The effect of HRM and managerial practices on employee performance and well-being: Two empirical studies in China

Wendy Wang

The effect of HRM and managerial practices on employee performance and well-being:

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by
Yanhong (Wendy) Wang (Student ID: 000946471)

A DISSERTATION

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Abstract

Various underlying factors have been found to enhance employee performance, and employee well-being is one of the most critical if not the most critical. Yet, few empirical studies have been conducted to examine the underlying mechanism driving both employee performance and well-being, especially in the context of China. This study builds on the existing literature to propose a set of hypotheses about how HRM practice like performance management practice (PMP) and managerial practice like managerial coaching (MC) affect employee well-being (EWB) and happiness, and ultimately affect employee performance (EP).

To test the hypotheses, two empirical studies were conducted in China. Both studies employed a survey approach. Study 1 was conducted from 2022 to 2023, collecting data from 68 respondents of a high-tech company in China, and collecting 26 respondents via social media (WeChat in China). Study 2 was conducted in 2024, collecting survey data from 232 respondents via social media (WeChat and ZhiHu in China). The questionnaire of Study 1 consisted of 70 questions, and Study 2 consisted of 30 questions. The dependent variable was employee performance, and the mediating variables were employee well-being / happiness at work and trust in supervisor in both Study 1 and Study 2.

The survey data underwent rigorous analysis by applying statistics software such as SPSS and Mplus. The findings affirmed the validity of both proposed hypothesized models. The primary objective of this research was to identify effective HRM practices and managerial practices to boost employee performance as well as to foster employee

well-being. The research outcomes offered a valuable reference for HR professionals to design performance management practice, and also for managers to win the trust from their employees by implementing performance management practice as well as demonstrating coaching behaviour and caring about their employees' well-being in their daily management.

Keywords: employee performance; employee well-being; happiness at work; performance management practice; managerial coaching; trust in supervisor; HRM

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Chapter 1. Introduction

Employee performance has been consistently identified as a basic building block for team performance and organizational performance (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015). Namely, without employee performance, there will be neither team performance nor organizational performance. The post-pandemic business situation is more complex and unpredictable than ever before. The pandemic has created volatility, uncertainty, complexity and ambiguity (VUCA) (Nikmah & Martdianty, 2021). It has also created uncertainty in the workplace, caused stress for the workforce, and posed a direct threat to organizational performance through lower individual employee's performance (López-Cabarcos et al., 2022; Marshall et al., 2024). Therefore, organizations have come to understand to enhance employee performance should be the key priority for them to stand out from the intense competition, which also poses a major challenge to organizations worldwide (Atatsi et al., 2019). In HRM, organizational behaviour and management research, employee performance has become a focal construct (Aguinis et al., 2024; López-Cabarcos et al., 2022; Marshall et al., 2024). Existing literature has indicated that various antecedents have either positive or negative effects on employee performance (Atatsi et al., 2019; Triansyah et al., 2023).

While addressing these challenges on employee performance and also exploring the underlying mechanisms driving employee performance, employee well-being has emerged as a pivotal factor (Lundqvist & Wallo, 2023; Mangipudi et al., 2019; Singh et al., 2022). Per Guest (2017)'s new analytic framework, the pursuit of understanding the link between HRM practices and performance has inadvertently overlooked the

critical aspect of employee well-being. This observation suggests the need for a more holistic approach to research that integrates the multifaceted nature of employee well-being and performance (Guest, 2017).

Additionally, previous research exploring the relationship between HRM, employee well-being and performance often focused on either well-being or work performance individually (Edgar et al., 2015; Peccei et al., 2013). Amidst the heightened competitive pressures and rapid transformations experienced by numerous organizations, employees are confronted with intensified workloads and mounting pressure to achieve the high performance organizations expect, which may negatively affect their health, well-being, and overall job performance (Cooper et al., 2019).

Over the past decades, there has been a significant increase in empirical research examining the relationship between HRM practices, employee well-being and performance (Huang et al., 2016; Peccei et al., 2013; Sutton & Atkinson, 2023; Yan et al., 2020). However, the research results are not very consistent with some being based on the mutual gains perspective (Boxall & Macky, 2009; Guest, 2017; Peccei et al., 2013; Van De Voorde et al., 2012) and others being based on the conflicting outcomes perspective (Godard, 2001; Ramsay et al., 2000). Supporters of the mutual gains perspective argue that HRM practices can have a positive impact on employee well-being, further leading to enhanced performance and a win-win situation for both parties (Qamar et al., 2023). Conversely, advocates of the conflicting outcomes perspective find that some HRM practices like high-performance-oriented practices may improve performance at the expense of employee well-being (Sutton & Atkinson, 2023; Wang

et al., 2021), and result in a lose-win situation.

In empirical research, due to different practices of HRM and different dimensions to evaluate employee well-being and employee performance, the detailed impact of HRM practices on employee well-being and employee performance remains a "black box" (Messersmith et al., 2011; Sivapragasam & Raya, 2018). Up to this point, there has been a scarcity of research that has been able to thoroughly and rigorously explain the interconnections among the three factors. The challenges in measurement and subject to interpretation and application can differ significantly across various organizational contexts (Boon et al., 2019). Despite continuous research efforts to operationalize these constructs, definitional clarity and conceptual boundaries remain contested within the literature (Inceoglu et al., 2018; Lundqvist & Wallo, 2023). Namely, from both empirical and theoretical perspectives, exploring the effects of HRM practices on employee well-being and performance is of paramount importance in HRM research and for HR practitioners (Beijer et al., 2021; Peccei & Van De Voorde, 2019).

Similarly in management and leadership research, it has been found that the emphasis on employee performance is much more than on employee well-being (Grant et al., 2007; Inceoglu et al., 2018). In organizational behaviour research, employee performance has generally been regarded as the first priority, and employee well-being comes as a secondary outcome (Montano et al., 2017). With the growing amount of research on employee well-being in the domain of HRM, more and more management research has been conducted to examine the impact of managerial behaviors on both

employee well-being and performance. Such new terms as engaging leadership, and healthy leadership (Rudolph et al., 2020; Salas‐Vallina et al., 2021) have been discussed. However, the importance of managers has often been underestimated by HRM research. When they implement the performance management process designed by HRM practitioners, managers struggle to set stretch goals, give constructive feedback, and support career development for their employees (Pulakos et al., 2019). This has posed a considerable challenge for organizations to achieve employee performance and well-being. To further explore and better understand the underlying mechanisms through which managerial practices affect employee well-being and performance is imperative, so that managers, employees, HR practitioners, and organizations can benefit from these insights (Kaluza et al., 2021; Leroy et al., 2018).

As the business worldwide landscape has shifted significantly after the COVID-19 pandemic, to deal with the aforementioned business challenges, HRM practitioners and managers need to collaborate with each other to reevaluate current performance management practice and to find solutions to achieve employee well-being and performance (Carnevale & Hatak, 2020; Guerci et al., 2022; Hauff et al., 2022; Kuang et al., 2023; Kundi et al., 2020). The concepts and approaches of people-centric, well-being-oriented, and people-oriented thinking must be integrated into the business and performance strategies in organizations (Hauff et al., 2020; Salas-Vallina et al., 2020). Employee performance should not be achieved at the cost of employees' well-being (Sutton & Atkinson, 2023). Nowadays, with more and more positive effect of employee well-being on performance (Fogaca et al., 2021; Kuang et al., 2023; Pandey & Mahesh,

2023; Parent-Lamarche et al., 2021), it is imperative for organizations to re-prioritize and better balance between employee well-being and performance. By doing so, organizations can achieve sustainable development and cultivate a well-being and performance culture for overall success in the long run (Chowdhury et al., 2023; Farmanesh et al., 2023; Siddiqui & Ijaz, 2022).

In particular, organizations in China have experienced rapid development in past decades. As they enter the new normal, it is even more important to balance the relationship between employee well-being and performance (Kuang et al., 2023; Miao & Cao, 2019), instead of achieving high performance at the cost of well-being, and obtaining short-term interest at the expense of long-term development (Loon et al., 2019; Sutton & Atkinson, 2023). However, when most organizations in China are pursuing high performance, especially in the high-performance-oriented culture, employees have been shown to feel uneasy, dissatisfied and even frustrated, which is not helpful to realize their potential to achieve high performance as required (Zhao et al., 2021). Several recent studies in China have highlighted the concern that high performance requirements and excessive work hours long have caused employees physical and mental illness (Liu et al., 2019; Peng, 2020; Wang, 2020). The '996' work culture, working from 9 in the morning until 9 at night for six days a week, has regrettably become standard practice in certain industries such as research and development, e-commerce, and courier services in China.

Therefore, to address the critical theoretical and empirical lacunae identified in the extant literature, this dissertation seeks to advance the scholarly understanding of the

triad relationship between Human Resource Management (HRM) practices, employee well-being (EWB), and employee performance (EP). For this purpose, this dissertation addresses two overarching research questions. What are the underlying mechanisms linking HRM and managerial practices to employee well-being and performance? What role do trust in supervisor and employee well-being play as mediating mechanisms in these relationships? Central to this research is the identification and examination of pivotal constructs that theoretically bridge HRM practices with both employee well-being and employee performance. Amidst the multitude of potential variables capable of influencing employee well-being and performance simultaneously, this research strategically focuses on three theoretically salient constructs, performance management practice (PMP), managerial coaching (MC), and trust in supervisor (TIS).

Specifically, as two of the core HRM practices, performance management practice (PMP) and managerial coaching (MC) are posited as independent variables (Pulakos et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2023). In Study 1, performance management practice (PMP) is defined not merely as an annual evaluative event, but as a continuous development process including goal setting, ongoing feedback, performance evaluation, and employee career development. Its intended purpose is to align individual efforts with organizational goals while fostering employee continuous growth (Pulakos et al., 2019). Study 1 collects employee's perception of performance management practice, to further evaluate its impact on employee's well-being and performance. In Study 2, managerial coaching (MC) represents a day-to-day managerial behaviour. It is conceptualized as a process where supervisors, through guided questioning, active listening, and providing

feedback and supporting resources, empower employees to learn, solve problems, and enhance their self-efficacy, rather than simply directing or dictating tasks (Kim et al., 2023). Study 2 also collects employee's perception on the managerial coaching behaviours by their direct supervisor, to further study the effect on employee's well-being and performance.

Furthermore, trust in supervisor (TIS) is incorporated as a critical mediation factor, theorized to link HRM practices to enhanced psychological states and behavioural outcomes (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002), and further into employee well-being and performance. It is defined as an employee's willingness to be vulnerable to their immediate manager's actions based on expectations of benevolence, integrity, and ability (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Mayer et al., 1995). Study 1 measures trust in supervisor (TIS) by using the scale developed by Podsakoff et al. (1996), and Study 2 collects employee's opinion both from cognitive and affective perspectives by quoting the scale developed by Yang & Mossholder (2010).

The researcher's dual role, both as a seasoned strategic HRM practitioner with over two decades of experience in multinational corporations and local companies within China and as a Professional Certified Coach (PCC) by ICF (International Coaching Federation), has fundamentally shaped the research design and implementation. Serving as Head of HR for the company, the researcher is responsible for designing and executing HR strategies. Serving as an internal professional coach, the researcher is accountable for engaging and coaching the leadership team and

frontline management to cultivate the people-centric culture with first-hand and deep insight into the relationship between HRM practices, employee performance and well-being.

For this reason, the dual role of the researcher brings three significant epistemological advantages to the research. First, from the practical experience of the researcher's HR role, a pervasive gap has been revealed, which is between espoused HRM philosophies (e.g., strategic narratives of “people-centric”) and enacted practices (e.g., performance-driven evaluations by KPIs). This gap directly motivates the researcher's decision of analytical focus, which has shifted from intended HRM practices to employee-perceptions. Further, from the practical experience of the researcher's internal professional coach role, it has been observed that how managerial behaviours, particularly performance coaching, frequently diverge from the fundamental concept of the coach, which is more “people-centric”.

Second, the researcher’s organizational insider position has provided the privileged access to data and insights which are typically unavailable to external investigators. More importantly, this internal perspective has offered deep contextual literacy regarding Chinese organizational culture, including the institutionalized "996" work pattern (9am-9pm, six days a week) and the intense psychological pressures characteristic of high-growth industries (Kuang et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2021). The researchers' passion for coaching has particularly helped to gain a nuanced understanding of how managers navigate these structural constraints while attempting

to enhance employee well-being and performance, which directly informs the conceptualization and operationalization of managerial coaching in Study 2.

Third, the researcher's dual role of HR Head and internal coach may engender managerialist biases. Therefore, throughout this dissertation, the opinions of employees are prioritized over management viewpoints. The research design and focus were deliberately shifted from HR or management view to employee perception. While using the insider knowledge to interpret findings, this research has maintained analytical distance through rigorous management research methodology across data sources, measurement instruments, and analytical techniques.

To thoroughly investigate the relationship between HRM, employee well-being, and performance and to further enhance employee well-being and performance through HR and managerial practices, this dissertation employs a quantitative, survey-based research design comprising two interrelated empirical studies. This dual-study approach is necessitated by the complexity of the research questions and the need to overcome methodological limitations inherent in single-method HRM research (Boon et al., 2019). Both studies utilize quantitative survey methodology grounded in the employee perception paradigm (Nishii & Wright, 2008), wherein subjective interpretations of HR and managerial practices are treated as the primary psychological mechanisms driving attitudinal and behavioural outcomes. This decision of methodology was made from both theoretical and practical perspectives. Theoretically, the main purpose of this dissertation is to test hypothesized relationships rather than to

generate a new theory. All the core constructs examined in this research have been operationalized and validated in prior quantitative studies with well-established psychometric properties. The hypothesized relationships are also derived from established theoretical frameworks. Therefore, quantitative methods are particularly well-suited for testing such a priori theoretical propositions which are inherently quantitative in nature (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). In addition, quantitative methods are better to enable systematic measurement of constructs, statistical assessment of hypothesized pathways, and rigorous evaluation of mediation effects. Practically, considering that the researcher's insider practitioner position, as HR Head and internal professional coach, might create access conditions and power dynamics, it is better suited to anonymous survey distribution than to in-depth interviewing, which might risk compromising participant confidentiality or eliciting socially desirable responses.

Study 1 was initially planned to conduct a longitudinal investigation, employing quantitative surveys at multiple time points within a single high-technology organization where the researcher held the position of HR Head. As pointed out by Wright and colleagues, most HRM studies lack longitudinal design, which a big problem to conclude on the causality relationships between variables (P. M. Wright et al., 2005). The original design aimed to capture temporal dynamics in the relationships between performance management practice, trust in supervisor, employee well-being and performance. It is known that the mutual trust building needs time, and to build organizational trusted culture also needs considerable time. Therefore, a longitudinal design should be taken into consideration in the research planning phase. The original

design also included an ambitious hypothesized model, which incorporated multiple trust foci (trust in supervisor, trust in employer, interpersonal trust) and leadership construct like transformational leadership in addition to the core constructs of HRM, employee well-being and performance.

However, the researcher's unexpected leaving from the company necessitated a modification to the data collection protocol. The originally planned second-phase survey was discontinued to maintain the analytical rigor. Instead, cross-sectional data were collected via social media distribution with an identical questionnaire. This adaptation yielded preliminary valuable insights into the proposed theoretical relationships within the Chinese organizational settings, despite constraining causal inference due to the loss of temporal separation between variables.

The originally hypothesized model, which includes all multiple trust foci (trust in supervisor, trust in employer, interpersonal trust) and additional leadership construct (transformational leadership) was proved too ambitious. The resulting sample size (N = 94) was insufficient to support such complex model while adequate for preliminary examination of core relationships. Namely, a larger sample is required to achieve stable parameter estimates and adequate statistical power for testing complex interrelationships (Kline, 2016). Dual to this limited sample size, a theoretically grounded model refinement strategy was adopted rather than compromising analytical rigor through over-parameterization or capitalizing on chance associations. Drawing upon extensive literature review and practitioner experiential knowledge, the originally

hypothesized model was systematically parsimonies to prioritize the most theoretically core constructs. Finally, two constructs of trust in employer and interpersonal trust were excluded to maintain focus on the immediate supervisory relationship as the primary relational context through which HRM practices are interpreted. Transformational leadership was also excluded to reduce the model complexity. All exclusion decisions were documented to ensure transparency and avoid post-hoc rationalization.

Based on the multiple learnings from Study 1, Study 2 represents a deliberate methodological and theoretical advancement. For the purpose of enhancing data quality by reducing respondent fatigue and missing data, the questionnaire was streamlined from 70 to 30 items. Concurrently, a more robust sample was secured (N = 232) by leveraging the researcher's established social networks. Further, the independent variable was shifted from performance management practice (Study 1) to managerial coaching (Study 2), and from the construct of employee well-being (Study 1) to happiness at work (Study 2). These two changes were motivated by two considerations. First, the researcher's sustained coaching engagement and practice revealed that proximal and developmental leadership behaviours may supersede distal performance management practice in shaping daily employee experiences. Second, the translation of happiness at work in Chinese is closer to the original meaning of "well-being" than employee well-being itself.

This iterative refinement from Study 1 to Study 2 exemplifies abductive research logic. The researcher's engagement in empirical study, theoretical review past

literatures, practitioner insight and analysis continuously inform one another. The resulting two-study design permits complementary examination of how different HRM practices, performance management practice and managerial coaching, shape employee outcomes through differentiated psychological mechanisms, while acknowledging the cross-sectional nature of both designs as a limitation that constrains definitive causal inference.

More broadly, this research contributes to the academic studies of reconciling the mutual gains and conflicting outcomes perspectives of HRM practices. By demonstrating the dynamics of HRM-well-being-performance is contingent upon both the practice nature and the activated psychological mechanism, the research findings suggest that the development of theories requires more detailed and process-oriented investigations rather than a general assessment. This management research methodology, which combines practitioner-grounded construct development with rigorous quantitative testing and also balances analytical distance with contextual insights, offers a template for future insider researchers.

Chapter 2. Theoretical Background and Hypotheses Development

This literature review section systematically synthesizes theories, concepts, and frameworks, which are most relevant to the research questions. It is organized sequentially around the core constructs, which are HRM practices, including performance management practice and managerial coaching as two pivotal practices, trust in supervisor, employee well-being, happiness at work, and employee performance. This review section also traces the theoretical logic from distal organizational inputs through proximal relational mechanisms to individual-level outcomes. For each construct, this review section explicitly articulates the conceptualization and operationalization, thereby establishing the rationale for the proposed hypothesized models. In addition, this review section provides a detailed rationale for the differential operationalization of constructs across Study 1 (where performance management practice serves as independent variable, and employee well-being functions as important mediation factor) and Study 2 (where managerial coaching functions as independent variable, and happiness at work serves as important mediation factor), thereby ensuring theoretical coherence and methodological transparency.

2.1 HRM Practices: Performance Management Practice and Managerial Coaching

In the past three to four decades starting in the 1990s, management researchers and HR practitioners have made great efforts on examining the relationship between

HRM and performance in the organization at different levels, which are individual performance, team performance or organizational performance (Boselie et al., 2005; Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Guest, 2002; Nishii et al., 2008; Saridakis et al., 2017). The general conclusion is, HRM practices are positively linked with performance at different levels when they are appropriately designed (Han et al., 2020; Saridakis et al., 2017). This dissertation will focus on studying the relationship between HRM practices and employee performance, which is at the individual level.

The continuous economic development in 21st century has enhanced living standards in certain countries. With the increasingly complex and refined development of human resource management, academic scholars and practitioners began to shift their attention from only focusing on performance at different levels to focusing on employees' work-related well-being (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Daniels et al., 2017; Nielsen et al., 2017; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). Particularly in the aftermath of the 2008 global financial crisis and the 2020-2022 COVID-19 pandemic, this trend has become increasingly salient (Chaturvedi, 2022; Choudhary & Kunte, 2023; Salas-Vallina et al., 2021). Later on, the term of well-being-oriented HRM has been invented by scholars (Cooper et al., 2019; Guest, 2017; Ngo et al., 2023). And with this trend change, HRM is shifted from performance-oriented or process-oriented to people-centric. Some researchers have posited the term of well-being-oriented HRM (Hauff et al., 2020; Salas-Vallina et al., 2020), also some terms of developmental HRM (Marescaux et al., 2019), green HRM or sustainable HRM (Aust et al., 2020;

Chaturvedi, 2022; Chillakuri & Vanka, 2020; Jaskeviciute et al., 2021; Renwick et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2020).

A critical observation emerges from existing HRM literature that studies of employee well-being are primarily based on the interests of performance, rather than on employees' own welfare. In other words, employee well-being is less important than employee performance (Greenwood, 2013). However, most research are focusing either on performance or on well-being, and still few research have studied the both (Rudolph et al., 2020).

In terms of the relationship between HRM, well-being and performance, scholars have summarized in three types, mutual gains, gain-loss, mutual loss (Guest, 2017; Ho, 2018; Ho & Kuvaas, 2020; Huettermann & Bruch, 2019; Ogbonnaya & Messersmith, 2019; Peccei & Van De Voorde, 2019). There is little available research to support conflicting outcomes and/or explanations for mutual losses in the tri-lateral relationship. In particular, it provides support for the idea that human resource management improves performance, both directly and through employee well-being. By systematically and critically reviewing 46 studies, which were published in 13 core HRM and management journals in the period of 2000 to 2018, Peccei & Van De Voorde (2019) found that most results support the mutual gains conceptualizations. Research has revealed significant variations in the effects that human resources practices exert on employees (Macky & Boxall, 2007; Wood, 1999). Studies have shown mixed results regarding employee well-being as a mediator between HRM practices and performance. On one hand, there is insufficient definitive evidence to suggest that enhanced

employee well-being, stemming from developmental HR practices, lead to improved task performance (Marescaux et al., 2019). On the other hand, training has been demonstrated to enhance task performance, but it does not seem to have a direct impact on well-being. This indicates that training likely boosts employees' knowledge and skills, which in turn directly contributes to better performance, rather than influencing their well-being (Van De Voorde et al., 2012).

Indeed, some recent research indicates that HRM practices can have detrimental effects on employee health, reflecting a less optimistic perspective on their impact (Guerci et al., 2022; Jensen & Van De Voorde, 2016). While some studies have suggested that HRM practices can lead to improvements in health-related outcomes, such as reduced burnout, albeit in an indirect manner (Elorza et al., 2022; Kloutsiniotis et al., 2022). Consequently, the tri-lateral relationship between HRM, employee well-being, and performance are still considered "poorly understood" and "under-theorized" (Peccei & Van De Voorde, 2019). Echoing this, Van Beurden et al. (2021), in their systematic literature review, have called for further research to deepen our comprehension of the relationships between HRM, health-related well-being, and performance, noting that focusing specifically on health-related dimensions like job stress and burnout can be further explored as an important direction in future (Van Beurden et al., 2021).

By reviewing both HRM and Critical HRM approaches to how performance management practice affect workers, Tweedie et al. (2019) summarized HRM development into three phases from performance management perspective, which are

Phase I of 1920–1980/90 making performance appraisal more accurate, or in other words, eliminating measurement error; Phase II of 1980/90-2010 understanding the "social context" of performance management, which means researchers need to shift their attention from eradicating measurement errors to comprehensively understanding the social and organizational context of performance management (Bretz Jr et al., 1992). and Phase III of 2010-now integrating performance management into organizational strategy. From this thread of development, it can be concluded that performance management is not only the most important part of HRM, but also gradually becoming the most important part of organizational management. Performance management research continues to examine employee perceptions and reactions to the performance evaluation process. All in all, performance management makes employee performance more visible, thus more susceptible to open management control, and also exerts coercive control over employee performance to a large extent. As a result, many performance management practices, especially those high-performance-oriented practices only increase the work stress of employees, but do not contribute to employee well-being (Tweedie et al., 2019).

Performance management, as most recently defined by scholar (Marshall et al., 2024), is an ongoing endeavor that involves identifying, assessing, and developing the performance of individuals and teams, while ensuring it aligns with the organization's strategic objectives. Typically, performance is gauged through two primary lenses: results, which are the results of employees' work efforts, and behaviours, which pertain to the manner in which employees carry out their tasks and responsibilities (Aguinis et

al., 2024). However, under the current extraordinary conditions, both of these measurement strategies pose significant challenges. In all HRM practices, performance management practice has the greatest impact on employees' performance (Brown et al., 2019; Tweedie et al., 2019). Therefore, the significant challenges in the HRM field turns into how to design and establish performance management practice. Traditional performance reviews are considered ineffective and may even harm employee performance and the relationship between managers and employees. The debate about whether performance appraisal, performance review or performance management is better or not has never stopped in research and practice (DeNisi & Murphy, 2017; Krezek et al., 2023; Murphy, 2020; Pichler, 2019).

The key distinctions between conventional top-down performance reviews and performance management lie in the frequency of assessments, with the former being periodic (e.g., yearly) and the latter ongoing, as well as the incorporation of developmental feedback or coaching advice from sources beyond an employee's immediate supervisor (Latham et al., 2005). Innovative practices in performance management that emphasize continuous coaching lead to a workforce that is not only well-trained but also highly motivated, capturing the core of performance management (Haryanto, 2021; Zhang, 2008).

The prime purpose of establishing a performance management practice is to enhance employee performance. Ideally, taking employee well-being and motivation to work into consideration, a good performance management practice should achieve this goal by addressing employee’s extrinsic and intrinsic needs to perform their best.

However, in reality, it is too complicated to fail to meet these expectation. The traditional performance management practice in companies like GE, who has abandoned annual performance rating with normal distributed curve, failed to promote high performance. It has created unnecessary pressures by screening out low-performing employees for firing, which in turn result in higher turnover rates and lower overall performance (O'Kane et al., 2023; Pulakos et al., 2019). Instead, a more effective performance management practice should focus on continuous dialogue with employee, clear goal-setting, and other supportive behaviour by managers for employee development and well-being.

Notwithstanding extensive scholarly attention, a fundamental theoretical tension has been revealed, whether performance management practice functions primarily as a control mechanism of generating compliance through supervision, surveillance and extrinsic pressure, or as a development process with fostering engagement through intrinsic motivation and supportive feedback (Cappelli & Tavis, 2016; Tweedie et al., 2019). This theoretical ambiguity combined with practitioners' persistent challenges in balancing performance imperatives with employee's well-being (Pulakos et al., 2019), motivate the overarching research question, what are the underlying mechanisms linking performance management practice to employee well-being and performance?

Theoretical synthesis suggests that this dual objective depends critically on employee's perceptions of performance management practice. When employees perceive PMP as fair, transparent, and supportive with clear goal-setting, continuous developmental feedback, and recognition of contributions, employee's positive

motivational processes can be activated, and their well-being and performance can be further enhanced. Crucially, well-designed PMP achieves this dual objective by satisfying employee's intrinsic motivational needs through developmental support and participative processes, and extrinsic motivational needs through providing structural guarantees such as transparent pay-for-performance systems and fair evaluation procedures. This integrative approach, rooted in self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and the AMO framework (Bos-Nehles et al., 2023), recognizes that sustainable employee effectiveness requires both psychological need satisfaction and institutionalized reward alignment. Conversely, when PMP is perceived as controlling, or procedurally unjust, the same practices may trigger threat-rigidity responses, eroding well-being and, paradoxically, undermining sustained performance (Cascio, 2006; Guerci et al., 2022).

Accordingly, the following hypotheses are posited for Study 1,

Hypothesis 1: Performance Management Practice (PMP) are positively related to Employee Performance (EP).

Hypothesis 2: Performance Management Practice (PMP) are positively related to Employee Well-being (EWB).

While performance management practice operates as a formal HRM practice, its effectiveness ultimately depends upon managers' implementation, the daily behaviours through which managers translate policy intentions into lived employee experiences (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Wright & Nishii, 2013). This implementation gap, widely documented in the HRM literature, reveals that employees respond not to performance

management practice's designs, but to their proximal interactions with immediate supervisors who enact, interpret, or potentially subvert these PMP requirements from HR (Den Hartog et al., 2013; Liao et al., 2022). Among these supervisory behaviours, managerial coaching has emerged as a particularly critical yet under-theorized mechanism that may supersede or mediate the effects of PMP.

Managers play a very important role in performance management practice. They manage employees' performance by implementing the performance management practice designed and required by HR. Per the analysis and review on the evolution of performance management by Pulakos (2019), organizations are faced up to the challenges and limitations of traditional performance management practice such as annual rating on employee performance, complex administration requirement by HR but no actual impact on performance improvement. Managers tend to avoid time-consuming efforts on evaluating and communicating with employees about their performance. Meanwhile, employees demonstrate poor response to the performance management practice in their organization. For instance, perhaps they do not understand the reason why their performance need to be managed and evaluated according the performance management process in their organization while their managers are not able to effectively implement the performance management practice as required —that is, either they do not want to or they simply do not have time to do so (Marescaux et al., 2019; Pulakos, 2004). The debate over whether performance rating should exist in organizations or not has been going on for a while (Adler et al., 2016). Nevertheless, it is clear that performance management practice in organizations needs to be improved

through appropriate leadership behaviours (such as managerial coaching) performed by managers (Kinicki et al., 2013; Pulakos, 2009; Pulakos et al., 2019). This is also one of the reasons why Study 2 replaced performance management practice with managerial coaching as an independent variable. Performance management practice (PMP) constitutes a foundational element of modern HRM practices, serving as the primary mechanism through which organizations align individual contributions with strategic objectives while simultaneously shaping employee experiences in workplace (Pulakos et al., 2019; Schleicher et al., 2018). Within this framework, managerial coaching (MC) emerges as a distinctive yet complementary HRM practice. Managerial coaching (MC) translates developmental intentions into actions and outcomes through proximal, interpersonal interactions (Ellinger et al., 2003; Kim et al., 2023). Both practices share the overarching objective of enhancing employee outcomes including well-being and performance (Pulakos, 2009; Ladyshewsky & Taplin, 2017).

Several academics have contended that human resource practices and the leadership behaviours of line managers are integral components of an HRM that can affect employee well-being and performance (Boxall & Purcell, 2022; Gilbert et al., 2011; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). Most performance management practice require managers to align expectations, give effective feedback, and coach employees through daily performance management situations (Kinicki et al., 2013). This is also one of the reasons why the implementation of coaching methodologies has gained significant popularity over time (Ali et al., 2018). These behavioural requirements are highly consistent with the behaviours that managerial coaching requires managers to

demonstrate. Discussing leadership in the absence of specific behaviours is deemed too general (Kinicki et al., 2013). Building on this observation, it is pertinent to explore whether managerial coaching can be served as a powerful antecedent to promote employee performance as well as well-being.

Managerial coaching, a key leadership behaviour that has demonstrated improvements in job performance, employee satisfaction, organizational commitment, and engagement, is as the art of creating an environment that facilitates individuals' progress towards their desired goals in a fulfilling manner (Ellinger et al., 2003; Kim et al., 2013; Ladyshewsky & Taplin, 2017). The International Coaching Federation (ICF), a leading institution in this field, describes coaching as a partnership that inspires clients to maximize their personal and professional potential through a thought-provoking and creative process (https://coachingfederation.org). This approach emphasizes the centrality of the individual, focusing on their performance goals and potential, and has led to a shift in the managerial role. The notion of "manager as coach" has been increasingly prevalent in management practice and leadership research (Ali et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2023; Kim, 2014; Lawrence, 2017).

Per the definition by Ellinger (2021), managerial coaching involves supervisors or managers assuming the responsibility of coaches or facilitators to enable employees to learn and develop through specific behaviours. Per the review by Carvalho (2022), it has shown that this managerial coaching approach can positively influence employees' self-awareness, attitudes and behaviours, job performance, and overall satisfaction. It can also help to increase job satisfaction by achieving their goals and performing well

at work (Tanskanen et al., 2019). As managers are increasingly encouraged to adopt coaching behaviours in their daily management job, the role of the manager as a coach has emerged as a common feature for organizational settings. They need to pay attention to facilitating employee continuous learning, empowering employees for personal development. Managerial coaching typically involves personalized, face-to-face meeting sessions where managers serve as coaches to enhance employee performance by individualized goal setting, motivation enhancement, support on necessary resources to perform, and continuous feedback on performance. This approach can grow employees' capabilities, unleash employees' potential, and foster a learning environment and skill enhancement (Nyfoudi et al., 2023).

Studies have indicated that managerial coaching can lead to increased worker well-being, engagement, job satisfaction, and job performance as well (Ali et al., 2018; Barry et al., 2021). The connection between managerial coaching and employee motivation is supported and validated from the perspective of motivational theories. For instance, goal-setting theory posits that coaching behaviours like listening to employees, and asking questions can increase employee's motivation to undertake more job tasks (Latham, 2023). Additionally, it is of significant importance for managers demonstrating coaching behaviours to increase employee motivation to align personal goals with organizational objectives. This theory also highlights managerial coaching as an effective approach to enhance an organization's ability to direct and refine employee understanding of their direction. Leaders or managers guide employees toward objectives that align with the organization's set goals (Ismail et al., 2016),

thereby enhancing employee motivation through managerial coaching.

The development of goal setting theory has spanned over a century, with its early beginnings in the late 19th century and the first half of the 20th century where goal setting was employed in isolated, non-theoretical studies (Locke & Latham, 1990). Notable early findings included improvements in telegraph operators' performance when working towards specific goals and reduced boredom among factory workers with defined targets. However, these studies lacked a theoretical framework and did not explore the mechanisms or conditions under which goal setting influences performance (Latham, 2023; Locke & Latham, 1990, 2006).

The second half of the 20th century marked a significant shift with the emergence of Locke and Latham's goal-setting theory, which revolutionized the field by providing a solid theoretical foundation for managerial coaching in 21st century, the theory had inspired over 1,000 studies, becoming well-established in both academic and practical circles (Latham, 2023; Latham & Locke, 2007). It is worth noting that the majority of goal-setting research has been studied separately from the coaching. As a result, there has been a need for theorists and researchers to adapt goal-setting theory to the context of coaching practice (Grant, 2020; Spence & Grant, 2007).

The theory has been validated across various settings, levels of analysis, and time spans, demonstrating that properly set goals can consistently enhance performance, whether assigned, self-set, or participative set. This robustness across different contexts and the theory's continuous development through induction have contributed to its enduring relevance and practical utility in management practice. Paraphrasing, the goal

setting theory has evolved from scattered early observations to a robust, empirically-supported framework that guides performance enhancement in organizations worldwide. Yet it is an open theory as concluded by experts Latham and Locke (Latham & Locke, 2007; Locke & Latham, 2019).

