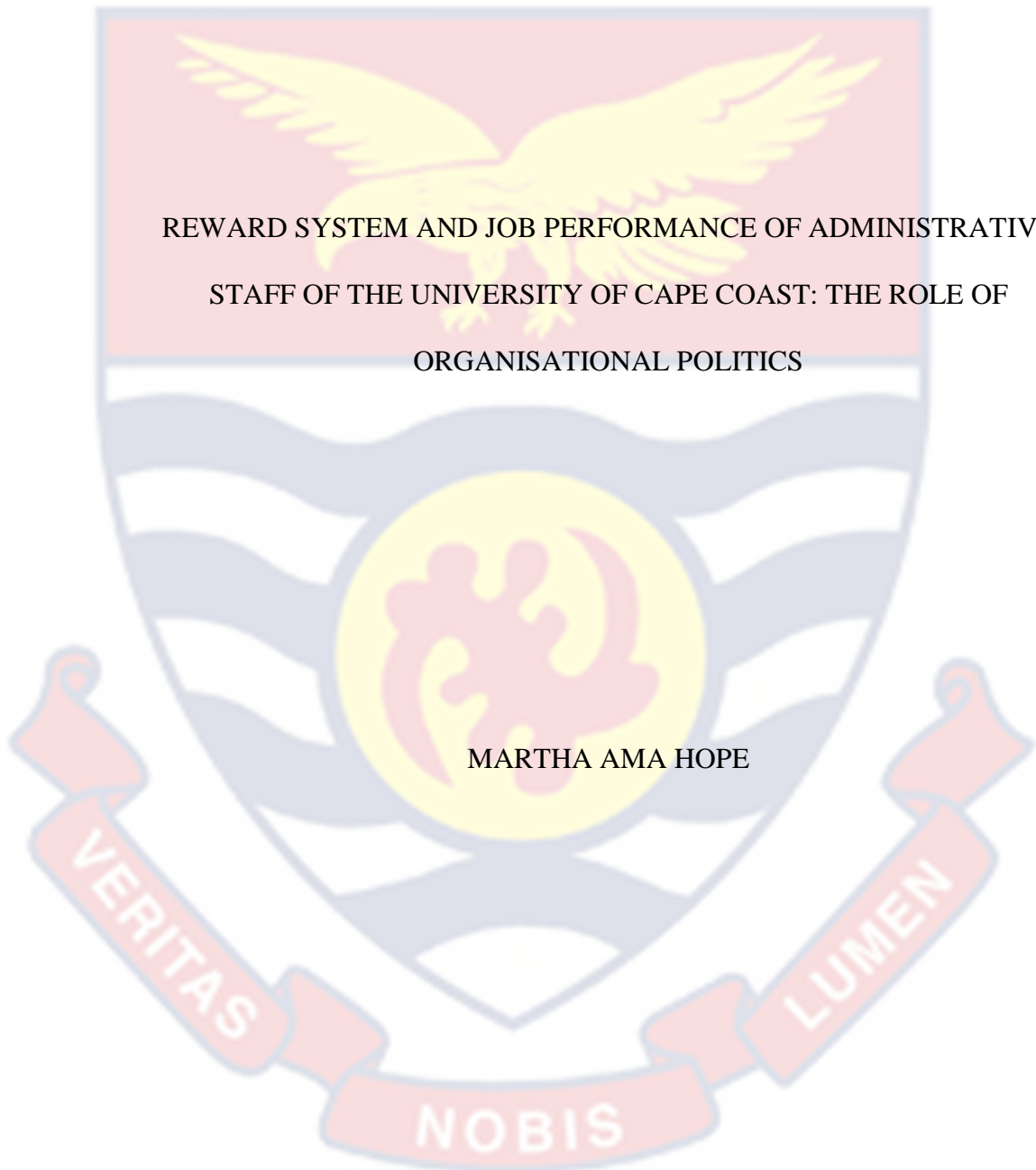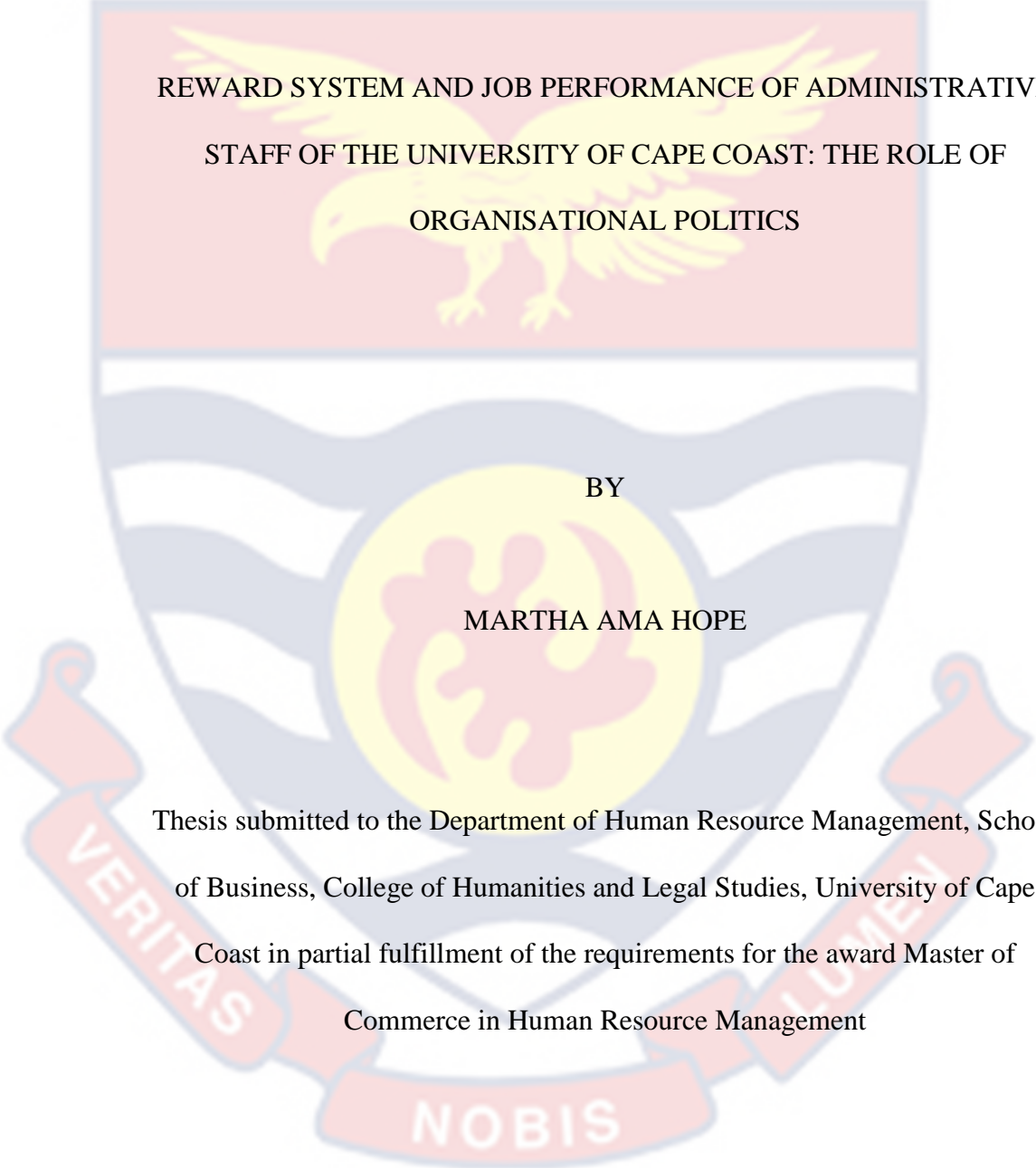UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

REWARD SYSTEM AND JOB PERFORMANCE OF ADMINISTRATIVE

STAFF OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST: THE ROLE OF

ORGANISATIONAL POLITICS

MARTHA AMA HOPE

2023

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

REWARD SYSTEM AND JOB PERFORMANCE OF ADMINISTRATIVE

STAFF OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST: THE ROLE OF

ORGANISATIONAL POLITICS

BY

MARTHA AMA HOPE

Thesis submitted to the Department of Human Resource Management, School

of Business, College of Humanities and Legal Studies, University of Cape

Coast in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award Master of

Commerce in Human Resource Management

JUNE 2023

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

      I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere.

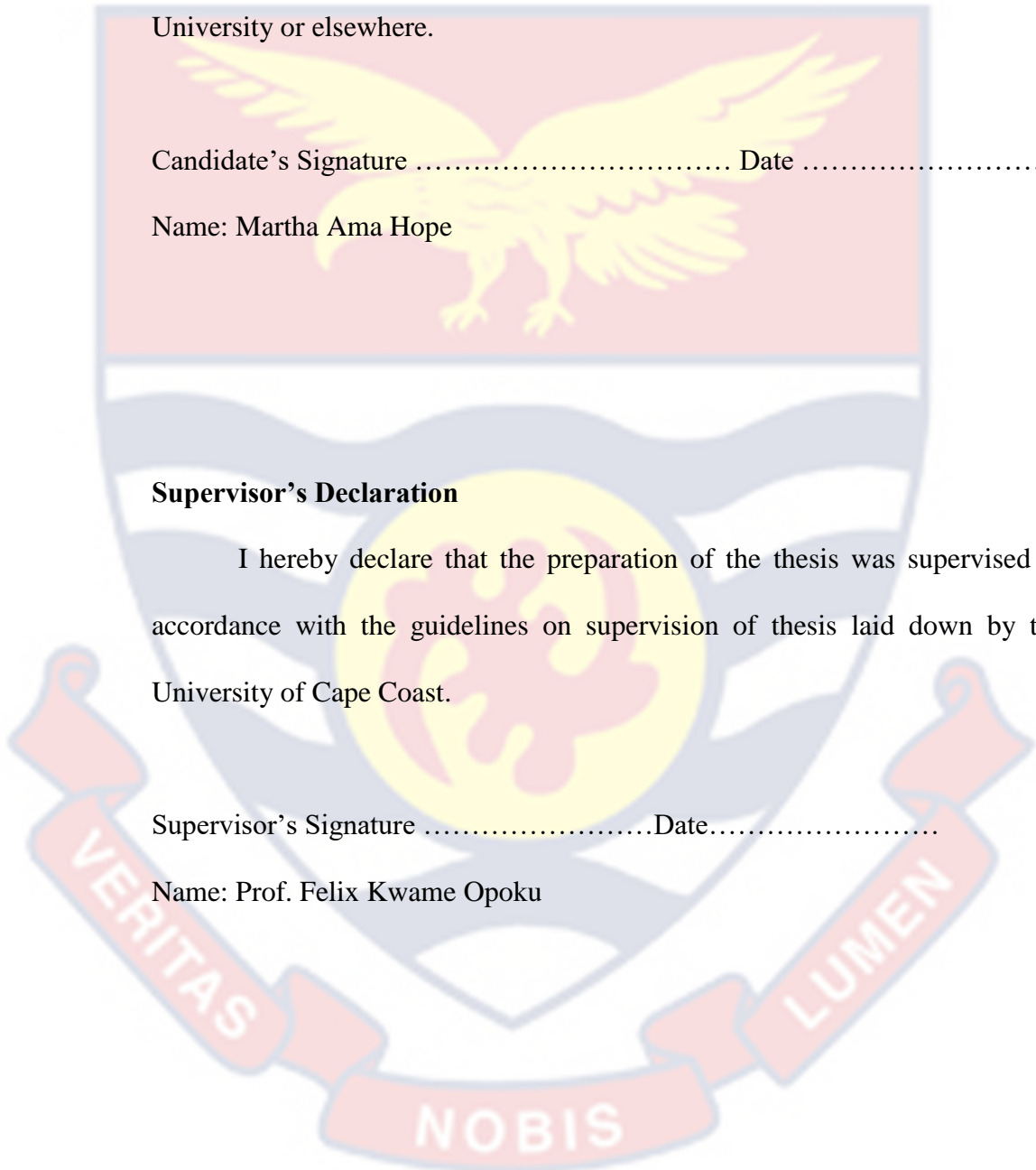Candidate's Signature …………………………… Date ………………………

Name: Martha Ama Hope

Supervisor's Declaration

      I hereby declare that the preparation of the thesis was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's Signature ……………………Date……………………

Name: Prof. Felix Kwame Opoku

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this research is to examine the mediation of organisational politics between reward systems and employee performance among administrators in the University of Cape Coast, Ghana. In addition, the study specifically sought to evaluate the reward systems, level of performance of administrators, influence of reward systems on the job performance and the mediation of organisational politics on the relationship between reward system and job performance. The study employed both explanatory and descriptive survey research design and approached the study through the quantitative research approach. A sample of 269 permanent employees were selected using the simple random sampling technique. A self-administered questionnaire was used in soliciting the views of the employees. Firstly, the study discovered that employees are happy with majority of reward system provided to them by management and employees task performance, adaptive performance and contextual performance has improved. In addition, it was also found that that reward system has a positive association with job performance and organisational politics influence the relationship between reward system and the job performance of employees. The study concluded that reward system predicts job performance. In addition, the study concluded that organisational politics mediates between reward system and job performance of employees so the university should provide a healthy political climate within the university. The study recommended that management provide workers with commensuration salaries and benefits as doing so would energize them for optimum performance and ensure positive organisational politics.

KEYWORDS

Reward System
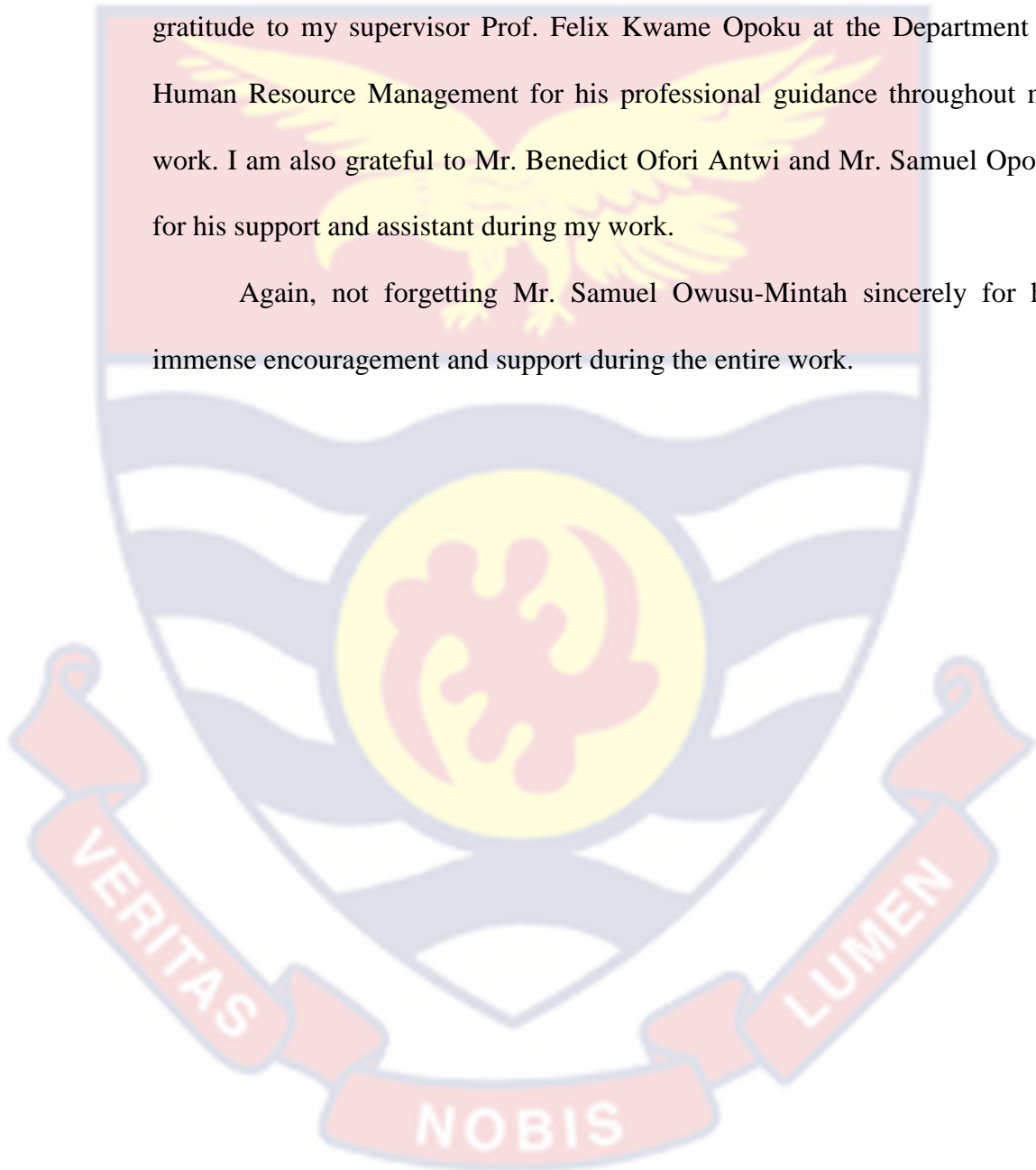
Job Performance

Organisational Politics

University of Cape Coast

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I dedicate this work to my parents, Mr. Peter Alexander K. Hope and Ms. Esther Esi Essel (Late) as well as my two children, Maxwell Appiah Dadzie and Alexia Aba Esaawa Dadzie. I would like to express my profound gratitude to my supervisor Prof. Felix Kwame Opoku at the Department of Human Resource Management for his professional guidance throughout my work. I am also grateful to Mr. Benedict Ofori Antwi and Mr. Samuel Opoku for his support and assistant during my work.

Again, not forgetting Mr. Samuel Owusu-Mintah sincerely for his immense encouragement and support during the entire work.

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DEDICATION

To my siblings.

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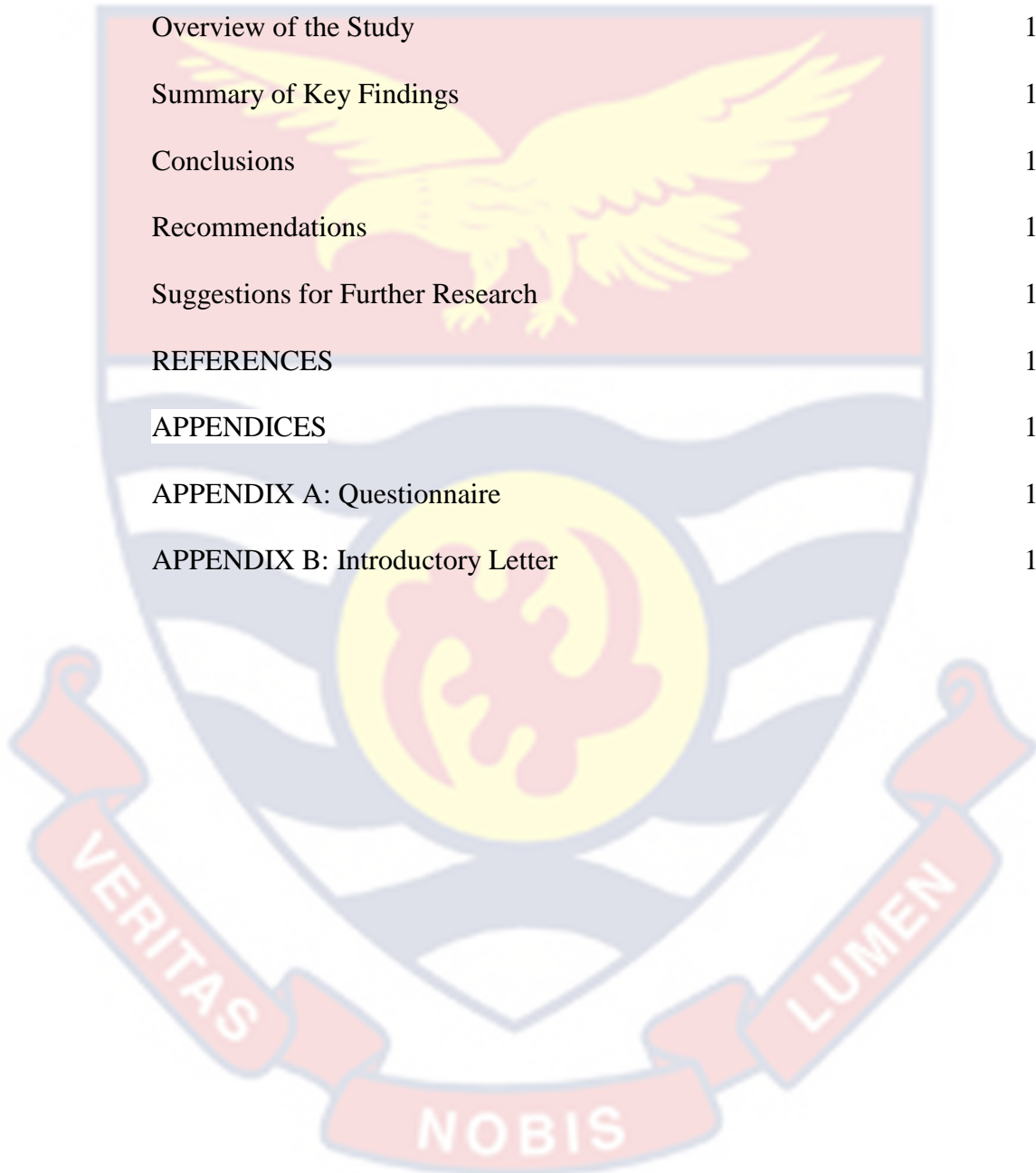
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LIST OF ACRONYMS

RS   Reward System

OP   Organisational Politics

HND   Higher National Diploma

SPSS   Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

JP   Job Performance

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The chapter provides the basis for the entire study. It includes the introduction, study background, problem statement, study goals, research questions, importance, the study scope, restriction, and study organisation. This study aimed to examine the mediation of organisational politics between reward systems and employee performance among administrators in the University of Cape Coast, Ghana. In addition, the study specifically sought to evaluate the reward systems, level of performance of administrators, influence of reward systems on the job performance and the mediation of organisational politics on the relationship between reward system and job performance.

Background to the Study

Reward systems and their management have been, and continue to be an integral part of Human Resource Management (Widodo & Damayanti, 2020). When properly designed and managed, the reward system can attract talented and skillful individuals for the organization, motivate them to engage in desirable performance behaviours and induce them to stay (Akafo & Boateng, 2015; Widodo & Damayanti, 2020). As noted by Rowland and Hall (2014), the degree to which employees are satisfied with their jobs, and their eagerness to remain and engage in desirable behaviours is a function of compensation packages and reward system of the organization. Reward systems have variously been described as pay systems or compensation systems. However, according to Byars and Rue (2003), whereas compensation refers to all extrinsic rewards that employees receive in exchange for their

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work or for having done something well, pay represents only the monetary payments or financial benefits that are made to employees (Schultz, 2006).

A reward system comprises anything an employee may value and desire, and which the employer is willing and able to offer in exchange (Hong, 2017). There are two major reward systems – the direct compensation system and the indirect compensation system (Hong, 2017; Widodo & Damayanti, 2020). A direct compensation system comprises all the monetary and in-kind payments that the employee receives from his or her employer whereas the indirect compensation system consists of payments other than monetary and in-kind (Schultz, 2006). Employees have a wide range of needs and differing perceptions of what constitute suitable rewards for effective motivation and work performance (Jawabri, 2017). A well-designed reward system can boost an organization's effectiveness and output significantly (Jawabri, 2017).

Organizations are now adopting complex reward practices as they compete for talents and human capital (Bowen, 2000). In our current world of downsizing, designing an equitable employee reward system as required by the equity theory, is a critical variable in raising the morale of employees and building goodwill between them and management. In most organizations today, complex reward systems are required to satisfy the demands of their more diversified workforce (Agustiningsih et al., 2016). Others are also developing more complex recognition programs which focus on non-monetary rewards for employees, including 'employee of the month' and 'lunch with the CEO programs' (Akafo & Boateng, 2015).

