

3

2024 VOLUME 6 ISSUE 3

Human Resources Management and Services

<https://ojs.piscomed.com/index.php/HRMS>

ISSN: 2661-4308 (Online)



Pisco Med Publishing

Editorial Team

Editor-in-Chief

Peter Hines

South East Technological University
Ireland

Editorial Board Members

Gabriela Topa

National University for Distance Education
Spain

Yong-Ki Lee

Sejong University
South of Korea

M. Muzamil Naqshbandi

University of Brunei Darussalam
Brunei Darussalam

José Moleiro Martins

ISCAL-Polytechnic Institute of Lisbon
Portugal

Karin Sanders

UNSW Sydney
Australia

Neuza Ribeiro

Polytechnic University of Leiria
Portugal

Katarína Stachová

Alexander Dubček University of Trenčín
Slovakia

Mustafa Z. Younis

Jackson State University
United States

Vitalii Nitsenko

Ivano-Frankivsk National Technical
University of Oil and Gas
Ukraine

Sin-Jin Lin

National Kaohsiung University of Science and
Technology
Taiwan

María Consuelo Pucheta-Martínez

University Jaume I
Spain

Orly Shapira-Lishchinsky

Bar-Ilan University
Israel

Eran Vigoda-Gadot

University of Haifa
Israel

Debora Sarno

Parthenope University of Naples
Italy

Vikas Thakur

National Institute of Technology Rourkela
India

Tiago Neves Sequeira

Universidade de Coimbra, Faculdade de
Economia
Portugal

Vladimir Victorovich Tsyganov

Institute of Control Sciences Russian Academy
of Sciences
Russia

Wen-Bao Lin

National Kaohsiung Normal University
Taiwan

Chung-Jen Wang

National Pingtung University of Science and
Technology
Taiwan

Muddassar Sarfraz

Zhejiang Shuren University
China

Miloš Hitka

Technical University in Zvolen
Slovakia

Gomaa Agag

Nottingham Trent University
United Kingdom

António Carrizo Moreira

University of Aveiro
Portugal

Kirk Chang

University of East London
United Kingdom

Daniel Roque Gomes

School of Education of the Polytechnic
Institute of Coimbra
Portugal

Ying Li

Business School of Sichuan University
China

Human Resources Management and Services

Editor-in-Chief

Peter Hines

South East Technological University

Ireland

Human Resources Management and Services

<https://ojs.piscomed.com/index.php/HRMS>

Contents

Articles

- 1 Employees' deviant workplace behavior, employee external prestige, and job satisfaction: Evidence from Nigeria**
Paul Dung Gadi, Anthony Sambo Mailumu, Peter Musa Wash
- 16 Beyond borders: Understanding the inclusion challenges and motivators of foreign employees: Suggestions for sustainable human resources practices**
Eva Švejdárová
- 36 Mediating effect of job satisfaction on talent engagement and employees' commitment in the Nigerian Civil Service**
Aminu Abdulrahman Anas, Ejikeme Emmanuel Isichei
- 51 Human resource practices and performance in information technology projects**
Saba Riaz, Zeshan Ali Haider, Kashif Saleem
- 66 Re-contextualising human resource management in the 4IR: Lessons for Lesotho**
Mildred Mahapa, Maletsoela Ellen Mahao, Lenyora Sesinyi
- 77 Exploring the bright side of dark personalities: The dark triad as predictors of innovative work behavior in managers**
Marium Arslan Zuberi, Arif Khattak
- 100 Optimizing ecosystem of educational institutions: Elevating via positive organizational behavior to enhance employee performance**
Asifa Younas

116 About the personnel problem in modern Russia

E. P. Tavokin

131 Evaluating the effectiveness of human resources practices on teaching and learning outcomes in primary education

Ifeoma Chinyere Umeji

144 Conceptual aspects of cognitive ergonomics and job design

Tinatin Sabauri

Reviews

153 A balanced treatment of perceived organizational politics: A review of the positive influences

Musa Nyathi

172 Adoption of HR analytics to enhance employee retention in the workplace: A review

Kamalesh Ravesangar, Sivachandran Narayanan

185 Leadership theories and styles—A systematic literature review and the narrative synthesis

T. S. Nanjundeswaraswamy, P. Nagesh, Sindu Bharath, K. M. Vignesh

Perspective

197 The call for hybrid work arrangement post-pandemic

Amani Fadzlina Abdul Aziz, Tiffanie Ong

Article

Employees' deviant workplace behavior, employee external prestige, and job satisfaction: Evidence from Nigeria

Paul Dung Gadi^{1,*}, Anthony Sambo Mailumu², Peter Musa Wash²

¹ Department of Business Administration and Management, Plateau State Polytechnic, Barkin Ladi, P.M.B. 02023 Bukuru, Nigeria

² Department of Urban and Regional Planning, Plateau State Polytechnic, Barkin Ladi, P.M.B. 02023 Bukuru, Nigeria

* Corresponding author: Paul Dung Gadi, jsstature@gmail.com

CITATION

Gadi PD, Mailumu AS, Wash PM. (2024). Employees' deviant workplace behavior, employee external prestige, and job satisfaction: Evidence from Nigeria. *Human Resources Management and Services*. 6(3): 3423.
<https://doi.org/10.18282/hrms.v6i3.3423>

ARTICLE INFO

Received: 29 March 2024

Accepted: 23 June 2024

Available online: 5 July 2024

COPYRIGHT



Copyright © 2024 by author(s).

Human Resources Management and Services is published by PiscoMed Publishing Pte. Ltd. This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license.

<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>

Abstract: The goal of this study is to examine how external prestige (PEP) affects workplace deviations, which are mediated by job satisfaction. The study's sample consisted of 310 respondents who work in the hospitality industry in Nigeria, and data was collected using the purposive sampling method. Structural Equation Model (SEM) tests were performed. According to the study's findings, job satisfaction is positively influenced by PEP, but it has a negative impact on deviant conduct in the workplace. It is clear that job satisfaction plays a detrimental role in mediating the harmful impacts of perceived external status on deviant behavior at work.

Keywords: deviant workplace behavior; job satisfaction; external prestige

1. Introduction

The hospitality industry needs to increase its competitiveness to retain its present clients and attract new ones. However, in order to increase competitiveness, the industry needs to give more attention to its human capital. This is because the performance of a firm can be influenced by the level of performance of its employees. According to Tuna et al. (2016), an organization needs to have a positive reputation and a positive image in order to attract experienced or competent workers. The more positively an organization is perceived, the more proud and content an individual might be to work there. Being a part of a company with a positive reputation will make someone feel better about themselves than being a part of one with a negative reputation (Ciftcioglu, 2010; Bagobiri and Gadi, 2021). According to numerous studies (Ghazzawi, 2008; Elçi and Alpan, 2009; Hamarat et al., 2012; Shamsudin et al., 2014), job satisfaction (JS) is additionally motivated by a number of other variables, such as individual behavior, beliefs, office values, ethical environment, and social effects.

However, if a person is unhappy at work, it may have an impact on their conduct (Ghazzawi, 2008). According to Herscovis et al. (2007) and Gadi and Kee (2020a), if a person is not happy in his position, he will put in less performance and behave differently from the organization's standards.

Deviant workplace conduct can undoubtedly result in losses for the firm, so measures must be taken to reduce its incidence in order to avoid interfering with business operations (Howard et al., 2016). The reputation of the company and workers' feelings of job satisfaction can have an impact on deviant conduct at work (Tuna et al., 2016). As a result, every firm must pay attention to the reasons for business abnormalities. This rule applies to all companies, including those in the

hospitality sector, particularly restaurants, amusement parks, hotels, and other tourism-related services. Extreme competition in this marketplace is brought on by the considerable number of marketers who are also the exclusive agents of the trademark owner or individual businesses. As a result, the industry has decided to reduce the incidence of abnormal workplace behavior because it could impede its growth in Nigeria.

The importance of employee job satisfaction for the organization has been examined in numerous earlier studies (Gunlu et al., 2010). Most studies (Elçi and Alpan, 2009; Gümüş et al., 2012; Gunlu et al., 2010) examine a wide range of positive characteristics that affect individual job satisfaction, such as good HR policies, an ethical work environment, personality, and several other positive aspects. Although there hasn't been much research examining the negative variables that can lead to a decline in employee satisfaction, this subject is nonetheless important to examine more given that poor or deviant conduct is frequent and contributes to a decline in individual satisfaction (Chullen et al., 2010; Omotayo et al., 2015; Gadi and Kee, 2020). Therefore, it is crucial that this research be done so that businesses can reduce deviant behavior.

In the dynamic landscape of the Nigerian hotel industry, characterized by its strategic importance to the nation's economy, employees contend with multifaceted challenges that significantly influence their well-being and job satisfaction. The pervasive phenomenon of deviant workplace behavior, marked by extended working hours and workplace conflicts, intertwines with the cultural emphasis on external prestige in Nigeria. Extended working hours, often driven by factors such as understaffing, contribute to a demanding work environment, while workplace conflicts stemming from diverse backgrounds hinder collaborative efforts. Concurrently, the pursuit of external prestige, deeply ingrained in Nigerian societal values, becomes a pivotal factor in shaping employees' self-esteem and job satisfaction.

Despite the industry's strategic importance, there is a noticeable gap in the current understanding of how deviant workplace behaviors, influenced by factors such as extended working hours and workplace conflicts, intersect with employees' pursuit of external prestige in the Nigerian context. Furthermore, the specific role of employee external prestige in mediating or moderating the relationship between deviant workplace behavior and job satisfaction remains underexplored.

This study seeks to answer this complicated relationship by exploring how deviant workplace behaviors and employee external prestige interrelate within a unique cultural context and examining their collective impact on job satisfaction. As the industry undergoes evolution, understanding and addressing these phenomena becomes imperative for fostering a positive and productive work environment, ultimately contributing to both individual well-being and organizational effectiveness.

2. Literature review

2.1. External prestige

External prestige, according to Tuna et al. (2016), is a worker's evaluation of the reputation of the firm where they work, centered on the viewpoint of other individuals

who are not employees of the establishment. Centered on the opinions of those outside the organization, an employee's perception of the organization's external prestige represents their evaluation of all perceptions linked to it (Carmeli and Freund, 2002; Carmeli and Tishler, 2005; Carmeli et al., 2006). According to Kian et al. (2013) as well as Suanj et al. (2017), external prestige demonstrates how employees' views of outsiders' impressions of their organization are related to the reputation felt by employees of the firm. Based on these many views, it can be deduced that individual perceptions of their workplace are shaped by the perspectives of third parties or other individuals who evaluate the organization in which the employee works. Per Suanj et al. (2017) justify that external prestige (PEP) is researched at a distinct level because it is a personal assessment of the establishment that workers receive from outside parties, so even though all employees work for the same company, external prestige will vary for each employee.

Employee pride is increased when they recognize that people outside the organization talk favorably about the place where they work, which has a beneficial effect on external prestige (Kang et al., 2011; Gadi and Kee, 2020b). Improved staff identification with the organization might be encouraged by a firm's perceived external status (Al-Atwi and Bakir, 2014). According to Ciftcioglu (2010), external prestige is a firm image derived from employee evaluations based on data from outsiders who regard them as employees of the organization. In the end, multiple studies discovered that employees' concern for their organization, which was evidenced by a decline in turnover, was positively impacted by external prestige (Ciftcioglu, 2010; Pakdemir and Turan, 2014).

2.2. Job satisfaction

An individual's good attitude as a result of an appraisal of their work and work experience can also be interpreted as job satisfaction. According to Springer (2011), individuals will experience job satisfaction when they believe their personal goals align with their expectations in a number of work-related areas. According to Kian et al. (2013), job satisfaction is a favorable emotional state that arises from work and satisfies personal values for the work completed. According to Alnaçk et al. (2012), job satisfaction is a favorable emotional situation that arises from an individual's evaluation of his or her job or work experience. Job satisfaction is an employee's reaction to his or her work experience as well as the emotional state of the employee toward work, according to Siengthai and Pila-Ngarm (2016). According to some of the aforementioned justifications, job satisfaction is an emotional state, both good and bad, that results from an assessment of one's work). Individuals will experience job satisfaction when they believe their personal goals align with their expectations in a number of work-related areas. According to Kian et al. (2013), job satisfaction is a favorable emotional state that arises from work and satisfies personal values for the work completed. According to Alnaçk et al. (2012), job satisfaction is a favorable emotional situation that arises from an individual's evaluation of his or her job or work experience. Job satisfaction is an employee's reaction to his or her work experience as well as the emotional state of the employee toward work, according to Siengthai and Pila-Ngarm (2016). According to some of the aforementioned justifications, job

satisfaction is an emotional state, both good and bad, that results from an assessment of one's work or experience.

According to Purnama (2017), Islamic culture, which emphasizes competence, dedication, honesty, and transformation, can genuinely have an impact on employee job satisfaction and, in turn, employee performance, as evidenced by the quantity, quality, efficiency, and accuracy of the work that employees produce. In their study, Lumley et al. (2011) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and nine variables, including pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, recognition and reward, working conditions, coworkers, and work environment. In addition to productivity, staff retention, and absenteeism, job satisfaction also has an impact on an organization's well-being (Katja-Miheli, 2014; Sempene et al., 2002). According to Emilisa (2001), job satisfaction is a pleasurable feeling that results from an evaluation of the job.

The research findings by Robinson et al. (2011) suggest that individuals who have high-level job satisfaction would manage customer complaints excellently, resulting in customer happiness and even customer loyalty. Also, employee job satisfaction has an impact on client satisfaction. According to Worsfold et al.'s (2016) study in the hospitality sector, employee job satisfaction can influence client satisfaction because happy individuals might have a more upbeat attitude, which will then cause them to display a pleasant and comfortable attitude and more normally positive feelings towards customers, which will ultimately be able to elicit positive emotions from customers. Similarly, Esmailpour and Ranjbar (2018) stress the significance of employee dedication and happiness because they motivate workers to deliver high-caliber services.

2.3. Deviant workplace behavior

According to Shamsudin et al. (2014), deviant behavior can be divided into two categories: organizational deviance, which includes employee theft, higher staff absenteeism, and lack of motivation; and interpersonal deviance, which includes treating coworkers poorly, making racial or sexual jokes, or acting rudely. Deviant workplace conduct is defined by Tuna et al. (2016) as employee behavior that transgresses critical organizational standards in a way that endangers the organization, its employees, or both. Deviant workplace behavior, as per Tuna et al. (2016), is a sort of behavior that unfairly exploits the business unfavorably, impacts the norms and shared expectations of the organization, and also poses a danger to the organization's values and social customs. Deviant workplace behavior is defined by Malisetty and Vasanthi Kumari (2016) as deliberate action carried out by employees that is deemed by the organization to be against its interests. According to Johnson (2011), a deviant workplace is one where employees engage in behavior that goes against organizational standards, such as harassing coworkers, causing property damage, and other negative actions. According to several of the definitions given above, deviant workplace conduct is defined as behavior by organizational members that is at odds with the values, norms, and customs of the organization and that has the potential to harm or disrupt the organization and its members.

DWPB is conduct that the firm must take into consideration since it may have an

effect on the organization. The organization can suffer both financial and non-financial consequences from actions like theft, harassment, and other deviant behavior (Elçi and Alpkın, 2009; Chirasha and Mahapa, 2012; Howard et al., 2016; Hsieh and Liang, 2004).

Theft, sabotage, and other financial losses result in financial losses for the company since they must replace or fix the effects of these actions (Chirasha and Mahapa, 2012). Deviant workplace behavior (DWPB) can also have a negative effect on the workplace environment, leading to tension, despair, and feelings of insecurity among employees (Chirasha and Mahapa, 2012; Howard et al., 2016). According to Muafi (2011), in addition to experiencing stress at work that lowers productivity, victims of workplace deviance also frequently have greater employee turnover rates. As a result, it is critical that businesses pay attention to the elements that may lead to abnormal conduct. According to Johnson's (2011) research, deviant behavior might develop when staff members feel mistreated or unsatisfied with the firm.

Different terms for harmful employee behavior include counterproductive work behavior, antisocial behavior, retaliatory behavior, and deviant workplace behavior, though the distinctions between these concepts are still debatable (Tiarapuspa, 2015). Due to the fact that the perpetrators have bad intent and act in ways that go against the organization's norms, this study chose to refer to such behavior as deviant workplace behavior (Tiarapuspa et al., 2017). Deviant workplace behavior by employees, such as theft, high absenteeism, sloth, racist epithets, or sexual harassment, can be very harmful to business (Tuna et al., 2016; Shamsudin et al., 2014). Losses may be material or immaterial (Chirasha and Mahapa, 2012; Johnson, 2011). To prevent employees from taking part in activities that would impair the organization, employers must raise employee satisfaction with their employment (Lumley et al., 2011; Katja-Miheli, 2014). According to Suanj et al. (2017) and Kian et al. (2013), one strategy to boost employee job satisfaction is to create the idea among employees that working for the organization is very prestigious. This perception is known as "external prestige."

2.4. Hypothesis development

According to Carmeli and Freund (2002), Carmeli et al. (2006), Carmeli and Tishler (2005), etc., PEP is a worker's subjective evaluation of the organization's external image. Deviant workplace conduct, on the other hand, is the conduct of people in the organization that is at odds with the norms, values, and customs of the firm and that might harm or disturb the establishment and its employees (Johnson, 2011; Shamsudin et al., 2014). Increasing employee impressions of how prestigious working for the organization is one strategy to prevent employee deviant behavior that might harm the business (Al-Atwi and Bakir, 2014). According to Tuna et al. (2016), employees are less likely to act inappropriately when they believe that other people regard the organization they work for as being very prominent. This leads to a hypothesis:

H1: Deviant workplace behavior is negatively impacted by external prestige.

According to Suanj et al. (2017), good perceptions about the organizations where employees work are correlated with their positive assessments of their own position

and prestige at work. The satisfaction of working for a company with a positive reputation will increase employee personality (Ciftcioglu, 2010). The study's findings (Carmeli and Tishler, 2005; Nayr et al., 2016) demonstrate that employees will feel content with their work when they learn from friends and family members that they work for a prestigious firm (external prestige). According to the study's findings (Ciftcioglu, 2010), employees were less likely to leave their current employer because they were happy with their position and more strongly, they believed they had worked for a reputable and well-regarded organization. According to studies (Tuna et al., 2016), external prestige has a favorable impact on job satisfaction. This leads to the possibility that H2: Job satisfaction is positively impacted by external prestige.

If a person dislikes or is unsatisfied with his job, he or she will put forth a poor effort on the job and may violate the organization's norms and general policies (Hershcovis, 2011; Hershcovis et al., 2007). According to Srivastva (2013) and (2016), job satisfaction is a factor that might deter bad employee behavior like stealing, hostile behavior, and sabotage. Similarly, research by Tuna et al. (2016) demonstrates that deviant work behavior is negatively impacted by job satisfaction. This is also noted in a study that was done (Johnson, 2011), which claims that firms that don't offer employee satisfaction would be more prone to atypical workplace behavior. The following hypotheses were created in light of the ideas and theories presented above.

H3: Deviant workplace conduct is negatively impacted by job satisfaction.

Situational factors, including stress and shifting work environments, might lead to abnormal workplace behavior. Someone may refrain from engaging in inappropriate workplace behavior if they believe a friend works for a prestigious organization. This is done to retain a feeling for the reason that those other people have been complimentary, but this feeling-trust activity might unquestionably lessen or cease to exist if the employees believe that their firm truly provides them with a fulfilling employment opportunity. This is in line with Mishra (2013), who claimed that when employees have a positive perception of their employer's external prestige, they will assess the circumstances and adopt a favorable viewpoint. Employee dissatisfaction with the firm has a big impact on how they feel about the company, which is a factor that might lead to deviant conduct (Singh, 2013). The findings of Tuna et al.'s (2016) study demonstrate that job satisfaction can operate as a mediator between external prestige and unruly behavior at work, as demonstrated in the conceptual framework in **Figure 1** below. On the basis of this, the following hypotheses can be put forth:

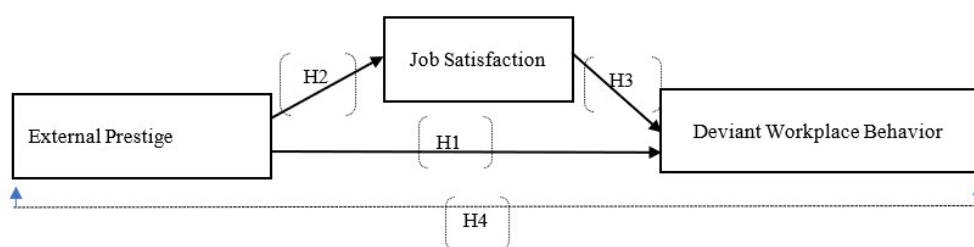


Figure 1. Conceptual framework.

H4: Job satisfaction directly and indirectly mediates the relationship between PEP and deviant workplace behavior.

3. Research methods

The variables in this study refer to previous research conducted by Tuna et al. (2016), where all variables were measured using a 5–7-point interval scale with alternative answers ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The external prestige variable was measured using 8 statement items, job satisfaction using 5 statement items, and deviant workplace behavior using 11 statement items.

This study uses a purposive sampling technique, which is part of non-probability sampling (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). The sample criteria are employees of the hospitality industry in the six states in the central part of Nigeria, including Abuja. A minimum sample size estimation was achieved using a G*Power assessment. The results revealed that the minimum sample size needed for this study was 108. However, a total of 310 questionnaires were collected, exceeding the minimum criteria of 108. Therefore, it is certain that the collected data is adequate for testing the assumed relationships.

It is established that most of the respondents are male (57.5%) and female (42.5%). The majority of them are 31–40 years old with 6–10 years of service, and the majority (54%) hold an OND certificate.

Measurement model

We analyzed the loadings, average variance extracted (AVE), and composite reliability (CR) in accordance with the recent article by Hair et al. (2020), using cutoff values of 0.5 for AVE and 0.708 for CR to determine the convergent validity. While it is recommended that the loadings be greater than 0.708, if the AVEs are already greater than 0.5, then loadings between 0.5 and 0.7 are likewise appropriate (Ramayah et al., 2018). As can be seen in **Table 1**, the constructs' validity and reliability were confirmed by the fact that all of the AVEs were higher than 0.5, the CR was higher than 0.7, and all of the loadings were greater than 0.7, as shown in **Figure 2** below.

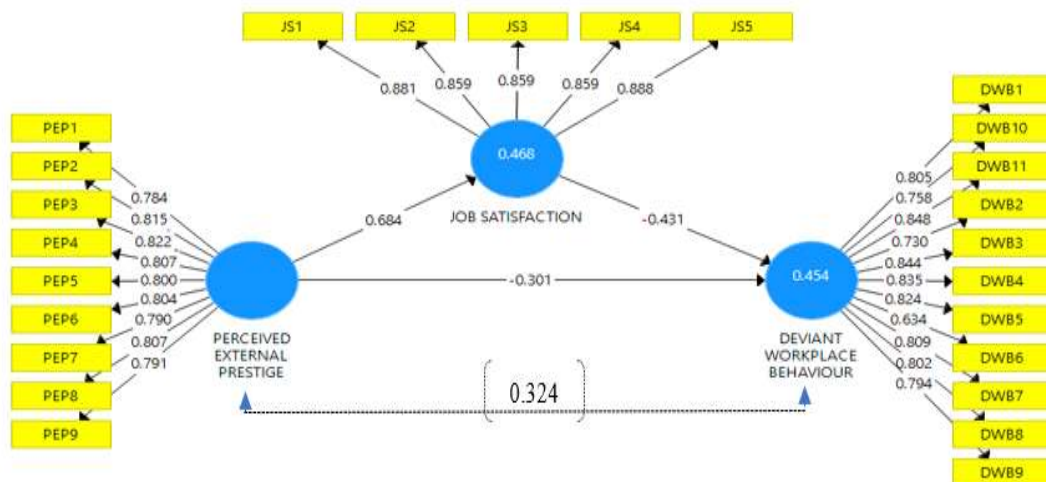
Table 1. Measurement model.

ITEMS	Construct	Loadings	CA	rho_A	CR	AVE	R Square
	Deviant workplace behaviour		0.94	0.945	0.948	0.627	0.454
DWB1		0.804					
DWB2		0.724					
DWB3		0.844					
DWB4		0.831					
DWB5		0.821					
DWB6		0.630					
DWB7		0.807					
DWB8		0.798					
DWB9		0.792					
DWB10		0.765					
DWB11		0.839					

Table 1. (Continued).

ITEMS	Construct	Loadings	CA	rho_A	CR	AVE	R Square
	Job satisfaction		0.919	0.92	0.939	0.756	0.468
JS1		0.881					
JS2		0.859					
JS3		0.859					
JS4		0.859					
JS5		0.888					
	External prestige		0.931	0.932	0.942	0.644	
PEP1		0.784					
PEP2		0.824					
PEP3		0.827					
PEP4		0.811					
PEP5		0.804					
PEP6		0.804					
PEP7		0.795					
PEP8		0.809					
PEP9		0.791					

Note: CA = Cronbach's Alpha; CR = Composite Reliability; AVE = Average Variance Extracted.

**Figure 2.** Measurement model.

According to **Table 2**, all reflective constructs have acceptable or satisfactory discriminant validity, with the square root of AVE (diagonal) being larger than the correlations (off-diagonal).

Table 2. Fornell Larcker.

	Deviant workplace behaviour	Job satisfaction	External prestige
Deviant workplace behaviour	0.792		
Job satisfaction	-0.637	0.869	
External prestige	-0.596	0.684	0.802

The discriminant validity was evaluated using HTMT ratios, in accordance with Franke and Sarstedt's recommendations (2019). As shown in **Table 2**, we also created the reporting table in accordance with the recommendations made by Becker et al. (2019). All of the HTMT ratios fell below the 0.85 threshold as shown in **Table 3** below. Therefore, we can say that the measurements employed in this study are different.

Table 3. HTMT.

	Deviant workplace behaviour	Job satisfaction	External prestige
Deviant workplace behaviour			
Job satisfaction	0.677		
External prestige	0.628	0.738	

4. Results and discussion

Tests were carried out using Structural Equation Model (SEM) analysis. **Table 4** shows the results of hypothesis testing:

Table 4. Hypothesis testing result.

Path coefficient	Beta values	Std error	T values	P values
Job satisfaction -> Deviant workplace behaviour	-0.431	0.054	8.034	0.000
External prestige -> Deviant workplace behaviour	-0.301	0.055	5.436	0.000
External prestige -> Job satisfaction	0.684	0.029	23.483	0.000
External prestige -> Job satisfaction -> Deviant workplace behaviour	-0.295	0.034	8.626	0.000

The first hypothesis examines the effect of external prestige (PEP) on deviant workplace behavior (DWPB). Based on the results of statistical tests, it can be seen that the *p*-value is 0.001 with a coefficient estimate of -0.301, and a *T* value of 5.436 as shown in **Figure 3**, which means that there is a significant negative effect between PEP and DWPB. This means that if employees have a good PEP, they might be able to decrease DWPB at work. This might occur because individuals who have pride in their place of work will try to behave better, have stronger dedication to the organization, and also avoid conduct that might affect the organization. This is in accordance with the opinion (Suanj et al., 2017), which states that when employees feel they work in a high-reputation firm, the higher the employee's commitment and the farther away from deviant behavior. Likewise, the opinion (Al-Atwi and Bakir, 2014) suggests that employees who feel proud of their status as employees of a particular company are less likely to do bad things to the company or their friends. The results of this research confirm the results of an earlier study performed by Tuna et al. (2016), which confirmed that there was a negative influence of external prestige (PEP) on deviant workplace behavior (DWPB).

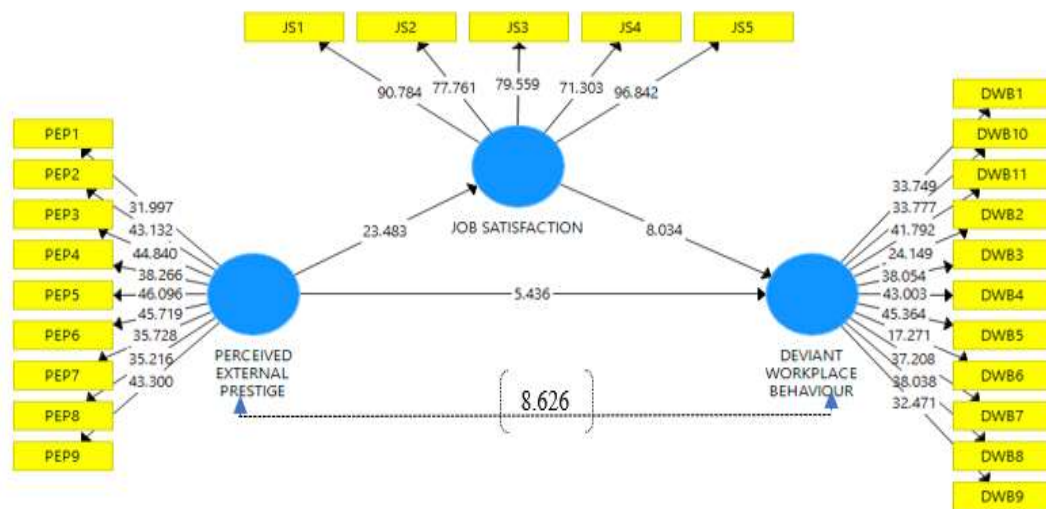


Figure 3. Structural model.

The second hypothesis examines the effect of external prestige (PEP) on job satisfaction (JS). Based on the results of statistical tests, it can be seen that the p -value is 0.001 with a coefficient estimate of 0.684, and a T value of 23.483, as shown in **Figure 2**, which means that there is a significant positive effect between external prestige and job satisfaction. This shows that employees who have good external perceptions of status will be able to increase their job satisfaction. Employees who have a sense of pride in their place of work will feel greater satisfaction because they are part of the company. The results of this study support the opinion of Ciftcioglu (2010) that employees who feel proud to work for a company with a high reputation will be satisfied with their work and have no desire to move to another company. In fact, Pekdemir and Turan (2014) explain that employees who feel proud of their company will be willing to work beyond their job description. Likewise, the findings of this study corroborate those of earlier research by Tuna et al. (2016), which similarly showed a favorable relationship between external prestige and job satisfaction.

The third hypothesis examines the influence of job satisfaction (JS) on deviant workplace behavior (DWPB). Based on the outcomes of statistical tests, it can be seen that the p -value is 0.001 with a coefficient estimate of -0.431 , and a T value of 8.034, as shown in **Figure 2**, which means that there is a significant negative effect between job satisfaction and deviant workplace behavior. The findings of this study suggest that job satisfaction has a significant negative impact on workplace deviance. This implies that contented workers will be able to curtail inappropriate workplace behavior. This may occur because happy employees are more likely to take positive actions for the business, whereas unhappy employees are more likely to express their frustration by engaging in negative conduct. The findings of this study support the assertion made by Johnson (2011) that employees who work for organizations that don't foster job satisfaction have a tendency to respond in a negative way.

According to the research of Hershcovis (2011) and Srivastava (2016), an employee's desire to engage in bad behaviors like absenteeism, theft, and other negative behaviors will vanish if they are satisfied with their employment. The

findings of this study corroborate those of earlier research by Tuna et al. (2016), which showed a detrimental impact of job satisfaction on unruly workplace behavior.

Hypothesis 4 examines the effect of external prestige (PEP) on deviant workplace behavior (DWPH), mediated by job satisfaction. Based on the results of statistical tests, it can be seen that the p -value is 0.001 with a coefficient estimate of -0.295 , which means that there is a significant negative effect between PEP and DWPH mediated by job satisfaction. The results showed that job satisfaction can mediate the effect of PEP on DWPH. Job satisfaction has a negative influence on mediating the effect of PEP on DWPH. This shows that a good PEP will be able to increase the prestige and pride of employees towards the company, which in turn will be able to shape employee attitudes towards the company and job satisfaction itself, which can ultimately prevent or reduce deviant workplace behavior from employees. The results of the research by Tuna et al. (2016) revealed that job satisfaction (JS) mediates the impact of PEP on deviant workplace behavior.

5. Conclusion

Based on the findings of the hypothesis testing, the study's assumption is that PEP has a significant and unfavorable impact on DWPH and, on the other hand, a significant and favorable impact on job satisfaction (JS). Nevertheless, employee job satisfaction (JS) has a detrimental and considerable impact on DWPH. Therefore, it can be presumed that employee job satisfaction (JS) can mitigate the impact of PEP on DWPH. This suggests that if a person has pride in the organization where they work, they are less likely to be dissatisfied with their jobs and exhibit fewer deviations from them.

This refers to intentional behavior by employees that violates established norms and disrupts the normal functioning of the workplace. In the hotel industry in Nigeria, examples may include theft, absenteeism, rudeness to customers, or conflicts with colleagues. High competition, stressful work environments, and challenging customer interactions in the hotel industry may contribute to employees' deviant behaviors. Factors such as low job satisfaction, inadequate training, and ineffective management practices could be associated with an increase in DWB.

Employee external prestige refers to the perception of how the employee is viewed by individuals external to the organization, such as customers, suppliers, or the general public. In the hotel industry in Nigeria, this could be related to the reputation of the hotel and the perception of its employees' professionalism and service quality. The reputation of a hotel in Nigeria is crucial for attracting customers and maintaining a competitive edge. Employee external prestige is likely influenced by the quality of service, the behavior of employees, and the overall customer experience. Positive external prestige may lead to increased customer satisfaction and loyalty.

Job satisfaction is the overall contentment or happiness an employee feels about their job. In the hotel industry in Nigeria, factors contributing to job satisfaction could include the work environment, relationships with colleagues and management, recognition, and opportunities for career development. High job satisfaction among hotel employees is vital for maintaining service quality and customer satisfaction. Factors such as a positive work culture, fair treatment, and opportunities for skill

development can enhance job satisfaction. Conversely, employees' deviant behavior may negatively impact job satisfaction among colleagues and lead to a toxic work environment.

