	47
Q81.6_KM	754	2.13	.903	6	.8	0	64
Q81.7_KM	753	3.67	1.004	7	.9	22	0
Q82.1_KM	759	3.34	1.160	1	.1	57	0
Q82.2_KM	760	3.57	1.088	0	.0	36	0
Q82.3_KM	760	3.65	1.057	0	.0	30	0
Q82.4_KM	760	3.47	1.142	0	.0	45	0
Q82.5_KM	759	3.53	1.057	1	.1	33	0
Q83.1_KM	759	1.75	.726	1	.1	0	17
Q83.2_KM	759	1.76	.709	1	.1	0	17
Q83.3_KM	758	1.88	.793	2	.3	0	30
Q83.4_KM	754	3.21	1.112	6	.8	0	0

Q83.5_KM	756	4.04	.928	4	.5	49	0
Q84.1_KM	758	1.78	.757	2	.3	0	23
Q84.2_KM	758	1.79	.740	2	.3	0	20
Q84.3_KM	759	1.79	.814	1	.1	0	28
Q85_KM	757	1.64	.684	3	.4	0	13
Q86_KM	757	2.91	1.090	3	.4	0	0

a. Number of cases outside the range (Mean - 2*SD, Mean + 2*SD).

Little's MCAR test: Chi-Square = 21453.544, DF = 20366, Sig. = .000

The missing data for the demographic data are MCAR is completely at random; however, the measurement items MAR or MNAR are probably not missed at random. Therefore, this missing data cannot be ignored and had to be remedied (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). According to Hair et al., (2013), there are several wildly used remedies:

1- Using unknown replacement value, such as hot or cold deck imputation or case substitution.

2- Calculating replacement values, such as mean substitution or regression imputation.

Where the missing data is not missed at random, one remedy is replacing missing data with mean or median values (Hair et al., 2013). The median is used if the values are on Likert scale (1-5), and the mean is used if their values are continues. However, the researcher decided to keep the missing data and not to remedy it since the missing data was not considered large and also to maintain the data for further investigation.

Appendix D-4: Outliers

"Outliers are observations with a unique combination of characteristics identifiable as distinctly different" (Hair et al., 2013, p.73). It consists of a case or cases that are unattached to the other cases on the distribution line (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). The case values can be distinctively high or low in value on items or collections of items that result to stand out from the other items (Hair et al., 2013). Field (2013) argues that the reason for having an outlier is that it uses range. Using ranges is problematic by itself because it uses the difference between lower and the higher values and, therefore, it is very sensitive to extreme values. One way to deal with outliers is to do interquartile range calculations; cutting the top and bottom 25% of the scores and calculate the middle 50% of the outlier in order to reduce their effects. However, first data entry checks need to be done is to eliminate human error. According to Hair et al. (2013), outliers can be classified into four classes:

1- A procedural error; the outlier could be an output of coding error or data entry error. Data should be checked from the main source, in this case the survey itself.

2- Extraordinary even; in this case the outlier will occur as a result of a unique event or under low circumstances.

3- Extraordinary observation; in this case the researcher will not have an explanation of why the outlier occurred.

4- Data are unique in their combination; the observations are unique in their combination and they may not necessarily high or low in their value.

In addition, outliers can be detected in the following three techniques:

1- Univariate detection. This examines the distribution of each observation and identifies values that are either high or low as an outlier. According to Tabachnick & Fidell (2012) and Field (2013a), univariate outliers have a large standardized score; also known as z score. If the case has a z score higher than 3.29 (p< .001, two tailed test) then there is likely to be an outlier. However, the standardized score for the small size data is different than the

large size data. With a very large data set, standardized score is expected to exceed 3.29; as seen in the following table.

Table D-4.1: Univariate Outliers Using z Score.

No	Variable (z score means)	Case of Outliers	standardize score or z score < - 3.29	standardize score or z score > + 3.29
1	PED	365, 763, 24	-2.56213	5.09103
2	OJED	505, 586, 682, 597	-2.12235	4.19252
3	PT	24, 572, 365, 277, 386, 383	-2.07172	4.14090
4	OJT	390, 388, 291, 586	-3.08234	4.87997
5	PPC	312, 373	-2.00975	4.82878
6	OJPC	312, 163, 390	-3.47979	6.17957
7	PE	No case	-2.80126	2.78742
8	OJE	163, 585	-3.05792	4.14360
9	Comp	312, 111	-2.87379	4.34714
10	KM	260, 315,163,111, 597	-2.76713	4.33233
11	HRM	No case	-1.67390	2.81730

In this case, a visual check of the shape of the distribution for skewness and kurtosis is needed (Figure D-4.1).

Figure D-4.1: Data Normal Distribution Histograms

The following are the data normal distribution histograms for the measured variables.
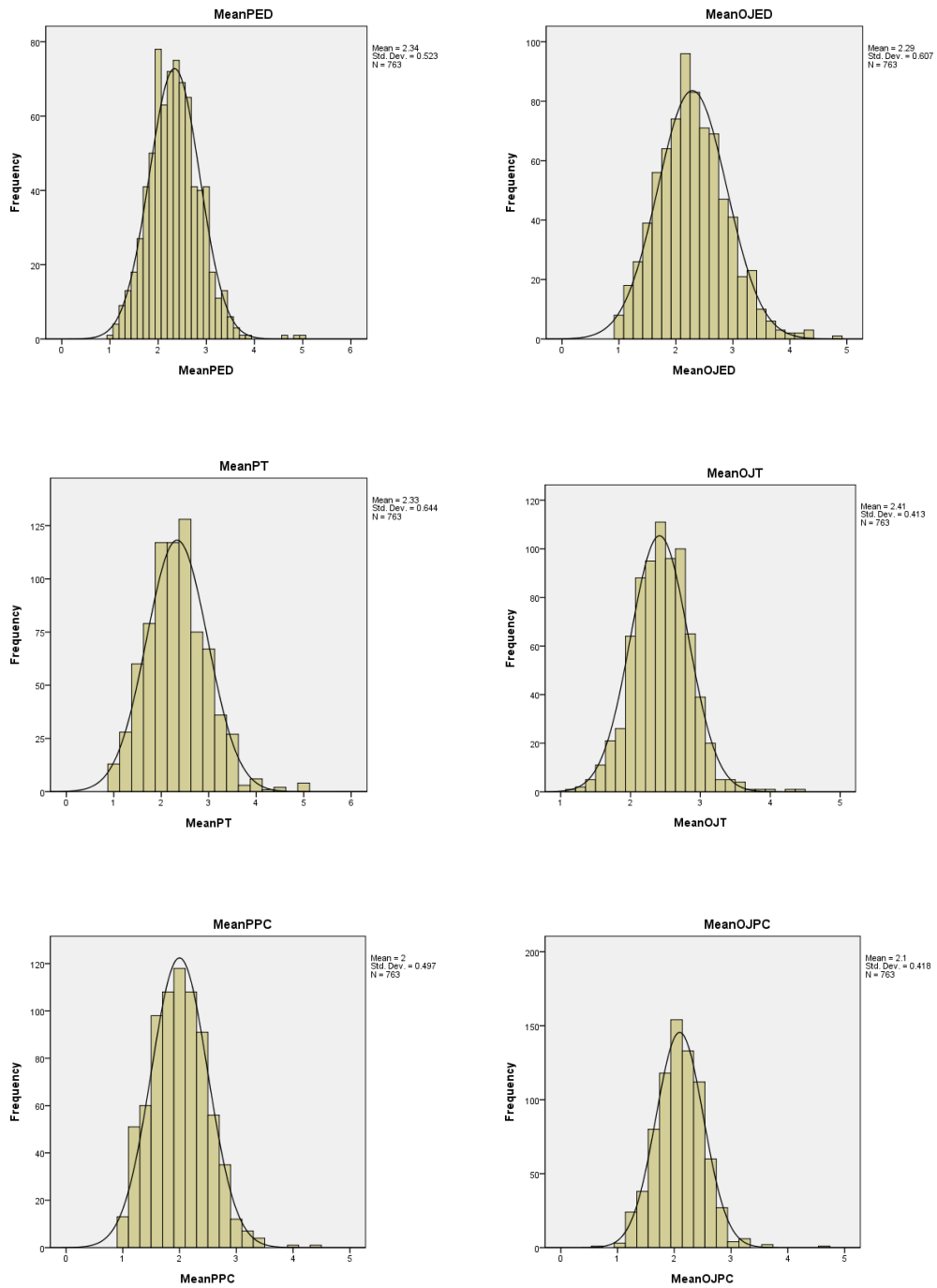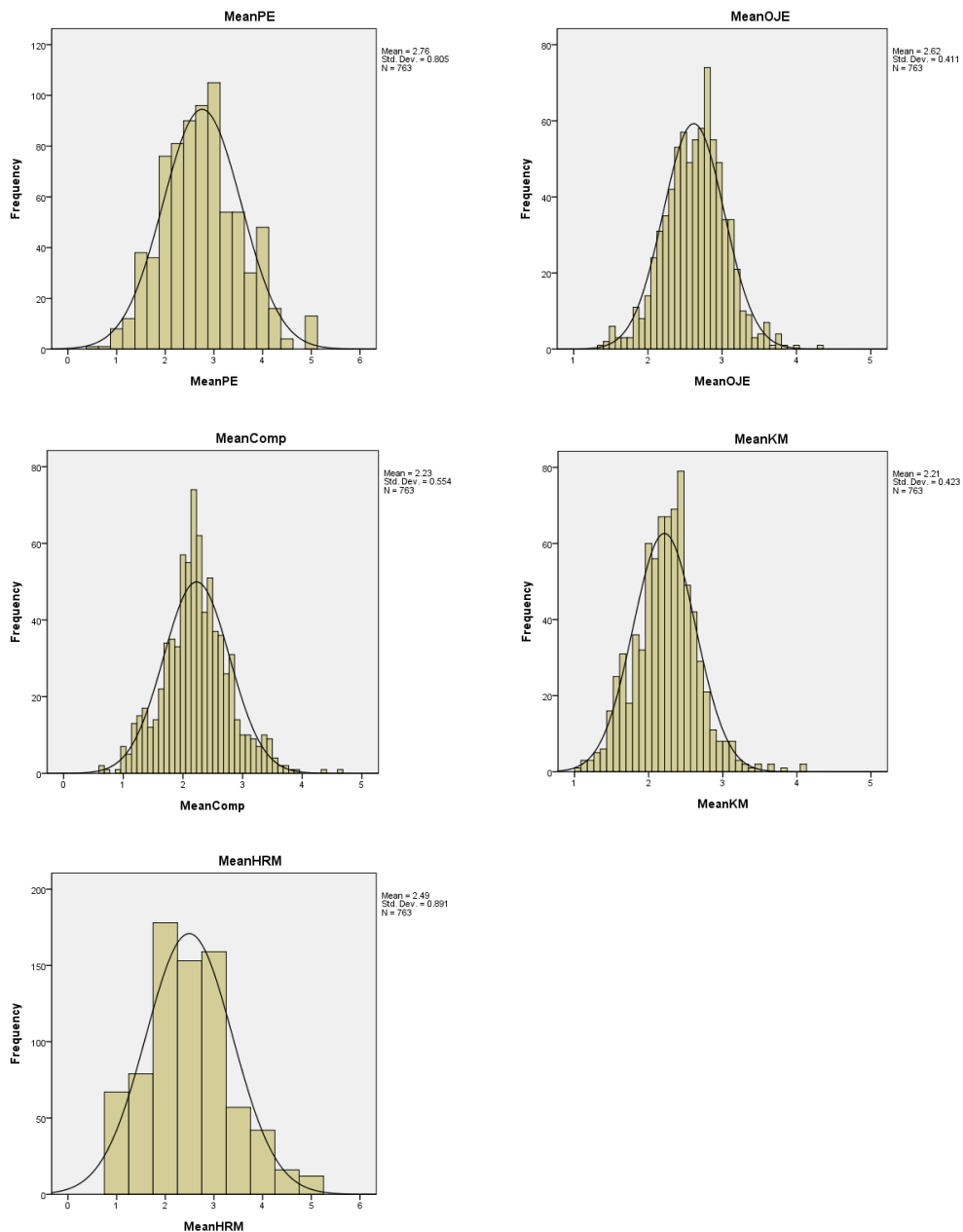
The histograms above depict normal distributions for the sample data. These normal distributions maximize the validity of the statistical tests used (Field et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012).

2- Bivariate detection. This pairs values through a scatterplot. Values that are different from the range of observations will be placed distant from the other points in the scatterplot. Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient and Spearman's rho are two examples of bivariate correlation coefficients. Two problems with Bivariate detection is that it is only limited to two variables at a time and, because of that, it produces large number of graphs

(Hair et al., 2013). This detection is shown later in Pearson's Correlations (Appendix D-8, Table D-8.1).

3- Multivariate detection. This usually involves more than two variables and is usually preferred than bivariate detection, because it involves more than two variables at a time. In multivariate detection, Mahalanobis D^2 measure is used to assess each observation's distance in multidimensional way from the mean centre of all observations. Since the mean is the point value of set of variables, the result is not having insight into which specific item may lead to a higher D^2 value. Therefore, D^2 measures should be divided by the variables number D^2/df (degree of freedom). In small sample size (80 cases or less) the D^2/df should be less than 2.5, whereas in large sample size (more than 80 cases) the D^2/df should be less than 3 or 4. If these values were exceeded, then they may be considered as outliers. Once the outliers are identified using the Mahalanobis D^2 measure, the researcher can use univariate detection or bivariate detection (Hair et al., 2013) to detect the specific outliers.

According to Field (2013a), there are three techniques to deal with outliers:

1- Removing the case. This requires deleting the whole case of that respondent who is identified as an outlier. However, it is essential to check on why this case in particular is an outlier before removing it. As mentioned earlier this case could be a result of an extraordinary event or observation. In that case, this respondent case should be retained.

2- Transforming the data. Outliers result in skewness of the data distribution. This skewness can be reduced using data transformations.

3- Change the score. This should be used when data transformation fails; only then replacing the score should be considered. There are three options for changing the score; changing to the next higher score plus one, convert back from a z-score or the mean plus two standard deviations.