According to Malhotra, Budhwar and Prowse (2007), rewards include all forms of monetary compensation, physical services, and other benefits

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received by employees as part of their job relationship with employers (Eshun & Duah, 2011). Rewards can broadly be classified into extrinsic and intrinsic (Lawler, 2003; Widodo & Damayanti, 2020). The intrinsic-extrinsic distinction is necessary because it allows human resource managers to determine which rewards are more effective than others in meeting individual and organizational goals and objectives (Allen & Helms, 2001). Intrinsic rewards are derived from the content of the task itself. They are non-instrumental in nature and mostly include praise for completing a task or meeting performance objectives. They also include feelings of self-esteem, opportunities to use one's skills and abilities at work, and sufficient feedback from superiors regarding the effectiveness of one's efforts (Jawabri, 2017).

Extrinsic rewards on the other hand, are instrumental in nature and take both monetary and nonmonetary forms (Lei et al., 2018). Extrinsic rewards are external to the job (Perry et al., 2009; Lah & Perry, 2008). They include pay, fringe benefits, job security, promotions, and private office space. Other examples include competitive salaries, pay raises, and merit bonuses. These characteristics boost the motivation of employees and improve the quality of their work. They are "extrinsic" because they are external to the work itself, and are controlled by other people who usually determine their size and whether or not they should be granted (Engbers & Jun, 2009; Lei et al., 2018). Intrinsic factors increase employee loyalty, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

Reward systems have several desirable outcomes for both the individual and the organization. Among others, reward systems play an imperative role in motivating employees and improving their performance

(Kurniawan & Hatmanti, 2018). For instance, the salaries received by employees are important in determining or measuring their engagement to the organization (Lei et al., 2018). It is generally believed that employees who perceive greater rewards and recognition are more engaged in their job and organization than those who perceive inequity in their pay systems (Engbers & Jun, 2009). Thus, the underlying principle according to Danish and Usman (2010), for the use of rewards is to motivate or induce behaviours among employees which are viewed as beneficial for enhanced performance whiles inhibiting behaviours that are detrimental to organizational effectiveness and efficiency. This position was supported by Eshun and Duah (2011) when he argued that rewards serve as a means of motivating desirable employee behaviors. The organization also benefits from well-designed reward systems. As posited by Zakaria et al., (2011), employees who are well motivated by the rewards they receive engage in performance behaviours that turn to leverage competitive advantage for their organizations.

Although reward systems are designed with the aim of improving the job performance of employees, the dynamic nature of reward systems makes it complex and skeptical about what actually motivate employees (Ladebo, 2006). To that extent, Martono et al., (2018) suggest that positive organizational politics should be adopted as part of reward systems and performance-based structures to ensure proper realization of organizational goals and objectives. Empirical studies suggest that employees pay close attention to organizational politics in order to better understand and maybe influence events at the workplace (Parker et al., 1995). Employees interpret organizational politics negatively, resulting in dysfunctional outcomes for

people, groups, and organizations (Parker et al., 1995; Poon, 2003; Randall et al., 1999; Vigoda, 2000). From another perspective, Drummond (2000) argue that political competence may enhance an individual's or organization's success when linked to the reward system of that organization.

It is becoming increasingly typical to deal with organisational politics in today's workplaces (Medison et al., 1980; Gandz& Murray, 1980). Over the past year, employee have accumulated experience, hunches, and detailed data that support this opinion (Ferris &Kacmar, 1992). Both Mintzderg (1983) and Pfeffer (1992) agree that organisational politics refers to the exercise of influence and power in the workplace. People rarely come to a work scenario with only one purpose, making organisational politics a constant. These objectives fuel organisational strife and rivalry. Based on their observations, Chaudhary et al. (2012) define organisational politics as the practice of accumulating power within an organisation for one's ends rather than that of the organisation.

Also, George & Jones (2011) acknowledged the potential dysfunctional effects of organisational politics, they also recognised the potential benefits when organisational interests were integrated with employee interests and leveraged to benefit the organisation. Access to material or immaterial benefits, such as status or pseudo-authority, which can affect the behaviour of others, is one example of personal advantages (Dwyer, 2007). Office politics can be immensely disruptive, as individuals and organisations pursue their interests to the organisation's detriment. Politicians behaving in their self-interest can have a chilling effect on our ability to work together, share knowledge, and establish cohesive communities.

According to Krackhardt (1990), fostering a favourable political climate within an organisation requires careful attention to internal politics. Bolander (2012) argues that pretending there are no politics in one's organisation is a form of delusion. Sonaike (2013) aptly described organisational politics, arguing that politics serves as "the lubricant that oils the internal gears" of an organisation. Things will run smoothly once the suitable grease has been applied. Conversely, organisational inertia will result from neglecting to grease its moving parts. Consequently, according to Thompson (2008), political activity in an organisation is concerned with the exercise of power to influence choice. Therefore, members of an organisation may often resort to various states to amass as much power as possible to bolster their standing within the group and ensure its continued existence.

The main theory underpinning the study is the equity theory. The Equity theory was proposed by Adams (1965). The theory states that employees expect fairness in their rewarded for the work done. The theory was developed from the Hertzberg's improved job performance theory and linked to the reward system by Adam Stacy. It is anchored on three main assumptions, namely, "Equity norm", "Social comparison" and "Cognitive distortion". Following the preceding arguments, this study is conducted to investigate the mediation of organizational politics between reward systems and job performance among administrators in the University of Cape Coast, Ghana.

Statement of the problem

It was confirmed that organizations do not spend adequate spending plan on financial rewards (Hafiza et al., 2011). Labour clashes are ascribed to

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the conflict of employees' declining productivity with workers attempt to keep up their expectations for everyday comforts which thusly is molded by their particular level of confidence as much as their organizational capacity (Nimoh, 2015). Moreover, workers are disappointed in light of the fact that they are not rewarded successfully in Ghana (Akuoko et al., 2014). Additionally, the link between human resource management and employee performance is viewed as a "black box", that is, absence of clarity with respect to "what exactly leads to what" (Gerhart, 2005). Kahya and Oral (2018) however disclosed that one challenge managers face is the evaluation of work performance.

Kahya and Oral further opined that fundamental the challenge is the battle for objective and fair work evaluations. There appear to assume the presence of significant ideas and operational proportions of representative execution which either do not exist or have not been appropriately characterized (Sharma, Sharma & Agarwal, 2016). Henceforth, investigate around there is at a stop (Andersen, Busi & Onsøyen, 2014). Pal (2013) observed reward may bring negative consequences such as an environment of favoritism and racism. Besides, some workers perceive their reward system as being bias (Eshak et al.,, 2016). Reward varies and, in this manner, can be dangerous for an association to meet all worker needs to arrive at the alluring results (Zabouj & Antioniades, 2015) and cause portability of personnel to other competitive organization (Osibanjo et al., 2014).

Also, reward systems are centralized activity due to out-sourcing and bringing together of HR functions, so reward is particularly guided (Murphy, 2015). On occasion employees are not engaged in decisions concerning

reward packages (Yamoah, 2013). Employees are not committed to their profession because of limited motivation in the job in Ghana (Ampofo, 2012) and this has resulted in a decline in their performance over the years (Hervie & Winful, 2018). Education stakeholders are of the view that the weakening of quality education is eased by the government by not providing the needed incentives to motivate workers which leads poor working performance. Among the effects of poor working performance include: poor performance of students in their exams, high rate of absenteeism, non-commitment to their task and inability to complete their job within the required time. This may result in task inefficiencies among employees in the university.

Previous studies (Bello & Adebajo, 2014; Francis et al., 2020; Nurul et al., 2021; Yulia, 2019: Walters, 2019) have shown that there is a positive relationship between reward systems and job performance. For instance, Francis, Zirra and Mambula (2020) found that reward systems are the main determinant of superior job performance. Bello and Adebajo (2014) also found a significant positive relationship between reward systems and job performance among teachers in selected public secondary schools in Lagos State. Notwithstanding these findings, much work has not been done on the factors that mediate and promote this relationship (Farzana et al., 2016; Kurniawan & Hatmanti, 2018; Muhammad et al., 2019; Siswanto et al., 2021). As noted by Kurniawan and Hatmanti (2018), while previous studies have confirmed the positive relationship between reward systems and employee performance, the underlying mechanisms that translate rewards into employee performance have not been properly established. Yulia (2019) also reported that most of the early works on reward systems only examined the direct

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relationship between them and job performance, and seldomly investigated the role of mediators between them.

In a more recent study by Nurul et al., (2021), it was again reported that whiles the academic literature has consistently found a positive relationship between reward systems and employee performance, less is known about the variables that mediate this relationship. Thus, there is strong evidence in the literature that the factors that mediate the relationship between reward systems and employee performance have not fully been investigated. This study therefore, investigates the mediating role of organizational politics between rewards systems and job performance. Previous studies on the mediation between these variables used mediators such as job engagement (Kurniawan & Hatmanti, 2018), job satisfaction (Gohari1 et al., 2013), employee engagement and motivation (Siswanto et al., 2021), and motivation (Pinar, 2011). Thus, there is no single study that investigated the mediation role of organizational politics on the relationship between reward systems and job performance in the literature. Hence, the need for this study.

Purpose of the Study

The main objective of this study was to examine the mediation of organizational politics between reward systems and employee performance among administrators in the University of Cape Coast, Ghana.

Research Objectives

To achieve the general objective of the study, the following specific objectives have been formulated:

1. To evaluate the reward systems of administrative staff in the University of Cape Coast,

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2. To assess the level of performance of administrators at the University of Cape Coast,

3. To examine the influence of reward systems on the job performance of administrators in the University of Cape Coast,

4. To investigate the mediation of organizational politics on the relationship between reward systems and job performance.

Research Questions

The research will be guided by the following questions:

1. What are the reward systems available to administrative staff at the University of Cape Coast?

2. What is the level of performance of administrators at the University of Cape Coast?

Research Hypothesis

The following research hypothesis were formulated:

1. $H1_0$: Reward systems does not have statistically significant impact on the job performance of administrators

2. $H2_0$: Organisational politics does not mediate the relationship between rewards system and the job performance of administrators.

Significance of the Study

The results of this research would be of enormous benefit to students, researchers, management of the University of Cape Coast and to other organisations as well. This is because the research will bring to bare facts about the existence of the kind of compensation and reward systems that has the tendency to influence the performance of administrators at the workplace environment. Again, officers at the helm of affairs especially, Management of

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University of Cape Coast will be informed of the role of organisational politics and the extent to which it influences the compensation and reward systems and its' constructive purpose to achieve the overall goals of the organisation.

Organisational politics is important to healthy functioning of organisations as it seeks to increase performance and innovation at the workplace since one can clearly focus on tasks, good employer-employee relations, improved organisational system and structure (Elmadag & Ellinger, 2017). However, the study seeks to create awareness among university staff on the need to provide the needed support to help staff deal with adverse organisational political issues and it influences on their performance.

The results of this study would be important to the management in higher education sectors in making strategic decisions relating to formulation of compensation and reward systems that will ensure enhanced employees' performance and hence, the overall development of the organisation. The management at the University of Cape Coast will also use results from the study to review policies to incorporate right mechanisms to instigate and mediate the adverse influence of organisational politics at the workplace.

Also, to students and researchers, the study adds to the wealth of knowledge in the field of compensation and reward systems and make information available for further research in this field with other mediating variables which may influence the rewards systems. The findings of this study provide an impetus to stimulate, among scholars and students, an interest in the study of organisational politics and its role in the compensation and reward systems and performance of employees in Ghana.

Delimitations of the Study

The topic under study was "influence of reward systems on employees' performance: the mediating role of organizational politics, at the University of Cape Coast, Ghana". The study is confined to only administrators of the University of Cape Coast. Organisational politics is seen in every human institution but the study is confined to only University of Cape Coast and conclusions may only be applicable to the University of Cape Coast. However, other organisations may adopt the findings of this research.

The study focused on reward systems among institutional workers only in the University of Cape Coast, reference to other sectors was only to either buttress a fact or make a comparison. Its' scope was restricted to the University of Cape Coast. The main respondents for the study were senior administrators at the University of Cape Coast. In terms of content, there is countless number of issues that could have been looked at in terms of compensation and reward systems and employee performance, with emphasis on the mediating variable. However, this study delimited itself to the current compensation and reward systems available to senior administrators at the University of Cape Coast and how they contribute to development and efficiency in the output of their employees.

Limitations of the Study

The main limitation worth noting was the lack of co-operation from respondents for fear of being victimised hindered the study in getting the appropriate information needed for the study. This research encountered several problems especially gathering appropriate data for the analysis. Generally, apathy was the major problem since some of the respondents failed

to answer the questionnaire. The respondents might not have disclosed their actual opinions on certain issues related to the university which could be confidential in nature. Therefore, the bias in their responses was possible. Also, this study researched the influence of compensation and reward systems on employees' performance: the mediating role of organizational politics, at the University of Cape Coast, with the views from sampled respondents, which is a small representation of all the employees in the educational sector. This may limit the inferences that can be drawn from this study as their views may not be applied to all the employees in the universities in Ghana.

Finally, with hindsight, a mixed method (that is, both qualitative and quantitative methods) could have been adopted with more interviews conducted, which would have provided an in-depth understanding of issues. Besides, using the qualitative method would have added to the weight of materials relating to the variables of the study.

Definition of Terms

Reward management: is concerned with the formulation and implementation of strategies and policies which are to reward people fairly, equitably and consistently in accordance with their value to the organizations and to help the organization to achieve its strategic goals.

Employee performance: is defined as how an employee fulfills their job duties and executes their required tasks. It refers to the effectiveness, quality, and efficiency of their output. Performance also contributes to our assessment of how valuable an employee is to the organization. Each employee is a serious investment for a company, so the return that each employee provides must be significant.

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Organizational Politics: An informal, unofficial, and sometimes behind-the-scenes efforts to sell ideas, influence an organization, increase power, or achieve other targeted objectives (Brandon & Seldman, 2004; Hochwarter et al., 2000).

Work environment: The term work environment is used to describe the surrounding conditions in which an employee operates. The work environment can be composed of physical conditions, work processes or procedures and social interactions at the workplace, including interactions with peers, subordinates, and managers.

Influence: A power indirectly or intangibly affecting a person or event. Power to sway [or persuade] or affect based on prestige, wealth, ability, or status.

Patronage: The concept ―patronage‖ to refer to favoritism based on attributes not connected with merit or performance. The person favored can be a relative, friend, spouse, protégé or student, or share the same gender, ethnicity, social class, age, religion, political views or other beliefs. Most attention in academic studies is given to specific types of discrimination, especially those based on gender, tribe, cronies and ethnicity (Martin, 2006).

Gender Perceptions: Theorists believe that men's greater power and status in societies underlie the differences in gender roles. Social structure theory (Eagly and Wood, 1999) postulates that the powerful roles that men hold lead to the development of related traits, such as aggressiveness and assertiveness. Likewise, women who have less access to powerful roles develop traits consistent with their subordinate roles, such as submissiveness and cooperativeness. In sum, the power differential in favor of men may explain why stereotypical male traits are more valued than stereotypical feminine

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traits. Thus, power being a genre of politics implies that these power relations between the genders leads to different perceptions which have an impact on career development.

Information power: Access to information is very important for the feeling of being involved by employees within the organization. Information is very critical in the day-to-day operations of any organization and is at the center of activating and deactivating organizational politics. Organizations are entities, which process information.

Decision Making: Decision making is largely a process of information as Cheney et al. (2004) According to Martin (2009), decision making falls under patronage in the sense that the process of decision making can be biased for instance appointing insiders to a selection committee or more subtly establishing a process that will make appointment of such people to a selection committee more likely. This in effect tends to have an effect on the general perception of organizational politics as it alienates deserving employees which in turn tends to affect their career development.

Organisation of the Study

The study was made up of five chapters. Chapter one looked at the background of the study, statement of the problem, research objectives, research questions and significance of the study, limitations, scope of the study and organisation of the study. Chapter two reviewed the literature available on compensation and reward systems and employee performance, particularly with organisational politics as a mediating variable. It investigated compensation and reward systems and its' influence on employee performance, using organisational politics in the workplace, with literature

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from books and other studies relating to the topic. Chapter three described the methodology that would be used in the study: this included the population size, sample size and sampling techniques as well as methods of data collection and data analysis. Chapter four presented the data analysis and the findings based on research questions. Chapter five provided an interpretation of the results based on the findings and provide recommendations for further studies to be conducted.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

  This chapter presents the theoretical and empirical literature as well as the conceptual framework that guided the study. The equity theory underlies this study. Literature was reviewed on the concepts of reward, organisational politics and job performance. The empirical literature focused on relationship between rewards, organisational politics and employee performance. The chapter concludes with a review of the moderating effect of organisational politics on employee rewards and employee performance. Based on the literature reviewed a conceptual framework was also developed and presented.

Theoretical Review

Equity Theory

  The main theory underpinning the study is the Equity theory. The Equity theory was proposed by Adams (1965). The theory states that employees expect fairness in their rewarded for the work done. The theory was developed from the Hertzberg's improved job performance theory and linked to the reward system by Adam Stacy. It is anchored on three main assumptions, namely, "Equity norm", "Social comparison" and "Cognitive distortion". Equity norm refers to the employee's anticipation of fairness in return for what they contribute to their jobs, while social comparison relates to employee's assessment of what their equitable return should be after comparing their inputs and outcomes with those of their co-workers.

  Cognitive distortion is when employees who perceive themselves as being in an inequitable situation seek to reduce inequity by distorting inputs

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and/or outcomes in their own minds, and by directly altering inputs and/or outputs, or by leaving the organisation. Adams (1965) equity theory states that positive results and a high level of performance can be expected only if the employees find their treatment to be fair. The theory of equity has been widely used by industrial psychologists to describe the relationship between rewards offered by an organisation and the satisfaction of employees. The equity theory is based on the belief that employees are motivated both in terms of the workplace environment and provisions made by their employers (Arasli et al., 2019).

It can be expected that employees will react to it in different ways, e.g., by deactivation, less effort, dissatisfaction or, in more extreme cases, by disturbances. In this study, the equity theory is employed to explain the mechanism through which reward systems influences employee performance. Our levels of motivation and performance are related to how fairly we believe we are treated in comparison with others (Marescaux, et al., 2019). If we believe that we are treated unfairly, we may attempt to change our beliefs of behaviors until the situation appears to be fair. The main antecedents of the equity theory are inputs and outputs (Sauer & May, 2017). Inputs include; time-hours worked, educational qualification, commitment to the job, experience, enthusiasm, personal sacrifice, demonstrated loyalty, and flexibility to work (Arasli et al., 2019).

Output on the other hand include; pay-salary, bonus, different allowance, recognition, promotion, performance appraisals. Stock options, flexibility of work arrangements, sense of achievement and learning. The equity theory essentially depicts an employee's subjective judgment about the

fairness of the reward she/he got in comparison with the inputs (efforts, time, education, and experience) received from the organisation. Reward here includes both monetary and non-monetary rewards. Employees who perceive inequity will try to reduce it by either distorting inputs and/or outputs through cognitive biases in their own minds, changing inputs and/or outputs directly, or leaving the organisation (Marescaux, et al., 2019). These perceptions of inequity are perceptions of organisational justice, or more precisely, of injustice and may result in organismal politics within the organisation.

For example, employee A compares the ratio of his/her input to his/her reward to that of employee B. If he/she feels the ratios is similar, he/she is will be satisfied with the treatment received. If he/she feels inadequately treated, he or she is bound to be dissatisfied. This dissatisfaction is likely to breed tension and frustration among employees which may adversely affect their performance. Much as employees must be rewarded, employers' perception towards performance-based rewards can depend on many factors such as politically rewarding someone because of his/her political affiliation or circumstantial instances like one being in the right place at the right time. It can be ethical, personal, such as one being rewarded because of the relationship he/she has with the head (Arasli et al., 2019).

The factors can even be policy based in that some schools are led and not managed but stagnant because there is a management blockage or poor management. The reasons can vary or be a combination of all the above and many more. The importance of this theory cannot be overlooked with respect to this current study hence very useful at explaining the constructs that are adopted in this study. An important factor in employer's motivation is whether

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individuals perceive the reward structure as being fair (Marescaux, et al., 2019). Also, systems of equity will develop within groups, and members will try to induce other members to accept and follow to these systems. Again, the only way groups can induce members to equitably behave is by making it more profitable to behave equitably.

Thus, groups will generally reward members who treat others equitably and generally punish (increase the cost for) members who treat others inequitably. This is because, previous researchers such as Dhanpat et al., (2018) and Smit et al., (2015) have found that affiliation with political groups within the organisation results from a mismatch between the organisation and the individual employee from the concept of person–organisation fit of being treated fairly in terms of rewards. According to the authors employee prefer to perform in an organisation when they experience equity or fairness in their treatment. The relevance of this theory to the current study is that; employees measure the relationship between of their inputs and outcomes. Meaning that different employees will have different personal values for inputs and outcomes.

For instance, two employees of equal experience and qualification performing the same work for the same pay may have quite different perceptions of the fairness of the deal. Hence, employees are able to adjust for purchasing power and local market conditions and political affiliations to bid for higher salaries schemes as such. Also, an employee who believes he is overcompensated may increase his effort. However, he may also adjust the values that he ascribes to his own personal inputs. It may be that he or she internalizes a sense of superiority and actually decrease his efforts. Contrary to

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the position, Kitheka (2015) found that individuals are likely to change their inputs to correspond with the outcomes (i.e lower the work effort to match other) the outcomes, or change the referent. In order to battle inequity individuals may also quit the organisation (Robbins & Judge 2003).

Altarawmneh and Al-kilani (2010) also iterated that the moment employees perceive that equity is applied to rewards and other human resource management practices, they become satisfied and this reduces their job performance. This theory has been criticized by most researchers irrespective of its enormous contribution to the interpretation employee's behaviour and resentments to rewards and their outcomes on their performance on the basis of fairness or equality. Adams' Equity theory has been criticised for both the assumptions and practical application of equity theory. Researchers have questioned the simplicity of the model. Their main issues were that, the theory has not considered the number of demographics and psychological variables that have an effect on people's perceptions of fairness and interactions with others.

Huseman et al., (1987) questioned its environmental validity as the research-backed the basic propositions of equity theory in laboratory settings, thus questionable applicability to real-world situations. This critique mainly focused on the foundation on which the equity theory was propounded, laying emphasis on the setting to which the equity theory was birthed to be. The environment to which the theory was tested in this context, the laboratory setting, cannot give a vivid perception of what may occur on the actual grounds or real world. Huseman et. al. (1987), were of the view that, so many

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variables other that the input and output ratios had the tendencies to influence the outcomes of various employees.

Carrell and Dittrich (1978) argued that people might perceive equity/inequity not only in terms of the specific inputs and outcomes of a relationship, but also in terms of the overall system that determines those inputs and outputs. Thus, one might feel that his or her reward is equitable to other employees'. But one might view the entire reward system as unfair. Feight et al., (2006), found out and supported the idea that, our motivation decreases when our input/output ratios are lower than others. In a research of basketball players, Harder (1992) found that overpaid players responded by being more team oriented (e.g., assign the ball, rebounding), whereas underpaid players responded by being more selfish (e.g., taking shots). O'Reilly and Puffer (1989), found that employees motivation increased when coworkers received appropriate sanctions for their behaviour. That is, when a high performing group member was punished, the satisfaction and motivation of the group increased. Thereby not necessarily about the rewards systems but rather the punishments as such within the organisation.

With this theory, management can provide and implement rewards systems in their organization as a reward to motivate their employees and the employees will give their best and perform better in return. Firms that integrate rewards systems into their operations, and make sure employees are involved in the rewards systems, employees perform effectively and efficiently (Alfes et al., 2013) will in turn improve their organisational performance.

Person-Organization Fit Theory (P-O fit Theory)

Person-organization (P-O) fit theory refers to how aligned a person's core values, beliefs, ethics and purpose are to those of the organization they work for. For example, someone who is results-focused and values speed will fit best with an organization that shares, and enacts, these values. P-O fit theory states that two entities benefit when either individuals supply what the other lacks share fundamental traits, or both (Kristof, 1996). Compatibility might be supplemental, complementary, or even both. Needs-Supplies fit, and Demands-Capabilities fit to provide an alternative viewpoint to the P-O fit theory. When an organisation meets its members' needs, wants, and preferences, it is said to have an excellent P-O fit. On the other hand, according to the demands-abilities view, fit exists when an employee possesses the skills necessary to complete assigned tasks successfully.