The core elements of goal setting theory, as outlined by Locke and Latham (1990), can be summarized in four key points: 1), Challenging, specific goals are proven to drive higher performance levels compared to easy goals, no goals, or even the general encouragement to do one's best; 2), Assuming constant ability and commitment, there is a direct relationship between the level of difficulty of a goal and the performance achieved; the more difficult the goal, the higher the performance; 3), Personal traits and incentives shape individual behaviour, primarily to the extent that they encourage the establishment and dedication to specific, challenging goals; Beyond affecting motivation through choice, effort, and persistence, goal setting can also boost the cognitive process of seeking strategies to achieve the goal (Locke & Latham, 1990, 2006).

In addition to goal-setting theory, there is another relevant theory to illustrate the relationship between managerial coaching, employee well-being and performance, which is the recognition theory (Brun & Dugas, 2008; Gilbert & Kelloway, 2018; Rachmad, 2022). Since recognition theories articulate pre-conditions of employee well-being, recognition-theoretic approaches to performance management necessarily move beyond HRM's 'performative' instrumental approach (Brun & Dugas, 2008). Recognition theory also offer a framework to articulate and empirically research how

managerial coaching in the performance management practice affects employee well-being and performance (Grover & Furnham, 2016; Tweedie et al., 2019).

Standing on the giants' shoulders, Rachmad (2022) introduced recognition behaviour theory (RBT). The importance was highlighted that recognizing employees for their contributions to the team and to the organization can enhance their well-being and performance. This theory defines recognition as the process of appreciating or rewarding employees for their achievements and positive behaviours, which is one of mandatory behaviours in the practice of managerial coaching . It emphasizes that timely, sincere, and specific recognition can significantly boost self-confidence, motivation, and engagement. Conversely, a lack of recognition often leads to demotivation, decreased performance, and even the desire to leave the organization. Several empirical studies have been conducted to prove the recognition by the manager can positively affect employee well-being and performance (Sidhu, 2019; Sidhu & Nizam, 2020; Zhao & Liu, 2020).

Scholars in human resource management (HRM) endorse coaching as one of HRM practices to enhance employee performance. HRM professionals are tasked with equipping managers with the skills to coach effectively and fostering an environment conducive to coaching (Brown et al., 2019). These coaching components are in sync with the expansion of performance management practice beyond the traditional annual review. Brown et al. (2019) advocated for a broader view of performance management, moving beyond mere evaluation, and emphasizing the importance of future research in this domain.

In the practice of managerial coaching, supervisors are required to support employee to set the performance goals as well as development goals. They are also required to provide timely feedback and recognition to their direct reports. They have the accountability to build and maintain the trust from their direct reports as well.

Building on the above theoretical reasoning, and also taking from the point of employee's perceptions, the following hypotheses are posited for Study 2,

Hypothesis 11: Managerial Coaching (MC) are positively related to Employee Performance.

Hypothesis 12: Managerial Coaching (MC) are positively related to Happiness at Work (HAW).

2.2 Trust in Supervisor (TIS) & its relevant theories

While performance management practice (PMP) and managerial coaching (MC) provide the structural and behavioural antecedents of employee well-being and performance, their impact is neither direct nor automatic. Rather, these HRM practices must be interpreted, filtered, and translated through the immediate relational context of the supervisor-subordinate dyad (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Wright & Nishii, 2013). Trust in supervisor (TIS) represents the pivotal psychological mechanism functioning as the relational infrastructure through which employee attitudes, behaviours, and outcomes such as well-being and performance are well-shaped and further achieved.

The first time when Mayer et al. (1995) developed an integrative model of trust, they noted the scarcity of research directly on trust. More than ten years later, when Schoorman et al. (2017) refined their integrative model on trust, they happily found the

fruition of management research of trust. However, until now, there has not yet been a globally unified definition of trust. Contemporary definition and measurement on trust vary across multiple perspectives such relational, individual, team and organizational, risk and control, violation and repair, international and cross-cultural. Nevertheless, the definition by Mayer et al. (1995) were most widely cited, "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party" (p. 712).

In organizational contexts, trust is taken as the most valuable yet intangible asset (Schilke et al., 2023). It has been validated to reduce internal communication cost and external transaction costs for organizations (Boies et al., 2015). In the absence of trust, employee-employer relationship like supervisor-subordinate relationship is solely defined by contract-basis obligations (Faruk, 2019; Robinson, 1996). Lots of empirical studies have confirmed that trust is positively correlated to teamwork, cooperation, employee well-being and performance (Baquero, 2023; Boies et al., 2015; Casimir et al., 2006; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001) and also negatively correlated to communication cost, internal and external transaction cost, employee stress and turnover rate (Hope-Hailey et al., 2012; Zaheer et al., 1998).

There are several trust related constructs in organizations, such as trust in supervisor (TIS), trust in organization, trust in leadership, organizational trusted culture, and trust in co-workers, etc. (Burke et al., 2007; Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006; Jena et al., 2018; Li et al., 2012; Schilke et al., 2023). Researchers also classify trust in different

perspectives. One frequent classification is from the perspective of impersonal and interpersonal trust (Lewicki et al., 2006; Zaheer et al., 1998). And another classification is from behavioural tradition of trust and psychological tradition of trust. Behavioural tradition takes trust as rational behaviour such as cooperative behaviours in the organization. Psychological tradition views trust as complex intrapersonal emotions like affections, dispositions, etc. (Lewicki et al., 2006). Further, there have been more research studying the interpersonal trust, and classifying it into affect-based trust and cognition-based trust (McAllister, 1995; Yang & Mossholder, 2010; Yang et al., 2009).

The study by Podsakoff et al. (1996) examined the effects of transformational leadership behaviours on employee attitudes (satisfaction, commitment, trust), role perceptions (role clarity, conflict), and performance (in-role and organizational citizenship behaviours, OCBs). It developed the measurement on trust in leader by using a 6-item scale, which was adapted from Podsakoff et al. (1990). This scale was reliable and brief, so that the probability of being cited by those later studies is also very high. However, it might not have captured all the trust dimensions like competence, and benevolence (Mayer et al., 1995).

The research by Robinson & Rousseau (1994) provided a comprehensive measure of employees' perceptions of their employer's trustworthiness from various aspects, which included integrity, motives, consistency and openness. The construct of Trust in Organization is a critical factor when examining antecedents and consequences of psychological contract violations (PCVs) in employment relationships. However, the target group of this study focused solely on MBA graduates from a single Midwestern

U.S. management school, which might cause the generalizability and cross culture issue when studies in other countries would cite.

As the measures for Trust in Organization mainly refer to impersonal perspective, the interpersonal part should not be neglected. Therefore, the third measurement is Trust in Co-workers. The study by Gould-Williams (2003) examined the impact of "high-commitment" HR practices on workplace trust (including trust in the organization and trust in co-workers and organizational performance in UK public-sector organizations.

The paper published in The Leadership Quarterly by Podsakoff et al. (1990) developed a survey questionnaire to measure transformational leader behaviours, trust in leader, and other constructs like satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviours (OCB). The construct of trust in leader is comprised of 6 items from different perspectives (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Among 6 items, there are two about faith and loyalty to the leader, which seems to overemphasize because trust is different from loyalty essentially.

The study by Robinson & Rousseau (1994) examined the psychological contracts between employees and employers, with a focus on the violation of these contracts and their impact on employee trust, satisfaction, and turnover (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Study 1 quoted the measure of employee's Trust in Employer with seven questions from it (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). These questions were designed to assess the employee's degree of trust in their employer, with higher scores indicating a higher degree of trust. The scale included beliefs regarding the other's integrity, motives and

intentions, behavioural consistency, openness, and discretion (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994).

The study by Gould-Williams (2003) discussed the importance of human resource (HR) practices and workplace trust in achieving superior performance within public-sector organizations (Gould-Williams, 2003). To measure workplace trust, the study used Cook and Wall's trust scales (Cook & Wall, 1980), which included two parts. One is about System Trust with seven questions, which is similar to Trust in Employer by Robinson and Rousseau. Another one is about Interpersonal Trust with three questions. The extant Study 1 included these three questions in the survey as well. However, the results showed their relevance to other constructs were not obvious, though the study by Gould-Williams found that HR practices had a significant positive effect on both system and interpersonal trust, which in turn positively predicted changes in employee satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational performance.

The study by McAllister (1995) explored the nature of interpersonal trust, particularly focusing on trust in leadership within organizational settings. The study distinguished between two forms of trust: cognition-based trust and affect-based trust. Field study was conducted with 194 managers and professionals, using a new measure to assess affect- and cognition-based trust levels, and examining relationships through structural equation modelling (McAllister, 1995). Per the research findings, McAllister (1995) concluded that the significance of informal relations within organizations was underscored. These informal relationships were fundamental to the actual functioning and work of the organization, and the emotional or affective component was a crucial

foundation for building trust among managers. This affect-based trust was not just a secondary aspect of interpersonal trust but is essential in its own right, playing a pivotal role in enabling effective and coordinated action within the organization. The study suggests that when managers have affective ties and trust in each other, they are more likely to work together harmoniously, share information, and support each other's efforts, which in turn contributes to the overall performance and success of the organization. This type of trust goes beyond mere professional reliability; it involves personal care, concern, and emotional investment in the relationship, which can foster a stronger collaborative environment. The research highlights the importance of nurturing and understanding these affective foundations for trust as a key element in the management and enhancement of organizational effectiveness (McAllister, 1995).

The study by Yang & Mossholder (2010) explores the implications of different bases and foci of trust in leadership within the same study. They conceptualized variants of employee trust in organizational leadership in terms of two bases (cognitive and affective) and two foci (management and supervisor). The study aimed to examine the effects of trust in leaders on work-related attitudes (organizational commitment, job satisfaction) and behaviours (in-role behaviour, extra-role behaviour) (Yang & Mossholder, 2010). They have made great contributions to the trust literature by providing a more nuanced examination of trust in supervisors and its impact on employee attitudes and behaviours.

The present research focuses specifically on trust in supervisor (TIS), defined as an employee's willingness to be vulnerable to their immediate manager's actions based

on expectations of benevolence, integrity, and ability (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Mayer et al., 1995). Study 1 initially incorporated three trust constructs, trust in supervisor (Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al. 1996), trust in employer (Robinson and Rousseau 1994), and interpersonal trust (Gould-Williams 2003) to examine their relative explanatory power. However, empirical and theoretical analysis supported strategic prioritization of trust in supervisor (TIS) alone in the hypothesized model. This decision also reflects the below considerations. Immediate supervisors represent the most salient authority figure in employee's daily work interations, directly implementing PMP and enacting managerial coaching behaviours (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Wright & Nishii, 2013). Chinese cultural contexts exhibit high power distance and strong hierarchical orientation. Supervisor-subordinate relationships constitute the primary locus of resource allocation, performance evaluation, and developmental support (Chen et al., 2002; Liu & Jia, 2021). The achieved sample size (N = 94 in Study 1) was inadequate for stable estimation of a complex structural model with multiple highly correlated trust constructs. Preliminary analysis has indicated substantial intercorrelations (rs > 0.60), risking multicollinearity and parameter instability.

Social Exchange Theory (SET) is one of the most predominant conceptual frameworks for understanding interpersonal trust behaviours in organization (Settoon et al., 1996). The motivational processes of social exchanges (Blau, 2017) were used to explain the links between HRM practices and employee well-being in work places (Braun et al., 2013). Social exchange theory suggests that when employees perceive supervisory support and trust their managers—defined as the belief that they can openly

communicate about job-related issues without fear of negative repercussions and they are more likely to reciprocate with positive work attitudes, such as heightened motivation and commitment, ultimately enhancing performance (Baptiste, 2008). Such trust in leadership has also been empirically linked to employee well-being, further reinforcing the reciprocal dynamics (Braun et al., 2013).

Social Exchange Theory (SET) has provided a theoretical framework to understand the interpersonal dynamics, which demonstrates reciprocity between individuals (Cook & Emerson, 1987). The core principle of Social Exchange Theory (SET) is, when people receive benefits from others, they feel obligated to give back in a reciprocated way. The essence of exchange in the process leads to further and more exchange of resources and benefits between individuals social relationship (Blau, 2017; Cook & Emerson, 1987). On the basis of SET, trust is understood and operationalized as the expectation that one partner will act in a benevolent rather than exploitative manner, by assessing the other partner's characteristics and intentions in a continuous way (Coyle-Shapiro & Diehl, 2018; Robbins, 2016).

Building on Social Exchange Theory (SET), Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory has been also focusing on the dyadic and reciprocal relationship between the supervisor and subordinate, and highlighting quality significance of the exchange (Settoon et al., 1996). Some studies have empirically suggested the positive correlation between high-quality LMX relationships and levels of subordinate-supervisor trust. Namely, the higher Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) quality, the more trusted relationship between supervisor and subordinate is (Brower et al., 2000; Taştan &

Davoudi, 2015). When employees perceive more trust in their supervisors, they are more likely to feel valued and respected, which would turn into more well-being and higher performance because employee feel a stronger duty and commitment to demonstrate more positive behaviours (Chang et al., 2020).

Coincidentally, Marshall et al. (2024) conducted a comprehensive review of the literature on individual and organizational performance. They employed a technique called meta-theoretical construct analysis to synthesize various theoretical viewpoints. To assemble a broad and inclusive sample of scholarly work, they selected the top 10 journals across six management-focused SCImago research categories. Utilizing the Web of Science (WoS) database, they searched for articles with the term "performance" within these journals, resulting in a dataset of 15,535 articles published between 1946 and 2022, spanning 44 different journals. Given the sheer volume of articles (approximately 16,000) and associated keywords (over 20,000), manual clustering of keywords was not feasible. Consequently, they deployed computer-assisted review methods to generate networks based on the co-occurrence frequency of keywords. These networks primarily categorized keywords by their level of analysis, revealing that performance research was dispersed across multiple analytical levels. Upon examining these performance-related theories, it was revealed that a predominance of theories tend to be either firm-centric or individual-centric. To assess and synthesize these theories, they developed a coding scheme based on two axes: the primary focus on individual or firm level and the primary emphasis on intra-agent or inter-agent processes. They summarized the CORE model of performance: Performance (P)

=Capacity (C) + Opportunity (O) + Relevant Exchanges (RE) (Marshall et al., 2024). This theoretical frameworks of employee performance pointed out the same conclusion as the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory has suggested as the above (Aguinis et al., 2024; Marshall et al., 2024).

Nevertheless, Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory has been developed within Western contexts. In China, influenced by Confucianism, the concept of "guanxi" differs from the Western notion of "relationship" and is more nuanced, reflecting personal relationships that extend beyond the workplace, influenced by social interactions and cultural expectations. Guanxi is a form of social capital in China that is valued more than relationships in the West due to the country's high power distance and weaker legal institutions. It involves the exchange of resources, similar to social exchange theory, but with unique elements like "renqing" (favors) and "mianzi" (face) (Liu & Jia, 2021), which are crucial for understanding interpersonal dynamics in China. Researchers have defined guanxi in various ways, but it is generally understood as informal interpersonal relationships that can be leveraged to gain resource advantages, with "renqing" and "mianzi" being key to navigating these relationships successfully (Guan & Frenkel, 2021; Han et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2015). However, as the old Chinese adage - Everything has its limits, those guanxi-oriented HR systems can undermine trust and negatively affect employee well-being and performance (Chen et al., 2004; Liu & Jia, 2020, 2021; Yang et al., 2021).

Trust within the context of leader-member relationships is a critical variable and is always a crucial element for a leader’s effectiveness (Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Dirks,

1999). Both meta-analysis by Dirks & Ferrin (2002) and Hoc et al. (2018) have shown that no matter what form of leadership (authentic, ethical, servant or transformational), winning trust is the key. Leaders provide guidance and resources through behaviours such as coaching and empowerment, and subordinates adjust their performance including attitudes and behaviours in response to supervisory requirements. Trust facilitates this dynamic, as it underpins the reciprocal obligations and expectations that drive the social exchange process. The Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory also suggests, managers play an important role in building trusted relationship with their employees, and their behaviours further affect how their subordinates perceive HRM practices (Wright, 2007).

How to build, develop and maintain the trust, which has always been a focal topic for management scholars and practitioners (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Lewicki et al., 2006). As an old Dutch saying, “Trust comes on foot, but leaves on horseback”, trust is fragile and vulnerable. So that some scholars have studied how to repair and re-build trust (Kramer & Lewicki, 2010). Some authoritative survey results from ESC (Erasmus Survey Centre) suggested the important impact of trust in management on employees’ life satisfaction. Helliwell et al. (2009) reported that a one-point increase on a 10-point scale in employees' trust in management was associated with a 36% improvement in income in terms of its effect on life satisfaction. This compelling empirical data has highlighted practitioners and academia’s interest in the construct of trust in manager. These studies remind the leaders and managers in the organizations to continuously generate, build and maintain trust with their employees, not risk losing it easily.

Therefore, existing research suggests that while employee well-being is indeed an important mechanism by which HRM affects performance (Gruman & Saks, 2011; Stirpe et al., 2022), there are also other potential mechanisms at work, such as trust in supervisor, which can be effectively incorporated into the research on the relationship between performance management practice, employee well-being and performance (Peccei & Van De Voorde, 2019; Peccei et al., 2013).

Some empirical studies have shown different results, that HRM practices do not directly lead to higher levels of employee performance. In contrast, human resource management practices have an impact on employee performance only when trust in the employer is taken into account (Elorza et al., 2022; Gonçalves & Neves, 2012). This is an important finding because previous studies investigating this relationship have largely relied on self-reported performance data and have produced inconsistent results (Ho & Kuvaas, 2020). The findings suggest that in highly trusted employee-employer relationships, perceptions of human resource management are associated with higher levels of performance and higher levels of personal well-being.

However, it is still difficult for managers to achieve this trust building and maintenance, from a practical perspective. Especially when company requires managers to get high performance from their employees' side, they generally put a lot of working pressure on employees and themselves, which in turn harms the well-being of employees at a certain level. Existing literature focus on either relationship between trust and performance (Boies et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2014; Grant & Sumanth, 2009; Li & Tan, 2013) or relationship between trust and well-being(Baquero, 2023; Chughtai

et al., 2015; Helliwell & Huang, 2011; Jain et al., 2019; Kelloway et al., 2012; Li & Lin, 2020). Very few trust literature might cover both employee performance and also well-being (Liu et al., 2010). Empirical studies examining the trusted relationship between supervisors and subordinates, employee well-being, and performance in China are limited compared to the West.

How do managers make good of performance management practice to enhance trust? How do managers avoid some harmful practices to undermine trust? To answer these questions must be valuable for managers in China, especially these managers working for small companies, to engender this trust without financial investment or little monetary investment, but still can boost the employee well-being as well as high performance.

When employees trust their supervisors, they are more likely to believe that their contributions will be met with fair and positive responses, which in turn can enhance work performance (Maximo et al., 2019). The importance of trust in supervisor is further highlighted by research showing its positive impact on employee performance (Li & Tan, 2013). Trust in supervisor, along with other variables such as employee well-being and performance management practice as mentioned in the above sections, contributes to a more productive workforce. The trusted relationship between supervisors and employees is an important component and fundamental aspect of performance management practice in organizations (Pombo, 2021) as it affects basic results such as employee well-being and performance (Babalola, 2016). Therefore, the basis of the relationship between managers and supervisors, through the properly

designed performance management practice, has the ability to influence productivity, clarify expectations, motivate employees, and align organizational goals (Pulakos, 2009). Moreover, when an enabling performance management approach is adopted - one that engages employees and uses two-way communication, focusing on employee development – employee well-being can be enhanced (Franco-Santos & Doherty, 2017) and performance improved (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000).

In both studies, Trust in Supervisor (TIS) is operationalized as employees' perceived trust in their immediate supervisor. The level of analysis is individual that trust is conceptualized as an employee-level psychological state, reflecting each individual's unique appraisal of their supervisor's trustworthiness. Drawing on the theoretical frameworks of SET and LMX, and consistent with the empirical evidence reviewed above, trust in supervisor is hypothesized to function as a direct predictor of employee outcomes, employee well-being and performance, and also to function as a key mediating mechanism through which HRM practices and managerial behaviours are positively related to employee well-being and performance.

Therefore, in Study 1 & 2, it is posited,

Hypothesis 4: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) is positively related to Employee Well-being (EWB).

Hypothesis 5: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) is positively related to Employee Performance (EP).

Hypothesis 6: Performance Management Practice (PMP) are positively related to Trust in Supervisor (TIS).

Hypothesis 9: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) mediates between Performance Management Practice (PMP) and Employee Performance (EP).

Hypothesis 10: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) mediates between Performance Management Practice (PMP) and Employee Well-being (EWB).

Hypothesis 14: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) is positively related to Happiness at Work (HAW).

Hypothesis 15: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) is positively related to Employee Performance (EP).

Hypothesis 16: Managerial Coaching (MC) are positively related to Trust in Supervisor (TIS).

Hypothesis 19: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) mediates between Managerial Coaching (MC) and Employee Performance (EP).

Hypothesis 20: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) mediates between Managerial Coaching (MC) and Happiness at Work (HAW)

2.3 Employee Well-being (EWB) and Happiness at Work (HAW)

The human quest for well-being, like the knights' never-ending quest for the Holy Grail, has been along with human history. The word well-being first appeared in ancient Greek philosophical writings and the definition of "well-being" can be traced back to Aristotle (Diener et al., 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2001). Historically, the view that people seek pleasure and avoid pain is so consistent from both the West and East as well. It can be said to be one of human nature. So that, well-being has long been studied in various academic fields such as philosophy, psychology, sociology, and health care literature.

These perspectives from different management research disciplines have resulted in little consensus among researchers on what components represent well-being (Grant et al., 2007).

Grant et al. (2007) defined employee well-being from three aspects, happiness from psychological well-being, health from physical well-being, and relationships from social well-being. They illustrated well-being tradeoffs according to reviewing evidence on the four managerial practices, which are job redesign, incentive compensation, team-building, and safety practices. The job redesign practice is often to enrich tasks to engage employees by improving their skill, work autonomy, and feedback. This can definitely lead to higher psychological well-being while it can also bring the increased physical stress, fatigue, and even some health problems, which means it may decrease physical well-being. The performance-based incentive compensation practice can enhance employee's psychological well-being by providing monetary and non-monetary rewards based on the philosophy of paying for performance. However, it may also produce inequity and competition, which might further decrease employees' social well-being by reducing cooperation, and mutual trust among employees. The team-building practice focuses on improving interpersonal relationships and team cohesion to enhance team level performance. While it might reduce employees' psychological well-being, whose preference is to work independently. The safety practice is designed to decrease work-related injury and illness via cultivating safe working conditions. While it may improve employees' physical well-being by protecting health, it can sometimes undermine psychological

well-being when employees perceive the safety measures as restrictive. Based on these trade-offs, they gave some recommendation to create the synergies by thinking more broadly and more long-term to design some management practice, as well as more timely collecting employee's feedback on the management practices (Grant et al., 2007).

In the development of well-being theory, scholars usually adhere to the following academic traditions. One major tradition is from the hedonic and eudaimonic view to study well-being. As summarized by Ryan & Deci (2001), the hedonic view focuses on subjective well-being, which is often equal to happiness and formally defined as higher life satisfaction with more positive effects, fewer negative effects. By contrast, the eudaimonic view perspective focuses on psychological well-being, which is more broadly defined as a fully functioning person and is operationalized as happiness plus meaningfulness (McGregor & Little, 1998), or as a set of wellness variables like self-actualization and vitality (Ryan & Deci, 2000). According to the review on both hedonic and eudaimonic research literature, they found it interesting that by asking different questions and complementing each other while overlapping, a broad picture of the nature, development and promotion on well-being is emerging (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

Subjective well-being is a general term. Diener (1984) was one of the first researchers to study subjective well-being and put the topic on the scientific agenda. In his view, happiness is expressed by subjective life satisfaction and positive and negative influences. His contributions inspired a multi-component model of well-being research. Later on, the work of Ryff (1989), describes psychological well-being by using six dimensions of self-acceptance, environmental mastery, autonomy, positive relations

with others, personal growth, and purpose in life. Furthermore, it can be argued that various well-being models have been developed and interpreted by positive psychologists, of which the happiness models of Seligman and Ben Shahar are the most widely disseminated. Seligman's PERMA model consists of five components—positive emotion, engagement, relationships, meaning, and accomplishment (Seligman, 2011), Ben-Shahar's SPIRE model of spiritual, physical, intellectual, relational & emotional wellbeing (Ben-Shahar & Ben-Shahar, 2021). Both are also rooted in Diener's early work.

With Diener's continuous work (Diener et al., 2018; Diener et al., 1999; Diener et al., 2009) has also inspired the study of well-being, not only from personal positive psychology perspective, but also from the perspective of organizational psychology. There are at least thirteen dimensions of well-being in the United States alone (Keyes, 2006).

Different scholars like to define well-being from different perspectives. There are many definitions of well-being in the management discipline. There is a lot of literature that distinguishes between pleasurable (or hedonic) and meaningful (or eudaimonic). There are also many literature that define and measure well-being from positive aspects like job satisfaction, engagement, commitment and negative aspects such as work stress, burn-out, and fatigue. Among them, the number of literature and research on "subjective well-being" (Bücker et al., 2018; Diener, 1984, 2009; Diener et al., 2018; Diener et al., 1999) and "psychological well-being" (Chaturvedi, 2022; Loon et al., 2019; Ryff, 1989; Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000) is the largest. Such diverse research

directions obviously make it difficult to carry out research on employee well-being. People spend one third of their time on work every day, so the topic of focusing on employee well-being becomes of great management research significance.

In the absence of a unified concept of employee well-being, there are a lot of sub-constructs to measure employee well-being. Some scholars measure employee well-being through subjective well-being, psychological well-being, and workplace well-being (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009). Some researcher such as Warr (1987) and Warr & Nielsen (2018) discussed the concept of quality of work life (QWL) or quality of working life, while Page and Vella-Brodrick (2009) focus on workplace well-being and employee mental health, and Wright & Bonett (2007) studied psychological well-being. Psychological well-being is recognized as a multi-dimensional construct with different scholarly perspectives (Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Zheng et al., 2015). Warr (1990) measures psychological well-being through satisfaction-dissatisfaction, enthusiasm-depression, and comfort-anxiety dimensions.

According to the most recent scoping review by Bautista et al. (2023), the inconsistencies of well-being research are further highlighted and pointed out. In addition to the three types of employee well-being such as physical well-being, psychological well-being, and social well-being mentioned in the above, they suggested emotional well-being as well. It refers to positive emotions, happiness and overall satisfaction (Bautista et al., 2023).

However, there is surprising agreement among scholars on the definition of several core elements of employee well-being, which are physical well-being (health at work,

work injury/disease, work stress, etc.), psychological well-being (happiness at work, job satisfaction, fulfilment and the realization of human potential, etc.) and social well-being (trust, social support, cooperation, sense of belongings, etc.) (Grant et al., 2007; Loon et al., 2019). The empirical studies conducted in China also cited these dimensions to evaluate employee well-being (Liu & Jia, 2020; Xu et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2013).

The definition of well-being could directly quote "A state of complete physical, mental and social well-being, not merely absence of disease or infirmity" from (World Health Organization [WHO], 1948: 100). What is employee well-being (EWB)? As adopted by most scholars, in this study, employee well-being was measured from employee's subjective experience. From subjective point of view, employee him/herself is the best one to feel and judge the degree of well-being (Orsila et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2020). This is majorly from a psychological point of view and covering both at work and outside of work. So that employee well-being can be influenced by the job itself. Because if the employee can complete the job task very well, he/she can feel the sense of achievement, which is positive to his/her psychological well-being. Besides the job itself, employees need to interact with other people in the organization, which can also generate some positive emotions (Nielsen et al., 2017).

By reviewing more than twenty happiness-related constructs like job satisfaction, thrive, flow at work, vigor, and affective well-being at work at three different levels, Fisher (2010) proposed the term of happiness at work (HAW), which includes engagement, job satisfaction, and affective organizational commitment. This has shed

some light on the complex and fragmented landscape of well-being, and also provided a more holistic understanding of well-being that incorporates psychological well-being (including both hedonic and eudaimonic elements), physical well-being (in terms of exhaustion), and social well-being (through trust). This approach enhances the conceptualization of employee well-being, and allows for a more accurate prediction of employees' contributions to an organization (Salas-Vallina et al., 2017). Job satisfaction pertains to feelings of adequacy, sufficiency, and contentment with work conditions such as salary or career prospects. Engagement signifies the dedication and investment of employees in their work, characterized by a sense of energy and motivation stemming from enjoyment and passion. Affective organizational commitment is about emotional bonds, identification with, and involvement in the organization.

The review by Fisher (2010) dissected the definition, measurement, antecedents and consequences of happiness within the workplace context. By reviewing the existing knowledge on happiness at work, it has defined happiness from a multifaceted view of pleasant moods, subjective well-being, and positive attitudes. It has gained escalating attention in psychological research and also concluded that Happiness at Work is much broader than traditionally defined job satisfaction. Therefore, not only job satisfaction but also constructs like work engagement and affective organizational commitment have been included in the measurement. However, happiness itself is so complex that its measures vary greatly, which may focus on experience, belief, specific event, job itself, working environment or something else. Meanwhile it can be measured at different levels, such as personal level, team level and organizational level. In

conclusion, to improve the level of happiness at work is worthwhile for individuals (Fisher, 2010).

The Chinese translation of “happiness at work” (工作幸福感) carries stronger intuitive resonance with employees' subjective experience than the more abstract term "well-being" (福祉). Salas-Vallina and Alegre (2021) have also developed a validated short measure of HAW, facilitating efficient data collection without compromising psychometric quality. In both studies, the level of analysis is at individual level, and all constructs capture each employee's subjective appraisal of their own well-being or happiness at work. This perceptual anchoring is consistent with the dissertation's overarching theoretical premise that employees' interpretations of HRM and managerial practices constitute the primary psychological reality driving their attitudes and behaviours (Nishii & Wright, 2008).

In terms of the relationship between employee well-being and performance, the "happy-productive worker thesis" posits that happier workers tend to be more productive. Though this concept that has been a central focus for both academic researchers and practitioners, there is a growing body of research suggesting that there is a significant relationship between the two, and previous findings have been inconsistent, leading to skepticism about the organizational benefits of employee well-being (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Judge et al., 2001; Tenney et al., 2016). However, a recent study by Bellet, De Neve, & Ward (2024) has provided robust evidence of the positive impact of employee happiness on productivity in a real-world context, specifically among telesales workers at British Telecom. This

study, which observed the behaviours and performance of over 1,700 employees, supports earlier laboratory findings and suggests that the positive effects of happiness on productivity may be even more pronounced in complex tasks involving social interactions with customers. This research helps to alleviate managerial concerns that the benefits of happiness on productivity might diminish in real-life settings, indicating that happier, more sociable workers do not necessarily work less. In essence, the two studies featured in this paper highlight the importance of employee well-being for organizational success and sustainable competitive advantage in the market (Bellet et al., 2024).

Based on all the above literature review, it is posited in Study 1 & 2,

Hypothesis 3: Employee Well-being (EWB) is positively related to Employee Performance (EP).

Hypothesis 13: Happiness at Work (HAW) is positively related to Employee's Performance (EP).

On the basis of Hypothesis 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 in Study 1, it is expected that employee well-being acts as a mediator between performance management practice and employee performance. Therefore, it is hypothesized that,

Hypothesis 7: Employee Well-being (EWB) mediates between Performance Management Practice (PMP) and Employee Performance (EP).

Hypothesis 8: Employee Well-being (EWB) mediates between Trust in Supervisor (TIS) and Employee Performance (EP).

Similarly, on the basis of Hypothesis 11, 12, 13, 14 and 15 in Study 2, it is expected that employee well-being acts as a mediator between performance management practice and employee performance. Therefore, it is hypothesized that,

Hypothesis 17: Happiness at Work (HAW) mediates between Managerial Coaching (MC) and Employee Performance (EP).

Hypothesis 18: Happiness at Work (HAW) mediates between Trust in Supervisor (TIS) and Employee Performance (EP).

2.4 Employee Performance & its relevant theories

On the basis of the systematic review by Atatsi et al. (2019), there have been various behaviours, concepts, cultures and resources that can impact employee performance in an organizational context. Different scholars use different classification, aspects and methods to define employee performance. Some define employee performance from the angle of in-role performance, which is referred to job task completion as required in job descriptions, and organizational citizenship behaviour, which is not necessary part in a job description (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015). Namely, there has not yet been a consistent understanding of the measurement of employee performance.

More often in the practice, employee performance is measured from the angle of objective and subjective (Nielsen et al., 2017). Objective performance pertains to outcomes that are not influenced or assessed by individual perceptions and are not based on self-reports. Common examples of objective performance indicators are reports on productivity, sales revenue, and financial profits. On the flip side, subjective

performance involves self-reported assessments of how individuals judge their own performance based on their personal opinions. This type of performance can be evaluated by the employee themselves (self-rated) or by leaders and colleagues (other-rated). Subjective performance may be affected by elements like an individual's emotional state, and their relationships with supervisors and peers (Gardner & Schermerhorn, 2004). In the present study, the concept of subjective performance was adopted.

In early research, employee's job performance was often assessed through broad measures that included both in-role and extra-role behaviours. These measures did not adequately separate the discretionary, non-role-specific behaviours that contribute to organizational effectiveness and efficiency, known as Organizational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs), from the required job tasks (Williams & Anderson, 1991).

The development of the Organizational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs) construct by Katz in the 1960s marked a significant step forward (Katz, 1964; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Organizational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs) were defined as individual behaviours that are discretionary and not directly recognized by the formal reward system, but that promote the organization's functioning. This led to the creation of measures that aimed to capture these extra-role behaviours separately from in-role performance.

Based on Nielsen et al.'s systematic review (Nielsen et al., 2017), most studies measuring employee performance from two angles, one is objective, and the other is subjective. Some financially measured indicators like profits and sales performance,

can be evaluated objectively. But these indicators are not widely applicable to everyone. Instead, self-evaluated performance based on employee's judgement of his/her own performance is widely used in studies (Nielsen et al., 2017).