There may be a negative relationship between employees' deviant workplace behavior and job satisfaction. Deviant behaviors can create a stressful work environment, lower morale, and reduce overall job satisfaction among colleagues. Higher external prestige may act as a deterrent to deviant workplace behavior. Employees who value their external image and the reputation of the hotel are likely to engage in more positive and professional behaviors. Positive external prestige can contribute to increased job satisfaction. Employees who take pride in their association with a reputable hotel are likely to experience higher job satisfaction, especially if their efforts contribute to the positive image of the hotel.

In conclusion, the hotel industry in Nigeria faces unique challenges related to employees' deviant workplace behavior, external prestige, and job satisfaction. Understanding the interplay between these variables is crucial for developing effective management strategies, promoting a positive work environment, and enhancing overall performance in the industry.

6. Implications

Based on the conclusions above, it might be seen that the pride of employees towards the organization, instigated by opinions from outside the organization (PEP), is very vital. Therefore, organizations must put effort into creating a good image in different ways, specifically by improving product and service quality and organizational management. Thus, the organization's reputation becomes superior, which sequentially might attract potential workers to work in the organization (Suanj et al., 2017).

7. Limitations and suggestions

This research was only conducted on one research object and only used external prestige and job satisfaction as variables that could affect deviant workplace behavior. Further research can be conducted on other objects, for example, in the aviation or banking industries. It is also hoped that further research can consider using other variables such as unfair treatment, dissatisfaction, and conflict variables as a source of deviant workplace behavior (Nayr et al., 2016).

Author contributions: Conceptualization, PDG and ASM; methodology, PDG; software, PDG; validation, PMW, PDG and ASM; formal analysis, PDG; investigation, PMW and ASM; resources, PMW, PDG and ASM; data curation, PDG; writing—original draft preparation, PDG; writing—review and editing, ASM and PMW; visualization, ASM; supervision, PDG; project administration, PMW, ASM and PDG; funding acquisition, PMW, ASM and PDG. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Conflict of interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

References

- Ali Al-Atwi, A., & Bakir, A. (2014). Relationships between status judgments, identification, and counterproductive behavior. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 29(5), 472–489. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jmp-02-2012-0040>
- Almıaçık, Ü., Almıaçık, E., Akçin, K., & Erat, S. (2012). Relationships Between Career Motivation, Affective Commitment and Job Satisfaction. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 58, 355–362. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.09.1011>
- Bagobiri, E. Y., & Paul, G. D. (2021). Impact of Incentive Management Strategies on Employee Performance among Telecommunication Firms in Kaduna Metroplis. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary: Applied Business and Education Research*, 2(2), 88–98. <https://doi.org/10.11594/ijmaber.02.02.02>
- Carmeli, A., & Freund, A. (2002). The Relationship Between Work and Workplace Attitudes and Perceived External Prestige. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 5(1), 51–68. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.crr.1540164>
- Carmeli, A., & Tishler, A. (2005). Perceived Organizational Reputation and Organizational Performance: An Empirical Investigation of Industrial Enterprises. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 8(1), 13–30. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.crr.1540236>
- Carmeli, A., Gilat, G., & Weisberg, J. (2006). Perceived External Prestige, Organizational Identification and Affective Commitment: A Stakeholder Approach. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 9(2), 92–104. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.crr.1550014>
- Chirasha, V., & Mahapa, M. (2012). An Analysis of the Causes and Impact of Deviant Behaviour in the Workplace. The Case of Secretaries in State Universities. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Economics and Management Sciences (JETEMS)*, 3(5), 415–421.
- Chullen, L. C., Dunford, B. B., Angermeier, I., et al. (2010). Minimizing Deviant Behavior in Healthcare Organizations: The Effects of Supportive Leadership and Job Design. *Journal of Healthcare Management*, 55(6), 381–398. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00115514-201011000-00004>
- Ciftcioglu, A. (2010). Exploring the Role of Perceived External Prestige in Employee's Emotional Appeal: Evidence from a Textile Firm. *Business and Economics Research Journal*, 1(4), 85–96.
- Ciftcioglu, A. (2010). The Relationship between Perceived External Prestige and Turnover Intention: An Empirical Investigation. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 13(4), 248–263. <https://doi.org/10.1057/crr.2010.22>
- Elçi, M., & Alpkan, L. (2008). The Impact of Perceived Organizational Ethical Climate on Work Satisfaction. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 84(3), 297–311. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-008-9709-0>
- Emilisa, N. (2001). Hubungan Antara Job Satisfaction Dengan Organizational Commitment Pada Dana Pensiun Lembaga Keuangan Yang Dikelola Oleh Perusahaan Asuransi di Jakarta. *Jurnal Media Riset Bisnis & Manajemen*, 1(3), 229–244. <https://doi.org/10.25105/mrbm.v1i3.8073>
- Esmacilpour, M., & Ranjbar, M. (2018). Investigating the Impact of Commitment, Satisfaction, and Loyalty of Employees on Providing High-Quality Service to Customer. *Studies in Business and Economics*, 13(1), 41–57. <https://doi.org/10.2478/sbe-2018-0004>
- Gadi, D. P., & Kee, D. M. H. (2020). HR, Workplace Bullying, and Turnover Intention: The role of Work Engagement. *Journal of Environmental Treatment Techniques*, 8(1), 23–27.
- Gadi, P. D., & Kee, D. M. H. (2020). Workplace bullying, human resource management practices, and turnover intention: the mediating effect of work engagement: evidence of Nigeria. *American Journal of Business*, 36(1), 62–83. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ajb-08-2020-0135>
- Gadi, P. D., & Kee, D. M. H. (2020a). The moderating effect of perceived support in the link among work engagement and turnover intention: Evidence from Nigeria. *European Journal of Molecular and Clinical Medicine*, 7(3), 180–190.
- Ghazzawi, I. (2008). Job satisfaction antecedents and consequences: A new conceptual framework and research agenda. *The Business Review*, 11(2), 1–10.
- Gümüş, M., Hamarat, B., Çolak, E., & Duran, E. (2012). Organizational and occupational identification. *Career Development International*, 17(4), 300–313. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13620431211255806>
- Gunlu, E., Aksarayli, M., & Şahin Perçin, N. (2010). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment of hotel managers in Turkey. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 22(5), 693–717. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09596111011053819>

- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis*, 7th ed. Prentice Hall International, Inc.
- Hershcovis, M. S. (2011). "Incivility, social undermining, bullying...oh my!": A call to reconcile constructs within workplace aggression research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32(3), 499–519. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.689>
- Hershcovis, M. S., Turner, N., Barling, J., et al. (2007). Predicting workplace aggression: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(1), 228–238. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.228>
- Howard, J. L., Johnston, A. C., Wech, B. A., & Stout, J. (2015). Aggression and Bullying in the Workplace: It's the Position of the Perpetrator that Influences Employees' Reactions and Sanctioning Ratings. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 28(2), 79–100. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10672-015-9271-8>
- Hsieh, A.-T., Liang, S.-C., & Hsieh, T.-H. (2004). Workplace Deviant Behavior and Its Demographic Relationship Among Taiwan's Flight Attendants. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 3(1), 19–32. https://doi.org/10.1300/j171v03n01_03
- Johnson, M. (2011). Workforce deviance and the business case for employee engagement. *The Journal for Quality and Participation*, 34, 11–17.
- Kang, D., Stewart, J., & Kim, H. (2011). The effects of perceived external prestige, ethical organizational climate, and leader-member exchange (LMX) quality on employees' commitments and their subsequent attitudes. *Personnel Review*, 40(6), 761–784. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00483481111169670>
- Katja Mihelič, K. (2014). Work-family interface, job satisfaction and turnover intention. *Baltic Journal of Management*, 9(4), 446–466. <https://doi.org/10.1108/bjm-09-2013-0141>
- Kian, T. S., Yusoff, W. F. W., & Rajah, S. (2013). Relationship between Motivations and Citizenship Performance among Generation X and Generation Y. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 3(11). <https://doi.org/10.6007/ijarbss/v3-i11/319>
- Lumley, E. J., Coetzee, M., Tladinyane, R., & Ferreira, N. (2011). Exploring the job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees in the information technology environment. *Southern African Business Review*, 15(1), 100–118.
- Malisetty, S., & Vasanthi Kumari, K. (2016). An Investigation on Relationship of Deviance Workplace Behavior with Organisational Justice, Abusive Supervision and Work-Family Conflict. *Indian Journal of Science and Technology*, 9(39). <https://doi.org/10.17485/ijst/2016/v9i39/100449>
- Mishra, S. K. (2013). Perceived External Prestige and Employee Outcomes: Mediation Effect of Organizational Identification. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 16(3), 220–233. <https://doi.org/10.1057/crr.2013.9>
- Muafi J. (2011). Causes and Consequence Deviant Workplace Behavior. *International Journal of Innovation, Management and Technology*, 2(2), 123–126. <https://doi.org/10.7763/IJIMT.2011.V2.117>
- Omotayo, O. A., Olubusayo, F. H., Olalekan, A. J., & Adenike, A. A. (2015). An assessment of workplace deviant behaviours and its implication on organisational performance in a growing economy. *Journal of Organizational Psychology*, 15(1), 90–101.
- Pekdemir, I. M., & Turan, A. (2014). The Mediating Role of Organizational Identity Complexity/Congruence on the Relationship between Perceived Organizational Prestige and In-Role/Extra-Role Performance. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 5(9), 119–131.
- Purnama, C. (2017). Islamic Culture Impact of Increasing Satisfaction and Performance of Employees: Study of Educational Institutions Sabillilah Sampang. *Asian Economic and Financial Review*, 7(5), 528–540. <https://doi.org/10.18488/journal.aefr.2017.75.528.540>
- Robinson, L., Neeley, S. E., & Williamson, K. (2011). Implementing service recovery through customer relationship management: identifying the antecedents. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 25(2), 90–100. <https://doi.org/10.1108/08876041111119813>
- Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2013). *Research method for Business. A Skill-Building Approach*, 6th ed. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.
- Sempane, M. E., Rieger, H. S., & Roodt, G. (2002). Job satisfaction in relation to organisational culture. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 28(2). <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v28i2.49>
- Shamsudin, F. M., Subramaniam, C., & Sri Ramalu, S. (2014). The influence of HR practices and job satisfaction on interpersonal deviance in the workplace. *Journal of Management & Organization*, 20(5), 691–709. <https://doi.org/10.1017/jmo.2014.50>
- Siengthai, S., & Pila-Ngarm, P. (2016). The interaction effect of job redesign and job satisfaction on employee performance. *Evidence-Based HRM: A Global Forum for Empirical Scholarship*, 4(2), 162–180. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ebhrm-01-2015-0001>

- Singh, J. K. & Jain M. (2013). A Study of Employees' Job Satisfaction and Its and its impact on their Performance. *Journal of Indian Research*, 1(4), 105–111.
- Springer G. J. (2011). A study of job motivation, satisfaction, and performance among bank employees. *The Journal of Global Business Issues*, 5(1), 29–35.
- Srivastava, S. (2013). Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment Relationship: Effect of Personality Variables. *Vision: The Journal of Business Perspective*, 17(2), 159–167. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0972262912483529>
- Srivastava, S. (2016). Work Deviant Behavior-Employee Engagement: An Empirical Investigation of the Role of Ethical Leadership of Indian Middle Level Managers. *Drishtikon: A Management Journal*, 7(2). <https://doi.org/10.21863/drishtikon/2016.7.2.017>
- Sušanj Šulentić, T., Žnidar, K., & Pavičić, J. (2017). The key determinants of perceived external prestige (PEP) – Qualitative research approach. *Management: Journal of Contemporary Management Issues*, 22(1), 49–84. <https://doi.org/10.30924/mjcmi/2017.22.1.49>
- Tiarapuspa, Indyastuti, D. L., & Sari, W. R. (2018). Constructing counterproductive behavior for supporting environmental management system research. *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science*, 106, 012083. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/106/1/012083>
- Tuna, M., Ghazzawi, I., Yesiltas, M., et al. (2016). The effects of the perceived external prestige of the organization on employee deviant workplace behavior. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(2), 366–396. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ijchm-04-2014-0182>
- Worsfold, K., Fisher, R., McPhail, R., et al. (2016). Satisfaction, value and intention to return in hotels. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(11), 2570–2588. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ijchm-04-2015-0195>

Article

Beyond borders: Understanding the inclusion challenges and motivators of foreign employees: Suggestions for sustainable human resources practices

Eva Švejdarová

Škoda Auto University, 293 01 Mladá Boleslav, Czech Republic; eva.svejdarova@savs.cz

CITATION

Švejdarová E. (2024). Beyond borders: Understanding the inclusion challenges and motivators of foreign employees: Suggestions for sustainable human resources practices. *Human Resources Management and Services*. 6(3): 3427.
<https://doi.org/10.18282/hrms.v6i3.3427>

ARTICLE INFO

Received: 10 March 2024
Accepted: 26 June 2024
Available online: 8 July 2024

COPYRIGHT



Copyright © 2024 by author(s).
Human Resources Management and Services is published by PiscoMed Publishing Pte. Ltd. This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license.
<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>

Abstract: This study critically examines the multifaceted dynamics of foreign employee integration within the Czech Republic, with a specific focus on the Mladá Boleslav region. Conducted prior to the Ukrainian crisis, this research serves as a crucial baseline for understanding integration in a pre-crisis context and provides comparative insights into the evolving challenges and opportunities amid the subsequent migration movements. The study explores various aspects of integration and inclusion, drawing upon migration theories, economic factors, and sociological perspectives to understand the motivators and challenges faced by foreigners, particularly in light of the majority society's perception, which often leans towards skepticism and negativity. The research methodology builds on grounded theory and integrates both quantitative and qualitative approaches, utilizing surveys and semi-structured interviews to explore the experiences of foreign nationals, with an emphasis on immigrant women. A key finding of the study is the significant role of employers in facilitating integration. The paper discusses how businesses, through inclusive policies and practices, can profoundly influence the integration experience. Cooperation between employers, local integration centers, and other relevant organizations emerges as vital, providing additional resources and support systems to enhance the integration process. The study concludes by emphasizing the critical role of various stakeholders, particularly employers, in shaping sustainable human resources practices that foster a more inclusive and harmonious society.

Keywords: sustainable human resources management; diversity; equity; inclusion; belonging (DEIB); integration challenges; pre-crisis migration dynamics; role of employer; immigrant women; grounded theory

1. Introduction

This academic paper focuses on identifying the motivators and challenges that influence the integration of foreigners into Czech society. The research was conducted before the invasion of Ukraine and the subsequent significant influx of war-affected migrants to the Czech Republic, concretely from January 2019 to November 2021. As such, the findings and discussions within this paper provide a valuable baseline and reference point for understanding the integration dynamics in a pre-crisis context. This makes it particularly relevant for comparison and analysis against the backdrop of the massive migration movement caused by the Ukrainian conflict, offering insights that could be instrumental in addressing the challenges and opportunities presented by this new wave of migration.

At the time of the research, the local majority often perceived foreigners as a threat, influenced by negative news from various sources. The Czech population, being relatively homogeneous, was not fully prepared for migration waves from Slovakia, Ukraine, and other countries, showing reluctance to accept new members into their society. This is evident in cities like Mladá Boleslav, a hub for the automobile

manufacturing industry, where a significant foreign population has led to apprehension among local residents about foreign nationals and their cultures. It focuses on the lengthy process of foreigners' integration and the potential elimination of barriers to this process, building on quantitative and qualitative research.

Firstly, the article explores migration theories, economic aspects of migration, and the integration process from a theoretical perspective, including the most utilized migration theories to date. Particularly, it focuses on the theory of push and pull factors in migration, applying it to the research part of the paper. It examines which factors most influence economic migration from Slovakia, Ukraine, Russia, and Belarus to the Czech Republic. Secondly, it describes the research methodology, focusing on the direction of quantitative and qualitative research. In concordance with the grounded theory, it defines the tools for performance, analysis, and subsequent application of the research. It addresses the relationship of the majority society to foreigners in the Mladá Boleslav district and the experiences of female foreigners with migration and integration into Czech society. The quantitative research, through a survey, aims to explore the relationship of the majority society to foreigners in and around Mladá Boleslav. It seeks to uncover the main reasons for this relationship. The qualitative research, on the other hand, focuses on the perspective of the minority, gathered through in-depth semi-structured interviews with immigrant women living, working, or studying in Mladá Boleslav or its surroundings. The interviews are analyzed using coding of the most frequent themes and aim to identify factors influencing foreigners' willingness to immigrate to the Czech Republic and subsequently integrate into its society.

Finally, the paper highlights the crucial role of employers in facilitating the integration of immigrants, particularly in the Mladá Boleslav region. It discusses how businesses, through inclusive policies and practices, can significantly influence the integration experience of these groups. Employers are seen as key players in creating inclusive work environments, offering language support, ensuring non-discriminatory recruitment practices, and providing legal and cultural orientation. The paper underscores the importance of social integration through workplace initiatives like team-building activities and mentorship programs. Additionally, it emphasizes the role of employers in offering professional development opportunities, advocating for the rights of immigrant employees, and collaborating with local integration centers and organizations.

2. Literature review

The literature review in this study offers an extensive and detailed examination of the multifaceted aspects of global migration, with a particular emphasis on the context of the Czech Republic. It aims to provide a thorough understanding of the myriad factors influencing migration patterns and the integration of migrants especially within the specified region. This review is structured into six distinct sections, each focusing on a unique dimension of migration studies.

2.1. Theories and models in migration studies

In the realm of migration studies, a diverse range of theories and models merge

to form a comprehensive understanding of the intricate dynamics driving global human movements. Central to this discourse is the interplay of various factors that motivate individuals to migrate, encompassing economic, social, environmental, and personal dimensions. Lee (1966), a renowned theorist in the field of migration, is well-known for his systematic categorization of the push and pull factors of migration. He organized these factors into four fundamental categories: factors associated with the area of origin, factors linked to the destination area, intervening obstacles, and personal factors. Push factors, according to Lee (1966) and Lewis (1982), include changes in the natural environment, economic factors, political factors, and social factors, i.e., the migrant's feeling of deprivation, while the pull factors refer to better economic opportunities at the new destination, the acquisition of better education and working conditions, better living conditions, and going after someone who attracts the migrant in any way, thus strengthening social migrant networks. This classification provides a structured approach to understanding the various elements that influence migration. Building upon Lee's model, authors like Frič et al. (2009), Švejdarová et al. (2020), and Van Hear et al. (2018) have emphasized the significance of personal motivation and the perception of one's situation in migration behavior. This approach acknowledges the importance of individual perspectives and motivations in the migration process.

2.2. Factors influencing migration

Economic factors frequently emerge as the primary drivers of migration. Researchers such as Parkins (2010), Zoelle (2011), Djafar (2012), Krishnakumar and Indumathi (2014), Lang and Nadler (2014), and Carbajal and Calvo (2021) consistently point to the unemployment rate and low income as common push factors compelling people to leave their home countries. Conversely, the allure of higher living standards, better wages, improved working conditions, and greater career opportunities act as significant pull factors, drawing individuals to new destinations in pursuit of economic betterment.

Parallel to economic motivators are social and political factors that significantly shape migration patterns. The quality of education, healthcare systems, religious tolerance, the presence or absence of corruption, legal stability, and political integrity profoundly impact individuals' decisions to migrate. Issues like crime, violence, discrimination, and security concerns, as discussed by authors like Parkins (2010), Lang and Nadler (2014), Carbajal and Calvo (2021), and Urbanski (2022), also play dual roles as push and pull factors, influencing people's choices to leave or choose a particular destination.

Environmental and demographic factors have also gained prominence in recent migration discussions. Climate change, natural disasters, overpopulation, and demographic shifts, such as aging populations in developed countries and a lack of jobs in developing ones, are increasingly recognized as significant influences on migration trends, as highlighted by Martínez-Zarzoso et al. (2022).

2.3. Personal evaluation and decision-making in migration

Complementing these perspectives emphasized by De Jong and Fawcett (1981)

highlights the role of personal evaluation in the migration decision-making process. The authors consider psychologically meaningful categories of values or goals that people wish to attain and are labeled wealth, status, comfort, stimulation, autonomy, affiliation, and morality. Those seven individuals assess various options and choose the one that they perceive to offer the greatest utility, highlighting the subjective nature of migration decisions (De Jong and Fonesca, 2020).

Similarly, the place utility model, discussed by Wolpert (1965), focuses on personal aspirations and satisfaction. This model posits that potential migrants evaluate their current living conditions in terms of usefulness and aspirations. A mismatch between these two factors can motivate individuals to consider migration as a viable solution to fulfill their aspirations. Additionally, factors like war, political revolutions, and religious conflicts are highlighted as the predominant push factors in forced or involuntary migration. These elements underscore the compelling nature of migration under duress and the complex interplay of external circumstances and personal experiences, as discussed by Hager (2021).

This cohesive overview of migration theories, enriched by the contributions of various authors, illustrates the multifaceted and complex nature of migration. While economic and social factors are often at the forefront, the influence of personal aspirations, environmental changes, and demographic shifts cannot be overstated. Each model and theory offer unique insights into the myriad reasons behind migration, reflecting the varied and dynamic nature of this global phenomenon.

2.4. Migration situation in the Czech Republic Prior to 2021

Before 2021, the Czech Republic has been following an integration policy since 1999, which is based on two key government documents: the “Principles of the concept of integration of foreigners” and the “Concept of integration of foreigners.” These documents are regularly updated, with the most recent update occurring in 2016. In January of that year, the Czech government approved the “Updated concept of integration of foreigners 2016—In mutual respect,” commonly referred to as the Concept. Moreover, the government annually approves an “Implementation procedure for the concept.” It’s essential to highlight that within these government materials, the emphasis is on the mutual benefit of integration for both the state and its citizens, as well as for foreigners residing in the Czech Republic. Notably, unlike certain other European countries, integration in the Czech Republic is regarded as a right for foreigners rather than an obligation. The concept outlines five fundamental areas of integration for foreigners in the Czech Republic, which include: proficiency in the Czech language, economic self-sufficiency, orientation of foreigners in society, fostering relationships between communities, and the gradual acquisition of rights based on the length of stay.

For the year 2020, specific priorities and tools were established for each of these areas. Regarding language preparation, the government focuses on supporting children and adults with insufficient knowledge of the Czech language and introducing a Czech language proficiency test at the A2 level for obtaining permanent residency in the Czech Republic. In terms of economic self-sufficiency, the aim is to prepare foreigners for life and work in the Czech Republic by informing them about their rights and

obligations and enabling them to financially support themselves and their families without state assistance. The government supports community projects focused on employing foreigners, providing language courses, and other activities to achieve this objective.

To orient foreigners in Czech society, the government offers pre-arrival information, one-day adaptation and integration courses for newcomers, and socio-cultural courses for individuals interested in long-term settlement in the Czech Republic. To foster relationships between communities, the Implementation Procedure provides government grants and support for relevant projects, including the operation of the website (www.mezikulturnidialog.cz), which aims to inform both local and foreign communities. The final area addresses the acquisition of rights by foreigners based on their length of stay, defining the attainment of any legal status as a primary motivator for integration into Czech society. Additionally, the Implementation Procedure focuses on various other aspects related to the integration of foreigners, offering guidance for local and regional support. At the local level, this involves municipality projects aimed at integrating foreigners, such as the “Komplex in MB” project, which is supported by EU funds and the state budget. This project assists unemployed foreigners in Mladá Boleslav and includes discussion clubs focused on work-related topics for foreigners.

Regionally, there is a network of 18 centers dedicated to providing support for the integration of foreigners, with one center in each region of the Czech Republic. These centers offer social and legal counseling, language courses, and socio-cultural training. In addition to these government institutions, numerous non-profit organizations in the Czech Republic also play a crucial role in assisting foreigners in their journey towards successful integration. Some examples of such organizations include the Integration Center Prague, the Center for Foreigners in South Moravia, the Integration Advisory Center, the Diocesan Catholic Charity Hradec Králové, the Center for Integration of Foreigners, and People in Need. All of these organizations offer valuable assistance related to migration and integration issues.

2.5. Economic growth and demand for foreign workers

Furthermore, in the context of economic growth, there has been a growing demand for foreign workers, both globally and in the Czech Republic. The number of foreigners registered with the Labor Offices in the Czech Republic increased significantly from 2004 to 2017. Additionally, there was an increase in the number of foreigners with business licenses during the same period.

One of the primary reasons why employers turn to hiring foreigners is often due to a perceived shortage of domestic job applicants for certain positions or ongoing difficulties in meeting the labor market demand domestically. These positions may be less popular and often involve unskilled work with limited financial prospects or opportunities for career advancement. In most cases, hiring foreigners serves as a supplement to the labor market when there is an insufficient domestic labor supply. However, it is crucial to differentiate between individuals considered foreigners under the law and those who are not, as the legal conditions for non-Czech citizens significantly vary. Different requirements are also imposed on employers when hiring

foreign nationals.

2.6. Broader European context

Europe's aging population is significantly impacting labor markets, healthcare, and pension systems, leading to a dwindling workforce and a rise in the elderly population. To combat this, European countries and companies are adapting their strategies. Ortlieb and Sieben (2013) discuss the implementation of migration policies to recruit foreign workers. Simultaneously, several European nations are increasing retirement ages to maintain economic stability, a solution that only partially addresses the issue. Authors like Schmidt and Müller (2021) and others emphasize the need for European companies to find new labor sources to maintain operational viability. Managing a diverse workforce presents challenges, such as cultural and linguistic differences identified by Risberg and Romani (2022), but also offers opportunities for innovation. Effective integration of migrant workers is crucial, requiring a focus on cultural understanding, language skills, and unique competencies in recruitment, socialization, and training. The many studies (e.g., Schmidt and Müller, 2021; Risberg and Romani, 2022; Faaliyat et al., 2020) further highlight the importance of developing specific management policies to accommodate the varied backgrounds of foreign workers.

2.7. Attitudes towards foreigners in the Czech Republic

During periods of economic downturn, immigration tends to be associated with predominantly negative attitudes among the majority of the population. This is primarily due to concerns about employment, with migrants often perceived as taking jobs away from citizens of the host country or as a burden on the domestic social system. Despite research suggesting these beliefs are unsubstantiated, they persist in people's minds. In addition to the above-mentioned factors the results of a 2018 study by the Public Opinion Research Center, focusing on the attitudes of Czechs towards various aspects of life, reveal a high level of intolerance towards culturally diverse individuals. During this research, 1061 respondents were interviewed in person. When asked about undesirable neighbors, 31% of respondents indicated they would not want a person of a different skin color, 29% a foreigner living in the Czech Republic, and 18% someone of a different religious belief. These responses ranked fifth, sixth, and eighth most frequently mentioned out of fifteen evaluated criteria. For context, the worst-rated categories were drug-addicted neighbors at 87%, alcohol-dependent neighbors at 73%, and those with a criminal past at 72% (Ortlieb and Sieben, 2013). Such findings can be viewed as unfavorable from the perspective of minorities and their potential and motivation to integrate into the host society.

During economic recessions, fears of foreign nationals' influx are somewhat justified due to rising unemployment concerns. Foreigners are often among the first to lose jobs, leading to issues with legal residency in the host country and other EU countries. However, during economic growth, demand for foreign workers increases due to a domestic labor shortage, as currently observed in the Czech Republic and the region of Mladá Boleslav in particular. Despite these predominantly negative attitudes towards foreigners, including their employment, behavior, education, and other areas,

persist due to prejudices and reluctance in the majority society, even in times of economic prosperity. Efforts to support the influx of foreign nationals, typically seen during economic growth, are hindered by a lack of awareness among the host society, leading to issues in the integration potential and satisfaction of different nationalities. This can result in the formation of separate communities, disinterest in societal integration, and an emphasis on cultural differences, further fueling dissatisfaction among the country's citizens.

3. Materials and methods

This research study adopts a multi-faceted approach, integrating both quantitative and qualitative research methods, to examine the integration of foreign nationals in Mladá Boleslav, Czech Republic. The methodology is deeply rooted in grounded theory, a robust framework developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967), which emphasizes the derivation of theory from empirical data through a disciplined and systematic inquiry process.

Grounded theory, as conceptualized by its founders, Glaser and Strauss (1967), represents a paradigm shift from traditional deductive testing of preconceived theories to an inductive approach, where theories emerge organically from the research data. This approach emerged from their groundbreaking work studying the experiences of terminally ill patients. Over time, grounded theory has branched into several genres, each with unique characteristics: Traditional grounded theory, as developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967), Strauss and Corbin (1990), emphasizes staying close to the data and minimizing preconceived notions. Evolved grounded theory, as seen in the works of Gasler and Strauss (1967), Strauss and Corbin (1990), Clarke (2005), and Gasler (1992), incorporates more structured coding and acknowledges the researcher's influence. Constructivist grounded theory, championed by Charmaz (2011), focuses on the interpretive nature of inquiry and the co-construction of knowledge between researcher and participants. These variations signify the evolution and adaptability of grounded theory, making it suitable for diverse research contexts.

3.1. Application of grounded theory in this study

In this study, grounded theory principles are meticulously applied. The qualitative component, which includes techniques like semi-structured interviews, meticulous coding, and thoughtful analysis, aligns with the grounded theory's emphasis on theory emergence from data. The GT framework emphasizes deriving theory from empirical data through systematic inquiry; this is reflected especially in the approach to semi-structured interviews, meticulous coding, and thoughtful analysis of interviews with foreign women participants from diverse backgrounds, which aligns with grounded theory's emphasis on theory arising from data. This iterative process, which includes data collection, coding, and theory development, showcases GT's adaptiveness in exploring nuanced realms like attitudes, experiences, and motivations within the integration sphere. This involved an extensive iterative process, as we constantly moved back and forth between data and analysis, refining concepts and theories as new data emerged. To specify the codes representing key themes or issues relevant to the foreign population we constantly reflected on our role as researchers as well as on

how our biases and preconceptions might affect the research (Švejdarová, 2020). In addition, empowering research principles align with a focus on engaging subjects actively in the research process, allowing for the emergence of authentic and unfiltered perspectives from the respondents' experiences.

Despite the primary focus on the qualitative approach based on the grounded theory principles used in this study, mixed methods research was employed since it is ideal for exploring complex phenomena that require both numerical data and in-depth understanding. This approach allows the exploration of different aspects of a research problem, combining the objectivity of quantitative data with the richness of qualitative insights. In our particular case, it was chosen to reveal statistical trends concerning the majority population, while qualitative data provide deeper insights into individual experiences and perceptions of female migrant workers.

3.2. Qualitative research

The qualitative research segment stands as the cornerstone of this study, offering profound insights into the complex phenomena under investigation. The primary aim of the article is to comprehensively examine the multifaceted aspects of foreign employee integration in the Czech Republic, with a specific focus on the Mladá Boleslav district. This includes analyzing the push and pull factors influencing economic migration from Slovakia, Ukraine, Russia, and Belarus, and exploring how these factors impact the experiences of foreigners in terms of employment, legal issues, social integration, and personal adaptation. In addition, utilizing both quantitative and qualitative research methods, the study aims to understand the relationship between the majority society and foreign nationals and to uncover the real-world complexities and nuances in their experiences. Through this approach, the research seeks to provide detailed insights into the challenges and opportunities faced by foreigners living and working in the Czech Republic. Conducting in-depth, semi-structured interviews with 18 individuals, concretely 18 women foreigners, from varied backgrounds, thus ensuring a rich tapestry of perspectives on the integration process and related dynamics. The qualitative approach was carefully planned to ensure a secure environment for participants, addressing potential concerns about anonymity. This segment's methodology was particularly focused on capturing the contexts, attitudes, and lived experiences of individuals, thereby providing a depth of understanding that complements and enriches the quantitative data findings.

The study involved eighteen semi-structured, in-depth interviews, recorded on a voice recorder, with each session lasting from 60 to 90 min. The participants were diverse, including students, working students, employed women, and mothers on parental leave, providing a broad spectrum of perspectives reflecting different life stages and priorities. Grounded theory (Ortlieb and Sieben, 2013; Schmidt and Müller, 2021; Risberg and Romani, 2022; etc.), a methodology for constructing theories based on systematically gathered and analyzed data, was applied throughout the research process.

The research was also underpinned by the principles of empowering research as defined by Cameron et al. (1992), which emphasize changing the power dynamics between the researcher and the subjects. This approach involves the subjects actively

in the research process, allowing them to share their knowledge and experiences with minimal intervention from the researcher, thus treating them as equal partners in the study.

There was a set of 52 questions prepared for the participants of the study, which were categorized into various domains: basic personal information, work, and finances, relations with the majority society, employment agencies, employers, integration centers, legal aspects, and discrimination. The focus was on identifying the aspects most significantly influencing the motivation of these women to integrate into Czech society.

The demographics of the participants included seven women from Slovakia, six from Ukraine, four from Russia, and one from Belarus. The average duration of their stay in the Czech Republic was nearly ten years, with a range from one to twenty-four years. Post-interview evaluations assessed various aspects of their integration into Czech society, such as feeling at home in the Czech Republic, awareness of their rights, employment status, completion of education or other courses in the Czech Republic, completion of Czech language courses, having family or partners in the Czech Republic, and considerations for moving to other EU countries.