According to the P-O fit theory, companies and workers can be classified based on the compensation and benefits they offer and get. A company's ability to retain and motivate its staff depends on its ability to provide the tools, training, and support they need to succeed in their jobs and the possibilities for professional development, growth, and satisfaction that employees require. Achieving needs-supplies fit when office materials are in line with what workers want. The same adage is true for the workplace: employers want employees to contribute time, effort, skill, knowledge, and ability. When the needs of the company match the capabilities of these workers, we have a demand-capability fit (Kristof, 1996). As we've seen, employees tend to have positive impressions of their employers because they

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provide for their wants and needs. It may be impossible to increase worker happiness in a workplace where politics play a role.

According to the demands-ability theory, when workplace politics are rampant, employees cannot contribute their full skills, knowledge, time, and resources to their employer. So, based on the P-O fit hypothesis, this research looked at how office politics affected workers' happiness at University of Cape Coast.

Conceptual Review

In this section of the study, three concepts are most relevant. They include the concept of reward, concept of organisational politics and the concept of employee performance.

Concept of Rewards

The discussion under this section is categorized into the definition. components and the measurement of reward. Reward defies any universal definition. In fact, some scholars fail to define it due to the dynamic nature of the concept. They are of the view that, the concept cannot be subjected to a particular definition. A reward is an incentive plan to reinforce the desired behavior of workers or employers and in return for their service to the organisation (Silver et al., 2021). According to Hadfield-Menell et al. (2017), rewards can be monetary in the form of salary or non-monetary in the form of awards for some special services to the company or simply giving an employee work which, he enjoys doing. The primary objective of organisations in giving rewards is to attract, maintain, and retain efficient, high-performing and motivated employees.

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A reward is a broad construct that represents anything an employee may value and which that an employer is willing to offer in exchange for the employee's contributions (Chiang & Birtch, 2008). The lack of rewards will create an unpleasant environment, thus, diminishing employees' work efforts and may cause them to withdraw from their jobs. For these reasons, rewards are increasingly important. The main objectives of rewards are to attract and retain employees, to motivate employees to achieve high levels of performance and to elicit and reinforce desired behaviour of the employees. Organisations often use financial rewards to prevent employee dissatisfaction or motivate employees, although it may not be the best motivator for the long term (Mossbarger & Eddington, 2003). Deeprose (2014) had stated that while the presence of money may not be a very good motivator, the absence of it is a strong de-motivator.

In addition, financial rewards are significant not only in terms of their instrumental value as a medium of exchange, but also a highly tangible means of recognizing an individual's worth, improving self-esteem, and symbolizing status and achievement (Armstrong, 1996) Therefore, organisations can best utilize financial rewards to support organisational human resource strategy. Non-financial rewards are tangible rewards provided and controlled by a firm which do not necessarily benefit employees in a monetary sense (Chiang & Birtch, 2008). Nowadays, individuals require something beyond monetary rewards for their efforts (Millmore et al, 2007). This means that employees seek other returns in exchange for their contribution which is of value and meaningful to them. (Johnson & Welsh, 1999).

Given the labour-intensive nature of the educational industry and the rising pressure to control costs, nonfinancial rewards are being used increasingly to motivate employee performance and to increase employee satisfaction (Chiang & Birtch, 2008). Generally, the term reward refers to compensating any damage, loss or mental harassment, wages or salaries as a reward for physical and/or mental efforts to perform any agreed task or job (Gerhart, 2008). To the employees, reward is seen as an exchange for their services and as an entitlement for being an employee of the organisation or a reward for a job well done (Milkovich et al., 2014). For the purposes of this study, reward would be viewed from the perspectives of managers and employees.

The preceding definitions appear to suggest that rewards are only viewed from the perspective of the influence of such schemes on the satisfaction and outcomes on employee performance. Several researchers (Burns, 2006; Bebchuk & Fried, 2003; Popoola & Ayeni, 2007) have stated that, reward forms part of the factors that influence turnover intention. Lambert, Hogan and Griffin (2000) in his study argues that remuneration strategy influences key outcomes like improved job performance, attraction, retention, performance, skill acquisition, co-operation, motivation and turnover intent of employees. Rewards and benefits are deemed to be one of the factors responsible for the high attrition rate. A study of remuneration strategy and performance shows that there is a negative relationship between the two factors.

Gagne and Forest (2008) have argued that reward strategy is extremely important for building effective and competitive organisation; whereas a

wrong setting of the reward strategy, which does not fit with the needs of the organisation and with the HR and business strategies, can destroy the organisation.

Components of Rewards

The right rewards system is a blend of monetary and non-monetary rewards offered to employees. It can generate valuable business results in terms of increasing productivity and loyalty, and has hiring advantages too since a good rewards program should make your organisation stand out from other employers, reports the Society for Human Resource Management. Generally, there are five pillars of a comprehensive rewards system: compensations, benefits, flexibility, performance recognition and career development.

Monetary Rewards

Monetary reward is also referred to as financial rewards. People work so as to satisfy their requirements and these requirements may be met by monetary rewards. Monetary rewards are refund in cash and in form of money for a given work done by workers in the company (Hansen, 2010). Workers would go any level to enhance their cash income as they will do something to avoid their source of income from being removed. The fact that workers fear to lose their jobs, cash has been a very efficient motivator only because money is necessary for continued existence in an economy (Dunham, 1976). Monetary reward in modern society is the most transferable means of satisfying fundamental requirements (Kohn, 2009). Physiological satisfaction, protection and social requirements may only be attained with monetary reward (Kepner, 2010).

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Monetary rewards can be a very powerful determinant of employee motivation and performance which, in turn, can lead to important returns in terms of firm-level performance. Bonner and Sprinkle (2002) also looked at monetary reward as a method for motivating and improving the performance of employees. Some empirical evidence indicates that monetary rewards have widely varying effects on effort and consequently often do not improve performance (Bonner et al., 2000; Camerer & Hogarth, 1999). Other studies show mixed results in regards to how effective monetary rewards are on individual performance (e.g., Tuttle & Burton, 1999; Sprinkle, 2000).

But for the purpose of this study, we shall consider (Burgess & Ratto, 2003) definition of monetary rewards as the process that enhance the direct satisfaction of employees. Monetary reward may be classified into salaries, fringe benefits, incentives package, allowances and bonuses. There are a number of monetary reward factors that influence an employees' decision to quit an organisation. Among these factors which form the dimensions of monetary reward in this study include practices such as pay/salary, fringe benefits, incentives, allowance and bonus.

Pay/Salary

Pay/Salary refers to a periodic payment from an employer to an employee which may be specified in an employment contract (Jansen & Spink 2007; Schweitzer et al., 2004). It is contrasted with piece wages where each job, hour or other unit is paid separately rather than on a periodic basis (Tseng & Wallace, 2009). Pay/Salary is a fixed amount of money or compensation paid to an employee by an employer in return for work performed (Lysgaard et al., 2005). It is commonly paid in fixed interval (Chiu & Francesco, 2003).

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Employees are generally in search of jobs that pay well, so that they perform their duties when given the opportunity. Those who are desperate for a job can take the first one that comes along to bring them through to perform their task in their organisation and to customers.

Employees will fail to perform their job due to low wages given to them by their employers and this may adversely impact their performance and the performance of the organisation in which they work (Rampur, 2009). This because when employees fail to perform their job efficiently, the organisation will end up losing it customers to the rival company and even affect their operations. In this category, unfair or substandard wage systems often fall under this category, particularly when two or more staff do similar work and have similar responsibilities, pay rate disparities can drive lower job performance. In a similar way, if you pay less for similar jobs than other employers, if other variables are relatively equal, workers are likely to perform badly (Handelsman, 2009).

De Cieri and Kramar (2008) note that a high pay level compared to that of rivals will ensure that a business recruit's high-quality workers that will perform a good service to the company's customers and even attract more customers for their organisation. Pay can be a one-way indicator of whether it is worth the time they expend and the effort they put into work (Ryan & Sagas, 2009). What other employees within a company get is one standard that an employee may use. Employees will be pleased with their salaries and give out their best if what they receive, in comparison to what other employees receive, equates to the time, energy, and effort they contribute.

If they believe that their efforts and achievements, especially in reward, outweigh the benefits of the organisation and function, discontent will occur and the desire not to perform their services will grow (Ryan & Sagas, 2009). In the work of Ryan and Sagas (2009), it was also mentioned that pay/ salaries are probably one of the best ways to reward for the time and energy of workers invested in the organisation. Spherion (2013) observed that 49 percent of employers found pay/salaries to be a critical concern in getting the best out of employees, while 69 percent of employees recognized pay/salaries as a key factor. Earlier, Huselid (1995) discovered that pay is a major determinant of job performance. Ovadje (2009) also consistently established a clear, negative relationship between the function of pay and to service perform.

Similarly, Batt et al. (2002) found that pay is substantially and negatively linked to telecommunications industry to service perform. Kim (2005) suggested that salary is not an important incentive for employees employed in the USA to perform their service diligently, while Chew and Chan (2008) revealed that pay/salary alone is not enough for organisation to achieve efficient job performance.

Fringe Benefits

Fringe benefits refers to additional compensation that employers give to their employees (Dee & Wyckoff, 2015; Hur & Nordgren, 2016). It also refers to non-wage compensation provided to employees in addition to their normal wages or salaries (Englmaier, Grimm et al., 2018; Gutierrez & Schraw, 2015; Lambertini & Tampieri, 2015). According to Lambertini and Tampieri (2015) fringe benefit are perks or extra compensation over and above regular salary. Cudjoe (2016) notes that the lack of advantages opens to employee in

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the sector in which they operate is another explanation why workers do not perform well at work. There may also be no future benefits for advances or promotions associated with high employee willingness to give out his/her best. Employees prefer other businesses that can deliver other fringe benefits to them (Rampur, 2009).

Rampur (2009) further emphasized that a lack of potential for change or development may be a justification for any organisation's job performance. If the job is essentially a dead-end proposition, before recruiting, this should be clarified so as not to confuse the worker. Without raising false expectations for growth and success in the role, the job should be identified precisely. Since workers typically want to do a good job, they want to be respected and rewarded for their work as well. In the United Kingdom, the Higher Education Academy and Centre for Excellence in Teaching and Learning (2009) found widespread discontent among university academics with promotion prospects, with two-thirds of respondents disagreeing with the assertion "I am pleased with promotion prospects at my current institution" in a survey of teaching staff.

Walsh and Taylor (2007) said that, due to the lack of a consistent career ladder in sight, workers in the hospitality industry fail to perform their job. They also found that workers lack the intrinsic elements of their role, such as demanding tasks and learning-oriented working relationships, rather than the extrinsic elements, such as reward. Another Berger and Berger (2004) study indicated that workplace benefits include, to name a few, things such as retirement, health insurance, life insurance, disability insurance, paid leave, paid vacations, flexible scheduling, and educational assistance. The authors

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have argued that it has been shown that these benefits bind an employee to perform their task efficiently and effectively. This led to a clear association between fringe benefits and the job performance.

Therefore, fringe benefit that encourage an employee to handle work and, as such, increase responsibilities such as caring for customers or facilitating participation in personal activities tend to enhance engagement and increase job performance (Berger & Berger, 2004). Commitments to family pressures, social problems and other non-work - related variables can affect the probability of workers to perform their job in an organisation (Mitchell et al., 2001). As this is one of the key needs articulated by the emerging worker, it is important to recognize work / life balance initiatives for employees (Spherion, 2010).

Incentive packages

Incentives are awards given for the accomplishment of pre-determined goals. They are directly related to performance and have a positive influence on the employees' performance and organisational success (Maestrini et al., 2018). Incentives are used to motivate employees towards a greater performance, and it rewards the differences in performances that employee will perform in certain manner in expectancy of a given outcome. According to Noe et al., (2003), incentives are rewards offered in addition to the base wage or salary and are usually directly related to performance. They are given to encourage or reimburse some particular employee for effort beyond normal performance expectations. They stimulate employees' contributions above and beyond the normal standard of expectation.

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Incentive packages and support are the individual's perception of organisational treatment, regardless of whether any particular kind of treatment is explicitly or implicitly promised (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005). Chew (2004) describes incentive packages as the extent to which employees believe that the organisation values their contribution and cares about their wellbeing, and postulates that employees and the organisation are involved in an exchange relationship. According to Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), incentive packages and support refers to a general belief that one's organisation values employee contribution and cares about their well-being. High levels of incentive packages and support from the organisation create feelings of obligation to the employer and make employees feel they have to return the employers' commitment by engaging in behaviours that support organisational goals (Ahmad & Yekta, 2010).

Incentive packages can have a direct influence on a job performance (Bishop et al., 2002). This imply that if the employee feels there will be no incentive packages and support from the organisation, his or her performance on the job decreases. Research conducted by Firth et al., (2004) affirm the argument by Bishop et al., (2002) that social support and provision of incentive packages from supervisors indirectly reduces burnout, which in turn increase the performance of employees. Employees increase their performance with an organisation because of the positive features associated with their jobs. Therefore, employees are committed to an organisation and perform if they are satisfied with their positions and are supported by their managers, and do not perform if they are not (Taplin & Winterton, 2007).

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In a similar vein, Delfgaauw et al., (2018) were in agreement with previous research and reported that incentive packages and support are positively related to job performance. The relationships, however, are mediated by organisational politics. This means that, if employees experience high levels of incentive packages and support, they are more likely to perform efficiently and effectively.

Allowance and Bonus

Bonuses are offered to employee when they achieve certain standards and quotas to complete a certain project (Saira et al., 2014). It is a symbol of triumph and accomplishment. An inequitable bonus and allowance are a source of appreciating the employees for their services and efforts and as such might reduce the possibility of quitting an organisation. Whenever employees felt there were insufficient allowances and bonuses from employers, they sometimes begin to formulate reasons for leaving their jobs (Janas, 2009). Rosser (2004) argues that perceptions of work-life, including bonuses, have a direct impact on improved job performance and intentions to leave. Giles (2004) is of the view that supervisors should not lose sight of the need to provide workers with bonuses and allowances as a means to appreciate their efforts to improve the performance.

Thus, when employees realize that their employers do not provide them with bonuses and allowances, they do not feel valued by their employers which might decrease their job performance. In order for an organisation to implement a successful allowance and bonuses policy, it is important to determine from their employees what they value, and to align the policy in order to be improve their job performance and reduce any negative

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organisational politics. Receiving allowances from employers is an important feature of human resource management. As De Cieri and Kramar (2008) state, the allowance system has an important role in implementing strategies. The way people are given allowance, aside their pay, affects the quality of their work, their attitude towards customers and the organisation, and their willingness to be flexible and learn new skills.

Non-Monetary Reward

Non-monetary reward is a reward given to employees in the form of awards such as more challenging work, wider work hours, career rewards, social security, or other forms that can lead to improved job performance. Aspects of non-monetary reward include work and work environment (Frey & Neckermann, 2008). Ryan & Sagas (2009) argued that non-monetary types of reward can be very meaningful to employees and very encouraging for performance improvement. The satisfaction of non-monetary reward makes the employee desires to perform in the company. Non-monetary rewards are helpful for the recognition of employees and that recognition it is a motivational tool for the employees and leads to the work engagement and improved performance (Burgess &Ratto, 2003)

Nyaribo and Nyakundi (2016) found that non-monetary reward such as job design, better workplace environment, career development and training could motivate employees, drive up their performance as well as promote positive organisational politics. Sabina et al., (2015) noted that the use of non-monetary rewards affects the employees' mental and physical wellbeing in their work and also the quality of their production which is important in the attraction, and improving organisational politics. Additionally, Vnoučková and

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Klupáková (2013) stated that non-monetary rewards are the main tools used to improve the job performance of employees in an organisation.

Sandeepanie & Ubayachandra (2015) argue that non-monetary reward mechanisms such as, promotion scheme, employee training and development, welfare benefits, health and medicinal benefits, attractive physical and socio-psychological environment provided to employees have the potency to enhance their job performance and positive organisational politics. Khan (2014) found that non-monetary rewards like career development, recognition, empowerment, delegation, autonomy, training and supervisor support have a very significant impact on the performance of employees in an organisation. Another study by Musa et al., (2014) revealed that promotion, career development, appreciation, involvement, responsibility, favourable organisational environment and training, impacts significantly the performance of employees and enhance positive organisational politics.

In view of this Vnoučková and Klupáková (2013) opined that an important point for reducing negative organisational politics and improve job performance is to change the way of working with employees by encouraging independence, career planning, open communication and sharing information. Shakeel & But (2015) indicated 60 or more papers were studied which identified work related and non-work-related factors cause poor job performance. Employees who are fundamentally inspired towards their own work expand a sense of identification and attachment to their organisation and in turn improve their job performance (Chaitra & Murthy, 2015).

This study bases non-monetary reward items on dimensions proposed by Samuel and Chipunza (2009) to have significantly influences the

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performance of employees and organisational politics in their organisations. And they include supervisor support, training, organisational climate and career development. These items measure non-monetary reward and tend to determine the extent of an individual's satisfaction with a job and their job performance.

Supervisor Support

Supervisor support refers to behaviour of the supervisor that upholds the continuous high performance of employees (Döckel et al., 2006). Proper and frequent feedback is important to improve the performance of employees because supervisors support increases the affective commitment of employees in the long term. Van Dyk and Coetzee (2012) emphasized that supervisory support can be viewed as a source of trust in an employee's willingness or drive to be the best in whatever they do. Support from their supervisors reduces work-related stress levels and may create a sense of belonging which provides employees with enough reasons to perform in the organisation. Again, personal outreach of supervisors to employees plays a vital role in improving the performance of employees, as focus is shifted from monetary factors (i.e. reward) to more intrinsic factors (i.e. organisational support) (Cianni & Guddy, 2012).

Supervisors who support employees are those who believe in their workers, appreciate their efforts and care for their well fare (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). For example, a supervisor who switches schedules to accommodate employees' needs, listens to their problems, organizes tasks or duties to accommodate their family responsibilities, and shares ideas or advice can be seen as supportive. Generally, support from supervisors has been

assessed in terms of leader-member exchange (Hofmann & Morgeson, 1999; Wayne et al., 1997) and supervisor consideration (Allen, 1995; Hutchison, 1997; Hutchison et al., 1998). There is some question about the nature of the relationship between supervisor support and job performance. Dee and Wyckoff (2015) found that employee's poor performance was related to level of practical support from supervisors.

Although a number of organisational factors can make employees begin to improve their performance, according to these researchers the supervisor plays an important role in whether they actually do so (Akbar et al., 2018). While Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe (2003) also found a relationship between these two variables, they argue that affective commitment to the supervisor mediates the effect of supervisor support on job performance. There is agreement, however, that supervisor support positively improve job performance and organisational politics.

Training

Training and development provide opportunities for employees to develop in their careers (Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012). It has a positive psychological effect on employees because they might perceive that the organisation value them and in turn, they will remain committed to the organisation. Döckel et al., (2006) stated that employees will perform in the organisation that provides an opportunity to grow by training and developing them and thus applying their acquired skills and knowledge. Furthermore, companies that provide training and development opportunities to their employees may have a psychological influence on them. Training equips employees with the skills and knowledge that are required to perform their

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work effectively (Armache, 2014). It is likely that a lack of growth and continuous development may result in boredom and reduce the job performance of employees and negative organisational politics.

Since training are important for organisations and employees in various ways as well as in short or long-term programs which serve as a non-monetary reward to employees (Lappalainen et al., 2019). Organisations expend a lot of time and scarce money on the growth and training of workers, while raising the issue of whether training programs have really contributed to the development of employees and the company's effectiveness (Nayeri et al,, 2017). As stated in the work of Adesola (2017), the workplace has two ways of control on the morality, motivation, efficiency and commitment of employees. He also noted that these forms of impact can be positive or negative, but the effect would be positive if a good working environment is provided to employees. He stressed that workers who do not undergo pre-training would impact their workplace efficiency.

According to Adesola (2017), if employers provide workers with adequate training, companies can effectively and efficiently achieve their goals. This highlights how training plays a major role as a reward to motivate employees. Therefore, to develop the efficiency of workers, managers pay attention to training. Every effort made by a training manager provides others with the foresight and opportunity to succeed. Training for the professional use of human resources is an important reward that cannot be ignored. A company with an enhanced workforce ability, experience and skills still has the upper hand over rivals, demonstrating in any company a significant source of competitive advantage. Training is described by Onyango, and Wanyoike

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(2014) as closing the gap between current performance and desired standard performance.

Training works as a means by which both an individual's knowledge and abilities are strengthened by performing a specific job while an employee is qualified (White & Knight, 2020; Nayeri et al., 2017; Tiwari & Saxena, 2012). Training environments are currently a way of implementing part of organisational advancement but not helping employee growth (Athar & Shah, 2015; Guan & Frenkel, 2019; Mira & Odeh, 2019; Mukminin et al., 2020). Training is described as a measured interference target by Owusu (2017) to improve the basics of individual job performance. Training was described by Ngirwa (2009) as a learning process in which representatives gain knowledge, skills, experience and arrangements that they need to properly carry out their activities to achieve their hierarchical goals.

This knowledge, skills, experience and arrangement that employees acquire as a result of training becomes a reward to the employee which motivates them to improve their performance. It also fills the difference between the demand for work and the current determination of employees. It basically implies that adjusting what employees understand how they work, their frames of mind towards their careers and associations (Fejes et al., 2019; Olveira et al.,, 2019; Fishman, Beidas et al., 2018). This mean training must be designed to involve either altering or upgrading the abilities, knowledge, frames of mind, and social behaviour of employees (Klug, Schultes & Spiel, 2018). This enhancement of abilities, intelligence, frames of mind, and social behaviour involves what the representative thinks, how he functions, his relationships and interactions with co-workers and executives.

Organisation climate

Lussier et al. (2008) said that organisational climate is the relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of the organisation as perceived by its member. Organisation climate is employees' perception that can be measured about culture, leadership style, structure, and practice, and personal policy from organisation (Dutka, 2002). Climate organisation is the most important thing because the employees' perception about the company is the basic of the employee's behaviour development, and the employees' attitude will be affected their behaviour (Ayers, 2005). The organisation climate is more about depiction of environment, rather than evaluating or show an emotional reaction.

Organisation can run well because the quality of employees been if the employee paid attention and created a good environment where there is no obstacle to work, the employees will give the true value to organisation (Ivancevich, 2008). Ivancevich (2008) defines organisation climate as a thing that can't be measured from work environment, that can be feel direct and indirect from employees and affected motivation and performance.

Career Development

Shoaib et al., (2009) described career advancement as an organised and formalised system with planned efforts to the success of both individual career needs and organisational objectives in order for the organisation to gain and maintain a competitive advantage. Van Dyk and Coetzee (2012) emphasized that career advancement may be internal or external career opportunities. Internal career advancement improves the employees' affective commitment to the organisation and hence improve the job performance for and enhance

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positive organisational politics. Career development includes all activities that prepare employees for career advancement. All employees within the organisation can join the program. Career development programs can be held by the in-house or outside parties. The program in-house training is usually held by the department and development of human resources.

This program can also be held by outside companies, such as organisations engaged in management. Organisations usually organise active management conferences, seminars, or any other career development program for employees. The outcomes of career development are beneficial to both individual employees and the organisation. Employees need new challenges to gain new competencies, and at the same time, promotion comes with extra income; on the contrary, the organisation will have talented and motivated employees who will contribute to organisational sustainability and competitive advantage. If employees perceive that they have a better chance to grow or get promoted within the organisation, then they could perform better.

Not all employees may enjoy performing the same job forever, some employees may want to grow and get promoted to more challenging work with more money. Dhanpat et al., (2018) acknowledged that a lack of opportunities to grow may result in job dissatisfaction and lead to employees seeking for better and more challenging to stimulate their growth and improve their job performance. Given that fact reward influences job performance, the next section focuses on discussing the two concepts.