According to Tabachnick & Fidell (2012), transformation of the data is considered when dealing with outliers. It improves the normality of the distribution and brings the univariate cases, including the outliers, closer to the centre of the distribution line. As a result, the outlier impact is lessened. Therefore, transformation of the data

was conducted prior to computing multivariate outliers. Using SPSS, the cases were grouped into variables in the compute variable option. The total variables were 11 and they were saved in the variable view, in order to be used in different computations to reduce the effect of the outliers.

After computing data transformation, multivariate detection was conducted to identify the multivariate outliers. To compute Mahalanobis D^2 value, a liner regression was used (Table D-4.2).

Table D-4.2: Multivariate Outliers Using Mahalanobis.

N	Outlier case	Mahalanobis D^2	D^2/df	p-Value (0.001)
1	365	51.52053	5.152053	.000
2	763	39.69808	3.969808	.000
3	24	34.90753	3.490753	.000
4	505	30.44999	3.044999	.000
5	586	34.49617	3.449617	.000
6	682	21.59814	2.159814	.001
7	597	19.84307	1.984307	.001
8	572	28.39588	2.839588	.001
9	277	33.93769	3.393769	.000
10	386	27.48305	2.748305	.001
11	383	30.43631	3.043631	.000
12	390	29.12117	2.912117	.001
13	388	33.24919	3.324919	.000
14	291	26.91775	2.691775	.001
15	312	58.68850	5.86885	.000
16	373	22.26099	2.226099	.001
17	163	46.78208	4.678208	.000
18	585	28.17694	2.817694	.001
19	111	48.52474	4.852474	.000
20	260	41.79779	4.179779	.000

According to Hair et al., (2013), D^2 measures should be divided by the variables number D^2/df. In the research data, this df = 10. In large sample, if the D^2/df results exceed 3 or 4 then it is considered as a possible outlier. In addition, based on Tabachnick & Fidell (2012), the research data critical value = 29.588 for p = 0.001 for df = 10, in the critical values of Chi-square (X^2). Table D-4.2 depicts that using multivariate detection produces less outlier than the univariate detection. Univariate

detection revealed 15 outlier cases and multivariate detection revealed 12 out of 20 cases, from a total of 763 cases. The majority of outlier cases are similar in both detections; even though their method of detection is different the results were similar.

According to Field (2013a), Hair et al. (2013), Tabachnick & Fidell (2012) and Zikmund et al. (2012), outliers may be kept regardless of their classification. However, if the researcher decides to remove them, then it is advised to understand why a particular case is classified as an outlier. Cases were checked for abnormality and it was found that all outlier cases are unique in their answer; that is why they are identified as outliers. However, according Tabachnick & Fidell, (2012) removing outliers improves the normality of the distribution and brings the univariate cases, including outliers, closer to the centre of the distribution line. Nevertheless, the researcher decided to keep the outliers for further investigation.

One way of displaying the survey data is using Boxplots. The middle line represents the mean and the box is the middle 50% of observations (Field, 2013). Figure D-4.2 is the boxplot of the multivariate outliers.

Figure D-4.2: Boxplot of Multivariate Outliers.
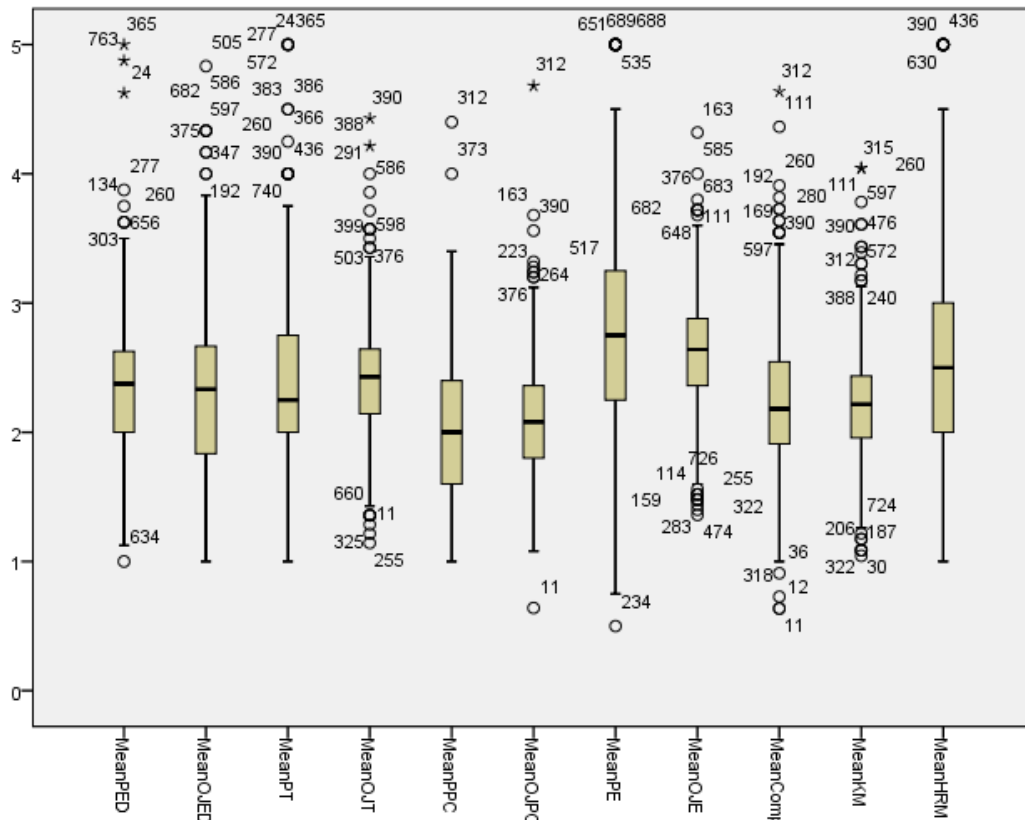
Appendix D-5: Variance Estimation

Since the researcher does not have control over the variance, it must be included in the research design (Barlett et al., 2001). One of the four techniques that Cochran (1977) suggests for estimating population variances is to use logical mathematical results in order to guess or estimate the structure of the population. Therefore, Barlett et al. (2001) suggests to calculate variance the scale range should be determined. The survey questionnaire deployed a scale of 5. Then the scale is divided by the number of the standard deviation, which includes all the possible values in the range squared.

$$\text{S} = \frac{(number\ of\ points\ on\ the\ scale)}{(number\ of\ standard\ deviations)}$$

$$\text{S} = \frac{5}{4} = 1.25$$

Where S is the estimated variance; in the above calculation S value was not squared. Krejcie & Morgan (1970) recommend that researchers should use the 0.50 of the estimated variance rather than the squared 0.50^2; the latter will result in a lower value of estimated variance ($0.50^2 = 0.25$). In another words, this calculation results in a higher estimated variation with a maximum sample size required and more representative of the population.

Appendix D-6: Calculating Categorical Sample Size

Categorical variables were used for the survey questionnaire. In calculating the sample size of categorical variable, the alpha level could either be 0.05 or 0.01. The widely used value is 0.05; therefore the t-value for alpha is 1.96 (Barlett et al., 2001). Also, the estimated variance as recommended by Krejcie & Morgan (1970) is 0.50 (presented in the equation below as 'p'). Another required value is estimating the maximum possible sample size; this is obtained by deducting 'p' value from 1(1- 0.5 = 0.5). Finally, the categorical margin of error is 0.05.

$$n_0 = \frac{(t)^2 * (p)(q)}{(d)^2}$$

$$n_0 = \frac{(1.96)^2 * (0.5)(0.5)}{(0.05)^2}$$

$$n_0 = \frac{(0.9604)}{(0.0025)} = 384$$

The population of the total workforce in Kuwait, is 1,478,290 (See Chapter 4, Table 4.5). The calculation above is the first step, because the sample size is less than 5% of the total population:

$$1,478,290 * 0.05 = 73,915$$

Therefore, the second step is to use Cochran's (1977) formula to determine the final sample size required. Where n_1 is the sample size and the n_0 is the categorical margin of error or 0.05, as follows:

$$n_1 = \frac{n_0}{(1 + n_0 / Population)}$$

$$n_1 = \frac{384}{(1 + 384/1,478,290)} = 384$$

Both steps produce the same sample size. Therefore, according to Cochran's (1977) formula, for a population size of 1,478,290, the required sample size should be at least 384. However, the researcher should assume that the response rate will be about 65% (Barlett et al., 2001). In other words, 65% of the respondents should be equal to 384 respondents. Therefore,

$$n_2 = \frac{n_1}{0.65}$$

$$n_2 = \frac{384}{0.65} = 590$$

Thus the minimum sample size should be 590 in order to maximize the 65% chances of getting 384 responses.

Similarly, Saunders et al. (2012) developed a table showing that for a population of about 1,000,000, the required sample size is 384 at 0.05% margin of error. Nevertheless, they argued that the higher the respondent rate the less risk their will be of non-response bias and the more representative the sample size is of the population (Groves & Peytcheva, 2008; Saunders et al., 2012). Accordingly, the sample size of this study is 763, which exceeds the minimal required sample size and is considered as more representative of the population.

$$n_2 = \frac{n_1}{0.65}$$

Appendix D-7: Normality

In multivariate analysis, normality is the fundamental assumption (Hair et al., 2013 and Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Field (2013a) discusses that if normality is not met then hypothesis testing will be flawed. Similarly, Hair et al. (2013) emphasized the importance of normal distribution effect. If the data distribution is large then all the statistical tests are invalid, because with a large sample test, data tend to be normally distributed, and also because normality test needs the t and F statistics. "If a variable is multivariate normal, it is also univariate normal. However, the reverse is not necessarily true" (Hair et al., 2013, p. 80). The impact of nonnormality is based on two factors; offending data distribution shape and the sample size.

The *distribution shape* can be described as kurtosis and skewness. Kurtosis is the height of the distribution; if it is *peaked* or taller than normal then it is called *leptokurtic* and also positively kurtosis; whereas if it is more *flattened*, then it is called *platykurtic* and negatively kurtosis. Skewness, however, refers to the balance of the data distribution. The distribution is skewed if the data is unbalanced and shifted to the right or to the left. If it is shifted to the right, then it is negatively skewed. If it is shifted to the left then it is positively skewed (Hair et al., 2013).

According to Pallant (2013), Brace et al. (2012) and Vickers (2010), one of the instruments used to depict the distribution shape is the histogram. For normally distributed histogram, the data distribution should take a bell shape. The histogram of the data sample in this research formed as a bell shape, which indicates the normality of data distribution (Figure D-4.1).

Another instrument is the statistical instrument which is presented in Table D-7.1. The more the kurtosis and skewness cases value is closer to 0, the more it is considered as normally distributed (Hair et al., 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). In addition, if kurtosis value is ±1 then it is considered negligible. However, values between ±1 and ±10 are considered as nonnormality. Values exceeding ±10 are considered as sever nonnormality (Holmes-Smith et al., 2006). Whereas, according to Hair et al. (2013), most critical used values are the one between ±2.58 with 0.01 level of significance, and ±1.96 with 0.05 level of significance.

Table D-7.1: Descriptive Statistics.

Var.	N Valid	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness Statistic	Std. Error	Kurtosis Statistic	Std. Error
PED	763	1.00	5.00	2.34	.523	.489	.089	1.415	.177
OJED	763	1.00	5.00	2.29	.607	.421	.089	.415	.177
PT	763	1.00	5.00	2.33	.644	.563	.089	1.054	.177
OJT	763	1.00	4.00	2.41	.413	.284	.089	1.377	.177
PPC	763	1.00	5.00	2.00	.497	.373	.089	.443	.177
OJPC	763	1.00	5.00	2.10	.418	.385	.089	1.963	.177
PE	763	1.00	5.00	2.76	.805	.286	.089	-.014	.177
OJE	763	1.00	4.00	2.62	.411	-.031	.089	.635	.177
Comp	763	1.00	5.00	2.23	.554	.264	.089	.739	.177
KM	763	1.00	4.00	2.21	.423	.262	.089	1.066	.177
HRM	763	1.00	5.00	2.49	.891	.416	.089	.019	.177

Table D-7.1 presents the sample data descriptive statistics. Kurtosis and skewness values show positive and negative values: in which all are closer to 0 value. Negative values are not problematic as long as they fall within the normal range. Having negative values is only an indicator of the nature of the variable. Based on both Hair et al. (2013) and Holmes-Smith et al. (2006), the values of kurtosis and skewness are all within the normal range of ± 2.58. Therefore, the kurtosis and skewness presented in Table D-7.1 are normally distributed.

Second is the *sample size*. The larger the sample size the less it will be toward nonnormality. Specifically, in sample size of 50 or 30, the departure from normality has a substantial effect on the result. If the sample size is 200 or more the same effect can be ignored (Hair et al., 2013 and Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). The sample size of the research is 763, which is considered as substantially high (Appendix D-6); therefore, deviation from normality is not of concern. However, Hair et al. (2013) and Tabachnick & Fidell (2012), argue that if the data distribution was large, which is the case in the research sample, then all the statistical tests are invalid if the data are not normally distributed; which is not the case with the data used in this research; as all of the variables are normally distributed.

In addition to the above two instruments, there are other techniques of establishing data distribution; namely, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilk test. These

tests compare the score test to the normal distributed set of values that have the same mean and standard deviation. If the test resulted in p > 0.05 (non-significant), then the sample is not significantly different from a normal distribution. However, if the resulting value is p < 0.05 (significant), then the sample is significantly different from a normal distribution. In other words, the sample is not normally distributed. This test however has its limitation. With a large sample size, it is easier to get the significance result. However, that result does not necessarily guarantee any absence of deviation from normality that we should be aware of and thus handle (Field, 2013).

Descriptive statistics is used to compute the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilk test (K-S test), as explored in the following table.

Table D-7.2: K-S Test of Normality Distribution.