3.3. Quantitative research

The study's quantitative phase utilized an anonymous questionnaire survey. 850 completed questionnaires were collected from participants primarily from Mladá Boleslav. This survey aimed to dissect the majority population's perceptions of foreigners, probing into the underlying reasons shaping these attitudes. The questionnaire was meticulously designed, encompassing a range of question types to capture a holistic view of the respondents' attitudes, interactions, and demographic profiles. The extensive 119-day promotion of the survey via social media platforms underscores the commitment to achieving a representative sample. With a completion rate of 57.5%. In 42.5% of cases, the questionnaire was only viewed but not completed. The subsequent data analysis, employing frequency tables and graphs, played a crucial role in hypothesis testing and uncovering the deeper rationale behind the majority population's viewpoints. Concretely, the research focused on understanding how the majority society in Mladá Boleslav perceives the presence of foreign nationals in their vicinity. The primary aim was to identify the impact of the host country's inhabitants' biased attitudes on the integration potential of minority groups. The main target group for this survey was residents of Mladá Boleslav, representing the majority of society. This result is primarily attributed to two factors. Firstly, the survey was intended for residents near Mladá Boleslav, hence responses from other regions of the Czech Republic were deemed irrelevant. Secondly, the majority of society's detachment from migration and integration issues, not just in Mladá Boleslav, resulted in a lack of interest in participating in this research. The questionnaire comprised 11 simple questions, with a completion time ranging from two to ten minutes. Questions addressing sociodemographic data, such as gender, age, and educational attainment of respondents, were placed at the end of the survey. The remaining eight questions, mostly of a closed type, allowed for selecting one or more provided answers or indicating personal stances on a rating scale. Open-ended

questions were also included to allow the expression of personal thoughts. The types of questions were chosen to best reflect the real situation regarding the presence of foreigners in Mladá Boleslav.

3.4. Integration of quantitative and qualitative methods

The study's holistic approach, combining quantitative surveys with qualitative interviews, aligns with the best practices in social research as outlined by Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998). This blend not only enriches the data pool but also allows for a more nuanced and comprehensive understanding of the research problem. The research design, encompassing both quantitative and qualitative methods, is a testament to the robust application of grounded theory principles. It underscores a commitment to inductive theory generation from qualitative data, systematic inquiry, and a flexible yet rigorous approach to understanding the complexities of integration in the Czech Republic. Therefore, this study not only contributes significantly to the field of integration research but also exemplifies the practical application of GT in addressing complex social phenomena.

4. Results

4.1. Quantitative research analysis

It is important to mention at the very beginning of this section, that some respondents expressed personal opinions emphasizing individuality, highlighting the impossibility of evaluating a minority group as a whole but rather each person individually based on their personal characteristics, and the need to avoid stereotyping. Here is an example from an open-ended section of the survey: "There are decent foreigners, many work in higher positions than just labor jobs... "They have integrated and live here without bothering anyone or causing harm. Then there are the others, and it's worse with them. But I can't lump them all together in the survey" (Ms. A). "When assessing the behavior of foreigners, we must be objective about the behavior of the locals too. We can't assume locals are saints and everything should be easily forgiven for them" (Ms. B). Stereotyping and assigning significant weight to first impressions significantly influence our behavior and approach to minority groups, including foreign nationals. The purpose of this survey as designed by the researcher, was not to harm people of foreign origin but to reveal the attitude of the majority of society in Mladá Boleslav towards them.

Among the respondents, 61.1% were women, and 38.9% were men. Regarding age distribution, 89.4% (759 respondents) were between 18 and 45 years old. Only 0.6% (five respondents) were under 17 years old, while 10% (85 respondents) were over 46 years old.

Table 1 reflects educational background of the respondents varied: 56% (476 respondents) had secondary education with a high school diploma, 20.6% (175 respondents) had basic or secondary education without a diploma, and 22.9% (195 respondents) had higher education (bachelor's or master's degrees). Finally, 0.5% (four respondents) had postgraduate education.

Table 1. Educational background of respondents.

Education level	Percentage	Number of respondents
Secondary education with diploma	56.0%	476
Basic or secondary education without a diploma	20.6%	175
Higher education (bachelor's or master's)	22.9%	195
Postgraduate education	0.5%	4

Most respondents, nearly 97%, frequented the Mladá Boleslav area, ranging from several times a month to daily. This suggests that the respondents were familiar with the situation in the area and could assess criteria related to migration and integration of minority groups. The most commonly mentioned origins of foreigners were Ukraine, Poland, Slovakia, Vietnam, Russia, and Belarus, aligning with the actual statistics provided by the Czech Statistical Office in 2018 (Glaser, 1992).

Table 2. Interaction with minority groups.

Interaction location	Percentage
Public spaces (shops, streets, restaurants)	82.0%
Employment settings	69.0%
Schools	30.7%
Personal life (friendships)	21.3%
Personal life (partnerships)	6.0%

Table 2 reflects the interaction with minority groups (here, a choice of more opinions was possible), most encounters occur in public spaces such as shops, streets, and restaurants (82%). Employment settings where almost 69% of respondents encounter foreigners are also common. A smaller portion mentioned schools (30.7%), personal life in terms of friendships (21.3%), or partnerships (6%). Some respondents used the open-ended option to mention specific locations like “around my residence,” “in our apartment block,” or a recurring response of “everywhere.” A notable response was, “Unfortunately, they live in our apartment block, the estate is full of them and they make a mess, and noise, and there are many homeless people and addicts—Slovaks, Poles, Ukrainians, etc.” According to 2018 statistics, 139 homeless people in Mladá Boleslav had committed some offense, with 30 being Slovak, 35 being Polish, and only 4 being Ukrainian. In 66 cases, they were Czech citizens (Horáček, 2018).

Table 3. Perception of the number of foreigners.

Perception	Percentage
Excessive number of foreigners	56.0%
Indifferent	37.8%
Positive view	6.2%

In **Table 3**, it's important to note that a majority of survey participants view the number of foreigners living in Mladá Boleslav as excessive, with nearly 56% expressing this view. 37.8% are indifferent to this issue, not attributing any significant emotion to the presence of foreigners in their vicinity. Only 6.2% of respondents see

the number of foreigners in Mladá Boleslav positively.

The two areas identified as most disruptive to relationships with the minority society included the behavior of this group (72.6%) and the large number of foreign nationals in Mladá Boleslav (33.4%). Twenty-four respondents expressed their own opinions in the open-ended section, most of which were negatively tinted. The most common response was the language barrier between the minority and majority societies. Issues such as increased consumption of alcoholic beverages, different customs, and unwillingness to adapt were also mentioned. One respondent commented, “In the workplace, they occupy easy positions because the difficult ones cannot be explained to them.” This may be linked to the language barrier and prejudices associated with the work of foreign nationals in the Czech Republic. Another respondent categorized foreigners based on their family status/presence in the Czech Republic, “A family of Ukrainians are my best neighbors... but a large number of single men, who have no ties and families here, behave inappropriately.” Unacceptable behavior is often attributed to men who travel to the Czech Republic for work alone, spending their free time in ways judged negatively by the majority of society. There were also crude responses, such as “They have no business here (...),” with the rest of the quote containing only vulgarism. The responses to this and subsequent questions make it clear that the majority society’s approach to minority groups varies, influenced by different experiences and perceptions, ultimately affecting the majority’s behavior in a predominantly negative sense. The evaluation of foreigners’ behavior, was viewed as problematic by nearly 60% of respondents.

Table 4. Evaluation of foreigners’ integration.

Evaluation	Percentage
Good to excellent	11.3%
Average	29.5%
Poor to very poor	59.2%

Table 4 shows that only 11.3% are convinced that foreigners are integrated into society well to very well. An average rating was found in 29.5% of cases, and poor to very poor in nearly 60%. A significant failure of the majority of society is the lack of knowledge or misunderstanding of the concept of integration.

In the final section of the survey, respondents expressed their opinions on broader topics related to the impact of foreigners in the Czech Republic. For instance, as shown in **Table 5**, only 29.1% of respondents partially or fully agreed that foreigners contribute positively to the country’s economy. 29.9% were unsure of their stance, while a significant 41% disagreed with this statement. Additionally, 68% of those surveyed perceived foreigners as cheap labor, with 15.5% unsure and 16.5% disagreeing or strongly disagreeing with this view.

Table 5. Respondents' opinions on the impact of foreign nationals in the Czech Republic.

Aspect	Agree or partially agree (%)	Unsure (%)	Disagree or strongly disagree (%)
Foreigners contribute to the Czech economy	29.1	29.9	41.0
Foreigners are cheap labor	68.0	15.5	16.5
Foreigners take employment opportunities away from Czechs	43.0	15.1	41.9
Foreigners behave friendly	23.1	27.2	49.7
Foreigners engage in criminal activities	49.5	38.5	12.0

Nearly 43% of respondents believed that minorities in the Czech Republic were taking jobs away from Czech citizens. In another evenly divided response, 41.9% expressed disagreement, while 15.1% were undecided on whether foreigners' behavior towards the majority society is positive or negative. Only 23.1% of the participants viewed the behavior of foreigners towards themselves, as members of the majority society, as friendly. Meanwhile, 27.2% were unable to decisively categorize this behavior, and almost 50% gave a negatively toned response. Finally, the survey also explored the issue of illegal activities, with 49.5% convinced that foreigners engage in criminal acts. 38.5% did not know the answer to this question, and only 12% of the respondents disagreed with the statement.

As seen from the survey results, the prevailing views of immigrants in the Czech Republic in the Mladá Boleslav region are predominantly negative. These findings highlight a significant level of skepticism and negativity towards immigrants, reflecting challenges in social integration and acceptance within the Czech Republic. It is crucial to emphasize that the successful integration of foreign nationals into a society is a reciprocal process, requiring adjustments from both the minority (foreign nationals) and the majority (host society). This process is not solely about the transformation of the foreign nationals; rather, it involves mutual adaptation to the coexistence of diverse nationalities. An effective and mutually satisfactory outcome can only be achieved through this two-way process. However, the common expectation is often one of complete assimilation, where foreign nationals are expected to fully blend into the majority society, often at the cost of losing their unique cultural identities and individual differences. The prevalent negative attitudes, unsatisfactory conditions, and biases against foreigners in the host society not only hinder the integration process but also affect the willingness and quality of the integration outcomes.

4.2. Analysis of qualitative research

A comprehensive synthesis of qualitative research findings about the experiences and challenges faced by foreigners living in the Czech Republic. This table is the product of an in-depth study conducted using grounded theory, a robust qualitative research approach that emphasizes the discovery of themes emerging directly from the data. This method is particularly effective in uncovering the real-world complexities and varied nuances in the experiences of individuals in new and often challenging

environments.

The research aimed to focus on the multifaceted aspects of foreigners' lives in the Czech Republic, ranging from employment and legal issues to social integration and personal adaptation. The data was meticulously collected and analyzed, leading to the identification of specific codes, each representing a key theme or issue relevant to the foreign population. These codes provide insights into a broad spectrum of experiences, encompassing both the tangible and intangible aspects of living in a new country.

Each code is listed along with its frequency of occurrence, offering a clear and quantifiable understanding of the commonalities and prevalence of various experiences among the foreign population. This table serves not only as a reflection of the diverse challenges faced by foreigners but also as a window into their resilience and adaptability. It offers a nuanced understanding of the complex process of integration into a new cultural and social milieu, shedding light on both the struggles and successes encountered by women foreigners in the Czech Republic.

This detailed exploration aims to provide valuable insights into the factors that facilitate or hinder the integration process, thereby contributing to a deeper understanding of the dynamic interaction between foreign individuals and the host society.

Table 6. Results of qualitative research—frequency of occurrence of different codes.

Code	Frequency
Work-related issues	68
Majority perspective from foreigners' view	55
Integration	55
Home country (all mentions)	54
Adaptation (stress, internal struggle)	53
State and authorities	46
Czech language	44
Partner/family	38
Discrimination	35
Residence status	31
Education	28
Friends	24
Stereotypes and biases	23
Employment agencies	21
Financial compensation	21
Relationship with minorities (relations with other foreigners)	17
Success/self-realization	16
Violation of working conditions	16
Mafia	3

As seen from **Table 6**, the qualitative research findings offer a detailed and nuanced view of the experiences of foreigners in the Czech Republic. grounded theory, pivotal in qualitative research, allows for the emergence of themes directly from data,

providing an authentic and unfiltered perspective of the respondents' experiences. This approach has successfully identified a range of codes, each signifying specific challenges and aspects of life faced by foreigners, going beyond mere categorizations to reflect the complexities of their lived experiences.

The study covers a wide array of issues, encompassing both professional and personal challenges. On the professional front, it focuses on employment conditions, job searching difficulties, and interactions with employment agencies, highlighting economic migration as a key driver for foreigners seeking better opportunities in the Czech Republic. Personal and emotive aspects such as family relationships and discrimination, pivotal in the integration process, are also examined. These aspects underscore the interplay of personal experiences and societal dynamics in the immigrants' journey.

Language proficiency emerges as a critical factor, influencing not only employment opportunities but also social interactions and dealings with government agencies. The research notes disparities in language acquisition, particularly between Slovak-speaking women and those speaking Russian and Ukrainian, which directly impact their integration process. The study also sheds light on the relationships between minority groups and the majority Czech society, revealing prevalent stereotypes and prejudices. These perceptions significantly affect the sense of belonging and integration of these groups into Czech society. Varied experiences with government offices, especially the immigration police, highlight issues such as language barriers and a lack of clear information, affecting the understanding of rights and obligations in the Czech Republic.

Integration centers form another crucial aspect of the study. The findings point to a lack of awareness among some immigrants about these centers and the services they offer. Those who are aware of and utilize these services often encounter challenges like limited capacity in language courses and other programs. Overall, this qualitative research provides a comprehensive understanding of the multifaceted challenges and factors influencing the integration of immigrant women, particularly in the Mladá Boleslav region. It underscores the importance of factors such as employment conditions, legal awareness, and language proficiency. Additionally, the study highlights the critical role of support from government institutions, integration centers as well as employers in facilitating the integration process. This rich, in-depth analysis reveals the complex realities of life as a foreigner in the Czech Republic, offering valuable insights into the challenges they face, as well as their resilience, adaptability, and diverse experiences in navigating their new environment.

5. Discussion

Both quantitative and qualitative research conducted before 2021 in the Mladá Boleslav region revealed a concerning trend: the prevailing attitude of the majority society towards immigrant groups was predominantly negative. This finding underscores the challenges faced by these minority groups in their quest for integration into the local community. To counteract such prejudice and bias, the role of government bodies and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in the area should be undeniably significant. However, another key player in this scenario is the business

sector. Employers, through their practices and policies, wield considerable influence in shaping the integration experience of these vulnerable groups.

In response to these challenges, the qualitative research study has identified several strategies that can serve as an inspiration for businesses looking to support the integration of immigrants, and immigrant women in particular, in the Mladá Boleslav region. These strategies, derived from a detailed analysis of the data and the coding process, aim to address the specific needs and barriers faced by these groups. They reflect a comprehensive approach, encompassing various aspects of workplace integration, language acquisition, social inclusion, and professional development.

Employers have a significant role to play in facilitating the integration process. Their involvement extends beyond merely providing job opportunities, it should also include the creation of a more inclusive, supportive, and growth-oriented environment for these immigrants. They can foster inclusive work environments by implementing diversity and inclusion policies. This effort involves promoting a culture of respect and acceptance, ensuring that the workplace is a safe space for employees from different cultural backgrounds. Such an approach not only nurtures a sense of belonging among immigrant employees but also enriches the organizational culture with diverse perspectives. Recognizing the importance of language proficiency in the integration process, employers can support their immigrant employees in acquiring the local language. This support could range from offering language courses to providing language learning resources or creating opportunities for language practice within the workplace. Such initiatives can significantly ease the communication barriers that immigrant workers often face. The role of employers extends to providing fair and equal employment opportunities. Ensuring non-discriminatory and inclusive recruitment practices gives equal chances to immigrant women, acknowledging the value they bring to the workforce. Additionally, offering legal and cultural orientation helps immigrant employees navigate the nuances of working in the Czech Republic, including understanding local labor laws and societal norms.

Social integration is another crucial aspect to which employers can contribute significantly. Facilitating social connections and networks through team-building activities, social events, or mentorship programs can help immigrant employees build relationships with longer-term residents or citizens, fostering a sense of community and belonging. Professional development opportunities are vital in making immigrant employees feel valued and integrated. Employers can offer training, workshops, and opportunities for career advancement, including taking on new responsibilities. Such initiatives not only aid in the personal and professional growth of immigrant employees but also contribute to the overall productivity and innovation within the organization.

Employers can also act as advocates for the rights and needs of their immigrant employees, both within the organization and in the broader community. This advocacy is essential in shaping a more understanding and accommodating societal perspective towards immigrants. Collaborating with local integration centers and other relevant organizations allows employers to access additional resources and support systems, further aiding the integration process. Lastly, sharing experiences, feedback, and success stories related to the integration of immigrant employees can contribute to a broader understanding of these challenges and successes. In the context of sustainable

HR practices, employing the Critical Incident Technique can prove highly beneficial. Specifically, leveraging intercultural critical incidents enhances cultural sensitivity and awareness in diverse scenarios (Švejdarová et al., 2020). To conclude, this sharing of best practices can inspire other businesses and influence policymakers, leading to more effective integration strategies at a larger scale. Employers have the potential to significantly impact the integration of immigrant groups, not only by providing employment but also by creating a nurturing, inclusive, and development-oriented environment. These efforts benefit not only the immigrants but also the workplace and the community as a whole.

6. Limitations of the study

The study offers insights into the integration of foreign employees in the Czech Republic. However, to provide a more detailed understanding, overcoming the regional focus would be necessary. The research focused exclusively on the Czech Republic, specifically the Mladá Boleslav region. While this regional specificity allows for in-depth analysis, it limits the broader applicability of the findings to different geographical contexts. The dynamics of foreign employee integration can vary significantly across regions and countries, and the study's findings may not fully capture these variations. The study was conducted before the Ukrainian crisis, which marked a critical turning point in global migration patterns. This specific timeframe could impact the study's relevance to the current landscape of migration and integration. The Ukrainian crisis and subsequent events may have introduced new challenges and opportunities that are not addressed in the study. While valuable for qualitative research, the sample size may be limited in its representativeness. A larger and more diverse sample could offer a more comprehensive understanding of the experiences of foreign employees in the Czech Republic. In addition, this study relied deeply on a qualitative approach, including interviews and an analysis of the open-ended questions from the surveys. While these methods provide rich insights into individual experiences, they may not capture more detailed quantitative data or generalize findings to a broader population. External factors and policy changes that occurred after the study's timeframe are not addressed. Migration policies and societal attitudes toward foreign employees have evolved, potentially impacting integration experiences. The study does not account for these post-study developments, limiting its ability to reflect current realities accurately.

7. Generalizability of the study

Despite the specific regional and temporal context of the study, it offers valuable insights with potential applications in various contexts as it underscores the importance of considering both universal principles and local nuances when striving for successful integration outcomes. While the research explores the integration of foreign employees in the Czech Republic, future endeavors can be extended to other European countries that share similarities in immigration patterns, economic conditions, and labor market dynamics. While each country may have unique aspects of integration, the overarching principles of addressing language and cultural barriers remain pertinent across these contexts.

The emphasis on the important role of employers in the integration process transcends geographic boundaries. Employers worldwide are central to fostering inclusive workplaces, providing language support, and promoting diversity. In addition, the study's recommendations for robust and empathetic integration strategies can serve as a blueprint for organizations and policymakers in diverse settings. The emphasis being placed on tailoring approaches to local contexts is a valuable lesson with broader implications. It encourages stakeholders to adopt a nuanced and context-specific approach to integration, acknowledging that one-size-fits-all solutions may not be effective. While the specific implementation of these strategies may vary, the fundamental principles of creating inclusive environments and addressing language and cultural barriers are adaptable to different regions and countries. To conclude, although the study is rooted in a particular regional and historical context, its findings and insights possess generalizability and relevance to similar contexts, particularly within Europe.

8. Conclusion

The research on foreign employee integration in the Czech Republic, focusing on the Mladá Boleslav region, offers a critical pre-Ukrainian crisis baseline for understanding integration dynamics. It illuminates the complex interplay of economic, social, and personal factors in integration and highlights the pivotal role of employers. The study emphasizes the need for comprehensive integration strategies, underscored by the significant influence of employers in shaping inclusive workplaces and fair practices. These strategies are particularly crucial for supporting immigrant women, encompassing workplace integration, language support, social inclusion, and professional development. The research advocates for active employer involvement in championing immigrant rights and needs within the organization and in broader societal contexts. It also stresses the importance of social integration activities, including team-building and mentorship, to forge meaningful connections between immigrant employees and the wider community. Professional development opportunities are highlighted as key to making immigrant employees feel valued and integrated. Collaborations between employers, local integration centers, and universities are identified as crucial for effective integration, providing additional resources and support systems. Sharing experiences and success stories related to immigrant integration is a powerful tool for broadening understanding, inspiring other businesses, and influencing policy decisions. This paper delineates the complexities of foreign employee integration and underscores the critical roles of various stakeholders, particularly employers, in this process. The role of employers extends beyond providing job opportunities to creating a holistic environment that supports the growth, dignity, and well-being (Holman and Švejdarová, 2023) of immigrant employees. The insights from this research provide a compass for developing sustainable human resources practices that foster an inclusive, supportive, and productive environment. As migration dynamics continue to evolve, especially in the post-Ukrainian crisis, these findings and recommendations present a strategic framework for adapting to and embracing these changes, contributing to a more cohesive and harmonious society.

Acknowledgments: I extend my profound gratitude to Škoda Auto University for their invaluable support in the SGS project. This initiative, backed by the Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sports of the Czech Republic, has significantly contributed to the advancement of my research endeavors. I would also like to express my heartfelt thanks to my former master's students, Valeria Labada and Veronika Vajchrová. Their dedication, insight, and hard work have been instrumental in the success of this project.

Conflict of interest: The author declares no conflict of interest.

References

- Cameron, D., Frazer, E., Harvey, P., et al. (1992). *Researching Language: Issues of Power and Method*. London: Routledge.
- Carbajal, M. J., & De Miguel Calvo, J. M. (2021). Factors that influence immigration to OECD member States. *Cuadernos de Trabajo Social*, 34(2), 417–430. <https://doi.org/10.5209/cuts.70475>
- Charmaz, K. (2011). A constructivist grounded theory analysis of losing and regaining a valued self. In: Wertz, F. J., Charmaz, K., McMullen, L. J., et al. (editors). *Five ways of doing qualitative analysis: phenomenological psychology, grounded theory, discourse analysis, narrative research, and intuitive inquiry*, 1st ed. New York: Guilford. pp. 165–204.
- Clarke, A. (2005). *Situational analysis: grounded theory after the postmodern turn*. CA: Thousand Oaks: SAGE.
- De Jong, G. F., & Fawcett, J. T. (1981). Motivations for Migration: An Assessment and a Value-Expectancy Research Model. *Migration Decision Making*, 13–58. <https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-0-08-026305-2.50008-5>
- de Jong, P. W., & Fonseca, M. L. (2020). The role of the origin country in migration aspirations: A cross-national comparison of Master students in Portugal and the Netherlands. *Population, Space and Place*, 26(5). Portico. <https://doi.org/10.1002/psp.2325>
- Djafar, F. (2012). Dynamics of Push and Pull Factors of Migrant Workers in Developing Countries: The Case of Indonesian Workers in Malaysia. *Journal of Economics and Behavioral Studies*, 4(12), 703–711. <https://doi.org/10.22610/jebis.v4i12.370>
- Faaliyat, R., Townsend, K., Peetz, D., et al. (2020). Skilled migrant employees' perceptions of support from line managers. *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal*, 39(8), 931–947. <https://doi.org/10.1108/edi-09-2019-0246>
- Frič, P., & Remenárová, J. (2009). Ethnic climate in Mladá Boleslav: A comprehensive report on the quality of life in the multicultural environment of Mladá Boleslav (Czech) Prague: IRBIS Liberec (Czech).
- Glaser, B. G. (1992). *Basics of grounded theory analysis*. Mill Valley, CA: Sociology Press.
- Glaser, B. G., Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: strategies for qualitative research*. New York: Aldine de Gruyter.
- Hager, A. (2021). What Drives Migration to Europe? Survey Experimental Evidence from Lebanon. *International Migration Review*, 55(3), 929–950. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0197918320988662>
- Holman, D., Švejdárová, E. (2023). The 21st-Century Empowering Wholeness Adaptive (EWA) Educational Model: Transforming Learning Capacity and Human Capital through Wholeness Systems Thinking towards a Sustainable Future. *Sustainability*, 15(2), 1301.
- Horáček, B. (2018). The Mlada Boleslav Municipal Police recorded 139 offenders from among the homeless (Czech). *Statutární město Mladá Boleslav*.
- Krishnakumar, P., Indumathi, T. (2014). Pull and Push Factors of Migration. *Global Management Review*, 8(4), 8–13.
- Lang, T., Nadler, R. (2014). Return Migration to Central and Eastern Europe: Transnational Migrants' Perspectives and Local Businesses' Needs.
- Lee, E. S. (1966). A theory of migration. *Demography*, 3(1), 47–57. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2060063>
- Lewis, G. J. (1982). *Human Migration*. New York: St. Martin's Press.
- Martínez-Zarzoso, I., Nowak-Lehmann, F., & Paschoaleto, R. D. L. (2023). Climate change, natural disasters, and international migration: A country-level analysis considering climatic zones. *Frontiers in Climate*, 4. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fclim.2022.986088>
- Ortlieb, R., & Sieben, B. (2013). Diversity Strategies and Business Logic. *Group & Organization Management*, 38(4), 480–511. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601113497094>

- Parkins, N. C. (2010). Push and Pull Factors of Migration. Special Issue: Migration and Caribbean Society., 8(2).
<https://doi.org/10.38024/arpe.119>
- Risberg, A., & Romani, L. (2022). Underemploying highly skilled migrants: An organizational logic protecting corporate 'normality.' *Human Relations*, 75(4), 655–680. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726721992854>
- Schmidt, W., & Müller, A. (2021). Workplace universalism and the integration of migrant workers and refugees in Germany. *Industrial Relations Journal*, 52(2), 145–160. Portico. <https://doi.org/10.1111/irj.12320>
- Strauss, A. L., Corbin, J. M. (1990). *The basics of qualitative research: grounded theory procedures and techniques*. CA: Newbury Park SAGE.
- Švejdarová, E., Labada, V., Vajchrová, V. (2020). Intercultural Critical Incidents as a Tool of Dialogical Learning—Student-Researchers' Perspective. In: *Proceedings of ICERI2020 Conference*. 46-55.
- Tashakkori, A., Teddlie, C. H. (1998). *Mixed Methodology: Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. CA: Thousand Oaks: SAGE.
- Tuček, M. (2018). Tolerance towards selected population groups—March (Czech) Centre for Public Opinion Research (Czech).
- Urbański, M. (2022). Comparing Push and Pull Factors Affecting Migration. *Economies*, 10(1), 21.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/economies10010021>
- Van Hear, N., Bakewell, O., & Long, K. (2018). Push-pull plus: reconsidering the drivers of migration. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 44(6), 927–944. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1369183x.2017.1384135>
- Wolpert, J. (1965). Behavioral aspects of the decision to migrate. *Papers of the Regional Science Association*, 15(1), 159–169.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/bf01947871>
- Zoelle, D. (2011). Push Factors: Immigration as a Consequence of Development Lending [Western Political Science Association 2011 Annual Meeting Paper]. *Transnational Borders, Equity and Social Justice*.

Article

Mediating effect of job satisfaction on talent engagement and employees' commitment in the Nigerian Civil Service

Aminu Abdulrahman Anas¹, Ejikeme Emmanuel Isichei^{2,*}

¹ Department of Public Administration, Centre for Distance Learning and Continuing Education, University of Abuja, Federal Capital Territory, Abuja 902101, Nigeria

² Department of Business Administration, University of Abuja, Federal Capital Territory, Abuja 902101, Nigeria

* Corresponding author: Ejikeme Emmanuel Isichei; isichei_ejike@yahoo.com

CITATION

Anas AA, Isichei EE. (2024).
Mediating effect of job satisfaction
on talent engagement and employees'
commitment in the Nigerian Civil
Service. *Human Resources
Management and Services*. 6(3):
3405.
<https://doi.org/10.18282/hrms.v6i3.3405>

ARTICLE INFO

Received: 27 March 2024

Accepted: 2 July 2024

Available online: 19 July 2024

COPYRIGHT



Copyright © 2024 by author(s).
*Human Resources Management and
Services* is published by PiscoMed
Publishing Pte. Ltd. This work is
licensed under the Creative
Commons Attribution (CC BY)
license.
[https://creativecommons.org/licenses/
by/4.0/](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/)

Abstract: The Nigerian Civil Service faces ongoing challenges in optimizing employee commitment, which is fundamental for efficient service delivery and societal progress. Hence, this paper focuses on the mediating effect of job satisfaction on talent engagement and employee commitment in the Nigerian Civil Service. The study adopted a quantitative approach, which allowed for a survey design to be adopted. A sample of 198 middle- and lower-level managers in the civil service was used. Questionnaires were used for data collection, and SmartPls 3.9 was used for data analysis. The result showed that talent engagement significantly predicts employee commitment and that job satisfaction is a good mediator in the relationship between talent engagement and employee commitment in the Nigerian Civil Service. The findings suggest that creating an engaged workforce through talent engagement can have a positive influence on employee commitment within the public sector, which can result in improved public services and contribute to overall societal development.

Keywords: job satisfaction; talent; employees; commitment; Nigeria; civil service

1. Introduction

The ever-competitive nature of the business environment has been attributed to the increased talent war in business circles (Kaleem, 2019). Talent is a set of enduring qualities and attributes that allow for long-term sustainability and growth, both for the individual and for the organisation (Bhattacharyya, 2015). It may come easier for private firms, given their access to large resources, work structure, and goodwill; the same cannot be said for public firms, given their seemingly poor ability to manage talents. Kravariti and Johnston (2020) stated that talent needs are greater in the public sector given the enormous and challenging roles and demands involved, especially for service-provider public institutions. This informs the view of Ogohi (2019), who states that a major challenge for poor public institution performance is associated with its inability to attract, retain, and maintain talent in its corporation.

Consequently, there has been varying literature on approaches towards talent attraction and retention (Lyria et al., 2017; Kehinde, 2012), and several other studies have shown that attracting and retaining talent in both the public and private sectors has a direct influence on commitment (Osaro, 2016; Kaliprasad, 2006). This has prompted efforts towards attracting, retaining, and developing the talent pool in organisations; however, while for private firms it has yielded some level of result in the employee's commitment, the reality in the public sector has rather been complex and conflicting (Boselie and Thunnissen, 2017; Poocharoen and Lee, 2013), hence making one wonder how engaging talent in the public service could drive employee

commitments.

In developing economies, most especially in Nigeria, where the civil service, like all over the world, implements government policies and programmes, there is an urgent need to understand the gap that a lack of talent engagement has posed to employees' commitment to the civil service. This is because the civil service has been characterised by poor employee attitudes to work, absenteeism, increased turnover, and delirium of duty, among other things (Osawe, 2015; Omisore and Okofu, 2014; Ishaq, 2013). These symptoms are what Osawe (2015) describes because of poor commitment to work. Hence, the question arises: how can talent engagement be advanced towards improving employee's commitment to work in the Nigerian public service?

Despite recognition of the significance of talent engagement, a gap persists in understanding the specific mechanisms through which it influences employee commitment within this context. Additionally, while job satisfaction's pivotal role is acknowledged, there remains a need to comprehensively explore its mediating impact in the relationship between talent engagement and employee commitment. This research aims to address these gaps by investigating the intricate interplay among talent engagement, job satisfaction, and employee commitment in the Nigerian Civil Service, thereby providing valuable insights for organizational enhancement and policy formulation.

Talent engagement, or interchangeably used employee engagement and commitment, have conflicting and inconsistent studies on their relationship (Friday and Sunday, 2019; Rameshkumar, 2020), especially for public sector firms (Poocharoen and Lee, 2013), thus implying that there are other factors that could help explain the relationship and provide better clarity to the relationship. Some studies have shown that job satisfaction significantly predicts commitment (Suharto et al., 2019; Valaei and Rezaei, 2016); however, how job satisfaction mediates the relationship between talent engagement and commitment remains silent in the literature.

It is this gap, among others, that this study seeks to close. Also, arguments on how talent can be engaged in public service have remained scarce, and attention seems to be focused on developed economies; the reality for developing economies remains limited, and to the best of the author's knowledge, none exists. Hence, this paper seeks to unravel the mediating effect of job satisfaction on talent engagement and employee commitment in the Nigerian Civil Service. The central objective of this study is to account for the direct effect of talent engagement on employee commitment while also accounting for the indirect effect of job satisfaction on this relationship.

2. Theoretical reviews

The theory used to underpin this study is Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory (1943). In Maslow's hierarchy of needs, human desire is categorized into four namely: psychological, safety, love and esteem, and self-actualization need (Aruma and Hanachor, 2017). At a psychological level, the needs are basically food, shelter, sleep, clothes, and so on. At the safety level the concern is about security and safety of individual environment and work while at the level of love, the desire is to be loved,

a sense of belonging and affection. Lastly the self-actualization need is where the potential of an individual is recognised (Onah, 2015).

Employees newly starting out in their careers will be satisfied as long as the job they are engaged in is able to meet the basic needs of the individual such as food, clothes, and shelter, and given the high rate of unemployment in the country and the over-dependent on government job believed to have the most form of job security. Employees will commit and willingly contribute towards the achievement of organizational goals as long as they are able to meet these needs. However, human beings are complex and unpredictable, in reality, employees may be desiring needs from different levels of the hierarchical need at the same time (Richter et al., 2017), still, the theory helped to explain that, job satisfaction is not static as employees are not static. To engage talents, organizations must be able to meet needs at each level of the hierarchy as different employees desire different needs at different times and there could be a combination of the need factors to drive performance and commitment.