Concept of Employee Performance

Employee performance or job performance as interchangeably used is a multi-dimensional concept. This is because employee performance is

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determined by more than one kind of behaviour (Mawoli & Babandako, 2011), and influenced by lots of determinants (Alromaihi et al, 2017). The performance of employees is a multidimensional term based on both Armstrong and Taylor (2014), which comprises two aspects: behavioural which involves the procedure and the results associated with the result. Anitha (2014) defined employee performance as a term that represents the employees' financial and non-financial results, which are essential to their performance and achievement. Khan, Yusoff et al., (2019) described the performance of employees from the human resource perspective as either human resource practices that directly impact this relationship.

Afshan et al., (2012), described performance of employees as performing particular tasks by organisation employees (through the effort of employees within such organisation) and measures it to the standards of precision, completeness, costs and pace set by organisations which have been pre-determined or established. A variety of metrics may be used to assess performance in either organisations or workers whose performance increases directly to that of an organisation. A range of organisation's performance indicators, which include productivity, reliability, efficiency, quality and profitability, are used (Saunders & Ahuja, 2006). Hasibuan (2012) employee performance can be interpreted as the result of a person's work in carrying out tasks on the basis of his/her expertise, experience, seriousness and time.

Nadeem, Ahmad, Abdullah and Hamad (2014) indicate that the output of an employee is the product of job or work. Mangkunegara (2008) states that the performance is the product of the work performed by an employee in terms of quality and quantity in fulfilling the duties assigned to him. Laosebikan et

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al., (2018) have generally described the performance of their employees as a term that usually refers to an individual doing their job well or not. Darma and Supriyanto (2017) have expressed their opinion that employee performance represents the extent to which employees fulfil the requirements of a job. Badar (2011) divides work output into two components: job performance and contextual performance. Task efficiency is the outmoded notion of the ability to perform well and complete unique work for employees.

Contextual performance is a category of performance that evaluates performance aspects that are not connected to particular activities, such as; undertaking, putting extra effort into motion, working together, observing the organization's rules and procedures, and approving an organization's objectives that are essential to the job. Employee work performance refers to an individual employee's level of productivity on many comparable work activities and results compared to his or her colleagues (Sarwar et al., 2015). Employee work performance can be seen as an action in which a person is able to accomplish the role assigned to him / her magnificently, subject to the usual constraints of fair use of available resources. Job production is output, which compares with the amount of productivity that results from a certain degree of efficiency-related costs (Sarwar et al., 2015).

On the other hand, Sarboland and Aghayi (2012) found that employee performance encapsulates employee conduct that requires comparison with organisational formats and expectations that have been determined. Quality norms are requirements for the attitude of employees at work. These norms cover more than how the job is done by an employee. Compared to certain criteria set by the boss, as described by Hewagama et al., (2019), workers are

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ranked on how productive and successful they do their jobs. Aguinis (2009) indicated that the effects of an employee's actions are not included in efficiency, but rather the behaviours represented by themselves. The work performance of Scullen et al., (2000) consists of four elements, including overall performance, human performance, technical performance and administrative performance.

According to Kazmi et al., (2008), a mixture of three variables working together is the product of job performance: ability, commitment and the existence of work conditions. The output of workers depends on the success and failure of organisations to a great extent (Chen et al., 2020). The success of workers is therefore emphatic in terms of enhancing organisational performance. Performance is the achievement of the mission assigned. Performance is the actual work performed as opposed to the performance predicted. Performance is the result of the effort exerted and the resources utilized (Chen et al., 2020). Performance is measured in terms of both efficiency and effectiveness of the employees (Ajayi & Afolabi 2012). Employees' knowledge of their roles in different work structures and work processes is pre-requisite for improved performance (Ngari, 2015).

Components of Employee Performance

Three main categories of work-performance behaviours were identified by Robbins et al. (2013). The first is the task output which performs the tasks and responsibilities that help to produce a good or service or to perform administrative functions. The second form is citizenship, which means 'actions that contribute to the organisation's psychological climate, including helping others when they are not needed, promoting organisational goals and

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respecting colleagues.' Whereas counter-productivity is the 'conduct that deliberately damages an organisation as negative behaviour. These actions include theft, harm to corporate property, and hostile behaviour toward colleagues (Robbins & Judge, 2013). All forms performances are vital to the interest of the company. Kappagoda (2012) has researched improved job performance and its effect on banking tasks and background.

He concluded that the improved job performance and the task performance of the bank personnel have a big effect on customer satisfaction and sustaining their performance (Kappagoda, 2012). Paul (2016) also found that because employees communicate with customers every day and curate the entire operations, customer loyalty would certainly be maintained in terms of results (Paul, 2016). The social network of the company and psychological surroundings that sustain technical tasks are improved by contextual performance or citizenship (Kappagoda, 2012). The main predictors (determinants) of job performances in the publishing of University of Minnesota Libraries (2015) are: perceptions of organisational justice and interpersonal relationships, stress and attitudes, especially improved job performance.

Campbell and Webernik (2015) maintained that the directives, strength and the length of the initiative are direct determinants of success, skills and decision-making. However, the work context model of Folami et al (2005) grouped the determinants into four categories, the human variables, the characteristics of the mission, the economic factors and the organisational context.

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Organisational Politics

Over the past three decades, numerous studies on organisational politics have been done (Vigoda & Drory, 2006) with a primary focus on the strength and capacities of an organisation, with some attention also paid to management and leadership (Bodla & Danish, 2010). Organisational politics involves scenarios like power struggles, debates over power sources and duties to influence, and understanding leadership processes and self-interested behaviour in the workplace (Vigoda, 2002). In addition, organisational politics attempts to influence colleagues or higher-ups inside an organisation, as defined by Sowmya and Panchanatham (2009). Additionally, the conventional definition of organisational politics is actions taken for personal gain, in opposition to the organisation's goals, and with the intent to damage other people or the organisation (Hochwarter & Thompson, 2010).

Kacmar and Baron (1999) shared that organisational politics is characterised by people acting in ways that serve only their interests, to the group's detriment. Informally gaining status in an organisation through reasons other than merit or chance is called organisational politics (Dubrin, 2010). Organisational politics are seen as an informal contest for authority within an organisation (Winning, 1978). Organisational politics refers to the art of advancing one's status inside an organisation through means other than one's talent or luck. It's only ever utilised for unethical power grabs. All authority is acquired through the pursuit of material gain, whether a higher position in one's organisation, the acquisition of a large sum of money or other resources, or the acquisition of particularly fruitful projects. The study of power as it is exercised (Pfeffer, 1981).

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According to Ferris et al. (1989), organisational politics is a matter of opinion rather than hard fact. The model proposed by Ferris et al. (1989) suggests that perceptions of organisational politics are inversely related to individual outcomes regarding their actions and beliefs. Organisational politics are any organisation's dynamics that involve acquiring authority and resources to produce desired outcomes (Ferris et al., 2019; Pfeffer, 1981). Organisational politics are an ever-present and unavoidable feature of any large group setting (Dappa et al., 2019; Pfeffer, 2013). Trust problems are linked to organisational politics (Bodla et al., 2011). When working in a low-trust workplace, people are more likely to be suspicious of their co-workers' motives (Harris, 2014). Significantly political activity is marked in an informal setting.

In times of political strife, it will be easier to diffuse the situation for data-driven workers who rely on concrete actualities. Maintaining a focus on the company's most significant interests is a fool proof strategy to ensure that your incentive will never be threatened (Brian, 2013). Mintzberg (1983) argues that organisational politics are unstable because higher-ups frequently punish neither individual nor group behaviour. However, this kind of conduct might spark rivalries among employees and departments inside the established framework of the corporation. According to Vigoda-Gadot., (2003), organisational politics occur when a person prioritises their own needs above those of the organisation as a whole or the people inside it.

Zivnuska et al. (2004) noted that while examining the connection between employee attitude and office politics, two aspects of organisational politics must be considered. First, the viewpoint and organisational politics are more significant than the truth. Secondly, depending on the worker, office

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politics can either help or hurt them. Organisational politics is defined by Bodla and Danish (2010) as individuals' behaviour and actions within an organisation to improve their performance and advance their professional careers. Therefore, an employee's outcomes can be predicted partly by how their organisation handles internal politics. The concept of organisational politics should not be viewed as something that can only be detrimental to the organisation's ability to function.

Managers are responsible for deciding on and enacting new strategies to reduce the adverse effects of politics in the workplace (Schneider et al., 2016). When workers feel that their superiors do not support them, they may be less motivated to achieve their best on the job (Nejad et al., 2011). As a result, there may be a sizable gap in replies based on how workers feel about the current political situation (Schneider et al., 2016). Depending on one's perspective, organisational politics might be understood as the subjective struggle for power within an organisation. Policies and interpretations of personal motivations are addressed as elements in personality or interest shifts, a political aspect (Alhamdi et al., 2019; Sharafi & Seyedameri, 2019).

This misperception can have a chilling effect on managers' and workers' faith in one another and their ability to mobilise and perform well (Zhang et al., 2019). Studies reveal a negative association between organisational politics and work satisfaction (Miller et al., 2008). The more political the workplace is, the less satisfied workers are with their careers. In addition, worker loyalty and discretion are influenced by organisational politics (Alnoor, 2020). It also impacts employees' feelings about their jobs and those they work with (Aziri, 2011; Robb, 2011). Additionally,

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organisational politics may worsen connections between managers and employees by lowering loyalty and raising interest in disengagement (Bender & Sloane, 1998). Employees that are happy in their jobs are more likely to share their ideas and remain dedicated to the company.

However, when employees have a poor perception of organisational politics and unsatisfactory handling by managers, it can lead to repercussions such as neglect, negative opinions, decreased decision-making quality, and increased withdrawal. Therefore, they experience maltreatment and adversely react to pain (Boroff & Lewin, 1997; Al-Abrrow et al., 2019). Organisational politics has been shown to harm employee happiness (e.g., Hassan et al., 2017; AL-Abrrow et al., 2018). Organisational politics discourages participation (Bergeron & Thompson, 2020) and loyalty (AL-Abrrow et al., 2021; Ishaq & Khalid, 2014) and encourages inaction (AL-Abrrow et al., 2018) and departure (Ishaq & Khalid, 2014; Abbas et al., 2021).

Measurement of Organisational Politics

Landells and Albrecht (2016) identified five characteristics of organisational politics that could include positive and negative views. Those skills included networking, image management, resource management, persuasion, and communication. These metrics extend upon and overlap with other established metrics of organisational politics (Kacmar & Ferris, 1991; Drory, 1993; Kacmar & Carlson, 1997; Fedor & Maslyn, 2002; Hochwarter et al., 2003; Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2003). For example, items in the general political conduct and get along to get ahead aspects of Kacmar and Ferris (1991) Perceptions of Organisational Politics Scale (POPS) and Hochwarter et

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al. (2003) unidimensional measure are similar to items in the relationships and reputation dimensions.

In particular, neither the Perceptions of Organisational Politics Scale (POPS) and Hochwarter et al. (2003) measures explicitly focus on influencing decisions or gossip, so the addition of measures focused on controlling decisions and resources, influencing decision-making, and using communication channels expands the scope of existing measures. Like other current organisational politics measures, the one developed by Landells and Albrecht (2016) focuses on employees' impressions of the political climate within the company rather than individuals' actual political interactions.

Empirical Review

This section focuses mainly on the review of empirical works relating to transfer pricing in Ghana. The rationale for reviewing this empirical literature is to gain more insight into the state of transfer pricing within multinational corporations in Ghana. Three studies were reviewed. These studies were selected because they are the most closely related works on this subject matter under discussion.

Reward Systems and Job Performance

Firstly, Osibanjo et al., (2014) undertook a study that aimed at assessing the impact of compensation on employees' performance and retention. The study targeted staff in private universities in Ogun State Nigeria, South-West Nigeria. The population of the study included both academic and non-academic staff. 156 respondents were targeted for the study, however, 110 responded, making a 70.5% return rate. The respondents were randomly selected to participate in the study through the simple random

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sampling technique. Structured questionnaire was used for the primary data collection. The financial reward variable was made up of indicators such as direct payments (salaries), indirect payments (bonuses, incentives, allowances). Data analysis was performed with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences [SPSS].

The hypotheses were analyzed through the use of structural equation modelling. Specifically, hypotheses were tested using some commonly used model fit indices such as Normed Fit Index (NFI), Goodness of fit (GFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) in structural equation model (SEM) analysis. It was discovered that strong relationship between compensation packages and employees' performance. Further it was found that direct regression coefficient value between salary and performance was 0.13, which was significant. Specifically, it was concluded that salary was a significant positive predictor of employee performance. bonus and incentives also made statistically significant positive contribution to predicting the positive variance in employee performance among staff in private universities in Ogun State Nigeria, South-West Nigeria.

Furthermore, Sukanta et al., (2018) conducted a study that to assess the impact of financial and non-financial incentives on job performance. The study treated motivation to work as a moderating variable. The study was done in Savings and Loans Cooperative Mitra Sari Dana Drenpasar Oleh. The study employed a censes as the main research design because of the small size of the total population. Structured questionnaire was employed for the collection of primary data. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was also employed to analyse the data through the SMART PLS application. Quality criteria

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employed for model calculation included convergent validity (Outer loadings), discriminant validity (AVE, Cross-loadings) and composite reliability. Thresholds for assessing these criteria were all met statistically.

It was discovered that both financial and non-financial incentive positively impacted on employee motivation significantly. Additionally, it was discovered that financial incentive significantly impacted on job performance. Similarly, it was found that non-financial incentives have positive and significant impact on job performance. Moreover, Hussain, Khaliq et al., (2019) conducted a study to evaluate the effect of employees' recognition, rewards and job stress on performance, in the wake of controlling for a mediating role of perceived organizational support. The study used a positivism research paradigm attributable to the exceptionally quantitative nature of the way to conducting the study. It also used the deductive research approach.

The study used survey research design. Primary data collection was used as instrument for collecting the primary data collection. The population included employees in call centers based in Lahore, Pakistan. The study focused on 200 respondents and gave the questionnaires to them accordingly of which 180 effectively correctly filled questionnaires were subsequently retrieved. Structural Equation Modeling was used for the primary data analysis given cognizance specific hypotheses. The confirmatory factor analysis results show all the indicators adequately measured the constructs given cognizance to their factor loadings, p-values, Average Variance Extracted, Cronbach's Alpha and Composite Reliability. Discriminant validity was measured HTMT ratio.

It was discovered that rewards, recognition, perceived organizational support and job stress were significant but positive contributors to predicting significant variance in employee performance. Perceived organizational support also fully mediated the relation between the predictors and employee performance.

Reward Systems and Organisational Politics

Murtaza et al., (2022) conducted a study on the effects of organisational politics and effort–reward imbalance on work outcomes – the moderating role of mindfulness. The purpose of the study was to examine the moderating effects of mindfulness on the relationships between work stressors (perceived organisational politics [POP] and effort–reward imbalance [ERI]) and work outcomes (job burnout [JBO] and job satisfaction [JS]). The study formulated four research hypotheses. The study tested model with data from three different sectors in Pakistan and France, that is education, agricultural research units, and telecom (industry-wise responses and demographic characteristics are reported in the complementary file). Structured questionnaire was used to collect the primary data. The study used both English and French language in the questionnaire.

The original questionnaire was used in English because it is the official language of higher education and business in Pakistan. The study obtained a French version of the questionnaire for French respondents via two-way back translations. 376 questionnaires were distributed amongst faculty members, researchers and telecom employees in Pakistan. Of the 376 survey questionnaires, 291 were returned in the first round (response rate of 80%). Also, in the second round, 291 questionnaires were distributed through

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personal and professional contacts, and 226 were returned. The study excluding nine incomplete questionnaires, there was an adequate sample of 217 (response rate of 74%). In addition, with respect to the French sample 357 questionnaires was used in the study. Of the 357 questionnaires, 247 were returned (response rate of 69%). In the second round, 211 questionnaires were returned, and we excluded 7 incomplete questionnaires from our dataset.

The final sample used in this study was 204 questionnaires response rate of 82%. The study used 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1(strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). POP was measured using 12 items developed by Kacmar and Carlson (1997) based on three subscales, i.e. general politics behaviour (six items), go along to get ahead (four items), and pay and promotion policies (two items). ERI was assessed with a scale-shortened version developed by Siegrist et al. (2009) comprising 10 items, 3 of which were related to an employee's effort. A 15-item scale developed by Brown and Ryan (2003) was selected to capture the individual's level of mindfulness at the workplace. The study used three subscales of the Melamed (2009) burnout inventory to measure burnout at the workplace, i.e. physical fatigue (six items).

The study adapted the Brayfield and Rothe (1951) scale to measure JS using five items. It was found that mindfulness moderates the relationship between work stressors and work outcomes. It was also mindfulness serves as a personal resource for employees: it mitigates the negative influence that POP and ERI have on JBO and JS. The study recommended that managers must develop strategies to reduce political involvement in organisations' policies that relate to employee benefits. Moreover, managers must take corrective

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measures in balancing employee efforts and rewards by introducing for example fair policies, procedures and performance appraisal systems because they directly or indirectly impact their organisation's outcomes.

Organisational Politics and Job Performance

Samad (2011) conducted a study on the most prevailing aspect of organisational politics that influences job performance: case study of Malaysian government servants. The purpose of the study was to determine the relationship between organisational politics (OP) and its components with job performance (JP). The components of OP were general political behavior (GPB), going along to get ahead (GATGA) and pay and promotion policies (PPP). The study, also determined the contribution of the overall organisational politics, general political behavior, going along to get ahead and pay and promotion policies on job performance. Consequently, the study investigated the most prevailing aspect of organisational politics that influences job performance. Four hypotheses were formulated in the study. Data for the study was collected based on a multistage random sampling from 349 government civil servants in Malaysian public organisations.

The response rate was 69.8% from the sample of 500 staff. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to test and answer the hypotheses and objectives of the study. The self-administered questionnaires obtained were then analyzed using SPSS (Special Package for Social Sciences) version 16. Factor analysis was conducted on OP scale to compare the dimensionality of this scale in this sample with the one proposed (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997). From the preliminary analysis, it was found that the subjects to items ratio for this variable in the study were correlated with other item at least 0.5 or more in

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magnitude value and within the acceptable magnitude value. The independent variables of the study were organisational politics (overall OP) and its components or dimensions of general political behavior (GPB); going along to get ahead (GATGA) and pay and promotion policies (PPP).

Organisational politics perceived by the respondents were gauged using perceptions organisational politics scale (POPS) which was adapted from an instrument developed (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997). The POPS were used to measure OP which contains 15 items and was be divided into three components mainly GPB (two items), GATGA (seven items) and PPP (six items). The items of the scale were measured using five-point Likert scale (with 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Also, job performance (JP) was measured based on the combination of two components of task performance (TP) and counterproductive work behavior (CWB). The seven-item measures of task performance were adapted from Williams and Anderson's (1991) based on the scale of 1 = never, 2 = hardly ever, 3 = occasionally, 4 = often, 5 = very often.

Meanwhile counterproductive work behaviors questionnaire developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000) was adapted in the study. The study used a five-point Likert scale of 1 = never, 2 = hardly ever, 3 = occasionally, 4 = often, 5 = very often. The dependent variable of the study was the score of TP and CWB. The results revealed that the overall of OP and its components were related negatively to job performance. The GATGA aspect of OP emerged as the most prevailing factor that influenced JP. Findings and implications for managerial practices from the study are discussed and put forward. The study concluded that GPB, GATGA and PPP contributed about 18.5% of variance

on JP. GPB however has no influence on JP. Only GATGA and PPP have an influence on JP.

The study concluded that the GATGA component of OP has the highest contribution in explaining the variations of JP and emerged as the most prevailing factor to JP. The study recommended that leaders in the civil service should recognize that organisational politics will subsequently harm the organisation hence measures should be taken to minimize perceptions of OP amongst the civil servants such as by providing clear and accurate performance assessments, empowering subordinates where possible, promoting workplace openness and fostering appropriate freedom of ideas. Also, at the macro level, effective communication should be adopted to minimize misinterpretations and adverse perceptions among employees.

Yuan, Xiao, Li and Chen (2015) conducted a study on Leader-member exchange differentiation and team member performance, the moderating role of the perception of organisational politics. The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) differentiation and team members' job performance. The conceptual model developed also investigates the moderating role of the perception of organisational politics (POP) in affecting the association between LMX differentiation and team members' job performance. The study was underpinned using LMX theory. The study formulated four hypotheses to achieve the objectives of the study conducted a pilot test based on a small sample of 80 MBA students randomly selected in a university. The study collected data using a survey from 32 Chinese firms specifically Beijing, Guangzhou, Shanghai, Shenzhen, Changsha, and Chengdu.

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Data for the study were collected using a questionnaire. The questionnaire included scales measuring LMX, POP, job performance, and demographic variables. The final sample consisted of 122 teams with 561 employees. The hypothesised relationships among variables were assessed using hierarchical linear modelling. A total of 960 questionnaires were distributed with the help of the HR department of each company during the summer of 2013. The received 582 questionnaires back, and after omitting those questionnaires with missing values, the final sample consisted of 561 valid responses from 122 teams, yielding a response rate of approximately 58.4 per cent. In addition, among all these valid responses, the average team size was 4.6 members, 48.6 per cent of respondents were male and approximate 77.3 per cent were younger than 40 years old. Also, half of respondents (50.1 per cent) hold a bachelor's degree or a graduate degree.

LMX scale was adopted from Haynie et al., (2014) and Liden and Maslyn, 1998). The scale included 16 items and respondents reported their agreement with items such as "I admire my manager's professional skills". The study scored all items from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), higher scores reflecting higher levels of LMX. The reliability of this scale was 0.929. POP was measured with the scale developed by Kacmar and Carlson (1997). The scale includes 16 items with the sample item such as "some small groups can do whatever they want in our enterprise". The study scored all items from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), higher scores reflecting higher levels of POP. The reliability of this scale was 0.924. Also, the scale of task performance was adapted from the scale used by Lapierre et al. (2012), and included five items such as "I can adequately complete assigned duties".

The study scored all items from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), higher scores reflecting higher levels of task performance. The reliability of this scale was 0.903. In addition, employees' contextual performance was measured by the scale with 15 items developed by Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996). The study used a sample item like "I will offer support and help for colleagues who are facing troubles". The study scored all items from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), higher scores reflecting higher levels of contextual performance. The reliability of this scale was 0.940. The results show that the higher the LMX differentiation, the lower the level of team members' contextual performance. The study also found that POP has a significant effect in positively moderating the relationships between LMX differentiation and team members' contextual and task performances.

The study concluded that the effect of LMX differentiation on team members' job performance is positively moderated by POP. Specifically, with a higher level of POP, the negative role of LMX differentiation was stronger in affecting team members' task performance and contextual performance. The study recommend that managers use objective and justified criteria to form high-quality exchange relationships with subordinates as employees' perception of fairness is conducive to a good work performance and positive emotions.

Organizational Politics, Reward Systems and Job Performance

Kartono et al., (2017) conducted a study on the personality and organisational politics on employee's performance, studies at local government enterprises of people credit bank in West Java Region III. The study aimed to explain personality, organisational politics, and employee

performance and to analyse the influence of personality and political organisations on employee performance. The study specifically analysed the relationship between personality and organisational politics, influence of personality on employee's performance, influence of organisational politics on employee's performance and influence of personality and organisational politics on employee's performance. The study formulated four hypotheses to achieve the stated objective. The study employed both descriptive and explanatory survey. The population comprised all employees of PD BPR in Ciayumajakuning Region.

The population included Cirebon City, Cirebon, Indramayu, Majalengka and Kuningan Regency. A sample 115 respondents were selected through random sampling. Analysis was performed by regression analysis using SPSS version 19.0. Validity and reliability analysis was also conducted and it was found that 39 question items for variables of personality, organisational politics, and employee performance showed that r correlation value was greater than 0.199 and reliability coefficient was above 0.6 which met the reliability requirement and therefore all variables were considered reliable. It was found that there is a significant correlation between personality and organisational politics. The results showed that the direct effect of personality on employee performance had the path coefficient of 0.454, the direct influence of 20.61% and was statistically significant.