Variables	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
PED	.064	763	.000	.979	763	.000
OJED	.079	763	.000	.982	763	.000
PT	.109	763	.000	.967	763	.000
OJT	.047	763	.000	.984	763	.000
PPC	.088	763	.000	.974	763	.000
OJPC	.036	763	.019	.983	763	.000
PE	.094	763	.000	.983	763	.000
OJE	.041	763	.003	.993	763	.001
Comp	.070	763	.000	.988	763	.000
KM	.052	763	.000	.986	763	.000
HRM	.134	763	.000	.952	763	.000
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction						

The K-S test results in Table D-7.2 presents a normal distribution of the sample data. It shows p > 0.05 (non-significant). This means that we should reject the null hypotheses and that the data is not significantly different from a normal distribution. The K-S test can be plotted as a Q-Q plot. The Q-Q plots the quantiles of the data rather than the single case of the data. It also presents the data sample clustering along normality line for each variable (Figure D-7.1).

Figure D-7.1: Normal Probability Distribution (Q-Q plot)

Normal Q-Q Plot of Mean_PE

Normal Q-Q Plot of Mean_OJE

Normal Q-Q Plot of Mean_Comp

Normal Q-Q Plot of MeanKM

Normal Q-Q Plot of MeanHRM
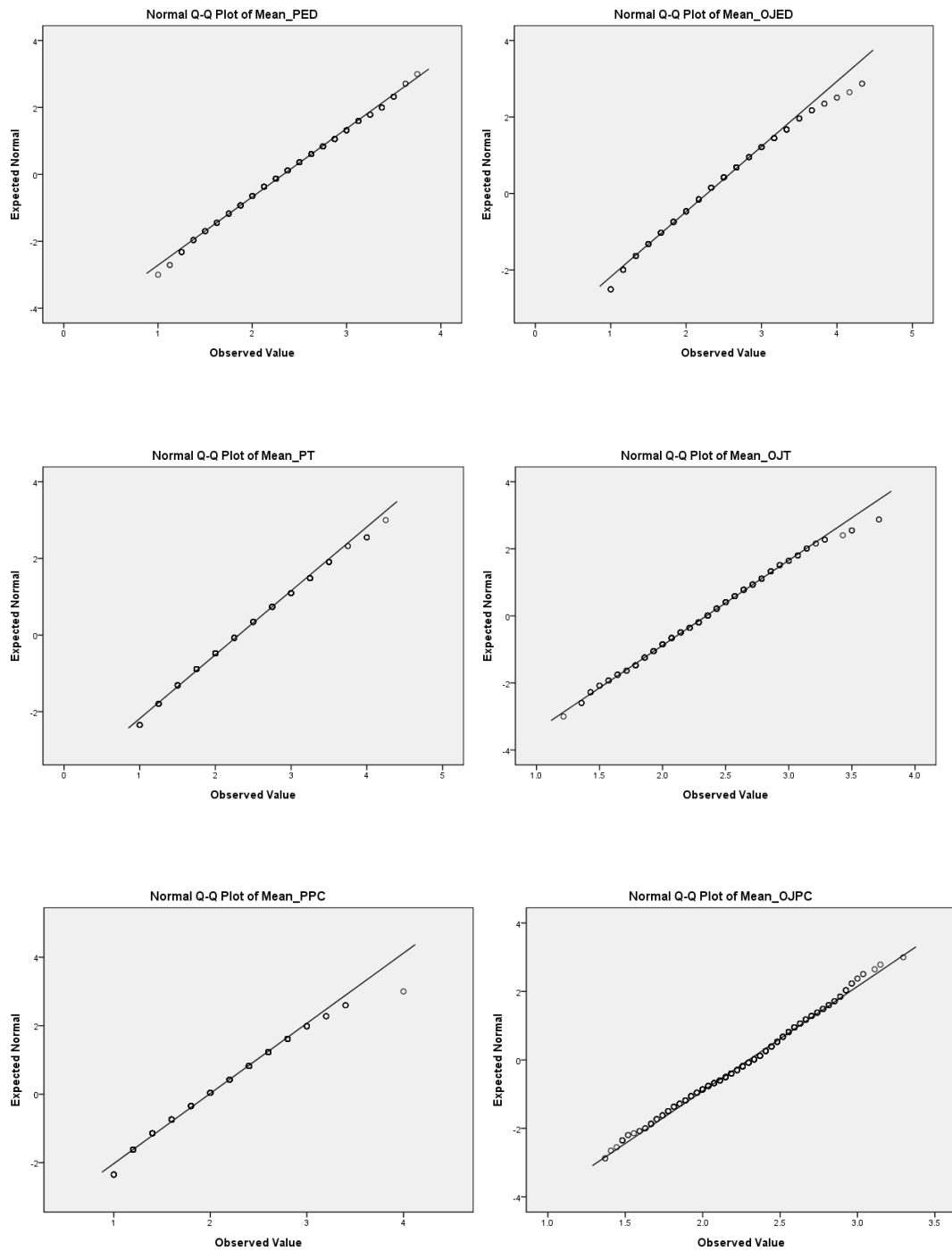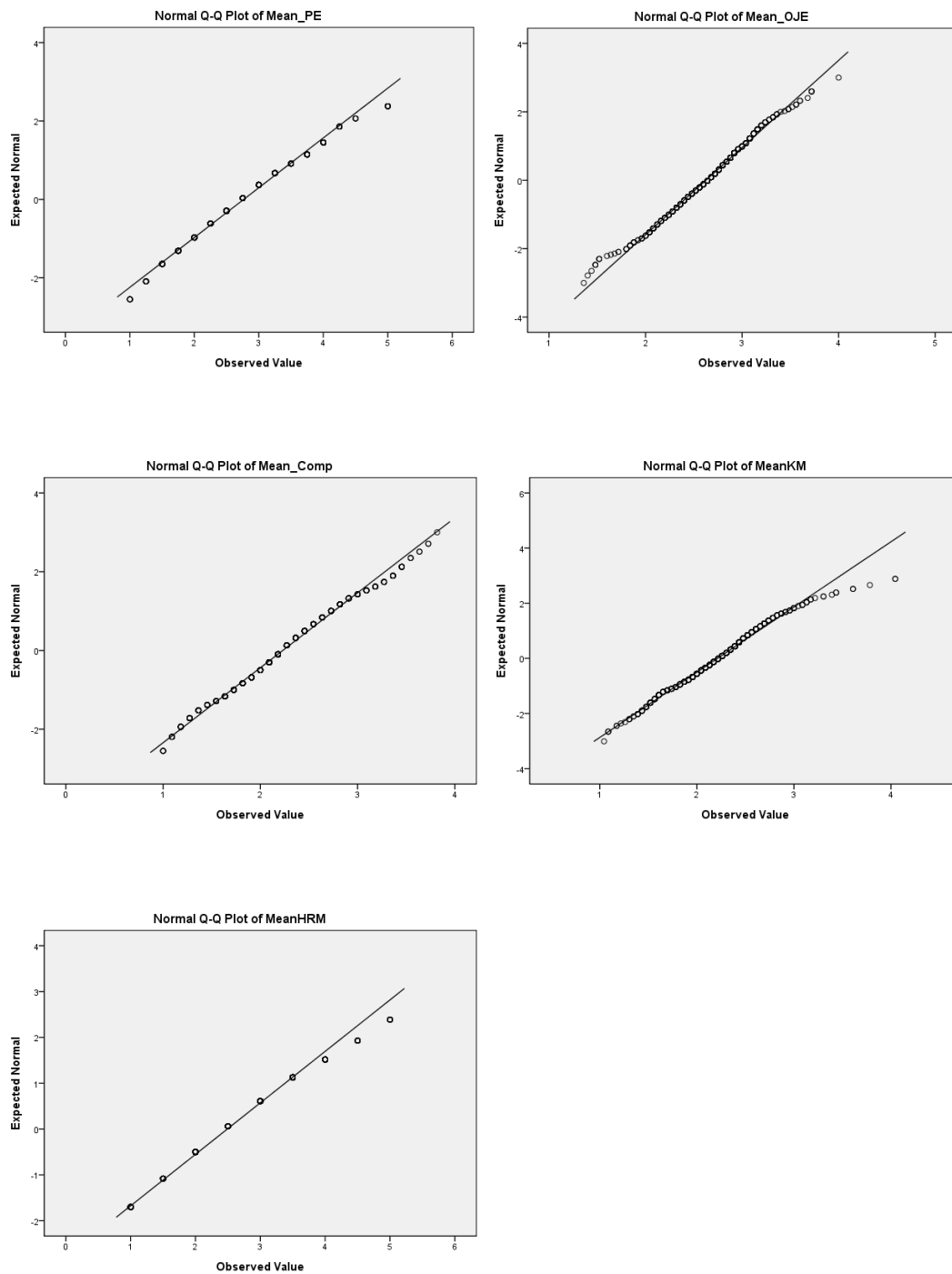
From the above Q-Q plot, it is evident that the sample size is normally distributed. This normal distribution increases the probability of valid tests.

Appendix D-8: Linearity

Linearity assumes that there is a straight line relationship between two variables. The importance of linearity is noticed when this relationships does exist between the two variables using Pearson's r. Linearity which can be inspected using bivariate scatterplots. If the outcome of the scatterplot shape is oval, then it is an indication that both variables are normally distributed and they have a linear relationship. If the outcome of the scatterplot shape is not oval, then it is an indication that it is non-normal and the two variables do not have a linear relationship. There are two reasons for nonlinearity; it is either a result of residual plots of an analysis or it is bivariate scatterplot between variables' pairs. When two variables have the mix of linear and curvilinear relationships, if one variable value becomes smaller, the other variable becomes larger, or visa a versa (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012 and Hair et al., 2013).

Given the importance of linearity, Pearson's r test was used as a parametric data measuring tool to assessing the correlation between the sample data variables (Brace et al., 2012, Pallant, 2013 and Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Pearson's correlation is presented in Table D-8.1 (bellow) where SPPS output illustrates significant positive correlations between variables and therefore they are in a linear relationship.

Table D-8.1: Pearson's Correlations.

	PED	OJED	PT	OJT	PPC	OJPC	PE	OJE	Comp	HRM/KM
PED	1									
OJED	.262**	1								
PT	.472**	.280**	1							
OJT	.274**	.500**	.316**	1						
PPC	.184**	.161**	.203**	.246**	1					
OJPC	.293**	.496**	.304**	.532**	.398**	1				
PE	.076*	0.003	.096**	.105**	.081*	.100**	1			
OJE	.077*	.268**	.091*	.374**	.114**	.377**	.282**	1		
Comp	.186**	.462**	.218**	.383**	.131**	.576**	.082*	.401**	1	
KM	.214**	.432**	.235**	.422**	.216**	.544**	.113**	.447**	.612**	1
HRM	.166**	.273**	.179**	.275**	.078*	.336**	.074*	.262**	.399**	.447**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

It is evident in Table D-8.1 that there is correlation among all constructs. One out of 45 does not correlate (the shaded box); namely prior environment (PE) and on-job education (OJED). This means that all constructs correlate except for PE and OJED.

Appendix D-9: Homoscedasticity

The assumption of homoscedasticity is that the score of one continuous variable is almost the same in all the other continuous variables. It is related to normality; if the variables are normal, then they are homoscedastic too (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Similarly, Hair et al. (2013) state that the dependent variable(s) present equal levels of variance across the range of predictor variables. Also, dispersion of dependent variables must be relatively equal at each value of the predictor variable. Failure to have homoscedasticity is a result of either nonnormality of one of the variables or because one variable is related to the transformation of the other. When variances are unequal they are called heteroscedasticity. Not achieving homoscedasticity is not fatal for the data testing or analysis; it might, however, weaken it (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012 and Hair et al., 2013). Homoscedasticity can be measured graphically or statistically. The Levene test is used to test for homoscedasticity statistically; where variances of variables are compared against all levels of nonmetric variables (Hair et al., 2013).

Variables can be applied when the independent variables are either metric or nonmetric. For metric independent variable, homoscedasticity is based on the spread of dependent variable across the range of independent variables. Regression is used in this case. For the nonmetric independent variable, the focus is on the equality of the variance, a single dependent variable or variance/covariance; in this case, multiple dependent variables across the groups. ANOVA and MANOVA are used in this case. To test for homoscedasticity the Levene test was used for the data sample (Table D-9.1).

Table D-9.1: Leven's Test for Homogeneity of Variances.

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PED	.630	4	758	.641
OJED	1.498	4	758	.201
PT	1.107	4	758	.352
OJT	.453	4	758	.770
PPC	1.035	4	758	.388
OJPC	2.453	4	758	.045
PE	.967	4	758	.425
OJE	.880	4	758	.475
Comp	1.130	4	758	.341
KM	2.363	4	758	.052
HRM	.238	4	758	.917

For the sample data a non-metric variable (work experience) was used. All of the above variables (except OJPC) are higher than then the minimum significant value (p<0.05). This means that we reject the null hypothesis and therefore variables demonstrate homogeneity. Notice that in the K-S test of normality distribution (Table D-7.2), variable OJPC is shown to have p=0.019, which means it is highly normally distributed. Homogeneity test of variances is similar in K-S test of normality distribution; they are both sensitive to sample size. In other words, the fact that OJPC variable is significantly correlated does not mean that there is a substantial departure from normality (Field, 2013).

Appendix D-10: Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity represents a strong relationship between two or more variables. Multiple regression is used for multicollinearity, whereas simple regression is not applicable as it needs two or more variables (Hair et al., 2013; Pallant, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). When there is a perfect linear relationship between two variables then it is called perfect collinearity. However, perfect collinearity is rare. Nevertheless, the more the collinearity level is closer to perfect, the more other problems will be generated. Such as:

1- Untrustworthy bs: the higher the collinearity is the higher the standard errors of b coefficients and that b-values are less trustworthy.

2- Limitation of R size: R is a multiple correlation measurement between variables and the outcomes; R^2 indicates the outcomes variances in which the variables are accounted for.

3- Importance of predictors: Multicollinearity makes it difficult to assess the individual importance of a predictor. Multicollinearity outcome could show a high correlation between the predictors, but it is difficult to tell which variable is the important one (Hair et al., 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012).

Scanning the correlation matrix helps to identify multicollinearity. There are several collinearity diagnosis; one of them is the variance inflation factor (VIF). The VIF indicates whether one predictor has a strong relationship with other predictors or not. Although no specific score has been appointed, Myers (1990) suggests that at value 10 is problematical. Bowerman & O'Connell (1990) added that more worrying is if VIF average is greater than 1, then the multicollinearity is biasing the regression model. In addition though value below 0.1 is a serious concern, Myers (1990) suggests that below 0.2 is worrying. Other measures that can be used are bivariate matrix (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012), multivariate matrix, eigenvalue of the scaled, un-centred cross-products, condition index and variance proportions (Hair et al., 2013; Pallant, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012).