3. Conceptual clarification

3.1. Talent engagement

The focus of organisations in recent times is to attract and engage talented employees as it serves as a sure strategy to ensure competitive advantage and promote the success and advancement of such organization (Levinson, 2007). Talent engagement is the tactic an organization uses to create connections with prospective talented applicants through strategic communication and other mediums with the aim of gaining their interest and support for the organisation (Lori 2019). Talent engagement refers to enticing skillful workers and ensuring their dedication and commitment to the standards, objectives, and ethics of the organisation (Jakubik, 2016). The phases of talent management are all-inclusive, and commence from the point of selecting from the pool of prospective individuals, to the recruiting phase and throughout their professional advancement till departure (Bakker, 2011).

Talent engagement differs from employee engagement as the former is a segment and part of employee engagement while employee engagement is a wider and encompassing view of engagement (Jakubik, 2016; Marrelli, 2011). Employee engagement has to do with the extent to which workers relate and bond with their jobs and is dedicated to the objective of the organisation and the organisation itself (Salimath and Kavitha, 2019). Jakubik (2016) stated that the critical differentiating factor is the focus on competency in differentiating talent and employee engagement. Also, Lusa and Luukkonen (2012) stated that talent engagement is capability-focused focused that is aimed at using the individual's skill to ensure favourable results for the organisations and its employees.

Similarly, Keeble and Armitage (2014) asserted that with effective talent engagement, organisations have been able to achieve increased financial gains which can be said to be a result of employees' dedication. Also, Lopez et al. (2015) stated that to engage talents there is a need for effective and competent leadership, as there are certain attributes managers must have to successfully engage talents, and they include: the ability to clarify objectives and functions of workers, take into

consideration differences while maintaining organization fitness, honest and genuine communication, principled and honourable, understand the different array of skills of his workers and encourage their growth, and express confidence in their workers and support difference in opinions and differences in workers.

In addition, managers must be ready to receive criticism, fix sensible performance criteria for themselves and the workers, and be able to give criticism when performance is below the bar set (Goriup and Šoba, 2015). Talent engagement underscores the necessity of integrating mentoring practices to enhance the competence and efficacy of employees, ensuring the successful attraction and sustained retention of skilled individuals (Dickson et al., 2013). Although talent engagement has received considerable attention within the public service domain, there exists a scarcity of studies examining talent engagement specifically through the lens of public service, thus serving as a pivotal motivation for this research endeavour.

3.2. Job satisfaction

In every organization, human resources is one of the essential factors determining the extent of organizational performance and the edge the organization will have over its closest rival (Malik and Kanwal, 2016). Human resources are among the prized resources necessary for the survival of the organisation; hence, job satisfaction is one of the determinants of how they rate their work which consequently affects their attitude toward the job (Mohammd et al., 2019). Employees with high job satisfaction perform better and are more committed to their jobs compared to those with low job satisfaction (Qasim and Syed, 2012), which makes the concept of job satisfaction a common topic of discussion for managers.

The concept of job satisfaction is among the highly researched concepts and a major focus of leaders and scholars (Wann-Yin and Htaik, 2011; Qasim and Syed, 2012; Kim et al., 2017). Job satisfaction refers to the state of mind of a worker towards work, and it is seen as the favourable and unfavourable disposition towards work (Ucar and Otken, 2010). Miao (2011) stated that job satisfaction deals with the complete health, safety, and welfare of a worker in an organization, it is an innate examination of the work and everything associated with the work in terms of its positivity or negativity.

Job satisfaction is about favourable and unfavourable emotions of an employee towards their job (Luthans, 2011). It is clear that job satisfaction has to do with the feelings employees have towards their job. However, job satisfaction is affected by certain factors. Certain factors at work and in the job will make an employee to have a positive and favourable disposition about their jobs and vice versa. Hakkak et al. (2014), opined that job satisfaction is either intrinsic or extrinsic in nature. Elements influencing intrinsic satisfaction include ethics, societal ranking, and expertise while elements affecting extrinsic satisfaction include wages, advancement, esteem, and communication.

Mishra (2013) held that factors affecting job satisfaction can be categorized into personal factors, job factors, and managerial factors. Under the personal factor, gender, and academic qualification are elements affecting job satisfaction. He posited that women enjoyed higher job satisfaction than men, age has little influence on job

satisfaction, and that highly trained employees are likely to experience low job satisfaction compared to others. For the job factor, the nature of the job, requisite talent, job ranking, and duty are elements under this factor. He believed the nature of the job contributes largely to job satisfaction as factory workers are mostly less satisfied compared to other staff in an organization, those with talents and considerable expertise experience high job satisfaction, and those with higher ranking have favourable job satisfaction than those at the lower rank. Lastly, the managerial factors have elements such as pay, job environment, and welfare package. He asserted that organizations that pay higher, have a favourable working environment and higher welfare package will lead to high and favourable job satisfaction.

3.3. Employee commitment

Another important element responsible for the success of any organisation, particularly with the intense struggle to attract and retain talent is employee commitment. Commitment is the level of a person's participation and involvement in an organisation (Ramalho Luz et al., 2018). It refers to a situation where a worker is voluntarily, continually, and dedicated to the accomplishment of organizational goals (Febriansyah, 2010). He further opined that it is natural for a worker to be dedicated to an organization when it is meeting their primary desire and affirming their relevance. Invariably, the features of commitment are trust and reliance on corporate objectives and ethics, readiness to contribute meaningfully towards the success of the organisation, and readiness to continually be part of the organisation. Saks (2006) stated that commitment has the ability to influence attitude as it leads employees to regulate behaviour in alignment with what they are dedicated to. Moreover, when employees are involved in resolutions, their commitment level will be heightened.

A committed employee will continue working with an organisation, readily contribute, and willingly put in more effort even in good and bad times (Ayandele and Isichei, 2013). Employees who are committed desire to have pleasure in doing their job, and have a sense of being valued and recognized for their efforts toward achieving corporate goals (Vance, 2006). Hence, factors responsible for employee commitment are gratification, impartiality, and attention to workers. It is worth noting that employee commitment affects corporate performance (Ivancevich, 2010).

Organisations are beginning to understand that committed personnel is crucial for continuous achievement and performance. Commitment reduces the loss of competent employees to rival organizations, especially with the present desire for organizations to attract and retain their skillful and competent and with the recognition that the continuous accomplishment of organisation relies largely on workers who are steady and dedicated to organizational success (Ramsay and Finney, 2006). Lockwood (2007) stated that the essential component that influences commitment is the connection between the supervisor and the worker. Therefore, the supervisor needs to establish cordial and quality relationships with the workers to create an enabling environment that can foster employee commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1991) conceptualised commitment into affective, normative, and continuance. The first mentioned deals with workers having an emotive relationship with the organisation while the second mentioned are when the worker

feels indebted to the organisation and the last typology happens as a result of the inability of the worker to get employed in another organisation (Madi et al., 2012). Therefore, to ensure employee's commitment, organisation need to identify the importance of their workers and the efforts they exert towards the progress of their organisation. This means organisation should have regard and value their workers beyond the outdated style of seeing employees as just part of the mix but by ensuring their efforts are recognized and are treated fairly so that they effortlessly contribute towards the success of the organisation (Madi et al., 2012). In this paper, the effective form of commitment is the focus and the choice of this commitment is because it will be more relevant for the public service, as despite its offering little there is a willingness to continue with the service.

3.4. Relationship between talent engagement and employee commitment

Talent engagement is crucial for employee commitment, and the extent of organizational success depends on the perfect usage and practises of both concepts. Friday and Sunday (2019) found that the extent of an employee's commitment is the degree the worker obtains gratification and motivation from doing their work and identifying with the organisation, commitment is the bond an employee has with an organization, participation, and dedication towards corporate objectives while talent engagement is the process of attracting and retaining skillful and qualified candidates while ensuring they are committed to the organization. Oladapo (2014) found that talent engagement ensures there is continuous supply and maximization of needed competent and expert workers to achieve the organization's goals and value.

Invariably, talent engagement and commitment will to favourable outcomes for an organisation, therefore, to enjoy the advantages of these practices there is a need to have a clear and systematic strategy for attracting and recruiting talents into the organization, creating and executing policies that aid quality attraction and retention of workers, practise effective staffing, performance management and develop an assessment and feedback tool for effective communication to foster engagement (Vance, 2006). Lockwood (2007) stated that the crucial element that affects commitment is the connection between the supervisor and the worker. Therefore, the supervisor needs to establish cordial and quality relationships with the workers to facilitate commitment. Hence, we propose that:

H₁: Talent engagement has a positive and significant effect on employee's commitment to the Nigeria civil service.

3.5. Relationship between talent engagement, job satisfaction, and employee commitment

Job satisfaction is an integral component ensuring employee commitment necessary for the advancement and lucrativeness of an organisation (Ahmed et al., 2010). According to the research carried out by Feinstein and Vondrasek (2001), job satisfaction and employee commitment have a basis and outcome connection and job satisfaction will lead to employee commitment. Job satisfaction is the basis while commitment is the outcome. Rastgoo (2016) found a link between talent engagement and job satisfaction. Meanwhile, job satisfaction affects employee's behaviour and

defines the degree an employee is satisfied with the benefits derived from the job (Statt, 2004). Desirable behaviour and undesirable behaviour towards work affect the effectiveness of the workers, turnover, and commitment (Armstrong, 2006).

Samwel (2018) observed that job satisfaction favourably influences the commitment and success of an organisation and supervisors should highly regard the issues surrounding the dedication and commitment of their staff as the outcome will be unfavourable to any organisation experiencing a low level of commitment. Furthermore, the study carried out by Aydogdu and Asikgil (2011) revealed there is a substantial connection between job satisfaction and commitment which is in line with the summation of Dirani and Kuchinke (2011) who added that job satisfaction forecast commitment. Consequently, when employees are satisfied with their jobs, they easily commit to the organization, it is necessary for managers to create a working environment that ensures their employees are fulfilled while engaging in activities that contribute to the success of the organization. Hence, we propose that:

H₂: Talent engagement has a significant and positive effect on job satisfaction

We argue that a satisfied workforce tends to exhibit higher levels of commitment, which is a notion underpinning the assumption that contented employees are more likely to demonstrate dedication, loyalty, and a willingness to go beyond their formal duties, thus contributing significantly to the achievement of organizational goals. Consequently, the assertion of job satisfaction as a primary influencer of employee commitment within the Nigerian Civil Service underscores the imperative for fostering workplace contentment as a strategic means to cultivate a committed and engaged workforce. Moreover, workers who are highly committed are effective, dedicated with a high sense of accountability are highly valuable and cost-effective to such organisation (Demirel and Goc, 2013).

Invariably, organization should ensure satisfaction at every level of activities while taking into consideration the job factor and managerial factors. Under the job factor, the nature of the job, requisite talent, job ranking, and duty are elements under this factor. The nature of the job should be made attractive and honourable, there are cases where job titles are changed in organizations so that employees will have pride in what they do. For example, changing the job title from “Messenger” to Office Assistant”, from “Cleaner” to “Office Support Officer” has an effect on the intrinsic nature of satisfaction. Moreover, when employees understand they can advance from the lower ladder to the top hierarchy of the organization, this adds to the satisfaction they have in the job. Lastly, in managerial factors, we have elements such as pay, job environment, and welfare package. The more attractive the pay and benefits an employee derives working for an organization has a positive effect on their satisfaction level, moreover, when the working environment and supervision are conducive, supportive, and cordial, there will be increased job satisfaction. Hence, we propose that:

H₃: Job satisfaction significantly affects employee’s commitment to the Nigeria civil service.

H₄: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between talent engagement and employee’s commitment in the Nigeria civil service.

4. Methodology

Cross-sectional survey design was adopted and was informed by the nature of the study which requires that information should be gathered across a cross-section of participants to make informed conclusions about the study of interest. A sample of 212 employees was drawn from employees in three Federal Civil Service, which are the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Finance, and the Ministry of Defence. The choice of these ministries is because they are the major engine room of governance in the country. Participants in the survey are employees from grade level 8 to 15. The choice of the sample range was because they form the lower and middle-level managers and given time and strength on their part retaining them is always difficult compared to management staff in the service. The sampling technique was a mix of purposive and simple sampling techniques and permission was obtained from the Head of service of the federation for the distribution of the instrument, however, the most critical was the willingness to take part in the survey. G-power analysis showed the required sample was 108 to achieve high statistical power, however, given the sample is above, the sample will be retained. Internal consistency and construct and criterion measures was used for reliability and validity respectively. Partial least square was used for data analysis and this was done with the aid of SmartPLSv3.9. See **Figure 1** for the theoretical model.

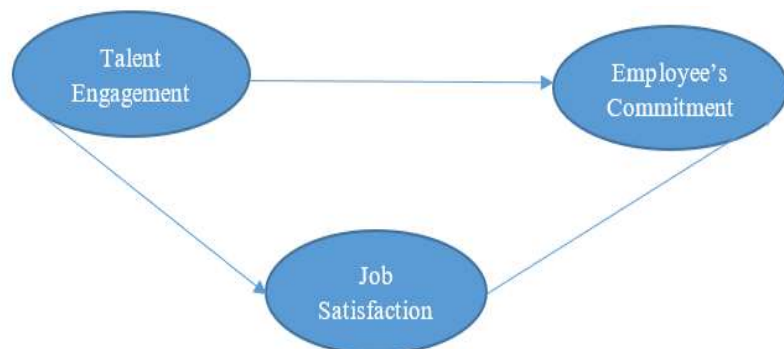


Figure 1. Conceptual diagram showing the mediating effect of job satisfaction on talent engagement and employee's commitment.

5. Measures

5.1. Talent engagement

Talent engagement was measured using a self-designed instrument, however, some of the items the scale of were adapted from the conceptualization of Jakubik (2016), Men (2015), and the scale of Sendawula et al. (2018). The instrument has 12 items and the scale format is Likert that designed from strongly agree to strongly disagreed. Sample of the scale is “I am actively involved in any activity in the organisation that leads to greater performance”, and “I have a strong sense of dedication given my competence on the job assigned to me”. Factor analysis from the pilot study of 35 samples in the private sector, specifically, two telecommunication firms in FCT, showed that the KMO and Sphericity test were significant (0.701, <0.001), and the Cronbach alpha coefficient was 0.754. The result of the factor

analysis showed that 5 items were dropped, and 7 items were retained given the factor scores were within the threshold of 0.70 as recommended by Pallant (2011).

5.2. Employees commitment

Employee commitment was measured with 8 items adapted from the study of Mahmood et al. (2019), Meyer et al. (1993), and Chen (2006). The instrument was designed in a Likert scale format of strongly agreed to strongly disagreed. The instrument item samples are “I work beyond the actual expected since it will lead to improving the performance of the civil service”; “I ensure that the services rendered to the public are placed above my personal interest and comfort”. Factor analysis from the pilot study of 35 samples in the private sector, specifically, two telecommunication firms in FCT, showed that the KMO and Sphericity test were significant (0.819, <0.001), and the Cronbach alpha coefficient was at 0.831. The result of the factor analysis showed that 3 items were dropped, and 5 items were retained given the factor scores were within the threshold of 0.70 as recommended by Pallant (2011).

5.3. Job satisfaction

The instrument for measuring job satisfaction in this study was adapted from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Chen, 2006) and the scale of Price (1977). The instrument has 15 items all designed in a Likert scale format of strongly agreed to strongly disagreed, designed in a Likert scale format of strongly agreed to strongly disagreed. Factor analysis from the pilot study of 35 samples in the private sector, specifically, two telecommunication firms in FCT, showed that KMO and Sphericity test were significant (0.741, <0.001), and the Cronbach alpha coefficient was at 0.764. The result of the factor analysis showed that 8 items were dropped, and 7 items were retained given the factor scores were within the threshold of 0.70 as recommended by Pallant (2011).

6. Result and discussions

The usable instrument from the sample distribution of 212 instruments was 198 (93%) out of the retrieved total of 200. The demographic distribution of the respondents showed male respondents were 97 (49%) and female are 101 (51%). The age bracket from the data shows respondents between 20–30 years are 16 (8%), 31–40 years are 79 (40%), 41–50 years are 68 (34%) and 51 years and above are 35 (18%). Current grade levels of respondents show that levels 6–8 are 76 (38%), levels 9–12 are 58 (29%), and grade levels 12–15 are 64 (33%). The result shows a balance in the distribution of the various cadre of respondents who took part in the survey.

6.1. Measurement model

The assessment of the models led to the removal of some items that failed to meet the threshold of 0.70 Latan and Noonan, (2017) recommended. This led to the removal of 4 items for talent engagement, 3 items for employee commitment, and 4 items for job satisfaction. The PLS algorithm converged after iteration five. The variance inflation factor (VIF) result shows the absence of a collinearity problem given the values are below the thresholds recommended (Latan and Noonan, 2017). The

Cronbach alpha, rho_A, composite reliability result, and average variance extracted (AVE) were within the threshold recommended (Hair et al., 2019) (see **Table 1**). Fornell-larcker criterion for convergent and discriminant validity was satisfied, the AVE was greater than the correlations and the HTMT inference ratio was less than 1 (Henseler et al., 2015).

Table 1. Factor loadings.

Constructs	Loadings	Cronbach's alpha	rho_A	Composite reliability	Average variance extracted (AVE)
Talent engagement		0.708	0.715	0.835	0.628
TE1	0.805				
TE2	0.790				
TE3	0.782				
Employee's commitment		0.841	0.842	0.926	0.863
EC1	0.811				
EC2	0.752				
Job satisfaction		0.799	0.834	0.879	0.708
JS1	0.846				
JS2	0.814				
JS3	0.862				

Source: Authors computation using SmartPlsv3.9.

6.2. Structural path model

The structural paths show all the paths are positive, which implies that talent engagement directly influences employee's commitment and the relationship is mediated by job satisfaction. Talent engagement explains about 36.8% of changes in employee's commitment and when mediated with job satisfaction, it accounts for 23.8% of changes in employee's commitment (see **Figure 2**), thus, implying a moderate coefficient of determination (Henseler & Chin, 2010). The result shows that talent engagement directly predicts job satisfaction and employee's commitment, while job satisfaction also predicts employee's commitment. Hair et al. (2019) recommended that path coefficients above 0.2 imply the relationship is strong, thus is on this basis that the study that there is a positive strong relationship between talent engagement and employee's commitment and job satisfaction has strongly mediated the relationship between talent engagement and employee's commitment.

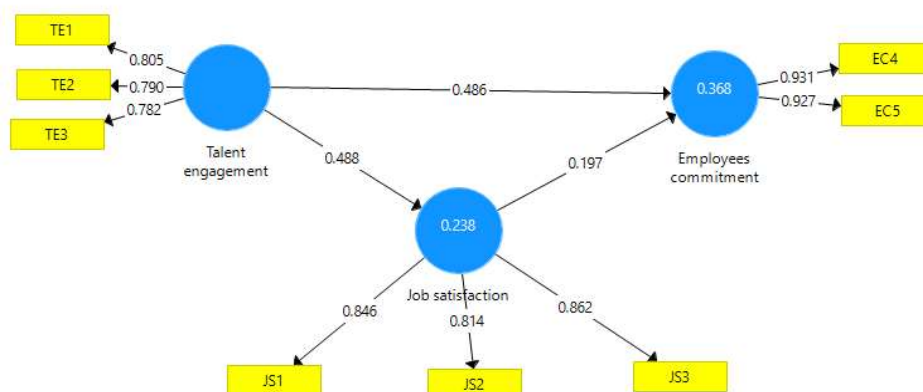


Figure 2. The structural path on talent engagement, job satisfaction, and employee's commitment.

The significance of the relationships was assessed using the p -value. The output shows that not all the paths are significant, given that not all the paths are above the t -value of 1.96 recommended by Streukens and Leroi-Werelds (2016) for path significance using the t -value. Not all the p -values are less than 0.05, as seen in **Table 2** and **Figure 3** below.

Table 2. Path significance.

	Standard deviation (STDEV)	T statistics (O/STDEV)	P values	Hypothesis decision
Talent engagement -> Employee's commitment	0.085	5.686	0.000	Accept H ₁
Talent engagement -> Job satisfaction	0.075	6.538	0.000	Accept H ₂
Job satisfaction -> Employee's commitment	0.106	1.860	0.063	Reject H ₃
Talent engagement -> Employee's commitment -> Job satisfaction	0.194	2.052	0.000	Accept H ₄

Source: Author's computation, 2022.

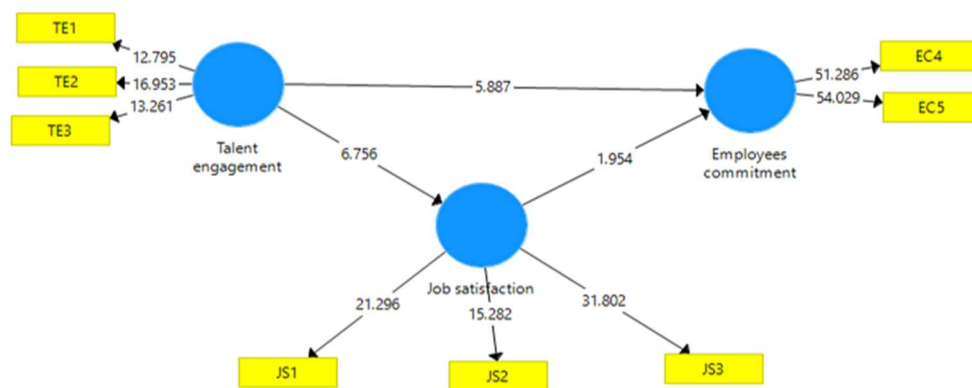


Figure 3. Significance model on the relationship between lean management practices, workplace structure, and performance of telecommunications firms.

The result shows that talent engagement has a significant effect on employee's commitment given the t -value (5.686) is above 1.96 and the p -value is less than 0.05. This is consistent with the findings of Oladapo (2014) and Friday and Sunday (2019), which also found that talent engagement has a significant influence on employees' commitment. **Table 2** also shows that talent engagement has a significant influence on job satisfaction as the t -value (6.538) is greater than 1.96 and the p -value is less than 0.05. The result finding agrees with the study of Rastgoo, (2016) who also found that talent engagement significantly influences job satisfaction. Findings from **Table 2** indicate that employee's commitment does not influence job satisfaction, however, while this does not conform so much with existing literature such as Almansour (2012), and Altinoz et al. (2012); it is also worth observing that these studies were even carried out in the private sector; therefore, the result could be because the study was carried out in the public sector. Thus, conclusions could be drawn that employees' commitment to the public service quite differs in the private sector, as the emphasis on individual commitment could be based on internal or personal factors not relative to the satisfaction derived or the motivation associated with the job. The result

confirms that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between talent engagement and employee's commitment in the Nigerian Civil Service. This is given the t -value (2.052) is greater than 1.96 and the p -value is less than 0.05, which is the major contribution of this study. The fit of the model was assessed using the chi-square. The chi-square value (117.908) is greater than 0.05 as Benitez et al. (2020) recommended.

7. Conclusion and implications

The study concludes that talent engagement significantly affects employee commitment in the Nigerian Civil Service and it also concludes that talent engagement has a significant impact on job satisfaction among civil service employees. Lastly, the study concludes that job satisfaction acts as a mediator in the relationship between talent engagement and employee commitment within the Nigerian Civil Service.

The study contributes to the existing body of knowledge by highlighting the mediating role of job satisfaction between talent engagement and employee commitment in the context of the Nigerian Civil Service. This finding underscores the importance of considering job satisfaction as a mechanism through which talent engagement can be advanced in driving employee commitment. Hence, the Nigerian Civil Service should focus on enhancing talent engagement initiatives to increase employee commitment. Efforts to improve job satisfaction can serve as a pathway to strengthen this relationship.

It is imperative for the civil service commission in the country to invest in training and development programmes that promote talent engagement and skills enhancement, which can positively impact both employee commitment and job satisfaction. There is a need for the civil service of the federation to consider implementing effective performance management systems that recognize and reward talent and can contribute to increased talent engagement, thereby leading to higher levels of employee commitment and job satisfaction. As a policy implication, strategic policies should be framed that would be aimed at fostering talent engagement and addressing job satisfaction, as it will be useful in deriving a more committed and motivated public workforce.

This study makes a distinctive contribution to knowledge as it advances job satisfaction as an intervening variable that talent engagement could be channelled towards improving employee commitment in the public sector. Further, this research enhances our understanding of how talent engagement practices influence employee commitment in public sector settings. These findings not only offer actionable insights for organizational strategies but also fill a significant gap in the literature, providing a nuanced understanding of factors crucial for enhancing workforce commitment in public service contexts, and ultimately contributing to the broader discourse on organizational behaviour and public sector management.

8. Limitations and suggestions for future studies

The study was limited to only three federal ministries in Nigeria; future studies should capture a broad spectrum of federal ministries to see if the same result will likely be obtained. Also, the study was limited to a quantitative approach; future studies should consider a longitudinal, qualitative, or mixed-method approach.

Author contributions: Conceptualization, AAA and EEI; methodology, EEI; software, EEI; validation, AAA; formal analysis, AAA and EEI; investigation, EEI; resources, AAA; data curation, AAA; writing—original draft preparation, EEI; writing—review and editing, AAA; supervision, AAA; project administration, AAA; funding acquisition, AAA. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Conflict of interest: The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

References

- Ahmed, I. (2010). Effects of Motivational factors on Employees Job Satisfaction: A case study of University of the Punjab, Pakistan. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(3). <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijbm.v5n3p70>
- Almansour, M. Y. (2012). The relationship between job satisfaction and organization commitment among managers in telecommunication companies in JORDAN. *Ozean Journal of Applied Sciences*, 5(2), 109–121.
- Altinoz, M., Cakiroglu, D., & Cop, S. (2012). The Effect of Job Satisfaction of the Talented Employees on Organizational Commitment: A Field Research. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 58, 322–330. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.09.1007>
- Armstrong, M. (2006). *A Handbook of Human Resource Management Practice*, 10th ed. Kogan Page Publishing.
- Aruma, E. O. & Hanachor, M. E. (2017). Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and assessment of needs in Community Development. *International Journal of Development and Economic Sustainability*, 5(7), 15–27.
- Ayandele, I. A., & Isichei, E. E. (2013). Performance management system and employee's job commitment: An empirical study of selected listed companies in Nigeria. *The International Journal of Management*, 2(1), 1–13.
- Aydogdu, S., & Asikgil, B. (2011). An empirical study of the relationship among job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intention. *International Review of Management and Marketing*, 1(3), 43
- Bakker, A. B. (2011). An Evidence-Based Model of Work Engagement. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 20(4), 265–269. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0963721411414534>
- Benitez, J., Henseler, J., Castillo, A., & Schuberth, F. (2020). How to perform and report an impactful analysis using partial least squares: Guidelines for confirmatory and explanatory IS research. *Information & Management*, 57(2), 103168. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.im.2019.05.003>
- Bhattacharyya, D. K. (2015). Collegial talent management practices in Indian organizations. *Journal of Case Research*, 8(2), 1–16.
- Boselie, P., & Thunnissen, M. (2017). Talent Management in the Public Sector. In: Collings, D. G., Mellahi, K., & Cascio, W. F. (editors). *Oxford Handbooks Online*. Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780198758273.013.9>
- Chen, C. F. (2006). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and flight attendants' turnover intentions: A note. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, 12(5), 274–276. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jairtraman.2006.05.001>
- Demirel, Y., & Goc, K. (2013). The impact of organizational commitment on knowledge sharing. In: *Proceedings of the 1st Annual International Interdisciplinary Conference, AIIC 2013; 24–26 April 2013; Azores Islands, Portugal*. pp. 954–963.
- Dickson, J., Kirkpatrick-Husk, K., Kendall, D., et al. (2013). Untangling Protégé Self-Reports of Mentoring Functions. *Journal of Career Development*, 41(4), 263–281. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845313498302>
- Dirani, K. M., & Kuchinke, K. P. (2011). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment: validating the Arabic satisfaction and commitment questionnaire (ASCQ), testing the correlations, and investigating the effects of demographic variables in the Lebanese banking sector. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(5), 1180–1202. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2011.556801>
- Febriansyah, H. (2010). Endorsing employee engagement through human capital approach. An empirical research. In: *Proceedings of the 11th International Conference; 24–27 November 2010; Ankara, Turkey*. pp. 969–978.
- Feinstein, A. H., & Vondrasek, D. (2001). A Study of Relationships between Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment among Restaurant Employees. *Journal of Hospitality, Tourism, and Leisure Science*, 1(4), 1–20.
- Friday, E. O., & Sunday, M. (2019). Talent Management and Workers' Commitment. *SEISENSE Journal of Management*, 2(3), 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.33215/sjom.v2i3.138>

- Ishaq, R. M. (2013). Civil Service and the Challenge of Productivity in Nigeria. *International Letters of Social and Humanistic Sciences*, 14, 37–44. <https://doi.org/10.18052/www.scipress.com/ilshs.14.37>
- Ivancevich, J. M. (2010). *Human Resource Management*, 11th ed. McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- Jakubik, M. (2016). Talent engagement framework as a journey to performance, *Review of innovation and competitiveness*, 2(3), 101–122. <https://doi.org/10.32728/ric.2016.23/6>
- Kaleem, M. (2019). The Influence of Talent Management on Performance of Employee in Public Sector Institutions of the UAE. *Public Administration Research*, 8(2), 8. <https://doi.org/10.5539/par.v8n2p8>
- Kaliprasad, M. (2006). The human factor 1: Attracting, retaining, and motivating capable people. *Cost Engineering*, 48(6), 20–26.
- Kehinde, J. (2012). Talent Management: Effect on Organization Performances. *Journal of Management Research*, 4(2). <https://doi.org/10.5296/jmr.v4i2.937>
- Kim, W. H., Ra, Y. A., Park, J. G., & Kwon, B. (2017). Role of burnout on job level, job satisfaction, and task performance. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 38(5), 630–645. <https://doi.org/10.1108/loj-11-2015-0249>
- Kravariti, F., & Johnston, K. (2019). Talent management: a critical literature review and research agenda for public sector human resource management. *Public Management Review*, 22(1), 75–95. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14719037.2019.1638439>
- Levinson, E. (2007). Developing High Employee Engagement Makes Good Business Sense. Available online: www.interactionassociates.com/ideas/2007/05/developing_high_employee_engagement_makes_good_business_sense.php (accessed on 5 July 2024).
- Lockwood, N. R. (2007). Leveraging Employee Engagement for Competitive Advantage: HR's Strategic Role, *SHRM Research*, 15(9), 603–634.
- Luthans, F. (2011). *Organizational Behavior*, 12th ed. McGraw-Hill, Inc.
- Lyria, R. K., Namusonge, G. S., & Karanja, K. (2017). The effect of talent attraction on organizational performance of firms listed in the Nairobi Securities Exchange, *Journal of Human Resource and Leadership*, 1(3), 18–30.
- Madi, M., Abu-Jarad, I., & Alqahtani, A. H. (2012). Employees' Perception and Organizational Commitment: A Study on the Banking Sector in Gaza, Palestine. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 3(16).
- Mahmood, A., Akhtar, M. N., Talat, U., et al. (2019). Specific HR practices and employee commitment: the mediating role of job satisfaction. *Employee Relations: The International Journal*, 41(3), 420–435. <https://doi.org/10.1108/er-03-2018-0074>
- Malik, M. S., & Kanwal, M. (2016). Impacts of Organizational Knowledge Sharing Practices on Employees' Job Satisfaction: Mediating Roles of Learning Commitment and Interpersonal Adaptability. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 30(1), 2–17.
- Marrelli, A. F. (2011). Employee engagement and performance management in the federal sector. *Performance Improvement*, 50(5), 5–13. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pfi.20216>
- Maslow, A. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review*, 50(4), 370–396. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0054346>
- Maslow, A. H. (1954). *Motivation and personality*, 1st ed. Harper.
- Men, L. R. (2015). Employee engagement in relation to employee–organization relationships and internal reputation: Effects of leadership communication. *Journal of Public Relations*, 9, 1942–4604.
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1(1), 61–89. [https://doi.org/10.1016/1053-4822\(91\)90011-z](https://doi.org/10.1016/1053-4822(91)90011-z)
- Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(4), 538–551. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.78.4.538>
- Mishra, P. K. (2013). Job Satisfaction. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 14(5), 45–54. <https://doi.org/10.9790/1959-1454554>
- Mohammad, A., Rand, A., & Ra'ed, M. (2019). Factors that affect Employees Job Satisfaction and Performance to Increase Customers' Satisfactions. *Journal of Human Resources Management Research*, 2(9), 354277. <https://doi.org/10.5171/2019.354277>
- Ogohi, D. C. (2019). Analysis of the Performance of Public Enterprises in Nigeria, *European Journal of Business and Management*, 6(25), 24–32.
- Oladapo, V. (2014). Impact of Talent Management on Retention. *Journal of Business Studies Quarterly*; 5(3), 19–36.
- Omisore, B. O., & Okofu, B. I. (2014). Staff recruitment and selection process in the Nigerian public service: What is to be done? *International Journal of Human Resource Studies* 4(3), 280–293. <https://doi.org/10.5296/ijhrs.v4i3.6367>
- Onah, F. O. (2015). *Human Resource Management*, 4th ed. John Jacob's Classic Publisher Ltd.