In addition, the findings also showed that the influence of organisational politics on employee performance had a path coefficient of 0.238, the direct influence of 5.66% and was statistically significant. The study concluded that organisational politics has direct and significant impact

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on employee performance. It was also concluded that personality and organisational politics influenced employee's performance. The study recommended that management should be able to manage political aspects in the organisation in order to avoid bad influence for the achievement of organisation's goals. In addition, management of PD. Bank Perkreditan Rakyat (BPR) in West Java Region III Cirebon should make real effort that to create working condition with minimum political interest.

Al-Busaidi et al., (2021) conducted a study on the influence of human resource management practices on employee performance at private companies in Oman, moderating role of organizational politics. The goal of this research is to determine the link between HRM practises and employee performance in Oman's privatised enterprises. Specifically, the study sought to examine how HRM practices influence the performance of employees and the role of organisational politics in modulating the relationship between HRM practises and employee performance. The study formulated ten (10) hypotheses to achieve the stated objectives. The theory underpinning the study was Harvard theory.

The study targeted employees of eight private enterprises in Oman and these included Oman Electricity Transmission, Oman Fisheries Company, Salalah Port, Sembcrob Salalah, Oman National Livestock, Nomac Oman, Al Maha Petroleum, and Sur Water Desalination. These private enterprises have a total population of 3519 employees, however the study selected only 700 for the data collection the study used a survey questionnaire that was sent through email to the respondents, but 440 were acknowledged, 20 of which were unusable for further research due to missing data and key informants who did

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not respond to the questionnaires. The others have not responded, despite the researcher's repeated attempts. Finally, a total of 420 questionnaires were processed for additional analysis, yielding a response rate of 60%.

Five-point Likert-type scales were utilised in the study. The six variables were assessed using the expressions "Strongly agree" (5) and "Strongly disagree". All of the measurements were based on past studies. For compensation practise, 6 items were adopted and adapted from the scale developed by Wilson (2003) and Maund (2001), 6 items from Chand & Katou (2007) and Jones & Wright (1992) for training and development, 15 items from Kanungo (1982) for employee empowerment, and 9 items from Morgeson & Humphrey for job design (2006), 7 employee performance items and were derived from Kacmar & Carlson (1997). Organization politics items were 15 and taken from Kacmar & Carlson (2012).

Pre-tested was conducted. SPSS v23 and Smart-PLS 3.3.3 was used to analyse the data collected. The study looked at the content validity, reliability and Cronbach alpha coefficients for each scale, and found that they all met reliability limits, with coefficients of 0.70 or higher in all cases. The study also conducted an analysis on the prevalent technique bias using the Harman's One-Factor Test and it was discovered that there was no significant concern with common method variance. The study results revealed that of the 10 hypotheses formulated, all five direct associations were found to have a significant positive relation. However, none of the five moderating hypotheses revealed significant with organisational politics. It was concluded that HR practise (training and development, compensation package, performance

appraisal, job design, and employee empowerment) predicted employee performance.

It was also concluded that organisational politics had no moderating effect on the link between HR practise (training & development, remuneration package, performance appraisal, employee empowerment, and job design) and employee performance. The study recommended that private companies in Oman should take quick action and prepare the industry to compete with local firms.

Lessons from Empirical Review

Several lessons were learnt from the empirical review. First of all, it was discovered most of the studies did not assess the effect of organisational politics on the relationship between reward and employee performance concurrently. Also, none of the studies targeted employees of University of Cape Coast. Therefore, the context of this study can provide enough empirical findings for further studies and actions. Similarly, it was discovered that most of the studies employed structured data collection instrument for the primary data collection and therefore this supports that choice of structured questionnaire in the context of study. SPSS was the mostly used application for data processing and data analysis and therefore, the study also used it accordingly.

Furthermore, it was discovered that Likert scales were mostly used for the measurement of the opinions of the respondents in most instances and therefore, a 7-point Likert scale was adopted in this study. Internal consistency was measured with Cronbach's Alpha value and therefore, same measure was

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adopted for assess the reliability of the instrument used for the primary data collection.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework shows how the dependent variable is related to the independent variable and the role of the moderating variable in the reward-performance relationship. These relationships are depicted in Figure 1.
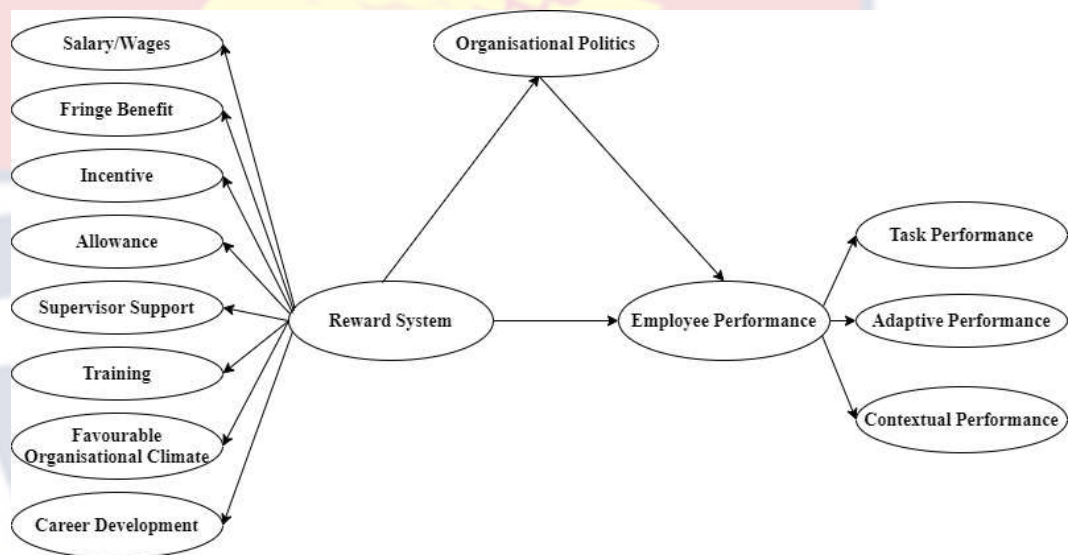
Figure 1: Conceptual Framework
Source: Author's construct (2022)

The conceptual framework in Figure 1 consists of three sets of variables; the independent variables: rewards; mediating variable: organisational politics; the dependent variable: employee performance. Rewards have two major dimensions; financial and non-financial. Based on the above-conceptualized framework, it is hypothesized that extrinsic and intrinsic rewards have a positive effect on Employee Performance. The framework also hypothesizes that organisational politics has a moderating effect on the relationship between rewards and Employee Performance thereby influencing the strength and direction of the relationship.

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Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the theoretical and empirical literature with the developed conceptual framework that guided the study. The equity theory was reviewed to expose the foundation underlying the concepts of rewards and performance. The empirical review revealed that there is a significant relationship between reward and employee performance. The chapter concluded with a review on the mediating variable i.e. organisational politics and its influence on employee performance. Based on the literature reviewed a conceptual framework establishing the relationship among the variables was developed and presented.

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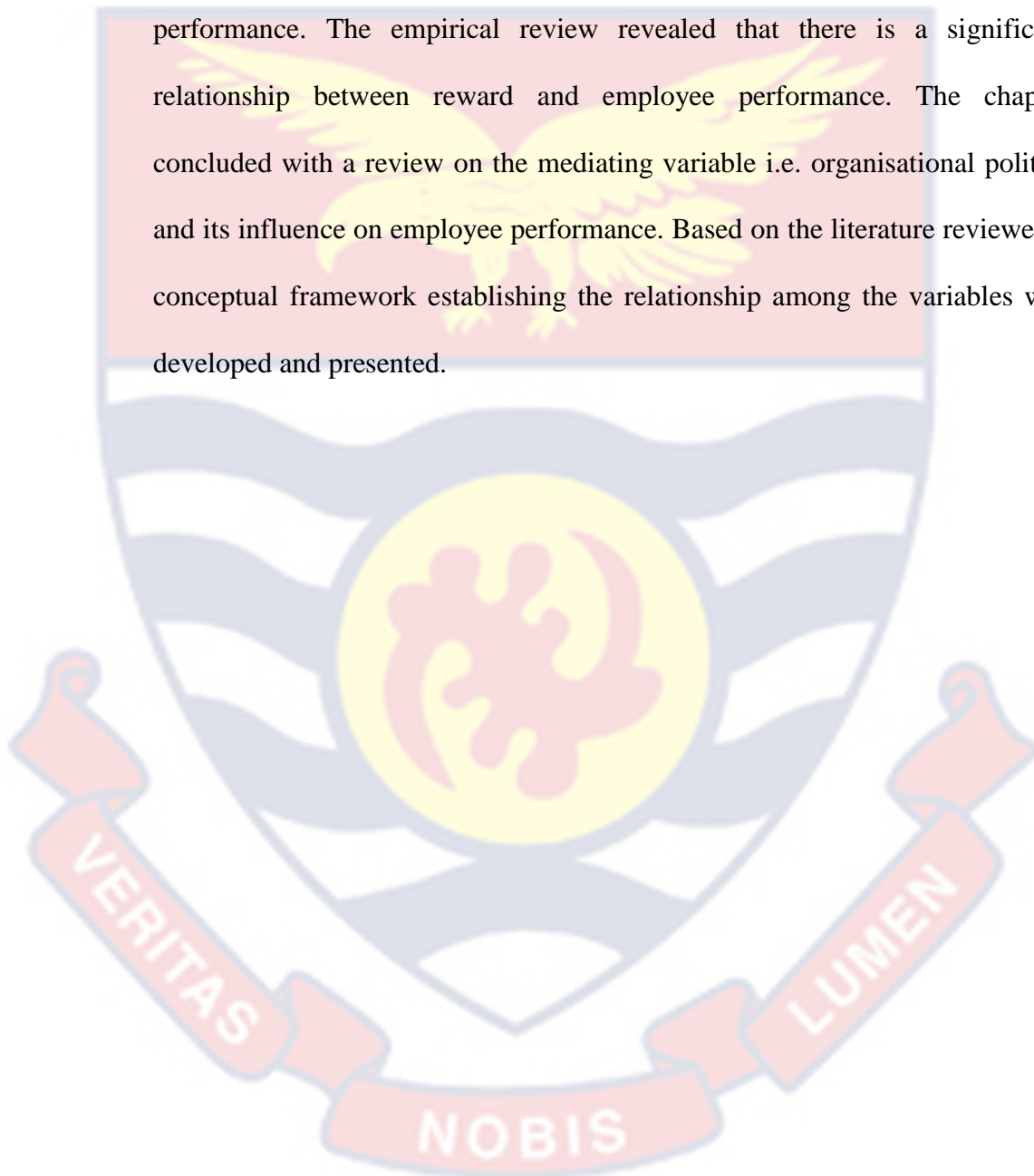
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

Introduction

This section presents a description of the research approach and research design, the study area, the population, and the sample size and sampling technique which are used for the research. It also provides a vivid description of data sources, data collection instrument, data collection procedure, as well as procedures for data processing and analysis.

Research Philosophy

The philosophical paradigm describes the creation of knowledge and the essence of knowledge. Specific ideas, attitudes, and worldviews influence every researcher during the study process (Marsonet, 2019). According to Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2016), research philosophy is a set of ideas and assumptions about how knowledge develops. Individual researchers' ideas about these elements will often drive them to adopt a qualitative, quantitative, or mixed-methods approach to their study (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Saunders et al. (2016) emphasized that "Positivism, critical realism, interpretivism, postmodernism, and pragmatism" are the five fundamental research ideologies. This study adopted the positivist philosophy. The positivist philosophy reflects the assumption that absolute truth can be applied to the study of phenomena through a scientific approach (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Kamal, 2018; Kankam, 2019).

Therefore, the study assumes that objective results relating to the specific research objectives would be produced to inform scientific evidence-based decision-making through the application of scientific research

methodology. Empiricism is the main characteristic of positivism. It posits objective universal reality, regulated by universal laws and mechanisms; thus, it is factual sensed by human senses in the environment (Kankam, 2019). Objectivity is the focus of the positivist philosophy against the backdrop of testing hypotheses or theory and highlighting both the researcher and the research as separate structures through distancing (Taysum, 2017). The positivist paradigm helps in generating generalizable replicable findings (Saunders et al., 2016). On the other hand, positivism is criticized because it focuses on only observable phenomena at the expense of unobservable phenomena (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016).

According to Saunders et al. (2016), positivism is the philosophical framework that holds subjects that can be scientifically tested and generalise the results. Positivists, therefore, emphasise the processes of analysis that would contribute to the generation of facts that are not affected by human interpretation. The study is expected to establish hypotheses using the current theories. The theories were used to test and validate, in whole or in part, or debunked, leading to the further advancement of the hypothesis that further testing would then be undertaken (Creswell, 2009; Saunders et al., 2016). Positivism offers objective facts and has the objective of universal truth that deals with human activities in management sciences, according to Saunders et al. (2016) and Sekaran and Bougie (2016). The key aim of the philosophy of the positivist research model is to clarify the relationships between cause and effect. It is an apt guide for this research, provided that hypotheses will be tested and relationships formed based on the theories.

Research Approach

The study adopted the quantitative research approach. This is because the measurements of the items in the scale were numerically rated by the respondents based on predetermined rating scales (5-point Likert scale). Besides, per the nature of the primary data required, design of the data collection instrument, research objectives, statistically application for data processing, statistical tools for data analysis as well as the theoretical foundation of the study, the adoption of quantitative research design becomes the obvious option in the face of both qualitative and mixed research approaches.

According to Creswell (2014) quantitative approach deals with explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analyzed using mathematically based methods (in particular statistics). Quantitative research approach is a research strategy that quantification in the collection and analysis of data (Bryman, 2012; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Quantitative methods (normally using deductive logic) seek regularities in human lives, by separating the social world into empirical components called variables which can be represented numerically as frequencies or rate, whose associations with each other can be explored by statistical techniques, and accessed through researcher-introduced stimuli and systematic measurement (Rahman, 2017).

This approach usually begins with data collection based on hypothesis or theory and is followed by the use of descriptive statistics (Shekhar et al.,, 2019, Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). Measurement methods are often described as environmentally friendly, in the sense that assumptions from statistical tests lead to general assumptions about demographic characteristics. Calculation

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methods are also often seen as assuming that there is only one "truth" present, independent of human perception (Galli, 2019). Quantitative findings may be made for the general public or minority because it includes a larger randomly selected sample (Carr, 1994).

Research Design

According to Potwarka et al., (2019) research design is considered as a set of arrangements made to collect and analyze data in a way that seeks to integrate compliance with the purpose of the research process and economics. Williams (2007) also described the structure of the study as "a system, structure and strategies and an integrated investigation to ensure query inquiry and diversity control" as stated in Zikmund (2000). According to Young and Javalgi (2007) a master plan that describes the process and methods for obtaining and analyzing the required information is considered a research design.

Various explanations provided by Zikmund (2000), Zikmund et al., (2012), Williams (2007) and Young and Javalgi (2007) have shown that the building of research involves a systematic way in which relevant information is analyzed and interpreted economically and procedure form. It is therefore a concept of data collection, measurement and analysis. The research design should be quickly identified and the research problem selected and organized, the objectives of the research are well defined, the concepts and problems are well defined and the research ideas are well documented (Zikmund, 2000). Akhtar (2016) revealed that research design involves a systematic approach in which the right information is collected analysed and interpreted economically and with procedure.

The study used both explanatory and descriptive research design as a result of scientific research supporting this research. Thus, driven by the concept of causal relationships between constructs – rewards systems and organizational politics (Independent variable) and employee performance (variable dependency). Explanatory studies are presented by research ideas that describe the nature and direction of the relationship between study variables. In line with Zikmund et al., (2013) explanatory research design is performed for you to discover the volume and nature of cause-and-impact relationships. Potwarka et al., (2019) further restated that the premises of positivism research paradigm are to institute cause-impact relationships. Positivists pursue for consistencies to make predictions and installed scientific rules.

On the premise of this, there may be the opportunity that the universe may be analyzed with scientific strategies (Viotti & Kauppi, 2019). This research is naturally a causal study. The primary purpose of explanatory research is to explain why things happen and predict future events (Potgieter et al., 2019; Wipulanusat et al., 2015). One thing that informs the decision to use an explanatory research design is that it aids the logic of cause-impact association amongst the variables of interest accordingly. (Asad, Hassan et al.,, 2019). Kumar (2019) defines a descriptive survey as a design that describes prevailing situations or linkages including finding out the nature of existing situations, practices and attitudes, available choices, progressing processes or developing trends.

Descriptive survey research design is dedicated to the collecting of information about important situations for description, analyses, interpretation,

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comparisons, identification of trends and relationships and interpretation (Aggarwal, 2008). Simply, it is a process of gathering data on the prevailing status of the subject of the study. The researcher preferred the descriptive survey design because the researcher sought to examine the numerical description of the reward system and the level of job performance of administrative staffs at the University of Cape Coast. Again, the researcher uses the survey because the researcher collects data from respondents about the main issue of interest using a questionnaire instrument to test the proposed relationship (Glasow, 2005).

Other scholars have justified that surveys research design enable researchers to collect large amounts of data (Hair et al., 2008) to obtain understanding of the phenomenon (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2017; Saunders, et al., 2009). Apart from the various advantages, descriptive survey research design has its own disadvantages. One of the justifications against the design of the study is that, it reflects certain level of bias due to the absence of statistical tests (Hair et al., 2008). Also, Creswell (2014) argue that the major issue with respect to the design is that they are not repeatable due to their observable nature.

Study Unit

The University of Cape Coast is a university in Ghana established in 1962 out of a dire need for highly qualified and skilled manpower in education and was affiliated to the University of Ghana. It was established to train graduate teachers for second cycle institutions such as teacher training colleges and technical institutions, a mission that the then two existing universities were unequipped to fulfil. On October 1, 1971, the College

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attained the status of a full and independent University, with the authority to confer its own degrees, diplomas and certificates by an Act of Parliament - The University of Cape Coast Act, 1971 [Act 390] and subsequently the University of Cape Coast Law, 1992 [PNDC Law 278]. Since its establishment, the university has added to its functions the training of education planners, administrators, agriculturalists, and health care professionals.

The University of Cape Coast now has a total student population of 74,720. The University of Cape Coast today, organized into six colleges, namely Agriculture and Natural Sciences, Distance Education, Education Studies, Humanities, and Legal Studies, Health and Allied Sciences, and School of Graduate Studies and Research. Each college has different schools and departments under them. The University Council is the executive body of the university's governance system. It has overall responsibility for the administration of the University and the management of its resources. The Council superintends relations between the University and outside bodies on matters. The Council in carrying out its duties is responsible for the appointment or nomination of certain members of various committees.

UCC has 12 directorates that perform functions to support the university. The administrative and support functions of the University are grouped into the following Directorates; Academic Planning and Quality Assurance, Finance, Information and Communication Technology Services, Internal Audit, Procurement, Physical Development and Estate Management, Research, Innovation and Consultancy, and University Health Services. All these directorates are managed by administrators, some of who are females.

The vision of the University is to have a university that is strongly positioned, with worldwide acclaim. Its mission is to provide a quality education through the provision of comprehensive, liberal and professional programmes that challenge learners to be creative, innovative and morally responsible citizens.

Population

Population according to Amrhein, Trafimow and Greenland (2019) consists of the entire group of persons who are of interest to the researcher and who meet the criteria that the researcher is interested in studying, or a set of individuals having some common characteristics. According to Saunders, Thornhill and Lewis (2007) population is the full set of cases from which a sample is drawn. Population can be seen as the target group about which the researcher is interested in gaining information and drawing conclusion (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Robson, 2002). The population included all the total number of permanent employees of the University of Cape Coast. An estimated 969 permanent staff of the University of Cape Coast constituted the target population (Division of Human Resource, University of Cape Coast, 2020). This targeted population were the administrators of the University of Cape Coast. Administrators were chosen for the conduct of the study because they possess the required characteristics needed for this kind of study. The administrators constituted only senior staff.

Sampling Procedure and Sample Size

Sampling is a statistical approach of acquiring a representative population to take information or data concerning a whole population by analyzing only a portion of it (Babbie, 2007). Sampling has also been referred to the act, process, or technique of selecting a suitable sample, or a

representative part of a population for the purpose of determining parameters or characteristics of the whole population (Strouse et al, 2019; Malhotra & Birks, 2007; Bassey, 1995). According to Bryman (2009) sampling is very essential because, in almost all cases, it is not possible to study all the members of a population.

Three basic types of sampling techniques exist. These are non-probability sampling, probability sampling and mixed approach sampling techniques. According to Buchanan and Bryman (2009) in non-probability sampling, not all the members of the population have the opportunity to be selected for the sample. The definition of a non-probability sampling technique defines the population that will give a reliable inference about a population. Non-probability sampling techniques include convenience sampling, quota sampling, network sampling and purposive sampling. Probability sampling on the other hand, has its elements having equal chance or opportunity of being selected for the sample.

This sampling technique tends to increase the likelihood of achieving the aim of choosing members that precisely represent the entire population from which the members were chosen. Probability sampling technique includes simple random, stratified, cluster or multi stage sampling (Cavana et al., 2001). Estimating the extent of probable success is the main aim of the probability sampling technique. As a result, probability theory serves as the basis for a member of a population to be included in a sample. Mixed sampling technique, according to Wurtz (2015) is a sampling strategy whereby the combination of non-probability and probability sampling techniques are employed at different stages in research.

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Before sampling, it is important for the sample size to be determined first. Based on the targeted population size of 969, a minimum sample size of 269 senior administrators of the University of Cape Coast was selected to participate in the study through a random sampling technique. In this study, the researcher used the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sample determination table which pegs the sample at 269 administrative staff of the University of Cape Coast. Simple random sampling technique was used for the selection of the respondents from the sampling frame. Unique identification numbers were generated for all the elements in the sampling frame and through the lottery method, the qualified respondents were randomly selected through hand-picking method (Lohr, 2019; Mohammed, Ibrahim, Siri & Noor, 2019; Sharma, Hickman & Nassir, 2019). This gave each respondent equal chance of selection (Kim & Wang, 2019; Kadilar & Cingi, 2006; Vijayalakshmi & Sivapragasam, 2019) and also supported the parametric approach to analyzing the primary data (Choromanski et al., 2019).

Data Collection Instrument

Primary data collection was done through structured questionnaire. Questionnaire is a formalized set of questions for obtaining information from respondents (Singer & Couper & Peterson, 2017; Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Young and Javalgi, (2007) provided that surveys using questionnaires are the most widely-used data-gathering technique in research and can be used to measure issues that are crucial to the management and development of businesses (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). The closed ended questions require respondents to choose from among a given set of responses and require the

respondents to examine each possible response independent of the other choice.

The close-ended items employed checklist (a list of behavior, characteristics or other entities that the researcher is investigating), Likert scale (which is more useful when behaviour, attitude or other phenomenon of interest needs to be evaluated in a continuum) dichotomous questions and multiple-choice questions (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Generally, McColl (2005) posits that there are distinct advantages in using questionnaires rather than interview. Data analysis is made easier and straight forward when structured questions are used for primary data gathering. The researcher's decision to use questionnaire stemmed from the fact that it is the best method by which reliable information can be obtained from a large population. This is supported by Taylor et al., (2011) who asserted that the use of questionnaire is a sensible way for data collection if factual information is needed from substantial number of people.

A 7-point Likert scale was used to measure the opinion, attitude and behavior of the respondents regarding the questionnaire items. A Likert scale is an ordered scale from which respondents choose one option that best aligns with their view. The 7-point Likert scale was used in this study because it is often used to measure respondents' attitudes by asking the extent to which they agree or disagree with a particular question or statement. The scale in which responders specify their level of agreement to a statement was typically in seven points: (1) Least level of Agreement; through to; (7) Highest level of Agreement.