Self-efficacy is another source of evaluating employee performance. The study Staples et al. (1999) focusing on an individual's self-rated abilities to execute specific behaviours and performance, has developed a measurement of self-efficacy by collecting 376 remote employees survey data from 18 diverse organizations. It employed structural equation modeling (SEM) with partial least squares (PLS) to test the hypothesized relationships and the survey results indicated that self-efficacy significantly influenced employees' perceived productivity, job satisfaction, and ability to cope with work demands in remote-work settings. However, the validity and generalizability of these findings remained to be further validated by other research.

Per the study by Kuvaas (2006), employee performance was acknowledged as a multifaceted construct that was affected by various factors, including employee perception of performance appraisal systems. The study investigated the relationships between performance appraisal satisfaction and employee outcomes, including self-reported work performance, affective organizational commitment, and turnover intention. It employed six questions to measure employee's self-reported work performance.

Similarly, Bekele et al. (2014) developed the measurement of work performance by using a structured questionnaire including various dimensions. The survey questionnaire consisting of ten questions was designed to capture the perceived level of

effort, quality, and achievement of their roles. The questions were intended to assess the employees' self-evaluation on work performance, their efforts of exceeding expectations, and their commitment to high-quality deliverables. According to analyzing results, the study provided a multidimensional understanding and assessment of employees' self-perceived performance in the organizational context.

Along with research development in the field of organizational behaviour, the measurement of employee performance (EP) has evolved so significantly that some studies have distinguished the construct of EP between in-role behaviours (IRBs) and organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) (Organ, 1988). The empirical study by Williams & Anderson (1991) further developed and validated measures, which are capable of supporting the distinction between these two types of behaviours. It has also recognized the incorporation of both affective and cognitive components of job satisfaction, and organizational commitment as well, which could positively influence the performance of extra-role behaviours. The research by Salas-Vallina and Alegre (2017) focusing on creating shorter measures of happiness at work (HAW) has also aimed to capture the positive attitudes and emotions that contribute to overall job performance, including both in-role and extra-role behaviours.

Pradhan & Jena (2017) classified employee performance from three aspects based on their literature reviews and empirical validation, which are task performance, adaptive performance and contextual performance. Task performance encompasses the actions employees take in relation to their assigned tasks and aligning with the organization goals. Essentially, individual job-related behaviours can be further divided

into two categories: those occurring within the framework of their assigned duties or as described in the job description, and those that are carried out in response to situations rather than job description. The definition of job performance are the behaviours that employees display at work and the delivery of outcomes desired by the organization in terms of job quality, job quantity and job time. In their opinion, employees also need to have the ability to adapt their performance to a dynamic work set-up, which is referred to as adaptive performance. In addition to job related requirements, employee's efforts have to been undertaken to ascertain the importance of non-job components of performance in order to foster a better work environment. Different from organizational citizenship behaviour, they named it as contextual performance (Pradhan & Jena, 2017). The study by Pradhan & Jena (2017) developed a measurement tool for employee performance. Based on literature review, as well as interviewing researchers and corporate practitioners, they proposed a conceptual framework with 42 items to understand workplace performance and also for empirical validation. The instrument was designed to measure employee performance across three dimensions: task performance, adaptive performance, and contextual performance (Pradhan & Jena, 2017). The initial set of 42 items was reviewed by subject matter experts, academicians, and senior HR practitioners. They evaluated the instrument's representativeness, comprehensiveness, and clarity. The 38 retained items were subjected to a pilot study involving 361 executives from Indian manufacturing and service organizations. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using principal component extraction and varimax rotation was conducted to assess the internal consistency of the scale and the

dimensional weightage of the construct. These above rigorous process and steps ensured that the final set of 23 items accurately and reliably measured the construct of employee performance, reflecting the underlying factors of task, adaptive, and contextual performance.

The study by Çalışkan & Köroğlu developed and validated a "Job Performance Scale" to measure employee performance with robust psychometric properties. The scale was rigorously tested across three different groups from universities, healthcare, and industry sectors. The initially proposed scale consisting of 12 items based on a 5-point Likert scale were then refined through exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Then the final scale was refined with eleven questions across two dimensions of task performance and contextual performance.

The study by Ahmed & Wiadi (2022) examined the relationship between job satisfaction, organizational culture and employee performance. They found the factor of organizational commitment mediated between the relation. It employed a survey approach to develeop the measurement model, and collected 420 usable responses by distributing to a sample of 500 employees. Four questions were designed to measure the employees' self-reported performance, which were composed of timely task completion, comprehension and adherence to leadership direction, awareness of required performance standards, and dedication to a high-quality work delivery.

Past research has demonstrated that optimal individual employee performance not only contributes to business success but also exerts a lasting impact on organizational profitability. As is often the case, inefficient work performance is often associated with

lower productivity, profitability and organizational efficiency (López-Cabarcos et al., 2022; Motowidlo & Kell, 2003; Okoye & Ezejiofor, 2013). Therefore, in order to improve employee performance, it is crucial to identify the different factors that can positively affect work performance. The research on employee performance seems to have reached a mature stage theoretically, because it is one of the most frequently analyzed variables in management literature, however, in practice, this is not true. Relatively little literature has systematically and comprehensively attempted to define the nature of job performance, and few studies have been able to identify the processes by which individual performance can contribute to organizational value (Carpini et al., 2017; López-Cabarcos et al., 2022). In this sense, past research has recognized that job performance is largely determined by how employees perceive their jobs (Grant, 2008). Therefore, managers should make an overall effort to improve employee performance by focusing more on employee well-being and creating a more collaborative work environment, rather than just the performance or task itself. The exploration and analysis of various antecedents and mediating variables that affect employee performance can obviously further promote more profound research in this field (López-Cabarcos et al., 2022; Motowidlo & Kell, 2003).

The AMO framework, consisting of an employee's ability (A), motivation (M) and opportunities (O) evaluates the key factors that influence employee performance. In the HRM research domain, the AMO framework has become the most widely utilized theoretical perspective to examine the relationship between HRM and employee performance (Bos-Nehles et al., 2023). The "Ability (A)" component of the model has

emphasized the critical qualifications that employees must have to perform their job responsibilities. At the individual level, the “Ability (A)” dimension includes capabilities, experience, knowledge and skills that employees should possess to be qualified for their job roles. This component can determine to a certain extent whether they can execute their work tasks successfully or not.

The “Motivation (M)” element of the model refers to the general psychological and emotional states which stimulate employees to make efforts on their job. It is different from the “Ability (A)” dimension, which focuses on employees' capabilities; “Motivation (M)” is more about their willingness to bring out those capabilities into performance results. In general, motivation is the internal driving force which energizes, directs, enables, and sustains an employee’s actions by aligning and reflecting employees passion and enthusiasm with their tasks (van der Beck & Seibt, 2021). Studies have shown that HRM can employ practices that enhance motivation to steer employee behaviour towards achieving organizational objectives, as indicated in the systematic review by Marin-Garcia & Tomas (2016). Within the AMO framework, scholars identified a set of HRM practices known as motivation-enhancing bundles, which significantly impact both individual and organizational performance. These practices include performance appraisals, financial incentives for exceptional performance, health care support for employee well-being, performance-based pay (Huselid, 1995).

The 'Opportunities (O)' aspect of the model signifies the environmental and contextual factors that facilitate the conversion of employees' capabilities and efforts

into tangible outcomes. At the individual level, this dimension encompasses autonomy, the significance of tasks, and the impact employees believe they make in their work, which reflects their capacity to apply their skills and contribute to the organization's goals.

Undoubtedly, motivation plays an extremely important role in employees' performance as well as employee well-being (Kanfer et al., 2017). Both of researchers and practitioners are concerned with the development, enhancement, and maintaining of employee's motivation to work. The field of motivation research has a well-established tradition of examining the drives from the perspective of satisfying employees' needs (Maslow, 1958; Pardee, 1990). However, they do not always have the complete picture of what truly motivates an employee. Almost all scholars and practitioners agree that money (including salary and bonus) significantly affects employees' performance, but they do not think that money should be the strongest determinants of employee motivation (Aguinis et al., 2013; Diener & Seligman, 2004; Fischer & Boer, 2011).

Over the past eight decades, motivation theories have continuously developed. The most famous models are, Maslow's hierarchy of needs, McGregor's theories X and Y, McClelland's theory of learning needs (power, achievement and affiliation), Herzberg's two-factor (motivation-hygiene) theory (Pardee, 1990), Vroom's expectancy theory (Erez & Isen, 2002), Bandura's social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), Stajkovic and Luthans' self-efficacy (Kim et al., 2023), and different types of motivation, such as intrinsic and extrinsic (Cerasoli et al., 2014; Locke & Schattke, 2019). However, the

majority of rewarding system in the field of HRM, is designed still based on behaviourism theory, which primarily focuses on shaping employee's behaviour through external rewards and punishments such as incentive, promotion, and other monetary recognitions. Only few can take reference of two-factor, and cover both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation by not only providing bonus but also satisfying employee psychologic needs of autonomy and mastery (Van den Broeck et al., 2021).

Kanfer et al. (2017) used a meta-framework to cluster the motivation theories in the last century into three, content-based including motivational drivers, personal traits, and orientations, context-based including job characteristics, role features, and environmental factors and process-based, which means the processes and mechanisms of decision-making and effort. From a content perspective, their review studied the universal motives including need fulfilment, intrinsic motivation, and trait-based motives including achievement, power, affiliation motives, personality traits, and motivation orientations. From context perspective, they elaborated the motivation theories from team and organizational level and pointed out the important impact from employee's manager to their work motivation. From process perspective, they explained employee's psychological process towards achieving the organizational goal, that employees are most likely to embrace organizational goals when they feel a sense of ownership over the objectives, are confident in their ability to achieve these goals, and anticipate receiving valued intrinsic and/or extrinsic rewards upon successful completion (Kanfer et al., 2017).

In the famous book Drive (Pink, 2011) , the sense of purpose, mastery, as well as

autonomy are the three major intrinsic motivators, especially for the type of knowledge workers. Such as meaningful work, challenging task, mastering some expertise, autonomy and control on own work, these factors should be also considered by a manager when he/she sets goals with an employee, conducts a performance dialogue, and recognizes employee performance.

The most well-known modern theory of motivation is self-determination theory, which suggests humans have three internal psychological needs: autonomy need, competence need and relatedness need (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Meeting one's intrinsic psychological needs plays a crucial part in employees' recognition of their work meaningfulness (Allan et al., 2019). If the organizational context fulfills employees' fundamental psychological needs, including the need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, employees tend to develop positive attitude towards their jobs, which in turn fosters a sense of work meaningfulness. Empirical data supports the notion that employees are highly motivated to fulfill their psychological needs. The fulfillment of these inner psychological needs not only promotes positive performance, but also enhances their well-being/happiness at work (Deci et al., 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2020).

Therefore, in the contemporary workplace, boosting employee motivation has become a standard human resources (HR) practices. Numerous organizations are striving to cultivate, sustain, and enhance their HR strategy to increase employee motivation, aiming for higher performance as well as well-being. Research has concentrated on numerous predictor variables, including organizational factors and

associated support mechanisms, notably including feedback system (Zhang et al., 2023), performance management practice, autonomous work settings, job enrichment and rotation initiatives (Van den Broeck et al., 2021).

In HRM research, it has been long advocated to examine the relationship between employee perceptions of HR practices and performance outcome so as to uncover the "black box" (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Den Hartog et al., 2013). However, empirical studies, which directly examine the impact of performance management practice on employee's motivation to performance, are limited. This gap indicates that HR practitioners should consider the following questions when designing performance management practice: How can performance management practice be designed in a well-structured way to genuinely motivate employees to achieve high performance? How can managers be motivated to effectively implement the performance management practice, thereby enhancing employee performance?

It has been a long history for HR practitioners in modern organizations to design kinds of financial incentive and monetary reward to continuously motivate employee to strive for higher performance. While financial incentive and monetary reward have been traditionally and widely regarded as effective tools to motivate employee for high performance, recent evidence has shown some potentially negative effects (Itri et al., 2019). With the continuous development of the economy and the evolution of human beings, employee's motivation to work is becoming complex. Based on Herzberg's dual-factor theory, salary is a dissatisfier or an extrinsic motivator and therefore not an effective tool to improve motivation and performance for knowledge worker–type tasks

(Herzberg, 2017). The intrinsic motivation theory has gained academic attention in past years. According to some scholars, intrinsic motivation has already showed the stronger relations with well-being and external regulation and amotivation will show negative relations with well-being indicators(Nie et al., 2015).

A consistent theme in HRM research is the call to examine employee perceptions of HR practices as the proximal mechanism linking intended HR systems to individual outcomes (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Den Hartog et al., 2013). This "perceptual turn" recognizes that HR practices only influence behaviour to the extent that they are subjectively experienced, interpreted, and responded to by employees. Grant (2008) similarly emphasized that job performance is largely determined by how employees perceive their jobs.

Despite this theoretical recognition, empirical studies directly examining how performance management practice influence employee motivation and subsequent performance remain limited. This gap motivates the present research's focus on employees' perceptions of PMP and managerial coaching as key antecedents. Specifically, Study 1 investigates how perceived PMP affects employee performance and well-being.

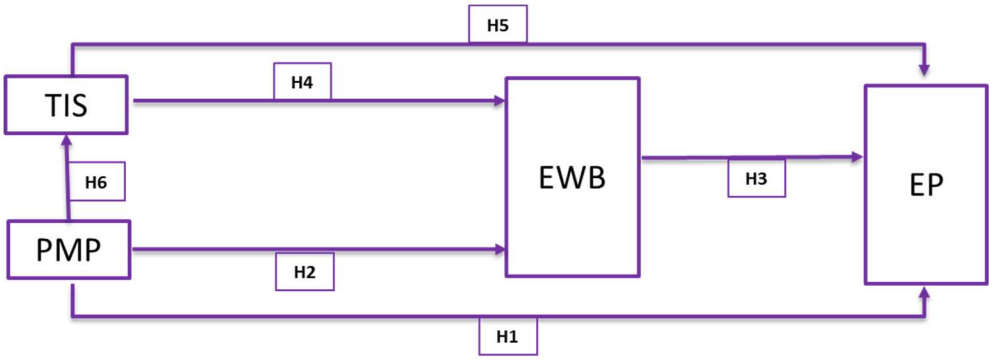
In summary, employee performance is conceptualized in this dissertation as determined by how employees perceive their job. The operationalization differs pragmatically across the two studies. Study 1 operationalized employee performance through self-report measures capture employee’s perceptions of their own work contributions from multidimensions including task performance, adaptive performance

and contextual performance. Study 2 operationalized employee performance from two angles, one from self-reported performance measures (Ahmed & Wiadi, 2022), and another from Performance Promoter Score (Aguinis & Burgi-Tian, 2021). The AMO framework and self-determination theory provide the theoretical foundations for understanding how HRM practices such as performance management practice and managerial coaching, and how trust in supervisor influence performance through motivational pathways. This conceptualization directly informs the performance-related hypotheses in both studies, which are formally integrated in the models presented in Section 2.5.

2.5 The Integrated Model

Based on the above literature review and hypothesis development, the integrated model proposed by the author is illustrated in Figure 1 and Figure 2 respectively for Study 1 and Study 2.

Figure 1. Hypothesized Model in Study 1



Hypothesis 1: Performance Management Practice (PMP) are positively related to Employee Performance (EP).

Hypothesis 2: Performance Management Practice (PMP) are positively related to Employee Well-being (EWB).

Hypothesis 3: Employee Well-being (EWB) is positively related to Employee's Performance (EP).

Hypothesis 4: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) is positively related to Employee Well-being (EWB).

Hypothesis 5: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) is positively related to Employee Performance (EP).

Hypothesis 6: Performance Management Practice (PMP) are positively related to Trust in Supervisor (TIS).

Hypothesis 7 : Employee Well-being (EWB) mediates between Performance Management Practice (PMP) and Employee Performance (EP).

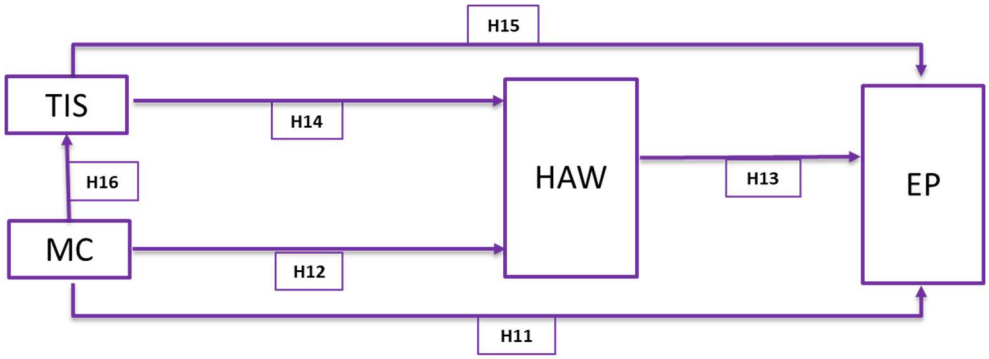
Hypothesis 8: Employee Well-being (EWB) mediates between Trust in Supervisor (TIS) and Employee Performance (EP).

Hypothesis 9: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) mediates between Performance Management Practice (PMP) and Employee Performance (EP).

Hypothesis 10: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) mediates between Performance Management

Practice (PMP) and Employee Well-being (EWB).

Figure 2. Hypothesized Model in Study 2



Hypothesis 11: Managerial Coaching (MC) are positively related to Employee Performance.

Hypothesis 12: Managerial Coaching (MC) are positively related to Happiness at Work (HAW).

Hypothesis 13: Happiness at Work (HAW) is positively related to Employee's Performance (EP).

Hypothesis 14: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) is positively related to Happiness at Work (HAW).

Hypothesis 15: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) is positively related to Employee Performance (EP).

Hypothesis 16: Managerial Coaching (MC) are positively related to Trust in Supervisor (TIS).

Hypothesis 17: Happiness at Work (HAW) mediates between Managerial Coaching (MC) and Employee Performance (EP).

Hypothesis 18: Happiness at Work (HAW) mediates between Trust in Supervisor (TIS) and Employee Performance (EP).

Hypothesis 19: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) mediates between Managerial Coaching (MC) and Employee Performance (EP).

Hypothesis 20: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) mediates between Managerial Coaching (MC) and Happiness at Work (HAW)

Chapter 3. Study 1

Study 1 collected survey data from a high-tech company in China, which the author was working for at that time and also collected data by distributing the survey via social media platform in China. The sample size for Study 1 comprised 68 respondents from the high-tech company and 26 respondents from the social media distribution. Namely, there were 94 participants in total. The surveys utilized a questionnaire with a five-point Likert scale. The questionnaire for Study 1 consisted of 70 items, which can be found in Appendix 1. The dependent variable was defined as employee performance (EP). The mediating variable was employee well-being (EWB) and trust in supervisor (TIS). The independent variable was performance management practice (PMP).

Drawing on the fore-mentioned literature review, scholars have come to the conclusion that human resource management practices, especially performance management practice, are likely to have a "contradictory" impact on employee well-being (Botelho, 2024; Cappelli & Tavis, 2016; Cascio, 2006; Krezek et al., 2023; Onyeaku, 2023; Pulakos, 2004; Pulakos, 2009). This puts forward very high requirements for human resource practitioners to design a set of performance management practice that can not only improve employee well-being, but also enhance employee performance based on the actual situation of the company, especially for small companies in China are less likely to invest more money in improving their employee well-being. As a result of studying HRM development and performance

management practice in the past decades and from around the world (Krezek et al., 2023; Pulakos et al., 2019; Schleicher et al., 2019) as well as twenty-years' working experience in multi-national companies, the author designed a Performance Management Practice, which includes all the essential elements like performance-based incentive scheme, goal setting, continuous feedback as aforementioned, for a small high-tech company in China, and tested its direct and indirect impact both on employee well-being and performance via Study 1.

However, as mentioned above, the actual influence mechanism is much more complex than the general conclusion itself. Because employees' perceptions of HR practices are so different, and are influenced by a lot of factors, which are much more likely to determine employees' attitudes and behaviour than HR practices themselves (Nishii et al., 2008). Study 1 puts employees' perception of performance management practice as the independent variable, whose purpose is also to examine the influence mechanism from a very detailed perspective. Bowen and Ostroff's (2004) theoretical framework posits that the connection between HRM and performance is contingent upon the robustness of the HR system, which facilitates a collective understanding among employees regarding the behaviours that management anticipates, endorses, and compensates. In this light, the success of an HR system's execution is predicated on the employees' views regarding the system's uniqueness, uniformity, and general agreement (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). Therefore, when designing Performance Management Practice, the whole HR system should not be forgotten.

Studies addressing the reasons for discrepancies in HRM implementation are limited, with the majority concentrating on the role of frontline managers in executing HR strategies. For instance, discrepancies between planned and actual HRM can often be attributed to several factors such as supervisors' inadequate training in HR practices, disinterest, heavy workloads, self-interested actions, and conflicts between HR and line management. Line managers and employees at lower levels may reinterpret and renegotiate HR practices, resulting in inconsistent application (Den Hartog et al., 2013; Epton et al., 2017; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). Den Hartog et al. (2013) discovered that higher-quality communication from managers correlates with a greater alignment between managerial and employee perceptions of HR practices.

A properly designed Performance Management Practice should allow managers to show their concern for employees' well-being. Managers have a significant role in influencing employees' work attitude and their efforts to meet the desired performance objectives. HR practitioners should train the managers to execute the Performance Management Practice in the right manner. Study 1 was designed to collect all employees' feedback on the Performance Management Practice in June of 2023 in the high-tech company and employed a quantitative research method.

3.1 Participants and Procedures

Study 1 was conducted in a high-tech company in China, which would be denoted by "HTC" below. The survey was sent out in June of 2023 to all office employees (N=78) via Microsoft online forms for an anonymous approach to collecting data. Employees were encouraged to participate but it was voluntary to join this survey. The survey stated

the prime purpose of this study, and included items assessing employee's perception of Performance Management Practice, Trust in Supervisor/Organization/Co-worker, Employee Well-Being, Employee Performance and CEO's transformational leadership behaviours. The open opinion on these items and some personal information were collected as well. 68 employees participated in the survey, and the participation rate was 87.18%.

After the survey in "HTC", the author collected another 26 participants' response on the same questionnaire by distributing via social media platforms in China. The survey was open from June to December in 2023. Therefore, there were 94 in total respondents for Study 1.

There are four major considerations which has guided the decision of merging data collected from different sources. First, the original organizational sample (N = 68) collected from the company (HTC), which the researcher was working for, was insufficient to support the psychometric and structural complexity of the hypothesized model. Merging the subsample (N=26) collected from social media yielded a total sample size of 94, which was modestly adequate for preliminary examination of core relationships. Second, an identical questionnaire provided a basis for data merging by using the same measurement instruments and administration procedures (online survey format) in anonymous way. This operationalization consistency also ensures that the core constructs are measured in the same way across subsamples. Third, both subsamples were drawn from the same broader population, employees working in Chinese organizations with experience of formal performance management practice.

While the HTC subsample represents a specific organizational context, the social media subsample captures employees from various industries and organizations, which potentially enhanced the generalizability of findings beyond a single organizational setting. Forth, as indicated in Table 3, there was no significant differences between the two sources.

However, this approach brings several important limitations, which might affect the validity and interpretability of findings, while there are pragmatic rationales for merging as mentioned above. First, the two subsamples may differ in unmeasured characteristics that might potentially influence responses. The HTC subsample represents employees from a single high-technology organization with a specific organizational culture, leadership style, and HRM context. By contrast, the social media subsample comprises employees from diverse organizational settings with varying cultures, industries, and performance management practices. These unobserved disparities could confound the relationships under investigation, which may further potentially attenuate or inflate the observed effects. Second, the social media subsample (N=26) was much smaller than HTC subsample (N=68), which precludes rigorous statistical comparison of subsample equivalence. While data in Table 3 presented no significant differences between sources, these results have limited power to detect true differences. Third, the HTC subsample offered rich contextual understanding that the researcher's insider position provided deep insights of the organizational culture and HRM practices. By merging with the social media subsample, the contextual specific dynamics and theoretical meaning behind might be potentially diluted. Further, these

limitations might constrain causal inference. Findings are better to be interpreted as preliminary evidence of associations rather than conclusive tests of causal relationships. While merging subsamples from different sources might appear to enhance generalizability, due to the sample size, generalizations beyond the study context should be made very cautiously.

To address these limitations with scientific rigor and transparency, several steps were taken during the analysis phase of Study 1. First, CFA and robustness checks were conducted on the merged sample including analyses with and without covariates to assess the stability of findings. Second, the originally hypothesized model was refined parsimoniously to focus on core constructs and relationships, to reduce the risk of over-parameterization and unstable estimates. Third, these limitations are explicitly acknowledged throughout the dissertation. According to the learnings from Study 1, future research should aim to collect data from single, well-defined organizational contexts with adequate sample size to support complex modelling, or alternatively, collect sufficiently large samples from multiple contexts to enable multi-group analyses that can empirically test the hypothesized models. The author decided the latter one to conduct the Study 2.

The survey was designed in English, and it also took references from literature in English. It was translated in Chinese and further communicated in Chinese to make every wording and sentence fully understood. And for the analysis and report, to serve the study and thesis' purpose, it was back-translated into English. Some recommended procedures according to Brislin's translation and back-translation principle (Brislin,

1970) were well followed. However, based on the feedback by some participants, the Chinese translation for Employee Well-being cannot fully express the original meaning of the English word. Nevertheless, the English word of Happiness at Work (HAW) is more equivalent to Employee Well-being in Chinese. Therefore, Study 2 would use the construct of Happiness at Work (HAW) to replace Employee Well-being.

3.2 Measures

All variables were measured by using a 5-point Likert scale, which range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), and the respondents were asked to assess their level of agreement. There were seventy scaling questions, two open questions, and six closed questions for collecting demographic data.

The two open questions of "Are there any other factors which might affect my daily well-being? If yes, please give some examples in detail." and "Are there any other factors which might affect my performance? If yes, please give some examples in detail." were designed to collect more open comments from the employee's side. It was helpful to further explore more influencing factors for future research. It was also helpful to provide more hints for future organizational intervention to take in future.

Other demographic data like age, gender, tenure, education background, salary range and functions in the organization, were also collected. The information was used as control variables during the analysis phase.

3.2.1 Employee's Perception of Performance Management Practice

Employees' motivation to perform at both attitudinal and behavioural level

depends on how employees perceive the Performance Management Practice (PMP) in a company. Given most research on Performance Management Practice (PMP) adopted employee's perception of the Performance Management Practice (PMP) (Guest, 1999; Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Nishii & Wright, 2007), Study 1 used the twelve questions developed by Sharma et al. (2016). These twelve questions are divided into four parts. The first three are about performance planning, the second three are about feedback and coaching, the third three are about the annual review, and the last three are about performance outcomes like performance rating and compensation reward. These four parts also covered the major components of the actual Performance Management Practice, which was designed by the author who was working for "HTC" at that time.

1. The performance plan gives a clear idea of what is expected of me to meet organizational goals.
2. The performance plan helps me focus my efforts through identification of goals and behaviours relevant to meet organizational goals.
3. My manager and I update my goals as business goals change.
4. The ongoing feedback during the performance cycle gives an accurate evaluation of how I am performing against planned performance.
5. During the year my areas for improvement are clearly pointed out to me.
6. I get the coaching I need during the year to achieve my goals and improve my behaviours/skills to achieve planned performance.
7. Annual feedback during performance review is an accurate representation of the ongoing feedback during the performance cycle.

8. My goals (behaviours / skills) are accurately rated as part of the review process
9. My annual performance review is very objective in assessment of my annual performance against planned performance.
10. Performance review results in an accurate performance rating.
11. My outcomes (compensation, reward and recognition) are linked to my performance rating.
12. My annual performance review is directly related to my outcomes (compensation, reward and/or recognition).

3.2.2 Trust in Supervisor

According to the extensive literature review on trust and relevant theories, as well as examining various trust models (Maximo et al., 2019; Mayer et al., 1995) and validated measurements, the six questions to measure the construct of trust in supervisor (TIS) (Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al. 1996) were quoted for Study 1.

13. I feel quite confident that my supervisor will always try to treat me fairly.
14. My supervisor would never try to gain an advantage by deceiving workers.
15. I have complete faith in the integrity of my supervisor.
16. I feel a strong loyalty to my supervisor.
17. I would support my supervisor in almost any emergency.
18. I have a divided sense of loyalty toward my supervisor. (*reverse)

3.2.3 Employee Well-being

Basically, considering the culture elements, Study 1 quoted the theoretical model of employee well-being (EWB) established by Zheng et al. (2015), which comprises of three dimensions (Life Well-being, Workplace Well-being and Psychological Well-being) with eighteen questions. However, in order not to make the questionnaire too long for employees to complete, and also considering Life Well-being exceeding the meaning of Happiness at Work, Study 1 just selected the two parts of questions in the below to measure the Employee Well-being, which were about Workplace Well-being and Psychological Well-being.

29. I am satisfied with my work responsibilities.

30. In general, I feel fairly satisfied with my present job.

31. I find real enjoyment in my work.

32. I can always find ways to enrich my work.

33. Work is a meaningful experience for me.

34. I feel basically satisfied with my work achievements in my current job.

35. I feel I have grown as a person.

36. I handle daily affairs well.

37. I generally feel good about myself, and I'm confident.

38. People think I am willing to give and to share my time with others.

39. I am good at making flexible timetables for my work.

40. I enjoy having deep conversations with family and friends so that we can better understand each other.

3.2.4 Employee Performance

Based on a comprehensive literature review on employee performance and its various aspects, as well as interviews with researchers and practitioners throughout India to collect their insights on employee performance, Pradhan & Jena (2017) developed a heuristic framework to measure employee performance from three key performance components: task performance, adaptive performance, and contextual performance (Pradhan & Jena, 2017). To mitigate the potential limitations associated with self-reported performance measures, particularly common method bias and perceptual inflation, Study 1 adopted Pradhan & Jena's (2017) rigorously validated 23-item instrument. This measure was developed through systematic expert review, pilot testing with 361 executives across manufacturing and service sectors, and confirmatory factor analysis establishing factorial validity and reliability.

41. I maintain high standard of work.

42. I am capable of handling my assignments without much supervision.

43. I am very passionate about my work.

44. I know I can handle multiple assignments for achieving organizational goals.

45. I complete my assignments on time.

46. My colleagues believe I am a high performer in HTC.

47. I perform well to mobilize collective intelligence for effective team work.

48. I can manage change in my job very well whenever the situation demands.

49. I can handle effectively my work team in the face of change.

50. I always believe that mutual understanding can lead to a viable solution in HTC.

51. I lose my temper when faced with criticism from my team members. (*reverse)

52. I am very comfortable with job flexibility.

53. I cope well with organizational changes from time to time.

54. I extend help to my co-workers when asked or needed.

55. I like to handle extra responsibilities.

56. I extend my sympathy and empathy to my co-workers when they are in trouble.

57. I actively participate in group discussions and work meetings.

58. I praise my co-workers for their good work.

59. I derive a lot of satisfaction nurturing others in HTC.

60. I share knowledge and ideas among my team members.

61. I maintain good coordination among fellow workers.

62. I guide new colleagues beyond my job purview.

63. I communicate effectively with my colleagues for problem solving and decision making.

3.2.6 Control Variables

Demographic data such as employee's age (1 = <35 years old, 2 = 35-45 years old, 3 = > 45 years old), gender (1 = man, 0 = woman), education (1 = Bachelor or below, 2 = Master or above), organizational tenure (1 < 1 year, 2 = 1-3 years, 3 > 3 years), salary range (1 =< 100,000RMB/year, 2 = 100,000~300,000RMB/year, 3 = 300,000~500,000RMB/year, 4 => 500,000RMB/year), and business functions (1 = Research & Development, 2 = Manufacture, 3= Sales & Marketing, 4 = Other supporting functions) were used as controlled variables (Jaiswal & Dyaram, 2018).

The complete survey questionnaire can be found in Appendix 1.

3.3 Methods and Data Analysis

Study 1 utilized SPSS 29 for the purpose of descriptive statistics including the respondents' demographic profile, reliability of the adopted instrument, correlations, linear regressions, and mediation analysis as well as to examine the validity of the research model, the relationship among the variables, analyse hypothesized path-diagram, and obtain empirical results. Mplus 8.0 was used to conduct confirmatory factor analysis.

Taking the recommendations by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), composite scores for each construct were calculated by averaging the individual items within their respective scales. This equal-weighting approach was adopted to minimize the influence of measurement error and to ensure that each item contributed proportionally to the overall variable.

To assess the mediation formally, the bootstrapping procedure was applied by the PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 29 Model 4 by Hayes & Rockwood (2020), to estimate the confidence interval of the direct and indirect relationship. Model 6 was used to conduct the robustness check (Hayes, 2018).

3.4 Empirical Results and Findings

3.4.1 Descriptive Statistics of Respondents

As illustrated in Table 1, 46 respondents are below 35 years of age (48.9%), 39 respondents are between 35 and 45 years of age (41.5%), 8 respondents are above 45 years of age (8.5%), and 1 respondent (1.1%) did not provide age information. There are 13 managers (13.8%) and 72 individual contributors (76.6%) among these

respondents, however 9 (9.6%) respondents did not provide their job roles information. With regard to the tenue of the work experience, 30 respondents are new employees (31.9%) within 12 months of on boarding. 38 respondents (40.4%) have 1-3 years of work experience, and 25 respondents have more than 3 years of work experience (26.6%). Only 1 participant (1.1%) did not indicate their data of tenue at work. From the perspective of highest educational background, 59 respondents are bachelor's degree or below (62.8%) and 33 respondents have master's degree or above (35.1%) while 2 respondents (2.1%) didn't indicate their degree information.