- Osaro, C. (2016). Talent Attraction and Employee Retention in Oil Firms in Rivers State, *International Journal of Novel Research in Humanity and Social Sciences*, 3(2), 75–84.
- Osawe, C. O. (2015). Nigerian public service performance in a dysfunctional ecology: Issues, challenges and the way forward, *Review of Public Administration and Management*, 3(7), 45–57.
- Pallant, J. (2011). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS*. Open University Press/McGraw-Hill.
- Poocharoen, O., & Lee, C. (2013). Talent Management in the Public Sector: A comparative study of Singapore, Malaysia, and Thailand. *Public Management Review*, 15(8), 1185–1207. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14719037.2013.816525>
- Price, J. L. (1977). *The Study of Turnover*. Iowa State Press.
- Ramvalho Luz, C. M. D., Luiz de Paula, S., & de Oliveira, L. M. B. (2018). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction and their possible influences on intent to turnover. *Revista de Gestão*, 25(1), 84–101. <https://doi.org/10.1108/rege-12-2017-008>
- Rameshkumar, M. (2020). Employee engagement as an antecedent of organizational commitment – A study on Indian seafaring officers. *The Asian Journal of Shipping and Logistics*, 36(3), 105–112. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajsl.2019.11.003>
- Ramsay, C. S., & Finney, M. I. (2006). *Employee engagement at Intuit*. Mountain View, CA: Intuit Inc.
- Richter, M., Wright, R. A., Brinkmann, K., & Gendolla, G. H. E. (2017). *Motivation—Psychology*. Oxford Bibliographies Online.
- Saks, A. M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 21(7), 600–619. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940610690169>
- Salimath, M. G., & Kavitha, B. R. (2019). Research on Employees Engagement. *ISBR Management Journal*, 1(4).
- Samwel, J. (2018). Effect of job satisfaction on employees' commitment and organizational performance: study of solar energy companies in lakezone regions, Tanzania. *International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management*, 1(4). 2348–2386.
- Sendawula, K., Nakyejwe Kimuli, S., Bananuka, J., & Najjemba Muganga, G. (2018). Training, employee engagement and employee performance: Evidence from Uganda's health sector. *Cogent Business & Management*, 5(1), 1470891. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2018.1470891>
- Statt, D. (2004). *The Routledge Dictionary of Business Management*, 3rd ed. Routledge Publishing.
- Streukens, S., & Leroi-Werelds, S. (2016). Bootstrapping and PLS-SEM: A step-by-step guide to get more out of your bootstrap results. *European Management Journal*, 34(6), 618–632. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emj.2016.06.003>
- Suharto, S., & Hendri, N. (2019). The Impact of Organizational Commitment on Job Performance. *International Journal of Economics and Business Administration*, 7(2), 189–206. <https://doi.org/10.35808/ijeba/227>
- Valaei, N., & Rezaei, S. (2016). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment. *Management Research Review*, 39(12), 1663–1694. <https://doi.org/10.1108/mrr-09-2015-0216>
- Vance, R. J. (2006). *Employee Engagement and Commitment: A guide to understanding, measuring and increasing engagement in your organization*. Available online: https://www.academia.edu/32595344/Employee_Engagement_and_Commitment_A_guide_to_understanding_measuring_and_increasing_engagement_in_your_organization (accessed on 5 July 2024).

Article

Human resource practices and performance in information technology projects

Saba Riaz^{1,*}, Zeshan Ali Haider², Kashif Saleem³¹ School of Management Harbin Institute of Technology, Harbin 130407, China² Department of Management Sciences, University of Okara, Okara 53600, Pakistan³ Department of Business Administration, Lahore Leads University, Lahore 54000, Pakistan* Corresponding author: Saba Riaz, sabariaz345@gmail.com

CITATION

Riaz S, Haider ZA, Saleem K. (2024). Human resource practices and performance in information technology projects. *Human Resources Management and Services*. 6(3): 3425. <https://doi.org/10.18282/hrms.v6i3.3425>

ARTICLE INFO

Received: 21 April 2024

Accepted: 30 July 2024

Available online: 5 August 2024

COPYRIGHT



Copyright © 2024 by author(s). *Human Resources Management and Services* is published by PiscoMed Publishing Pte. Ltd. This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license. <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>

Abstract: This quantitative survey was non-experimental and had two goals. An evaluation of predictor variables of empowerment, motivation, teamwork, interpersonal skills, and training and development in project environments was one goal to help explain the industry's high project failure rate. Second, this research tested Bandura's social learning theory and tested the hypothesis that empowerment and motivation boost performance. Using a survey-based questionnaire, the data was collected from 212 employees working in different IT companies in Pakistan. The results revealed that empowerment, motivation, teamwork, and training and development have a significant impact on project performance. Using the results, this study proposes theoretical implications for the researchers and managerial implications for the organizations.

Keywords: empowerment; motivation; teamwork; training and development; IT industry; Pakistan

1. Introduction

A widely acknowledged and continuing study by Standish Group International found that 32% of projects succeeded, 44% failed, and 24% were terminated or never delivered. Over 70,000 information technology projects were analyzed over 15 years and showed a consistent tendency toward chronic cost and schedule overruns. Despite its high cost, overruns are typical. Whelan-Berry and Somerville (2010) suggested that organizational change projects have even higher failure rates, 33%–80%, and that academic and practitioner concern for these projects is widespread.

Shepherd and Cardon (2009) stated that only one in 10,000 new product initiatives is delivered, and the cancellation of new product endeavors reduces commitment and effort thereafter (Fu et al., 2009), which harms companies. Murugesan (2012) said this erosion hurts companies' future commercial potential. These project failures persist despite the use of well-known and acknowledged project management strategies to synchronize stakeholder activities, which do not always improve project success rates. Despite 40 years of good methods, Al-Ahmad et al. (2009) report that project failure has persisted into the 21st century. Project failure may result from not delegating decision-making to team members (Cao and Swierczek, 2010; Hwang et al., 2020). This study examined the countering approach of individual and team empowerment to promote skill growth and mastery, which Bandura's (1977) Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) identified as key to higher performance, a claim supported by literature in the US and worldwide.

Project management best practices or success factors are well-understood methods for managing projects to achieve objectives within limits (Kerzner, 2019), which Yazici (2011) called project efficiency. Yazici (2009) and Kuen and Zailani (2012) found that over 75% of organizational capacity programs fail and 84% overshoot time or budget. Whelan-Berry and Somerville (2010) estimated that 80% of change projects fail, while Shepherd and Cardon (2009) said fewer than one in ten thousand new product projects deliver, which reduces employee commitment to organizational goals and future business prospects.

Due to this high failure rate, project management is shifting from best practices to behavioral variables like individual and team motivation (Kerzner, 2019). Wuestewald and Steinheider (2012) identified this tendency as the natural convergence of scientific management and humanist psychology methods when firms realize the competitive benefit of adaptive learning. Previous project studies that found employee empowerment improves motivation and project performance have limited sample sizes and restricted sample populations (Biron and Bamberger, 2011; Garegano et al., 2022). Addressing these limitations may improve the external validity of study results and lead to more generalizable conclusions about how HRM practices like employee empowerment, motivation, teamwork, training and development, and interpersonal skills affect project performance, potentially improving practitioner project implementations across industries.

This quantitative survey was non-experimental and had two goals. An evaluation of predictor variables of empowerment, motivation, teamwork, interpersonal skills, and training and development in project environments was one goal to help explain the industry's high project failure rate. Second, this research tested Bandura's (1977) social learning hypothesis that empowerment and motivation boost performance. The study examined a significant and costly phenomenon of high project failure rates despite the use of proven and generally successful management strategies to align stakeholder efforts (Al-Ahmad et al., 2009; Bhatti et al., 2021). This same topic is important for academics studying project management practices and organizational success factors because it adds to the body of knowledge on the validity of applying motivational theory like Bandura's (1977) social learning theory in organizational project environments, a relatively new field of study.

2. Literature review

2.1. Stakeholder theory

The initial topic for this research was stakeholder theory, which was defined by a broad review of management methods across sectors (Freeman, 1984). In an interpretative tradition, Freeman (1984) used industrial anecdotes to make arguments and support theoretical debate in his qualitative, elaborative research. The ontological assumption was that individuals define multiple realities, the epistemological assumption was that knowledge comes from understanding experiences and processes, and the axiological assumption was that researcher intuition and biases are important (Dasi et al., 2021).

Although secondary in scope, this pioneering work was nevertheless significant and foundational. This research showed the importance and implications of

stakeholder interactions, showing that empowering stakeholders is smart business (Freeman, 1984). Bandura (1977) and the author both concluded that flexibility to make choices boosts intrinsic motivation, whereas Chandra et al. (2012) showed that stakeholder motivation directly improves project performance. Cross-industry sampling backed this study's sample strategy since it showed highly generalizable outcomes.

2.2. Motivation theory

Motivation theory, the second arena of this study, was pioneered by Bandura (1977), who presented a social learning theory subsequently renamed the social cognitive theory. This tertiary but fundamental book sought a "unified theoretical framework for analyzing human thought and behavior" (Bandura, 1977, p. 6). The hundreds of citations since publication established the book as a motivational basis, regardless of whether the ambitious aim was accomplished. The idea that freedom to make choices, external incentives, and performance feedback stimulate inherent forces driving performance was crucial to this research.

Bandura's (1977) social learning theory focused on self-efficacy, or personal beliefs, and the ability to achieve objectives. A person with strong self-efficacy believes in and is motivated to achieve a goal. Self-efficacy affects self-perception, which lessens worries and other self-limiting thoughts that restrict goal accomplishment, according to Bandura (Dayaram, 2010; Duden, 2012). Webb et al. (2010) found that failures can limit future goal-setting, which is supported by Sitkin et al. (2011) in their study on the impact of stretch goals on organizations (Ordóñez et al., 2009; Munir et al., 2017).

2.3. Project management

According to Chandra et al. (2012) and Stare (2011), Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory in review endorsed empowerment as inclusive of stakeholder interests, fostering their engagement, motivation, and performance. Harold Kerzner's tertiary work defining project management, widely published and respected, fits nicely with this. Kerzner's (1987) positivistic perspective of an ontological assumption of one knowable world, an axiological focus on an objective observer, and an epistemological assumption of objective and measurable knowledge was a positivist stance. Despite this positive search for project management success factors, the author employed organizational ethnography, literature studies, interviews, and survey instruments to support the data (Malik et al., 2020). Although sampling covered hundreds of companies in dozens of industries, supporting generalizability, the study lacked data and evidence of even elementary statistical analysis, threatening reliability and limiting subsequent evaluation or replication.

In his many publications on inquiry, Kerzner (1987) revised the success criteria and stressed the necessity of delegation (empowerment) as intervening factors that allow project success (Kerzner, 2019). This study's claim that empowerment increases project success was validated by subsequent secondary work more than 1987 domain-defining tertiary work. The positivistic beliefs of Kerzner supported the use of a quantitative technique in this work, while the absence of data and statistical assessment

prompted more precise reporting to reduce validity concerns (Aslam and Bilal, 2021).

2.4. Human resource management practices

An influential paper by Conger and Kanungo (1988) defined empowerment in this field. This tertiary essay used interpretivist qualitative, grounded theory to solidify “growing interest in the concept of empowerment” as a platform for future research (p. 471). This study combined Bandura’s (1977) key work with working reality. Epistemology was knowledge gained from processes and experience, ontology was multiple socially constructed realities, and axiology was intuition and values.

Dessinger et al. (2012) called the diagram they created a procedural model since it used words and images to guide a method or activity. Shin et al. (2019) welcomed this approach and cited environmental empowerment hurdles. His theoretical presentation also addressed the structural construct of empowerment as an organizational viewpoint on the problem, which fit well with Conger and Kanungo, suggesting a continuation of support for this key work over 25 years.

Conger and Kanungo (1988) concurred with literature review judgments that Bandura’s (1977) foundational motivational work was limited by problematic participant selection and clinical research settings. They recommended further study on these constraints and other factors including empowerment impacts on initiation and persistence behaviors and leadership style on empowerment practices. Conger and Kanungo’s focus on addressing motivation studies’ limitations toward a broader study participation pool influenced this study’s sample frame, and their acceptance of multiple potential realities influenced their decision to collect data to control for leadership style and participant level in an organization on study variables, which was supported by the literature.

Laura (2011) states that every person’s success depends on their basic abilities and attributes, which affect how they communicate technical skills. Any person’s outputs rely on their interpersonal abilities, which express technical outcomes. Soft skills are increasingly valued above technical abilities in the IT business (Ali et al., 2018; Otoo, 2019). To evaluate a person’s technical talents, consider their interpersonal skills (Ashiem et al., 2009).

Sardi et al. (2021) argue that project managers’ qualifications and contributions should include interpersonal abilities as well as technical skills. As many organizations only evaluate project managers based on technical skills, Li et al. (2019) suggest taking a closer look at interpersonal skills and how a mismatch in them can make or break a project and team. Technical talents will not help the organisation without a solid foundation of interpersonal skills and a clear understanding of how an individual thinks, responds, and contributes (Yan and Wu, 2022). Aasheim et al. (2009) add that interpersonal skills should be considered equally to technical abilities when assessing a project manager’s qualifications.

Due to global and technological development, organizations are now facing new challenges. Technological advancements in industries have molded the needs of competencies and capabilities required to perform a particular task (Yan and Wu, 2022). To cope with these changes and challenges, more effective and improved training sessions are required by all corporates. Few studies have already been able to

explore the effect of mutual dependence between productivity, profitability, and training. It is important for organizations to design helpful training programs very effectively and carefully (Michael Armstrong, 2000; Jong et al., 2019). Muhammad et al. (2021) mentioned that training and development improved employee performance, which ultimately caused project success in organizations. Those firms that improve the training designs according to the needs of their employees achieve the firms' performance very easily (Lin et al., 2022).

Many researchers have analyzed and investigated the main causes of imperfections and quality defects, one of which Kim et al. (2019) identified as poor workmanship and another of which Atkinson (1999) described as a human error. So, training and development are a necessary part of the organization because giving training is time-saving and cost-effective. Dearden et al. (2000) employed the first difference, fixed effect model to examine the UK, and the result reported that there is a significant relationship between training and productivity. Hansson (2001) used the OLS difference approach to find the relationship between profitability and training. The result of the study suggested that training is positively related to project success. Many studies found that training and development have a positive impact on the different dimensions of a firm's performance: product development, product quality, growth in sales, and market share (Elahi et al., 2022; Ren, 2023).

Up to now, there have been many theories of teamwork available. All of them claim that appropriate coordination between project team members can benefit project success and meet the goals and objectives (Lee et al., 2021). The subject of teamwork has been examined by organizational psychologists or social psychologists and by different schools (system dynamics, behaviorism, human relations). The empirical literature on the importance of teamwork is abundant. From the literature review, it is found that coordination is rarely considered the critical success factor of the project (Zhang et al., 2021). Teamwork between the employees of the organizations helps to improve deep learning that results through problem-solving, interaction, communication, collaboration, and cooperation (Johnson and Johnson, 1995; Mani et al., 2022).

Assaad et al. (2014) collected data from 13 different teams of large buildings in Saudia to determine the relationship between project success and teamwork. Analysis of data obtained by teams showed a very strong relationship between team effectiveness and project success. Park and Huh (2018) did planned and scheduled research on the benefits of teamwork and its linkage with team performance. They argued that teamwork had a significant influence on team performance in many projects. Froebel and Marchington, (2005) concluded that teamwork not only provides a comfortable working environment but also helps to increase the chances of project success and achievement. Teamwork has become a characteristic of all industries where projects are delivered by various experts and professionals as a team. These professionals include contractors, architects, specialists, material suppliers, and other government planners and engineers (Devi et al., 2018; Zhu and Cheung, 2023).

Morcov et al. (2020) found that the characteristics of effective teams included trust, a high degree of cooperation, open and timely effective communication, and ethical behavior. Hoegl and Parboteeah (2003) collected the data of managers and leaders of 145 teams specializing in software development companies. He reported

that an open exchange of pertinent information and good coordination during the task enhance the team's effectiveness. Ensley et al. (2000) identified that teamwork promotes high understanding and fewer conflicts when members of a project team openly communicate with each other. Previous studies of teamwork indicated that the success of every project is heavily dependent on effective communication, establishing good trusting relationships within the team, appropriate management of internal conflicts, and setting and agreeing on comprehensible goals (Kerzner and Saladis, 2013; Dalal, 2011; Zheng et al., 2023).

Based on the above literature, the following hypotheses were proposed:

H1: Empowerment positively influences project performance in the IT industry.

H2: Motivation positively influences project performance in the IT industry.

H3: Teamwork positively influences project performance in the IT industry.

H4: Interpersonal skills positively influence project performance in the IT industry.

H5: Training and development positively influence project performance in the IT industry.

3. Research methodology

3.1. Research design

This study used a non-experimental survey design. Quantitative research describes trends or explains variable relationships, according to Creswell (2005). This research should use a quantitative technique to examine variable connections. This study's research question—quantifiable metrics and changeable associations—fits this idea. Thus, the quantitative approach is best for answering the research question and achieving this study's goal, according to Swanson and Holton (2005). Creswell (2009) states that survey research investigates a single time point and is adaptable, efficient, and generalizable, making it beneficial in descriptive and correlational investigations. For this research, respondents were surveyed using two previously used and field-tested survey tools integrated into one structured questionnaire.

3.2. Sample

This research targets all Pakistani project managers working on significant IT systems development projects. Anyone who did not meet these criteria was excluded from the research. Demographic, lifestyle, occupational, and geographical aspects are considered in the sampling frame, which accurately represents the population. The study's target population, confidence level, and confidence interval must be specified before determining its size. This study's goal sample size is 200 using random convenience sampling, a 95% confidence level, and a $\pm 5\%$ confidence interval, assuming a normal distribution.

For this study, convenience sampling was used. Contact with prospective respondents begins with a random convenience sample. This research used recruitment and selection for sampling. As this was a web-based survey, everyone who fit the requirements and made it to the website and decided to participate was picked, and questionnaires were begun and finished. Returning questionnaires anonymously to the

researcher counts as study participation. The questionnaires were sent to 400 potential respondents. After waiting for four weeks, a friendly reminder was given to the participants. In a two-month span, we received 224 questionnaires, of which 12 were eliminated for not meeting the minimum criteria. Hence, a total of 212 questionnaires were used for further analysis.

3.3. Instruments/measurements

This research collected data using two validated survey questionnaires. Demographics, senior leader experience, and IT program/project manager or team/task leader experience comprise the instrument. The demographics section covers respondent demographics. The senior leader experience section asks how the project leader views success based on his or her experiences. The IT program/project manager or team/task leader experience section asks how the project manager or leader views success based on experiences. All questions were scored on a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree.

4. Results

4.1. Demographic statistics

The demographic profiles of the respondents are displayed in **Table 1**. The results indicate that 116 respondents are male, whereas 96 are female. Of the 212 respondents, 70% of employees are single, whereas married employees account for only 30%. For educational background, 103 employees (49%) have graduation degrees, followed by 73 master's degree holders (34%), 29 diploma holders (14%), and only 3% have different certifications. For age category, 19% of employees belong to the age group of less than 25 years, whereas 29% of employees are 26–30 years, 28% of employees are 31–35 years, 17% of employees are between 36–40 years old and 7% employees are more than 40 years old. The majority of the respondents have 1–2 years (74) of experience, followed by 68 respondents who have 3–4 years; more than 4 years of experience accounted for 19%; and only 14% have less than one year of experience. Of the 212 respondents, 139 employees are working in non-managerial positions and 73 employees have managerial positions, in their respective organizations.

Table 1. Demographic profile of the respondents ($N = 212$).

Demographic variable	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	116	55
Female	96	45
Marital status		
Married	63	30
Single	149	70
Education		
Graduation degree	103	49
Master's degree	73	34

Table 1. (Continued).

Demographic variable		Frequency	Percentage
	Diplomas	29	14
	Others	7	3
Age			
	Less than 25 years	41	19
	26–30 years	62	29
	31–35 years	59	28
	36–40 years	35	17
	More than 40 years	15	7
Experience			
	Less than 1 year	29	14
	1–2 years	74	35
	3–4 years	68	32
	More than 4 years	41	19
Position			
	Managerial	73	34
	Non-managerial	139	66

4.2. Descriptive analyses

The descriptive statistics are available in **Table 2**. All the means and standard deviations indicate that the respondents mainly agreed with all the questions.

Table 2. Descriptive results ($N = 212$).

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Teamwork	212	1.00	5.00	4.2726	0.71742
Interpersonal skills	212	1.00	5.00	4.2934	0.74181
Empowerment	212	1.00	5.00	3.2634	0.90981
Training & development	212	1.00	5.00	4.2677	0.79206
Motivation	212	1.00	5.00	4.2962	0.78890
Project success	212	1.00	5.00	4.3632	0.75188

4.3. Reliability

Saunders et al. (2009) define dependability as data gathering analysis or approaches' consistency. Cronbach's alpha measures internal stability. Garson (2008) discovered that higher alpha values are preferable. Alpha (α) over 0.7 is adequate (Teo, 2009). According to Pedersen and Nysveen (2003), alpha α should exceed 0.7. At least 0.7 is suggested by Sekaran (2010). Good reliability requires a coefficient estimate of 0.70, according to Pallant (2001). It may range from 0 to 1.

Cronbach's alpha α reliability coefficient of 5 independent variables and a dependent variable is shown in the study. It demonstrates that all independent and dependent variables were reliable. Motivation (0.834) had the greatest α reliability coefficient, while training and development (0.732) had the lowest. The reliability (α) coefficient ranges in values from zero to 1, and it is also used to describe the factor's

reliability on questionnaires or scales (rating scale, 1 = poor, 5 = excellent) and/or dichotomous. If the alpha score is high, the more reliable the given scale is. Construct validity was used to measure the scale. The estimation should indicate discriminant and convergent validity to achieve construct validity. Things demonstrating that measuring and quantifying the identical build connects decidedly with each other are known as convergent validity. The relationship between building connections was broken down for discriminant and united legitimacy. The study meets the model and makes the tool sufficiently and adequately legitimate to be used as a part of the main study (Malhotra, 1999). The results are given in **Table 3**.

Table 3. Reliability analyses.

Variables	Cronbach's α
Project success	0.777
Motivation	0.834
Training and development	0.732
Interpersonal skills	0.800
Teamwork	0.768
Empowerment	0.813

4.4. Correlations

The correlation analysis among independent and dependent variables is displayed in **Table 4**. Pearson's statistics may be 0 to 1, they may be positive or negative. When r is close to 1, it means there is a strong correlation between two variables. When r is close to zero, there is a weak association between the two variables. When r is (+), it means that when one variable increases, the second variable also increases or vice versa. This is known as a positive correlation between variables. When r is negative (−), it means that with the increase of one variable, the other variable decreases. This is known as a negative correlation between variables. Sig (2-tailed) is also found in the correlations box. If its value is greater than 0.05, it shows that there is no correlation between the two variables. If its value is less than or equal to 0.05, it shows significant correlations between two variables.

The relation between training and development and project performance is 0.845, which shows a significant positive relationship between these two variables. The relation between training and development and teamwork is 0.741, which shows a significant positive relationship between these two variables. Its relation with trust is 0.807, empowerment is 0.108, and motivation is 0.841. Therefore, the relationship between training and development and project performance, teamwork, trust, employee participation, and human capital is significantly positive. The relationship between teamwork and project success is 0.814, showing a significant positive relationship between these two variables. The relationship between teamwork and training and development is 0.741, showing a significant positive relationship between these two variables. Its relation to interpersonal skills is 0.824, employee participation is 0.047, and motivation is 0.794. Therefore, the relationship of teamwork with project performance, training and development, interpersonal skills, empowerment, and motivation is significantly positive. However, its relationship with empowerment is

not strong.

Table 4. Correlational results.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Project performance	1.000					
Teamwork	0.614*	1.000				
Interpersonal skills	0.514*	0.245*	1.000			
Empowerment	0.092	0.047	0.113	1.000		
T&D	0.492*	0.411*	0.207*	0.108*	1.000	
Motivation	0.530.6*	0.334*	0.384*	0.138*	0.401*	1.000

* Significance at 0.01 level.

4.5. Structural equation modeling

“SEM is a multivariate statistical process that allows testing of theoretical models using latent variables and multiple indicators” (Testa, 2001). SEM is crucial for testing theories, not developing them. Byrne (2001) defined SEM as “a statistical technique for testing and estimating causal relationships using a combination of statistical data and qualitative causal assumptions.” For this, use AMOS 20. SEM is “based on two components, a measurement model and a structural model.” Measurement models link observable responses, or ‘indicators’, to latent variables and occasionally covariates. The structural model describes latent variable relationships and regressions on observable variables.

The first step of SEM application is to apply confirmatory factor analyses to independent and dependent variables. CFA is performed in order to find out the factor structure adopted from various valid measuring instruments. Kline (2010) claimed that CFA helps to find out the fitness of data on a hypothesized model based on previous theory or empirical studies. Before proceeding further, it is necessary to discuss fit indexes, upon which criteria of model acceptance are based.

In this study, we use the type three approach because it is a combination of structural and measurement parameters to complete the tests. According to Byrne (2001), SEM is an important quantitative data analytical technique and approach that identifies, estimates, and then tests the theoretical relationship between latent unobserved exogenous variables and observed endogenous variables. SEM includes path analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, partial least squares path analysis, latent growth modeling, and AMOS. SEM does not consist of a single statistical procedure, but it combines factor analysis and regression as well. Even though each technique of Structural Equation Modeling is different, the following features are the same in many SEM models: This SEM technique starts with the model specification. Kline (2005) found that it links the variables that affect each other, and after that, the directionalities of those effects. All items for empowerment, interpersonal skills, motivation, project performance, teamwork, and training and development are greater than 0.70, whereas all the fit indices are showing adequate for all scales.

In order to find out the impact of independent variables (teamwork, motivation, training and development, interpersonal skills, and empowerment) on the dependent variable (project performance), a path analysis is run while using AMOS 20. **Table 5**

indicated that teamwork (0.185), training and development (0.217), motivation (0.389), and interpersonal skills (0.164) have a significant impact on project performance.

Table 5. Path analysis (measurement model).

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Project_Performance	<---	Team_Work	0.185	0.052	3.557	***
Project_Performance	<---	T&D	0.217	0.051	4.282	***
Project_Performance	<---	motivation	0.389	0.055	7.011	***
Project_Performance	<---	interpersonal skills	0.164	0.049	3.349	***
Project_Performance	<---	empowerment	0.415	0.019	9.791	***

5. Discussion and conclusion

5.1. Implications

In recent years, project management (PM), communication factors, and technological factors are supposed to be the critical success factors (CSF), necessary for the success of the projects. At that time, the scholars put less emphasis on the impact of HC practices on project success. So, the main purpose of this study is to highlight the role of effective HC practices as the CSF that proves to be important for the project's success. By building on empirical studies and existing theories, this study is developed to demonstrate to what extent variables of training and development, interpersonal skills, teamwork, and empowerment play a role in project performance. The evidence provided by the analysis indicates that organizations are interested in development and success. HC has become a crucial element in the IT sector of Pakistan. Many organizations implement HC to meet the needs of their employees and customers. This paper has made its presence and importance in the field of HC by targeting all IT sectors of Pakistan. The objective of this study is to explore the relationship between training and development (T&D), motivation, interpersonal skills, teamwork, empowerment, and project performance. It is proved by the study that all the projects are not delivered by methodologies or techniques but by people. Hence, the success of the project depends on how to utilize project resources more adequately.

Likewise, cooperation and collaboration among employees and teamwork must be confirmed for the success of project activities. The current study provides an understanding of the workplace situation in the IT sector of Pakistan. For this, a well-structured questionnaire was used to collect the responses to learn about the relationship between human capital and project success. This paper used quantitative data analysis to conduct the research and test all hypotheses. A linear regression analysis and CFA were used for this paper. Moreover, the present study developed to make an addition to the existing literature on project success by measuring the role of human capital practices. It is noted that HC has a higher impact on project success as compared to all other variables. Similarly, coordinated teamwork among the employees and employee participation positively affects project success among IT sector employees in Pakistan. It also suggests that project managers, project sponsors,

and all the employees should work coordinately to enhance the outcomes of the firm. Interestingly, training and development as an IV and its influence on project success as a dependent variable led to the conclusion that it has an insignificant impact. This finding is also found in the study of Pinto and Prescott (1988). The absence of the impact of training and development on project performance also confirms the unique and temporary nature of projects (PMI, 2008), so we should neglect long-term activities.

5.2. Recommendation

Based on the above analysis, the researcher can make these recommendations.

- Motivation must be recognized as a crucial factor for the project's success.
- Organizations should invest in motivation for greater profitability.
- For better collaboration, it is confirmed that all employees share their experience, skills, and knowledge.
- The organization must provide a healthy and safe environment for its members where innovative ideas and creative thinking can take place.
- Training and development cause extra expenditures and costs that organizations want to save because of limited budgets.

5.3. Limitations

We want to recognize the limitations of our study. The current study was done in the context of the IT sector in Pakistan. The paper studies the impact of human capital on project success and the performance of organizations, which is a broad topic. However, due to a shortage of our budget, the sample size of the paper was kept low, and the number of questionnaires was limited. The results obtained from this research paper are also limited to the IT sectors of Pakistan, so the ability to generalize is limited for this paper. Low-level workers were not included in the research. For future research, we will find and establish several opportunities that are important to strengthen the concept of project success. The body of research is weak as it lacks other organizations that explain project success. The present study mainly focused on the IT sector of Pakistan. For future studies, the researcher should consider other industries like pharmaceuticals, software companies, airlines, etc. The researcher has investigated the concept of motivation in Pakistan. In the future, the researcher can test human capital in other countries. For further study, the researcher can take more variables to explain the impact of motivation on project performance.