The questionnaire was made up of four subdivisions. These subdivisions were in line with the specific objectives of this study. Section A of the questionnaire measured the Demographic data of the respondents and had five variables in all. Section B of the questionnaire measured reward systems at the University of Cape Coast and had forty-eight (48) items. In a similar fashion, section C of the questionnaire measured the organizational politics at the workplace which comprised of 10 indicators/items. Finally, the section D of the questionnaire measured the employee performance of the respondents. These items were included in the instruments based on the specific objectives of the study. Again, the instruments of the questionnaires were adopted. It also comprised of 23 indicators/items. The questionnaire is presented in Appendix A.

To ensure the validity of the constructs, extant empirical review was carried out and this informed the choice of the items that were included in the scale. Again, initial scale that was developed was administered to 5% of similar sample size from the University of Education, Winneba. Detailed discussion was done with these respondents which then informed the alteration of the scale. This procedure was based on the recommendation presented by Keesler and Fukui, (2020). After this, the questionnaire was submitted to the supervisor for more clearing up and authorization. Again, to ensure the reliability of the scale, Principal Component Factor Analysis was piloted where the results of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin [KOM] measure of sample adequacy and Barlett's Test of sphericity proved helpful. The factors created were then evaluated in terms of their reliability through the internal consistency approach as measured by the Cronbach's Alpha.

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Validity and Reliability

In order to ensure content validity of the instrument, the study ensured proper definition measuring items, scale scrutiny by experts and scale pre-testing. These were in line with the principles of McDaniel and Gates (1996). Reliability and validity are two key components to be considered when evaluating a particular instrument. The level of the reliability of an instrument is measured by Cronbach's Alpha value (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). As posited by Pallant (2016), Cronbach's alpha coefficient for variables is generated to validate the reliability of the instrument. Pallant (ibid) also indicates that scales with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.70 and above are considered reliable. However, studies such as Boohene et al., (2012) support coefficient of 0.5. The results of the pre-test were used to assess the reliability of the instrument. The result is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Questionnaire Items and Their Reliability Coefficients

Variable	Questionnaire Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Rewards	48	0.703
Organisational Politics	10	0.707
Employee Performance	23	0.701

Source: Field survey (2022)

Table 1 provided the values of Cronbach's alpha for all the variables. It appears from the table that the values of Cronbach's alpha ranged between 0.701 and 0.707. These values are all well above the minimum value of 0.50. In this case, based on the criteria of Boohene et al., (2012), it can be concluded that all the items of measurement showed a high level of reliability and have an acceptable level of reliability.

Data Collection Procedure

Permission for the data collection exercise at the University of Cape Coast was sought from the authority of the university when a letter was issued by the Graduate School of School of Business in University of Cape Coast was sent to the university's authority. Permission for the primary data collection was then granted. The sampling frame was then made available to the researcher. The purpose of the study was explained to all participants. Consent of the respondents was sought. Date for questionnaire distribution to the participants were set on some agreed terms. The terms were that respondents would answer the questionnaire during their break time and they would not be forced to answer any question they did not understand or agree to.

The drop-and-pick survey approach was adopted. The questionnaire was self-administered to the respondents. Trained research assistants also supported the primary data collection exercise. The above procedures helped the researcher to collect the required data needed for the analysis of the research objectives. The survey was administered on 17th December, 2021 and collected on 16th February, 2022.

Response Rate

In this study, the sample size was two hundred and sixty-nine (269) senior administrators. This means that a total of 269 questionnaires were issued from which 238 were filled and returned which represents a response rate of 88.5%. This means 31 (approximately 11.5%) were not returned as it can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2: Response Rate

Questionnaire	Count	Percentage (%)
Returned	238	88.5
Non-Returned	31	11.5
Total	**269**	**100**

Source: Field survey (2022)

The 88.5% return rate was considered to be satisfactory based on Mugenda and Mugenda (2008) who opined that a response rate of 50% is enough for analysis and reporting; a rate of (60%) is good and a response rate of (70%) and over is excellent. The high response rate was accredited to the fact that the candidate had contacts in the study area and that facilitated the data collection process. Besides, the candidate personally administered the questionnaires and made a lot of efforts to make many follow-ups between research assistants and the respondents calls to clarify queries with the intention to improve the high response rate.

Data Processing and Analysis

Data analysis is a method of data editing, cleaning, transformation, and modelling in order to highlight useful details, recommendations, assumptions, and help decision-making (Adèr & Adèr, 2008). The use of analytics involves the reduction of complex information into meaningful and actionable data (Johnson et al., 2010). Questionnaire answers were edited, coded and entered for review in the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS version 25.0). In social science research, this statistical program is recommended to us (Zickmund, 2000). For each of the constructs, composite variables were generated and this strengthened holistic approach to data analysis was reinforced.

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The data was analyzed and interpreted for demographic information with descriptive statistical techniques such as frequency count and percentage. Data were analyzed and interpreted for objectives 1 and 2 using descriptive statistical techniques such as mean and standard deviation. To evaluate objective 3, inferential statistics such as regression analysis were used, while objective 4 was analyzed with SPSS process macro advanced by Hayes (2022). Linear regression helps one to forecast a result based on one or more predictors (Kellar & Kelvin, 2013; Polit, 2010). The results were presented chronologically on Tables and Figures, which made the analysis and discussion of the results simpler and clear.

Ethical Consideration

As indicated by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007), any social researcher should seek permission from the respondents stating clearly their intentions and being guided by research ethics. The respondents were therefore informed of anonymity and confidentiality. The researcher assured the respondents that their names would not be disclosed. As such, all information received from them (respondents) would be treated with the highest degree of confidentiality. In addition to this, the researcher also informed the respondents that they were free to cease to give any response if they so wish. Finally, the researcher did not withhold any information about the study's possible risks, discomfort or benefits or deliberately deceive study subjects on these matters.

Chapter Summary

This chapter explained in details the methodology followed in carrying out the research. The theoretical foundation of the study, research approach, research design, sampling technique, procedures for data collection, data collection instrument and data analysis were thoroughly discussed. The positivism research paradigm was used as the theoretical foundation of the study. The quantitative research approach was employed for the study because the data collected using questionnaire was quantitatively analyzed by using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive research design was adopted to ensure objectivity in the research process. Simple random sampling technique was used to select samples for the study. The data collection instrument used was a 7-Likert scale questionnaire. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25 was the software used to analyze the data.
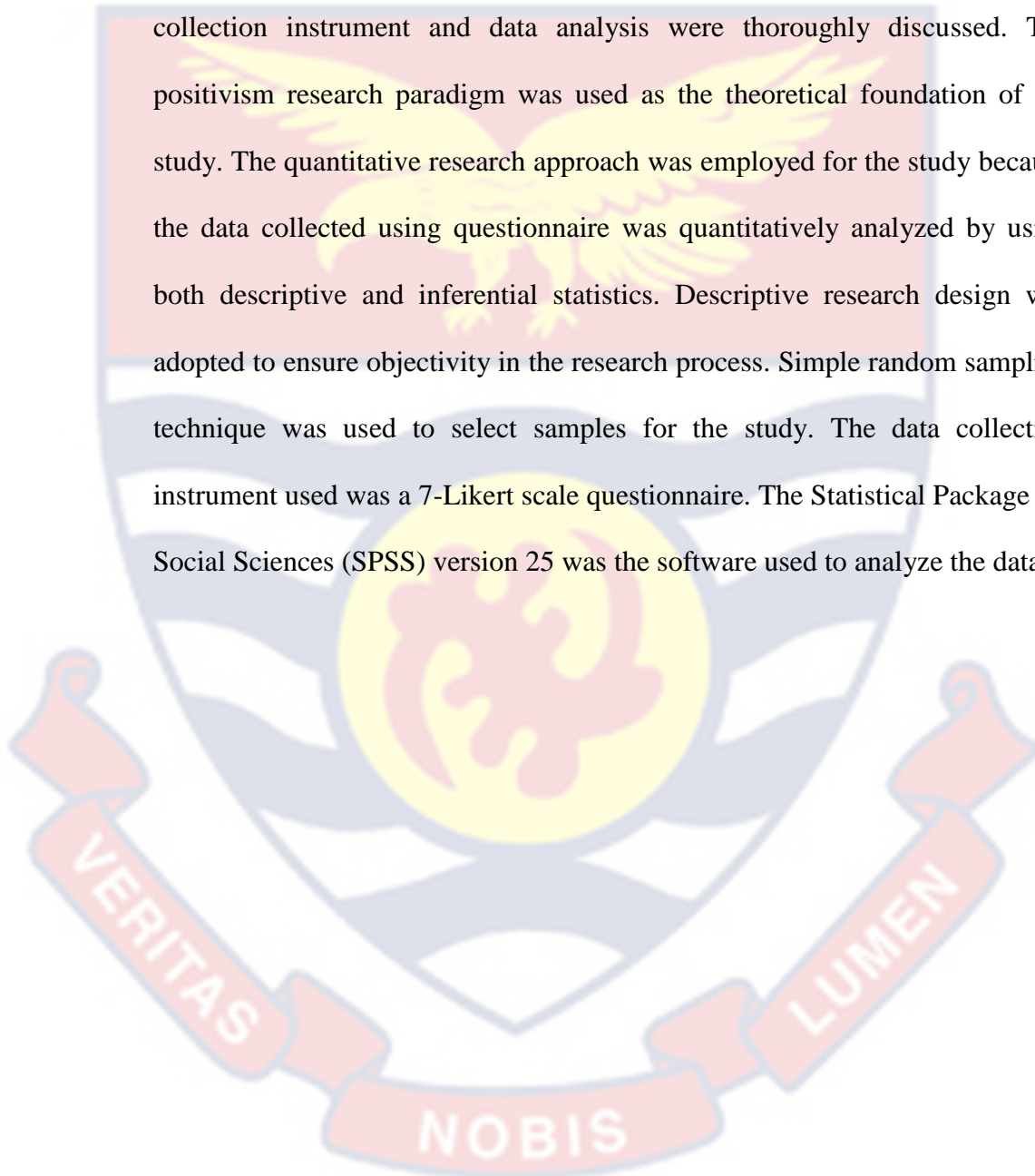
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter presents the study's findings based on the stipulated study objectives. The study aimed to assess the mediation role of organizational politics between reward systems and employee performance among administrators in the University of Cape Coast, Ghana. Specifically, the study sought to evaluate the reward systems of administrative staff in the University of Cape Coast, assess the level of performance of administrators at the University of Cape Coast, examine the influence of reward systems on the job performance of administrators in the University of Cape Coast and investigate the mediation of organizational politics on the relationship between reward systems and job performance.

Out of the two hundred and sixty-nine (269) questionnaires distributed to the study participants, only two hundred and thirty-eight (238) were fully completed and returned, representing 88.5%. This means 31 (approximately 11.5%) was neither not completed or not returned. This section provides information about the demographic characteristics of the surveyed respondents. The findings were based on descriptive statistics, regression, and mediation analysis and have been sectionalised to reflect the objectives.

Demographic Information of Respondents

This part presents and discusses the initial data sought from the respondents. It includes the demographic characteristics of the respondents used for the study. Five essential characteristics of the study respondents related to the study were gathered. These characteristics were sought to inform

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readers about the population used for the study concerning their experiences. The characteristics that fulfilled the above purpose are the sex of the respondents, age of the respondents, educational qualification of the respondents, staff ranking of the respondents and working experience of the respondence. The results of the characteristics of the respondents are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Demographic characteristics of Respondents

Variable	Options	Frequency	Percentage
Sex	Male	93	39.1%
	Female	145	60.9%
Age	Below 30 years	71	29.8%
	31-45 years	106	44.5%
	46-60 years	58	24.4%
	Above 61 years	3	1.3%
Educational qualification	HND	66	27.7%
	Degree	121	50.8%
	Masters	32	13.4%
	PHD	19	8.0%
	Professional	0	0.0%
Staff ranking	Senior staff	76	31.9%
	Junior staff	162	68.1%
Working experience	0-10 years	101	42.4%
	10-15 years	67	28.5%
	15-20 years	49	20.6%
	Above 20years	21	8.5%
Total		238	100.0%

Source: Field survey (2022)

The result relating to the sex distribution of the respondents show that majority of administrative staff in the University of Cape Coast are female (60.9%). The remaining 39.1% of the respondents are male administrative staff. Per the sexual distribution of this study, it can be inferred that the workforce structure of administrative staff at the University of Cape Coast is

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female-dominated. This connotes the idea that generally females are more caring hence having the desire to work in the administrative setting and is assumed that, they best fit for the portfolio as such. The age distribution of the workers that were surveyed shows that most of the respondents were between 31 and 45 years (44.5%). This is followed by those below the age of 30 (29.8%) and then those in the 46-60 years range (24.4%). The remaining 1.3% are above 61 years.

The implication of the age range distribution is that the workforce structure of administrators at the University of Cape Coast is youthful in nature although a relatively sizable number (24.4%) are above 46 years. The University is therefore in position to put in place employee development and retention strategies so as to build and utilize the human capital of this youth for the betterment of the University given the quest to improving operational efficiency. The educational qualification shows all the workers have had formal education experience with most of the respondents having degree as their current highest educational certification (50.8%). 27.7% of the respondents had HND certification whilst 13.4% have master. The remaining 8.0% of the respondents have their PHD.

These results prove management of the university must take advantage of the talent of this workforce and capitalize on their relative knowledge, skills and abilities to improve the operational efficiency of the University of Cape Coast. Making career advancement plans to ensure the upgrading of the educational status of administrative staff in the university is commendable. Equal opportunity and support should be given to deserving staff in that respect. The staff ranking of the respondents shows most of them are junior

staff (68.1%) whilst the remaining 31.9% are senior staff. This actually reflects normal hierarchy of typical functional organisation because of the fact that those at the operational level are always larger than those at the tactical and strategic level in that order. The working experience shows that most of the respondents have less than 10 years working experience (40.4%).

Again, the study shows 42.40% of the staff has 0-10 years working experience whilst 28.20% have 10-15 years working experience. 20.60% and 8.8% of the respondents have 15-20 years working experience and above 20 years working experience respectively. With the respondents having enough working experience, they are better positioned to provide accurate and reliable information that could be relied on to make the study a success.

Objective One: Evaluate the Reward Systems of Administrative Staff in the University of Cape Coast

This section of the study focuses on the first objective of the study, which examined the reward systems of administrative staff in the University of Cape Coast. To assess the reward systems of administrative staff at the University of Cape Coast, the responses were descriptively measured with the means (M) and standard deviation (SD). The mean was used because it showed the average responses to each item, whereas the standard deviation showed the variation in the responses to each item. Also, the items' responses were measured with a seven-point numerical scale such that one (1) represents least level of agreement and seven (7) represents highest level of agreement. On a scale of one (1) to seven (7), the accepted midpoint is 3.9, such that any mean score below 3.9 is regarded as least level of agreement, and a mean score above 3.9 is regarded as highest level of agreement.

According to Wan et al., (2014), anytime measures of central tendencies are computed, there is the need also to compute the measure of variation. However, there is no threshold for acceptable variation, but each variation can be compared with the variations of other items under the same construct. In analysing the reward systems of administrative staff, the study used several indicators to reflect reward systems of administrative staff at the University of Cape Coast, as shown in the Tables below. In this study, the reward systems were salary, fringe benefits, incentives, allowance, supervisor support, training, organisation climate, career development, training and development and career opportunity. The descriptive statistics were applied, and the findings are captured in Table 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11.

Table 4: Salary/ Wages

Statement	Mean	Std. Deviation
I receive my salary/wages on timely basis at the end of every month.	4.0223	1.97547
The basic salary/wages I receive matches the effort I put in my work	4.4201	1.94469
The processing of the overtime allowance is timely	4.5316	1.82129
I am satisfied with the overtime rate per hour am being paid	4.3197	1.84118
The final payment of my overtime allowance is timely	4.3271	1.81742
Average mean and standard deviation	*4.3234*	*1.62893*

Source: Field Survey (2022)

Table 4 indicated that the respondents agreed to all items used to measure their salary information. For instance, they highly agreed that they receive their salary/wages on timely basis at the end of every month (M=4.02; SD=1.98). Also, the basic salary/wages they receive do not match the effort

they exert in their work (M=4.42, SD=1.94). Further, the processing of the overtime allowance is not simple nor straight forward (M=4.53: SD=1.82). Likewise, they are satisfied with the overtime rate per hour they are being paid (M=4.32; SD=1.84). Lastly, payment of their overtime allowance is not timely (M =4.33; SD =1.82).

Table 5: Fringe-Benefit

Statement	Mean	Std. Deviation
I am satisfied with the package offered for my annual leave	4.4126	1.80711
The benefits offered on retirement are appreciable	4.3197	1.78771
The benefits offered to my family upon my death are appreciable	4.3160	1.59540
The process for obtaining a study leave with pay is timely	4.1450	1.63833
Organizational scholarships for research are readily made available	4.1784	1.67892
Average mean and standard deviation	*4.2398*	*1.48269*

Source: Field Survey (2022)

Table 5 indicated that the respondents agree that they are satisfied with the package offered for my annual leave (M =4.41; SD =1.81). Again, the benefits offered on retirement are not appreciable (M =4.32; SD =1.79) and the benefits offered to my family upon their death are not appreciable (M =4.32; SD= 1.60). On the other hand, respondents declared that the process for obtaining a study leave with pay was timely (M=4.15; SD=1.64) and organizational scholarships for research are readily made available (M =4.18; SD =1.68).

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Table 6: Incentives

Statement	Mean	Std. Deviation
My responsibility allowance commensurate with requirements of my present position	4.2416	1.57794
The allowances I receive for taking up other additional duties is adequate	4.4461	1.68007
The processes involved in obtaining additional duty allowance are simple and straightforward	4.5613	2.09142
My entertainment allowance is adequate	4.6171	1.77625
The committee sitting allowances I receive are appreciable	4.7435	1.86414
The processing of committee sitting allowance are simple and straightforward	4.7584	1.75484
The final payment of committee sitting allowance is timely	4.7584	1.84400
Average mean and standard deviation	*4.6877*	*1.64961*

Source: Field Survey (2022)

Table 6 showed that the processes involved in obtaining additional duty allowance are simple and straightforward (M = 4.56; SD = 2.09). Likewise, their entertainment allowance is adequate (M = 4.62; SD = 1.78). The respondents indicated that the committee sitting allowances they receive are appreciable (M = 4.74; SD = 1.86) and the processing of the committee sitting allowance are simple and straightforward (M = 4.76; SD = 1.75). Again, respondents were agreed that their responsibility allowance commensurate with the requirements of my present position (M = 4.24; SD = 1.58). In addition, the respondents agreed that the final payment of committee sitting allowance is timely (M = 4.76; SD = 1.84) and also the allowances they receive for taking up other additional duties is adequate (M = 4.45; SD = 1.68).

Table 7: Allowance

Statement	Mean	Std. Deviation
My housing allowance adequately covers my rent charges for the month	4.8810	1.76427
My fuel allowance adequately covers my monthly transportation cost to and from work	4.5539	1.53135
My vehicle maintenance allowance is sufficient to maintain my car on monthly basis	4.2416	1.72913
My electricity subsidy sufficiently covers my electricity bills per month	4.0335	1.69139
My travel expenses allowance adequate	4.3978	1.77927
Average mean and standard deviation	*4.4665*	*1.39889*

Source: Field Survey (2022)

Table 7 indicated that the respondents were okay with their fuel allowance and it adequately covers their monthly transportation cost to and from work ($M = 4.55$; $SD = 1.53$). Similarly, their vehicle maintenance allowance is sufficient to maintain their car on monthly basis ($M = 4.24$; $SD = 1.73$). Furthermore, their electricity subsidy sufficiently covers their electricity bills per month ($M = 4.03$; $SD = 1.69$) and their day trip and overnight allowances adequately cover their travel expenses ($M = 4.40$; $SD = 1.78$). Similarly, the respondents mentioned that their housing allowance does adequately covers their rent charges for the month ($M = 4.88$; $SD = 1.76$).

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Table 8: Supervisor Support

Statement	Mean	Std. Deviation
The organization takes pride in my accomplishments	4.1784	1.80529
My superior praises staff who do good work	4.5762	1.79311
The organization willing to help me if I need a special favour	4.9926	1.64360
The organization values my contributions to its well-bring	4.5874	1.90365
The organization strongly considers my goals/value	5.2082	1.66207
Average mean and standard deviation	*4.7086*	*1.37346*

Source: Field Survey (2022)

According to Table 8 respondents were in agreement that the organization takes pride in their accomplishments (M = 4.18; SD = 1.81) and that their superior praises people who do good work (M = 4.58; SD = 1.79). More so, the organization is willing to help them if they need a special favour (M = 4.99; SD = 1.64). It was found that the organization values contributions of respondents to their well-being (M = 4.59; SD = 1.90). Finally, respondents revealed that the organization does strongly considers their goals and values (M=5.21; SD=1.66).

Table 9: Training

Statement	Mean	Std. Deviation
My organization has stated policies on the extent of training employees	5.0112	1.92486
I am aware of the type of training my organization is planning for me in the coming year	4.7770	1.78365
This organization provide access to training	4.9033	1.64304
Participating in training programs help personal development	5.1487	2.86125
Participating in training programs helps perform job better	4.9480	1.73557
Participating in training programs help stay up to date on new processes related to job	4.9851	1.78503
Average mean and standard deviation	*4.9033*	*1.40825*

Source: Field Survey (2022)

From Table 9, it can be seen that the respondents believe that engaging in training programs would support their personal growth (M = 5.15; SD = 2.86). Correspondingly, engaging in training programs would support them remain up to date on new processes and items or procedures related to their work (M = 4.99; SD = 1.79). The respondents stated that they are aware of the extent and type of training that their organization is preparing for them in the coming year (M = 4.78; SD = 1.78). Also, this organization offers access to training (M = 4.90; SD = 1.64) and engaging in training programs would allow them to get the most (M = 4.95; SD = 1.74). This also means that the teaching is not highly observed by the respondents. The participants were aware to the fact that their organization has set out policies on the extent and type of training that workers can expect to receive (M = 5.01; SD = 1.92).

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Table 10: Favourable Organizational Environment

Statement	Mean	Std. Deviation
I feel that the rules in the university are clearly explained	4.6059	1.81436
I think the procedures in the organization are applied firmly	4.8216	1.78032
I feel that regulation in the organization is always evaluated as required	4.7398	1.56666
I feel that the procedures in the university are applied flexibly	4.7584	1.54931
I feel reward on my performance in the university is being accepted according to work efforts	4.6580	1.49693
Punishment in the organization is applied according to the level of mistakes	4.6803	1.49440
The university gives clear information openly about risks of employee decisions that will happen to the decision made by employees	4.6097	1.54294
I am given the liberty to make decision on my job	4.2937	1.61823
My university appreciates different opinions at the work place	4.6543	1.59856
I feel there are mutual relationships among other employees at the work place	3.7435	1.80722
Average mean and standard deviation	*4.7091*	*1.27611*

Source: Field Survey (2022)

With regard to the favourable organizational environment variables, Table 10 showed that the participants least accepted that they feel that there are reciprocal relationships between employees at work ($M = 3.74$; $SD = 1.81$). Furthermore, the participants were aware to the fact that they feel that the rules in the university are clearly clarified ($M = 4.61$; $SD = 1.81$) as well as the procedures in the organization are strictly enforced ($M = 4.82$; $SD = 1.78$). In addition, they feel that the rules in the organization are always revised as needed ($M = 4.74$; $SD = 1.57$). They also feel that the reward system for their success in the university is acknowledged according to the job effort ($M = 4.66$; $SD = 1.50$). In addition, the respondents were aware to the fact that the

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university offers explicit information freely about the dangers of employee decisions that will occur as a result of the employees' decisions (*M* = 4.61; *SD* = 1.54).

Again, they have the right to make a decision on their job (*M* = 4.29; *SD* = 1.62). Their university appreciates and listens to the differences of opinion at the workplace (*M* = 4.65; *SD* = 1.60). It was discovered that the participants were in agreement that the procedures in the university are implemented flexibly (*M* = 4.76; *SD* = 1.55) and punishment in the organization is applied according to the level of mistakes (M = 4.68; SD = 1.49).