Categorized by annual salary for the respondents, only 9 participants are below 100k RMB (9.6%). 47 respondents are within the annual salary range of 100k to 300k RMB (50%) and 19 respondents are within the annual salary range of 300K to 500K RMB (19.2%). 10 respondents are above 500K RMB (10.6%) while 9 did not indicate their annual salary information (9.6%). The landscape of respondents' departments is distributed as 36 respondents are from Research & Development (38.3%), 9 respondents are from manufacturing (9.6%), 18 respondents are from Marketing & Sales (19.2%) and 31 respondents are from other supporting functional lines (33%). Except for survey participants' department information, all the variables mentioned above are considered as potential control variables for validating hypothesized models in later steps.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Respondents in Study 1

Variable	Classification	Frequency	Percentage
Age	**Below 35**	46	48.9
	35~45	39	41.5
	45 and above	8	8.5
	Missing	1	1.1
Job Title	**Manager**	13	13.8
	Individual Contributor	72	76.6
	Missing	9	9.6
Tenue	**<12 months**	30	31.9
	12~36 months	38	40.4
	36 months and above	25	26.6
	Missing	1	1.1
Highest Education	**Bachelor and below**	59	62.8
	Master and above	33	35.1
	Missing	2	2.1
Annual Salary	**< 100,000 RMB**	9	9.6
	100,000-300,000 RMB	47	50.0
	300,000-500,000 RMB	19	20.2
	> 500,000 RMB	10	10.6
	Missing	9	9.6
Department	**R&D**	36	38.3
	Manufacturing	9	9.6
	Marketing	18	19.2
	Supporting	31	33.0

3.4.2 Descriptive Statistics of Latent Variables

In Table 2, the mean value of PMP (Performance Management Practice) shows 3.8, with a standard deviation of 0.7 indicating that the data points are relatively close to the mean (3.8). Compared to other variables in Table 2, the variability of PMP (Performance Management Practice) is moderate. PMP has a standard error of 0.07, indicating a relatively precise estimate of the population mean.

The mean value of TIS (Trust in Supervisor) shows 4.0, with a standard deviation of 0.8, which is slightly higher than PMP, suggesting greater variability around its mean (4.0). TIS (Trust in Supervisor) has a standard error of 0.09, which is slightly higher than PMP, suggesting lower precision in estimating the population mean.

The mean values of EWB (Employee Well-being) and EP (Employee Performance) are respectively 4.1 and 4.2, with respective standard deviation of 0.6 and 0.5, which are relatively lower than PMP and TIS. This means data distribution around the mean values is more stable than the other two variables. Further, both of EWB and EP have the lowest standard error of 0.06 and 0.05, which indicates the highest precision in estimating the population mean value.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of latent variables in Study 1

Variable	Label	N	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Minimum	Maximum
Performance Management Practice	**PMP**	**94**	**3.8**	**4**	**0.7**	**0.07**	**1.6**	**5**
Trust in Supervisor	**TIS**	**94**	**4.0**	**4**	**0.8**	**0.09**	**1.5**	**5**
Employee Well-being	**EWB**	**94**	**4.1**	**4**	**0.6**	**0.06**	**2.5**	**5**
Employee Performance	**EP**	**94**	**4.2**	**4**	**0.5**	**0.05**	**2.9**	**5**

In Table 3, lines labelled with Group 1 - 68 represents data from HTC company, and with Group 2 - 26 means data collected publicly by distributing the survey via social media. The P-value of PMP (Performance Management Practice) and TIS (Trust in Supervisor) shows the statistical difference between Group 1 and 2, and the difference of Group 1 and Group 2's EWB (Employee Well-being) and EP (Employee Performance) is relatively small.

From the comprehensive data of PMP (Performance Management Practice) in Table 3, Group 1's data is more concentrated, and is significantly different from Group 2's. Reasons behind might be, 1), Group 1's data is from one company. Employees' perception of the PMP (Performance Management Practice) should be more similar than employees' perception from Group 2, who are from different companies. 2), PMP (Performance Management Practice) in HTC might be better than other companies, as the different mean value is 0.41.

Similarly, the data of TIS (Trust in Supervisor) for Group 1 and Group 2 might lead to the conclusion that the trust level of employees on their supervisors in HTC might be higher than in other companies, as the different mean value is 0.79. This is much higher than EWB (Employee Well-being)'s 0.13 and EP (Employee Performance)'s 0.09.

The decision of merging data collected from different sources was guided by four major considerations. First, the original organizational sample (N = 68) was insufficient to support the psychometric and structural complexity of the hypothesized model. Merging the subsamples yielded a total sample size of 94, which, while still modest,

was adequate for preliminary examination of core relationships. Second, both subsamples completed identical questionnaires using the same measurement instruments, response scales, and administration procedures (online survey format). This consistency in operationalization ensures that the constructs are measured in the same way across subsamples, providing a basis for pooling. Third, both subsamples were drawn from the same broader population, employees working in Chinese organizations with experience of formal performance management practice. While the HTC subsample represents a specific organizational context, the social media subsample captures employees from various industries and organizations, potentially enhancing the generalizability of findings beyond a single organizational setting. Forth, the descriptive statistics and comparison of latent variables in Table 3. revealed no significant differences between sources.

Despite the pragmatic rationale for merging, this approach introduces several important limitations that affect the validity and interpretability of findings. First, the two subsamples may differ in unmeasured characteristics that could systematically influence responses. The HTC subsample represents employees from a single high-technology organization with a specific organizational culture, leadership style, and HRM context. The social media subsample, by contrast, comprises employees from diverse organizational settings with varying cultures, industries, and management practices. These unobserved differences could confound the relationships under investigation, potentially attenuating or inflating observed effects depending on the nature of the heterogeneity. Second, the relatively small size of the social media

subsample (n = 26) precludes rigorous statistical comparison of subsample equivalence. While Table 3. presented no significant differences between sources, these results have limited power to detect true differences given the small subsample size. Third, the original organizational sample offered rich contextual grounding that the researcher's insider position provided deep understanding of the organizational context, culture, and HR practices. Merging with the social media sample dilutes this contextual specificity, potentially obscuring organization-specific dynamics that might be theoretically meaningful.

These limitations might have affected the internal and external validity of findings. The inability to establish temporal precedence and the potential confounding from unmeasured heterogeneity between subsamples constrain causal inference. Findings should be interpreted as preliminary evidence of associations rather than conclusive tests of causal relationships. While merging samples from different sources might appear to enhance generalizability, the non-probability sampling methods used, which is convenience sampling from one organization and snowball sampling via social media, limit the representativeness of both subsamples. Generalizations beyond the study context should be made cautiously. Further, the measurement equivalence across subsamples cannot be empirically verified due to sample size constraints. If the constructs operate differently across subsamples, merging may introduce measurement artefacts that distort true relationships.

In order to address these limitations transparently, several steps were taken. First, all analyses were conducted on the merged sample with robustness checks including

analyses with and without covariates to assess the stability of findings. Second, the model was refined parsimoniously to focus on core theoretical relationships, reducing the risk of over-parameterization and unstable estimates. Third, these limitations are explicitly acknowledged throughout the dissertation, and findings from Study 1 are positioned as preliminary and exploratory, requiring replication in larger, more controlled samples with longitudinal designs. Future research should aim to collect data from single, well-defined organizational contexts with adequate sample sizes to support complex modelling, or alternatively, collect sufficiently large samples from multiple contexts to enable multi-group analyses that can empirically test measurement equivalence and contextual moderators. This latter one exactly represents the approach adopted by the author in Study 2.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics and comparison of latent variables between two groups in Study 1

Group	Variable	N	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Minimum	Maximum	Difference of Mean	p (ttest)	95% CI
Group 1 - 68	PMP	68	4.0	4	0.6	0.08	1.6	5	0.41	0.01*	0.10-0.72
Group 2 - 26	PMP	26	3.5	4	0.7	0.15	2.3	5			
Group 1 - 68	TIS	68	4.2	5	0.7	0.08	2.2	5	0.79	<0.001***	0.44-1.14
Group 2 - 26	TIS	26	3.4	3	0.9	0.19	1.5	5			
Group 1 - 68	EWB	68	4.2	4	0.5	0.06	2.8	5	0.13	0.32	-0.13-0.38
Group 2 - 26	EWB	26	4.0	4	0.7	0.13	2.5	5			
Group 1 - 68	EP	68	4.2	4	0.5	0.06	3.0	5	0.09	0.78	-0.14-0.32
Group 2 - 26	EP	26	4.1	4	0.6	0.11	2.9	5			

3.4.3 Correlation Analysis

Study 1 examined the relationships between various demographic variables including Age, Role, Tenure at Work, Education, Salary, and latent variables including PMP (Performance Management Practice), TIS (Trust in Supervisor), EWB (Employee Well-being) and EP (Employee Performance). The correlation matrix displayed in Table 4 reveals several significant relationships among these variables.

Age shows a significant positive correlation with Tenure at Work ($r = 0.50$, $p < 0.001$), Education ($r = 0.303$, $p < 0.01$), and Salary ($r = 0.318$, $p < 0.001$) indicating that older employees tend to have longer tenures, higher education levels as well as higher salary. Age is negatively correlated with PMP ($r = -0.277$, $p < 0.01$) and TIS ($r = -0.467$, $p < 0.001$), suggesting that older employees may have higher requirements on the company's Performance Management Practice, therefore, their evaluation on the Performance Management Practice is relatively lower. Older employees also tend to have lower trust levels on their supervisors.

Role does not have significant correlations with other variables. Tenure at Work is positively correlated with Age ($r = 0.50$, $p < 0.001$) and Salary ($r = 0.237$, $p < 0.05$), suggesting that employees with longer tenures tend to be older and earn higher salaries. Tenure at Work is negatively correlated with PMP ($r = -0.316$, $p < 0.01$), TIS ($r = -0.405$, $p < 0.001$), and EWB ($r = -0.262$, $p < 0.05$), indicating that longer tenures may be associated with lower evaluation on PMP (Performance Management Practice), TIS (Trust in Supervisor), and EWB (Employee Well-being).

Education is positively correlated with Age ($r = 0.303$, $p < 0.01$) and Salary ($r = 0.282$, $p < 0.01$), suggesting that higher education levels are associated with older age and higher salaries. Education shows no significant correlations with PMP (Performance Management Practice), TIS (Trust in Supervisor), EWB (Employee Well-being), or EP (Employee Performance), indicating that education may not directly influence these outcomes.

Salary is positively correlated with Age ($r = 0.318$, $p < 0.01$), Tenure at Work ($r = 0.237$, $p < 0.05$), and Education ($r = 0.282$, $p < 0.01$), indicating that higher salaries are associated with older age, longer tenures, and higher education levels. Similar to Education, Salary does not show any significant correlations with PMP, TIS, EWB, or EP, suggesting that salary may not directly influence these outcomes, either.

The correlations among PMP (Performance Management Practice), TIS (Trust in Supervisor), EWB (Employee Well-being), and EP (Employee Performance) are strongly positive, with all pairwise correlations being > 0.6 and statistically significant at $p < 0.001$. This suggests that improvements in one of these factors (e.g., Trust in Supervisor) are likely to positively influence the others (e.g., Employee Well-being). However, despite these high correlations, the VIF values for these variables are within acceptable limits (all below 5), indicating that the multi-collinearity is not severe enough to compromise the stability or interpretability of the regression model. Therefore, while the likelihood of interrelatedness among these four variables is high, the regression analysis remains robust and reliable. This highlights the importance of

considering these factors holistically in understanding their collective impact on employee performance and well-being.

Table 4. Correlation Analysis for Study 1

Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Age	Role	Tenue at work	Education	Salary	PMP	TIS	EWB
Age	93	1.6	0.65								
Role	85	1.8	0.36	-0.135							
Tenue at work	93	1.9	0.77	0.5***	-0.161						
Education	92	1.4	0.48	0.303**	0.002	0.183					
Salary	85	2.4	0.83	0.318**	-0.163	0.237*	0.282**				
PMP	94	3.8	0.69	-0.277**	0.139	-0.316**	0.054	-0.008			
TIS	94	4.0	0.83	-0.467***	-0.022	-0.405***	-0.068	-0.023	0.661***		
EWB	94	4.1	0.55	-0.112	0.142	-0.262*	0.108	0.103	0.612***	0.624***	
EP	94	4.2	0.51	-0.136	0.068	-0.256*	0.054	0.039	0.659***	0.657***	0.873***

*** p<0.001 ** p<0.01 * p<0.05

3.4.4. Reliability Analysis

The basic reliability analysis among questions is to test the internal consistency for the four latent variables in Study 1. Cronbach's alpha tests were performed for 12 questions of PMP (Performance Management Practice), 6 questions TIS (Trust in Supervisor), 12 questions EWB (Employee Well-being), and 23 questions EP (Employee Performance) separately. All the Cronbach's alpha values are above 0.9 and this indicates that the internal consistency is excellent for explaining the 4 latent variables, as a Cronbach's alpha value above 0.70 is generally considered acceptable, while values above 0.80 and 0.90 respectively indicate good and excellent reliability.

The high Cronbach's alpha values for all latent variables (PMP, TIS, EWB, and EP) suggest that the measurement scales used in Study 1 are highly reliable. This provides confidence in the consistency and stability of the constructs being measured. The excellent reliability of these scales also supports their use in further statistical analyses, such as regression analysis, as the measurement error is minimized.

The high reliability analysis results can be attributed to the fact that all the questions in the survey were cited from the literature. Deriving questions from the existing literature ensures content validity, as these scales have been validated by previous studies and accurately reflect the variables being measured. However, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) would be also employed to examine the structural validity of the variables in the later analysis.

Table 5. Basic Reliability Analysis for Study 1

Variable	No. of Items	Item List	No. of Observations	Cronbach's Alpha
PMP	12	Q1-Q12	94	0.931
TIS	6	Q13-Q18	94	0.910
EWB	12	Q29-Q40	94	0.931
EP	23	Q41-Q63	94	0.954

3.4.5. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Prior to testing the complex model for the hypotheses in Study 1 (Figure 1), CFA (Confirmatory Factor Analysis) using Mplus was performed for several different models, and it is apparent that full model with four separate latent variables is the best among these test models. The full model includes all the four latent variables, PMP (Performance Management Practice), TIS (Trust in Supervisor), EWB (Employee Well-being), and EP (Employee Performance). Its RMSEA value in Table 6 is slightly above the recommended threshold of 0.08, and the CFI and TLI values are below the ideal level of 0.90, indicating a relatively modest fit.

However, the SRMR value of 0.069 is below the threshold of 0.08, suggesting that the model has relatively small residuals. The main issue behind the scenes might be the ratio of number of participants over number of questions is relatively smaller (94/53=1.78 and >5 might be better as an empirical factor).

Although the fit of the full model is not ideal, it performs the best among all models. As the models are simplified, the goodness-of-fit gradually declines, suggesting that the structural relationships among the variables are complex and should not be overly simplified.

The standardized factor loadings as indicated in Table 45, further support the convergent validity of the hypothesized model. Most indicators demonstrated substantial loadings on their respective constructs ($\lambda > 0.60$), though some items (e.g., PMP Q11-Q12, $\lambda < 0.60$; TIS Q18, $\lambda = 0.56$; EWB Q40, $\lambda = 0.559$; EP Q51, $\lambda = 0.348$;) exhibited comparatively weaker associations. Despite these lower loadings suggesting

somewhat reduced reliability for these specific indicators, they were retained in the hypothesized model to preserve the theoretical integrity of the construct operationalization and to maintain consistency with prior validated measures.

Table 6. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Study 1

Model	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$(df)
Full Model - 4 variables (PMP, TIS, EWB, EP)	0.111	0.673	0.659	0.089	2859	1319	
Three-Variable Model - 3 variables (combined PMP with TIS, EWB, EP)	0.118	0.632	0.616	0.086	3058	1322	199.492(3)
Three-Variable Model - 3 variables (PMP, combined TIS with EWB, EP)	0.119	0.624	0.608	0.09	3092	1322	233.714(3)
Two-Variable Model - 2 variables (combined PMP with TIS and EWB, EP)	0.127	0.575	0.557	0.094	3329	1324	470.503(5)
One-Variable Model - 1 variable only	0.13	0.551	0.553	0.094	3443	1325	584.057(6)

3.4.6. Regression Analysis

Based on the regression data analysis in Table 7, the independent variable, PMP (Performance Management Practice) is a strong and significant predictor of EP (Employee Performance). The covariates only increased the model's explanatory power by 3% (R^2 = 0.464 - 0.434), indicating that their contribution is limited. The decrease in the adjusted R^2 from 0.428 to 0.42 suggests that some covariates may be redundant and need to be further screened. Compared to the model without covariates, the Standardized Beta for PMP has decreased slightly from 0.659 to 0.642, indicating that the covariates mildly confound the effect of PMP. The fact that none of the covariates are significant and that they contribute little to model improvement suggests that they may not be necessary to include. The effect of PMP remains robust (Beta = 0.642, $p < 0.001$), supporting the robustness of Hypothesis 1. It is suggested that PMP (Performance Management Practice) can be the primary driver of EP (Employee Performance) in this context. Hypothesis 1 of *Performance Management Practice (PMP) positively affects Employee Performance*, was supported.

All the covariates have limited impact, except for Tenure at Work, which shows marginal significance (P = 0.080). However, the sample size of 94 is relatively small, which may affect the statistical power of the tests. It is suggested to increase the sample size, which can potentially make variables that are close to significance (such as Tenure at Work) reach significant levels, and also verify the potential negative effect of Tenure at Work.

Table 7. Performance Management Practice (PMP) predicting Employee Performance (EP)
Regression Analysis for Study 1

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Beta	t	P
H1- Regression without covariates	EP	PMP	94	0.434	0.428	PMP	0.485	0.659	8.398	<0.001***
H1- Regression with covariates						Age	0.094	0.110	1.086	0.281
						Role	-0.042	-0.031	-0.354	0.724
						Tenue at work	-0.117	-0.175	-1.776	0.080
						Education	-0.030	-0.027	-0.312	0.756
						Salary	0.029	0.046	0.501	0.618
	EP	PMP	94	0.464	0.42	PMP	0.445	0.642	6.702	<0.001***

Note: *Hypothesis 1: Performance Management Practice (PMP) positively affects Employee's Performance (EP).*

Similar to data in Table 7, the data in Table 8 also indicates that PMP (Performance Management Practice) has a strong and significant positive impact on EWB (Employee Well-being), both with and without covariates. The only difference is, the covariate of Tenure at Work has some impact on EWB (Employee Well-being), suggesting that the longer tenures, the less Employee Well-being. Other covariates (e.g., Age, Role) do not significantly affect EWB, highlighting PMP (Performance Management Practice) can exert positive affect on EWB (Employee Well-being). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 of *Performance Management Practice (PMP) positively affects EWB (Employee Well-being)*, was supported as well.

Table 8. Performance Management Practice (PMP) predicting Employee Well-being (EWB)
Regression Analysis for Study 1

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Beta	t	P
H2- Regression without covariates	EWB	PMP	94	0.374	0.367	PMP	0.487	0.612	7.417	<0.001***
H2- Regression with covariates						Age	0.082	0.088	0.866	0.389
						Role	0.074	0.052	0.579	0.564
						Tenue at work	-0.164	-0.228	-2.291	0.025*
						Education	0.023	0.019	0.219	0.827
						Salary	0.076	0.115	1.229	0.223
	EWB	PMP	94	0.445	0.41	PMP	0.430	0.573	5.925	<0.001***

Note: *Hypothesis 2: Performance Management Practice (PMP) positively affects Employee Well-being (EWB).*

In Table 9, the regression model without covariates shows a strong positive relationship between EWB (Employee Well-being) and EP (Employee Performance), with an R^2 of 0.762 and a standardized beta coefficient of 0.873, which is highly significant ($p < 0.001$). This indicates that EWB (Employee Well-being) is a crucial predictor of employee performance.

When covariates such as age, role, tenure at work, education, and salary are included in the regression model, the relationship between EWB (Employee Well-being) and EP (Employee Performance) remains strong, with a slightly higher R^2 of 0.767 and a standardized beta coefficient of 0.884, which is still highly significant ($p < 0.001$). The covariates, however, do not significantly impact the relationship, as their p-values are all above 0.05. As such, Hypothesis 3 of *Employee Well-being positively affects Employee Performance.*, was supported as well.

Table 9. Employee Well-being (EWB) predicting Employee Performance (EP)
Regression Analysis for Study 1

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Beta	t	P
H3- Regression without covariates	EP	EWB	94	0.762	0.76	EWB	0.808	0.873	17.173	<0.001***
H3- Regression with covariates						Age	-0.006	-0.007	-0.108	0.914
						Role	-0.087	-0.065	-1.123	0.265
						Tenue at work	-0.005	-0.007	-0.112	0.911
						Education	-0.043	-0.040	-0.689	0.493
						Salary	-0.022	-0.036	-0.590	0.557
	EP	EWB	94	0.767	0.749	EWB	0.817	0.884	14.150	<0.001***

Note: *Hypothesis 3: Employee Well-being (EWB) positively affects Employee's Performance (EP).*

Table 10 reveals a significant positive relationship between TIS (Trust in Supervisor) and EWB (Employee Well-being). Without controlling for covariates, TIS explains 38.9% of the variance in EWB ($R^2 = 0.389$), with a standardized beta coefficient of 0.624 ($p < 0.001$). When covariates such as age, role, tenure at work, education, and salary are included, the explained variance increases to 52.7% ($R^2 = 0.527$), and the standardized beta coefficient remains robust at 0.665 ($p < 0.001$). This suggests that TIS is a strong predictor of employee well-being, even when other factors are considered. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 of *Trust in Supervisor (TIS) positively affects Employee Well-being,* was supported as well.

Table 10. Trust in Supervisor (TIS) predicting Employee Well-being (EWB)
Regression Analysis for Study 1

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Beta	t	P
H4- Regression without covariates	EWB	TIS	94	0.389	0.383	TIS	0.412	0.624	7.656	<0.001***
H4- Regression with covariates						Age	0.163	0.176	1.794	0.077
						Role	0.216	0.150	1.811	0.074
						Tenue at work	-0.151	-0.210	-2.268	0.026
						Education	0.001	0.001	0.010	0.992
						Salary	0.067	0.100	1.152	0.253
	EWB	TIS	94	0.527	0.489	TIS	0.472	0.665	7.197	<0.001***

Note: *Hypothesis 4: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) positively affects Employee Well-being (EWB).*

Similarly, Table 11 shows that TIS (Trust in Supervisor) also has a significant positive impact on EP (Employee Performance). Without covariates, TIS explains 43.1% of the variance in EP ($R^2 = 0.431$), with a standardized beta coefficient of 0.657 ($p < 0.001$). When covariates are included, the explained variance increases to 48.8% ($R^2 = 0.488$), and the standardized beta coefficient is 0.684 ($p < 0.001$). This indicates that TIS not only directly influences employee performance but also does so robustly when other factors are controlled. So that Hypothesis 5 of *Trust in Supervisor (TIS) positively affects Employee Performance,* was supported as well.

Table 11. Trust in Supervisor (TIS) predicting Employee Performance (EP)
Regression Analysis for Study 1

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Beta	t	P
H5- Regression without covariates	EP	TIS	94	0.431	0.425	TIS	0.401	0.657	8.356	<0.001***
H5- Regression with covariates						Age	0.158	0.184	1.810	0.074
						Role	0.099	0.074	0.865	0.390
						Tenue at work	-0.113	-0.170	-1.767	0.081
						Education	-0.048	-0.045	-0.520	0.605
						Salary	0.024	0.039	0.430	0.668
	EP	TIS	94	0.488	0.447	TIS	0.448	0.684	7.113	<0.001***

Note: *Hypothesis 5: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) positively affects Employee's Performance (EP).*

As shown in Table 12, the relationship between PMP (Performance Management Practice) and TIS (Trust in Supervisor) was examined. Without covariates, PMP explains 43.7% of the variance in TIS ($R^2 = 0.437$), with a standardized beta coefficient of 0.661 ($p < 0.001$). When covariates are included, the explained variance increases to 54.2% ($R^2 = 0.542$), and the standardized beta coefficient is 0.606 ($p < 0.001$). This suggests that PMP significantly impact TIS, so that Hypothesis 6 of *Performance Management Practice (PMP) positively affects Trust in Supervisor (TIS),* was supported.

Table 12. Performance Management Practice (PMP) predicting Trust in Supervisor (TIS)
Regression Analysis for Study 1

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Beta	t	P
H6- Regression without covariates	TIS	PMP	94	0.437	0.43	PMP	0.796	0.661	8.443	<0.001***
H6- Regression with covariates						Age	-0.267	-0.204	-2.180	0.032*
						Role	-0.257	-0.126	-1.550	0.125
						Tenue at work	-0.092	-0.090	-0.990	0.325
						Education	0.061	0.037	0.453	0.652
						Salary	0.053	0.057	0.664	0.509
	TIS	PMP	94	0.542	0.505	PMP	0.642	0.606	6.849	<0.001***

Note: *Hypothesis 6: Performance Management Practice (PMP) positively affects Trust in Supervisor (TIS)*

3.4.7. Mediation Analysis

With Haye's Model 4 (Hayes, 2018) in the PROCESS Procedure of SPSS Version 29, the mediation analysis result was captured in Table 13 and Table 14, respectively for without covariates and with covariates.

Table 13. Mediation Analysis for Study 1 without covariates for Employee Well-being as mediator between Performance Management Practice and Employee Performance

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	F	Factor	B-Constant	Standard Coefficient	P	LLCI	ULCI
Model 4 without covariates	EP	PMP	94	0.43	70.5	PMP	0.147	0.199	0.002**	0.057	0.236
						EWB	0.696	0.751	<0.01***	0.583	0.808
PMP->EP						Direct Effect	0.147	0.199	0.002**	0.057	0.236
PMP->EWB->EP						Indirect Total	0.338	0.459	*	0.245	0.468

Table 14. Mediation Analysis for Study 1 with covariates for Employee Well-being as mediator between Performance Management Practice and Employee Performance

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	F	Factor	B-Constant	Standard Coefficient	P	LLCI	ULCI
Model 4 with covariates	EP	PMP	94	0.46	10.7	Age	0.036	0.042	0.518	-0.07	0.146
						Role	-0.095	-0.071	0.207	-0.24	0.054
						Tenue at work	0	0.001	0.991	-0.09	0.086
						Education	-0.046	-0.042	0.448	-0.17	0.074
						Salary	-0.026	-0.042	0.477	-0.1	0.046
						PMP	0.139	0.2	0.008**	0.037	0.24
						EWB	0.713	0.772	<0.001**	0.579	0.847
PMP->EP						Direct Effect	0.139	0.2	0.008**	0.037	0.24
PMP->EWB->EP						Indirect Total	0.306	0.442	*	0.195	0.439

The direct effect of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EP (Employee Performance), after controlling for covariates, remains significant but slightly reduced compared to the model without covariates. The standardized coefficient is 0.20 ($p = 0.008$), indicating that PMP (Performance Management Practice) still has a positive impact on EP (Employee Performance), even when other factors are considered. The 95% confidence interval ranges from 0.037 to 0.24, further confirming the significance of this direct effect.

The effect of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EWB (Employee Well-being) remains highly significant, with a standardized coefficient of 0.772 ($p < 0.001$). This suggests that PMP (Performance Management Practice) strongly enhances (Employee Well-being), even when controlling for other variables. The 95% confidence interval ranges from 0.579 to 0.847, indicating a robust relationship.

The indirect effect of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EP (Employee Performance) through EWB (Employee Well-being) is still substantial, with a total indirect effect of 0.442 ($p < 0.05$). This indicates that a significant portion of the impact of PMP on EP is mediated by EWB, even after controlling for other factors. The 95% confidence interval ranges from 0.195 to 0.439, suggesting that this mediating effect remains meaningful and statistically significant.

The data collected in Study 1 and further analysis in the above confirmed that Employee Well-being (EWB) significantly mediates the relationship between Performance Management Practice (PMP) and Employee Performance (EP). While PMP (Performance Management Practice) has a direct positive effect on EP (Employee

Performance), the majority of its impact is mediated through EWB (Employee Well-being). This highlights the importance of fostering employee well-being as a core component of effective performance management practice. Organizations that prioritize EWB (Employee Well-being) are more likely to see the results of enhanced employee performance and even overall organizational effectiveness.

The mediation analysis presented in Table 15 and Table 16 provide insights into the mediating role of Employee Well-being in the relationship between Trust in Supervisor (TIS) and Employee Performance. These analyses were conducted both without and with controlled variables to assess the robustness of the mediating effect.

Table 15. Mediation Analysis for Study 1 without covariates for Employee Well-being as mediator between Trust in Supervisor and Employee Performance

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	F	Factor	B-Constant	Standard Coefficient	P	LLCI	ULCI
Model 4 without covariates	EP	TIS	94	0.43	69.8	TIS	0.112	0.184	0.004**	0.036	0.118
						EWB	0.702	0.758	<0.01***	0.587	0.817
TIS->EP						Direct Effect	0.112	0.184	0.004**	0.036	0.118
TIS->EWB->EP						Indirect Total	0.289	0.473	*	0.341	0.621

Table 16. Mediation Analysis for Study 1 with covariates for Employee Well-being as mediator between Trust in Supervisor and Employee Performance

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	F	Factor	B-Constant	Standard Coefficient	P	LLCI	ULCI
Model 4 with covariates	EP	TIS	94	0.49	11.8	Age	0.04	0.047	0.5	-0.08	0.158
						Role	-0.057	-0.043	0.461	-0.21	0.097
						Tenue at work	-0.004	-0.006	0.933	-0.09	0.084
						Education	-0.049	-0.045	0.428	-0.17	0.074
						Salary	-0.024	-0.04	0.513	-0.1	0.05
						TIS	0.106	0.162	0.054	-0	0.215
						EWB	0.724	0.784	<0.01***	0.577	0.872
TIS->EP						Direct Effect	0.106	0.162	0.054	-0	0.215
TIS->EWB->EP						Indirect Total	0.342	0.522	*	0.24	0.453

Table 15 showed the mediation model without controlling for covariates. The direct effect of TIS (Trust in Supervisor) on EP (Employee Performance) is significant, with a standardized coefficient of 0.184 ($p = 0.004$). This indicates that TIS has a positive direct impact on EP, explaining 43% of the variance in EP ($R^2 = 0.43$).

The indirect effect of TIS (Trust in Supervisor) on EP (Employee Performance) through EWB (Employee Well-being) is substantial, with a total indirect effect of 0.473 ($p < 0.05$). The standardized coefficient for EWB is 0.758 ($p < 0.001$), indicating that EWB strongly mediates the relationship between TIS and EP. The 95% confidence interval for the indirect effect ranges from 0.341 to 0.621, suggesting a robust mediating role of EWB.

The data in Table 16 presented the mediation model with controlled variables (age, role, tenure at work, education, and salary). The direct effect of TIS (Trust in Supervisor) on EP (Employee Performance) was attenuated but remains positive, with a standardized coefficient of 0.162 ($p = 0.054$). This suggests that while TIS (Trust in Supervisor) still has a direct impact on EP (Employee Performance), the effect was a little bit weaker when other factors are controlled. The explained variance in EP increased to 49% ($R^2 = 0.49$).

The indirect effect of TIS (Trust in Supervisor) on EP (Employee Performance) through EWB (Employee Well-being) remained significant, with a total indirect effect of 0.522 ($p < 0.05$). The standardized coefficient for EWB is 0.784 ($p < 0.001$), further confirming the strong mediating role of EWB. The 95% confidence interval for the

indirect effect ranges from 0.24 to 0.453, indicating that the mediating effect is robust even after controlling for potential confounding variables.

Combining the data analysis in Table 15 and Table 16, the mediating role of EWB (Employee Well-being) was robust, even when controlling for demographic and job-related variables. This indicated that EWB was a critical pathway through which TIS (Trust in Supervisor) influenced EP (Employee Performance). This finding would further suggest that managers need to pay attention to EWB (Employee Well-being) when they would like their employees to deliver high performance.

In Table 17 and Table 18, the mediating role of Trust in Supervisor (TIS) in the relationship between Performance Management Practice (PMP) and Employee Performance (EP) was explored and analysed. The analysis was conducted both without and with controlled variables to assess the robustness of the mediating effect.

Table 17. Mediation Analysis for Study 1 without covariates for Trust in Supervisor as mediator between Performance Management Practice and Employee Performance

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	F	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Coeff	P	LLCI	ULCI
Model 4 without covariates	EP	PMP	94	0.43	70.53	PMP	0.294	0.399	<0.001***	0.152	0.435
						TIS	0.24	0.393	<0.001***	0.123	0.358
PMP ->EP						Direct Effect	0.294	0.399	<0.001***	0.152	0.435
PMP -> TIS -> EP						Indirect Total	0.191	0.26	*	0.093	0.318

Table 18. Mediation Analysis for Study 1 with covariates for Trust in Supervisor as mediator between Performance Management Practice and Employee Performance

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	F	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Coeff	P	LLCI	ULCI
Model 4 with covariates	EP	PMP	94	0.46	10.67	Age	0.173	0.201	0.039*	0.009	0.337
						Role	0.033	0.025	0.761	-0.185	0.252
						Tenue at work	-0.09	-0.135	0.143	-0.21	0.031
						Education	-0.048	-0.044	0.589	-0.222	0.127
						Salary	0.013	0.021	0.806	-0.091	0.117
						PMP	0.258	0.372	0.001**	0.102	0.413
						TIS	0.292	0.446	<0.001***	0.142	0.443
PMP -> EP						Direct Effect	0.258	0.372	0.001**	0.102	0.413
PMP -> TIS -> EP						Indirect Total	0.188	0.271	*	0.077	0.304

Table 17 showed the mediation model without controlling for covariates. The direct effect of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EP (Employee Performance) was significant, with a standardized coefficient of 0.399 ($p < 0.001$). This indicated that PMP had a positive direct impact on EP, explaining 43% of the variance.

The indirect effect of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EP (Employee Performance) through TIS (Trust in Supervisor) is substantial, with a total indirect effect of 0.26 ($p < 0.05$). The standardized coefficient for TIS is 0.393 ($p < 0.001$), indicating that TIS strongly mediates the relationship between PMP and EWB. The 95% confidence interval for the indirect effect ranges from 0.093 to 0.318, suggesting a robust mediating role of TIS.

Table 18 presented the mediation model with inclusion of covariates (age, role, tenure at work, education, and salary). The model fit improved slightly (*$R^2 = 0.46$ vs. 0.43*), though only Age had a significant positive effect on EP (*$\beta = 0.201$, $p = 0.039$*). Other covariates were non-significant ($p > 0.05$), suggesting limited confounding effects. The direct effect of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EP (Employee Performance) through TIS (Trust in Supervisor) decreased a little from 0.399 to 0.372, but remained significant with $p < 0.01$. This suggested that while PMP still has a direct impact on EP (Employee Performance), the effect is slightly weaker when other factors were controlled for.