For the sample data, bivariate correlation matrix was presented in Table D-8.1, using Pearson's Correlations. None of the values is above 0.8 for the independent variables. For the VIF and tolerance effects, a regression test was conducted (Table D-10.1)

Table D-10.1: Regression for Observing VIF and Tolerance Effects.

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	-.036	.122		-.292	.771		
PED	-.019	.032	-.018	-.605	.545	.740	1.352
OJED	.132	.029	.144	4.466	.000	.637	1.569
PT	.016	.026	.019	.619	.536	.717	1.394
OJT	-.046	.045	-.034	-1.031	.303	.595	1.682
PPC	-.109	.032	-.098	-3.452	.001	.820	1.219
OJPC	.417	.049	.315	8.579	.000	.493	2.029
PE	-.007	.019	-.010	-.368	.713	.902	1.108
OJE	.132	.042	.098	3.144	.002	.688	1.454
HRMKM	.427	.045	.326	9.427	.000	.555	1.801
a. Dependent Variable: Mean_Comp							

Table D-10.1 output shows none of the tolerance has a value below 0.1 or 0.2 (Bowerman & O'Connell, 1990 and Myers, 1990). Therefore, there is a strong multicollinearity relationship between the variables. Also, the VIF values are all below the value 10, suggesting a strong multicollinearity relationship between the variables (Raymons Myers, 1990).

Appendix D-11: Response Rate and Non-Response Biasness

It is essential that the respondents represent the population. A perfect sample is one that will perfectly match the population. Therefore, the higher the sample size is the more it is closer to the population (Saunders et al., 2012; Welman et al., 2006).

Non responses are likely to occur. They are those respondents who refused to participate in the research for different reasons. Consequently, they will not be part of the sample that represents the population; therefore, the sample may be biased because it does not include their opinion. So, it is important to analyse the non-response to the single questions, as well as to the entire questionnaire to check for biasness. There are several reasons why respondents my refuse to respond. First, they simply *refuse to answer* and do not want to participate in the survey questionnaire. One way to motivate them to participate is to be creative in the method used for data collection. Second, they may not fit the survey requirement and therefore they are *ineligible*. Third, when it is hard to reach the respondents because of *location or non-contact*. Since the non-response may have biasness effect on the sample size and hence becomes unrepresentative of the population, it is essential to include all the non-eligible when calculating the total response rate (Welman et al., 2006). According to Neuman (2010) and Saunders et al., (2012), the following is the total response rate:

$$\text{Total response rate} = \frac{\text{total number of responses}}{\text{total number in sample} - \text{ineligible}}$$

$$\text{Total response rate} = \frac{763}{1200 - 164}$$

$$\text{Total response rate} = \frac{763}{1,036} = 73.6\%$$

The most widely used calculation however is the active response rate:

$$\text{Active response rate} = \frac{\text{total number of respondents}}{\text{total number in sample} - (\text{ineligible} + \text{unreachable})}$$

$$\text{Active response rate} = \frac{763}{972 - 164}$$

$$\text{Active response rate} = \frac{763}{808} = 94.4\%$$

Over 80% of response rate is considered as complete response. In this research, the active response rate is 94.4% which is considered high, and a complete response (Saunders et al., 2012).

Appendix D-12: Reliability

Reliability is an essential step to assess the degree of consistency between several measurements of the variables. It determines whether an instrument is set to interpret the measurement consistently across different conditions (Field, 2013). Pallant (2013) defined reliability as a scale that indicates how free it is from random error; it is the internal consistency. In other words, a group of items that make up the scale actually measure the construct.

There are number of techniques for measuring reliability. First is test-retest, where consistency is measured between respondents over two different time periods in order to ensure consistency (Churchill, 1979 and Hair et al., 2013). Second and most common is Cronbach's coefficient alpha. It provides the average correlation of all items that make up the scale. The closer the value is to 1 the more reliable it is (Pallant, 2013). However, Hair et al. (2013) argue that since there is no specific perfect measure researchers can consider:

1- Measurement that relates to each separate item. This includes item-to-total correlation where it should exceed 0.5 and inter-item correlation where it should exceeds 0.3 (J. P. Robinson et al., 1991).

2- Cronbach's coefficient alpha; which is the most widely used measures (J. P. Robinson et al., 1991). Depending on the purpose of the scale, and the item number per scale; if the scale's items are 10 or more, Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) recommends a value of 0.7 as a minimum scale. Robinson et al. (1991) and Keil et al. (2000), however state a value of 0.6 is also acceptable. If, however, the items in the scale are fewer than 10 items, then the Cronbach's coefficient alpha value may be small. In this case, according to Briggs & Cheek (1986) and Hair et al. (2013), it is better to calculate the mean inter-item correlation for the item; its value ranges from 0.2 to 0.4.

3- Reliability that is derived from factor analysis. Within the factor analysis, there are measures of reliability; namely composite reliability and average variance extracted (Hair et al., 2013).

In this study, two measurements were conducted using Cronbach's coefficient alpha and the mean of inter-item correlation, because there are less than 10 items in some of the variables. For constructs that contain more than 10 items, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was used and in constructs with less than 10 items the mean of inter-item correlation was used.

Table D-12.1: Reliability Statistic.

	Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	Average Corrected Item-Total Correlation
Education	PED	18.81	4.144	8	0.51	0.23
	OJED	13.79	3.635	6	0.62	0.36
Training	PT	9.34	2.575	4	0.61	0.38
	OJT	32.90	5.734	14	0.62	0.25
Personal Characteristics	PPC	10.00	2.490	5	0.47	0.23
	OJPC	91.60	12.738	39	0.80	0.27
Environment	PE	11.10	3.176	4	0.68	0.47
	OJE	65.88	10.164	25	0.71	0.25
Competency	Comp	24.64	6.015	11	0.81	0.47
KM	KM	81.40	11.722	32	0.82	0.31
HRM	HRM	4.99	1.782	2	0.55	0.376

Table D-12.1 shows the two groups of tests. The first group is the group with 10 or more items in the construct. For this group Cronbach's Alpha test was used for its reliability test (light areas). It consist of OJT with α value of 0.62, OJPC with α value of 0.80, OJE with α value of 0.71, Comp with α value of 0.81, KM with α value of 0.82. All of this group's constructs have a Cronbach's Alpha value of more than 0.60, which is acceptable and considered reliable (Keil et al., 2000; J. P. Robinson et al., 1991).

Also, Table D-12.1 provides the reliability measure for each item. It shows that the majority of the items are reliable with value more than 0.2 (Briggs & Cheek,1986) and Hair et al. (2013). Items with less than value 0.2 reliability (shaded cells) are considered low reliability. One way to deal with this is to remove the low value

items. Also, it is important to notice that these items are also shown as outliers (see Appendix D-4). However, the researcher kept these items for further investigation.

The second group contains constructs with less than 10 items. The researcher used the mean of inter-item correlation to confirm items reliability, as shown in the following table (Table D-12.2).

Table D-12.2: Mean of Inter-item Correlation.

	Item	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Corrected Item-Total Correlation
PED	1	I'm working in the same field as my prior education.	2.47	1.327	.244
	2	When I was in school, teachers were competent at their teaching	2.10	.878	.214
	3	Prior education helps me to perform my job	2.21	1.035	.322
	4	In my opinion majors such as **chemist, doctors, engineers**... etc., does have an effect on individual's competency at work.	2.27	1.094	.287
	5	In my opinion majors such as **business, secretary, history**... etc., does have an effect on individual's competency at work.	2.26	.993	.263
	6	Graduates from private high schools are better qualified then graduates from government high schools.	2.88	1.192	.173
	7	Graduates from Universities outside Kuwait are better qualified than graduates from Kuwait Universities.	2.84	1.166	.192
	8	I chose my own major at school	1.78	1.018	.173
OJED	9.1	**At work, I prefer to receive education through:** 9.1 Courses	1.74	.862	.108
	9.2	9.2 Colleagues	2.18	.912	.345
	9.3	9.3 Managers	2.37	1.015	.389
	10	At work I received education that helps me to perform better at work	2.16	1.019	.426
	11	I can access the organisational data base and learn from it.	2.66	1.143	.405
	12	My organisation is providing me with sufficient education to be competent at work.	2.69	1.130	.510
PT	13	Prior training helps me to perform my job.	2.33	1.031	.335
	14	Training at Kuwaiti school *is* linked with the market needs or work expectation	3.21	.997	.320

	15	The more training the employee receives in majors such as chemist, doctors, engineers..., the more competent they will be at work.	1.91	.913	.440
	16	The more training the employee in majors such as business, secretary, history..., the more competent they will be at work.	1.89	.871	.443
OJPT	17	The training I received at work is relevant to my job need	2.12	.946	.387
	18	The skills I gained from training make me competent at work.	2.02	.837	.412
	19	I prefer to receive training courses outside of my organisation rather than on-the-job	2.35	1.065	.114
	20	If I do not receive the training courses I need then I will ask for it.	2.14	.956	.390
	21	If my employer does not send me on a training course that I need or asked for, I am willing to pay for it to develop myself.	2.39	1.155	.213
	22	My organisation is providing me with enough training to be competent at work.	2.77	1.099	.374
	23.1	**To me training courses are:** 23.1 To develop my competency need	1.73	.743	.356
	23.2	23.2 Reward for my performance	2.30	1.045	.292
	23.3	23.3 Leisure or vacation	3.19	1.170	.120
	23.4	23.4 Learning experience	1.86	.785	.294
	23.5	23.5 Following Organisational plans and not necessarily to develop myself.	2.55	1.110	-.041
	24.1	**My training courses are chosen by:** 24.1 Myself	2.43	1.215	.072
	24.2	24.2 Manager	2.45	1.096	.278
	24.3	24.3 HR / Training Manager	2.70	1.096	.189
PPC	25	When I have problems at home, my performance at work is affected negatively.	2.96	1.185	.053
	26	I have good relationship with the majority of my family and friends	1.55	.623	.243
	27	My life's hard personal experience makes me more determined to achieve more at work.	2.02	.978	.243
	28	I believe that my cultural background is good.	1.56	.684	.325
	29	My culture affects the way I work in my organisation.	1.86	.919	.285
OJPC	30	When I am working on something new or creative I will tell my colleagues about it.	2.08	.911	.192
	31	When I have problems at work, it affects me negatively at home.	2.80	1.188	.036

	32	I am committed to my organisation.	1.78	.871	.266
	33.1	**I mostly tend to work better than:** 33.1 Employees who are from the same country as mine.	2.18	.917	.201
	33.2	33.2 Employees who come from different country than mine.	2.43	.974	.171
	34.1	**At work I like to:** 34.1 Work alone	2.77	1.141	.107
	34.2	34.2 Work with others or work with a team	2.01	.867	.182
	34.3	34.3 Socialize with others	1.73	.751	.254
	35.1	**I am happy with my:** 35.1 Colleagues' behaviour towards me.	2.06	.896	.294
	35.2	35.2 Manager treatment of me.	2.09	1.023	.264
	35.3	35.3 Employees performance	2.27	.856	.344
	35.4	35.4 Own current knowledge	2.01	.833	.422
	35.5	35.5 Skills	1.87	.764	.397
	35.6	35.6 Organisational education for me	2.58	1.057	.409
	35.7	35.7 Organisational training for me	2.60	1.053	.398
	35.8	35.8 Organisational environment	2.34	1.024	.322
	35.9	35.9 Myself	1.80	.779	.371
	35.10	35.10 Current job in general	2.09	.933	.300
	36.1	**Sometimes I work less than what I am capable of, because:** 36.1 I know that if I work less, they will still pay me my salary anyways.	3.66	1.231	.058
	36.2	36.2 I was mistreated by the manager or the organisation	3.25	1.290	.145
	36.3	36.3 I do not care since my hard work was not appreciated.	3.41	1.256	.115
	36.4	36.4 Not sure	3.44	.977	.141
	36.5	36.5 I always worked as hard as I can	1.84	.889	.196
	37.1	**The following motivates me to work harder at work and seek competency:** 37.1 My personnel culture	1.73	.819	.279
	37.2	37.2 Myself	1.55	.673	.385
	37.3	37.3 Living happy personnel life	1.75	.782	.389

	37.4	37.4 Living hard personnel life	3.34	1.137	.158
	37.5	37.5 Family encouragement	2.03	.897	.470
	37.6	37.6 Working environment	2.08	1.002	.372
	37.7	37.7 Being empowered or promoted	1.86	.864	.398
	37.8	37.8 Receiving education and training	1.92	.867	.388
	38.1	**If I was offered another job by another organisation then the reason for leaving would be:** 38.1 Because I'm an active person who likes to work and there is not much work to do at my current job.	2.79	1.280	.253
	38.2	38.2 Because I will have a better opportunity to be recognized (salary or position).	1.90	1.007	.271
	38.3	38.3 Because they did not treat me fairly at my current job.	3.00	1.233	.250
	38.4	38.4 Because I'm having problems with my manager or colleagues in my current job.	3.28	1.227	.238
	38.5	38.5 Because of some or all of the mentioned above.	2.88	1.106	.182
	39	When my colleagues work hard, that makes me work harder to be more competitive than they are	1.84	.883	.337
	40	My organisation is developing my personal characteristics (For example, providing me with courses such as time management, how to deal with others ...etc.)	2.58	1.182	.327
	41	I **always** follow my manager's instructions	1.98	.859	.240
PE	42.1	**Other employees will treat me better if I am:** 42.1 From the same cultural back ground	2.57	1.167	.559
	42.2	42.2 From the same department	2.59	1.084	.595
	42.3	42.3 Not a threat to them because I have different interests.	2.43	1.063	.381
	43	Our personal culture is conservative as it does not encourage us to work with others from different cultures (different country).	3.51	1.122	.342
OJE	44	My organisation or manager provided me with my job description manual (duties and rights)	2.50	1.105	.251
	45	My job requirements are clear to me.	2.10	.917	.263
	46	The Organisational rules and regulations are fair.	2.63	1.144	.309
	47	The Organisational rules and regulations effect the way I work	2.36	.982	.215
	48	I consider my work as routine	2.59	1.174	.203