Table 11: Career Development

Statement	Mean	Std. Deviation
I am given the opportunity to join development programs initiated by the university	5.1115	1.80862
I feel that the need of my career development is being fulfilled	5.1190	1.77692
I am supported by my employer in order to plan my career development	5.0112	1.58228
Employees feel that they are getting information required to join development program	5.3606	1.65721
I feel I have enough information about career opportunities in the organization	5.2007	1.65849
Average mean and standard deviation	*5.1606*	*1.28147*

Source: Field Survey (2022)

It was discovered from Table 11 that the participants were in agreement to the fact that there were given the opportunity to enter the advancement programs launched by the university (*M* = 5.11; *SD* = 1.81) and that they feel that the need for their career growth has been met (*M* = 5.12; *SD* = 1.78). Also, they are sponsored by their employer to manage their career

development (M = 5.01; SD = 1.58). Also, the participants agreed that the workers they are having all the information needed to enter the advancement program (M = 5.36; SD = 1.66) and they have enough information about job opportunities in the company (M = 5.20; SD = 1.66).

In order to be in existence for a long time, the universities must consider reward system as the key motivator for workers and as an essential tool and cost for the institution Popoola & Ayeni, 2007). Favourable results such as incentives, allowances, training, support and organisational climate are extremely important as they would help create an efficient and competitive organization (Forest, 2001). Favourable monetary reward system such as the incentives and allowances are the key factors that may lead to improvement in the job performance of employees (Hussain et al., 2019). High standard of reward system and support would build feelings of responsibility on the employer and make workers feel like they have to repay the employer's loyalty by participating in activities that support organizational objectives (Ahmad & Yekta, 2010).

Training and growth would offer opportunities for workers to progress in their careers (Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012). However, less favourable salary and fringe benefit may show the universities neglects for motivation and may cause some employees' problems such as low morale, low performance, high turnover, reckless conduct and even employee dishonesty (Bagri et al., 2010; Bebchuk & Fried, 2003). Again, this may affect main outcomes such as work satisfaction, performance, attraction, retention, efficiency, skills development, collaboration and motivation (Griffin, 2000). Employees may also perform badly due to poor wages, which might negatively impact the overall

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organisational performance (Sukanta et al., 2018). Similarly, if you pay less than other employers for similar jobs, workers are likely to not to give out their best in performing their task (Handelsman, 2009).

Objective Two: Assess the Level of Performance of Administrators at the University of Cape Coast

The study further sought to assess how the respondents perceived to have improved their performance given the kind of rewards systems that have been paid to them for the exchange of their services as staffs of the university. In order to assess the performance of employees, respondents were asked to what extents they agree that proper rewards system at the University of Cape Coast improves their job performance and their responses were descriptively measured with the means (M) and standard deviation (SD). The opinions of the respondents were measured on a 7-point Likert scale. The items' responses were measured with a seven-point numerical scale such that one (1) represents least level of agreement and seven (7) represents highest level of agreement.

On a scale of one (1) to seven (7), the accepted midpoint is 3.9, such that any mean score below 3.9 is regarded as least level of agreement, and a mean score above 3.9 is regarded as highest level of agreement. In analysing the performance of administrative staff, the study used several indicators to reflect the job performance of administrative staff at the University of Cape Coast, as shown in the Tables below. In this study, the job performance was task performance, adaptive performance and contextual performance. The descriptive statistics were applied, and the findings are captured in Table 12, 13 and 14.

Table 12: Task Performance

Statement	Mean	Std. Deviation
I maintain high standard of work	3.9442	1.90655
I am capable of handling my assignments without much supervision	3.7844	1.77828
I am very passionate about my work	3.8625	1.83041
I know I can handle multiple assignments for achieving organizational goals	4.0297	1.92370
I complete my assignments on time	4.2937	2.07850
My colleagues believe I am a high performer in my organization	4.2082	2.01519
Average mean and standard deviation	*4.0204*	*1.65095*

Source: Field Survey (2022)

It was discovered from Table 12 that the participants were least agreed to the fact that they maintain high standard at work (M = 3.94; SD = 1.91) and capable of handling my assignments without much supervision (M = 3.78; SD = 1.78). Also, they are not very passionate about their work (M = 3.86; SD = 1.83). However, the participants highly agreed that they know they can handle multiple assignments for achieving organizational goals (M = 4.03; SD = 1.92) and they complete their assignments on time (M = 4.29; SD = 2.08). Similarly, participants highly agreed that their colleagues believe they are high performer in their organization (M = 4.21; SD = 2.02).

Table 13: Adaptive Performance

Statement	Mean	Std. Deviation
I perform well to mobilize collective intelligence for effective team work	4.3309	1.71424
I could manage change in my job very well whenever the situation demands	4.2565	2.13299
I can handle effectively my work team in the face of change	4.2714	1.98801
I always believe that mutual understanding can lead to a viable solution in organization	4.3755	2.07785
I lose my temper when faced with criticism from my team members (RC)	5.5836	2.00686
I am very comfortable with job flexibility	3.6729	1.84190
I cope well with organizational change from time to time	5.1004	1.95690
Average mean and standard deviation	*4.5130*	*1.10136*

Source: Field Survey (2022)

With regard to the adaptive performance variables, Table 13 showed that the participants accepted that they perform well to mobilize collective intelligence for effective team work (M = 4.33; SD = 1.71). Furthermore, the participants highly agreed that they manage change in their job very well whenever the situation demands (M = 4.26; SD = 2.13) as well as handle effectively their work team in the face of change (M = 4.27; SD = 1.99). In addition, they always believe that mutual understanding led to a viable solution in organization (M = 4.38; SD = 2.08). They also lose my temper when faced with criticism from my team members (M = 5.58; SD = 2.01). In addition, the participants highly agreed that they cope well with organizational change from time to time (M = 5.10; SD = 1.96). However, the respondents

were oblivious to the fact that they are very comfortable with job flexibility

($M = 3.67$; $SD = 1.84$).

Table 14: Contextual Performance

Statement	Mean	Std. Deviation
I extend help to my co-workers when asked or needed	5.2268	1.84994
I love to handle extra responsibilities	5.4089	1.74388
I extend my sympathy and empathy to my co-workers when they are in trouble	3.3903	1.88673
I actively participate in group discussions and work meetings	3.7026	2.04630
I praise my co-workers for their good work	5.5502	1.72835
I derive lot of satisfaction nurturing others in this firm	5.5130	1.55401
I share knowledge and ideas among my team members	3.8178	1.50382
I maintain good coordination among fellow workers	4.8625	1.54039
I guide new colleagues beyond my job purview	4.9480	1.66311
I communicate effectively with my colleagues for problem solving and decision making	5.7026	1.60015
Average mean and standard deviation	*4.8123*	*.92141*

Source: Field Survey (2022)

It was discovered from Table 14 that the participants were in highly

agreed to the fact that they extend help to their co-workers when asked or

needed ($M = 5.23$; $SD = 1.85$) and love to handle extra responsibilities ($M =$

5.41; $SD = 1.74$). Also, they praise their co-workers for their good work ($M =$

5.55; $SD = 1.73$) and maintain good coordination among fellow workers (M =

4.86; SD = 1.54). In addition, respondents highly agreed that they guide new

colleagues beyond my job purview (M = 4.95; SD = 1.66) and communicate

effectively with my colleagues for problem solving and decision making (M = 5.70; SD = 1.60).

However, the participants least agreed that they extend their sympathy and empathy to their co-workers when they are in trouble (M = 3.39; SD = 1.89), actively participate in group discussions and work meetings (M = 3.70; SD = 2.05) and share knowledge and ideas among their team members (M = 3.82; SD = 1.50). This claim supports similar views held in some previous studies (Fejes et al., 2019; Oliveira, Lopes & Spear-Swerling, 2019). Taking initiative promotes employee creativity and organizational innovativeness and therefore management should continue to create working climate that essentially fosters this initiative among workers. Also, since the productivity of employees have increased tremendously due to the provision of rewards (Elmaga & Imran, 2013).

University of Cape Coast stand the chance to improve its overall organizational performance since individual performance has the capacity to translate into organizational performance (Sarwar et al., 2015; Yot-Dominguez et al., 2019). Since success and failure of organizations depend on employees (Berkman et al., 2019), management must continue to put in measures to maintain and improve the indicators of employee performance as measured in the context of this study so as to improve employee performance and organization-wide performance as well (McCulloch et al., 2011).

Preliminary Results

The preliminary data review covers the descriptive statistics of the data obtained. It analysed the common method bias, the test of validity, normality test, descriptive statistics of the data, and the constructs.

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Test of Validity

The validity of an instrument is based on how well the instrument tests the fundamental definition it was supposed to test (Saunders et al., 2009). An instrument must be accurate, which means that it is repeatable and that when this has been done to ensure its validity, the instrument may be inspected to see if it is in line with its stated purpose. To provide the validity of the questionnaires, the researcher looked at other relevant literature and approved the instrument's creation in those works. There were no scientifically proven items on the scales. The researcher required a final check and approval before distributing it to the survey participants. In addition, the results of Kaiser-Meyer-sampling Olkin's adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity must be checked and validated before the principal component factor analysis results may be considered acceptable.

A sample adequacy score of at least 0.50 (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) and a test of sphericity (Bartlett's p=0.000; p0.05) must be met. According to Harris, (1962) KMO results are classified as follows:

In the 0.90s=Marvelous

In the 0.80s=Meritorious

In the 0.70s=Middling

In the 0.60s=Mediocre

In the 0.50s=Miserable

Below 0.50=Unacceptable

This study's findings (see Table 15) show that these conditions have been satisfied. Thus, the results of the factor analysis may now be interpreted appropriately.

Table 15: KMO and Bartlett's Test

		Reward System	Organisational Politics	Job Performance
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.843	.909	0.837
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	11073.953	2801.918	4100.466
	Df	1128	45	253
	Sig.	0.000	0.000	0.000

Source: Field Survey (2022)

The results of the KMO and Bartlett's sphericity tests (Table 15) demonstrate that it is acceptable to interpret the principal component factor analysis findings in place of assessing the validity of the scales used to measure the constructs of interest. According to the KMO and Bartlett's test findings, the KMO's for reward system is meritorious, organisational politics is marvelous and job performance is meritorious. Based on these, the confirmatory factor analysis results can be considered to check the validity of the scales employed in measuring constructs considered in the study.

Common Method Bias

Table 16: Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
RS	14.382	29.962	29.962	14.382	29.962	29.962
OP	3.803	25.355	25.355	3.803	25.355	25.355
JP	7.156	31.112	31.112	7.156	31.112	31.112

Source: Field Survey, (2022)

The common method bias results proved a threat of common method bias (% of variance >50%) for the respective constructs under investigation. The EFA results shows the first extracted factors explicated 29.962%,

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25.355% and 31.112% of the variance which is lower than the 50% threshold, hence the conclusion that common method bias is not found in the context of this study in respect of reward system, organisational politics and job performance. However, preliminary measures were implemented to avoid this problem (Anim et al., 2020). Harman's single factor technique is employed for the common method of bias measurement.

Test of Normality

Table 17: Test of Normality for Organisational Politics

			Statistic	Std. Error
Organisational	Mean		3.3325	.03526
Politics	95% Confidence	Lower Bound	3.2630	
	Interval for Mean	Upper Bound	3.4020	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.3307	
	Median		3.3333	
	Variance		.262	
	Std. Deviation		.51215	
	Minimum		2.08	
	Maximum		4.58	
	Range		2.50	
	Interquartile Range		.67	
	Skewness		.027	.167
	Kurtosis		-.294	.333

Source: Field Survey (2022)

The normality results found in Table 17 proved that the data distribution regarding organisational politics was approximately normally distributed because the Skewness and Kurtosis scores were closer to zero (Pallant, 2005). Besides the z-scores (Statistics/Std. Error) of skewness (.1617) and Kurtosis (-0.8829) for the construct, organisational politics was between the threshold of -1.96 and 1.96.

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Table 18: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Organisational Politics	.060	211	.064	.992	211	.340

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Source: Field Survey (2022)

Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests operate on the null hypothesis that a variable data is not statistically normally distributed if p>.05. From the Table 18, all tests show a p>.05, which implies we fail to reject the null hypothesis and reject the alternative hypothesis of test normality which states that the variable data is identical from a normal distribution.

Table 19: Test of Normality for Job Performance

			Statistic	Std. Error
Job Performance	Mean		3.2632	.03991
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.1846	
		Upper Bound	3.3419	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.2655	
	Median		3.2083	
	Variance		.336	
	Std. Deviation		.57972	
	Minimum		1.88	
	Maximum		4.54	
	Range		2.67	
	Interquartile Range		.75	
	Skewness		.054	.167
	Kurtosis		-.399	.333

Source: Field Survey, (2022)

One of the assumptions underlying inferential statistics is the test of normality of the distribution of the data about each variable (Pallant, 2005). The results concerning the z-scores [Statistic/ Std. Error] show the data is approximately normally distributed (Skewness: z-score=.3234; Kurtosis: z-score=-1.1982) because the z-scores are between -1.96 and +1.96 (Kim, 2013; Loperfido, 2020). The test of normality results shows the data distribution in respect of the dependent variable (transformed variable) is approximately normally distributed because the skewness score and the kurtosis scores are closer to zero.

Table 20: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Job Performance	.054	211	.200[*]	.990	211	.131

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Source: Field Survey (2022)

Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests operate on the null hypothesis that a variable data is not statistically normally distributed if p>.05. From the Table 20, all tests show a p>.05, which implies we fail to reject the null hypothesis and reject the alternative hypothesis of test normality which states that the variable data is identical from a normal distribution.

Objective Three: Examine the Influence of Reward Systems on the Job Performance of Administrators in the University of Cape Coast

The study sought to measure the influence of reward systems on the job performance of administrators in the university of cape coast. A composite variable was formed for job performance (dependent variable) and reward

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system which comprise of career development, training, fringe benefit, allowance, organizational climate, salary/wages, supervisor support and incentives (independent variable) so as to provide the basis for a holistic approach to analyzing the data. The key results interested in this instance included the Model Summary, the ANOVA and the Co-efficient. The findings are presented on Tables 21, 22 and 23.

Table 21: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.775[a]	.601	.588	.53541

a. Predictors: (Constant), Career Development, Training, Fringe Benefit, Allowance, Favourable Organizational Environment, Salary/Wages, Supervisor Support, Incentives

Source: Field Survey (2022)

The model summary results indicate that there was a positive correlation between the predictors (reward systems) and the job performance of administrative staffs at the University of Cape Coast in the Cape Coast metropolis (r=0.775). This signifies that, higher level of reward systems provided to staffs by their employers will make the staffs of the university to produce effective, and efficient performance on the job given to them and the lower level of reward systems provided to staffs by their employers will make the staffs of the university to fail in producing effective and efficient performance on the job given to them. It thus implies that, the more the reward systems increase the more the job performance of staffs also increases at the University of Cape Coast.

Conversely, it can be adduced that lower levels of the reward system is associated with lower levels of job performance of staffs at the University of Cape Coast. It must be remembered that this does not suggest causality in the relationship between reward systems and job performance of staffs at the University of Cape Coast. R-square is the most common effect size measure in path models (Garson, 2016). Garson (2016) and Hock and Ringle (2006) further prescribed some tantative cut-off points for describing R-square are as follows: Results above 0.67 (Substantial), 0.33 (Moderate) and 0.19 (Weak). The r-square is referred to as the co-efficient of determination and determine how much change in the dependent variable is accounted for by changes in the predictors in the model.

A close observation of the results indicated that reward systems accounted for 58.8% positive variance in the job performance (r-square=0.588) of employees at the University of Cape Coast in Cape Coast metropolis. Thus, given all the other factors affecting job performance of employees at the University of Cape Coast, only reward systems (as measured by career development, training, fringe benefit, allowance, organizational climate, salary/wages, supervisor support and incentives) accounts for a moderate positive improvement in the job performance of staffs at the University of Cape Coast. Other factors not captured in the model equally account for the remaining 41.2% variance in the job performance of staffs at the University of Cape Coast apart from reward system. Further studies could be carried out to explore those factors as well.

This finding shows that the empirically supported assertion held collectively by separate studies that reward system provided to employees will

positively improve the job performance of employees (Hussain et al., 2019; Lodhi et al., 2013; Mmbusa & Kiiru, 2019; Osibanjo et al., 2014; Sukanta et al., 2018).

Table 22: ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	112.120	8	14.015	48.890	.000[b]
	Residual	74.532	260	.287		
	Total	186.652	268			

a. Dependent Variable: Job Performance

b. Predictors: (Constant), Career Development, Training, Fringe Benefit, Allowance, Favourable Organizational Environment, Salary/Wages, Supervisor Support, Incentives

Source: Field Survey (2022)

The ANOVA results provide information that helps to substantiate whether the changes in the dependent variable is actually attributed to changes in the predictors in the model or not. A close observation of the findings indicates that, the 60.1% positive variance in the job performance of employees is actually attributed to the scientific interaction among the predictors on one hand jointly and job performance in the model (p=0.0000: p<0.05) which means the change in the job performance of employees at the University of Cape Coast is not due to chance. In other words, one can conclude that providing employees with rewards has the capacity to predict a positive change in their job performance.

It therefore suggests management can positively influence the job performance of employees by ensuring that employees are provided with reward systems on the key measures of reward systems considered in this

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study. Also, it therefore makes sense that management continues to fuel and maintain staffs of the university because such reward systems improve the capacity of employees to improve their performance. These findings collectively reflect the views held collectively by some previous empirical studies (Haider et al.,, 2015; Ibrar & Khan, 2015; Moragwa, 2013; Armstrong, 2012; Lee & Wong, 2006; Sarin & Mahajan, 2001) that having provided employees with reward systems could lead to improved job performance of employees and the organisation as a whole.

Table 23: Coefficientsa

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1.552	.215		7.224	.000
	Training	-.020	.031	-.034	-.648	.518
	Favourable Organizational Environment	-.002	.035	-.003	-.062	.951
	Supervisor Support	.178	.047	.293	3.753	.000
	Allowance	.064	.046	.107	1.372	.171
	Incentives	-.131	.049	-.260	-2.667	.008
	Fringe Benefit	.027	.028	.047	.963	.336
	Salary/Wages	.308	.035	.601	8.889	.000
	Career Development	.217	.026	.334	8.290	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Job Performance

Source: Field Survey (2022)

The study further sought to assess the contributions of the predictors (reward systems indicators) to causing the statistically significant moderate increase in the job performance of employees at the University of Cape Coast. It was discovered that the respondents receive salary/wages made a strongest

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statistically significant positive contribution (Beta=.308: p=0.000: p<0.05) to predicting the positive variance in the job performance of employees when the contributions of the other variables in the model were statistically controlled for. It was discovered that the respondents receive career development packages made the next strongest statistically significant positive contribution (Beta=.217: p=0.000: p<0.05) to predicting the positive variance in the job performance of employees when the contributions of the other variables in the model were statistically controlled for.

It was discovered that the respondents receive supervisor support packages made the next strongest statistically significant positive contribution (Beta=.178: p=0.000: p<0.05) to predicting the positive variance in the job performance of employees when the contributions of the other variables in the model were statistically controlled for. This finding shows that the empirically supported assertion held collectively by separate studies that reward system such as supervisor support, career development and salary/wages provided to employees positively improve the job performance of employees (Hussain et al., Saeed & Nayyab, 2013; Mmbusa & Kiiru, 2019; Osibanjo et al., 2014; Sukanta et al., 2018).

However, incentive packages were discovered to be a significant negative predictor of the positive variance in the job performance of employees (Beta=-.131; p=0.008: p<0.05) when the effects of the remaining variables in the model were statistically controlled for. This result contradicts the findings of (Haider et al., 2015; Ibrar & Khan, 2015; Moragwa, 2013; Armstrong, 2012; Lee & Wong, 2006; Sarin & Mahajan, 2001) that says that incentive packages have a positive impact on job performance. On the other

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hand, training packages was discovered to be an insignificant negative predictor of the positive variance in the job performance of employees (Beta=-.020; p=.518: p>0.05) when the effects of the remaining variables in the model were statistically controlled for.

Similarly, favourable organizational environment was discovered to be an insignificant negative predictor of the positive variance in the job performance of employees (Beta=-.002; p=.951: p>0.05) when the effects of the remaining variables in the model were statistically controlled for. This result contradicts the findings of (Haider et al., 2015; Ibrar & Khan, 2015; Moragwa, 2013; Armstrong, 2012) that says that incentive packages have a positive impact on job performance. Conversely, allowance was discovered to be the highest insignificant positive predictor to the positive variance in the job performance of employees (Beta=.064; p=.171: p>0.05) when the effects of the remaining variables in the model were statistically controlled for.

Finally, fringe benefit was discovered to be the next highest insignificant positive predictor to the positive variance in the job performance of employees (Beta=.027; p=.336: p>0.05) when the effects of the remaining variables in the model were statistically controlled for. This result contradicts the findings of (Hussain, Khaliq, Nisar, Kamboh & Ali, 2019; Mmbusa & Kiiru, 2019; Sukanta et al., 2018) that fringe benefits and allowance have a positive significant on the job performance of employees. It is to note that the result is in line with previous literature. The result imply that reward system is very important and powerful tool that should be used to improve the job performance of employees (Ibrar & Khan, 2015).

Also, the results affirm the attestations of various studies of the importance of non-monetary reward in improving the job performance of employees (Haider et al., 2015). The implications are that employees consider non-monetary rewards as equal or even more effective than the highest rated monetary reward (Mercer, 2007). As a result, these universities may face negative consequences when they neglect the value of non-monetary reward system (Hijazi et al., 2007). Further, the findings imply that not only monetary, non-monetary reward is also another factor identified to have a link with job performance (Hussain et al.,, 2019; Lodhi et al., 2013; Mmbusa & Kiiru, 2019).

It is also assumed without admitting that what really affects people on a daily basis is the nature of their job experience shown by non-monetary rewards (Ferguson & Brohaugh, 2009). Therefore, non-financial rewards like career development and supervisor support cannot be underestimated Saira et al., (2014)

Objective Four: Investigate the Mediation of Organizational Politics on the Relationship Between Reward Systems and Job Performance

The fourth objective examined the mediating role of organisational politics in the relationship between reward system and job performance among employees in the University Cape Coast in the Cape Coast Metropolis. This objective was measured with the model 4 configured in SPSS process macro as advanced by Hayes (2022). The results are as follows.

Outcome Variable: Organisational Politics

Table 24: Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.7375	.5439	.2305	325.5526	1.0000	273.0000	
0.000						

Source: Field survey, (2022)

It was first of all discovered that there was a strong positive correlation between the predictors (salary/ wages, incentives, fringe benefit, allowance, supervisor support, training, favourable organizational climate and career development) and organisational politics (r=0.7375) with higher levels of reward packages being associated with higher levels of organisational politics. Regarding the predictive capacity of the model, it was discovered that the predictors (salary/ wages, incentives, fringe benefit, allowance, supervisor support, training, favourable organizational climate and career development) accounted for 54.39% positive change in organisational politics. This model was statistically significant. Thus, this positive change in the organisational politics of employees was not by chance but by the scientific interaction among the factors considered in the model.

On the other it can be concluded that 45.61% variance in organisational politics is caused by other factors not captured in the model. This finding shows that the empirically supported assertion held collectively by separate studies that reward system provided to employees will positively improve the organisational politics of employees (Murtaza et al., 2022; Eture-Edhebe & Anifowose, 2019).

Table 25: Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	.6286	.1536	4.0912	.0001	.3261	.9311
RS	.9392	.0521	18.0431	.0000	.8367	1.0416

Source: Field survey, (2022)

The results (Table 25) with respect to the contribution of the predictor to causing the 54.39% significant positive change in the organisational politics of employees at the University of Cape Coast show reward system is a significant positive predictor of organisational politics (Beta=0.9392; p=0.0000: p<0.05). Therefore, it is established that a unit significant increase in reward system causes a statistically significant 0.9392 increase in the organisational politics among employees and a unit significant decrease in reward system causes a statistically significant 0.9293 fall in scores for organisational politics at the University of Cape Coast. The predictive capacity of reward system to causing a statistically significant positive change in organisational politics is well-documented by some previous empirical studies (Murtaza et al., 2022; Eture-Edhebe & Anifowose, 2019).