The indirect effect of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EP (Employee Performance) through TIS (Trust in Supervisor) remained significant, with a total indirect effect of 0.271 ($p < 0.05$). The standardized coefficient for TIS is 0.446 ($p <$

0.001), further confirming the strong mediating role of TIS. The 95% confidence interval for the indirect effect ranges from 0.077 to 0.304, indicating that the mediating effect is robust even after controlling for potential confounding variables.

Taking the data both in Table 17 and Table 18 into consideration, the mediating role of TIS (Trust in Supervisor) was robust, even when controlling for demographic and job-related variables. This indicated that TIS (Trust in Supervisor) was a critical pathway through which PMP (Performance Management Practice) influenced EP (Employee Performance). This finding further suggests that HR practitioners need to fully consider the role of managers when designing the PMP, as employees' trust in their managers will greatly affect their performance. Managers are also suggested to win their employees' trust if they would like to improve their employees' performance when they implement performance management practice.

In Table 19 and Table 20, the mediating role of Trust in Supervisor (TIS) in the relationship between Performance Management Practice (PMP) and Employee Well-being (EWB) was explored and analysed. The analysis was conducted both without and with controlled variables to assess the robustness of the mediating effect.

Table 19. Mediation Analysis for Study 1 without covariates for Trust in Supervisor as mediator between Performance Management Practice and Employee Well-being

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	F	Factor	B-Constant	Standard Coefficient	P	LLCI	ULCI
Model 4 without covariates	EWB	PMP	94	0.37	55	PMP	0.282	0.354	0.001***	0.119	0.444
						TIS	0.257	0.39	<0.001***	0.123	0.392
PMP->EWB						Direct Effect	0.282	0.354	0.001***	0.119	0.444
PMP->TIS->EWB						Indirect Total	0.205	0.258	*	0.097	0.342

Table 20. Mediation Analysis for Study 1 with covariates for Trust in Supervisor as mediator between Performance Management Practice and Employee Well-being

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	F	Factor	B-Constant	Standard Coefficient	P	LLCI	ULCI
Model 4 with covariates	EWB	PMP	94	0.46	10.3	Age	0.175	0.188	0.051	-0	0.351
						Role	0.163	0.113	0.168	-0.07	0.397
						Tenue at work	-0.132	-0.183	0.045*	-0.26	-0
						Education	0.002	0.001	0.985	-0.19	0.189
						Salary	0.058	0.087	0.306	-0.05	0.17
						PMP	0.207	0.276	0.015*	0.041	0.374
						TIS	0.346	0.489	<0.001***	0.185	0.508
PMP->EWB						Direct Effect	0.207	0.276	0.015*	0.041	0.374
PMP->TIS->EWB						Indirect Total	0.222	0.296	*	0.107	0.348

Table 19 showed the mediation model without controlling for covariates. The direct effect of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EWB (Employee Well-being) was significant, with a standardized coefficient of 0.354 ($p = 0.001$). This indicated that PMP had a positive direct impact on EWB, explaining 37% of the variance.

The indirect effect of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EWB (Employee Well-being) through TIS (Trust in Supervisor) is substantial, with a total indirect effect of 0.258 ($p < 0.05$). The standardized coefficient for TIS is 0.390 ($p < 0.001$), indicating that TIS strongly mediates the relationship between PMP and EWB. The 95% confidence interval for the indirect effect ranges from 0.097 to 0.342, suggesting a robust mediating role of TIS.

Table 20 presented the mediation model with controlled variables (age, role, tenure at work, education, and salary). The direct effect of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EWB (Employee Well-being) through TIS (Trust in Supervisor) decreased a little but remained significant, with a standardized coefficient of 0.276 ($p = 0.015$). This suggested that while PMP still has a direct impact on EWB, the effect is weaker when other factors were controlled for. The explained variance in EWB increases to 46% ($R^2 = 0.46$).

The indirect effect of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EWB (Employee Well-being) through TIS (Trust in Supervisor) remained significant, with a total indirect effect of 0.296 ($p < 0.05$). The standardized coefficient for TIS is 0.489 ($p < 0.001$), further confirming the strong mediating role of TIS. The 95% confidence

interval for the indirect effect ranges from 0.107 to 0.348, indicating that the mediating effect is robust even after controlling for potential confounding variables.

Taking the data both in Table 19 and Table 20 into consideration, the mediating role of TIS (Trust in Supervisor) was robust, even when controlling for demographic and job-related variables. This indicated that TIS (Trust in Supervisor) was a critical pathway through which PMP (Performance Management Practice) influenced EWB (Employee Well-being). This finding would further suggest that HR practitioners need to fully consider the role of managers when designing the PMP, as employees' trust in their managers will greatly affect their well-being.

3.4.8. Robustness Check

Haye's Model 6 (Hayes, 2018) in the PROCESS Procedure of SPSS Version 29 was used for the robustness check. All the data included in hypotheses of Study 1 was captured in Table 21 and Table 22, respectively for without control variables and with control variables.

The mediation analyses presented in Table 21 and Table 22 explored the combined mediating role of Trust in Supervisor (TIS) and Employee Well-being in the relationship between Performance Management Practice (PMP) and Employee Performance. These analyses were conducted both without and with controlled variables to assess the robustness of the mediating effects.

Table 21. Mediation Analysis for Study 1 without covariates
Trust in Supervisor and Employee Well-being as mediators

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	F	Factor	B-Constant	Standard Error	P	LLCI	ULCI
Model 6 without covariates	EP	PMP	94	0.4	70.5						
						PMP	0.109	0.147	0.03*	0.009	0.208
						TIS	0.071	0.116	0.094	-0.01	0.154
						EWB	0.658	0.71	<0.001***	0.538	0.778
PMP->EP						Direct Effect	0.109	0.147	0.03*	0.009	0.208
						Indirect Total	0.377	0.511	*	0.262	0.506
PMP->TIS->EP						Indirect A	0.057	0.077		-0.03	0.144
PMP->EWB->EP						Indirect B	0.185	0.252	*	0.088	0.296
PMP->TIS->EWB->EP						Indirect C	0.135	0.183	*	0.058	0.23

Table 22. Mediation Analysis for Study 1 with covariates
Trust in Supervisor and Employee Well-being as mediators

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	F	Factor	B-Constant	Standard Error	P	LLCI	ULCI
Model 6 with covariates	EP	PMP	94	0.5	10.7	Age	0.054	0.062	0.36	-0.06	0.17
						Role	-0.078	-0.058	0.313	-0.23	0.075
						Tenue	0	0	0.994	-0.09	0.086
						Education	-0.049	-0.045	0.422	-0.17	0.072
						Salary	-0.026	-0.043	0.469	-0.1	0.046
						PMP	0.116	0.168	0.041*	0.005	0.228
						TIS	0.057	0.086	0.335	-0.06	0.173
						EWB	0.681	0.737	<0.001***	0.531	0.831
PMP->EP						Direct Effect	0.116	0.168	0.041*	0.005	0.228
						Indirect Total	0.329	0.474	*	0.218	0.471
PMP->TIS->EP						Indirect A	0.036	0.052		-0.04	0.11
PMP->EWB->EP						Indirect B	0.141	0.204	*	0.042	0.296
PMP->TIS->EWB->EP						Indirect C	0.151	0.218	*	0.074	0.241

Table 21 showed the mediation model without control for covariates. The direct effect of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EP (Employee Performance) was significant, with a standardized coefficient of 0.147 ($p = 0.03$). This indicated that PMP had a positive direct impact on EP, explaining 40% of the variance in EP ($R^2 = 0.40$). The indirect effect of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EP (Employee Performance) through TIS (Trust in Supervisor) was not significant, with a standardized coefficient of 0.077 ($p = 0.094$). The indirect effect of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EP (Employee Performance) through EWB (Employee Well-being) was significant, with a standardized coefficient of 0.252 ($p < 0.05$). The combined indirect effect of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EP (Employee Performance) through both TIS (Trust in Supervisor) and EWB (Employee Well-being) was also significant, with a standardized coefficient of 0.183 ($p < 0.05$).

Table 22 presented the mediation model with control variables (age, role, tenure at work, education, and salary). The direct effect of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EP (Employee Performance) was attenuated but remained significant, with a standardized coefficient of 0.168 ($p = 0.041$). This suggested that while PMP (Performance Management Practice) still had a direct impact on EP (Employee Performance), the effect was slightly weaker when other factors were controlled. The explained variance in EP increases to 50% ($R^2 = 0.50$). The indirect effect of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EP (Employee Performance) through TIS (Trust in Supervisor) was not significant, with a standardized coefficient of 0.052 ($p =$

0.335). The indirect effect of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EP (Employee Performance) through EWB (Employee Well-being) was significant, with a standardized coefficient of 0.204 ($p < 0.05$). The combined indirect effect of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EP (Employee Performance) through both TIS (Trust in Supervisor) and EWB (Employee Well-being) was significant, with a standardized coefficient of 0.218 ($p < 0.05$).

While PMP had a direct positive impact on EP, this effect was relatively small compared to the combined indirect effect through TIS (Trust in Supervisor) and EWB. This suggested that the influence of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EP (Employee Performance) is primarily mediated by the trust employees have in their supervisors and their well-being. The combined mediating role of TIS (Trust in Supervisor) and Employee Well-being was robust, even when controlling for demographic and job-related variables. This indicates that TIS (Trust in Supervisor) and Employee Well-being are critical pathways through which PMP influences employee performance.

However, in the absence of Employee Well-being, TIS (Trust in Supervisor) alone did not significantly mediate the relationship between PMP (Performance Management Practice) and EP (Employee Performance). This suggests that while TIS has a positive influence on EP (Employee Performance) its impact is insufficient without the additional mediating role of Employee Well-being. Even when controlling for other variables, TIS (Trust in Supervisor) alone did not significantly mediate the relationship between PMP (Performance Management Practice) and EP (Employee Performance).

The presence of EWB is crucial for the mediation process. This suggested that TIS (Trust in Supervisor) may influence EP (Employee Performance) indirectly through its impact on Employee Well-being, rather than directly.

The data from both Table 21 and Table 22 consistently showed that TIS (Trust in Supervisor) alone did not significantly mediate the relationship between PMP (Performance Management Practice) and EP (Employee Performance). Therefore, Hypothesis 9 of *Trust in Supervisor (TIS) mediates between Performance Management Practice (PMP) and Employee Performance (EP),* was not fully supported.

The standardized coefficients for the indirect effect of PMP (Performance Management Practice) on EP (Employee Performance) through TIS (Trust in Supervisor) alone are low (0.077 in Table 21 and 0.052 in Table 22) and not statistically significant. This indicated that TIS (Trust in Supervisor) had a weak and inconsistent influence on EP (Employee Performance) without the involvement of other mediating factors like EWB (Employee Well-being).

The significant indirect effects through EWB (standardized coefficients of 0.252 in Table 21 and 0.204 in Table 22) suggest that EWB (Employee Well-being) plays a crucial role in translating the impact of PMP and TIS (Trust in Supervisor) into improved Employee Performance. EWB (Employee Well-being) acts as a bridge that enhances the effectiveness of TIS (Trust in Supervisor) in influencing EP (Employee Performance).

The combined indirect effects through both TIS (Trust in Supervisor) and EWB were significant (standardized coefficients of 0.183 in Table 21 and 0.218 in Table 22).

This indicated that TIS and EWB together created a stronger mediating pathway than either factor alone. The absence of EWB weakens the overall mediating effect of TIS (Trust in Supervisor).

Chapter 4. Study 2

The deep learnings from Study 1 as well as the practical challenges for management research directly shaped the methodological approach adopted by Study 2. Firstly, the strategy of sampling was substantially improved. To avoid any potential unexpected risk by relying on a single organizational context, Study 2 leveraged the researcher's established social networks to secure a larger and more robust sample (N = 232) from multiple organizations, which reduced dependence on any single organizational context while maintaining relevance to the Chinese employment setting. The larger sample size provided adequate statistical power for complex mediation analyses.

Secondly, based on the feedback of fatigue by respondents, and to improve the data quality, the questionnaire of Study 2 was substantially streamlined from 70 items to 30 items. The measurement of employee performance (EP) was substantially streamlined from 23 items in Study 1 to 5 items in Study 2. This reduction addressed respondent fatigue and missing data concerns identified in Study 1. To maintain measurement breadth through a dual approach, four items capturing self-assessed performance dimensions by Ahmed & Wiadi (2022), plus one item of Performance Promoter Score (Aguinis & Burgi-Tian, 2021). The inclusion of Performance Promoter Score was strategically designed to mitigate self-enhancement bias inherent in traditional self-reports, providing a more objective anchor for employee self-evaluation by framing performance assessment through a behavioural referral lens.

Thirdly, the refinement on the construct's operationalization was taken based on the learnings from Study 1. Trust in supervisor (TIS) was measured by quoting the integrated cognitive and affective scales (Yang & Mossholder, 2010) rather than a loyalty-focused measure, which allows for more nuanced examination of trust mechanisms. Employee well-being (EWB) was re-conceptualized as happiness at work (HAW), a construct that may more accurately reflect the direct translation from English to Chinese.

Fourthly, the independent variable was changed from performance management practice to managerial coaching. The learnings and findings from Study 1 have suggested that formal performance management practice depends on manager's implementation. Therefore, Study 2 focused on managerial coaching (MC) as a more proximal antecedent to achieve employee outcomes, while maintaining trust in supervisor and happiness at work as mediating factors.

In summary, the evolution from Study 1 to Study 2 embodies an iterative learning journey. The limitations encountered in Study 1 were not merely acknowledged but actively improved from methodological point of view in Study 2. By treating limitations as learning opportunities, the researcher demonstrates how empirical challenges can be conquered through iterative refinement and continuous scholarly growth.

4.1 Participants and Procedures

In line with the theoretical model and structural relationships to be examined, the survey for this Study 2 included four different measures. They are Managerial Coaching (MC), Trust in Supervisor (TIS), Happiness at Work (HAW) and Employee

Performance. A five-point response format was used for the instruments in this study, ranging from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 5 (“strongly agree”).

4.2 Measures

In line with the theoretical model and structural relationships to be examined, the survey for this Study 2 included four different measures, which are Managerial Coaching (MC), Trust in Supervisor (TIS), Happiness at Work (HAW) and Employee Performance (EP). A five-point response format was used for the instruments in this study, ranging from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 5 (“strongly agree”).

As Chinese is the main language for the participants in Study 2, all questions in the survey were converted from English to Chinese using a back-translation method (Brislin, 1970). The author initially translated the items from English to Chinese, following which several managers and professionals re-translated the Chinese survey items back into English. Although the four measures' validity and reliability have been confirmed in prior research, the author reassessed the constructs’ validity and reliability by using the sample data in Study 2.

4.2.1 Managerial Coaching (MC)

By taking a comprehensive review of the existing literature on the construct of Managerial Coaching (MC), several theoretically basic foundation offered conceptual frameworks and operationalized definitions on how to measure this construct. Notably, the study by McLean et al. (2005) developed and empirically validated a multidimensional instrument, which is comprised of twenty items to assess managerial

coaching skills from four critical dimensions: Open Communication, Team Approach, Value People, and Accept Ambiguity (McLean et al., 2005). Considering the length of questionnaire in Study 2, the questions by McLean et al. (2005) were not adopted.

Subsequent study conducted by Heslin et al. (2006) investigated from the perspective of implicit person theories (IPTs) and examined how IPTs influence managers' inclination and motivation to coach their subordinates. It was composed of three different studies in total by applying different research methods. The first and second study confirmed the causal relationship between a manager's incremental beliefs and their coaching frequency by employing a longitudinal field study method. In contrast, the third one took an experimental approach and revealed that by increasing managers' willingness to coach, poor performers would improve their performance. They developed a 10-item behavioural observation scale to measure managerial coaching behaviours, which included three dimensions of coaching: guidance, facilitation, and inspiration (Heslin et al., 2006). However, considering its validity and reliability to be further tested across diverse contexts, especially because of its major target group of MBA students in western organizational context, this 10-item scale was decided not to be employed in Study 2.

The paper by Valerie Anderson (2013) surveyed 521 managers to contribute implications for leadership theory by assessing managerial coaching behaviours. The survey utilized a set of 12 pre-validated items to measure coaching-related behaviours. These questions were designed to focus on four main areas: development orientation, performance orientation, planning and goal-setting, and feedback processes. The survey

results challenged traditional leader-centric models of leadership, and also indicated that managerial coaching was different from other coaching practices through the theoretical perspective of leader-member exchange (LMX).

The study by Tanskanen et al. (2019), explored the relationship between managerial coaching, leader-member exchange (LMX), work engagement, and performance. The construct of managerial coaching in this study was measured by a set of seven items which were selected based on their strong inter-correlations and relevance to managerial coaching behaviours. The items included both group-level and individual-level coaching behaviours, while not included some other elements beyond performance-focused coaching behaviour (Tanskanen et al., 2019).

The empirical study conducted by Ellinger et al. (2011) explored the correlated effect of managerial coaching on employee performance in the context of organizational investments in social capital. It employed a survey approach to collect data on managerial coaching behaviours and examined their correlation with employee performance outcomes including job performance, commitment to service quality, and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). The questions on managerial coaching consisted of five items, focusing respectively on setting clearer expectations, encouraging a broader perspective, providing more constructive feedback, soliciting feedback from employees, as well as offering resources for job performance.

The study by Hagen & Peterson (2015) compared the Ellinger Behavioural Scale and the Park Skills-Based Scale from various aspects with scientific methods, and concluded both scales had some degree of validity and reliability in measuring coaching

behaviours and skills. From the perspective of employee to evaluate their manager's coaching, the Ellinger Behavioural Scale is more recommended (Hagen & Peterson, 2015). Therefore, by comprehensive evaluation on the content relevance, the author's credibility and authority in academic field of managerial coaching, the total number of question items as well as translation from English to Chinese, finally five questions from Ellinger et al. (2011) plus one question about evaluating the powerful questioning behaviour of coaching from Ellinger et al. (2003) were quoted in Study 2 as below,

1. My supervisor provides employees with constructive feedback.
2. My supervisor solicits feedback from employees to ensure that their interactions are helpful to employees.
3. My supervisor provides employees with resources so they can perform their jobs more effectively.
4. To help me think through issues, my supervisor asks questions, rather than provides solutions.
5. My supervisor sets expectations with employees and communicate the importance of those expectations to the broader goals of the company.
6. My supervisor encourages employees to broaden their perspectives by helping them to see the big picture.

4.2.2 Trust in Supervisor (TIS)

After extensive and deliberated review of the relevant literature, combining the lessons learned from Study 1, it is ultimately determined in Study 2 that the

measurement instrument proposed by Yang & Mossholder (2010) would be the most appropriate for assessing the construct of Trust in Supervisor from both cognitive and affective dimensions. The total ten questions were listed in the below,

7. I can depend on my supervisor to meet his/her responsibilities.
8. I can rely on my supervisor to do what is best at work.
9. My supervisor follows through with commitments s(he) makes.
10. Given my supervisor's track record, I see no reason to doubt his/her competence.
11. I'm confident in my supervisor because (s)he approaches work with professionalism.
12. I'm confident that my supervisor will always care about my personal needs at work.
13. If I shared my problems with my supervisor, I know (s)he would respond with care.
14. I'm confident that I could share my work difficulties with my supervisor.
15. I'm sure I could openly communicate my feelings to my supervisor.
16. I feel secure with my supervisor because of his/her sincerity.

4.2.3 Happiness at Work (HAW)

Based on Fisher's (2010) conceptual framework of happiness at work (HAW), Salas-Vallina et al. (2017a) developed and validated a 31-item scale to measure HAW, which made significant contribution to this field. The scale captured three core dimensions of HAW: 17 items for work engagement, 6 items for job satisfaction and 8

items for affective organizational commitment. By recognizing the practical challenges associated with lengthy survey questionnaire, which includes potential respondent fatigue and reduced response rates, Salas-Vallina & Alegre (2021) made further efforts on developing a more concise yet shorter version of the HAW scale, which includes nine questions as follows:

17. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous
18. I am enthusiastic about my job
19. I get carried away when I am working
20. How satisfied are you with the nature of the work you perform?
21. How satisfied are you with the pay you receive for your job?
22. How satisfied are you with the opportunities which exist in this organization for advancement [promotion]?
23. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization
24. I feel emotionally attached' to this organization
25. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization

4.2.4 Employee Performance (EP)

In summary, the measurement of job performance has progressed from broad and undifferentiated assessments to more nuanced and comprehensive scales that separately measure in-role behaviours and extra-role behaviours, with a growing emphasis on the predictors and outcomes of these distinct types of performance. By comprehensively considering the research relevance and the length of survey, the four questions by

Ahmed & Wiadi (2022) were cited in Study 2. Meanwhile, for the sake of both the survey efficiency and the accuracy of evaluating Employee Performance, the concept of Performance Promoter Score (Aguinis & Burgi-Tian, 2021), which is similar to Net Promote Score to evaluate customer's satisfaction, was included as well. Therefore, the total five questions to self-report Employee Performance are listed in the below,

26. I can finish the given task on time.
27. I can understand the leader's direction to achieve optimal performance.
28. I understand how to exhibit best performance for the company.
29. I am highly committed to exhibiting high quality and performance.
30. How likely is it that you would recommend working with this company to a friend or a colleague?

4.2.5 Control Variables

Demographic data such as gender (1 = man, 0 = woman), employee's age (1 = <35 years old, 2 = 35-45 years old, 3 = > 45 years old), job role (1=Individual Contributor, 2=Manager, 3=Executive/Director), organizational tenure (1 < 1 year, 2 =1-3 years, 3=3-5 years, 4=5-10 years, 5=>10years), highest education (1 = Junior College or below, 2=Bachelor, 3=Master, 4=Doctorate or above),salary range (1=<100,000RMB/year, 2= 100,000-300,000RMB/year, 3=300,000-500,000RMB/year, 4=500,000-1,000,00RMB/year, 5=>1,000,00RMB/year), and business functions (1= Research & Development, 2= Manufacture, 3= Sales & Marketing, 4= Other supporting functions) were used as controlled variables (Jaiswal & Dyaram, 2018).

The complete survey questionnaire can be found in Appendix 2.

4.3 Methods and Data Analysis

This study utilizes SPSS 29 for the purpose of descriptive statistics including the respondents' demographic profile, reliability of the adopted instrument, correlations, linear regressions, and mediation analysis as well as to examine the validity of the research model, the relationship among the variables, analyse hypothesized path-diagram, and obtain empirical results. Mplus 8.0 is used to conduct confirmatory factor analysis. To assess the mediation formally, I applied the bootstrapping procedure, using the PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.1 Model 4 by Andrew F. Hayes, to estimate the confidence interval of the direct and indirect relationship. Model 6 is used to conduct the robustness check.

4.4 Empirical Results and Findings

4.4.1 Descriptive Statistics of Respondents

As shown in Table 23, the demographic details of the respondents were well captured. 131 respondents were female (56%), and 101 respondents were male (44%). Among the participants, 71 respondents were below 35 years of age (31%), and some 101 respondents were between 35 and 45 years of age (44%), and 60 respondents were above 45 years of age (26%). There were 57 managers (25%) and 129 individual contributors (56%) among these respondents, and 46 (20%) respondents were Executives or Directors. With regard to the tenue of the work experience, 29 respondents were new employees (13%) within 12 months' on boarding. 45 respondents

(19%) had 1-3 years of work experience, and 37 respondents had 3-5 years of work experience (16%). There were 47 participants who had worked for 5-10 years (20%) and 74 participants worked for over 10 years (32%). From the perspective of highest educational background, only 31 respondents were below bachelor's degree (13%), and 110 respondents had bachelor's degree (47%). There were 91 respondents who were holding with master's degree or doctor (39%). Categorized by annual salary for the respondents, 48 participants were below 100k RMB (21%). 78 respondents were within the annual salary range of 100k to 300k RMB (34%) and 43 respondents were within the annual salary range of 300K to 500K RMB (19%). 38 respondents were within the annual salary range of 500K to 1000K RMB (16%) and 25 respondents are above 1000K RMB (11%). The landscape of respondents' departments is distributed – 23 respondents are from Research & Development (10%), 8 respondents were from manufacturing (4%), 59 respondents were from Marketing & Sales (25%) and 142 respondents are from other supporting functional lines (61%). Except for participants' department, all the variables mentioned above were considered as potential controlling variables for validating hypothesized models in later analysis.

In general, the aforementioned descriptive statistics of respondents exhibited a notable degree of diversity. Therefore, it might enable the different perspectives across various demographic groups to a significant extent. This diversity might also further ensure the basis for comprehensive and robust analysis.

Table 23. Descriptive Statistics of Respondents for Study 2

Variable	Classification	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	**Male**	101	43.53
	Female	131	56.47
Age	**<35**	71	30.6
	35-45	101	43.53
	>45	60	25.86
Job Role	**Individual Contributor**	129	55.6
	Manager	57	24.57
	Executive/Director	46	19.83
Tenue at work	**<1 year**	29	12.5
	1-3 years	45	19.4
	3-5 years	37	15.95
	5-10 years	47	20.26
	>10 years	74	31.9
Highest Education	**Junior College and below**	31	13.36
	Bachelor	110	47.41
	Master	80	34.48
	Doctor and above	11	4.74
Annual Salary	**<100k RMB**	48	20.69
	100-300k RMB	78	33.62
	300-500k RMB	43	18.53
	500-1000k RMB	38	16.38
	>1000k RMB	25	10.78
Department	**R&D**	23	9.91
	Manufacturing	8	3.45
	Marketing & Sales	59	25.43
	Supporting	142	61.21

4.4.2 Descriptive Statistics of Latent Variables

Table 24 presented the descriptive statistics of four variables in Study 2, which were, MC (Managerial Coaching), TIS (Trust in Supervisor), HAW (Happiness at Work) and EP (Employee Performance). The mean value of MC (Managerial Coaching) showed 4.1, with a standard deviation of 0.8 indicating that the data points were relatively close to the mean value. Compared to other variables in Table 20, the variability of MC (Managerial Coaching) was moderate. MC (Managerial Coaching) had a standard error of 0.06, indicating a relatively precise estimate of the population mean. All the values for TIS (Trust in Supervisor) was the same as MC (Managerial Coaching) except for the standard deviation, which was 0.9. This indicated that the data consistency of MC (Managerial Coaching) was slightly higher than TIS (Trust in Supervisor) and smaller variability in ratings.

The data exhibited a relatively symmetric distribution, with scores predominantly concentrated at higher levels (all the mean values close to 4) and low dispersion, indicating consistency in responses. The variable of EP (Employee Performance) demonstrated the strongest performance, with the highest mean score and the lowest standard deviation, reflecting both high and stable ratings. In contrast, HAW (Happiness at Work) showed comparatively weaker performance, with the lowest mean score, suggesting potential areas for further investigation. The low standard errors across all variables indicated high precision in the estimation of sample means, underscoring the reliability of the data for subsequent analysis or modelling purposes.

Table 24. Descriptive Statistics of latent variables for Study 2

Variable	N	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Minimum	Maximum
MC	**232**	**4.1**	**4**	**0.8**	**0.06**	**1**	**5**
TIS	**232**	**4.1**	**4**	**0.9**	**0.06**	**1**	**5**
HAW	**232**	**3.9**	**4**	**0.8**	**0.05**	**1**	**5**
EP	**232**	**4.2**	**4**	**0.7**	**0.04**	**1**	**5**

4.4.3 Correlation Analysis

Table 25 displayed the Spearman's correlation coefficient and relevant statistical significance (* denotes p<0.05, ** denotes P < 0.01 and *** denotes P < 0.001). It was noted that the Spearman's correlation coefficients among 4 key latent variables, which were, MC (Managerial Coaching), TIS (Trust in Supervisor), HAW (Happiness at Work) and EP (Employee Performance), were positively high (>0.5) and the statistical significances for all 2-pairs were below 0.001. It revealed that the likelihood of regression among the 4 variables were quite high.

To be specific, the correlation of MC (Managerial Coaching) with TIS (Trust in Supervisor), HAW (Happiness at Work) and EP (Employee Performance) were all strongly positive, respectively (0.850***, p<0.001) (0.616***, p<0.001) (0.542***, p<0.001). This indicated a high degree of consistency among the relationship of MC (Managerial Coaching) with TIS (Trust in Supervisor), HAW (Happiness at Work) and EP (Employee Performance). In the meantime, the demographic factor of Age and Education had some weak positive correlation, respectively (0.137*, p<0.05) (0.163*, p<0.05). This suggested that older employees with higher education level might score higher to MC (Managerial Coaching). The result was similar for TIS (Trust in Supervisor). In addition, the factor of Job Role might have some weak positive correlation (0.145*, p<0.05) with TIS (Trust in Supervisor), suggesting that employees in higher job roles might score higher on TIS (Trust in Supervisor). The correlation between HAW (Happiness at Work) and EP (Employee Performance) were very high (0.787***, p<0.001), indicating a very close relationship.

To sum up, MC (Managerial Coaching) with TIS (Trust in Supervisor), HAW (Happiness at Work) and EP (Employee Performance) were strongly correlated with each other, with coefficients ranging from 0.542*** to 0.850*** ($p<0.001$). Critically, VIF values for these constructs ranged between 1.051 and 4.065, all of which are within acceptable limits (below 5), indicating that the multi-collinearity is not severe enough to compromise the stability or interpretability of the regression model. This confirms that while these variables are theoretically interrelated. Therefore, while the likelihood of interrelatedness among these four variables is high, the regression analysis remains robust and reliable. This highlights the importance of considering these factors holistically in understanding their collective impact on employee performance and well-being.

Table 25. Correlation Analysis for Study 2

Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Gender	Age	Job Role	Tenue at work	Education	Annual Salary	MC	TIS	HAW	EP
Gender	232	1.56	0.49										
Age	232	2.0	0.75	-0.079									
Job Role	232	1.6	0.79	-0.155*	0.32***								
Tenue at work	232	3.4	1.42	-0.103	0.406***	0.149*							
Education	232	2.3	0.76	-0.093	0.124	0.326***	0.144*						
Annual Salary	232	2.6	1.28	-0.132*	0.302***	0.553***	0.251***	0.488***					
MC	232	4.1	0.85	-0.031	0.137*	0.095	0.043	0.163*	0.105				
TIS	232	4.1	0.87	-0.0216	0.150*	0.145*	0.043	0.174**	0.088	0.850***			
HAW	232	3.9	0.82	0.091	-0.017	0.033	-0.095	0.099	-0.005	0.616***	0.643***		
EP	232	4.2	0.67	0.056	0.020	-0.023	-0.156*	-0.058	-0.127	0.542***	0.596***	0.787***	

*** p<0.001; ** p<0.01; * p<0.05

4.4.4. Reliability Analysis

Table 26 provided a basic reliability analysis for four latent variables MC (Managerial Coaching), TIS (Trust in Supervisor), HAW (Happiness at Work) and EP (Employee Performance). The reliability of each latent variable was assessed using Cronbach's alpha, a widely accepted measure of internal consistency.

The reliability analysis demonstrated that all four latent variables had high levels of internal consistency, with Cronbach's alpha values ranging from 0.865 to 0.970. These high reliability scores suggested that the scales used to measure MC (Managerial Coaching), TIS (Trust in Supervisor), HAW (Happiness at Work) and EP (Employee Performance) were robust and suitable for their intended purposes. The high reliability of these scales provided a good base for further statistical analysis or modelling.

Table 26. Basic Reliability Analysis for Study 2

Latent Variable	No. of Items	Item List	Number of Observations	Cronbach's Alpha
MC	6	Q1-Q6	232	0.916
TIS	10	Q7-Q16	232	0.970
HAW	9	Q17-Q25	232	0.937
EP	5	Q26-Q30	232	0.865

4.4.5. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Similar to Study 1, before testing the complex model for hypotheses as shown in Figure 2, a series of Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA) by using Mplus was conducted. As data shown in Table 27, it was apparent that the full model with four separate latent variables was the best fit, with an acceptable RMSEA (0.092) and good CFI (0.892), TLI (0.882), and SRMR values (0.05), indicating that all four variables contributed significantly to the model. When combining some variables in the models leaded to a decrease in fit, as shown by the increasing RMSEA, SRMR values and decreasing CFI, TLI values, and the significant increase in Chi-square values compared to the full model. It was clearly indicated that the four variables should be treated as four independent constructs for further analysis.

As indicated in Table 46, the standardized factor loadings provided additional evidence to further confirm the robustness of the hypothesized model. Most indicators demonstrated strong convergent validity, with standardized loadings exceeding conventional thresholds ($\lambda > 0.70$). The only two items, which were MC Q5, $\lambda = 0.675$, EP Q30, $\lambda = 0.638$, fell slightly below but still remained within acceptable bounds for retained items.

Taken together, the CFA results for Study 2 has demonstrated notably improved fit characteristics compared to Study 1, attributable to the larger sample size (N = 232). This enhanced estimation precision underscores the methodological advancement achieved through the iterative research design. Furthermore, the factor loadings indicate that all items function effectively as indicators of their respective latent variables, with

the majority exceeding recommended thresholds and demonstrating robust psychometric properties. These results establish a solid basis for proceeding with structural model testing and hypothesis evaluation in Study 2.

Table 27. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Study 2

Model	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$(df)
Full Model - 4 variables (MC, TIS, HAW, EP)	0.105	0.859	0.847	0.067	1412.568	399	
Three Variable Model - 3 variables (combined MC with TIS, HAW, EP)	0.11	0.843	0.83	0.069	1532.114	402	119.546(3)
Three Variable Model - 3 variables (MC, combined TIS with HAW, EP)	0.142	0.741	0.719	0.116	2270.191	402	857.623(3)
Two Variable Model - 2 variables (combined MC with TIS and HAW, EP)	0.146	0.724	0.703	0.12	2393.549	404	980.981(5)
One Variable Model - 1 variable only	0.157	0.676	0.653	0.114	2735.474	405	1322.906(6)

Baseline model Chi-Square - 7638.296 (df=435)

4.4.6. Regression Analysis

Based on the regression data analysis in Table 28, the independent variable, Managerial Coaching (MC) had a significantly positive effect on EP (Employee Performance), explaining approximately 29.4% of its variance. All the control variables have limited impact, except for Tenure at Work or Annual Salary. The effect of Tenure at Work on EP (Employee Performance) was statistically significant at the 1% level, and the effect of Annual Salary on EP (Employee Performance) is statistically significant at the 5% level. After controlling for all the additional variables, Managerial Coaching (MC) still has a significant positive effect on EP (Employee Performance), and the model explains approximately 35.7% of its variance.