	49	My rewards are fair	2.84	1.172	.315
	50	My promotions are fair	2.95	1.178	.329
	51	At the end of the year, if my manager assess me less than what I believe I deserve, then my performance will be affected negatively	2.58	1.201	.253
	52.1	**In my organisation, I will be promoted based on:** 52.1 My competencies	2.21	1.155	.236
	52.2	52.2 Manager recommendation	2.24	1.061	.252
	52.3	52.3 Years of experience	2.43	1.137	.250
	52.4	52.4 Nepotism	2.84	1.305	.178
	52.5	52.5 Mutual Favour-giving	2.93	1.267	.193
	53	In my organisation I know that an employee was promoted because of Nepotism	2.44	1.280	.124
	54	I have been hired for this job through someone's connections	3.33	1.343	.282
	55	I have helped other employees to be hired or promoted	3.45	1.191	.275
	56	Nepotism may be good in some cases	2.44	1.193	.287
	57	Nepotism negatively effects employees' behaviour at work	1.93	1.010	.140
	58	Our organisation is trying to provide us with good working environment	2.43	1.072	.259
	59	I'm afraid to lose my job	3.18	1.230	.260
	60	I feel insecure regarding my job status (demotion)or losing my power	2.94	1.229	.289
	61	I think that Kuwaitis have job security	2.09	1.093	.153
	62	I think that non-Kuwaitis have job security	3.17	1.130	.174
	63	I belong to a certain group in the organisation, where we help and take care of each other.	2.69	1.145	.325
	64	Belonging to a certain group is beneficial to me	2.58	1.156	.341
Comp	65	In my organisation, the concept or the meaning of (work competency) is clear to me	2.39	1.064	.498
	66.1	**The following individuals are competent at work:** 66.1 Myself	1.80	.709	.346
	66.2	66.2 My colleagues	2.05	.743	.518
	66.3	66.3 My manager	2.08	.961	.560
	66.4	66.4 My employees	2.41	.805	.481

	67.1	**The following individuals are contributing to developing my competency:** 67.1 Myself (by motivating myself)	1.64	.718	.307
	67.2	67.2 My colleagues	2.18	.877	.481
	67.3	67.3 My manager	2.33	1.052	.615
	67.4	67.4 My Organisational policies	2.64	1.028	.607
	67.5	67.5 My working environment	2.41	1.002	.628
	68	I believe that employees, who work for 10 years or more in their current job, are more competent than those who worked for less than 10 years.	2.73	1.232	.174
HRM	69	The role of HRM in my organisation is essential for developing my competencies at work	2.46	1.047	.376
	70	My managers should be given more power in order to control work and employees	2.54	1.105	.376
KM	71	My organisation practices KM.	2.89	1.012	.410
	72	Upper management practice knowledge sharing	2.94	.994	.429
	73	We combine our knowledge through meeting, telephone or e-mail	2.49	1.041	.432
	74	We use metaphor and models when discussing problems.	2.65	1.000	.439
	75	We help each other to learn by demonstrating how to do something	2.14	.915	.407
	76	Our organisation encourages team work.	2.26	1.003	.454
	77	Knowledge is being stored in the Organisational data base	2.58	1.078	.456
	78	Our organisation encourages us to share knowledge in order to create new concept, solution, product etc.	2.55	1.056	.515
	79	I gained my knowledge mostly from teachers and trainers.	2.61	1.007	.327
	80	I gained my knowledge mostly by myself.	2.05	.830	.188
	81.1	**I will share my knowledge with:** 81.1 My manager	2.09	.973	.322
	81.2	81.2 colleagues in the same department	1.83	.719	.285
	81.3	81.3 Employees from the same cultural back ground (from the same country)	2.35	1.005	.216
	81.4	81.4 Those who helped me before	1.98	.799	.329
	81.5	81.5 Those who I will benefit from	2.03	.856	.381
	81.6	81.6 Everyone in general	2.13	.904	.243

	81.7	81.7 As few employees as possible with the least possible information	3.67	1.010	.098
	82.1	**I do not want to share my knowledge with others in fear of:** 82.1 They will use my ideas for their own benefit	3.34	1.170	.316
	82.2	82.2 Delaying my promotion	3.57	1.097	.388
	82.3	82.3 losing my job	3.65	1.059	.406
	82.4	82.4 To be used against me	3.47	1.152	.374
	82.5	82.5 Others will not find it good enough	3.54	1.063	.325
	83.1	**I share my knowledge with other employees when:** 83.1 There is a problem that we need to be solve	1.74	.721	.241
	83.2	83.2 There is a new project	1.76	.710	.260
	83.3	83.3 My manager asks me to	1.88	.786	.265
	83.4	83.4 Only when I have to	3.23	1.111	.222
	83.5	83.5 I don't share my knowledge at all with any one	4.05	.928	.196
	84.1	**I believe sharing my knowledge could be beneficial to:** 84.1 Other employees	1.79	.763	.271
	84.2	84.2 My organisation	1.78	.744	.290
	84.3	84.3 Myself	1.79	.810	.230
	85	If I need to know something then I am willing to ask others for their knowledge	1.65	.685	.152
	86	Employees usually ask me for knowledge but they are not willing to share their knowledge with me	2.91	1.090	.132

The second group that contains items less than 10 are: PED with inter-item correlation value of 0.23, OJED with inter-item correlation value of 0.36, PT with inter-item correlation value of 0.38, PPC with inter-item correlation value of .23, PE with inter-item correlation value of 0.47, and HRM with inter-item correlation value of 0.376. All these have the value of more than 0.20, therefore they are acceptable and considered reliable (Hair et al., 2013).

Reliability is necessary; however it is not sufficient for validity (Hair et al., 2013). Therefore the next step is to investigate the validity of the research items (Appendix D-13).

Appendix D-13: Validity

Validity is whether an instrument is actually able to measure what it is designed to measure. There is no specific measurement used for validity. For an instrument to be valid it has to be reliable first (Pallant, 2013).

There are different kinds of validity measurements, one of which can be empirically measured through the correlation of the theoretically defined sets of constructs (Hair et al., 2013). According to Campbell & Fiske (1959) and Peter (1981), there are three widely accepted validity tests:

1- Convergent validity. Also called criterion validity (Zikmund et al., 2012), is the degree to which two measurements from the same concept are correlated. The higher the value is, the more correlated they are.

2- Discriminant validity. This is the degree to which two concepts are conceptually distinct. The lower the value is the better.

3- Nomological validity. This is the degree of the accuracy of the scale, to make accurate prediction of the other concepts in the model. It involves identifying the theoretical relationships found in the literature review, and then assess whether the scale has corresponding relationships (Hair et al., 2013).

Field (2013a) and Pallant (2013) identify three other kinds of validity; criterion validity, content validity and construct validity. Criterion validity is whether the instrument is actually measuring what it intends to measure. It is the relationship between the scale scores and the some measurable criterion. Content validity is whether an individual item represents the construct being measured and fully covers the measured construct. It is the adequacy of the scale or measurement to sample from the universe of content. Construct validity is test of the scale against the theoretical hypotheses that concerns the underlying variable or construct. It is measured by investigating its relationship with others constructs, through convergent validity and discriminant validity. According to Garver & Mentzer (1999), for the

measurement scale to possess construct validity it has to possess content validity first, no matter what statistical analysis indicates.

In this study, the content validity is extracted through rigorous analysis of the interviewees' questionnaire (See Chapter 5, Section 5.6.6). In the first stage, since the interviewee questionnaire was exploratory in its nature and some of the interviewees' answers were inconclusive, the researcher first developed a more rigorous survey questionnaire to be taken to a larger scale of population and to confirm the research findings through triangulation. The second stage was to present the survey questionnaire to two expert faculty in HRM and linguistic in Kuwait University. They suggested few changes that the researcher did. The pilot study was the third stage to confirm the reliability and the validity of the research measurement instrument (See Appendix D-1 and D-2).

Construct validity can be measured through convergent validity, discriminant validity and nomological validity (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Peter, 1981). In this study, construct validity was measured using convergent validity. It was conducted through reliability testing (Table D-12.1). SPSS output revealed the majority of the items are correlated with each other. However, several items do not correlate with the other items (See Table D-12.2). One way to increase the convergent validity is to delete the low value items. However, the researcher retained these items for further investigation.

Appendix D-14: Respondents Demographic Data

Table D-14.1: Demographic Data of the Respondents.

	Demographic Data		Frequency	Percent
1	Gender	Male	329	43.1
		Female	434	56.9
2	Age	≤ 18	2	.3
		19 – 29	263	34.5
		30 – 39	255	33.4
		40 – 49	176	23.1
		50 ≥	66	8.7
3	Marital Status	Single	236	30.9
		Married	461	60.4
		Divorce	46	6.0
		Widow	6	.8
		Other	10	1.3
4	Nationality	Kuwaiti	588	77.1
		Arabian	139	18.2
		Non Arabian	36	4.7
5	Educational Level	Below High School	21	2.8
		High School	59	7.7
		Two years Diploma	184	24.1
		Bachelor Degree	417	54.7
		Master	70	9.2
		PhD	12	1.6
6	High School Education Obtained in	Kuwaiti Governmental Schools	571	74.8
		Private Schools	84	11.0
		Outside Kuwait	99	13.0
		Not Applicable	9	1.2
7	University Obtained in	Kuwait	409	53.6
		Arabic Countries	119	15.6
		Non Arabic Countries	88	11.5
		Not Applicable	147	19.3

8	Work Experience	0 – 5	239	31.3
		6 – 15	289	37.9
		16 – 25	170	22.3
		26 – 35	48	6.3
		More than 36	17	2.2

9	Job Position	Top Management	34	4.5
		Middle Management	232	30.4
		Regular employees	497	65.1

10	Organisational Sector	Education	130	17.0
		Oil	78	10.2
		Banking	77	10.1
		Medical	32	4.2
		Military	51	6.7
		Other (Specify)	395	51.8

11	Organisational Domain	Governmental	490	64.2
		Private	207	27.1
		Joint Venture	50	6.6
		Not Sure	16	2.1

12	Province	Capital	272	35.6
		Hawalli	230	30.1
		Farwaniya	111	14.5
		Mubarak Al-Kabeer	63	8.3
		Al-Ahmadi	52	6.8
		Al-Jahra	23	3.0
		Not Sure	12	1.6

Table D-14.2: Demographic Data of the Respondents' Job.

| QN	Demographic Data		Frequency	Percent
87	Usually work ideas and decisions are made by	Top-down management	411	53.9
		Middle-up-down management	290	38.0
		Bottom-up management	59	7.7
88	Competency should be considered as the work standard of	Minimal acceptable performance	35	4.6
		Maximum acceptable performance	215	28.2
		Individuals' attributes	21	2.8
		A Combination of all	460	60.3
		Not Sure	32	4.2
89	I have taken training courses	Twice or more a year	227	29.9
		Once a year	188	24.8
		Once In several years	182	23.9
		Did not receive any training courses	131	17.2
		Not sure	31	4.1
90	To get promoted, I will	Do anything, including things that I consider unethical	19	2.5
		Do anything as long as they are right.	612	80.2
		Not interested to get promoted	75	9.8
		Other	54	7.1
91	I prefer to work in	Private sector	196	25.7
		Government sector	247	32.4
		Stay where I am	141	18.5
		Any other job with at least the same salary and position	140	18.3
		Not sure	39	5.1
92	The most important kind of reward for me is	Non-financial	47	6.2
		Financial	52	6.8
		Both	660	86.5
		Not sure	1	0.1
		Other	3	0.4
93	The nature of work I prefer to do is	Lots of work *most* of the time.	248	32.5
		Minor work *most* of the time.	37	4.8
		A mix of work and breaks (50% to 50%)	458	60.0
		I prefer to stay at home.	12	1.6
		Not sure	7	0.9

94	If my manager was unjust to me, then	I will work the same way as I am	243	31.8
		Work less or carelessly	117	15.3
		Work harder to prove myself.	258	33.8
		Leave work	30	3.9
		I'm not sure how I will act	115	15.1

95	My assessment or evaluation is executed by my	Manager	610	79.9
		HRM	42	5.5
		Other	41	5.4
		Not sure	54	7.1
		Not applicable	16	2.1

96	My reward determined by my	Manager	471	61.7
		HRM	89	11.7
		Other	56	7.3
		Not sure	102	13.4
		Not applicable	45	5.9

97	My promotion is determined by my	Manager	473	62.0
		HRM	73	9.6
		Other	67	8.8
		Not sure	103	13.5
		Not applicable	47	6.2