The findings relating to reward system being significant positive predictor of organisational politics supports the findings of Palermo (2011). This finding supports some previous empirical studies that asserted that reward system predicts positive organisational politics supports of employee (Dartey-Baah & Agbozo, 2021; Khan et al., 2021). Also, Lampaki and Papadakis (2018) assume that monetary reward system is the most significant contributor to positive organisational politics among employees. Also, Jain and Ansari (2018) have determined that the level of pay adequately planned on the basis of employee success has improved organisational politics. Several

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studies reported a positive relationship between reward system and organisational politics (Murtaza et al., 2022; Eture-Edhebe & Anifowose, 2019). Various studies point out that there is a need for non-monetary rewards in organisations to improve the organisational politics supports of workers (Dartey-Baah & Agbozo, 2021; Khan et al., 2021).

Outcome Variable: Employee Job Performance

Table 26: Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.6241	.3896	.3660	86.7913	2.0000	272.0000	0.000

Source: Field survey, (2022)

With regard to the relationship between predictors and job performance, it was found that there was a clear positive association between predictors (salary/wages, benefits, fringe benefit, allowance, help for managers, training, favourable organizational environment and career development) and job performance (r=-0.6241). In addition, it was found that the forecasters accounted for 38.96 per cent of the job performance (r-square=0.3896). The model has been statistically important (p=0.0000: p<0.05). On the other hand, it can be deduced that 61.04 per cent variation in the job performance of employees is accounted for by other variables not included in the model. It also means that management must provide rewards to their employees, which will ultimately improve the job performance of employees.

Some empirical studies (Lodhi, Saeed & Nayyab, 2013; Osibanjo et al., 2014) support this argument. This proposition is strongly supported by some previous empirical studies (Hussain et al., 2019; Mmbusa & Kiiru, 2019; Sukanta et al., 2018).

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Table 27: Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	.7531	.1995	3.7758	.0002	.3605	1.1458
RS	.7765	.0971	7.9952	.0000	.5853	.9677
OP	.0897	.0763	2.1757	.0407	.0605	.2398

Source: Field survey, (2022)

With regard to the contribution of the individual predictors to the variance in job performance, it was found that the direct effect of reward system on job performance is positive and significant (Beta= .7765; Se=.0971; p=0.0000) indicating that high score on reward system is more likely to improve the job performance of employees than those scoring lower on the measure. These results confirm some previous empirical studies that found that reward system was an important predictor of job performance (Hussain, Khaliq, Nisar, Kamboh & Ali, 2019; Mmbusa & Kiiru, 2019; Sukanta et al., 2018). Also, the direct effect of organisational politics on job performance is positive and significant (Beta= .0897; Se=.0763; p=0.0000) indicating that employees exhibiting positive organisational politics are more likely to perform effectively and efficiently on their job than those exhibiting negative organisational politics on the measure.

Outcome Variable: Job Performance

Table 28: Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.6217	.3865	.3665	171.9595	1.0000	273.0000	.000

Source: Field survey, (2022)

The model shows a statistically significant positive moderate correlation between the predictors (salary/ wages, incentives, fringe benefit, allowance, supervisor support, training, favourable organizational climate and career development) and job performance (r=0.6217). Regarding the predictive capacity (R^2) of the model, it was discovered that the predictors accounted for 38.65% change in the job performance of employees, signifying that the predictor actually predict favourable change in job performance. The model was statistically significant. Thus, the prediction regarding the change in job performance as a result of changes in reward systems is scientifically proven. Management can improve the job performance of employees by providing them with reward system identified in this study.

Table 29: Model for Direct Effect

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	.8095	.1938	4.1781	.0000	.4281	1.1909
RS	.8607	.0656	13.1133	.0000	.7315	.9899

Source: Field survey, (2022)

The research further tried to determine the contribution of direct effect of reward system on job performance and found that the direct effect of only reward system when controlled organisational politics is positive and statistically significant (Beta=.8607; Se = .0656; p=0.0000). Again, this signifies that employees that score high on reward system would improve their job performance than others that would score low on reward system. This result supports the arguments made by Sukanta et al., (2018) that the reward system had a positive impact on the job performance of employees.

Mediating Effect of Organisational Politics

Table 30: Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
JP	.0842	.0829	.0859	.2419

Source: Field survey, (2021)

The indirect effect was tested using a non-parametric bootstrapping. If null of zero (0) falls between the lower and upper bound of the 95% confidence interval, then the inference is that the population indirect effect is 0. On the other hand, if zero (0) falls outside the confidence interval, then the indirect effect is inferred to be non-zero (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). In this case the indirect effect (IE = .0842) is statistically significant at 95% CL = (.0859, .2419). Hence, organisational politics mediates the relationship between reward system and job performance of employees. However, organisational politics partially mediates the relationship between reward system and job performance of employees.

Organisational politics partially mediate the relationship between reward system and the job performance of employees because when put together assess their effect, reward system was still significant as can be seen on Table 26. The implication is that reward system given to employees give rise to positive organisational politics which in turn improves the job performance of employees.

Statistically, the relationship between the three variables (reward system, organisational politics and job performance) can be depicted diagrammatically on Figure 2.

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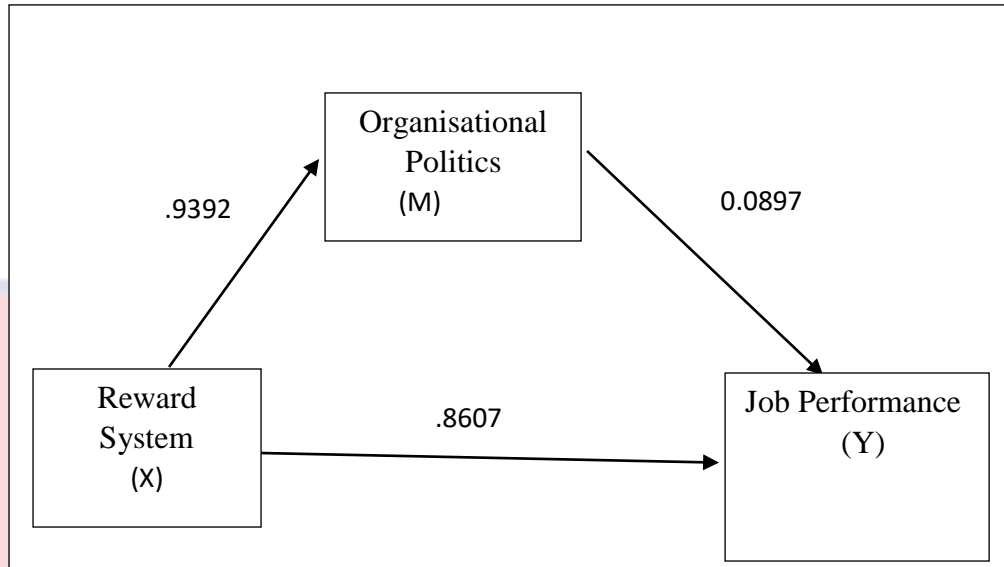
Figure 2: Statistical Diagram Showing Relation Between Variables
Indirect effect of Compensation on Turnover through Job satisfaction = (.9392× .0897) = 0.0842
Direct effect of X on Y = .8607

It could also be inferred that there is a need for both monetary and non-monetary reward system to improve the organisational politics of workers (Eture-Edhebe & Anifowose, 2019). Also, the result shows that reward system is a significant determinant of overall organisational politics (Dartey-Baah & Agbozo, 2021; Khan et al., 2021). The result explains why Jain and Ansari (2018) explained that competitive reward system is one of the most significant factors impacting organisational politics. Further, the result points out that one of the factors behind an individual job performance is closely linked to reward system which is also closely related to organisational politics (Murtaza et al., 2022).

The result affirms a variety of studies that have shown that there is a positive association between organisational politics and job performance (Khalid & Ishaq, 2019). As Nadeem, Ahmad and Batool (2017) suggests that workers' performance reduces when negative organisational politics is higher

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than the positive organisational politics. In support of this, Alsaraireh, Griffin, Ziehm and Fitzpatrick (2014) found a positive relationship between organisational politics and job performance.

Determining The Size of the Indirect Effect in Relation to The Total Effect

The results of the mediation analysis presented show that hypothesis was significant, so further analysis was done. The third and final step in Preacher and Hayes's (2004) bootstrap sampling distribution approach is the calculation of the Variance Accounted For (the VAF score) which determines the size of the indirect effect in relation to the total effect (Hair et al., 2014). To compute VAF, we divided the indirect effect by total effect. The results are shown in Table 31.

Table 31: Variance Accounted For (VAF)

Regressor	Employee Performance	Type of Mediation
	Employee Reward	
VAF Conclusion	VAF= Indirect Effect/ Total effect	No mediation
	= 0.0842/ 0.8607 = 0.098	

Source: Field Survey (2023)

VAF scores larger than 80% shows full mediation while scores lower than 80% but greater than 20% show partial mediation. Moreover, a VAF score lower than 20% shows no mediation. Results in Table 31 show a VAF score of 0.098 (9.8%) which is less than 20% so there was no mediation.

Chapter Summary

The results concerning the basic objectives of the study were described chronologically in the tables and figures in this chapter. The findings were later discussed and supported by previously empirically tested claims

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postulated under the literature review sections of the study. It was found that both reward system and organisational politics have a positive relationship with job performance and that organisational politics mediates the link between reward system and job performance.

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CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The study sought to examine the mediating effect of organizational politics between reward systems and employee performance among administrators in the University of Cape Coast, Ghana. The previous chapter provided information in respect of the findings and discussions made. This chapter presents information relating to the summary of the key findings, the conclusions drawn in respect of the specific research objectives and that of the recommendations offered in respect of the study.

Overview of the Study

The study sought to assess the mediating effect of organizational politics between reward systems and employee performance among administrators in the University of Cape Coast, Ghana. Specifically, the study sought to evaluate the reward systems of administrative staff in the University of Cape Coast, assess the level of performance of administrators at the University of Cape Coast and influence of reward systems on the job performance of administrators in the University of Cape Coast. Also, the study sought to investigate the mediation of organizational politics on the relationship between reward systems and job performance. The study employed descriptive and explanatory research design because the approach to data analysis was quantitative. The study targeted all permanent employees of the University of Cape Coast.

An estimated 969 permanent staff of the University of Cape Coast constituted the target population. This targeted population were the

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administrators of the University of Cape Coast. Administrators were chosen for the conduct of the study because they possess the required characteristics needed for this kind of study. Based on the targeted population size of 969, a minimum sample size of 269 senior administrators of the University of Cape Coast was selected to participate in the study through a random sampling technique. Primary data collection was done through structured questionnaire.

Analyses on reward systems of administrative staff, level of performance of administrators, how reward system influences job performance and the mediation of organizational politics on the relationship between reward systems and job performance were done using regression of IBM SPSS Statistic version 25. A summary of the key findings of the study are as follows:

Summary of Key Findings

The first objective of the study, examined the reward systems of administrative staff in the University of Cape Coast. It was revealed from the first objective that employees were okay that their university provided them with salary/wages packages, fringe benefits packages, incentives packages, allowance packages, supervisor support packages, training packages, favourable organizational environment packages, and career development packages. The study found that among the reward systems, career development was the most favourable package, followed by training, favourable organisational climate, supervisors' support, incentives, allowances, salary/wages and fringe benefits in order of the magnitude of the mean values.

The second objective of the study, assess the level of performance of administrators at the University of Cape Coast. It was revealed from the second objective that employees highly agreed their task performance, adaptive performance and contextual performance has improved. The study found that among the job performance measures, contextual performance was the most aspect of performance that have being improved, followed by adaptive performance and task performance in order of the magnitude of the mean values.

The third objectives sought to examine the influence of reward systems on the job performance of administrators in the University of Cape Coast. It was discovered that there was a positive correlation between reward systems and job performance of administrative staffs at the University of Cape Coast. A close observation of the results indicated that reward systems accounted for 60.1% positive variance in the job performance of employees at the University of Cape Coast in Cape Coast metropolis. In addition, it was also found that providing employees with rewards has the capacity to predict a positive change in their job performance.

It was discovered that the respondents receive salary/wages, career development packages and supervisor support packages made the strongest statistically significant positive contribution to predicting the positive variance in the job performance of employees. However, incentive packages were discovered to be a significant negative predictor of the positive variance in the job performance of employees. On the other hand, training packages and favourable organizational environment was discovered to be an insignificant negative predictor of the positive variance in the job performance of

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employees. Conversely, allowance and fringe benefit were discovered to be the highest insignificant positive predictor to the positive variance in the job performance of employees.

The fourth objective examined the mediating role of organisational politics in the relationship between reward system and job performance among employees in the University Cape Coast in the Cape Coast Metropolis. From the fourth objective, the study found that the relationship between reward system and organisational politics is positively strong and higher level of reward system results in positive organisational politics. Also, reward system predicts a very positive score in organisational politics which is statistically significant. Further, it was found that both reward system and organisational politics have a positive relationship with job performance. With their prediction, it was found that the direct effect of reward system on job performance is greater than that of organisational politics. Lastly, it was found that organisational politics has no mediation on the association between reward system and job performance.

Conclusions

The study provided an overview of reward system, organisational politics and job performance. Their relationships were discussed in literature, analysed and presented. Key findings were made and hence provided that avenue to conclude based on the outcome.

The study therefore concluded that employees were happy with majority of reward system provided to them by management. The researcher can assert that among others, providing career development, training,

favourable organisational climate, supervisors' support, to employees is key to reward employees than incentives, allowances, salary and fringe benefit.

The study concluded that employees' task performance, adaptive performance and contextual performance has improved. The researcher can assert that among other, improvement in the contextual performance and adaptive performance is key to the success of the organisation than task performance but employees must improve on all aspect of performance.

The study also concluded that reward system positively correlates with job performance. However, some reward system like the salary/wages, career development packages and supervisor support packages predicted had a highly predicted employee performance than others like incentives, training, favourable organizational environment, allowance and fringe benefit packages.

Finally, it can be concluded that organisational politics has no influence on the relationship between reward system and employees' job performance. As such, organisational politics mediates between the reward system and employees' job performance.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions, the following recommendations were made:

1. Since it was found that salary and benefits enjoyed by employees of the university was less favourable, it is recommended that management provide workers with commensuration salaries and benefits as doing so would energize them for optimum performance and ensure positive organisational politics.

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2. In addition, conscious managerial effort needs to be expended to create, maintain and promote a healthy political climate within the organisation that builds the level of performance among administrative staff. It also recommended that management must continue to implement reward systems so as to increase employee performance. Particularly, much attention should be placed on improving career development, training, favourable organisational climate, supervisors' support, incentives, and allowances conditions that measure training evaluation and facilitator if management are to improve employee performance through reward system.

3. Again, it was found that salary/wages, career development packages and supervisor support packages predicted better than incentive, training, favourable organizational environment, allowance and fringe benefit packages and that the study recommends that management bolster their reward systems to better enhance the job performance of employees.

4. The no mediation of organisational politics denotes that though reward systems are given, employees promote a healthy political climate within the organisation but this does not influence employee performance. Against that the study recommends that management should improve on the overall reward system so as to gain healthy political climate and improve job performance.

Suggestions for Further Research

First of all, other studies need to be conducted to assess other element of reward systems apart from the ones used to broaden the scope of reward

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systems. This study was limited to only staffs of University of Cape Coast, and the result applies to the sample and not all other staffs from other universities in the region and outside the region. It is suggested that further research be carried out to examine how administrative staff in order tertiary institutions also react to the availability of these variables within their respective organisations. This would aid in generalizing the findings of the study across the educational sectors in Ghana. Also, since the examined period was only measured over one year, the result is limited to a specific time period. As previous research suggests, reward systems, organisational politics and job performance change over time. Therefore, it could suitable to perform a similar study over several years by a longitudinal study.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Dear Respondent,

I am a student of University of Cape Coast, offering Master of Commerce (Human Resource Management) programme at the School of Business, Department of Human Resource Management. This questionnaire is designed to ascertain information for my research work on the topic: "**ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS AS A MEDIATOR BETWEEN REWARD SYSTEMS AND JOB PERFORMANCE OF ADMINISTRATORS IN THE UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST**". This research is in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the award of a Master of Commerce Degree in Human Resource Management at the University of Cape Coast.

All the answers you provide will be treated with the utmost confidentiality and for academic purpose only. Please feel free to answer the questions as candid as possible.

Thank you

MARTHA AMA HOPE

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SECTION A

SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DATA OF RESPONDENTS

To answer a question, kindly tick [√] on the space provided where necessary.

1. Gender: MALE [   ]   FEMALE [   ]

2. Age: 1 - 30years   [   ]   31-45years   [   ]

46 - 60years [   ]   61years and above [   ]

3. Years of Experience: 0-10years [   ]   10-15years [   ]

15-20years [   ]   20years and above [   ]

4.Educational Qualification:

HND   [   ]   Degree [   ]   Masters   [   ]   PHD [   ] Professional [   ]

6. Staff ranking

Senior Staff [   ]   Junior Staff [   ]

SECTION B: REWARD SYSTEM

Thinking about the Reward systems available to administrative staff at the University of Cape Coast, read the statements below carefully and rate how much you personally agree or disagree with each statement. Use a scale of 1-7 with where

1 = Least Level of Agreement; 7 = Highest Level of Agreement

1. **Salary/ Wages**

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the statements by ticking [✓] in the appropriate number.

STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I receive my salary/wages on timely basis at the end of every month.							
The basic salary/wages I receive matches the effort I put in my work.							
The processing of the overtime allowance is timely							
I am satisfied with the overtime rate per hour am being paid.							
The final payment of my overtime allowance is timely.							

2. **Fringe- benefit**

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the statements by ticking

[✓] in the appropriate number.

STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am satisfied with the package offered for my annual leave.							
The benefits offered on retirement are appreciable.							
The benefits offered to my family upon my death are appreciable.							
The process for obtaining a study leave with pay is timely							
Organizational scholarships for research are readily made available.							

3. **Incentives**

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the statements by ticking

[✓] in the appropriate number.

STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My responsibility allowance commensurate with requirements of my present position							
The allowances I receive for taking up other additional duties is adequate							
The processes involved in obtaining additional duty allowance are simple and straightforward							
My entertainment allowance is adequate							
The committee sitting allowances I receive are appreciable							
The processing of committee sitting allowance are simple and straightforward							
The final payment of committee sitting allowance is timely							

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4. **Allowance**

   Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the statements by ticking

   [✓] in the appropriate number.

STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My housing allowance adequately covers my rent charges for the month							
My fuel allowance adequately covers my monthly transportation cost to and from work.							
My vehicle maintenance allowance is sufficient to maintain my car on monthly basis							
My electricity subsidy sufficiently covers my electricity bills per month							
My travel expenses allowance adequate							

5. **Supervisor Support**

   Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the statements by ticking

   [✓] in the appropriate number.

STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The organization takes pride in my accomplishments							
My superior praises staff who do good work							
The organization is willing to help me if I need a special favor.							
The organization values my contributions to its well-being.							
The organization strongly considers my goals/ values.							

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6. **Training**

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the statements by ticking [✓] in the appropriate number.

STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My organization has stated policies on the extent of training the employees.							
I am aware of the type of training my organization is planning for me in the coming year.							
This organization provides access to training.							
Participating in training programs help personal development							
Participating in training programs help perform job better							
Participating in training programs help stay up to date on new processes related to job.							

7. **Favorable Organizational Climate**

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the statements by ticking [✓] in the appropriate number.

STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel that the rules in the university are clearly explained							
I think the procedures in the organization are applied firmly							
I feel that regulation in the organization is always evaluated as required							
I feel that the procedures in the university are applied flexibly.							
I feel reward on my performance in the university is being accepted according to work efforts							
Punishment in the organization is applied according to the							

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level of the mistakes							
The university gives clear information openly about risks of employee decisions that will happen to the decision made by employees							
I am given the liberty to make decision on my job							
My university appreciates different opinions at the work place							
. I feel there are mutual relationships among other employees at the work place							

8. **Career Development**

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the statements by ticking

[✓] in the appropriate number.

STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am given the opportunity to join development programs initiated by the university							
I feel that the need of my career development is being fulfilled							
I am supported by my employer in order to plan my career development							
Employees feel that they are getting information required to join development program							
I feel I have enough information about career opportunities in the organization							

The English version of the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) developed by

Vallerand, Blais, Briere and Pelletier (1993)

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SECTION C: JOB PERFORMANCE

</div>

This section contains statements assessing the performance of employees. **In a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 – Least Level of Agreement, and 7 – Highest Level of Agreement**, rate the following statements on the level of job performance of administrative staff at the University of Cape Coast.

No	Task Performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	I maintain high standard of work							
2	I am capable of handling my assignments without much supervision							
3	I am very passionate about my work							
4	I know I can handle multiple assignments for achieving organizational goals							
5	I complete my assignments on time							
6	My colleagues believe I am a high performer in my organization							
No	Adaptive Performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	I perform well to mobilize collective intelligence for effective team work							
2	I could manage change in my job very well whenever the situation demands							
3	I can handle effectively my work team in the face of change							
4	I always believe that mutual understanding can lead to a viable solution in organization							
5	I lose my temper when faced with criticism from							

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	my team members (RC)								
6	I am very comfortable with job flexibility								
7	I cope well with organizational change from time to time								
No	*Contextual Performance*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1	I extend help to my co-workers when asked or needed								
2	I love to handle extra responsibilities								
3	I extend my sympathy and empathy to my co-workers when they are in trouble								
4	I actively participate in group discussions and work meetings								
5	I praise my co-workers for their good work								
6	I derive lot of satisfaction nurturing others in this firm								
7	I share knowledge and ideas among my team members								
8	I maintain good coordination among fellow workers								
9	I guide new colleagues beyond my job purview								
10	I communicate effectively with my colleagues for problem solving and decision making								

NOTE: The items in this model were adopted and modified by (Koopmans et al., 2011; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

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SECTION D

Thinking about your perception of organizational politics among administrative staff at the University of Cape Coast, read the statements below carefully and rate how much you personally agree or disagree with each statement. Use a scale of 1-7 with where *1 = Least Level of Agreement; 7 = Highest Level of Agreement*

	Statement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	People get rewarded based on how much effort they put into their work and not based on partiality							
2	Those who work hard are adequately rewarded							
3	Changes in organizational policies serve everyone and not a few individuals							
4	I am free to say what I think rather than mandatorily accept others views or commands							
5	In this University, it is easy to tell which extension employees must do in order to progress							
6	Administrators in this university often use the selection system fairly to reward only deserving employees							
7	People in this University do not build themselves by tearing others down							
8	The university system is fair and therefore it is easier to remain quiet than to fight it							
9	When it comes to pay increment and promotional decisions, organizational policies are relied upon							
10	The university systems allows us to disagree with powerful others when necessary							

NOTE: The items in this model were adopted from Kacmar and Carlson (1997)

THANK YOU FOR COOPERATING

APPENDIX B

INTRODUCTORY LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES
SCHOOL OF BUSINESS
DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Telephone: 0312292969
Direct: 03321-37870
Telex: 2552, UCC, GH
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Telegrams & Cables: University, Cape Coast

UNIVERSITY POST OFFICE
CAPE COAST, GHANA

Our Ref: SB/DHRM/PGS/22/07

6 June 2022

Your Ref:

The Director
Directorate of Human Resource
University of Cape Coast
Cape Coast

Dear Sir

Introducing Miss Martha Ama Hope

The bearer of this letter, **Miss Martha Ama Hope**, is a Master of Commerce (Human Resource Management) Student of the University. She is currently conducting a research on the topic **"Organisational Politics as a Mediator between Reward Systems and Job Performance of Administrators in the University of Cape Coast".**

The student would want to use your establishment as her unit of study. We would be grateful if you could offer her the necessary assistance, especially with regard to data collection.

We appreciate your anticipated assistance.

Yours faithfully

Prof Nana Yaw Oppong
HEAD