It was suggested that Managerial Coaching (MC) can be the primary driver of EP (Employee Performance) in this context. The model with covariates has higher explanatory power (R^2 increases from 0.294 to 0.357) compared to the model without covariates. Therefore, Hypothesis 11 in Figure 2, *Managerial Coaching (MC) positively affects Employee Performance*, was supported.

Table 28. Managerial Coaching (MC) predicting Employee Performance (EP)
Regression Analysis for Study 2

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Beta	t	P
H11- Regression without covariates	EP	MC	232	0.294	0.291	MC	0.43	0.54	9.79	<0.001***
H11- Regression with covariates	EP	MC	232	0.357	0.337	Gender	-0.056	-0.042	-0.763	0.446
						Age	-0.043	-0.048	-0.777	0.438
						Role	-0.033	-0.039	-0.593	0.554
						Tenue at work	0.073	0.156	2.612	0.01**
						Education	0.065	0.074	1.188	0.236
						Annual Salary	0.075	0.142	1.994	0.047*
						MC	0.450	0.567	10.362	<0.001***

Note: *Hypothesis 11: Managerial Coaching (MC) positively affects Employee's Performance (EP).*

The data in Table 29 also indicated that Managerial Coaching (MC) has a strong and significant positive impact on Happiness at Work (HAW), in the context of with and without control variables. The only difference is, the control variable of Tenure at Work has some impact on EWB, suggesting that the longer tenures, the less Employee Well-being. Other control variables (e.g., Age, Role) do not significantly affect EWB, highlighting PMP (Performance Management Practice) can exert positive affect on EWB (Employee Well-being). Therefore, Hypothesis 12: *Managerial Coaching (MC) positively affects Happiness at Work (HAW)*, was supported as well.

Table 29. Managerial Coaching (MC) predicting Happiness at Work (HAW)
Regression Analysis for Study 2

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Beta	t	P
H12- Regression without covariates	HAW	MC	232	0.38	0.377	MC	0.595	0.616	11.874	<0.001***
H12- Regression with covariates	HAW	MC	232	0.411	0.392	Gender	-0.162	-0.099	-1.898	0.059
						Age	0.067	0.062	1.038	0.300
						Role	-0.042	-0.041	-0.652	0.515
						Tenue at work	0.048	0.083	1.462	0.145
						Education	-0.046	-0.043	-0.716	0.475
						Annual Salary	0.039	0.061	0.898	0.370
						MC	0.605	0.627	11.971	<0.001***

Note: *Hypothesis 12: Managerial Coaching (MC) positively affects Happiness at Work (HAW).*

In Table 30, the regression model without control variables showed a strong positive relationship between Happiness at Work (HAW) and Employee Performance, with an R^2 of 0.62 and a standardized beta coefficient of 0.787, which was highly significant ($p < 0.001$). Happiness at Work (HAW) had a significantly positive impact on Employee Performance. Age had a significant negative effect on EP, while Tenure at Work and Education had significant positive effects. Annual Salary showed a marginally significant positive effect ($p=0.073$). After controlling for all the covariates, Happiness at Work (HAW) had higher explanatory power (R^2 increased from 0.62 to 0.656) on Employee Performance than without covariates. As such, Hypothesis 13 in Figure 2. that *Happiness at Work (HAW) positively affects Employee Performance*, was supported as well.

Table 30. Happiness at Work (HAW) predicting Employee Performance (EP)
Regression Analysis for Study 2

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	Adjusted R2	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Beta	t	P
H13- Regression without covariates	EP	HAW	232	0.62	0.618	HAW	0.648	0.787	19.377	<0.001***
H13- Regression with covariates	EP	HAW	232	0.656	0.646	Gender	0.051	0.038	0.940	0.348
						Age	-0.095	-0.106	-2.355	0.019*
						Role	-0.006	-0.007	-0.152	0.879
						Tenue at work	0.043	0.092	2.098	0.037*
						Education	0.086	0.097	2.142	0.033*
						Annual Salary	0.050	0.094	1.804	0.073
						HAW	0.653	0.793	19.906	<0.001***

Note: *Hypothesis 13: Happiness at Work (HAW) positively affects Employee Performance (EP).*

Table 31 revealed a significant positive relationship between TIS (Trust in Supervisor) and Happiness at Work (HAW). Without controlling for covariates, TIS (Trust in Supervisor) explained 35.5% of the variance in Happiness at Work (HAW) ($R^2 = 0.355$), with a standardized beta coefficient of 0.596 ($p < 0.001$). When covariates such as age, role, tenure at work, education, and salary were included, the explained variance increased to 41.8% ($R^2 = 0.418$), and the standardized beta coefficient remained robust at 0.658 ($p < 0.001$). This indicated that TIS (Trust in Supervisor) was a significant predictor of Happiness at Work (HAW), even when other factors were considered. Therefore, Hypothesis 14 that *Trust in Supervisor (TIS) positively affects Happiness at Work (HAW)*, was supported as well.

Table 31. Trust in Supervisor (TIS) predicting Happiness at Work (HAW)
Regression Analysis for Study 2

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Beta	t	P
H14 - Regression without covariates	HAW	TIS	232	0.355	0.353	TIS	0.462	0.596	11.263	<0.001***
H14 - Regression with covariates	HAW	TIS	232	0.418	0.399	Gender	-0.146	-0.089	-1.755	0.081
						Age	0.076	0.070	1.211	0.227
						Role	0.015	0.014	0.231	0.818
						Tenue at work	0.048	0.083	1.498	0.135
						Education	-0.027	-0.025	-0.431	0.667
						Annual Salary	0.009	0.013	0.201	0.841
						TIS	0.619	0.658	12.826	<0.001***

Note: *Hypothesis 14: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) positively affects Happiness at Work (HAW).*

Similar to the data in Study 1, Table 32 showed that TIS (Trust in Supervisor) also had a significant positive impact on EP (Employee Performance). This indicated that Hypothesis 11: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) positively affects Employee Performance, was supported. Without covariates, TIS explained 41.4% of the variance in EP ($R^2 = 0.414$), with a standardized beta coefficient of 0.643 ($p < 0.001$). When covariates were included, the explained variance increased to 44.3% ($R^2 = 0.443$), and the standardized beta coefficient is 0.625 ($p < 0.001$). This indicated that Trust in Supervisor (TIS) not only directly influenced Employee Performance but also does so robustly when other factors were controlled. Among all the controlled factors, Tenue at work added some explanatory value with modest contribution ($p=0.007$).

Table 32. Trust in Supervisor (TIS) predicting Employee Performance (EP)
Regression Analysis for Study 2

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Beta	t	P
H15- Regression without covariates	EP	TIS	232	0.414	0.411	TIS	0.605	0.643	12.745	<0.001***
H15- Regression with covariates	EP	TIS	232	0.443	0.425	Gender	-0.044	-0.032	-0.625	0.533
						Age	-0.033	-0.037	-0.620	0.536
						Role	0.012	0.014	0.219	0.827
						Tenue at work	0.073	0.155	2.724	0.007**
						Education	0.084	0.095	1.599	0.111
						Annual Salary	0.051	0.097	1.419	0.157
						TIS	0.484	0.625	11.914	<0.001***

Note: *Hypothesis 15: Trust in Supervisor (TIS) positively affects Employee Performance (EP).*

As shown in Table 33, the positive relationship between Managerial Coaching (MC) and TIS (Trust in Supervisor) was proved. Without covariates, Managerial Coaching (MC) explained 72.3% of the variance in TIS ($R^2 = 0.723$), with a standardized beta coefficient of 0.85 ($p < 0.001$). When covariates were included, the explained variance increases to 73.1% ($R^2 = 0.731$), and the standardized beta coefficient is 0.839 ($p < 0.001$). This suggested that Managerial Coaching (MC) significantly impacted TIS (Trust in Supervisor), so that Hypothesis 12: TIS (Trust in Supervisor), was supported. Among all the controlled factors, the factor of Role, individual contributor, manager or director, exerted some effects on TIS (Trust in Supervisor).

Table 33. Managerial Coaching (MC) predicting Trust in Supervisor (TIS)
Regression Analysis for Study 2

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Beta	t	P
H16- Regression without covariates	TIS	MC	232	0.723	0.721	MC	0.872	0.850	24.481	<0.001***
H16- Regression with covariates	TIS	MC	232	0.731	0.722	Gender	-0.025	-0.014	-0.399	0.690
						Age	-0.031	-0.027	-0.680	0.497
						Role	-0.094	-0.086	-2.003	0.046*
						Tenue at work	0.002	0.004	0.105	0.917
						Education	-0.050	-0.044	-1.087	0.278
						Annual Salary	0.050	0.074	1.598	0.111
						MC	0.861	0.839	23.704	<0.001***

Note: *Hypothesis 16: Managerial Coaching (MC) positively affects Trust in Supervisor (TIS).*

4.4.7. Mediation Analysis

With Andrew's Model 4 (Hayes, 2018) in the PROCESS Procedure of SPSS Version 29, the mediation analysis result was captured in Table 34 and Table 35, respectively for without control variables and with control variables.

The direct effect of MC (Managerial Coaching) on EP (Employee Performance) was 0.073 (Standardized Coeff = 0.092, p = 0.075, LLCI = -0.007, ULCI = 0.153), which indicated not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$), meaning MC (Managerial Coaching) does not directly influence EP (Employee Performance) when HAW was not considered. The indirect effect of MC (Managerial Coaching) on EP (Employee Performance) through HAW (Happiness at Work) was 0.358 (Standardized Coeff = 0.451, LLCI = 0.27, ULCI = 0.447), which was statistically significant, indicating that HAW (Happiness at Work) fully mediated the relationship between MC (Managerial Coaching) and EP (Employee Performance).

After controlling for covariates, the direct effect of MC (Managerial Coaching) on EP (Employee Performance) was 0.091 (Standardized Coeff = 0.114, p = 0.025, LLCI = 0.011, ULCI = 0.17), which was statistically significant ($p < 0.05$), meaning MC (Managerial Coaching) had a direct influence on EP (Employee Performance) even after controlling HAW (Happiness at Work) and other covariates. The indirect effect of MC (Managerial Coaching) on EP (Employee Performance) through HAW (Happiness at Work) is 0.36 (Standardized Coeff = 0.453, LLCI = 0.273, ULCI = 0.456), which remained statistically significant, indicating that HAW (Happiness at Work) continued

to mediate the relationship between MC (Managerial Coaching) and EP (Employee Performance).

Combining the data in Table 34 and 35, it is concluded that HAW (Happiness at Work) acted as a partial mediator in the relationship between MC (Managerial Coaching) and EP (Employee Performance) when covariates were included, which indicated that MC (Managerial Coaching) influenced EP (Employee Performance) both directly and indirectly through HAW (Happiness at Work). Further, the inclusion of covariates (e.g., Age, Tenure at Work, Education) strengthened the direct effect of MC (Managerial Coaching) on EP (Employee Performance), suggesting that these covariates might suppress some of the mediation effect of HAW (Happiness at Work).

In a short summary, in the context without any covariates, the indirect effect of MC (Managerial Coaching) on EP (Employee Performance) through HAW (Happiness at Work) was significant, suggesting that HAW (Happiness at Work) fully mediated the relationship between MC (Managerial Coaching) and EP (Employee Performance). However, the direct effect of MC (Managerial Coaching) on EP (Employee Performance) was marginally significant, which indicates that the mediation effect was substantial. When controlling all the covariates, both the direct and indirect effects of MC (Managerial Coaching) on EP (Employee Performance) were significant, indicating that HAW (Happiness at Work) mediated the relationship between MC (Managerial Coaching) and EP (Employee Performance). The significant direct effect suggested that MC (Managerial Coaching) also had an effect on EP (Employee Performance) independent of HAW (Happiness at Work). HAW (Happiness at Work)

played a partial mediating role in the relationship between MC (Managerial Coaching) and EP (Employee Performance).

Table 34. Mediation Analysis for Study 2 without covariates for Happiness at Work as mediator between Managerial Coaching and Employee Performance

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	F	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Coeff	P	LLCI	ULCI
Model 4 without covariates	EP	MC	232	0.294	95.89	MC	0.073	0.092	0.075	-0.007	0.153
						HAW	0.601	0.731	<.001***	0.518	0.685
MC->EP						Direct Effect	0.073	0.092	0.075	-0.007	0.153
MC>HAW->EP						Indirect Total	0.358	0.451	*	0.27	0.447

Table 35. Mediation Analysis for Study 2 with covariates for Happiness at Work as mediator between Managerial Coaching and Employee Performance

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	F	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Coeff	P	LLCI	ULCI
Model 4 with covariates	EP	MC	232	0.357	17.75	Gender	0.04	0.03	0.454	-0.066	0.146
						Age	-0.083	-0.093	0.041*	-0.162	-0.004
						Role	-0.008	-0.009	0.844	-0.088	0.072
						Tenue at work	0.045	0.096	0.029*	0.005	0.085
						Education	0.093	0.105	0.021*	0.014	0.171
						Salary	0.052	0.098	0.06	-0.002	0.105
						MC	0.091	0.114	0.025*	0.011	0.17
						HAW	0.594	0.722	<0.001***	0.512	0.676
MC->EP						Direct Effect	0.091	0.114	0.025*	0.011	0.17
MC>HAW->EP						Indirect Total	0.36	0.453	*	0.273	0.456

The comparative data presented in Table 36 and Table 37 provided insights into the mediating role of Happiness at Work (HAW) in the relationship between Trust in Supervisor (TIS) and Employee Performance, in the context of both without and with controlled variables.

Table 36. Mediation Analysis for Study 2 without covariates for Happiness at Work as mediator between Trust in Supervisor and Employee Performance

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	F	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Coeff	P	LLCI	ULCI
Model 4 without covariates	EP	TIS	232	0.3555	126.9	TIS	0.118	0.153	0.004**	0.039	0.198
						HAW	0.567	0.689	<0.001***	0.482	0.652
TIS->EP						Direct Effect	0.118	0.153	0.004**	0.039	0.198
TIS->HAW->EP						Indirect Total	0.343	0.443	*	0.259	0.433

Table 37. Mediation Analysis for Study 2 with covariates for Happiness at Work as mediator between Trust in Supervisor and Employee Performance

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	F	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Coeff	P	LLCI	ULCI
Model 4 with covariates	EP	TIS	232	0.418	22.94	Gender	0.038	0.028	0.476	-0.066	0.142
						Age	-0.075	-0.084	0.06	-0.153	0.003
						Role	0.004	0.004	0.93	-0.076	0.083
						Tenue at work	0.046	0.098	0.023*	0.007	0.086
						Education	0.099	0.112	0.013*	0.021	0.177
						Salary	0.046	0.088	0.088	-0.007	0.099
						TIS	0.138	0.179	0.001**	0.059	0.217
						HAW	0.558	0.678	<0.001***	0.475	0.641
TIS->EP						Direct Effect	0.138	0.179	0.001**	0.059	0.217
TIS->HAW->EP						Indirect Total	0.345	0.446	*	0.259	0.446

Table 36 illustrated the mediation model without controlling for covariates. The direct effect of TIS (Trust in Supervisor) on EP (Employee Performance) was significant, with a standardized coefficient of 0.153 ($p = 0.004$). This indicated that TIS (Trust in Supervisor) had a positive direct impact on EP (Employee Performance), explaining 35.6% of the variance in EP ($R^2 = 0.3555$). The indirect effect of TIS (Trust in Supervisor) on EP (Employee Performance) through Happiness at Work (HAW) was substantial, with a total indirect effect of 0.443 ($p < 0.05$), indicating that Happiness at Work (HAW) strongly mediated the relationship between Trust in Supervisor (TIS) and Employee Performance.

The data in Table 37 presented the mediation model with controlled variables (age, role, tenure at work, education, and salary). The direct effect of TIS (Trust in Supervisor) on EP (Employee Performance) remained positive. This suggested that while TIS (Trust in Supervisor) still had a direct impact on EP (Employee Performance). The indirect effect of TIS (Trust in Supervisor) on EP (Employee Performance) through Happiness at Work (HAW) also remained significant, indicating that the mediating effect was robust even after controlling for potential confounding variables.

In Table 38 and Table 39, the mediating role of Trust in Supervisor (TIS) in the relationship between Managerial Coaching (MC) and Employee Performance (EP) was explored and analysed. The analysis was conducted both without and with controlled variables to assess the robustness of the mediating effect.

Table 38. Mediation Analysis for Study 2 without covariates for Trust in Supervisor as mediator between Managerial Coaching and Employee Performance

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	F	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Coeff	P	LLCI	ULCI
Model 4 without covariates	EP	MC	232	0.3	95.888	MC	0.102	0.128	0.202	-0.055	0.259
						TIS	0.377	0.487	<0.001***	0.224	0.53
MC->EP						Direct Effect	0.102	0.128	0.202	-0.055	0.259
MC->TIS->EP						Indirect Total	0.329	0.414	*	0.191	0.463

Table 39. Mediation Analysis for Study 2 with covariates for Trust in Supervisor as mediator between Managerial Coaching and Employee Performance

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	F	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Coeff	P	LLCI	ULCI
Model 4 with covariates	EP	MC	232	0.4	17.752	Gender	-0.047	-0.035	0.504	-0.184	0.091
						Age	-0.031	-0.035	0.558	-0.134	0.073
						Role	0.003	0.003	0.956	-0.103	0.109
						Tenue at work	0.073	0.154	<0.01**	0.02	0.125
						Education	0.085	0.096	0.107	-0.019	0.188
						Salary	0.056	0.106	0.122	-0.015	0.126
						MC	0.118	0.149	0.127	-0.034	0.27
						TIS	0.386	0.498	<0.001***	0.236	0.535
MC->EP						Direct Effect	0.118	0.149	0.127	-0.034	0.27
MC->TIS->EP						Indirect Total	0.332	0.418	*	0.202	0.462

Table 38 showed the mediation model without controlling for covariates. The direct effect of Managerial Coaching (MC) on Employee Performance (EP) was not significant, with a standardized coefficient of 0.128 ($p = 0.202$). This indicated that Managerial Coaching (MC) did not have a positive direct impact on Employee Performance (EP). The indirect effect of Managerial Coaching (MC) on Employee Performance (EP) through TIS (Trust in Supervisor) is substantial, with a total indirect effect of 0.414 ($p < 0.05$). The standardized coefficient for TIS is 0.487 ($p < 0.001$), indicating that TIS fully mediates the relationship between Managerial Coaching (MC) and Employee Performance (EP).

Table 39 presented the mediation model with controlled variables (age, role, tenure at work, education, and salary). The direct effect of Managerial Coaching (MC) on Employee Performance (EP) through TIS (Trust in Supervisor) increased a little but remained insignificant, with a standardized coefficient of 0.149 ($p = 0.127$). This suggested that while Managerial Coaching (MC) still did not have a direct impact on Employee Performance (EP), though the effect was a little stronger when other factors were controlled. The indirect effect of Managerial Coaching (MC) on Employee Performance (EP) through TIS (Trust in Supervisor) remained statistically significant ($p<0.05$), indicating that the mediating effect was robust before and after controlling for potential confounding variables.

Taking both the data in Table 38 and Table 39 into consideration, the mediating role of TIS (Trust in Supervisor) was robust. This indicated that TIS (Trust in Supervisor) was a critical pathway through which Managerial Coaching (MC) influenced Employee

Performance (EP). This finding further suggests managers need to win the trust from their employees if they would like their employees' performance improved.

In Table 40 and Table 41, the mediating role of Trust in Supervisor (TIS) in the relationship between Managerial Coaching (MC) and Happiness at Work (HAW) was explored and analysed. The analysis was conducted both without and with controlled variables to assess the robustness of the mediating effect.

Table 40. Mediation Analysis for Study 2 without covariates for Trust in Supervisor as mediator between Managerial Coaching and Happiness at Work

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	F	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Coeff	P	LLCI	ULCI
Model 4 without covariates	HAW	MC	232	0.431	86.86	MC	0.242	0.251	0.009**	0.062	0.422
						TIS	0.405	0.43	<0.001***	0.229	0.58
MC->HAW						Direct Effect	0.242	0.251	0.009**	0.062	0.422
MC->TIS->HAW						Indirect Total	0.353	0.366	*	0.157	0.537

Table 41. Mediation Analysis for Study 2 with covariates for Trust in Supervisor as mediator between Managerial Coaching and Happiness at Work

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R2	F	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Coeff	P	LLCI	ULCI
Model 4 with covariates	HAW	MC	232	0.461	23.89	Gender	-0.152	-0.093	0.064	-0.314	0.009
						Age	0.08	0.073	0.198	-0.042	0.201
						Role	-0.004	-0.004	0.948	-0.128	0.12
						Tenue at work	0.047	0.082	0.137	-0.015	0.109
						Education	-0.025	-0.024	0.68	-0.146	0.096
						Salary	0.019	0.029	0.657	-0.064	0.102
						MC	0.253	0.262	0.006**	0.074	0.432
						TIS	0.409	0.435	<0.001***	0.234	0.585
MC->HAW						Direct Effect	0.253	0.262	0.006**	0.074	0.432
MC->TIS->HAW						Indirect Total	0.352	0.365	*	0.189	0.513

Table 40 showed the mediation model without controlling for covariates. The direct effect of Managerial Coaching (MC) on Happiness at Work (HAW) was significant, with a standardized coefficient of 0.251 ($p = 0.009$). This indicated that Managerial Coaching (MC) had a positive direct impact on Happiness at Work (HAW), explaining 43.1% of the variance. The indirect effect of Managerial Coaching (MC) on Happiness at Work (HAW) through TIS (Trust in Supervisor) is substantial, with a total indirect effect of 0.366 ($p < 0.05$). The standardized coefficient for TIS is 0.366 ($p < 0.01$), indicating that TIS strongly mediates the relationship between Managerial Coaching (MC) and Happiness at Work (HAW).

Table 41 presented the mediation model with controlled variables (age, role, tenure at work, education, and salary). The direct effect of Managerial Coaching (MC) on Happiness at Work (HAW) through TIS (Trust in Supervisor) decreased a little but remained significant, with a standardized coefficient of 0.262 ($p = 0.006$). This suggested that while Managerial Coaching (MC) still had a direct impact on Happiness at Work (HAW), the effect was even stronger when other factors were controlled. The explained variance in Happiness at Work (HAW) increased from 43.1% ($R^2 = 0.431$) to 46.1% ($R^2 = 0.461$). The indirect effect of Managerial Coaching (MC) on Happiness at Work (HAW) through TIS (Trust in Supervisor) remained statistically significant, indicating that the mediating effect was robust before and after controlling for potential confounding variables.

Taking both the data in Table 40 and Table 41 into consideration, the mediating role of TIS (Trust in Supervisor) was robust. This indicated that TIS (Trust in Supervisor)

was a critical pathway through which Managerial Coaching (MC) influenced Happiness at Work (HAW). This finding further suggests managers need to win the trust from their employees if they really care about their happiness at work.

4.4.8. Robustness Check

Andrew's Model 6 (Hayes, 2018) in the PROCESS Procedure of SPSS Version 29 was used for the robustness check, whose result were illustrated in Table 42 and Table 43. The mediation analysis presented respectively in Table 42 and Table 43 explored the combined mediating role of Trust in Supervisor (TIS) and Happiness at Work (HAW) in the relationship between Managerial Coaching (MC) and Employee Performance. These analyses were conducted both without and with controlled variables to assess the robustness of the mediating effects.

Table 42. Mediation Analysis for Study 2 without covariates for Trust in Supervisor and Happiness at Work as mediators

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	F	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Beta	P	LLCI	ULCI
Model 6 without covariates	EP	MC	232	0.634	131.868						
						MC	-0.036	-0.046	0.553	-0.157	0.084
						TIS	0.146	0.188	0.019*	0.025	0.267
						HAW	0.572	0.695	<0.001***	0.486	0.658
MC->EP						Direct Effect	-0.036	-0.046	0.553	-0.157	0.084
						Indirect Total	0.467	0.588	*	0.342	0.597
MC->TIS->EP						Indirect A	0.127	0.160	*	0.013	0.244
MC>HAW->EP						Indirect B	0.138	0.174	*	0.018	0.268
MC->TIS->HAW->EP						Indirect C	0.202	0.254	*	0.094	0.323

Table 43. Mediation Analysis for Study 2 with covariates for
Trust in Supervisor and Happiness at Work as mediators

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	n	R^2	F	Factor	B-Constant	Standardized Beta	P	LLCI	ULCI
Model 6 with covariates	EP	MC	232	0.674	51.003	Gender	0.039	0.029	0.465	-0.066	0.143
						Age	-0.076	-0.085	0.059	-0.154	0.003
						Role	0.005	0.006	0.897	-0.074	0.085
						Tenue at work	0.046	0.098	0.023*	0.006	0.086
						Education	0.099	0.112	0.013*	0.021	0.177
						Annual Salary	0.045	0.086	0.097	-0.008	0.098
						MC	-0.024	-0.030	0.690	-0.140	0.093
						TIS	0.156	0.202	0.01**	0.038	0.274
						HAW	0.561	0.682	<0.001***	0.476	0.646
MC->EP						Direct Effect	-0.024	-0.030	0.690	-0.140	0.093
						Indirect Total	0.474	0.597	*	0.340	0.611
MC->TIS->EP						Indirect A	0.134	0.169	*	0.026	0.254
MC>HAW->EP						Indirect B	0.142	0.179	*	0.030	0.273
MC->TIS->HAW->EP						Indirect C	0.198	0.249	*	0.093	0.304

As shown in Table 42, Managerial Coaching (MC) did not have a significant direct effect on Employee Performance when Trust in Supervisor (TIS) and Happiness at Work (HAW) were included in the model. This suggested that the effect of Managerial Coaching (MC) on Employee Performance was fully mediated by Trust in Supervisor (TIS) and Happiness at Work (HAW). Even after controlling for covariates as presented in Table 43, Managerial Coaching (MC) did not yet have a significant direct effect on Employee Performance. This further supported hypothesis that Trust in Supervisor (TIS) and Happiness at Work (HAW) fully mediated the relationship between Managerial Coaching (MC) and Employee Performance.

As outlined in Table 42, the indirect effects of Managerial Coaching (MC) on Employee Performance were all significant through the three pathways, Managerial Coaching (MC) improved Trust in Supervisor (TIS), which in turn enhanced Employee Performance; Managerial Coaching (MC) increased Happiness at Work (HAW), which in turn enhanced Employee Performance; Managerial Coaching (MC) improved Trust in Supervisor (TIS), which increased Happiness at Work (HAW) and further boosted Employee Performance. After controlling all the covariates such as Gender, Age, Role, Tenue at work, Education and Annual Salary, the indirect effects of Managerial Coaching (MC) on Employee Performance remained significant through all the three pathways. This indicated that all the mediation pathways were robust and not influenced by individual differences such as gender, age, or education.

The indirect effects of Managerial Coaching (MC) on Employee Performance through Trust in Supervisor (TIS), Happiness at Work (HAW), and the sequential

pathway (Trust in Supervisor → Happiness at Work) were significant in both models (with and without covariates). This consistency suggested that the mediation pathways were robust and not dependent on the inclusion of covariates. The standardized beta coefficients for the indirect effects were relatively stable across models, with only minor changes when covariates were added. This further supported the robustness of the mediation pathways. All the indirect effects remained statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) in both models, indicating that the mediation pathways were not sensitive to the inclusion of covariates.

Chapter 5. General Discussion

The main purpose of this dissertation is to explore the underlying mechanisms driving both employee well-being and performance, and to further open the "black box" in HRM, leadership, and management research (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Casimir et al., 2006; Demortier et al., 2014; Den Hartog et al., 2013; Messersmith et al., 2011; Sivapragasam & Raya, 2018). For this purpose, this dissertation addresses two interrelated research questions. What are the underlying mechanisms linking HRM and managerial practices to employee well-being and performance? What role do trust in supervisor and employee well-being play as mediating mechanisms in these relationships? To answer these research questions, two empirical studies were conducted in China, drawing on the motivation and leadership theories, conceptualized and tested two models that provide insight respectively into the relationship between performance management practice (PMP), trust in supervisor (TIS), employee well-being (EWB) and performance (EP) in Study 1; managerial coaching (MC), trust in supervisor (TIS), happiness at work (HAW) and employee performance (EP) in Study 2. Both trust in supervisor (TIS) and employee well-being (EWB) / happiness at work (HAW) have been shown as important mediators, which directly address the 2nd research questions regarding the mediating pathways.

In general, the findings of Study 1 and Study 2 supported almost all the hypotheses as outlined in Figure 1 and Figure 2. In both empirical studies, employee well-being (EWB) / happiness at work (HAW) can directly and positively impact employee performance (EP). Performance management practice as one important function of

HRM, and managerial coaching (MC) as one important managerial practice, can also have positive effect on employee performance (EP) through the pathway of employee well-being (EWB) / happiness at work (HAW) and Trust in supervisor (TIS).

In Study 1, according to the regression analysis, mediation analysis and robustness check, employee well-being (EWB) partially mediates between performance management practice (PMP) and employee performance (EP), and Trust in Supervisor (TIS) also partially mediates between Performance Management Practice (PMP) and Employee Well-being. When without control for covariates, employee well-being (EWB) partially mediates between trust in supervisor (TIS) and Employee Performance. However, when with control for covariates, employee well-being (EWB) fully mediates between trust in supervisor (TIS) and employee performance (EP). This mediating effect from partial to full when control for covariates has indicated that the effect of employee well-being (EWB) cannot be overlooked. This finding suggests HR practitioners and managers to consider the important role of employee well-being when they aim to enhance employee performance. The actual organizational dynamics are much more complex than those hypothesized in the initial model. When HR practitioners design performance management practice to drive employee performance, they should not only take into account the impact of employee well-being but also conduct a thorough analysis of the organization's demographic status. When managers implement performance management practice to drive employee performance, they must take care of employee well-being, and also need to adapt their communication way according to different demographic characteristics of employee.

Similarly, in Study 2, on the basis of regression analysis, mediation analysis and robustness check, happiness at work (HAW) partially mediates between trust in supervisor (TIS) and employee performance (EP), and trust in supervisor (TIS) also partially mediates between managerial coaching (MC) and happiness at work (HAW). When covariates are included, happiness at work (HAW) partially mediates between managerial coaching (MC) and employee performance (EP). However, without the control for covariates, happiness at work (HAW) fully mediates between managerial coaching (MC) and employee performance (EP). One more important finding in Study 2 is, whether or not control for covariates are involved, managerial coaching (MC) has no direct effect on employee performance (EP). Only when it is through trust in supervisor (TIS) or happiness at work (HAW), or both trust in supervisor (TIS) and happiness at work (HAW), can it have an effect on employee performance (EP). This has indicated that when managers would like to improve their employees' performance through their coaching, they need to be mindful about building trust with their employees and taking care of their employees' well-being.

All the above analysis and discussion indicate that the underlying mechanism driving employee performance is complex with many antecedents having a positive effect on employee performance as well on employee well-being. Employee well-being (EWB) / happiness at work (HAW) are particularly important because in some circumstances, it is the pathway for other antecedents to take positive effect on employee performance (EP), which is also consistent with the conclusion of some other studies (Khoreva & Wechtler, 2018; Parent-Lamarche et al., 2021).

These findings directly contribute to solving the core research problem of identifying how organizations can simultaneously enhance employee's performance and well-being without trading one for the other. By demonstrating that well-being functions as both an outcome and a pathway, this research provides empirical grounding for sustainable HRM strategies that reject the performance-well-being paradox.

5.1 Theoretical Implications

Both Study 1 and Study 2 took a holistic view by examining employee performance (EP) as well as employee well-being (EWB) / happiness at work (HAW), which is a departure from previous research that often focused on one aspect or the other (Triansyah et al., 2023). This integrated approach offers empirical insights into the role of employee well-being (EWB) / happiness at work (HAW) as a mediator between trust in supervisor (TIS) and employee performance as well as managerial coaching (MC) and employee performance, a relationship that has been underexplored in the literature (Ali et al., 2018; Haryanto, 2021). By doing so, this research not only broadens the scope of understanding within these domains but also provides a more comprehensive framework for organizations to consider when evaluating the impact of managers' behaviours on both employee well-being (EWB) / happiness at work (HAW) and employee performance (EP) (Nyfoudi et al., 2023; Tanskanen et al., 2019).

This integrated approach of investigating both employee's well-being/happiness at work and performance outcomes simultaneously, also responds to repeated calls in the HRM literature for studies that capture the full range of employee psychological mechanisms to HRM practices (Guest, 2017; Peccei, 2004). The findings from the two

studies align with and extend the mutual gains perspective that has gained prominence in HRM scholarship (Van De Voorde et al., 2012; Peccei & Van De Voorde, 2019). This research has provided the specific psychological mechanisms through which HRM practices can benefit both employee well-being and performance simultaneously, while such dual benefits have remained underspecified in previous literature (Peccei & Van De Voorde, 2019).

Furthermore, the specific psychological mechanisms in this research, trust in supervisor and employee well-being as sequential mediators, has provided a response to the well-being paradox, which was posited by Ho (2018) and Ho and Kuvaas (2020). They questioned whether HRM systems are inherently good or bad for employee well-being. They also called for greater scholarly attention and empirical studies to gain a better trade-off. This present research has demonstrated that the relationship between HRM practices, employee well-being and performance is contingent upon both the employee's perception of HRM practices and the specific psychological mechanism. The sequential mediation pathway documented in this dissertation, wherein trust in supervisor is associated with employee well-being, and employee well-being is associated with performance, provides such configurational mechanism that has been absent from prior mutual gains theorizing (Peccei & Van De Voorde, 2019).