Author contributions: Conceptualization, SR and ZAH; methodology, KS; software, SR; validation, ZAH and KS; formal analysis, SR; investigation, KS; resources, ZAH; data curation, ZAH; writing—original draft preparation, SR and ZAH; writing—review and editing, KS; visualization, KS; supervision, SR. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Conflict of interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

Ali, I., Musawir, A. U., & Ali, M. (2018). Impact of knowledge sharing and absorptive capacity on project performance: the

- moderating role of social processes. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 22(2), 453–477. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jkm-10-2016-0449>
- Aslam, A., & Bilal, A. (2021). Impact of project management certification on project performance. *Journal of Project Management*, 6(3), 133–142. <https://doi.org/10.5267/j.jpm.2021.3.001>
- Assaad, R., El-Adaway, I. H., & Abotaleb, I. S. (2020). Predicting Project Performance in the Construction Industry. *Journal of Construction Engineering and Management*, 146(5). [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(asce\)co.1943-7862.0001797](https://doi.org/10.1061/(asce)co.1943-7862.0001797)
- Bandura, A. (1985). Model of Causality in Social Learning Theory. *Cognition and Psychotherapy*, 81–99. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4684-7562-3_3
- Bandura, A., & Hall, P. (2018). Albert bandura and social learning theory. *Learning Theories for Early Years Practice*, 63.
- Bhatti, S. H., Zakariya, R., Vrontis, D., et al. (2020). High-performance work systems, innovation and knowledge sharing. *Employee Relations: The International Journal*, 43(2), 438–458. <https://doi.org/10.1108/er-10-2019-0403>
- Biron, M., Bamberger, P. A., & Noyman, T. (2011). Work-related risk factors and employee substance use: Insights from a sample of Israeli blue-collar workers. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 16(2), 247–263. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0022708>
- Borrego, M., Douglas, E. P., & Amelink, C. T. (2009). Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Research Methods in Engineering Education. *Journal of Engineering Education*, 98(1), 53–66. Portico. <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2168-9830.2009.tb01005.x>
- Chua, C. E. H., Lim, W.-K., Soh, C., & Sia, S. K. (2012). Client strategies in vendor transition: A threat balancing perspective. *The Journal of Strategic Information Systems*, 21(1), 72–83. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsis.2011.12.001>
- Chung, R. M., Adeleke, A. Q., & Ajibike, W. A. (2020). Client Delay Factors Affecting Building Project Performance Among Kuantan Malaysian Construction Industry: Through Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modeling. *Journal of Business Management and Economic Research*, 4(1), 38–55. <https://doi.org/10.29226/tr1001.2020.182>
- Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1988). The Empowerment Process: Integrating Theory and Practice. *The Academy of Management Review*, 13(3), 471. <https://doi.org/10.2307/258093>
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). A framework for design. *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. 9-11.
- Dasi, À., Pedersen, T., Barakat, L. L., & Alves, T. R. (2020). Teams and Project Performance: An Ability, Motivation, and Opportunity Approach. *Project Management Journal*, 52(1), 75–89. <https://doi.org/10.1177/8756972820953958>
- Devi, K. S., Marthandan, G., & Rathimala, K. (2018). Role of communication in IT project success. *Issues and Trends in Interdisciplinary Behavior and Social Science*, 329–336. <https://doi.org/10.1201/9781315148700-49>
- Di Maddaloni, F., & Davis, K. (2017). The influence of local community stakeholders in megaprojects: Rethinking their inclusiveness to improve project performance. *International Journal of Project Management*, 35(8), 1537–1556. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2017.08.011>
- Elahi, M., Ahmad, M. S., & Aamir, M. F. (2020). Human resource management practices and project success in hydel projects of Pakistan: moderation of Islamic work ethics and country of origin. *Middle East J. of Management*, 7(5), 425. <https://doi.org/10.1504/mejm.2020.109680>
- Freeman, R. B., & Medoff, J. L. (1984). What Do Unions Do? By Richard B. Freeman and James L. Medoff. (1985). *ILR Review*, 38(2), 244–263. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001979398503800207>
- Frels, R. K., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2013). Administering Quantitative Instruments With Qualitative Interviews: A Mixed Research Approach. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 91(2), 184–194. Portico. <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6676.2013.00085.x>
- Fu, F. Q., Richards, K. A., & Jones, E. (2009). The Motivation Hub: Effects of Goal Setting and Self-Efficacy on Effort and New Product Sales. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 29(3), 277–292. <https://doi.org/10.2753/pss0885-3134290305>
- Garengo, P., Sardi, A., & Nudurupati, S. S. (2021). Human resource management (HRM) in the performance measurement and management (PMM) domain: a bibliometric review. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 71(7), 3056–3077. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ijppm-04-2020-0177>
- Haq, S. U., Gu, D., Liang, C., & Abdullah, I. (2019). Project governance mechanisms and the performance of software development projects: Moderating role of requirements risk. *International Journal of Project Management*, 37(4), 533–548. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2019.02.008>
- Hwang, B. G., Ngo, J., & Her, P. W. Y. (2020). Integrated Digital Delivery: Implementation status and project performance in the Singapore construction industry. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 262, 121396. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2020.121396>

- Jaca, C., Viles, E., Tanco, M., et al. (2013). Teamwork effectiveness factors in healthcare and manufacturing industries. *Team Performance Management: An International Journal*, 19(3/4), 222–236. <https://doi.org/10.1108/tpm-06-2012-0017>
- Jong, C. Y., Sim, A. K. S., & Lew, T. Y. (2019). The relationship between TQM and project performance: Empirical evidence from Malaysian construction industry. *Cogent Business & Management*, 6(1). <https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2019.1568655>
- Kerzner, H. (2019). *Using the Project Management Maturity Model*, Third Edition. John Wiley & Sons, Inc. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119559078>
- Kim, K. H., Park, G. W., & Hwang, S. J. (2016). A Study on the Effect of PMO Capability and Organization Justice on IT Project Performance. *The Journal of Society for E-Business Studies*, 21(3), 129–151. <https://doi.org/10.7838/jsebs.2016.21.3.129>
- Kuen, C. W., & Zailani, S. (2012). Critical factors in successful new product development: An empirical study of Malaysian manufacturing companies. *International Journal of management*, 29(2), 429.
- Lee, H., Park, S., & Kim, S. C. (2021). Analyzing the Influential Relationship between PMO and Project Performance in Construction Industry: Focusing on Moderation Effect of PM Leadership. *Journal of Society of Korea Industrial and Systems Engineering*, 44(3), 133–145. <https://doi.org/10.11627/jkise.2021.44.3.133>
- Li, Y., Xu, L., Sun, T., & Ding, R. (2019). The impact of project environmental practices on environmental and organizational performance in the construction industry. *International Journal of Managing Projects in Business*, 13(2), 367–387. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ijmpb-07-2018-0137>
- Lin, L., Hong, L., & Huanhuan, S. (2022). Research on the Impact of Different Risks on the Collaborative Innovation Project Performance—Based on the Moderating Effect of Knowledge Management. *Management Review*, 34(5), 69.
- Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (2009). Has Goal Setting Gone Wild, or Have Its Attackers Abandoned Good Scholarship? *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 23(1), 17–23. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amp.2009.37008000>
- Malik, A., Froese, F. J., & Sharma, P. (2020). Role of HRM in knowledge integration: Towards a conceptual framework. *Journal of Business Research*, 109, 524–535. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2019.01.029>
- Mani, S., Ashnai, B., & Wang, J. J. (2022). Alliance portfolios and joint R&D project performance. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 107, 238–252. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indmarman.2022.10.005>
- Mellado, F., & Lou, E. C. W. (2020). Building information modelling, lean and sustainability: An integration framework to promote performance improvements in the construction industry. *Sustainable Cities and Society*, 61, 102355. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scs.2020.102355>
- Morcov, S., Pintelon, L., & Kusters, R. (2021). Definitions, characteristics and measures of IT project complexity - a systematic literature review. *International Journal of Information Systems and Project Management*, 8(2), 5–21. <https://doi.org/10.12821/ijispm080201>
- Muhammad, U., Nazir, T., Muhammad, N., et al. (2021). Impact of agile management on project performance: Evidence from I.T sector of Pakistan. *PLOS ONE*, 16(4), e0249311. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0249311>
- Munir, M. O., Furqan, R., Shahzad, S., & Basit, A. (2017). Examining the role of leadership of portfolio managers in project performance. *Journal of Strategy and Performance Management*, 5(2), 65.
- Ordóñez, L. D., Schweitzer, M. E., Galinsky, A. D., & Bazerman, M. H. (2009). On Good Scholarship, Goal Setting, and Scholars Gone Wild. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 23(3), 82–87. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amp.2009.43479265>
- Otoo, F. N. K. (2019). Human resource management (HRM) practices and organizational performance. *Employee Relations: The International Journal*, 41(5), 949–970. <https://doi.org/10.1108/er-02-2018-0053>
- Park, S., & Huh, J.-H. (2018). Effect of Cooperation on Manufacturing IT Project Development and Test Bed for Successful Industry 4.0 Project: Safety Management for Security. *Processes*, 6(7), 88. <https://doi.org/10.3390/pr6070088>
- Poovitha, R., Ambika, D., & Lavanya, B. (2018). A review on performance management and appraisal in construction industry towards project performance. *International Research Journal of Engineering and Technology (IRJET)*, 5(1), 1012–1015.
- Radosevich, D. J., Levine, M. S., Sumner, K. E., et al. (2009). The role of expectancy theory in goal striving processes. *Journal of the Academy of Business & Economics*, 9(4), 186–192.
- Ren, X. (2023). The study on the impact of team learning on project performance in a shared leadership environment. *Journal of Modern Learning Development*, 8(5), 152–159.
- Sardi, A., Sorano, E., Garengo, P., & Ferraris, A. (2020). The role of HRM in the innovation of performance measurement and management systems: a multiple case study in SMEs. *Employee Relations: The International Journal*, 43(2), 589–606. <https://doi.org/10.1108/er-03-2020-0101>

- Shepherd, D. A., & Cardon, M. S. (2009). Negative Emotional Reactions to Project Failure and the Self-Compassion to Learn from the Experience. *Journal of Management Studies*, 46(6), 923–949. Portico. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.2009.00821.x>
- Shin, K. S., Oh, M. J., Kim, W. K., & Park, S. H. (2018). The Effects of R&D Process Maturity on Product Development Performance: Focused on Mediating Effect of R&D Project Performance. *KIPS Transactions on Computer and Communication Systems*, 7(7), 165-174.
- Singla, H. K., Shrivastava, A., & Sharma, A. (2020). Identification of knowledge assets in construction projects and their impact on project performance. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 23(3), 558–587. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jic-04-2020-0135>
- Thi, C. H., & Swierczek, F. W. (2010). Critical success factors in project management: implication from Vietnam. *Asia Pacific Business Review*, 16(4), 567–589. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13602380903322957>
- Tuuli, M. M., & Rowlinson, S. (2009). Performance Consequences of Psychological Empowerment. *Journal of Construction Engineering and Management*, 135(12), 1334–1347. [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(asce\)co.1943-7862.0000103](https://doi.org/10.1061/(asce)co.1943-7862.0000103)
- Van Tien, D., Moseley, J. L., & Dessinger, J. C. (2012). *Fundamentals of performance improvement: Optimizing results through people, process, and organizations*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Whelan-Berry, K. S., & Somerville, K. A. (2010). Linking change drivers and the organizational change process: A review and synthesis. *Journal of Change Management*, 10(2), 175-193. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14697011003795651>
- Yan, J., & Hu, W. (2022). Environmentally specific transformational leadership and green product development performance: the role of a green HRM system. *International Journal of Manpower*, 43(3), 639–659. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ijm-05-2020-0223>
- Yee, Y. M., Tan, C. L., Nasurdin, A. M., et al. (2020). Building a knowledge-intensive medical device industry: The effect of knowledge creation in R&D project performance. *Jurnal Pengurusan (UKM Journal of Management)*, 58, 119–131. <https://doi.org/10.17576/pengurusan-2020-58-10>
- Zhang, J., Raza, M., Khalid, R., et al. (2021). Impact of team knowledge management, problem solving competence, interpersonal conflicts, organizational trust on project performance, a mediating role of psychological capital. *Annals of Operations Research*, 326(S1), 41–42. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10479-021-04334-3>
- Zheng, J., Gu, Y., Xie, H., & Wu, G. (2023). Linking innovation, empowerment to facilitate project performance: A mediated moderation model. *Journal of Engineering and Technology Management*, 68, 101750. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jengtecman.2023.101750>
- Zhu, L., & Cheung, S. O. (2022). Incentivizing Relationship Investment for Project Performance Improvement. *Project Management Journal*, 54(1), 70–87. <https://doi.org/10.1177/87569728221132782>

Article

Re-contextualising human resource management in the 4IR: Lessons for Lesotho

Mildred Mahapa*, Maletsoela Ellen Mahao, Lenyora Sesinyi

Department of Business Administration, National University of Lesotho, PO 180 Roma, Lesotho

* **Corresponding author:** Mildred Mahapa, mupandarem@gmail.com

CITATION

Mahapa M, Mahao ME, Sesinyi L. (2024). Re-contextualising human resource management in the 4IR: Lessons for Lesotho. *Human Resources Management and Services*, 6(3): 3397.
<https://doi.org/10.18282/hrms.v6i3.3397>

ARTICLE INFO

Received: 24 May 2024

Accepted: 1 August 2024

Available online: 9 August 2024

COPYRIGHT

Copyright © 2024 by author(s).
Human Resources Management and Services is published by PiscoMed Publishing Pte. Ltd. This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license.
<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>

Abstract: Orientation: Indeed, the 4th industrial revolution (4IR) has redefined the world of work. A new set of skills needs to be defined and made available to organisations. Human resource management practices now operate in a complex, interconnected, unpredictable, and evolving environment. The question that one needs to answer is: how can HR align its functions to meet the demands of the fourth IR? It is prudent that human resource functions evolve quickly and adapt to changing demands. **Research purpose:** This paper seeks to unpack the changes that have been brought about by the 4IR and suggest ways in which HR professionals in Lesotho can align with this inevitable era of digitalisation. **Motivation for the study:** Due to the dynamics and transformations that have been brought about by the 4IR, this study was motivated by the need to understand the effects of the 4IR in small economies on the HR function and offer lessons to embrace change. **Research approach:** The research was qualitative in nature, and data was collected purposefully from journal articles, newspapers, and book chapters. Content analysis was used for the data analysis. **Research findings:** The effects of the 4IR through digitalisation disruptions have been felt across all corporate functions, and HR is no exception. It has had a massive influence on both the economy and the labour force and impacted employee roles in terms of health, mobility, working hours, personal life, and general administration. HR leaders play a critical role in ensuring that businesses are able to successfully adopt and deploy new technologies. **Contributions:** The research unpacks the effects of 4IR and gives practical lessons for HR professionals in Lesotho.

Keywords: 4IR; digitalisation; human resource; technology

1. Introduction

The 4IR is transforming global business and has changed the narrative of the management of human resources in general. Change management is becoming an essential part of human resources as organizations need to keep up with the new emerging era of industrial digitization and digitalization. Due to the extensive use of software, robotics, and data analytics, the demand for skilled workers in information technology (IT) is rising. Existing workers must transform their skills to respond to new IT integrations. As the whole ecosystem of human life is being changed, a collective response from the government, educational institutions, and companies is needed to adapt quickly to the demands of Industry 4.0, and Lesotho is no exception. HR professionals are also finding themselves on the front lines of helping their organizations and leaders drive technology absorption, foster innovation, enable new work models, and, ultimately, attract, retain, and develop the workforce of the future. Human resource practitioners play a central role in the 4IR, but most of the major changes that will be brought by the 4IR are not well known, nor are the opportunities thereof. Change comes with a lot of fear. To demystify the issue of 4IR and HRM, this

paper seeks to address the following questions:

What changes has 4IR brought to human resource management (HRM)?

What lesson can be drawn from 4IR to effectively manage human resources (HR)?

2. Conceptualisation and review of literature

Industry 4.0 also known as the Fourth Industrial Revolution, or 4IR, refers to developing an environment in which disruptive technologies and trends are changing the way we live and work. This section tracks and discusses the industrial revolution and how it changed the way work was carried out in factories over time.

2.1. Evolution of industrial revolutions

The 4IR involves the rise of data and connectivity, analytics, human-machine interactions, and improvements in robotics (Pandian, 2018). It can also be described as a world where people move between digital domains and offline reality through the utilization of connected technology to modify and manage their lives. The 4IR transforms all processes in an organisation from production, distribution, marketing, and human resource management.

The understanding behind the 4IR can be tracked throughout the industrialisation process and the development of technology over time. Technology is a concept that defines the evolution of scientific knowledge that impacts the way goods and services are produced. It also encompasses tools and techniques deployed in the industry to realize production and business goals. Over time, technology changed the skill sets of humans. When the capabilities of people were not enough to accelerate production, tools were developed to aid human efforts in industrialisation or people would be replaced. The word industry actually refers to the production of goods and services with the help of technology and new methods or standards.

The industrial revolution explains the period between the 1770s and the 1880s. This era was marked by technological developments and changes that saw a high level of industry mechanisation and electrification (Skilton, 2018). Sorroshian and Panigrahi (2019) talk about the 4th IR as a paradigm shift to the whole idea of industrialisation. It involves a wider vision of the industrialisation process than its predecessors. It encompasses the implementation of technologies such as cyber-physical systems, the internet, and the philosophy that sees as machines that fuse together human thinking in a smart way. In order to harness the potential found in the 4th industrial revolution, it will be important to assess the revolutions that came before it in order to track what was changing over time.

The first industrial revolution as already highlighted above, is seen as the period that started in the period 1760–1840. It was the time for a shift from economies that focused on agrarian to mechanised economies. The industrialisation process began to see steam engines coming into the manufacturing processes. Mokyr (2022) explains this transition as “a set of transitions with technology as the main anchor of economic change.” The steam engines relied on coal to get fired up.

The second industrial revolution was between the 1870s and 1969. The main economic activity of this industrialisation process focused on improving the production of steel and iron, with light bulbs included to provide energy. Production

in large numbers began around this time. Innovations such as electricity and assembly lines were at the core of this industrialisation. This suggests that manufacturing processes became electrified with conveyor belts being widely deployed in assembly lines.

The third industrial revolution started in 1969. The introduction of “programmable large controllers” paved the way for the programming of processes in the manufacturing industry. At the production level, activities became automated with electronics combined with the use of information and communication technology. The use of computers became prevalent. Networked environments with the use of computers at the core were deployed. In a nutshell, all manufacturing processes were subjected to heavy automation and integration into digital platforms.

The fourth industrial revolution is an ongoing revolution that is the culmination of all previous industrial revolutions. Skilton and Hovsepian (2018) see it as contributing more to the way industrialisation operates as it reshapes societies as well. According to them, it also combines “technologies across the physical, digital, and biological” domains. This is the revolution that is characterised by emerging technologies, which include but are not limited to artificial intelligence, the Internet of Things, and robotics. Data is the driving force throughout all processes used in shaping societies and the economy.

2.2. Elements of Industry 4.0

According to Puhovichova and Jankelova (2020), there are a number of technologies that have shaped the 4th industrial revolution. To mention, first, there is artificial intelligence (AI). AI models are data-driven and involve tasks that can be done by machines and emulate the intelligence of humans. For example, the branch of AI that is referred to as deep learning focuses on natural language processing, where computer-based models enable machines to speak as though they are humans through the use of chatbots.

Secondly, big data and analytics. In this category, computer models are deployed to capture vast heterogeneous formats of data coming from various sources and analyse such data in order to establish patterns that support decision-making in an economy. As mentioned earlier, the fourth industrial revolution is sometimes referred to as the information age due to the voluminous data that is coming from various processes, be it manufacturing, sensors, social media, etc. It is believed that the correct analysis of this data can provide insights into how products and services are created. Not only do products and services benefit, but also decision processes within companies require data. For example, carrying out the development needs of employees in an organisation requires correct data to determine appropriate skill utilisation in the organisation.

Thirdly, also known as a decentralised digital ledger (Invstopia.com), this technology uses cryptographic methods to store data. It is capable of creating transparency and trust in digital transactions. Participants in blockchain are machines referred to as nodes. They all hold similar digital ledgers. If any node wants to change something in the ledger, all other nodes must approve such a transition. With the DLT, there is no need for a middleman to conclude a transaction, as in the case of a bank. In

technological terms, there is no central server that acts on the requests of other computers in the network, all nodes approve what happens in the network. The technology has been hailed for its immutability and transparent behaviour.

Fourthly, as with the previous industrial revolutions, technology has made major changes in how economies operate, especially in manufacturing processes. The Internet of Things (IoT) is premised on the philosophy of connectedness between systems and physical objects and services to create a chain of coordinated ways of communication at work as well as data sharing. Everything that has a chip and can use a logical number, also known as an internet protocol address, can be connected. These include radio frequency identification (RFID), and the Internet of Things (IoT). The philosophy of IoT is connectedness, which includes systems, physical objects, and services to create a coordinated communication of work and data sharing.

The fifth element is biotechnology and genetic engineering. In the description of the 4th industrial revolution, the elements of biology and genetics are mentioned. This involves the fusion of technology in biological systems for medical and agricultural processes.

Lastly, there is cybersecurity. It is understood that all digitalisation processes involve heavy use of digital systems, automation activities, and the sharing of resources that happen over the internet. The internet, therefore, has become a risky area, and these risks need to be detected and mitigated. Therefore, security becomes important.

2.3. Human resource management

Van der Westhuizen (2021) argues that HRM is a practice and also an area of study that focuses on addressing matters related to decisions, principles, strategies, operations, practices, functions, steps, approaches, and procedures that affect employees. HRM is constantly aligned with changes in the environment in which all these exist. Employees are regarded as the most important assets and require empowerment towards their progression in their careers and ensuring that they are secured in their jobs. The field of HRM is seen as the starting point for carrying out all activities associated with employees, including how they are recruited, as well as the termination of their working career. The 4th industrial revolution has brought with it changes that seem to affect employees in the industries in which they work. According to Puhovichova and Jankelova (2020), it is through human resources that the goals of any company and action plans are realised and executed. According to Rangaiah (2020), Human Resource (HR) management functions have changed. **Figure 1** shows the changes that have taken place as follows:

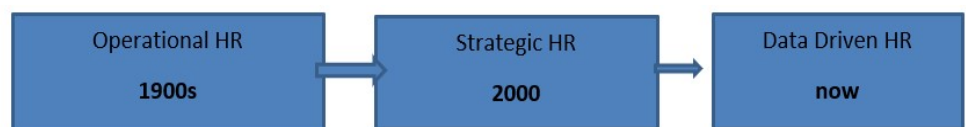


Figure 1. The journey of data-driven human resource management.

Source: Rangaiah, 2020.

HRM has evolved significantly over the past two decades, allowing it to play an

even more critical role in today's dynamic business environment, especially in the 4th industrial revolution.

2.4. Effects of 4IR on human resource management

This section explores in detail the role of human resources in the 4th IR to determine how Industry 4.0 has affected its functions. To achieve this, technologies that have shaped the role of HR are discussed. First, Artificial Intelligence (AI). According to Balas et al. (2021), AI is “an ultimate intelligent system that is an adaptable logical agent that recognises its environment and takes measures that maximise its chance of accomplishment of a goal.” AI encourages dependencies to be forged between one machine and another or between humans and machines instead of among humans. With this understanding, some HR practices can be automated and machine-driven. Even labor-centered activities can be adapted through the use of AI, a technology that is more information-driven and ultimately reduces pressure on the work of employees. This intervention of AI in HR processes is therefore recognised as a way to strengthen HR practices especially when it comes to quick decision-making. Some of the examples that have seen AI automating HR practices include a scenario where AI has been used to screen candidates for interviews, analysing the developmental and career needs of employees.

On the one hand, there is Big Data. According to Garcial-Arroyo and Osca (2019), big data has become the most valuable resource for companies. There is an interconnection between big data, AI, and the Internet of Things (IoT) as they relate to HR. With the spread of technology on almost everything, which is the term referred to as IoT, it has become easy to collect and transmit information for analysis over the internet. IoT simply implies that data is generated, collected, and transmitted through various technologies connected together by a network or the internet. In the context of HR, in the wake of the 4th IR, information about prospective candidates is gathered from various sources, which include but are not limited to social media portals, email, and the internet. Skills required are mostly searched for on the internet using algorithms or AI-powered tools. Once this information is collected, it has to be analysed using automated AI tools. This information that is generated through various sources on the internet is big data. Big data implies that the sources from which data is collected are heterogeneous, the data is unstructured, voluminous, and beyond human comprehension using traditional methods of analysis. This is the reason it requires AI models to help analyse it.

Figure 2 below is a generic model for an AI life cycle. It starts with a process of sorting and organising data, or curation of data. This is big data. This data comes from various sources of HR practices or from the internet for use in making decisions. For example, if data is from social networks and is going to be used to profile candidates for a job, automated HR processes will provide analysis and help make decision-making easier. The AI algorithms are trained with this data to be able to help in predicting the outcome. The model becomes more intelligent as it gets fed more data to make predictions, reducing the pressure on the employees to do this by themselves. **Figure 2** below is the representation of the model.

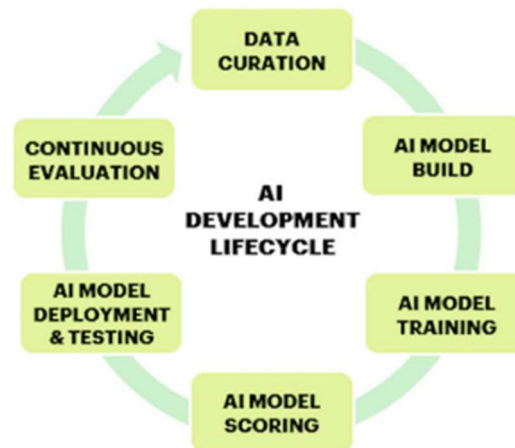


Figure 2. AI development life cycle.

Source: Solanki and Pathak, 2019.

Figure 3 below shows connected sources of information that can affect how HR receives data for screening and perhaps from its automated processes.

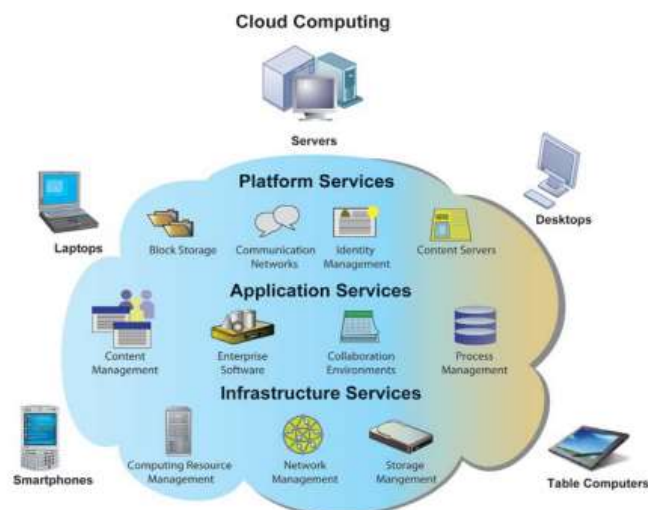


Figure 3. Source of information.

Source: Laudon and Laudon, 2013.

2.5. How HR will use 4th IR technologies to develop and solve problems in the future

There has to be a paradigm shift in the way HR practices are being carried out today. This paradigm requires HR practices to be data-driven. Automation of HR practices will bring this reality into play. The 4th IR economy is already characterised by the extensive generation of information from various sources. Algorithms, or AI models, are deployed in every system to reduce the burden on employees to analyse and predict the future. Humans get tired, and their intelligence is subject to human conditions. Big data, as explained in the above sections, has to do with the unprecedented generation of data that is coming from various sources and activities that need to be analysed to make correct decisions. Humans are limited when it comes to this.

AI systems are built over these platforms as algorithms that are able to use data and computing resources to learn a certain behaviour that emulates human intelligence (Laudon and Laudon, 2013). Machines can be effective in predicting outcomes and making HR decisions more accurate and faster.

The labour activities of employees are also automated. In the 4th IR, cyber-physical systems (CPS) combine all processes of manufacturing that are physical with computing resources and communication capabilities. The physical elements in production are connected to the digital resources using IoT (Xu et al., 2018). The interconnectedness of systems is made possible by the IoT. This suggests that all manufacturing systems lean on each other for coordinated work. In the process, they generate a lot of data between processes that no human can handle with their mind. That is why these efforts of employees will be replaced by intelligent systems to avoid errors such as inaccurate decision-making. So, AI models take over, as machines never get tired. According to Bayraktar and Atar (2018), all these CPS systems begin to perform monitoring and control using smart means.

Furthermore, when it comes to manufacturing patterns of products or designs, 3D printing technology is utilised. 3D stands for 3-dimensional representation of objects using digital files. The process is such that materials are designed through this technology (Cerika and Maksumic, 2017). There is no waste in using this technology.

Big Data enabled decision-making may also be referred to as HR analytics. It is a data-driven method of decision-making that provides insights into how hiring, compensation, training, and development within an HR function can take place (Marker and Boudreau, 2017).

The Future Jobs Survey by the World Economic Forum in 2018 depicts that human labour statistics will go down from 71% to 58% by 2025. In the same report, it is indicated that organisations worldwide should expect far fewer numbers due to digitalisation and automation of most functions done by the workforce. It will either be that the human component in the work environment is eliminated, substituted, reinvented, or transformed. This serves to create more opportunities in the tech space than on the side of personnel needed. This suggests that new skills will be required or investments will be made to reskill the current workforce which might seem expensive.

The use of AI, big data, and IoT will be very crucial. The 4th IR technology developments changed the landscape of the way recruitment is done. Recruitment will be subjected to algorithms that can do the hiring. The same is true with screening applicants, sorting, and making schedules for interviews. They make all these go fast with the reliability that is expected. The use of AI tools such as Chabot's is already in place to answer questions related to recruitment.

In research conducted by Cerika and Maksumic (2017), on "the effects of new emerging technologies," they highlighted that these technological inventions have a bearing on the performance of employees. They used a method called Deductive qualitative analysis (DQA), which provided insight into the positive things that are revealed by the effects of the implementation of new technologies. According to Whysall et al. (2019), the 4th IR acts as a connector of current skill sets with future skills to combat any challenges in the innovative technology space. To bridge the gap,

organisations may incorporate new ways of acquiring talent.

3. Methodology

The study was qualitative in nature and used secondary data, which was selected purposively. Secondary data refers to data gathered for the second time and already obtainable from other sources. Using data that is already available offered the researchers adequate time to conduct the research by accessing quality research. The study was exposed to a wide array of data available in databases whose availability would have been costly and inconceivable if the study had opted for primary research. The researchers adhered to Bowen's (2009) recommendation that for document analysis researchers should check whether the selected documents to be analysed are accurate, credible, authentic, representative, and relevant to the research problem. The researchers adhered to these principles. The researchers prioritised recent publications on the 4IR and Human Resource Management discourse. In addition, content checks and the sources of the documents were also employed to determine the accuracy, credibility, authenticity, and relevance of the chosen written documents. The researchers consulted journal articles, books, seminar papers, and online sources related to the integration of 4IR and HRM. The data was also analysed using thematic classification and content analysis.

4. Results and discussion

4.1. Lessons for Lesotho

In the context of Lesotho, many lessons can be drawn to understand the role of the 4th IR in relation to HR professionals. This may not be a straightforward path to arrive there and there, is no quick way to fully shift to a fully automated and efficient environment. Implementing these technologies requires resources such as money and skills. For example, implementing artificial intelligence and deploying robotic technology to run HR operations may not be that easy. On the one hand, there is a necessity for doing things much quicker to solve problems and make decisions.

The constraints that underlie the current activities of HR include recruiting and retaining employees. There is a need to replace human factors and improve productivity within a company. It is necessary that employees be reskilled to meet the requirements presented by the 4th IR technological developments or to be in harmony with them (Sung, 2018). Robotics in the industry is a growing phenomenon that will later supersede human intelligence. Looking at sectors such as agriculture and manufacturing, this might grow faster than anticipated as the focus in these sectors is more on production. Therefore, there is a need for rigorous skills training programs for the 4th IR era.

4.1.1 Application of AI in HR

Recruitment and selection: the use of AI makes recruitment processes easier and quicker. To seek a suitable candidate for employment may be a tedious process but AI can assist in making the process quick and more effective.

Employee retention: With the use of AI and machine learning processes, data can

be analysed and models developed to analyse staff retention or turnover issues.

Performance management: AI-enabled models can be developed through data to help in analysing the performance of HR professionals. These intelligent programmes can rely on AI methods to make assessments for the HR staff to help in making decisions about their career progress or requirements for training or development and even a reward system.

4.1.2. Application of big data in HR

Selecting and hiring: Finding skilled talents is a prolonged process and requires a lot of effort. Big data is now being used to make this process easier and quicker. Big data supports sorting numerous resumes and picking the desired ones. According to Rangaiah (2020), big data can be used to reduce the number of days between advertising and filling a post. Big data calculation tools could streamline the process. The OECD (2019) also highlights that bad data hiring is a costly mistake and big data reduces the possibility of that mistake. Having hired employees, retention becomes a critical aspect. Guiles (2020) indicates that big data helps to spot employees who are likely to walk out of the company by going through their job performance, employment history, payroll data, profile updates, and other online activities. Algorithms can then be designed and used to spot and retain talented employees.

Performance and compensation: A substantial amount of data is to be collected for each employee to construct a performance management system in order to reward them individually. HR Analytics recommends some tools that can be used to make compensation plans for employees linked to their individual performances.

Enhance learning and development: Many organizations are using HR analytics to forecast the future needs of employee development and teaching.

Performance management: The assessment of employee performance permits the analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of individual employees. Organizations plan to enhance the competencies and expertise of employees. That is how it contributes to enhancing the skills and competencies of employees (Huselid, 2018). More so, big data helps predict the performance of individuals before hiring them. HR departments can build data sets of high-performing employees to outline talent pools.

Legal and ethical issues: Big data can be used by the HR department as a technique for risk management (Foster, 2021). Given that governments find themselves operating in the digital space, there is a need for information to be used transparently and responsibly. Data is seen as being instrumental in dealing with challenging policy issues and consequently needs to be used strategically to promote the needs of the citizenry (Ulbaladi et al., 2019). **Figure 4** below shows a summary of the benefits of big data in HRM.



Figure 4. Advantages of big data in human resource management.

Source: Foster, 2021.

5. Practical implications

HR professionals are better equipped with current trends in managing employees.

6. Conclusion

With the advent of large volumes of data and new technology, it can be noted that it has become imperative to manage and use the technology to improve efficiency in organisations. Evidence indicates that HR offices across the globe are striving to embrace technology in the management of their human capital. Lessons can be drawn that can help in managing talent, improving decision-making around HR, and retaining competent staff.

Author contributions: Conceptualization, MM, MEM, and LS; methodology, MM and MEM; software, LS; validation, MM, MEM, and LS; formal analysis, MM, MEM, and LS; investigation, MM, MEM, and LS; resources, MM, MEM, and LS; data curation, MM, MEM, and LS; writing—original draft presentation, MM and MEM; writing—review and editing, MM, MEM, and LS; visualization, LS; supervision, MM; project administration, MM. All authors have read and agreed to the published version manuscript.

Conflict of interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

- Adolph, S., Tisch, M., & Metternich, J. (2014), Challenges and approaches to competency development for future production. *Journal of International Scientific Publications—Educational Alternatives*, 12(8), 1001–1010.

- Bayraktar, O., & Ataç, C. (2018). The effects of Industry 4.0 on human resources management. In: Yıldırım, E., & Çeştepe, H. (editors). *Globalization, Institutions and Socio-Economic Performance Macro and Micro Perspectives*. Peter Lang GmbH. pp. 337–360.
- Cerika, A., & Maksumic, S. (2017). The effects of new emerging technologies on human resources: Emergence of Industry 4.0, a necessary evil? Available online: <https://uia.brage.unit.no/uia-xmlui/bitstream/handle/11250/2452946/Cerika,%20Andy%20og%20Maksumic,%20Sinan.pdf?sequence=1> (accessed on 3 August 2024).
- Dhanpat, N., Buthelezi, Z. P., Joe, M. R., et al. (2020). Industry 4.0: The role of human resource professionals. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 18. <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v18i0.1302>
- George, D. G., & Thomas, D. M. R. (2019). Integration of Artificial Intelligence in Human Resource. *International Journal of Innovative Technology and Exploring Engineering*, 9(2), 5069–5073. <https://doi.org/10.35940/ijitee.l3364.129219>
- Guiles, C. (2020). The many roles of big data in HR. Available online: <https://www.smartbrief.com/original/2020/09/many-roles-big-data-hr> (accessed on 3 August 2024).
- Huselid, M. A. (2018). The science and practice of workforce analytics: Introduction to the HRM special issue. *Human Resource Management*, 57(3), 679–684. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.21916>
- Laudon, K. C., & Laudon, J. P. (2013). *Essentials of Management Information Systems*, 10th ed. Pearson.
- Organisation for Economic Corporation and Development (OECD). (2019). Data driven human resource management, enabling the strategic use of human resource data for a high performing civil service. Available online: <https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/sites/6669e814-en/index.html?itemId=/content/component/6669e814-en> (accessed on 3 August 2024).
- Pandian, S. S. (2018). Impact of fourth industrial revolution in human resource management. *International Journal for Research Trends and Innovation*, 3(2), 59–61.
- Puhovichova, D., & Jankelova, N. (2020). Changes of human resource management in the context of impact of the fourth industrial revolution. *Industry 4.0*, 5(3), 138–141.
- Rangaiah, M. (2020). What is HR analytics? Role, challenges and applications. Available online: <https://www.analyticssteps.com/blogs/what-hr-analytics-role-challenges-and-applications> (accessed on 3 August 2024).
- Ulbadi, B., Van Oojien, C., & Welby, B. (2019). A data driven public sector, Enabling the strategic use of data for productive inclusive and trustworthy governance. Available online: <https://www.sipotra.it/wp-content/uploads/2019/05/A-data-driven-public-sector-Enabling-the-strategic-use-of-data-for-productive-inclusive-and-trustworthy-governance.pdf> (accessed on 3 August 2024).
- Van de Westhuizen, E. J. (editor). (2021). *Human Resource Management in Governance: A South African Perspective on Theories, Politics and Processes*. Juta and Company (Pty) Ltd.
- Whysall, Z., Owtram, M., & Brittain, S. (2019). The new talent management challenges of Industry 4.0. *Journal of Management Development*, 38(2), 118–129. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jmd-06-2018-0181>
- World Bank Group. (2017). Big data in action for government: Big data innovation in public services, policy and engagement. Available online: <https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/176511491287380986/pdf/114011-BRI-3-4-2017-11-49-44-WGSBigDataGovernmentFinal.pdf> (accessed on 3 August 2024).
- Xu, L. D., Xu, E. L., & Li, L. (2018). Industry 4.0: state of the art and future trends. *International Journal of Production Research*, 56(8), 2941–2962. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00207543.2018.1444806>
- Xu, M., David, J. M., & Kim, S. H. (2018). The Fourth Industrial Revolution: Opportunities and Challenges. *International Journal of Financial Research*, 9(2), 90. <https://doi.org/10.5430/ijfr.v9n2p90>

Article

Exploring the bright side of dark personalities: The dark triad as predictors of innovative work behavior in managers

Marium Arslan Zuberi*, Arif Khattak

Department of Management Studies, Bahria University Islamabad, Islamabad 4400, Pakistan

* Corresponding author: Marium Arslan Zuberi, mariamnasir75@yahoo.com

CITATION

Zuberi MA, Khattak A. (2024). Exploring the bright side of dark personalities: The dark triad as predictors of innovative work behavior in managers. *Human Resources Management and Services*. 6(3): 3482.
<https://doi.org/10.18282/hrms.v6i3.3482>

ARTICLE INFO

Received: 16 June 2024
Accepted: 9 July 2024
Available online: 14 August 2024

COPYRIGHT

Copyright © 2024 by author(s).
Human Resources Management and Services is published by PiscoMed Publishing Pte. Ltd. This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license.
<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>

Abstract: There has been a growing interest in studying dysfunctional personality traits in the workplace. In line with this trend, this study examines how the Dark Triad personalities (Machiavellianism, narcissism, and psychopathy) can predict innovative work behavior. Additionally, the study builds on Trait Activation Theory and proposes a moderating effect of training satisfaction on this relationship. The purpose of this study is to understand if the Dark Triad traits predict innovative behavior while simultaneously examining the role of training satisfaction in channeling these traits toward innovative behavior. A questionnaire-based survey was conducted on the five largest telecommunication companies in Pakistan. The data gathered was analyzed using structural equation modeling. Results established a positive relationship between each trait of the Dark Triad and innovative work behavior. Moreover, training satisfaction was found to moderate the relationship between the psychopathy trait and innovative work behavior. In light of these findings, the study contributes to personality-behavior research in organizations by demonstrating that the Dark Triad predicts innovative work behavior in managers and that the innovative behaviors associated with the psychopathy trait can be enhanced in the presence of training satisfaction.