Appendix D-15: AMOS Correlation of CFA Factors.
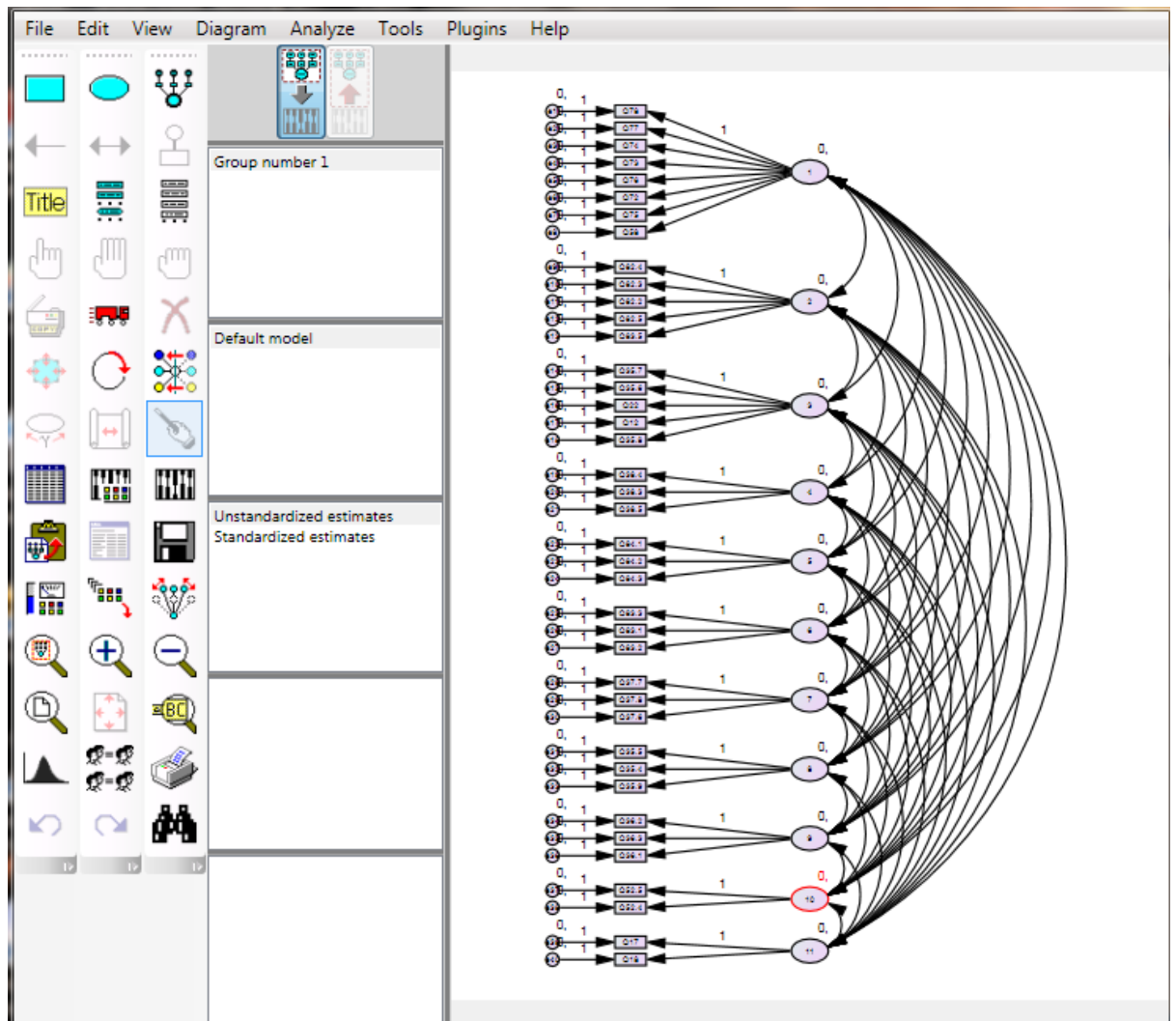
Appendix D-16: MANOVA

MANOVA multivariate tests

Multivariate Tests[d]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.959	1690.157[a]	10.000	716.000	.000	.959	16901.575	1.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.041	1690.157[a]	10.000	716.000	.000	.959	16901.575	1.000
	Hotelling's Trace	23.606	1690.157[a]	10.000	716.000	.000	.959	16901.575	1.000
	Roy's Largest Root	23.606	1690.157[a]	10.000	716.000	.000	.959	16901.575	1.000
MeanComp	Pillai's Trace	1.150	2.546	370.000	7250.000	.000	.115	941.835	1.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.245	2.943	370.000	6952.433	.000	.131	1050.456	1.000
	Hotelling's Trace	1.817	3.507	370.000	7142.000	.000	.154	1297.680	1.000
	Roy's Largest Root	1.136	22.258[c]	37.000	725.000	.000	.532	823.556	1.000

a. Exact statistic

b. Computed using alpha = .05

c. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

d. Design: Intercept + MeanComp

Appendix D-17: Questions Percentages and Cross-tabulation

Q.37 "*The following motivates me to work harder at work and seek competency*"

Table D-17.1: Responses for Survey Question Number 37.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
37.1 My personnel culture	643	84.3	75	9.8	32	4.2
37.2 Myself	709	92.9	40	5.2	11	1.4
37.3 Living happy personnel life	650	85.2	91	11.9	20	2.6
37.4 Living hard personnel life	152	19.9	258	33.8	350	45.9
37.5 Family encouragement	546	71.6	167	21.9	43	5.6
37.6 Working environment	543	71.2	143	18.7	75	9.8
37.7 Being empowered or promoted	625	81.9	102	13.4	34	4.5
37.8 Receiving education and training	613	80.3	110	14.4	38	5.0

Q.67 "*The following individuals are contributing to developing my competency*"

Table D-17.2: Responses for Survey Question Number Q.67.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
67.1 Myself (by motivating myself)	697	91.3	46	6.0	17	2.2
67.2 My colleagues	549	72.0	151	19.8	60	7.9
67.3 My manager	493	64.6	153	20.1	112	14.7
67.4 My Organisational policies	370	48.5	243	31.8	143	18.7
67.5 My working environment	468	61.3	186	24.4	104	13.6

Q. 36 "*Sometimes I work less than what I am capable of, because*"

Table D-17.3: Responses for Survey Question Number 36.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
36.1 I know that if I work less, they will still pay me my salary anyways.	148	19.4	126	16.5	487	63.8
36.2 I was mistreated by the manager or the organisation	225	29.5	164	21.5	373	48.9
36.3 I do not care since my hard work was not appreciated.	192	25.2	155	20.3	414	54.3
36.4 Not sure	87	11.4	335	43.9	277	36.3
36.5 I always worked as hard as I can	625	81.9	87	11.4	44	5.8

Q. 65 "*In my organisation, the concept or the meaning of (work competency) is clear to me*"

Table D-17.4: Responses for Survey Question Number 65.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
65. In my organisation, the concept or the meaning of (work competency) is clear to me	501	65.7	128	16.8	128	16.8

Q.66 "*The following individuals are competent at work*".

Table D-17.5: Responses for Survey Question Number 66.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
66.1 Myself	670	87.8	75	9.8	16	2.1
66.2 My colleagues	608	79.7	121	15.9	31	4.1
66.3 My manager	578	75.8	110	14.4	64	8.4
66.4 My employees	400	52.4	316	41.4	38	5.0

The following four tables are the cross-tabulation of question 66 main question "The following individuals are competent at work". Each of following four tables represents a sub question (Table D-17.6 to Table D-17.9).

Table D-17.6: Q.66.1 Myself

<div align="center">Crosstab</div>

			Q66.1_Comp_3			
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Total
WorkExp	0 - 5	Count	192	39	8	239
		% within WorkExp	80.3%	16.3%	3.3%	100.0%
	6 - 15	Count	264	21	3	288
		% within WorkExp	91.7%	7.3%	1.0%	100.0%
	16 - 25	Count	157	9	3	169
		% within WorkExp	92.9%	5.3%	1.8%	100.0%
	26 - 35	Count	40	6	2	48
		% within WorkExp	83.3%	12.5%	4.2%	100.0%
	More than 36	Count	17	0	0	17
		% within WorkExp	100.0%	.0%	.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	670	75	16	761
		% within WorkExp	88.0%	9.9%	2.1%	100.0%

Table D-17.7: Q.66.2 My Colleagues

Crosstab

| | | | Q66.2_Comp_3 | | | |
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Total
WorkExp	0 – 5	Count	197	33	9	239
		% within WorkExp	82.4%	13.8%	3.8%	100.0%
	6 – 15	Count	227	46	15	288
		% within WorkExp	78.8%	16.0%	5.2%	100.0%
	16 – 25	Count	133	31	4	168
		% within WorkExp	79.2%	18.5%	2.4%	100.0%
	26 – 35	Count	37	8	3	48
		% within WorkExp	77.1%	16.7%	6.3%	100.0%
	More than 36	Count	14	3	0	17
		% within WorkExp	82.4%	17.6%	.0%	100.0%
		% within Q66.2_Comp_3	2.3%	2.5%	.0%	2.2%
		% of Total	1.8%	.4%	.0%	2.2%
Total		Count	608	121	31	760
		% within WorkExp	80.0%	15.9%	4.1%	100.0%

Table D-17.8: Q.66.3 My Manager

Crosstab

| | | | Q66.3_Comp_3 | | | |
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Total
WorkExp	0 - 5	Count	191	26	20	237
		% within WorkExp	80.6%	11.0%	8.4%	100.0%
	6 - 15	Count	214	42	28	284
		% within WorkExp	75.4%	14.8%	9.9%	100.0%
	16 - 25	Count	127	28	12	167
		% within WorkExp	76.0%	16.8%	7.2%	100.0%
	26 - 35	Count	34	11	2	47
		% within WorkExp	72.3%	23.4%	4.3%	100.0%
	More than 36	Count	12	3	2	17
		% within WorkExp	70.6%	17.6%	11.8%	100.0%
Total		Count	578	110	64	752
		% within WorkExp	76.9%	14.6%	8.5%	100.0%

505

Table D-17.9: Q.66.4 My Employee

Crosstab

			Q66.4_Comp_3			Total
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
WorkExp	0 - 5	Count	104	118	15	237
		% within WorkExp	43.9%	49.8%	6.3%	100.0%
	6 - 15	Count	154	119	13	286
		% within WorkExp	53.8%	41.6%	4.5%	100.0%
	16 - 25	Count	105	58	5	168
		% within WorkExp	62.5%	34.5%	3.0%	100.0%
	26 - 35	Count	28	15	5	48
		% within WorkExp	58.3%	31.3%	10.4%	100.0%
	More than 36	Count	9	6	0	15
		% within WorkExp	60.0%	40.0%	.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	400	316	38	754
		% within WorkExp	53.1%	41.9%	5.0%	100.0%

Q.3 "*Prior education helps me to perform my job*".

Q.1 "*I'm working in the same field as my prior education*".

Table D-17.10: Responses for Survey Question Number 3 and 1.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
3. Prior education helps me to perform my job	538	70.5	119	15.6	101	13.2
1. I'm working in the same field as my prior education.	452	59.2	107	14.0	200	26.2

Table D-17.11: Correlation between Q.1 and Q.3.

Q1_PED_3 * Q3_PED_3 Cross-tabulation

			Q3_PED_3			
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Total
Q1_PED_3	Agree	Count	375	55	19	449
		% within Q1_PED_3	83.5%	12.2%	4.2%	100.0%
	Neutral	Count	66	27	13	106
		% within Q1_PED_3	62.3%	25.5%	12.3%	100.0%
	Disagree	Count	93	37	69	199
		% within Q1_PED_3	46.7%	18.6%	34.7%	100.0%
Total		Count	534	119	101	754
		% within Q1_PED_3	70.8%	15.8%	13.4%	100.0%
		% of Total	70.8%	15.8%	13.4%	100.0%

Table D-17.12: Cross-tabulation between Educational Level and Q.1

Q.1 is "I'm working in the same field as my prior education".

Crosstab

			Q1_PED_3			
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Total
EdLevel	Below High School	Count	8	6	6	20
		% within EdLevel	40.0%	30.0%	30.0%	100.0%
	High School	Count	22	16	20	58
		% within EdLevel	37.9%	27.6%	34.5%	100.0%
	Two years Diploma	Count	99	28	55	182
		% within EdLevel	54.4%	15.4%	30.2%	100.0%
	Bachelor Degree	Count	264	47	106	417
		% within EdLevel	63.3%	11.3%	25.4%	100.0%
	Master	Count	48	9	13	70
		% within EdLevel	68.6%	12.9%	18.6%	100.0%
	PhD	Count	11	1	0	12
		% within EdLevel	91.7%	8.3%	.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	452	107	200	759
		% within EdLevel	59.6%	14.1%	26.4%	100.0%

Table D-17.13: Cross-tabulation between Educational Level and Q.3

Q.3 is "Prior education helps me to perform my job".

Crosstab

			Q3_PED_3 Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Total
EdLevel	Below High School	Count	13	3	5	21
		% within EdLevel	61.9%	14.3%	23.8%	100.0%
	High School	Count	34	9	15	58
		% within EdLevel	58.6%	15.5%	25.9%	100.0%
	Two years Diploma	Count	108	39	34	181
		% within EdLevel	59.7%	21.5%	18.8%	100.0%
	Bachelor Degree	Count	313	59	44	416
		% within EdLevel	75.2%	14.2%	10.6%	100.0%
	Master	Count	59	8	3	70
		% within EdLevel	84.3%	11.4%	4.3%	100.0%
	PhD	Count	11	1	0	12
		% within EdLevel	91.7%	8.3%	.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	538	119	101	758
		% within EdLevel	71.0%	15.7%	13.3%	100.0%

Table D-17.14: Responses for Survey Question Number 4 and 5.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.4 In my opinion majors such as **chemist, doctors, engineers**... etc., does have an effect on individual's competency at work.	480	62.9	170	22.3	112	14.7
Q.5 In my opinion majors such as **business, secretary, history**... etc., does have an effect on individual's competency at work.	511	67.0	157	20.6	94	12.3

Table D-17.15: Responses for Survey Question Number 2.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.2 When I was in school, teachers were competent at their teaching	580	76.0	118	15.5	62	8.1

Table D-17.16: Educational Level Correlating with Teachers' Competency.

EdLevel * Q2_PED_3 Cross-tabulation

			Q2_PED_3			
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Total
EdLevel	Below High School	Count	15	2	4	21
		% within EdLevel	71.4%	9.5%	19.0%	100.0%
	High School	Count	46	7	6	59
		% within EdLevel	78.0%	11.9%	10.2%	100.0%
	Two years Diploma	Count	118	43	21	182
		% within EdLevel	64.8%	23.6%	11.5%	100.0%
	Bachelor Degree	Count	332	57	27	416
		% within EdLevel	79.8%	13.7%	6.5%	100.0%
	Master	Count	59	7	4	70
		% within EdLevel	84.3%	10.0%	5.7%	100.0%
	PhD	Count	10	2	0	12
		% within EdLevel	83.3%	16.7%	.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	580	118	62	760
		% within EdLevel	76.3%	15.5%	8.2%	100.0%

Table D-17.17: Responses for Survey Question Number 10.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.10 At work I received education that helps me to perform better at work	550	72.1	122	16.0	90	11.8

Table D-17.18: Responses for Survey Question Number 89.

Survey Question	Two or more a year		Once a year		Once in several years		Did not receive any		Not sure	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q. 89 I have taken training courses	227	29.8	188	24.6	182	23.9	131	17.2	31	4.1

Table D-17.19: Cross-tabulation between Number of Training Received and Q.10

Q.10 is "At work I received education that helps me to perform better at work".