In Study 1 and Study 2, trust in supervisor (TIS) was included in both of the hypothesized models, and measured from different approach. Specifically, in Study 1, trust in supervisor (TIS) was measured from a single perspective by citing the questions mostly from loyalty perspective (Podsakoff et al., 1990). In Study 2, trust in supervisor

(TIS) was measured from integrating cognitive and affective elements (Yang & Mossholder, 2010). This measurement difference can be one of the causes why there is a different finding of trust in supervisor (TIS)'s effect on employee performance (EP). In Study 1 trust in supervisor (TIS) can take direct effect on employee performance (EP) without covariates, but cannot take direct effect with control for covariates. In Study 2, it can take direct effect whether with control for covariates or not. These different trials and findings can enrich existing trust theory by providing a more nuanced understanding of trust in supervisor (TIS) (Yang et al., 2009). The deeper examination of trust in supervisor (TIS) has recognized multi-aspects of cognitive grounded in reasoned judgments and experiential evidence and affective from interpersonal empathy and relational connection. By integrating these elements and findings, this study has contributed to a more nuanced and robust theoretical understanding on trust model in an organizational setting, which is critical for effective leadership and managerial practices (Farid et al., 2020; Williams, 2001). Managers are suggested to foster trust with their employees from both intellectual and emotional aspects, which is particularly important in Chinese culture (Chen et al., 2014; Xiong et al., 2016). Overall, the exploration on trust in Study 1 and 2 contributes value-added to the extant trust theory.

In Study 2, the finding of the mediating effect of employee well-being (EWB) / happiness at work (HAW) in the relationship between managerial coaching (MC) and employee performance (EP) aligns with the growing body of coaching research that recognizes the importance of employee well-being (EWB) / happiness at work (HAW)

in driving employee performance in a sustainable development way (Zhao & Liu, 2020). This study advances the theoretical understanding of managerial coaching by empirically testing the dual effect on both employee well-being (EWB) / happiness at work (HAW) and employee performance (EP) (Didymus et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2023). Therefore, organizations are encouraged to invest more deliberately in managers coaching behaviours. By prioritizing managerial coaching, organizations can achieve long-term development and performance, which is composed of happier employees with higher performance. However, by demonstrating that managerial coaching influences performance through the mediating pathways of trust and well-being, this study has emphasized the critical role of employee's psychological mechanisms in linking manager's coaching behaviours to performance outcomes. The findings are consistent with the social exchange theory perspective that emphasizes the importance of relational and psychological resources in fostering employee outcomes (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), and extend previous research by highlighting that managerial coaching may operate primarily through direct and indirect pathways of employee well-being and trust in supervisor (Huang & Hsieh, 2015; Kim, 2010).

This study empirically examined performance management practice (PMP) can positively affect employee well-being and further enhance employee performance, through different pathways of trust in supervisor (TIS) and employee well-being (EWB) / happiness at work (HAW). In this empirical way, it provides evidence to the theory of strategic HRM (Storey et al., 2019; Wright, 2007; Wright, 2021), especially adding value to performance management theory for organizations sustainable development.

The expected findings provide important lessons for organizations by way of the seriousness of their efforts towards performance management practice, as well as some emerging HRM theories like Green HRM (Renwick et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2020), Sustainable HRM (Chillakuri & Vanka, 2020; Qamar et al., 2023), and Well-being-oriented HRM (Hauff et al., 2020).

Last but not the least, this study advances the leadership literature by highlighting the important role of managers, who can make efforts to generate more positive outcomes on employee well-being (EWB) / happiness at work (HAW) and employee performance (EP). Managerial coaching (MC) as one of management support behaviours can be conducted to motivate employees to deliver performance while taking care of employee well-being (EWB) / happiness at work (HAW). When employees can observe the managerial coaching behaviours in their interaction with managers, their trust in managers can be built and further enhanced, which can further drive trusted culture at organizational level (Jaškevičiūtė, 2021).

In summary, this research makes six interrelated theoretical contributions. First, it has addressed the persistent fragmentation in HRM research and provided empirical grounding for mutual-gains outcome models. Second, by identifying trust and well-being as sequential mediators, it has responded to the well-being paradox Ho (2018) and Ho and Kuvaas (2020). Third, it has enriched understanding of trust dimensionality and its boundary conditions in high-intensity work contexts, which is particularly salient in the Chinese context, where relational bonds carry special cultural significance. Fourth, this research has extended managerial coaching literature by specifying the

employee's relational and psychological resources that link managerial coaching behaviours to sustainable performance outcomes. Fifth, it has contributed to HRM and performance management literature by providing empirical findings for how performance management practice can foster both well-being and performance. Furthermore, it has advanced leadership theory by highlighting managerial coaching as a key leadership behaviour that builds a foundation of trust and well-being from employee perceptions, thereby driving sustainable high performance.

5.2 Practical Implications

This study provides HR practitioners and managers with several practical implications. For HR practitioners, there are three implications. Firstly, aiming to build sustained competitive advantage for organizations, a set of performance management practices are utilized to drive employee performance by taking care of their well-being, as indicated by the well-being-oriented HRM (Hauff et al., 2020; Salas-Vallina et al., 2020). Performance-oriented practices that only focus on performance can have certain positive effects on employee performance improvement in a short timeframe, but in the long run, it is neither good for employee well-being nor for employee performance (Sutton & Atkinson, 2023).

Secondly, in order to design a well-being-oriented performance management practice, HR practitioners should integrate a pay-for-performance incentive system, along with setting clear performance goals and providing continuous feedback. By this blended approach, employee extrinsic motivations and intrinsic motivations can be well satisfied, which is essential to put employee potential into full play. The extrinsic

motivation component can be fulfilled by a scientifically designed pay-for-performance schemes that establish clear performance-reward contingencies (Gerhart & Fang, 2015). Intrinsic motivation like autonomy and competence development can be satisfied by the supportive behaviours from managers and HR practitioners' side such as managerial coaching, target setting process, and also continuous feedback on development and performance. In summary, a well-designed performance management practice that balances extrinsic and intrinsic motivations can be helpful for an organization to enhance employee well-being as well as performance by creating a comprehensive motivational scheme and culture. This approach not only satisfies diverse employee needs but also drives superior performance within a trusted organizational culture.

Thirdly, on the basis of established finding in Study 1 and 2 of the positive effect of trust in supervisor (TIS) on employee well-being and performance, HRM practices should be deliberately designed to foster employees' trust in their managers. It is crucial for HR practitioners to design, monitor managers' implementation, and also manage employee perception of the HRM practices. For instance, how to ensure managers follow the guidance of a well-designed performance management practice, and how to shape employees' positive perception of performance management practice, which require HR practitioners' competences like key stakeholder management capability, communication skills, strategic business acumen, etc. By making sure all these elements are in place, HR practitioners can significantly contribute to establishing a trusting, well-being-oriented, and high-performing working environment for an organization and for employees.

For managers, there are also three pieces of practical advice. Firstly, under the increasing pressures from external market and internal organizational competition, it is still essential for managers to prioritize employee well-being (EWB) / happiness at work (HAW) to the continuous enhancement of employee performance. The empirical findings from Study 2 have shown that even some performance-driven coaching behaviour cannot directly exert positive effect on employee performance. In certain cases, managers overlook the emotional and psychological well-being of their team members, and they find that their efforts to improve performance through coaching behaviour or other management behaviour are ineffective to enhance employee performance. Expanding on this, managerial practices must involve the integration of well-being programs into daily coaching, making sure that employees feel supported and valued. By prioritizing employee well-being, managers can demonstrate a working culture where high performance is not just the goal for an organization but a natural outcome of a well-being oriented, positive and supportive work environment.

Secondly, trust has been served as a critical element in the employer-employee relationship (Brandl, 2021; Faruk, 2019). Building on the findings from Study 1 and 2 that trust in supervisor is crucial to enhance employee well-being and performance, managers are encouraged to build, develop and maintain the trusted relationship with their employees. Coupled with the emphasis on the trusted relationship in Chinese culture, in China managers need to take initiatives to build, develop and maintain the trusted relationship with their employees by integrating trust-building practices into their daily leadership behaviours and also by prioritizing employee well-being in their

daily coaching behaviours. With these cognitive endeavours on communication and continuous feedback to employees, managers can nurture a trusted culture in an organization setting, in which employees feel recognized, engaged and motivated for continuous high performance delivery.

Thirdly, managers are encouraged to cooperate with HR practitioners to well-implement performance management practice. They shall not complain about the performance management practice designed by HR practitioners. Instead, they should be proactively involved in the design phase of performance management practice by providing insights and experience. Managers own motivation to set the performance targets with employees and behaviours of giving performance feedback continuously will exert impact on employee well-being and performance. Their own perception of performance management practice will also have an effect on employee well-being and performance. By adopting the mind-set of collaborating with HR practitioners and also these daily managerial practices, managers can win the trust from their employees, and foster a more satisfied and engaging culture for employees to sustainably deliver high performance.

The above points respectively illustrate the practical implications for HR and managers. Moreover, the following practical significance are common to both HR and managers. When assessing employee perceptions, this research measures subjective interpretations of HRM practices. Specifically, how employees experience and perceive the fairness and accuracy of performance management practice and how employees observe and interpret the managerial coaching behaviours. These perceptual

assessments capture the psychological reality and mechanism that drives employee attitudinal and behavioural outcomes, rather than objective evaluating from authoritative perspective. This employee-centered perspective is extremely helpful for HR practitioners and managers when they are working together to motivate employees to achieve performance in an organizational context.

5.3 Limitations and Future Research

There are five limitations of the extant study which should be mentioned. First, the sample size of Study 1 is relatively modest, and Study 2 expanded the survey participants while reducing the number of survey questions. Consequently, there have been some inconsistency in the analysed results of Study 1 and 2. So that this factor of affecting the reliability of any generalizations should be taken into consideration. It should be cautious to extrapolate the findings to a larger populations or in a different context, since the small sample may not capture the full variability which might present in a more diverse population. Despite of all the hypotheses supported in Study 1 and 2, implicating substantial effects of HRM practices and managerial practices on employee well-being and performance, it is valid for future research to conduct with a larger population.

Second, Study 1 was originally planned to apply a longitudinal method in the company the author was working for, in order to keep track on the causality of the relationship in the hypothesized model. The impact of HRM practices and managerial practices over employee well-being and performance is not an immediate effect, and the trust building also takes time, so that future research endeavours are encouraged to

conduct longitudinal studies in an extended timeframe. Within a longer time, how the dynamic effect of performance management practice and managerial coaching take place on employee well-being and performance can be observed in a subtler and deeper way. A longitudinal approach would be particularly valuable in capturing such changes during the extended timeframe, so that it is helpful for the research results to be expected convincing by providing a clearer picture of the mechanisms at play.

Third, both Study 1 and 2 were conducted in China, and all the survey participants were Chinese, which is disadvantageous for generalizability of future studies. It is recommended to expand survey population from other countries in future to cover more diverse groups and more cross-cultural contexts. This kind of international approach would increase the reliability and credibility of research results. By gaining insights into cultural nuances and regional differences, multinational corporations will be beneficial from the research results for them to tailor HRM practices and managerial practices for organizations sustainable development with employee well-being and performance.

Fourth, the research data of Study 1 and 2 were collected from the survey participants from their own perspective on well-being and performance. In order to avoid being too subjective, Study 1 employed 23 questions for participants to evaluate their performance from 3 aspects of task performance, adaptive performance, and contextual performance, and Study 2 added one performance-promoter-score question. However, as several researchers have already highlighted, there is a notable discrepancy between self-assessments and evaluations made by objective parties, such as

supervisors or managers, particularly when it pertains to assessing an employee's performance (Groen et al., 2017). There is also a propensity for employees themselves to overrate on own performance levels (Aguinis & Burgi-Tian, 2021). Therefore, the survey approach of collecting self-reported data has faced such challenges (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). In light of this, it is advised that future research endeavours could include 360-degree feedback and collecting performance data from managers perspective, which might be more objective (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff et al., 2024). In doing so, it can help to minimize the potential bias and to provide a more accurate picture of employee well-being and performance.

Last but not least, there is not an overarching theory to examine the hypothesized relationship in the models. Instead, a diverse theoretical frameworks were studied and employed to observe the varied impacts of performance management practice and managerial coaching on employee well-being and performance. There is a clear need to study employee motivation to work so that the deliberately designed HRM practices and managerial practices can exert effective influence to enhance employee well-being and performance. However, employee needs on the job and motivation to work are evolving with business and economic development, it is too dynamic and too complicated. Therefore, it is essential for researchers and practitioners to dive deeper into the needs and motivation theories and organizational dynamics, to ensure an effective strategy and practices to positively influence employee well-being and performance by creating a more trusting culture in an organization setting.

In short summary, the evolution from Study 1 to Study 2 exemplifies how the

researcher turns practical challenges and methodological constraints into research opportunities through growth mind-set and iterative learning. These learning experiences shape a management research approach that balances analytical rigor with practical relevance, as well as universal theoretical claims with contextual sensitivity. The final two-study design with its explicit acknowledgment of limitations and iterative refinement reflects not an initial design perfection but an adaptive learning throughout the research journey.

Chapter 6. Conclusion

This dissertation investigated the relationship between HRM and managerial practices and employee performance and paid particular attention to the underlying mechanism of trust in supervisor (TIS) and employee well-being/happiness at work (EWB/HAW) as mediating roles. The two empirical studies conducted in China offer complementary insights into the underlying mechanisms through which HRM and managerial practices influence employee performance. The findings from both studies provide consistent evidence that trust in supervisor and employee well-being/happiness at work serve as critical pathways through which HRM and managerial practices influence performance and further make several key contributions to both theory and practice.

In Study 1, the employee's perceptions of performance management practice demonstrate both direct and indirect effects on employee well-being and performance. Meanwhile trust in supervisor and employee's well-being operate as mediators between the employee's perceptions of performance management practice and performance. Notably, the mediating effect of employee well-being on the relationship between trust in supervisor and performance is robust across both direct and indirect pathways. And when controlling for covariates, the direct effect of trust in supervisor on employee performance became non-significant, while the indirect pathway through employee well-being remained robust. These findings underscore the robustness of employee well-being as a critical transmission mechanism, further highlighting the theoretical and practical imperative to design performance management practice from a well-being-

oriented perspective, with deliberate attention to fostering trust relationships, instead of only pursuing immediate performance outcomes.

Study 2 has revealed a more complex model that while simple regression analyses indicate significant direct positive relationship between managerial coaching and performance, mediation analyses demonstrate that when trust in supervisor and happiness at work are simultaneously included in the model, managerial coaching shows no significant direct effect on employee performance. In addition, the influence of managerial coaching on performance is more pronounced through the sequential mediation pathway (MC→TIS→HAW→EP) compared with the simple mediation pathways through trust in supervisor (TIS) or happiness at work (HAW) alone. This has suggested that trust functions as a foundational relational resource that is associated with well-being, which is in turn linked to performance. These findings challenge assumptions that coaching behaviours in organizational context are automatically associated with performance. Rather, it highlights the necessity for managers to prioritize employee well-being and foster trust, thereby creating the conditions and nurturing cultures through which sustainable performance enhancement can be achieved.

Building on the learnings throughout Study 1 and Study 2, the author is motivated to conduct another management research in the current organizational setting. This future research is planned to adopt a longitudinal design to examine how performance management practice and managerial coaching exert influence on employee well-being and performance over time. With the awareness of addressing the limitations noted

above in this dissertation, the future research will enable stronger causal inferences and create more practical values by applying the methodological rigor and theoretical insights gained through this present research.

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Appendices

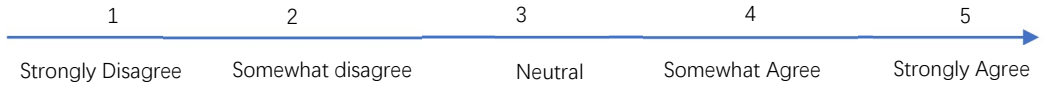
Appendix 1: Complete Survey Questionnaire of Study 1

Dear colleague,

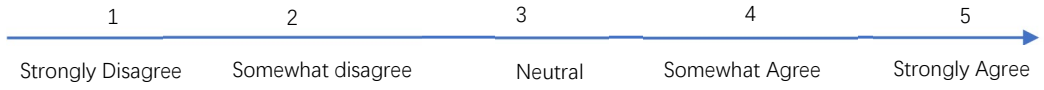
Thank you for your interest to voluntarily participate in this anonymous survey. It is designed to serve the purpose of exploring what can promote our employee's well-being & performance, and comprehensively enhance our HTC's sustainable competitiveness as a whole. It should take you less than 15 minutes to complete. All data collected will be kept strictly confidential and will only be used for research projects to achieve the above-mentioned purpose. Please feel free to choose the answer that best fits your own situation. Thank you!

Section I

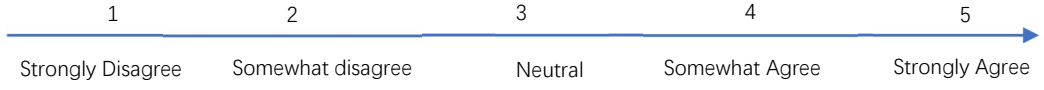
1. The performance plan gives a clear idea of what is expected of me to meet organizational goals.



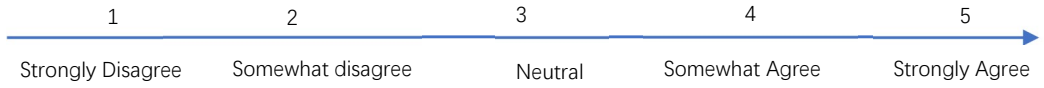
2. The performance plan helps me focus my efforts through identification of goals and behaviours relevant to meet organizational goals.



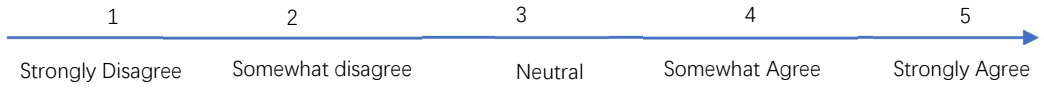
3. My manager and I update my goals as business goals change.



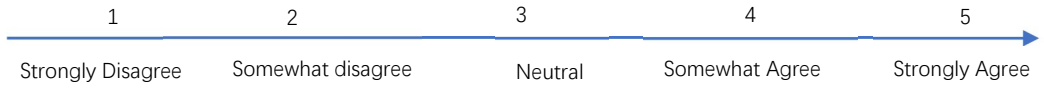
4. The ongoing feedback during the performance cycle gives an accurate evaluation of how I am performing against planned performance.



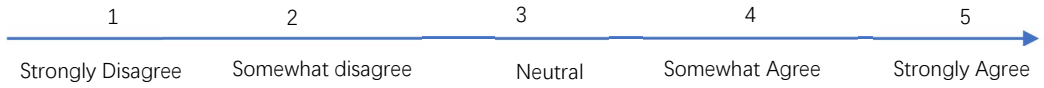
5. During the year my areas for improvement are clearly pointed out to me.



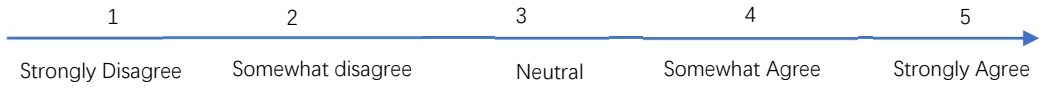
6. I get the coaching I need during the year to achieve my goals and improve my behaviours/skills to achieve planned performance.



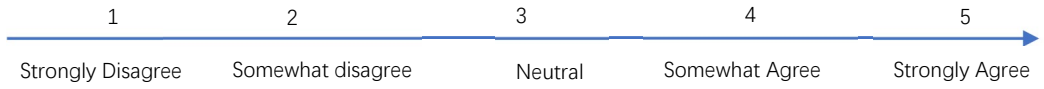
7. Annual feedback during performance review is an accurate representation of the ongoing feedback during the performance cycle.



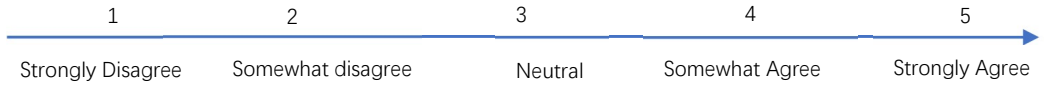
8. My goals (behaviours / skills) are accurately rated as part of the review process.



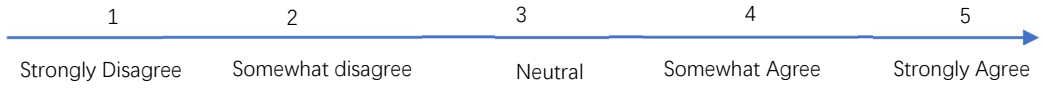
9. My annual performance review is very objective in assessment of my annual performance against planned performance.



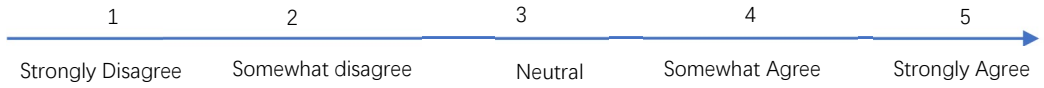
10. Performance review results in an accurate performance rating.



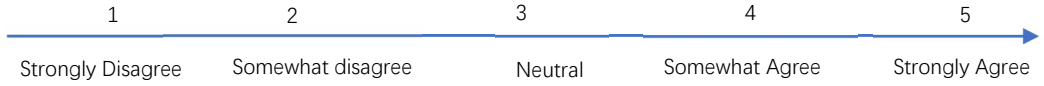
11. My outcomes (compensation, reward and recognition) are linked to my performance rating.



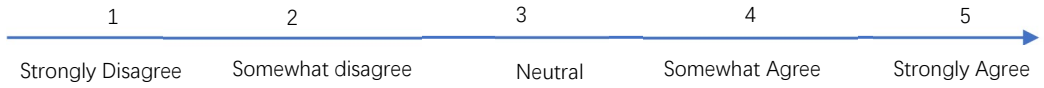
12. My annual performance review is directly related to my outcomes (compensation, reward and/or recognition).



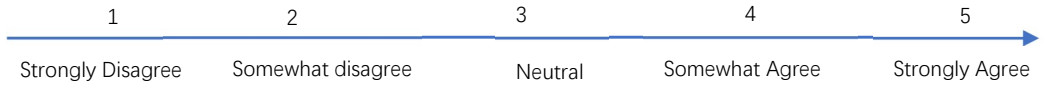
13. I feel quite confident that my supervisor will always try to treat me fairly.



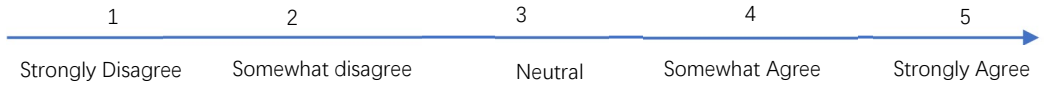
14. My supervisor would never try to gain an advantage by deceiving workers.



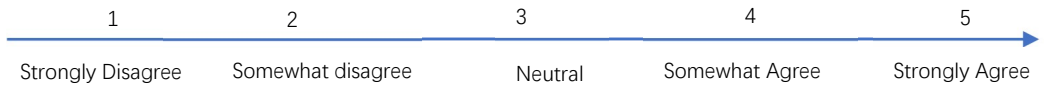
15. I have complete faith in the integrity of my supervisor.



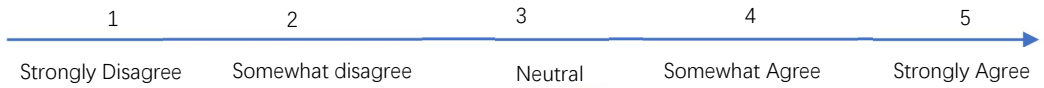
16. I feel a strong loyalty to my supervisor.



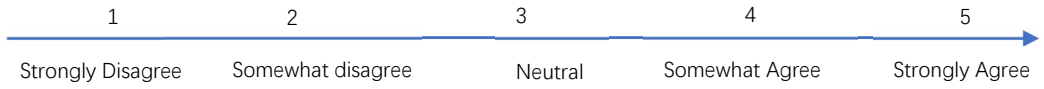
17. I would support my supervisor in almost any emergency.



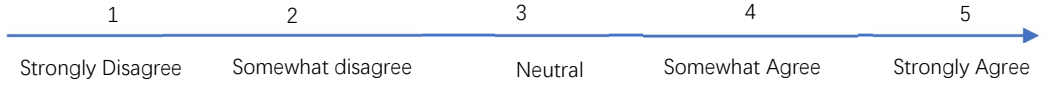
18. I have a divided sense of loyalty toward my supervisor.



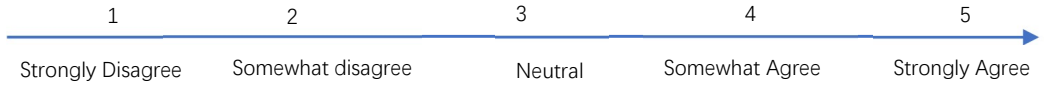
19. I am sure I fully trust HTC.



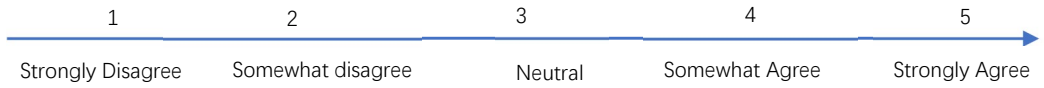
20. HTC is open and upfront with me.



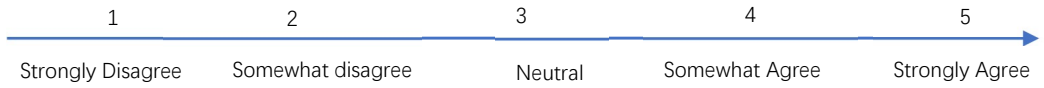
21. I believe HTC has high integrity.



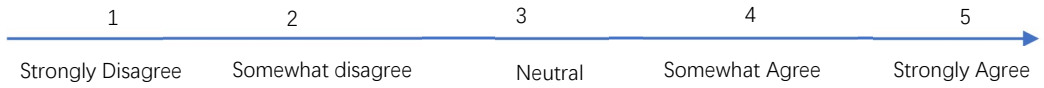
22. In general, I believe HTC's motives and intentions are good.



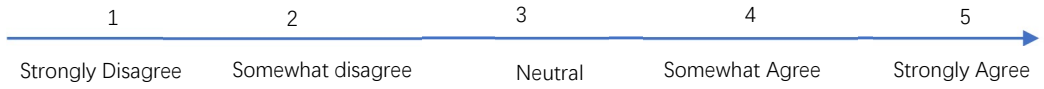
23. HTC is not always honest and truthful.



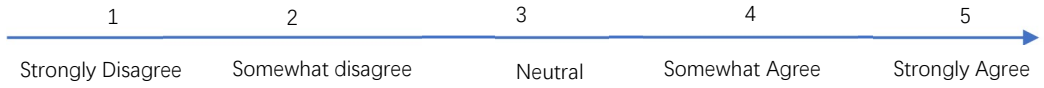
24. I don't think HTC treats me fairly.



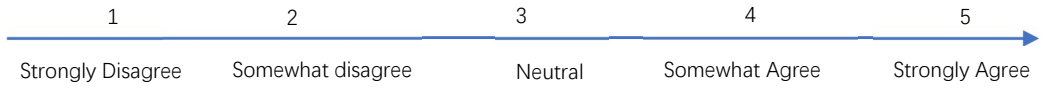
25. I can expect HTC to treat me in a consistent and predictable fashion.



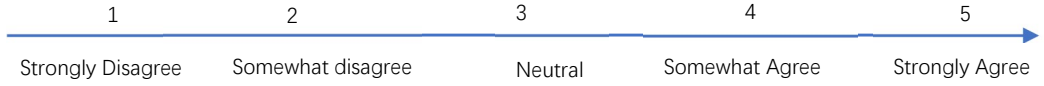
26. Most of my fellow workers would get on with their work even if supervisors were not around.



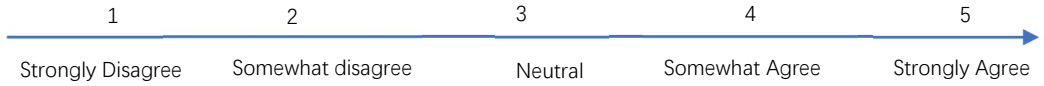
27. I have full confidence in the skills of my fellow workers.



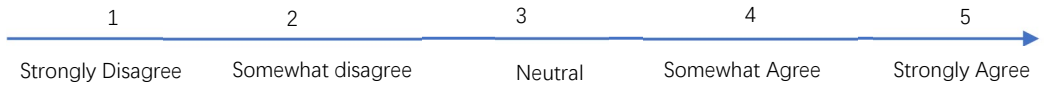
28. My fellow workers do the minimum amount of work just to get by.



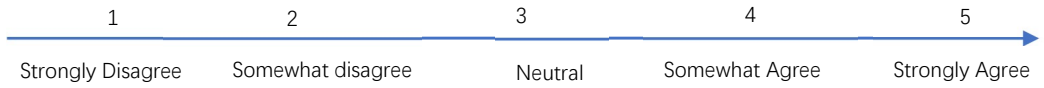
29. I am satisfied with my work responsibilities.



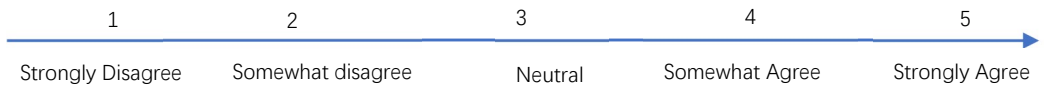
30. In general, I feel fairly satisfied with my present job.



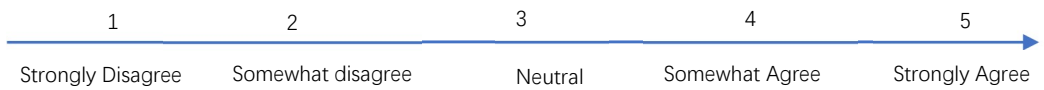
31. I find real enjoyment in my work.



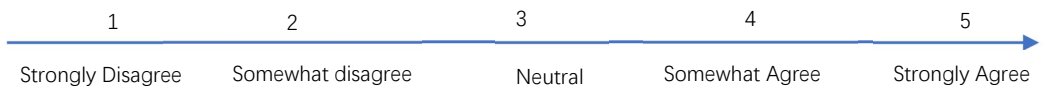
32. I can always find ways to enrich my work.



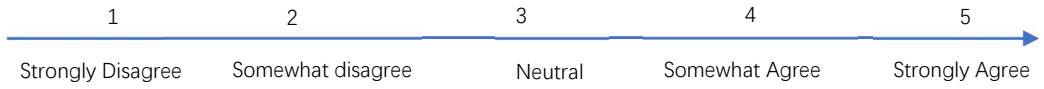
33. Work is a meaningful experience for me.



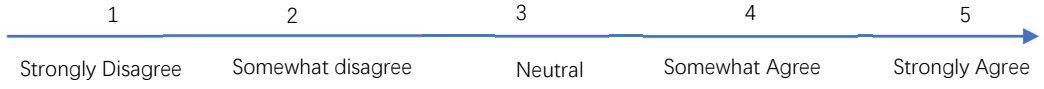
34. I feel basically satisfied with my work achievements in my current job.



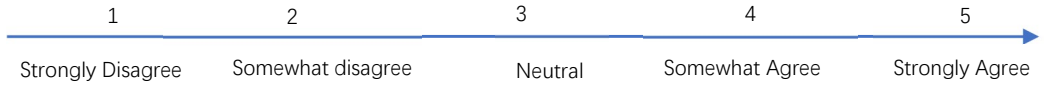
35. I feel I have grown as a person.



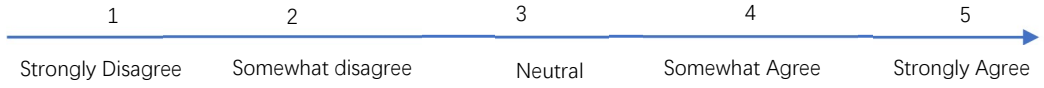
36. I handle daily affairs well.



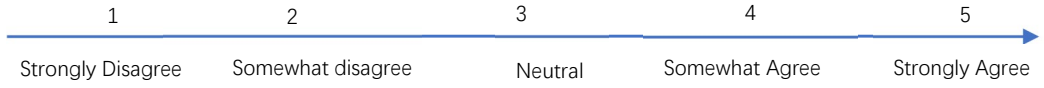
37. I generally feel good about myself, and I'm confident.



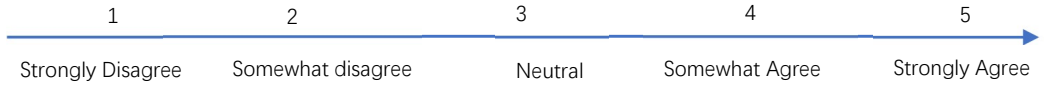
38. People think I am willing to give and to share my time with others.



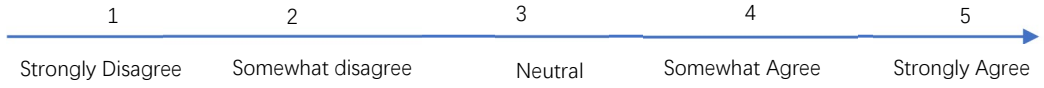
39. I am good at making flexible timetables for my work.



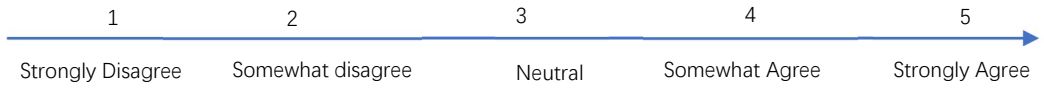
40. I enjoy having deep conversations with family and friends so that we can better understand each other.



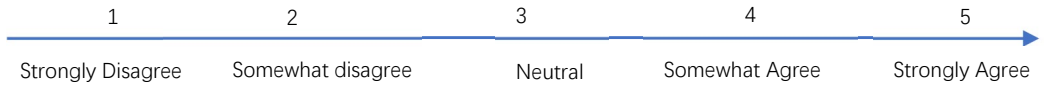
41. I maintain high standard of work.