Keywords: dark triad; Machiavellianism; psychopathy; narcissism; training satisfaction; innovative work behavior

1. Introduction

There has been a growing interest in studying managers' dark personality traits for more than a decade now (LeBreton et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2018). One of the most prominent models of negative/dark personality traits studied in organizational contexts is the Dark Triad. The reason for the scholarly focus on the Dark Triad (DT) as an indicator of managers' negative personalities is due to the striking overlap of each trait's characteristics. The term Dark Triad encompasses three personality traits: narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy. Narcissism refers to excessive self-aggrandizement. Initially, narcissism was explored by clinicians in their medical examinations of troubled personalities, but over time, psychologists found that a milder display of narcissism is actually a personality type rather than a disorder (Campbell and Miller, 2011). Machiavellianism refers to personalities that possess three interconnected values: (1) a firm belief in the effectiveness of manipulative strategies in dealing with others, (2) a pessimistic view of human nature, and (3) a moral viewpoint that prioritizes expedience over principle. Niccolo Machiavelli suggested that even a morally honorable man must intentionally use ruthless, amoral, and deceptive methods when dealing with deceitful individuals. This forms the basis of Machiavellianism. The third personality trait of the Dark Triad is psychopathy. It is identifiable by an absence of empathy for people and societal norms, impulsive

behavior, and a lack of shame or repentance when their actions harm others. Interpersonally, they are often very attractive and convincing. They have very shallow emotions and typically lead carefree lifestyles, which can include criminal activities to achieve their goals with ease (Babiak et al., 2010).

The Dark Triad is fundamentally studied in psychology. Organizational and management studies have recently started exploring it in work contexts (Cohen, 2016; O'Boyle Jr et al., 2012; Palmer et al., 2017). There is still a paucity of fully optimizing the limitless research avenues it can open for management. Understanding the Dark Triad in organizations can be a possible solution to tackle toxic working conditions created by their dysfunctional nature while optimizing certain productive elements unique to these personalities. Most organizational research on the Dark Triad has focused on studying the undesirable effects of such personality traits in different work settings. However, a parallel stream of research has progressively emphasized a more positive and inclusive approach for such personalities by focusing on the potential benefits of the Dark Triad at work. Accordingly, Jonason, Wee, et al. (2015) suggested that rather than outright rejecting Dark Triad employees by declaring them categorically unfit, certain settings may capitalize on their unique characteristics. Such research studies argue that although the three traits are generally considered socially undesirable, in organizational contexts, they may sometimes be beneficial. For instance, it has been found that narcissistic individuals are more likely to emerge as leaders and are also perceived to be more effective as leaders (Nevicka et al., 2011), that psychopathy in managers is positively associated with ratings of charisma and presentation style (Babiak et al., 2010), and that Machiavellianism in employees is positively related to career commitment (Zettler et al., 2010). The findings of these studies suggest that having such personality traits can predict productive outcomes as well. One such outcome is innovative work behavior.

The role of the Dark Triad in predicting innovative work behavior of employees is an underexplored area. Research on the personality-performance linkage is age-old; however, examining personality traits in relation to innovative work behavior is lacking. Our study expands this line of research by examining the link between managers' Dark Triad personality traits and their innovative work behavior. Innovation has globally impacted every industry, making the study of different predictors and antecedents of innovative behavior paramount for advancing innovation literature. In this vein, studying the Dark Triad as a predictor of innovative work behavior aligns with current industry and literature demands. Employee innovative work behavior has been linked to personality in the past, but this avenue of research still needs expansion, particularly the link between dark personality traits and innovative behavior. Very few studies speak directly about this relationship (Wisse et al., 2015). However, there is some relevant research that can serve as a foundation for our argument. Most of this work is related to creativity and the Dark Triad (Dahmen-Wassenberg et al., 2016; Jonason, Abboud, et al., 2017; Jonason, Richardson, et al., 2015). West (2002) explained how creativity is considered the starting point of innovation. Therefore, it is conceivable to extend these findings in the context of the Dark Triad and innovative work behavior. By doing so, we hope to add insight into the limited understanding of how employees' dark personalities may affect their innovative work behavior.

Although this research avenue of studying the positive outcomes of the Dark Triad is promising, we believe that for such negative personalities to exhibit their productive side, organizations need to provide the right kind of supporting environment. This notion can be easily drawn from the famous Trait Activation Theory (Tett and Burnett, 2003). This theory is an extension of the personality-job fit model. It posits that personality traits can be expressed as valued work behavior in the presence of certain trait-relevant situational cues in the environment. We, therefore, build our argument on this theory: if Dark Triad employees are subjected to relevant situational cues, their dark traits will be expressed as valued work behavior. Thus, drawing from Trait Activation Theory, we have tested the role of a trait activator (training satisfaction) in our model. Schmidt (2007) combined the definitions of job training and job satisfaction to introduce a new concept of training satisfaction. His definition of training satisfaction is “the extent to which people like or dislike the set of planned activities organized to develop the knowledge, skills, and attitudes required to effectively perform a given task or job.” In this study, we suggest training satisfaction acts as a trait activator for Dark Triad employees to exhibit innovative work behavior. We have therefore tested the moderating effects of training satisfaction on the relationship between the Dark Triad and innovative work behavior.

We believe our study makes three significant contributions in bridging crucial research gaps: (1) It examines a positive outcome of the Dark Triad. Positive organizational outcomes of the Dark Triad are rarely researched. Although prior studies have examined the Dark Triad’s relationship with creativity, our study takes the lead in testing the Dark Triad in relation to innovative work behavior (Spain et al., 2014). (2) Establishing the role of “training satisfaction” as a moderator. This study thereby extends the literature on this novel concept of training and development research. There is a huge lack of empirical studies revolving around this concept. By establishing the role of training satisfaction as a moderator, our study informs management that it is not the number of training programs only but the contentment and satisfaction levels of employees’ training and learning needs that are essential for managing Dark Triad personalities at work. (3) By building the argument on Trait Activation Theory, our study design has made significant advancements in this theory. Its integration into a personality-behavior model and its validation in an entirely new and unique Asian context of Pakistan’s telecommunication industry is not found in the extant literature.

2. Literature review

2.1. Dark triad and employee innovative work behavior

De Jong and Den Hartog (2008) defined innovative work behavior as “an individual’s behaviors directed towards the initiation and intentional introduction of new and useful ideas, processes, products, or procedures within a work role, group, or organization.” It is important to understand that no matter how much potential an individual has to be innovative, support from surroundings and environment is crucial for the display of innovative behavior (Zibarras et al., 2008). Due to the significance of situational factors in helping with the expression of innovation, scholars have long studied organizational factors that lead to innovation (Anderson et al., 2014). However,

studying the link between individual characteristics such as personality traits and innovation is still scarce. While limited, past studies have confirmed that innovativeness is positively related to personality traits such as the Big Five (Zhou and Hoever, 2014) and proactive personality (Ng and Feldman, 2013).

Creativity and innovation reflect originality, and original behavior often goes against behavioral norms. Therefore, innovative behavior could logically be conceptualized as deviant behavior (Runco, 2004). This helps us develop our argument that dark or deviant personality traits can predict innovative behavior. Spain et al. (2014), while reviewing dark personality studies, pointed out that creative performance was the least researched organizational outcome of dark personality at work. All this research is promising, but far more research is required to explore the relationships between innovative work behavior and personality, especially dark personality.

A cohesive theory that can explain creativity and innovation in relation to personality is yet to be formulated (Kapoor, 2015). This gap in research can be attributed to a severe lack of studies that directly address the relationship between the Dark Triad and employee innovative work behavior, which is why a broad theory in which this relationship might be embedded has not been reported. However, studies have found linkages with some relevant constructs like the Dark Triad and entrepreneurial activity (Do and Dadvari, 2017), leader dark traits and innovation (Volmer et al., 2016), and the Dark Triad and creativity (Butler, 2015; Dahmen-Wassenberg et al., 2016; Jonason, Abboud, et al., 2017). A few studies have also pointed out the theoretical underpinnings of the three individual traits in relation to innovative behavior. For instance, Eysenck (1993) discussed chance-configuration theory as a foundation for understanding the psychoticism and creativity linkage. Similarly, Sordia et al. (2020) discussed how divergent thinking, derived from Guilford's theory of creativity, is linked with the Dark Triad. Guilford's theory posits that divergent thinking leads to creativity, and such thinking is also directly related to the Dark Triad (Jonason, Richardson, et al., 2015). These theoretical foundations of creativity can be extended to support the relationship between the Dark Triad and innovative behavior as well.

McLaren (1993) suggested that innovation can be fully comprehensible only when studied in relation to its dark side. Thus, studying it with respect to dark personality is a step ahead in innovation research. Wisse et al. (2015) explored the relationship between the Dark Triad and supervisors' perception of employee innovative behavior, but their findings alone are not sufficient, and they themselves demanded that their exploratory attempts be replicated. This warrants further testing of the linkage between the Dark Triad and innovative work behavior. This study addresses this research gap and proposes hypotheses for each trait of the Dark Triad in relation to employee innovative work behavior.

2.2. Machiavellianism and innovative behavior

Machiavellians, by definition, are fixated on the quick and easy attainment of their goals. Their tendency to be creative and innovative stems from this characteristic. They are constantly looking to adopt creative measures that help them achieve their

desires and goals in the shortest time possible. Research has repeatedly linked Machiavellianism to innovation through various indirect linkages. For instance, Hutter et al. (2015) comprehensively studied three different dimensions of Machiavellianism in relation to online innovation and found all three to be powerful predictors of innovation-related behavior. Eysenck (1993) pointed out that characteristics such as being uncooperative and rejecting the rules are positively associated with the creativity levels of individuals. Similarly, Zibarras et al. (2008) argued that innovation-related associations with Machiavellianism are positive effects of an otherwise dysfunctional personality trait. Deluga (2001) identified Machiavellianism as a means of political creativity and discussed the positive affiliation between presidential Machiavellianism and the creativity-related aspects of charismatic leadership. Moreover, Machiavellianism was found to be positively associated with entrepreneurial intention (Wu et al., 2019). Since entrepreneurship is a key driver of innovation and innovative behaviors, this finding suggests a positive relationship between Machiavellianism and innovative behavior. All these findings warrant further exploration into the linkage of Machiavellianism with other forms of behavioral innovation as well. It is conceivable from the literature discussed here that Machiavellianism would be positively related to innovative work behavior. To test this relationship, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H₁: Machiavellianism is positively related to employee innovative behavior.

2.3. Narcissism and innovative work behavior

Of the three traits in the Dark Triad, narcissism is the most studied in relation to creativity (Wisse et al., 2015). Studies examining the association between narcissism and creativity have found that although narcissists claim to be very creative, their creative performance is no better than that of non-narcissists (Goncalo et al., 2010). However, narcissists were found to be more creative when given an opportunity to elicit their ideas. Studies regarding group-level creative outcomes found a non-linear relationship with narcissism, whereby the most favorable creative outcomes were achieved when the group members displayed moderate levels of narcissism (Goncalo et al., 2010). Since creativity is considered the starting point of innovation, these studies can help form the basis for future studies regarding the effects of narcissism on innovation and innovative work behavior (West, 2002). Narcissism has been studied in relation to many organizational outcomes such as performance, job satisfaction, and counterproductive work behavior (O'Boyle Jr et al., 2012). Recently, its relationship with innovation has also been explored by scholars, but only at the organizational level, i.e., firm innovation strategy and organizational innovation (Kashmiri et al., 2017). These studies have called for exploring narcissism and its impact on individual innovative behavior, like innovative performance outcomes and innovative work behavior of employees. A handful of efforts in this regard are worth mentioning. For instance, Kusumawardani and Wulansari (2018) established a mediation relationship between narcissistic personality and innovative work behavior. Another prominent study is by Smith and Webster (2018), which studied the indirect effects of grandiose narcissism on innovation. Their findings established this indirect relationship, which was mediated by adaptability. They argued that little research has

investigated narcissism as a predictor of innovation, particularly innovation in the workplace. Hence, further research should explore the direct relationship between narcissism and innovative work behavior.

This argument concludes that organizations should not label narcissistic employees as harmful but instead explore ways to reap benefits from their unique characteristics, such as their heightened desire for extreme superiority and need for constant praise. These characteristics can increase their disposition to display more innovative work behaviors compared to regular employees. Therefore, to examine the relationship between narcissism and innovative work behavior, we propose the following hypothesis:

H₂: Narcissism is positively related to employee innovative behavior.

2.4. Psychopathy and innovative behavior

Eysenck (1993) has shown that the peculiar thinking associated with psychoticism is positively related to creative thinking and performance. Trends in the literature show psychopathy to predict both positive and negative organizational outcomes. In their study, Jonason, Abboud, et al. (2017) made interpretations regarding psychopathy in relation to creativity, but suppression in their multiple regression revealed that only some parts of psychopathy are problematic, while majorly it is positively related to creativity. Babiak et al. (2010) found psychopathy to be positively associated with creativity, good strategic thinking, and communication skills but negatively associated with management skills and being a team player. Kapoor (2015) identified psychopathy as a predictor of negative creativity. Jonason, Abboud, et al. (2017) also found a positive relationship between psychopathy and harmful creativity (negative creativity). Jonason, Richardson, et al. (2015) explored the dark side of creativity and established that psychopaths had a predisposition to be creative. Their findings suggest those high in psychopathy also reported higher mechanical skills and lower academic scores, which could explain their interest in creative and vocational activities. They further suggested that behavioral versions of creativity should be explored by future research. In line with this argument, we examine innovative work behavior as that behavioral version of creativity. The studies discussed above establish that even though negative, corporate psychopaths are nonetheless disposed to exhibit some kind of creativity. It is also directed in these studies that productive creativity and innovation should also be explored as an outcome of psychopathy. To identify the relationship between psychopathy and innovative work behavior, we propose the following hypothesis:

H₃: Psychopathy is positively related to employee innovative behavior.

2.5. Dark triad and training satisfaction

Linking personality to the concept of training in different contexts is not new. For example, Grover (2018) examined training performance as an outcome of the Big Five personality traits. Past theory and research argue that personality plays a vital role in determining the approachability of participants to receive and learn new skills in training programs (Aguinis and Kraiger, 2009). However, limited studies address dark personality in relation to training. For instance, Padilla et al. (2007) established that

individuals possessing a trait of overconfidence will face difficulty in accepting negative developmental feedback and may dismiss it entirely. Their findings suggest that narcissists, having an innate desire to be the best in their respective areas, may exert considerable effort in training and development programs. This implies that a narcissist would go to great lengths to get his training needs fulfilled. Similarly, for psychopaths, their anti-social tendencies explain why they are interested in more short-term and less formal training, but nonetheless, they have a high need for training and learning (Jonason et al., 2014).

Training research in the context of the dark triad is limited. All three traits of the dark triad have certain overlapping characteristics. All of them desire power and the attainment of their inflated goals and interests. These inflated desires to be the ‘best of all’ explain how dark triad personalities can have higher needs for training and growth (Spain et al., 2014). An organization that does not provide them with enough growth opportunities will frustrate them and cause an exaggerated expression of their negative traits. Extant research regarding personality and its effect on receiving and designing training programs is promising, but it is essential to explore other facets of training to fully understand the dynamic relationship between personality and training (Ineson, 2011). One such facet is addressed by our study. Providing training and learning opportunities is not sufficient until employees are satisfied with the overall efforts of the organization to train and develop them. This aspect of the training concept is called training satisfaction (Schmidt, 2007). Drawing from trait activation theory and in light of the literature discussed above, we propose that training satisfaction can moderate the relationship between the dark triad and innovative work behavior. This moderating effect of training satisfaction is explained below.

2.6. Moderating effect of training satisfaction: A trait activation perspective

As we discussed before, Schmidt (2007) merged two essential concepts of organizational studies: job satisfaction and job training, to derive the term training satisfaction. He argues that a very important chunk of overall job satisfaction lies in employee satisfaction with the training provided by their employer. Training satisfaction, being a novel concept, has not been researched extensively. However, the two components that make up its basis have had their fair share of research. A direct relationship between both job satisfaction and job training with innovative work behavior has already been established in past studies (Agogu  et al., 2014; Sheeba and Christopher, 2020). This warrants further examination of innovative work behavior in relation to the compound construct of training satisfaction as well. Studies have established how organizational training and innovative work behavior are positively related (Sartori et al., 2018). Based on these prior researches and trait activation theory, this study proposes that training satisfaction will positively moderate the relationship between the dark triad and innovative work behavior, such that dark triad personalities will behave more innovatively when their training needs are met and they are satisfied with the training provided by their employers. Central to trait activation theory is its assumption of “situation strength”. It conceptualizes that situation strength is crucial in trait expression. If the situation is strong, it shall promote the desired outcomes.

Judge and Zapata (2015) tested an interactionist model with a specific focus on the assumption of “situation strength.” Their findings supported their model in which they tested strong and weak situational factors that triggered the Big Five personality traits in relation to job performance. In light of this assumption, we suggest that training satisfaction, as a strong situational cue, would trigger the dark triad such that the positive outcome of innovative work behavior will be strengthened. To examine this moderating effect, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H_{4a}: Training satisfaction moderates the relationship between Machiavellianism and innovative work behavior such that this relationship is stronger when there is training satisfaction.

H_{4b}: Training satisfaction moderates the relationship between narcissism and innovative work behavior such that this relationship is stronger when there is training satisfaction.

H_{4c}: Training satisfaction moderates the relationship between psychopathy and innovative work behavior such that this relationship is stronger when there is training satisfaction.

The theoretical framework showing the proposed hypotheses of the study can be seen in **Figure 1**.

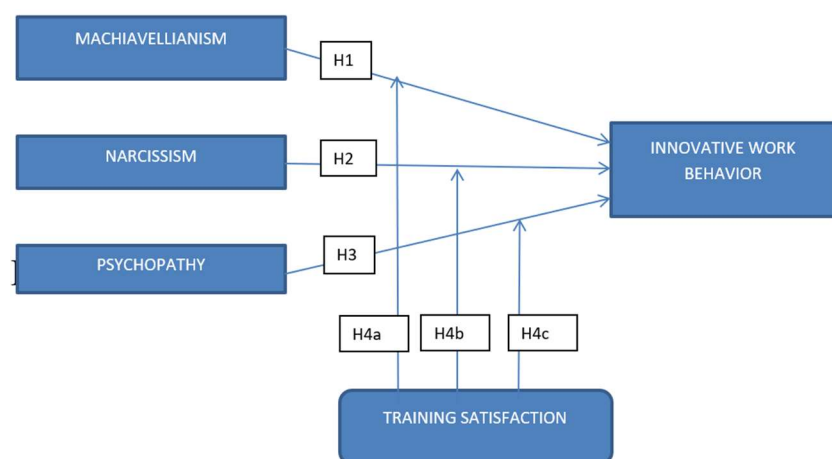


Figure 1. Theoretical framework.

3. Methodology

Our study is based on primary data collected through a survey conducted between August and December 2022 from a total of 700 managers working in the five largest telecommunication firms in Pakistan. Respondents were selected through simple random sampling since the population was known. We had access to the list of employees of all organizations included in the study, which made the use of this sampling technique possible. Once the complete sampling frame (list of all units) was obtained, the RAND function in Microsoft Excel was used for randomization, after which a final sample was selected. The rationale for using this technique is maximum representation and extra precision.

The data collection process was categorized into two phases. In the first phase, we physically visited the head offices of all five organizations. At this stage, we were able to administer 500 surveys, out of which 334 were usable. To improve our sample

size, we moved to the second phase of data collection. In this phase, an online survey was conducted using Google Forms. The second phase of data collection through the online survey was specifically conducted for top-tier executives who were difficult for us to approach physically. In this phase, 167 surveys were returned to us out of a total of 200 online surveys. Therefore, the total sample from both stages of data collection was 700; however, only 501 questionnaires were returned, resulting in a response rate of 71.5%. Attached to the questionnaire, the respondents also received a cover letter that ensured their confidentiality. We ensured that the data collected was to be used solely for academic research purposes.

Respondents rated themselves on the Dark Triad, training satisfaction, and innovative work behavior scales. The questionnaire measured all variables on a five-point Likert scale. Items were adapted from credible sources. For the Dark Triad, the Short Dark Triad (SD3) by Jones and Paulhus (2014) was used. Training satisfaction was measured through the Job Training Job Satisfaction Scale (JTJS), which is a 12-item self-rated scale developed by Schmidt (2004). Innovative work behavior (IWB) was measured through items adapted from Janssen (2000) and Scott and Bruce (1994).

To check for common method variance, Harman's single-factor test was applied. The total variance of a single factor was 27.3% (Table 1). Therefore, no common method bias was detected.

Table 1. Harman's single-factor test.

Extraction sums of squared loadings		
Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
13.658	27.316	27.316

All interviewees confirmed the need to be adaptable to effectively influence team members (Northouse, 2020), taking into account individual characteristics and circumstances. Each interviewee identified the importance of the 'people' factor and sought a 'best approach' to bring together differing factors to get the best out of everyone, including appreciating differing needs and wants aligned with their own expectations, and an understanding of individual potential. All interviewees recognized the centrality of people in being effective. Mishra et al. (2019) and Ford (2020) emphasized the importance of this within the context of hospitality. P3 acknowledged the positive link between contented employees and satisfied customers, who often become repeat business due to the positive experience, in line with Azik (2017).

Although the literature may suggest that managers struggle to adopt an appropriate balance between service consistency, staff empowerment, and autonomy (Peterson et al., 2020; Witelaw, 2013), each of the interviewees appeared to demonstrate a clear understanding of their workplace context and strategies for action.

4. Results

We first assessed the measurement scales' convergent validity, discriminant validity, and reliability. A confirmatory factor analysis verified the factor structure of reflective constructs. Convergent validity can be established if factor loadings > 0.5,

composite reliability > 0.7 , and average variance extracted (AVE) > 0.5 (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2006). All item loadings were found to be significant, with all items loading onto their corresponding constructs with values exceeding 0.60 (Hair et al., 2010). Thus, adequate convergent validity was established.

Our results also show good discriminant validity because the square root of AVE values is larger than the correlations between the constructs, as shown in **Table 2** (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

Table 2. Discriminant validity.

	CR	AVE	TS	NARC	PSY	MACH	IWB	MD
TS	0.94	0.603	0.776					
NARC	0.96	0.738	−0.318***	0.859				
PSY	0.92	0.592	−0.336***	0.099*	0.769			
MACH	0.94	0.660	−0.313***	0.319***	0.054	0.812		
IWB	0.93	0.711	−0.256***	0.258***	0.142**	0.159**	0.843	

* $p < 0.050$, ** $p < 0.010$, *** $p < 0.001$; Square roots of AVEs are reported along diagonal in bold.

For hypothesis testing, structural equation modeling was performed. First, we assessed the measurement model fitness. A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted. All items were found to have loadings higher than 0.5 and statistically significant squared multiple correlation coefficients ($R^2 > 0.25$), thus implying strong internal consistency of the scale. All items were loaded on their specific latent constructs and exhibited statistically significant factor loadings and squared multiple correlations; therefore, there was no need to respecify the measurement model. Moreover, the goodness of fit parameters indicated that the model with its fifty items yielded an adequate fit with the data. The chi-squared ($\chi^2 = 2452.772$), normed chi-squared ($\chi^2/\text{df} = 2.114$), comparative fit index (CFI = 0.937), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA = 0.048), standardized root mean residual (SRMR = 0.043), and p -value of close fit ($P\text{-Close} = 0.921$) were well within the specified cutoff values. For the overall model, some other goodness of fit indices also determined model fitness. These included the normed fit index (NFI = 0.887), Tucker Lewis index (TLI = 0.933), incremental fit index (IFI = 0.937), and goodness of fit index (GFI = 0.807). All indices are shown in **Table 3**. The model with its five constructs was deemed fit and acceptable for further analysis.

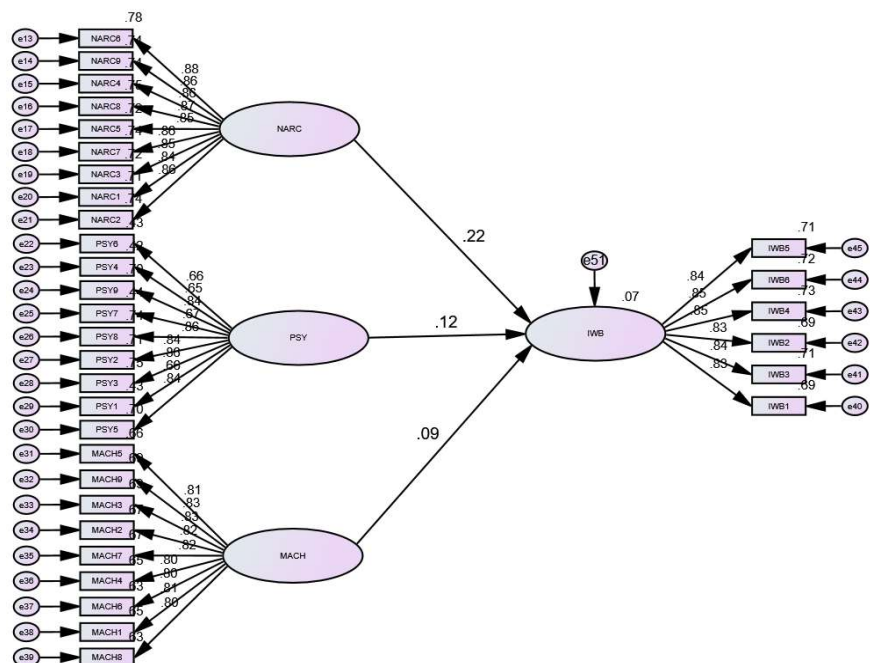
Table 3. Measurement model fitness.

Fit statistics of the overall measurement model				Remarks
Index	Acceptable level	Estimated measures	Status	
χ^2	Smaller value	2452.772	-	
df	Should be positive	1160.000	-	
χ^2/df	≤ 3.0	2.114	Excellent	
CFI	> 0.95	0.937	Good	
RMSEA	< 0.06	0.048	Excellent	
SRMR	≤ 0.08	0.043	Excellent	Accepted
$P\text{-close}$	≥ 0.05	0.975	Excellent	

Table 3. (Continued).

Fit statistics of the overall measurement model				Remarks
Index	Acceptable level	Estimated measures	Status	
GFI	≥ 0.90	0.807	Good	
TLI	≥ 0.90	0.933	Excellent	
IFI	≥ 0.90	0.937	Excellent	
NFI	≥ 0.90	0.887	Good	

In the next step, we assessed the structural model. The model consisted of three exogenous variables, “Machiavellianism,” “narcissism,” and “psychopathy,” with nine indicators each, and one endogenous variable, “innovative work behavior,” with six indicators. As seen in **Figure 2**, all indicators loaded on their specified constructs and exhibited statistically significant standardized estimates.

**Figure 2.** Structural model of Machiavellianism, narcissism, psychopathy, and innovative work behavior.

Moreover, model fitness estimates revealed that the proposed structural model, consisting of 32 observed variables, satisfactorily fit the data. The goodness of fit indices showed excellent values ($\chi^2 = 1731.674$, TLI = 0.905, CFI = 0.911, IFI = 0.912). The results of this structural model can be seen in **Table 4**.

Table 4. Goodness-of-fit for the structural model of Machiavellianism, narcissism, psychopathy, and innovative work behavior.

Fit statistics of the structural model				Remarks
Index	Acceptable level	Estimated measures	Status	
χ^2	Smaller value	1731.674	Excellent	
df	Should be positive	492.000	-	

Table 4. (Continued).

Fit statistics of the structural model				Remarks
Index	Acceptable level	Estimated measures	Status	
χ^2/df	≤ 3.0	3.250	Acceptable	
CFI	> 0.95	0.911	Good	
RMSEA	< 0.06 (good) < 0.08 (acceptable)	0.072	Acceptable	Accepted
TLI	≥ 0.90	0.905	Excellent	
IFI	≥ 0.90	0.912	Excellent	
NFI	≥ 0.90	0.891	Good	

4.1. Testing direct hypothesis

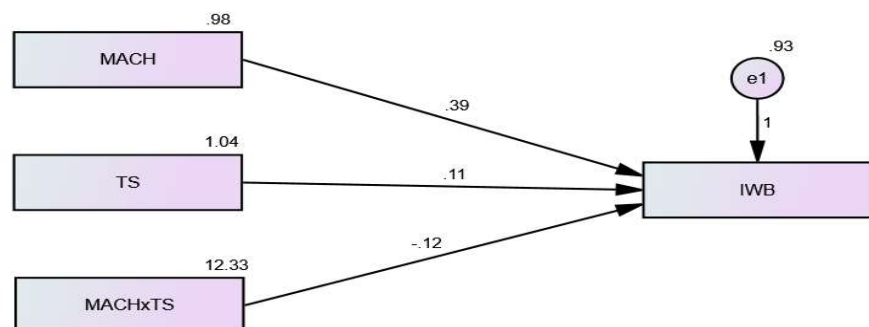
The t -values for each direct hypothesis (H_1 to H_3) are shown in **Table 5**. The results indicated that all t -values (C.R.) are greater than the critical value of 1.96, implying the statistical significance of the hypothesized relationships at a 5 percent level of significance.

Table 5. Regression weights: (group number 1—default model).

Hypotheses	Relationship Direction	Estimate	S. E.	C. R.	Sig.	Results
H1	+	0.090	0.040	2.25	0.050	Supported
H2	+	0.223	0.046	4.84	0.000	Supported
H3	+	0.118	0.059	2.09	0.013	Supported

4.2. Moderation analysis

Hypothesis H_{4a} sought to ascertain the moderating effect of training satisfaction on Machiavellianism and innovative work behavior. The overall regression model for this hypothesis was significant ($F(3486) = 17.401, p < 0.001, R\text{-squared} = 0.097$). The R -squared value signifies that 9.7% of the total variance is due to the predictors of this model. The model with path estimates can be seen in **Figure 3**.

**Figure 3.** Moderation model of Machiavellianism, innovative work behavior, and training satisfaction.

The results indicated that TS moderated the relationship between MACH and IWB since the interaction coefficient of training satisfaction and Machiavellianism was significant ($\beta = -0.115, t = -2.97, p < 0.01$) (**Table 6**). However, the negative beta

value revealed that TS limits the predictor effect of MACH on IWB, which is opposite to what the hypothesis proposed.

Table 6. The moderating effect of training satisfaction on Machiavellianism and innovative work behavior.

Predictor	Outcome	Std Beta	S.E	C.R	Sig	R-Square
MACH	IWB	0.394***	0.112	3.510	0.000	
TS	IWB	0.110	0.126	0.868	0.386	0.097***
MACH x TS	IWB	-0.115**	0.039	-2.970	0.003	(Change in $R^2 = 0.016^{**}$ due to moderation)

Significance level: * $p < 0.050$, ** $p < 0.010$, *** $p < 0.001$.