Q89_OJT_Training_obtained * Q10_OJED_3 Cross-tabulation

			Q10_OJED_3			Total
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
Q89_OJT_Training_obtained	Twice or more a year	Count	186	25	15	226
		% within Q89_OJT_Training_obtained	82.3%	11.1%	6.6%	100.0%
	Once a year	Count	148	28	12	188
		% within Q89_OJT_Training_obtained	78.7%	14.9%	6.4%	100.0%
	Once In several years	Count	114	37	31	182
		% within Q89_OJT_Training_obtained	62.6%	20.3%	17.0%	100.0%
	Did not receive any training courses	Count	75	28	28	131
		% within Q89_OJT_Training_obtained	57.3%	21.4%	21.4%	100.0%
	Not sure	Count	25	3	3	31
		% within Q89_OJT_Training_obtained	80.6%	9.7%	9.7%	100.0%
Total		Count	548	121	89	758
		% within Q89_OJT_Training_obtained	72.3%	16.0%	11.7%	100.0%

510

Table D-17.20: Responses for Survey Question Number 9.

Survey Question: **At work, I prefer to receive education through**	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
9.1 Courses	657	86.1	63	8.3	41	5.4
9.2 Colleagues	544	71.3	148	19.4	66	8.7
9.3 Managers	470	61.6	187	24.5	99	13.0

Table D-17.21: Responses for Survey Question Number 12.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.12 My organisation is providing me with sufficient education to be competent at work.	398	52.2	167	21.9	197	25.8

Table D-17.22: Responses for Survey Question Number 11.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.11 I can access the organisational data base and learn from it.	376	49.3	204	26.7	181	23.7

Table D-17.23: Responses for Survey Question Number 13.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.13 Prior training helps me to perform my job.	488	64.0%	169	22.1%	106	13.9%

Table D-17.24: Responses for Survey Question Number 14.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.14 Training at Kuwaiti school _is_ linked with the market needs or work expectation	176	23.1	303	39.7	284	37.2

Table D-17.25: Correlation between Q.13 and Q.14.

Q14_PT_3 * Q13_PT_3 Cross-tabulation

			Q13_PT_3			Total
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
Q14_PT_3	Agree	Count	153	16	7	176
		% within Q14_PT_3	86.9%	9.1%	4.0%	100.0%
	Neutral	Count	196	88	19	303
		% within Q14_PT_3	64.7%	29.0%	6.3%	100.0%
	Disagree	Count	139	65	80	284
		% within Q14_PT_3	48.9%	22.9%	28.2%	100.0%
Total		Count	488	169	106	763
		% within Q14_PT_3	64.0%	22.1%	13.9%	100.0%

Table D-17.26: Responses for Survey Question Number 15 and 16.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.15 The more training the employee receives in majors such as chemist, doctors, engineers..., the more competent they will be at work.	589	77.2	131	17.2	43	5.6
Q.16 The more training the employee in majors such as business, secretary, history..., the more competent they will be at work.	618	81.0	104	13.6	41	5.4

Table D-17.27: Responses for Survey Question Number 17 and 18.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.17 The training I received at work is relevant to my job need	566	74.2	125	16.4	71	9.3
Q.18 The skills I gained from training make me competent at work.	589	77.2	134	17.6	39	5.1

512

Table D-17.28: Correlation between Q.17 and Q.18.

Q17_OJT_3 * Q18_OJT_3 Cross-tabulation

			Q18_OJT_3			
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Total
Q17_OJT_3	Agree	Count	529	35	1	565
		% within Q17_OJT_3	93.6%	6.2%	.2%	100.0%
	Neutral	Count	42	77	6	125
		% within Q17_OJT_3	33.6%	61.6%	4.8%	100.0%
	Disagree	Count	17	22	32	71
		% within Q17_OJT_3	23.9%	31.0%	45.1%	100.0%
Total		Count	588	134	39	761
		% within Q17_OJT_3	77.3%	17.6%	5.1%	100.0%

Table D-17.29: Cross-tabulation between Number of Training Received and Q.17

Q.17 is "The training I received at work is relevant to my job need".

Crosstab

			Q17_OJT_3			
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Total
Q89_OJT_Training_obtained	Twice or more a year	Count	187	30	9	226
		% within Q17_OJT_3	33.2%	24.2%	12.7%	29.8%
	Once a year	Count	151	20	17	188
		% within Q17_OJT_3	26.8%	16.1%	23.9%	24.8%
	Once In several years	Count	134	31	17	182
		% within Q17_OJT_3	23.8%	25.0%	23.9%	24.0%
	Did not receive any training courses	Count	68	38	25	131
		% within Q17_OJT_3	12.1%	30.6%	35.2%	17.3%
	Not sure	Count	23	5	3	31
		% within Q17_OJT_3	4.1%	4.0%	4.2%	4.1%
Total		Count	563	124	71	758
		% within Q17_OJT_3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

513

Table D-17.30: Cross-tabulation between Number of Training Received and Q.18

Q.18 is "The skills I gained from training make me competent at work".

Crosstab

			Q18_OJT_3			Total
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
Q89_OJT_Training_obtained	Twice or more a year	Count	195	30	2	227
		% within Q18_OJT_3	33.3%	22.6%	5.1%	29.9%
	Once a year	Count	151	26	11	188
		% within Q18_OJT_3	25.8%	19.5%	28.2%	24.8%
	Once In several years	Count	142	31	9	182
		% within Q18_OJT_3	24.2%	23.3%	23.1%	24.0%
	Did not receive any training courses	Count	74	45	12	131
		% within Q18_OJT_3	12.6%	33.8%	30.8%	17.3%
	Not sure	Count	24	1	5	30
		% within Q18_OJT_3	4.1%	.8%	12.8%	4.0%
Total		Count	586	133	39	758
		% within Q18_OJT_3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table D-17.31: Responses for Survey Question Number 22.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.22 My organisation is providing me with enough training to be competent at work.	354	46.4	204	26.7	203	26.6

Table D-17.32: Responses for Survey Question Number 23.

Survey Question: **To me training courses are**	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
23.1 To develop my competency need	691	90.6	51	6.7	21	2.8
23.2 Reward for my performance	491	64.4	160	21	110	14.4
23.3 Leisure or vacation	220	28.8	225	29.5	313	41
23.4 Learning experience	649	85.1	80	10.5	29	3.8
23.5 Following Organisational plans and not necessarily to develop myself.	156	20.4	108	27.3	396	51.9

Table D-17.33: Cross-tabulation between Q.23.1 and Q.17

Q.17 is "The training I received at work is relevant to my job need".

Crosstab

			Q17_OJT_3			Total
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
Q23.1_OJT_3	Agree	Count	534	98	58	690
		% within Q17_OJT_3	94.3%	78.4%	81.7%	90.6%
	Neutral	Count	23	23	5	51
		% within Q17_OJT_3	4.1%	18.4%	7.0%	6.7%
	Disagree	Count	9	4	8	21
		% within Q17_OJT_3	1.6%	3.2%	11.3%	2.8%
Total		Count	566	125	71	762
		% within Q17_OJT_3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

515

Table D-17.34: Cross-tabulation between Q.23.1 and Q.18

Q.18 is "The skills I gained from training make me competent at work".

Crosstab

			Q18_OJT_3			Total
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
Q23.1_OJT_3	Agree	Count	553	108	29	690
		% within Q18_OJT_3	93.9%	80.6%	74.4%	90.6%
	Neutral	Count	24	23	4	51
		% within Q18_OJT_3	4.1%	17.2%	10.3%	6.7%
	Disagree	Count	12	3	6	21
		% within Q18_OJT_3	2.0%	2.2%	15.4%	2.8%
Total		Count	589	134	39	762
		% within Q18_OJT_3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table D-17.35: Cross-tabulation between Q.23.3 and Q.17

Q.17 is "The training I received at work is relevant to my job need".

Crosstab

			Q17_OJT_3			Total
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
Q23.3_OJT_3	Agree	Count	153	45	22	220
		% within Q17_OJT_3	27.2%	36.0%	31.9%	29.1%
	Neutral	Count	171	35	19	225
		% within Q17_OJT_3	30.4%	28.0%	27.5%	29.7%
	Disagree	Count	239	45	28	312
		% within Q17_OJT_3	42.5%	36.0%	40.6%	41.2%
Total		Count	563	125	69	757
		% within Q17_OJT_3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

516

Table D-17.36: Cross-tabulation between Q.23.3 and Q.18

Q.18 is "The skills I gained from training make me competent at work".

Crosstab

			Q18_OJT_3			
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Total
Q23.3_OJT_3	Agree	Count	156	50	14	220
		% within Q18_OJT_3	26.6%	37.9%	35.9%	29.1%
	Neutral	Count	176	38	11	225
		% within Q18_OJT_3	30.0%	28.8%	28.2%	29.7%
	Disagree	Count	254	44	14	312
		% within Q18_OJT_3	43.3%	33.3%	35.9%	41.2%
Total		Count	586	132	39	757
		% within Q18_OJT_3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table D-17.37: Responses for Survey Question Number 19, 20, and 21.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.19 I prefer to receive training courses outside of my organisation rather than on-the-job	436	57.1	207	27.1	118	15.5
Q.20 If I do not receive the training courses I need then I will ask for it.	526	68.9	172	22.5	63	8.3
Q.21 If my employer does not send me on a training course that I need or asked for, I am willing to pay for it to develop myself.	458	60.0	165	21.6	139	18.2

Table D-17.38: Responses for Survey Question Number 24.

Survey Question: **My training courses are chosen by**	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
24.1 Myself	454	59.5	147	19.3	161	21.1
24.2 Manager	449	58.8	179	23.5	129	16.9
24.3 HR / Training Manager	340	44.6	254	33.3	166	21.8

Table D-17.39: Responses for Survey Question Number 25 to 27.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.25 When I have problems at home, my performance at work is affected negatively.	319	41.8	152	19.9	292	38.3
Q.26 I have good relationship with the majority of my family and friends	727	95.3	24	3.1	11	1.4
Q.27 My life's hard personal experience makes me more determined to achieve more at work.	551	72.2	146	19.1	66	8.7

Table D-17.40: Cross-tabulation between Gender and Q.25

Q.25 is "When I have problems at home, my performance at work is affected negatively".

Crosstab

			Q25_PPC_3			
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Total
Gender	Male	Count	172	56	101	329
		% within Q25_PPC_3	53.9%	36.8%	34.6%	43.1%
	Female	Count	147	96	191	434
		% within Q25_PPC_3	46.1%	63.2%	65.4%	56.9%
Total		Count	319	152	292	763
		% within Q25_PPC_3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table D-17.41: Cross-tabulation between Gender and Q.27

Q.27 is "My life's hard personal experience makes me more determined to achieve more at work".

Crosstab

			Q27_PPC_3			
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Total
Gender	Male	Count	257	53	19	329
		% within Q27_PPC_3	46.6%	36.3%	28.8%	43.1%
	Female	Count	294	93	47	434
		% within Q27_PPC_3	53.4%	63.7%	71.2%	56.9%
Total		Count	551	146	66	763
		% within Q27_PPC_3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

518

Table D-17.42: Cross-tabulation between Status and Q.25

Q.25 is "When I have problems at home, my performance at work is affected negatively".

Crosstab

| | | | Q25_PPC_3 | | | |
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Total
Status	Single	Count	100	51	85	236
		% within Q25_PPC_3	31.4%	33.6%	29.4%	31.1%
	Married	Count	194	84	183	461
		% within Q25_PPC_3	61.0%	55.3%	63.3%	60.7%
	Divorce	Count	18	11	17	46
		% within Q25_PPC_3	5.7%	7.2%	5.9%	6.1%
	Widow	Count	3	2	1	6
		% within Q25_PPC_3	.9%	1.3%	.3%	.8%
	Other	Count	3	4	3	10
		% within Q25_PPC_3	.9%	2.6%	1.0%	1.3%
Total		Count	318	152	289	759
		% within Q25_PPC_3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

519

Table D-17.43: Cross-tabulation between Status and Q.27

Q.27 is "My life's hard personal experience makes me more determined to achieve more at work".

Crosstab

			Q27_PPC_3			
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Total
Status	Single	Count	158	49	29	236
		% within Q27_PPC_3	28.8%	33.8%	43.9%	31.1%
	Married	Count	339	90	32	461
		% within Q27_PPC_3	61.9%	62.1%	48.5%	60.7%
	Divorce	Count	40	4	2	46
		% within Q27_PPC_3	7.3%	2.8%	3.0%	6.1%
	Widow	Count	4	1	1	6
		% within Q27_PPC_3	.7%	.7%	1.5%	.8%
	Other	Count	7	1	2	10
		% within Q27_PPC_3	1.3%	.7%	3.0%	1.3%
Total		Count	548	145	66	759
		% within Q27_PPC_3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table D-17.44: Responses for Survey Question Number 38 and 32.

Survey Question: **If I was offered another job by another organisation then the reason for leaving would be**	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
38.1 Because I'm an active person who likes to work and there is not much work to do at my current job.	314	41.2	210	27.5	236	30.9
38.2 Because I will have a better opportunity to be recognized (salary or position).	601	78.8	90	11.8	70	9.2
38.3 Because they did not treat me fairly at my current job.	258	33.8	224	29.4	279	36.6
38.4 Because I'm having problems with my manager or colleagues in my current job.	210	27.5	203	26.6	346	45.3
38.5 Because of some or all of the mentioned above.	271	35.5	235	30.8	192	25.2
Q.32 I am committed to my organisation.	647	84.8	81	10.6	33	4.3

Table D-17.45: Responses for Survey Question Number 31.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.31 When I have problems at work, it affects me negatively at home	348	45.6	189	24.8	225	29.5

Table D-17.46: Responses for Survey Question Number 35 and 40.

Survey Question: **I am happy with my**	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
35.1 Colleagues' behaviour towards me.	592	77.6	119	15.6	52	6.8
35.2 Manager treatment of me.	572	75.0	107	14.0	82	10.7
35.3 Employees performance	466	61.1	244	32.0	50	6.6
35.4 Own current knowledge	615	80.6	99	13.0	47	6.2
35.5 Skills	658	86.2	76	10.0	27	3.5
35.6 Organisational education for me	405	53.1	209	27.4	146	19.1
35.7 Organisational training for me	409	53.6	195	25.6	157	20.6
35.8 Organisational environment	511	67.0	149	19.5	99	13.0
35.9 Myself	662	86.8	70	9.2	29	3.8
35.10 Current job in general	580	76.0	112	14.7	68	8.9
Q.40 My organisation is developing my personal characteristics (For example, providing me with courses such as time management, how to deal with others ...etc.)	393	51.5	190	24.9	178	23.3

Table D-17.47: Responses for Survey Question Number 34, 39 and 30.