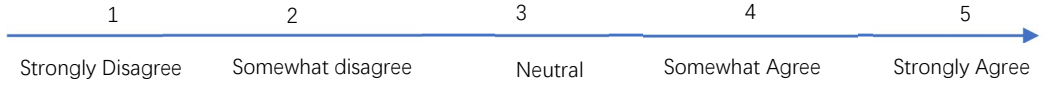
42. I am capable of handling my assignments without much supervision.



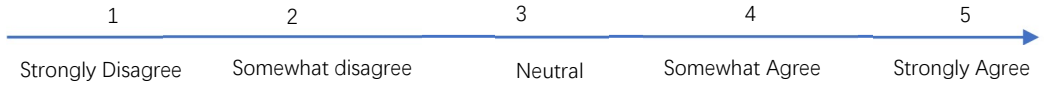
43. I am very passionate about my work.



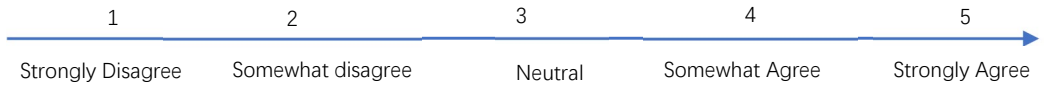
44. I know I can handle multiple assignments for achieving organizational goals.



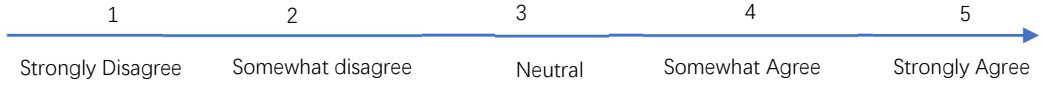
45. I complete my assignments on time.



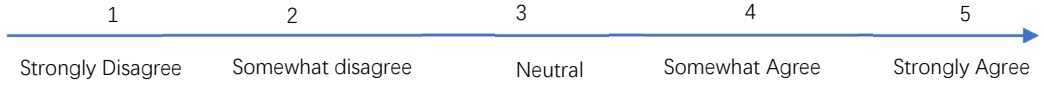
46. My colleagues believe I am a high performer in HTC.



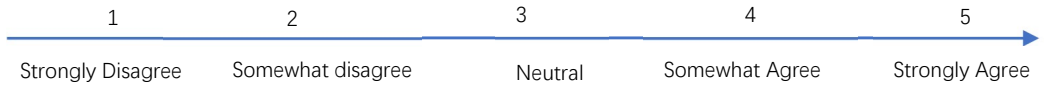
47. I perform well to mobilize collective intelligence for effective team work.



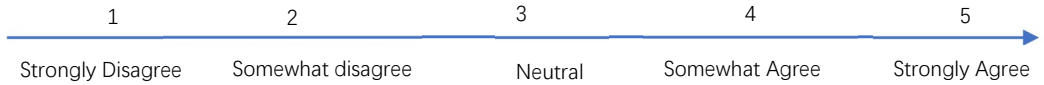
48. I can manage change in my job very well whenever the situation demands.



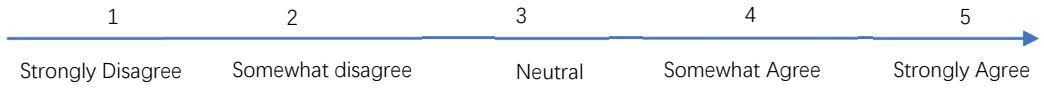
49. I can handle effectively my work team in the face of change.



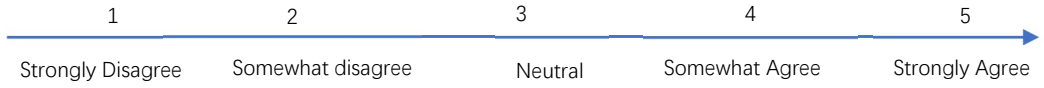
50. I always believe that mutual understanding can lead to a viable solution in HTC.



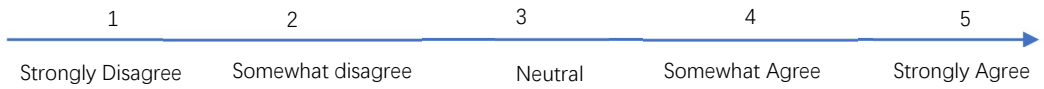
51. I lose my temper when faced with criticism from my team members.



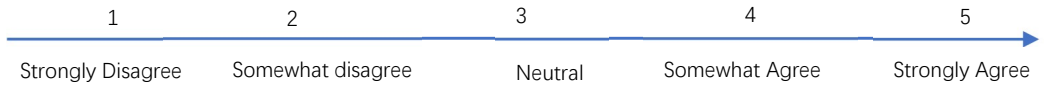
52. I am very comfortable with job flexibility.



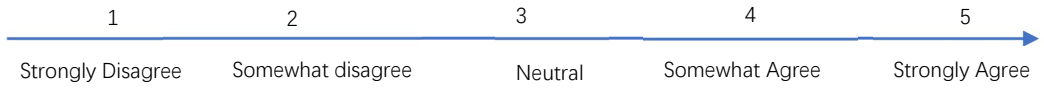
53. I cope well with organizational changes from time to time.



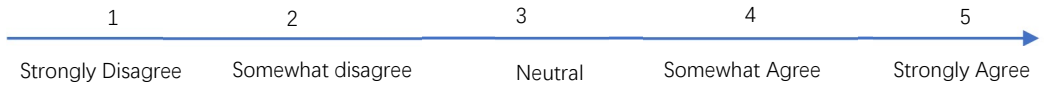
54. I extend help to my co-workers when asked or needed.



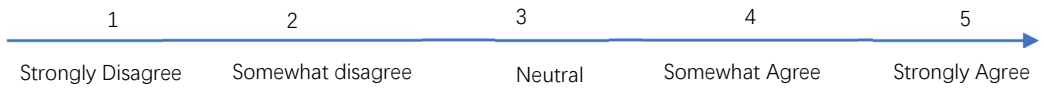
55. I like to handle extra responsibilities.



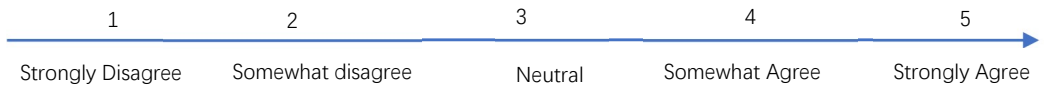
56. I extend my sympathy and empathy to my co-workers when they are in trouble.



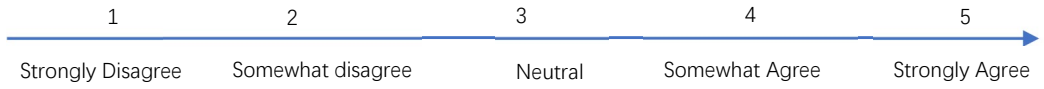
57. I actively participate in group discussions and work meetings.



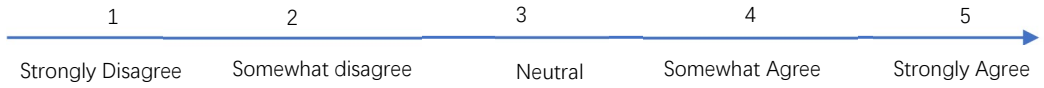
58. I praise my co-workers for their good work.



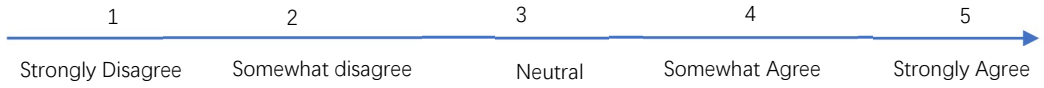
59. I derive a lot of satisfaction nurturing others in HTC.



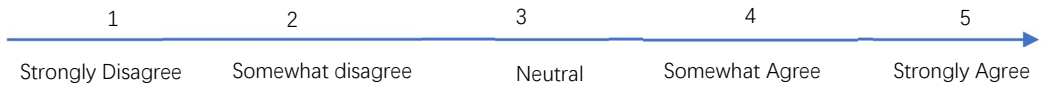
60. I share knowledge and ideas among my team members.



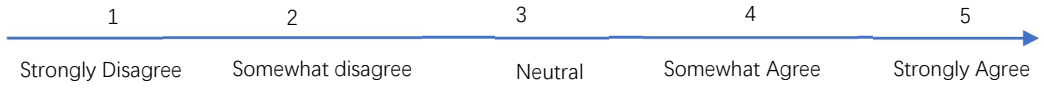
61. I maintain good coordination among fellow workers.



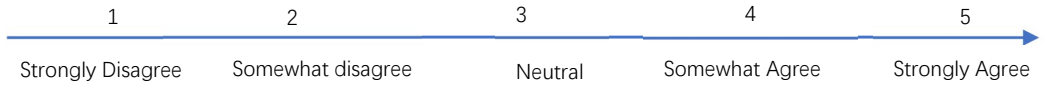
62. I guide new colleagues beyond my job purview.



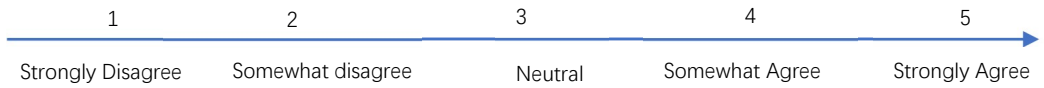
63. I communicate effectively with my colleagues for problem solving and decision making.



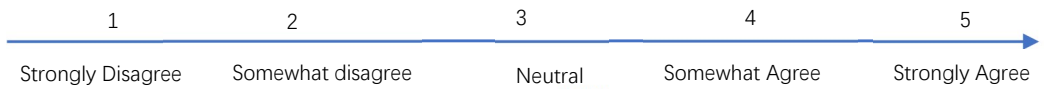
64. CEO in HTC communicates a clear and positive vision of the future.



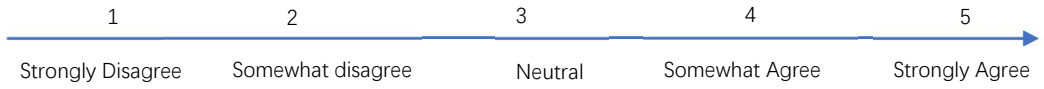
65. CEO in HTC treats staff as individuals, supports and encourages their development.



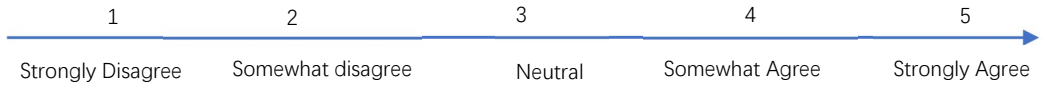
66. CEO in HTC gives encouragement and recognition to staff.



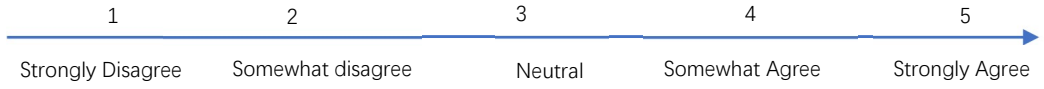
67. CEO in HTC fosters trust, involvement and co-operation among team members.



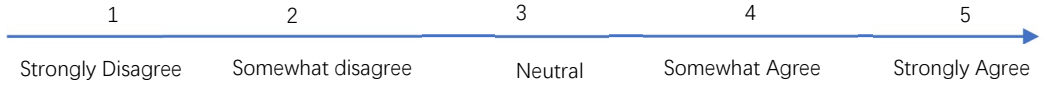
68. CEO in HTC encourages thinking about problems in new ways and questions assumptions.



69. CEO in HTC is clear about his/her values and practices what he/she preaches.



70. CEO in HTC instils pride and respect in others and inspires me by being highly competent.



71. Are there any other factors which might affect my well-being? If yes, please give some examples in detail.

72. Are there any other factors which might affect my performance? If yes, please give some examples in detail.

Section II

1. How old are you?

A. <35 years old B. 35~45 years old C. >45 years' old

2. What is your gender?

   A. female B. male

3. How many years have you been working for HTC?

   A. <12 months B. 12-36 months C. >36 months

4. What is your highest education?

   A. Bachelor or below B. Master or above

5. What is your salary range?

   A. <100,000RMB/year B. 100,000~300,000RMB/year

   C. 300,000~500,000RMB/year D. >500,000RMB/year

6. Which function are you currently in?

   A. Research & Development B. Manufacture C. Sales & Marketing

   D. Other supporting functions

Thank you very much again!

Yours sincerely,

Human Resource Department

Appendix 2: Complete Survey Questionnaire of Study 2 (bilingual)

Dear Mr./Ms ,

Thank you for your interest to voluntarily join this study, which is a management study by Durham University and Fudan University. It is designed to serve the purpose of exploring what can promote our happiness at work as well as performance. It should take you less than 10 minutes to complete. Before start, please read the items below carefully.

If you consent to being part of this study, please click on the box marked yes at the end of the form. If you do not consent, please click on no and you will be redirected out of the survey.

1. I confirm that I have read the above information. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time during answering the survey questions without giving any reason and without my legal rights being affected.

3. I understand that relevant sections of the data collected during the study, may be looked at by members of the research team at Durham University (United Kingdom) and Fudan University (People's Republic of China), where it is relevant to my taking part in this research. I give permission for these individuals to have access to my records.

4. I understand that the survey questionnaire responses are completely anonymous.

5. I understand that my data will be used for the purposes of:

a) inclusion in a survey database for a period of up to 10 years.

b) shared with other researchers for use in future research projects.

c) reports published in an academic publication, project website or media publication.

d) teaching or training materials for use in University activities and public engagement activities

I agree to take part in the above study.

Yes

No

If you need the research result report, please provide your contact details.

尊敬的　先生/女士:

感谢您有兴趣自愿参加这项由杜伦大学和复旦大学共同进行的管理学研究。它旨在探索什么因素能在提升我们工作幸福感的同时还可以提升我们的绩效表现。整个问卷需要不到10分钟的时间来完成。在开始调研问卷作答前，请仔细阅读下面的信息进行授权。

如果您同意参与本研究，请点击本页尾处“是”的圆圈。如果您不同意，请点击“否”，您将退出该调研页面。

1.我确认我已经阅读了上述信息。我有机会考虑这些信息，提出疑问，并得到了令人满意的回答。

2.我理解我的参与是自愿的，我可以在回答调研问卷的过程中随时退出，无需说明任何原因，我的合法权利也不受影响。

3.我理解我所做出的回答及提供的数据的相关部分可能会由杜伦大学（英国）和复旦大学（中华人民共和国）的研究团队成员查看，我允许这些人访问我的记录。

4.我理解调查问卷中涉及的回复及信息都是匿名的。

5.我理解我的数据将用于:

a）包含在调查数据库中长达10年。

b）与其他研究人员共享以用于未来的研究项目。

c） 在学术出版物、项目网站或媒体出版物上发表的报告。

d） 用于大学活动和公众参与活动的教学或培训材料

我同意参加上述研究。

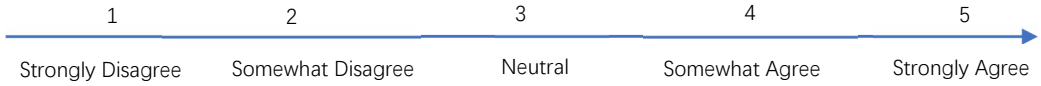
○是

○否

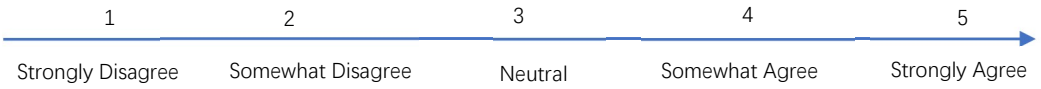
如果您需要研究结果报告，请提供您的联系方式。

Section I

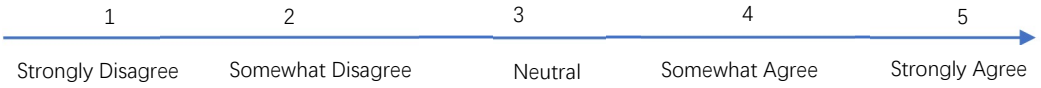
1. My supervisor provides me with constructive feedback. 我的直接主管会给我提供建设性反馈。



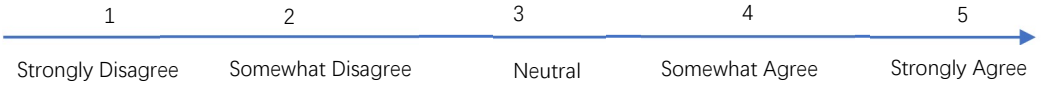
2. My supervisor solicits feedback from me to ensure that his/her interactions are helpful to me. 我的直接主管会征求我的意见，以确保他/她与我的互动对我是有帮助的。



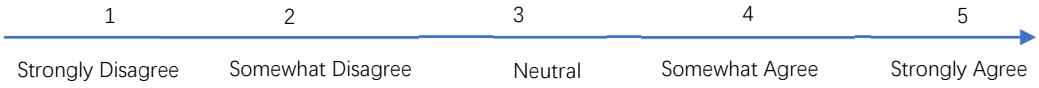
3. My supervisor provides me with resources so I can perform my job more effectively. 我的直接主管提供资源给我，使我能够更有效地完成工作。



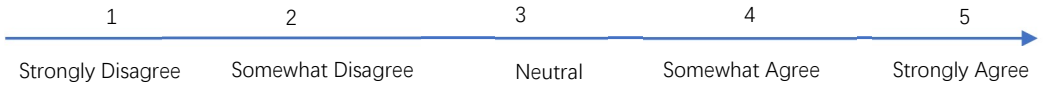
4. To help me think through issues, my supervisor asks questions, rather than provides solutions. 我的直接主管用提问的方式帮助我深入思考问题，而不是用直接给答案的方式。



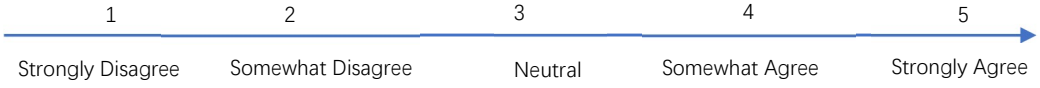
5. My supervisor sets expectations with me and communicates the importance of those expectations to the broader goals of the company. 我的直接主管给我设定期望，并跟我传达这些期望对于实现公司更大目标的重要性。



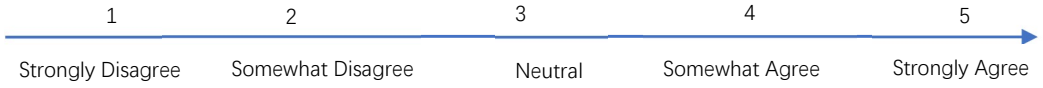
6. My supervisor encourages me to broaden my perspectives by helping me to see the big picture. 我的直接主管鼓励我拓宽视野，帮助我看到大局。



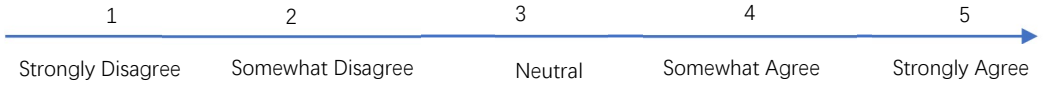
7. I can depend on my supervisor to meet his/her responsibilities. 我相信我的直接主管能够履行他/她的职责。



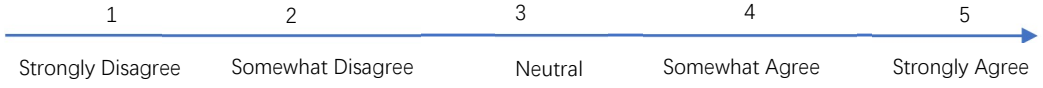
8. I can rely on my supervisor to do what is best at work. 我信赖我的直接主管在工作中做到最好。



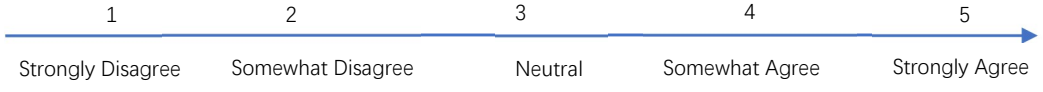
9. My supervisor follows through with commitments s(he) makes. 我的直接主管会履行其做出的承诺。



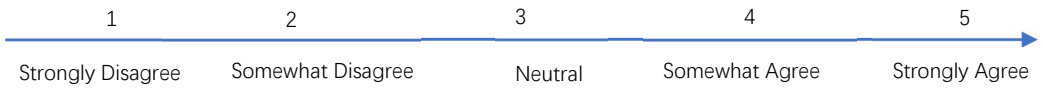
10. Given my supervisor's track record, I see no reason to doubt his/her competence. 鉴于我直接主管的过往记录，我没有理由怀疑他/她的胜任能力。



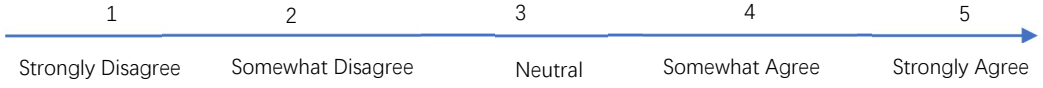
11. I'm confident in my supervisor because (s)he approaches work with professionalism. 我对我的直接主管有信心，因为他/她以专业的态度对待工作。



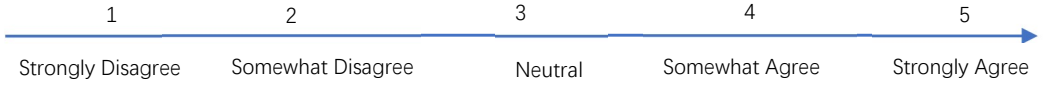
12. I'm confident that my supervisor will always care about my personal needs at work. 我相信我的直接主管会始终关心我在工作中的个人需求。



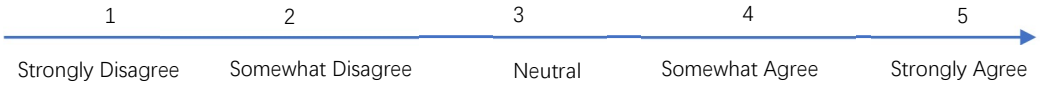
13. If I shared my problems with my supervisor, I know (s)he would respond with care. 如果我与我的直接主管分享我所遇到的问题，我知道他/她会认真对待。



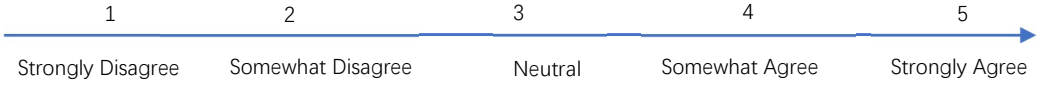
14. I'm confident that I could share my work difficulties with my supervisor. 我相信我可以与我的直接主管分享我的工作困难。



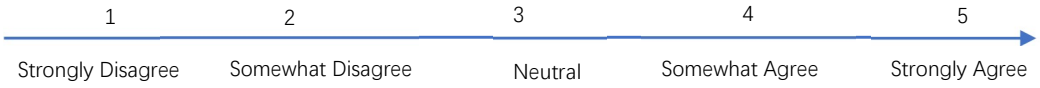
15. I'm sure I could openly communicate my feelings to my supervisor. 我确信我可以坦诚布公地与我的直接主管交流我的感受。



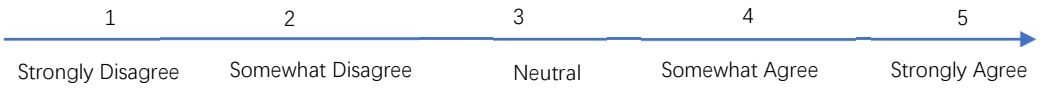
16. I feel secure with my supervisor because of his/her sincerity. 我对我的直接主管感到放心，因为他很真诚。



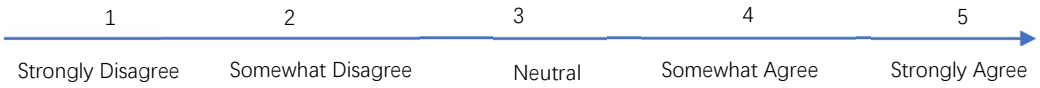
17. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous. 工作时，我感觉精力充沛。



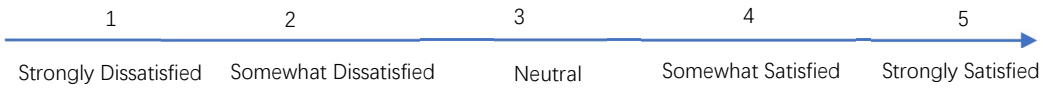
18. I am enthusiastic about my job. 我对工作充满热情。



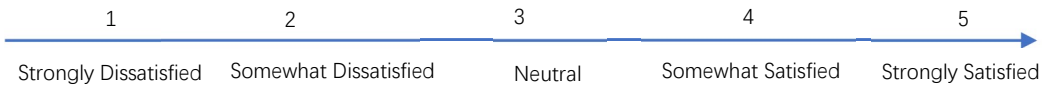
19. I get carried away when I am working. 工作时我会沉浸其中。



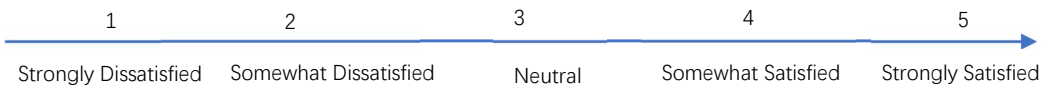
20. How satisfied are you with the nature of the work you perform? 您对自己所从事的工作性质有多满意?



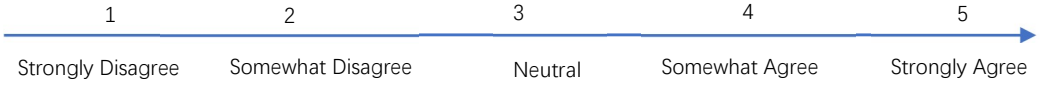
21. How satisfied are you with the pay you receive for your job? 您对自己工作所获得的薪酬有多满意?



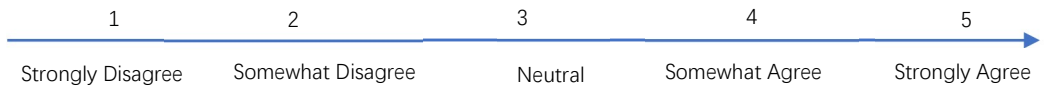
22. How satisfied are you with the opportunities which exist in this company for advancement (promotion)? 您对目前公司提供的晋升机会有多满意?



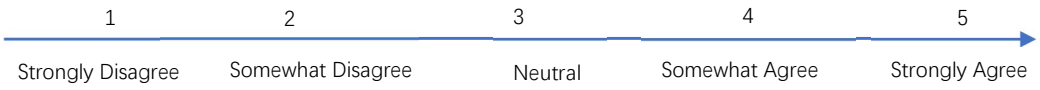
23. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this company. 我很乐意在目前公司度过我职业生涯的剩余时间。



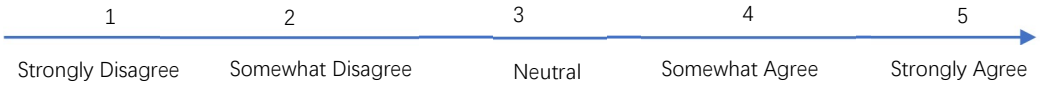
24. I feel emotionally attached to this company. 我对目前公司感情深厚。



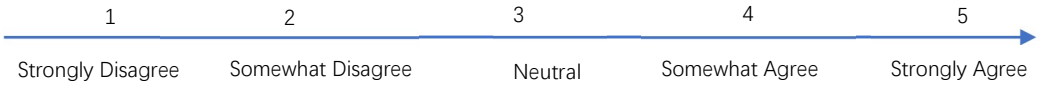
25. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my company. 我对目前公司有强烈的归属感。



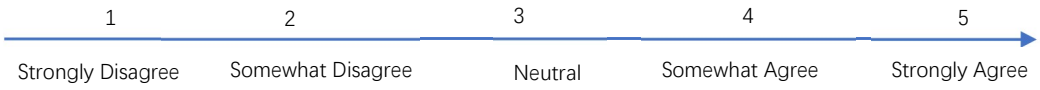
26. I can finish the given task on time. 我能按时完成布置给我的任务。



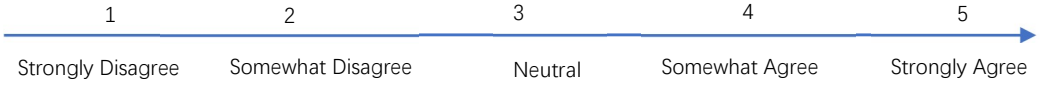
27. I can understand my supervisor's direction to achieve optimal performance. 我能理解直接主管的指示，来达成最佳绩效。



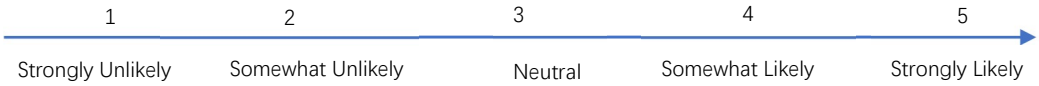
28. I understand how to exhibit best performance for the company. 我知道如何为公司贡献最佳绩效。



29. I am highly committed to exhibiting high quality and performance. 我高度承诺展现出高质量的绩效。



30. How likely is it that you would recommend working with this company to a friend or a colleague? 您向朋友或同事推荐在这家公司工作的可能性有多大?



31. Are there any other factors which might affect your happiness at work? If yes, please give some examples in detail. 是否有任何其他因素可能影响您的工作幸福感？如果有，请详细举出一些例子。

32. Are there any other factors which might affect your performance? If yes, please give some examples in detail. 是否有任何其他因素可能影响您的绩效表现？如果有，请详细举出一些例子。

Section II

7. How old are you?

   A. <35 years old B. 35~45 years old C. >45 years' old

8. What is your gender?

   A. Female B. Male

9. How many years have you been working for your current company?

B. <12 months B. 12-36 months C. >36 months

10. What is your highest education?

    A. Bachelor or below B. Master or above

11. What is your salary range (before TAX)?

    A. <100,000RMB/year B. 100,000~300,000RMB/year

    C. 300,000~500,000RMB/year D. 500,000~1,000,000RMB/year

    E. >1,000,000RMB/year

12. What is the industry of the company you currently work for? （standard short list）

13. What is the size of the company you currently work for? （standard short list）

14. Which function are you currently in?

    B. Research & Development B. Manufacturing C. Sales & Marketing

    D. Other supporting functions

Thank you very much again for your precious time and honest input! 再次感谢您宝贵的时间和认真作答！

Appendix 3:

Table 44. Correlation Analysis for Study 1- including all originally measured constructs

Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Age	Role	Tenue at work	Education	Salary	PMP12	TIS06	TIE07	IT03	EWB12	EP23
Age	94	1.6	0.65											
Role	94	1.8	0.43	-0.135										
Tenue at work	94	1.9	0.77	0.5***	-0.161									
Education	94	1.4	0.48	0.303**	0.002	0.183								
Salary	94	2.2	0.88	0.318**	-0.163	0.237*	0.282**							
PMP12	94	3.5	0.95	-0.277**	0.139	-0.316**	0.054	-0.008						
TIS06	94	3.8	1.06	-0.467***	-0.022	-0.405***	-0.068	-0.023	0.661***					
TIE07	94	3.8	0.68	-0.389**	-0.048	-0.424**	-0.044	0.048	0.734**	0.749**				
IT03	94	4.3	0.67	-0.408**	0.128	-0.421**	0.065	0.021	0.694**	0.645**	0.605**			
EWB12	94	3.6	1.13	-0.112	0.142	-0.262*	0.108	0.103	0.612***	0.624***	0.672**	0.582**		
EP23	94	3.6	1.16	-0.136	0.068	-0.256*	0.054	0.039	0.659***	0.657***	0.695**	0.617**	0.873***	
TL07	94	4.0	0.82	-0.397***	0.167	-0.455***	-0.011	-0.103	0.589***	0.574***	0.700**	0.575**	0.622***	0.655***

*** p<0.001 ** p<0.01 * p<0.05
TIE07: trust in employer
IT03: interpersonal trust
TL07: transformational leadership

Appendix 4:

Table 45. Result of Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Study 1 - factor loading

Latent Variable	Item No.	Standardized Loading
PMP	Q1	0.643
	Q2	0.716
	Q3	0.685
	Q4	0.706
	Q5	0.707
	Q6	0.746
	Q7	0.824
	Q8	0.849
	Q9	0.859
	Q10	0.836
	Q11	0.586
	Q12	0.568
TIS	Q13	0.88
	Q14	0.93
	Q15	0.955
	Q16	0.731
	Q17	0.636
	Q18	0.56
EWB	Q29	0.649
	Q30	0.783
	Q31	0.656
	Q32	0.771
	Q33	0.843
	Q34	0.767
	Q35	0.744
	Q36	0.733
	Q37	0.848
	Q38	0.771
	Q39	0.691
	Q40	0.559
EP	Q41	0.719
	Q42	0.705
	Q43	0.817
	Q44	0.798
	Q45	0.693
	Q46	0.592
	Q47	0.63
	Q48	0.653
	Q49	0.721
	Q50	0.736
	Q51	0.348
	Q52	0.66
	Q53	0.707
	Q54	0.748

Q55	0.594
Q56	0.743
Q57	0.83
Q58	0.771
Q59	0.761
Q60	0.773
Q61	0.791
Q62	0.6
Q63	0.731

Appendix 5:

Table 46. Result of Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Study 2 - factor loading

Latent Variable	Item No.	Standardized Loading
MC	Q1	0.837
	Q2	0.844
	Q3	0.854
	Q4	0.777
	Q5	0.675
	Q6	0.825
TIS	Q7	0.845
	Q8	0.874
	Q9	0.88
	Q10	0.859
	Q11	0.899
	Q12	0.848
	Q13	0.902
	Q14	0.882
	Q15	0.876
	Q16	0.907
HAW	Q17	0.761
	Q18	0.793
	Q19	0.719
	Q20	0.833
	Q21	0.716
	Q22	0.774
	Q23	0.82
	Q24	0.838
	Q25	0.869
EP	Q26	0.729
	Q27	0.848
	Q28	0.823
	Q29	0.878
	Q30	0.638