Survey Question: **At work I like to**	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
34.1 Work alone	347	45.5	168	22.0	246	32.2
34.2 Work with others or work with a team	603	79.0	112	14.7	47	6.2
34.3 Socialize with others	675	88.5	64	8.4	21	2.8
Q. 39 When my colleagues work hard, that makes me work harder to be more competitive than they are	629	82.4	90	11.8	42	5.5
Q.30 When I am working on something new or creative I will tell my colleagues about it.	585	76.7	114	14.9	62	8.1

Table D-17.48: Responses for Survey Question Number 41.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.41 I **always** follow my manager's instructions	609	79.8	105	13.8	41	5.4

Table D-17.49: Responses for Survey Question Number 42 and 43.

Survey Question: **Other employees will treat me better if I am**	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
42.1 From the same cultural back ground	409	53.6	181	23.7	171	22.4
42.2 From the same department	404	52.9	192	25.2	163	21.4
42.3 Not a threat to them because I have different interests.	430	56.4	207	27.1	123	16.1
Q.43 Our personal culture is conservative as it does not encourage us to work with others from different cultures (different country).	147	19.3	197	25.8	412	54.0

Table D-17.50: Responses for Survey Question Number Q.44, Q45, Q.48 and Q58.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.44 My organisation or manager provided me with my job description manual (duties and rights)	463	60.7	155	20.3	145	19.0
Q.45 My job requirements are clear to me.	606	79.4	91	11.9	65	8.5
Q.48 I consider my work as routine	415	54.4	158	20.7	188	24.6
Q.58 Our organisation is trying to provide us with good working environment	462	60.6	166	21.8	133	17.4

Table D-17.51: Responses for Survey Question Number Q.46 and Q.47.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.46 The Organisational rules and regulations are fair.	422	55.3	165	21.6	175	22.9
Q.47 The Organisational rules and regulations effect the way I work	489	64.1	171	22.4	96	12.6

Table D-17.52: Cross-tabulation between Age and Q.68

Q.68 is "I believe that employees, who work for 10 years or more in their current job, are more competent than those who worked for less than 10 years"

Age * Q68_Comp_3 Cross-tabulation

			Q68_Comp_3			Total
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
Age	Less than 19	Count	2	0	0	2
		% within Age	100.0%	.0%	.0%	100.0%
		% within Q68_Comp_3	.6%	.0%	.0%	.3%
	19 - 29	Count	109	60	94	263
		% within Age	41.4%	22.8%	35.7%	100.0%
		% within Q68_Comp_3	30.4%	34.5%	40.9%	34.5%
	30 - 39	Count	121	57	77	255
		% within Age	47.5%	22.4%	30.2%	100.0%
		% within Q68_Comp_3	33.8%	32.8%	33.5%	33.5%
	40 - 49	Count	90	43	43	176
		% within Age	51.1%	24.4%	24.4%	100.0%
		% within Q68_Comp_3	25.1%	24.7%	18.7%	23.1%
	More than 49	Count	36	14	16	66
		% within Age	54.5%	21.2%	24.2%	100.0%
		% within Q68_Comp_3	10.1%	8.0%	7.0%	8.7%
Total		Count	358	174	230	762
		% within Age	47.0%	22.8%	30.2%	100.0%
		% within Q68_Comp_3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table D-17.53: Responses for Survey Question Number Q.49 to Q.51.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.49 My rewards are fair	356	46.7	187	24.5	220	28.8
Q.50 My promotions are fair	307	40.2	210	27.5	243	31.8
Q.51 At the end of the year, if my manager assess me less than what I believe I deserve, then my performance will be affected negatively	401	52.6	168	22.0	193	25.3

524

Table D-17.54: Responses for Survey Question Number 52 and 53.

Survey Question: **In my organisation, I will be promoted based on**	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
52.1 My competencies	537	70.4	115	15.1	110	14.4
52.2 Manager recommendation	497	65.1	154	20.2	105	13.8
52.3 Years of experience	464	60.8	166	21.8	131	17.2
52.4 Nepotism	289	37.9	232	30.4	238	31.2
52.5 Mutual Favour-giving	271	35.5	235	30.8	253	33.2
Q.53 In my organisation I know that an employee was promoted because of Nepotism	393	51.5	206	27.0	161	21.1

Table D-17.55: Responses for Survey Question Number 54 to 57.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.54 I have been hired for this job through someone's connections	251	32.9	116	15.2	387	50.7
Q.55 I have helped other employees to be hired or promoted	166	21.8	208	27.3	378	49.5
Q.56 Nepotism may be good in some cases	487	63.8	136	17.8	138	18.1
Q.57 Nepotism negatively effects employees' behaviour at work	592	77.6	102	13.4	64	8.4

525

Table D-17.56: Cross-tabulation between Nationality and Q.59

Q.59 is "I'm afraid to lose my job"

Crosstab

			Q59_OJE_3			Total
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
Nationality	Kuwaiti	Count	167	158	261	586
		% within Nationality	28.5%	27.0%	44.5%	100.0%
		% within Q59_OJE_3	69.9%	79.0%	81.1%	77.0%
	Arabian	Count	63	31	45	139
		% within Nationality	45.3%	22.3%	32.4%	100.0%
		% within Q59_OJE_3	26.4%	15.5%	14.0%	18.3%
	Non Arabian	Count	9	11	16	36
		% within Nationality	25.0%	30.6%	44.4%	100.0%
		% within Q59_OJE_3	3.8%	5.5%	5.0%	4.7%
Total		Count	239	200	322	761
		% within Nationality	31.4%	26.3%	42.3%	100.0%
		% within Q59_OJE_3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table D-17.57: Cross-tabulation between Nationality and Q.60

Q.60 is "I feel insecure regarding my job status (demotion) or losing my power"

Crosstab

			Q60_OJE_3			Total
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
Nationality	Kuwaiti	Count	224	152	211	587
		% within Nationality	38.2%	25.9%	35.9%	100.0%
		% within Q60_OJE_3	76.5%	76.4%	78.1%	77.0%
	Arabian	Count	59	37	43	139
		% within Nationality	42.4%	26.6%	30.9%	100.0%
		% within Q60_OJE_3	20.1%	18.6%	15.9%	18.2%
	Non Arabian	Count	10	10	16	36
		% within Nationality	27.8%	27.8%	44.4%	100.0%
		% within Q60_OJE_3	3.4%	5.0%	5.9%	4.7%
Total		Count	293	199	270	762
		% within Nationality	38.5%	26.1%	35.4%	100.0%
		% within Q60_OJE_3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table D-17.58: Cross-tabulation between Nationality and Q.61

Q.61 is "I think that Kuwaitis have job security"

Crosstab

| | | | Q61_OJE_3 | | | |
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Total
Nationality	Kuwaiti	Count	422	78	88	588
		% within Nationality	71.8%	13.3%	15.0%	100.0%
		% within Q61_OJE_3	75.0%	81.3%	84.6%	77.1%
	Arabian	Count	114	12	13	139
		% within Nationality	82.0%	8.6%	9.4%	100.0%
		% within Q61_OJE_3	20.2%	12.5%	12.5%	18.2%
	Non Arabian	Count	27	6	3	36
		% within Nationality	75.0%	16.7%	8.3%	100.0%
		% within Q61_OJE_3	4.8%	6.3%	2.9%	4.7%
Total		Count	563	96	104	763
		% within Nationality	73.8%	12.6%	13.6%	100.0%
		% within Q61_OJE_3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table D-17.59: Cross-tabulation between Nationality and Q.62

Q.62 is "I think that non-Kuwaitis have job security"

Crosstab

| | | | Q62_OJE_3 | | | |
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Total
Nationality	Kuwaiti	Count	175	188	225	588
		% within Nationality	29.8%	32.0%	38.3%	100.0%
		% within Q62_OJE_3	82.9%	77.7%	73.3%	77.4%
	Arabian	Count	30	40	66	136
		% within Nationality	22.1%	29.4%	48.5%	100.0%
		% within Q62_OJE_3	14.2%	16.5%	21.5%	17.9%
	Non Arabian	Count	6	14	16	36
		% within Nationality	16.7%	38.9%	44.4%	100.0%
		% within Q62_OJE_3	2.8%	5.8%	5.2%	4.7%
Total		Count	211	242	307	760
		% within Nationality	27.8%	31.8%	40.4%	100.0%
		% within Q62_OJE_3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table D-17.60: Cross-tabulation between Nationality and Q.63

Q.63 is "I belong to a certain group in the organisation, where we help and take care of each other"

Crosstab

			Q63_OJE_3			Total
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
Nationality	Kuwaiti	Count	290	164	134	588
		% within Nationality	49.3%	27.9%	22.8%	100.0%
		% within Q63_OJE_3	75.5%	81.2%	76.1%	77.2%
	Arabian	Count	76	29	33	138
		% within Nationality	55.1%	21.0%	23.9%	100.0%
		% within Q63_OJE_3	19.8%	14.4%	18.8%	18.1%
	Non Arabian	Count	18	9	9	36
		% within Nationality	50.0%	25.0%	25.0%	100.0%
		% within Q63_OJE_3	4.7%	4.5%	5.1%	4.7%
Total		Count	384	202	176	762
		% within Nationality	50.4%	26.5%	23.1%	100.0%
		% within Q63_OJE_3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table D-17.61: Cross-tabulation between Nationality and Q.64

Q.64 is "Belonging to a certain group is beneficial to me"

Crosstab

			Q64_OJE_3			Total
			Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
Nationality	Kuwaiti	Count	330	142	116	588
		% within Nationality	56.1%	24.1%	19.7%	100.0%
		% within Q64_OJE_3	79.9%	72.4%	75.8%	77.2%
	Arabian	Count	71	39	28	138
		% within Nationality	51.4%	28.3%	20.3%	100.0%
		% within Q64_OJE_3	17.2%	19.9%	18.3%	18.1%
	Non Arabian	Count	12	15	9	36
		% within Nationality	33.3%	41.7%	25.0%	100.0%
		% within Q64_OJE_3	2.9%	7.7%	5.9%	4.7%
Total		Count	413	196	153	762
		% within Nationality	54.2%	25.7%	20.1%	100.0%
		% within Q64_OJE_3	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table D-17.62: Responses for Survey Question Number Q.33.

Survey Question: I mostly tend to work better than:	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
33.1 Employees who are from the same country as mine.	506	66.3	201	26.3	52	6.8
33.2 Employees who come from different country than mine.	391	51.2	282	37.0	81	10.6

Table D-17.63: Responses for Survey Question Number 71, 79 and 80.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.71 My organisation practices KM.	264	34.6	329	43.1	169	22.1
Q.79 I gained my knowledge mostly from teachers and trainers.	411	53.9	196	25.7	155	20.3
Q.80 I gained my knowledge mostly by myself.	590	77.3	127	16.6	45	5.9

Table D-17.64: Responses for Survey Question Number 73 - 75.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.73 We combine our knowledge through meeting, telephone or e-mail	456	59.8	182	23.9	125	16.4
Q.74 We use metaphor and models when discussing problems.	360	47.2	272	35.6	131	17.2
Q.75 We help each other to learn by demonstrating how to do something	569	74.6	131	17.2	63	8.3

Table D-17.65: Responses for Survey Question Number 72.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.72 Upper management practice knowledge sharing	250	32.8	317	41.5	194	25.4

Table D-17.66: Responses for Survey Question Number 78.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.78 Our organisation encourages us to share knowledge in order to create new concept, solution, product etc.	415	54.4	215	28.2	133	17.4

Table D-17.67: Responses for Survey Question Number 81 and 83.

Survey Question: I will share my knowledge with	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
81.1 My manager	568	74.4	120	15.7	74	9.7
81.2 colleagues in the same department	673	88.2	68	8.9	20	2.6
81.3 Employees from the same cultural back ground (from the same country)	476	62.4	190	24.9	94	12.3
81.4 Those who helped me before	624	81.8	100	13.1	37	4.8
81.5 Those who I will benefit from	603	79.0	111	14.5	47	6.2
81.6 Everyone in general	551	72.2	141	18.5	64	8.4
81.7 As few employees as possible with the least possible information	95	12.5	195	25.6	464	60.8
I share my knowledge with other employees when: 83.1 There is a problem that we need to be solve	683	89.5	62	8.1	17	2.2
83.2 There is a new project	689	90.3	55	7.2	17	2.2
83.3 My manager asks me to	645	84.5	85	11.1	30	3.9
83.4 Only when I have to	198	26.0	224	29.4	332	43.5
83.5 I don't share my knowledge at all with any one	49	6.4	123	16.1	585	76.7

530

Table D-17.68: Responses for Survey Question Number 82.

Survey Question: **I do not want to share my knowledge with others in fear of**	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
82.1 They will use my ideas for their own benefit	187	24.5	197	25.8	376	49.3
82.2 Delaying my promotion	126	16.5	199	26.1	435	57.0
82.3 losing my job	104	13.6	204	26.7	452	59.2
82.4 To be used against me	159	20.8	191	25.0	411	53.9
82.5 Others will not find it good enough	122	16.0	221	29.0	417	54.7

Table D-17.69: Responses for Survey Question Number 84 – 86.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
I believe sharing my knowledge could be beneficial to: 84.1 Other employees	677	88.7	60	7.9	23	3.0
84.2 My organisation	672	88.1	66	8.7	20	2.6
84.3 Myself	660	86.5	72	9.4	28	3.7
Q.85 If I need to know something then I am willing to ask others for their knowledge	705	92.4	42	5.5	13	1.7
Q.86 Employees usually ask me for knowledge but they are not willing to share their knowledge with me	291	38.1	231	30.3	238	31.2

531

Table D-17.70: Responses for Survey Question Number 69.

Survey Question	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Q.69 The role of HRM in my organisation is essential for developing my competencies at work	433	56.7	207	27.1	122	16.0