To understand the conditional effects, an interaction was plotted via simple slopes based on one standard deviation above and below the mean value of the moderator (see **Figure 4**). The slopes did not support the direction of the moderated relationship. At higher levels of training satisfaction (one SD above mean), Machiavellianism was found to have a weaker predicting impact on innovative work behavior, whereas a lower level of training satisfaction (one SD below mean) strengthened the predicting effect of Machiavellianism on innovative work behavior. As training satisfaction increased, innovative work behavior caused by Machiavellianism decreased. The interaction effect reversed the direction of the main effect. We proposed that high training satisfaction could increase innovative work behavior in managers with Machiavellian personalities, but our findings revealed that high training satisfaction in managers with Machiavellianism caused a decline in innovative work behavior. Thus, despite a significant beta, due to reverse moderation ($\beta = -0.115$), hypothesis H_{4a} is not supported.

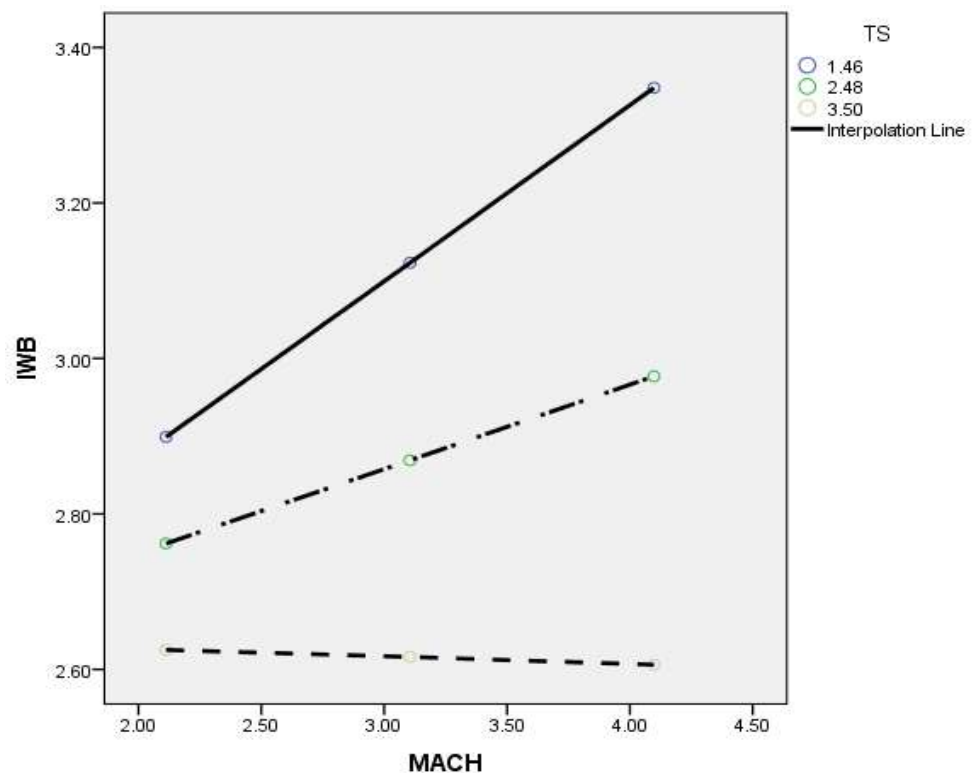


Figure 4. Conditional effect of Machiavellianism on innovative work behavior at different levels of training satisfaction.

Hypothesis H_{4b} proposes a moderating effect of training satisfaction on narcissism and innovative work behavior. The overall regression model for this hypothesis was significant ($F(3486) = 24.629, p < 0.001, R\text{-squared} = 0.132$). The R -squared value signifies that 13.2% of the total variance is due to the predictors of this model. The model with path estimates can be seen in **Figure 5**.

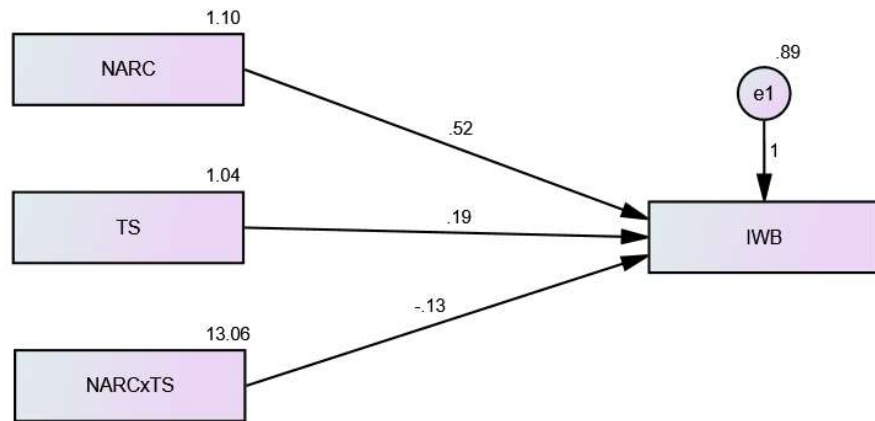


Figure 5. Moderating model of narcissism, innovative work behavior, and training satisfaction.

The results indicated that TS moderated the relationship between NARC and IWB since the interaction coefficient of training satisfaction and Narcissism was significant ($\beta = -0.125, t = -3.468, p < 0.01$) (**Table 7**). However, the negative beta value revealed that TS limits the predictor effect of NARC on IWB.

Table 7. The moderating effect of training satisfaction on narcissism and innovative work behavior.

Predictor	Outcome	Std Beta	S.E	C.R	Sig	R-Square
NARC	IWB	0.529***	0.103	5.063	0.000	
TS	IWB	0.187	0.121	1.547	0.123	0.132***
NARC x TS	IWB	−0.125**	0.036	−3.468	0.001	(Change in $R^2 = 0.021^{**}$ due to moderation)

Significance level: * $p < 0.050$, ** $p < 0.010$, *** $p < 0.001$.

The conditional effects were analyzed (see **Figure 6**). The slopes did not support the direction of the moderated relationship. At higher levels of training satisfaction (one SD above mean), Narcissism was found to have a weaker predicting impact on innovative work behavior, whereas a lower level of training satisfaction (one SD below mean) predicted more innovative work behavior. As training satisfaction increased, innovative work behavior caused by narcissism decreased. The interaction effect reversed the direction of the main effect. We proposed that high training satisfaction could increase innovative work behavior in managers with narcissistic personalities, but the findings revealed that high training satisfaction in managers with narcissism caused a decline in innovative work behavior. Thus, despite a significant beta, due to the reverse moderation effect ($\beta = -0.125$), hypothesis H_{4b} is also not supported.

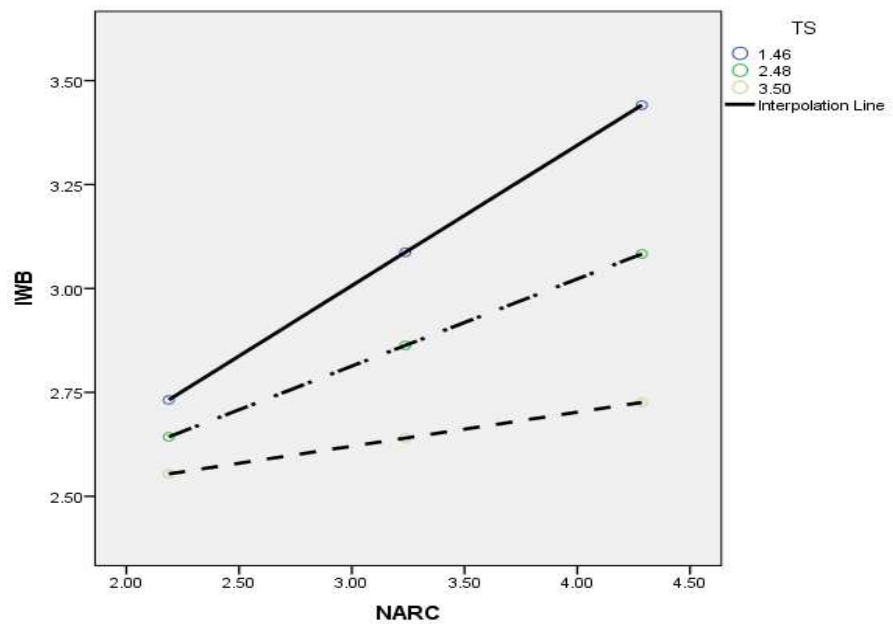


Figure 6. Conditional effect of narcissism on innovative work behavior at different levels of training satisfaction.

Hypothesis H_{4c} proposes a moderating effect of training satisfaction on psychopathy and innovative work behavior. The overall regression model for this hypothesis was also significant ($F(3486) = 15.63, p < 0.001, R\text{-squared} = 0.088$). The $R\text{-squared}$ value signifies that 8.8% of the total variance is due to the predictors of this model. The model with path estimates can be seen in **Figure 7**.

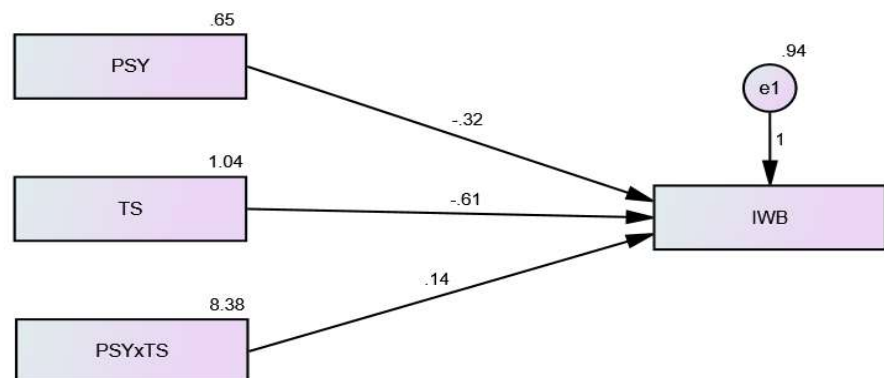


Figure 7. Moderating model of psychopathy, innovative work behavior, and training satisfaction.

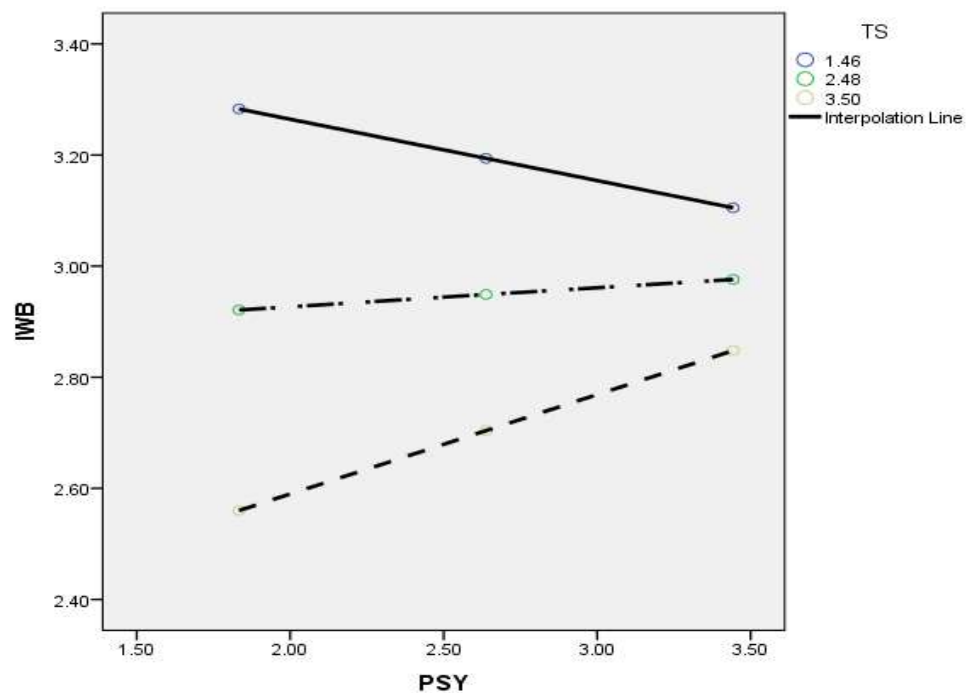
Results indicate that TS moderated the relationship between PSY and IWB since the interaction coefficient of training satisfaction and psychopathy was significant ($\beta = 0.142, t = 2.415, p < 0.05$) (**Table 8**). However, the positive beta value revealed that TS enhances the predictor effect of PSY on IWB, which is in agreement with what we proposed in the hypothesis.

Table 8. The moderating effect of training satisfaction on psychopathy and innovative work behavior.

Predictor	Outcome	Std Beta	S.E	C.R	Sig	R-Square
PSY	IWB	−0.316	−0.174	−1.816	0.070	
TS	IWB	−0.613***	0.158	−3.873	0.000	0.088***
PSY x TS	IWB	0.142*	0.058	2.415	0.016	(Change in $R^2 = 0.011^*$ due to moderation)

Significance level: * $p < 0.050$, ** $p < 0.010$, *** $p < 0.001$.

To understand the conditional effects, the interaction was again plotted (see **Figure 8**). The slopes provided further support for the direction of the moderated relationship. At higher levels of training satisfaction (one SD above the mean), psychopathy was found to have a strong predicting impact on innovative work behavior, whereas at lower levels of training satisfaction (one SD below the mean), the relationship was weakened. As training satisfaction increased, innovative work behavior caused by psychopathy increased. Thus, hypothesis H_{4c} was supported, establishing that high training satisfaction levels in managers with subclinical psychopathy can lead to an increase in their innovative work behavior.

**Figure 8.** Conditional effect of psychopathy on innovative work behavior at different levels of training satisfaction.

5. Discussion

Psychological researchers have argued that the dark triad is not always negative and dark; instead, there are a few positive outcomes of such personalities as well (Jonason, Abboud, et al., 2017; Volmer et al., 2016). To study a positive outcome of the dark triad, the study proposed that Machiavellianism is positively associated with innovative work behavior. This posits that as Machiavellianism increases, an individual's predisposition to behave innovatively at work also increases. The SEM analysis of this study supported this hypothesis ($\beta_4 = 0.086$, $p < 0.050$). The β

coefficient demonstrates that innovative work behavior is affected by 8.6 units when there is a 1-unit change in Machiavellianism. Some past studies have established that Machiavellian individuals are more creative due to their innate desire to succeed, for which they figure out innovative ideas even at the cost of harming others (Hutter et al., 2015; Jonason et al., 2017; Świeca, 2020). The present research findings were therefore consistent with the literature in establishing a positive relationship between Machiavellianism and innovative work behavior. Thus, organizations should focus on facilitating the innovative capabilities of Machiavellian employees rather than their negative behavior.

Similarly, for the second trait of the triad, the study proposed that narcissism is positively associated with innovative work behavior. The SEM analysis of this study supported this hypothesis ($\beta_5 = 0.223, p < 0.001$). The β coefficient demonstrates that innovative work behavior is affected by 22.3 units when there is a 1-unit change in narcissism. Past studies have established that narcissistic individuals are not only more creative but vigorously involved in overall innovation in an organization. This is because they primarily have an inflated sense of self and a desire to be the best at any cost. This characteristic makes them explore and implement novel ideas at work. Thus, the findings of this study have replicated outcomes of past studies in the context of Pakistan's telecommunication sector, a context that has not been studied to test a similar model before. The results of this hypothesis are in conformance with studies like Wisse et al. (2015), Kusumawardani and Wulansari (2018), Smith and Webster (2018), and Yang et al. (2020). Empirical evidence of this study, past literature, and theory, therefore, suggests that organizations can reap benefits from narcissistic employees in the form of enhanced innovative work behavior.

Psychopathy, being the third trait of the dark triad, is also proposed to be positively associated with innovative work behavior. The SEM analysis of this study supported this hypothesis ($\beta_6 = 0.118, p < 0.001$). The β coefficient demonstrates that innovative work behavior is affected by 11.8 units when there is a 1-unit change in psychopathy. The reason behind this positive outcome of an otherwise negative personality trait is rooted in its basic feature of achieving even impossible goals. This characteristic makes them explore and implement novel ideas at work. Thus, the results of this study supported the findings of Jonason, Abboud, et al. (2017), who found that psychopathy is positively correlated to harm-based creativity and innovation. Empirical evidence of this study, past literature, and theory, therefore, suggest that organizations can benefit from the increased tendency of managers with subclinical psychopathy to behave innovatively at work. This innovative work behavior, coupled with their abnormal drive to achieve, can lead to higher productivity.

Hypothesis H₄ has three parts: a, b, and c, each representing one member of the dark triad. All three hypotheses H_{4a}, H_{4b}, and H_{4c} proposed that training satisfaction can act as a trait activator and moderate the relationship between the dark triad (Machiavellianism, narcissism, and psychopathy, respectively) and innovative work behavior in such a way that in the presence of training satisfaction, dark triad managers become more involved in innovative behavior. The results revealed varied findings. The study was unable to find support for two of the hypotheses, H_{4a} and H_{4b}, mainly due to the reverse moderation effect. Although their interaction was found to be significant ($\beta = -0.115, p < 0.01$ and $\beta = -0.125, p < 0.01$ respectively), the conditional

effects revealed findings opposite to what was proposed in the hypotheses. At high levels of training satisfaction, Machiavellianism and narcissism were found to have negative relationships with innovative work behavior, whereas, at lower levels of training satisfaction, they caused a steady increase in innovative work behavior. These results were surprising because the interaction effect reversed the main effects, and the predicting effect of Machiavellianism and narcissism on innovative work behavior was considerably diminished with increasing levels of training satisfaction. There is some, if not a lot, support from the literature to justify these findings. Leonelli et al. (2019) found negative relationships between entrepreneurs' narcissism and startup innovation, Yang et al. (2020) established a negative impact of leader narcissism on innovation with the moderation of environmental uncertainty. Similarly, Kashmiri et al. (2017) determined an indirect relationship between CEO narcissism and firm innovation. Thus, our study has replicated these findings in an entirely new and different context. Our findings follow the same trends as the research of Wu et al. (2019) and Smith and Webster (2019), who also explored moderating mechanisms in the dark triad and innovation relationship. These studies also obtained mixed results while moderating the impact of all three traits of the dark triad on innovation, creativity, and entrepreneurship, respectively. Our study, however, is the first to explore training satisfaction as a moderator.

On the contrary, the SEM analysis yielded support for the third hypothesis, H_{4c} ($\beta = 0.142$, $t = 2.415$, $p < 0.05$). For this hypothesis, not only was the interaction significant, but the conditional effects also supported the proposed hypothesis. These findings of the moderating role of training satisfaction in the relationship between psychopathy and innovative work behavior are in coherence with the Trait Activation Theory (Tett and Guterman, 2000). This theory purports that strong situational factors activate personality traits that lead individuals with similar traits to perform accordingly. Therefore, according to our results, it is likely that a manager's disposition to be a psychopath and ultimately its effect on his innovative work behavior can be triggered or enhanced through training satisfaction. Another justification for such results is the relevant context of Pakistan's telecommunication sector. It is widely determined that organizational politics limit innovative behaviors (Ferris and Hochwarter, 2011). This implies that politics can potentially play a bigger part in the failed implementation of novel ideas. This gives an advantage to those who are cunning and maleficent, such as corporate psychopaths, because they can easily maneuver and handle such politics, whereas people with other traits like Machiavellianism and narcissism might not be adept at handling such politics. Pakistan's industry has been found to have a prevalence of unjust organizational politics (Rathore et al., 2017). Thus, it can be perceived why the psychopathy trait of managers showed innovative work behavior, whereas Machiavellianism and narcissism did not.

Although here Machiavellianism and narcissism responded to moderation effects differently than psychopathy, since one of the most deviant members of the triad (psychopathy) can be controlled and directed towards an organization's betterment, enhancing training programs and growth opportunities is a key measure in increasing productivity through innovation and creativity. Moreover, it is advised that researchers should return to theory when interpreting the results and explain them from a

theoretical viewpoint. This implies that emphasis should always be placed more on the substantial meaning of results in terms of the theoretical underpinnings rather than sole statistical significance. Thus, aligning the theory and literature with the results of the present study, it is established that organizations can adopt a managerial perspective that channels the opportunistic and functional side of dark triad employees in driving innovative behavior by satisfying their training needs with relevant growth and development opportunities.

6. Theoretical contributions

First, the findings of this study have significantly contributed to the validation of Trait activation theory. The buffering effect of trait activator (training satisfaction) on predicting IWB in psychopathic employees has further substantiated the theory's arguments and assumptions in a unique context. Second, the study extends the extant literature on personality-based antecedents of innovative work behavior. Dark personality characteristics, like normal personality traits, have an impact on employee behavior. However, to date, there have been very few attempts to study the impact of dark triad traits on work behavior (Forsyth et al., 2012). Our efforts have advanced the findings of studies like Wisse et al. (2015), Jonason et al. (2015), and Kapoor (2015) that have studied negative personality traits as predictors of innovative behavior. Lastly, our research has contributed to the overall literature on training and development by bringing training satisfaction into scholarly focus. Establishing its role in channeling the dark triad towards a productive outcome, i.e., innovative work behavior is a worthy contribution to theory.

7. Practical implications

This research provides imperative findings for practice. It has informed management of a practical way to handle their employees with Dark Triad traits. It has established means for organizations to increase their productivity by optimizing the so-called negative personality traits of their employees. Our research can be used by management to increase innovative work behavior among their workforce. They can identify Dark Triad personalities and train them in a fashion that their unique abilities can be put to use. The service industry management provides trainings relevant to the departmental mode of functioning. But deriving from the training satisfaction literature, the present study argues that the management must ensure the provision of trainings that employee desires. Trainings should be tailor-made and customized as per the requirements of Dark Triad employees. Only then such employees will be satisfied with trainings. Routine and duty-bound training cannot achieve training satisfaction in any employee. Therefore, a thorough investigation must be conducted to identify what training programs are actually appreciated by the top-level executive staff of organizations.

In light of the study's findings, it can be suggested that organizations imply screening mechanisms for Dark Triad personalities. Recruitment and selection decisions can also benefit from the use of such personality screening. This could be done through survey-based inventories and checklists or a more professional help can be hired. Several scholars have commented on the advantages related to using dark

personality traits in selection. However, the management must not tap into the clinical traits which could potentially have legal ramifications. It is only the subclinical levels that they need to measure. Through this identification of Dark Triad personalities, management will be able to provide targeted trainings.

8. Conclusion

For quite some time now, personality disorders among high-ranking decision-makers and the upper echelons of organizations have gained increased attention in theory as well as in practice. Therefore, our study proposed a holistic framework that integrated trait-relevant situational factors (training satisfaction), a negative personality model (dark triad), and behavior (innovative work behavior). This study is in complete conformance with the literature and theory. We have answered the call for research made by Smith and Webster (2019) to explore positive organizational outcomes of the dark triad. Through this examination, the study established a positive relationship between the Dark Triad and innovative work behavior. The study examined training satisfaction as a moderator and found mixed results. Training satisfaction moderated the psychopathy and innovative work behavior relationship but not Machiavellianism, narcissism, and innovative work behavior relationships. Thus, the study concludes that the dark triad can be of benefit to the management, but it depends on the intervening mechanisms employed by the management to steer such personalities from being harmful. Dark Triad personalities can have elevated tendencies to perform innovatively as compared to regular employees. All that management needs to do is cleverly utilize these personalities in the best of their interests.

We suggest future studies test more positive outcomes of Dark Triad personalities and discover other means to further bring out their positive sides. Our study has a few limitations which future studies can work on. First, our sample is restricted to an East Asian context where the working culture is different from the West. Perhaps our model should be replicated on other unique populations. Second, we did not control for any variables in our study. Other studies can include gender comparisons to reveal interesting findings.

Author contributions: Study conceptualization, MZ and AK; data collection, MZ; data analysis, MZ; report writing, MZ and AK. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Additional information: This study has not been preregistered with any independent institutional registry. The data is not publicly shared due to privacy and ethical reasons. However, it can be provided upon reasonable request.

Conflict of interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

- Aghababaei, N., & Błachnio, A. (2015). Well-being and the Dark Triad. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 86, 365–368. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2015.06.043>
- Agogu , M., Poirel, N., Pineau, A., et al. (2014). The Impact of Age and Training on Creativity: A Design-Theory Approach to Study Fixation Effects. *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, 11, 33–41. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tsc.2013.10.002>

- Aguinis, H., & Kraiger, K. (2009). Benefits of Training and Development for Individuals and Teams, Organizations, and Society. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 60(1), 451–474. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.60.110707.163505>
- Anderson, N., Potočník, K., & Zhou, J. (2014). Innovation and Creativity in Organizations: A State-of-the-Science Review, Prospective Commentary, and Guiding Framework. *Journal of Management*, 40(5), 1297–1333. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314527128>
- Babiak, P., Neumann, C. S., & Hare, R. D. (2010). Corporate Psychopathy: Talking the Walk. *Behavioral Sciences & the Law*, 28(2), 174–193. <https://doi.org/10.1002/bsl.925>
- Becker, J. A. H., & Dan O’Hair, H. (2007). Machiavellians’ Motives in Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 35(3), 246–267. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00909880701434232>
- Butler, J. C. (2015). The Dark Triad, Employee Creativity and Performance in New Ventures. *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research*, 35(3), 1.
- Campbell, W. K., & Miller, J. D. (2011). *The Handbook of Narcissism and Narcissistic Personality Disorder: Theoretical approaches, empirical findings, and treatments*. John Wiley & Sons. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118093108>
- Cohen, A. (2016). Are They Among Us? A Conceptual Framework of the Relationship between the Dark Triad Personality and Counterproductive Work Behaviors (CWBs). *Human Resource Management Review*, 26(1), 69–85. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2015.07.003>
- Dahmen-Wassenberg, P., Kämmerle, M., Unterrainer, H.-F., et al. (2016). The Relation Between Different Facets of Creativity and the Dark Side of Personality. *Creativity Research Journal*, 28(1), 60–66. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10400419.2016.1125267>
- De Jong, J. P., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2008). Innovative Work Behavior: Measurement and Validation. *EIM Business and Policy Research*, 8(1), 1–27.
- Diller, S. J., Frey, D., & Jonas, E. (2020). Coach Me If You Can! Dark Triad Clients, Their Effect on Coaches, and How Coaches Deal with Them. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 14(2), 110–126. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17521882.2020.1784973>
- Do, B.-R., & Dadvari, A. (2017). The Influence of the Dark Triad on the Relationship between Entrepreneurial Attitude Orientation and Entrepreneurial Intention: A Study among Students in Taiwan University. *Asia Pacific Management Review*, 22(4), 185–191. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apmr.2017.07.011>
- Eysenck, H. J. (1993). Creativity and Personality: Suggestions for a Theory. *Psychological Inquiry*, 4(3), 147–178. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327965pli0403_1
- Ferris, G. R., & Hochwarter, W. A. (2011). Organizational Politics. In: Zedeck, S. (editor). *APA Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Maintaining, Expanding, and Contracting the Organization*. American Psychological Association. Volume 3. pp. 435–459. <https://doi.org/10.1037/12171-012>
- Furnham, A., Richards, S. C., & Paulhus, D. L. (2013). The Dark Triad of Personality: A 10 Year Review. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 7(3), 199–216. <https://doi.org/10.1111/spc3.12018>
- Goncalo, J. A., Flynn, F. J., & Kim, S. H. (2010). Are Two Narcissists Better Than One? The Link Between Narcissism, Perceived Creativity, and Creative Performance. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 36(11), 1484–1495. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167210385109>
- Grover, H. K. (2018). *The Upside to the Dark Side: An Empirical Investigation into the Moderators and Mediators of the Dark Triad and Work Related Outcomes*. UCL (University College London).
- Harms, P. D., & Spain, S. M. (2014). Beyond the Bright Side: Dark Personality at Work. *Applied Psychology*, 64(1), 15–24. <https://doi.org/10.1111/apps.12042>
- Hidalgo, A., & Albors, J. (2008). Innovation Management Techniques and Tools: A Review from Theory and Practice. *R&D Management*, 38(2), 113–127. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9310.2008.00503.x>
- Hutter, K., Füller, J., Hautz, J., et al. (2015). Machiavellianism or Morality: Which Behavior Pays Off In Online Innovation Contests? *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 32(3), 197–228. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07421222.2015.1099181>
- Ineson, E. M. (2011). The Contribution of Personality to Graduate Managerial Training. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(3), 630–638. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2010.11.008>
- Janssen, O. (2000). Job Demands, Perceptions of Effort-Reward Fairness and Innovative Work Behaviour. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 73(3), 287–302. <https://doi.org/10.1348/096317900167038>
- Jonason, P. K., Abboud, R., Tomé, J., et al. (2017). The Dark Triad Traits and Individual Differences in Self-Reported and Other-

- Rated Creativity. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 117, 150–154. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2017.06.005>
- Jonason, P. K., Richardson, E. N., & Potter, L. (2015). Self-Reported Creative Ability and the Dark Triad Traits: An Exploratory Study. *Psychology of Aesthetics, Creativity, and the Arts*, 9(4), 488–494. <https://doi.org/10.1037/aca0000037>
- Jonason, P. K., Wee, S., & Li, N. P. (2015). Competition, Autonomy, and Prestige: Mechanisms Through Which the Dark Triad Predict Job Satisfaction. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 72, 112–116. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2014.08.026>
- Jones, D. N., & Paulhus, D. L. (2013). Introducing the Short Dark Triad (SD3). *Assessment*, 21(1), 28–41. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1073191113514105>
- Kapoor, H. (2015). The Creative Side of the Dark Triad. *Creativity Research Journal*, 27(1), 58–67. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10400419.2014.961775>
- Kashmiri, S., Nicol, C. D., & Arora, S. (2017). Me, Myself, and I: Influence of CEO Narcissism on Firms' Innovation Strategy and the Likelihood of Product-Harm Crises. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 45(5), 633–656. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-017-0535-8>
- Kusumawardani, D., & Wulansari, N. A. (2018). The Effect of Humors and Narcissistic Personality on the Innovative Output with Innovative Work Behavior and Adaptability as Variables of Mediation. *Management Analysis Journal*, 7(3), 352–362.
- LeBreton, J. M., Shiverdecker, L. K., & Grimaldi, E. M. (2018). The Dark Triad and Workplace Behavior. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 5(1), 387–414. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032117-104451>
- Leonelli, S., & Masciarelli, F. (2020). “I am Apt to Show Off”: Exploring the Relationship between Entrepreneurs' Narcissism and Start-Up Innovation. *Sinergie Italian Journal of Management*, 37(3), 39–62. <https://doi.org/10.7433/s110.2019.02>
- McLaren, R. B. (1993). The Dark Side of Creativity. *Creativity Research Journal*, 6(1–2), 137–144. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10400419309534472>
- Nevicka, B., De Hoogh, A. H. B., Van Vianen, A. E. M., et al. (2011). All I Need is a Stage to Shine: Narcissists' Leader Emergence and Performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(5), 910–925. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.07.011>
- Ng, T. W. H., & Feldman, D. C. (2013). A Meta-analysis of the Relationships of Age and Tenure with Innovation-related Behaviour. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 86(4), 585–616. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12031>
- O'Boyle, E. H. Jr, Forsyth, D. R., Banks, G. C., et al. (2012). A meta-analysis of the Dark Triad and work behavior: A social exchange perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(3), 557–579. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0025679>
- Padilla, A., Hogan, R., & Kaiser, R. B. (2007). The Toxic Triangle: Destructive Leaders, Susceptible Followers, and Conducive Environments. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18(3), 176–194. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2007.03.001>
- Palmer, J. C., Komarraju, M., Carter, M. Z., et al. (2017). Angel on One Shoulder: Can Perceived Organizational Support Moderate the Relationship between the Dark Triad Traits and Counterproductive Work Behavior? *Personality and Individual Differences*, 110, 31–37. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2017.01.018>
- Rathore, K., Khaliq, C. A., & Aslam, N. (2017). The Influence of Leadership Styles on Employees Performance under Perceptions of Organizational Politics: A Study of Telecom Sector in Pakistan. *International Journal of Management Research and Emerging Sciences*, 7(1), 106–140. <https://doi.org/10.56536/ijmres.v7i1.31>
- Sartori, R., Costantini, A., Ceschi, A., et al. (2018). How Do You Manage Change in Organizations? Training, Development, Innovation, and Their Relationships. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 9, 31. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.00313>
- Schmidt, S. W. (2007). The Relationship between Satisfaction with Workplace Training and Overall Job Satisfaction. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 18(4), 481–498. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.1216>
- Schmidt. (2004). The Job Training and Job Satisfaction Survey Technical Manual. Online Submission.
- Scott, S. G., & Bruce, R. A. (1994). Determinants of Innovative Behavior: A Path Model of Individual Innovation in the Workplace. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(3), 580–607. <https://doi.org/10.2307/256701>
- Sheeba, M. J., & Christopher, P. B. (2020). Exploring the Role of Training and Development in Creating Innovative Work Behaviors and Accomplishing Non-routine Cognitive Jobs for Organizational Effectiveness. *Journal of Critical Reviews*, 7(4), 263–267. <https://doi.org/10.31838/jcr.07.04.49>
- Smith, M. B., & Webster, B. D. (2018). Narcissus the Innovator? The Relationship between Grandiose Narcissism, Innovation, and Adaptability. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 121, 67–73. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2017.09.018>
- Sordia, N., Jauk, E., & Martskvishvili, K. (2020). Beyond the Big Personality Dimensions: Consistency and Specificity of Associations between the Dark Triad Traits and Creativity. *Psychology of Aesthetics, Creativity, and the Arts*.
- Spain, S. M., Harms, P., & LeBreton, J. M. (2013). The Dark Side of Personality at Work. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*,

- 35(S1), S41–S60. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1894>
- Świeca, L. (2020). Medical Machiavellianism in Poland: The Dark Side of Creativity. *Przegląd Naukowo-Metodyczny. Edukacja dla Bezpieczeństwa*.
- Tett, R. P., & Burnett, D. D. (2003). A Personality Trait-based Interactionist Model of Job Performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(3), 500–517. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.3.500>
- Tett, R. P., & Guterman, H. A. (2000). Situation Trait Relevance, Trait Expression, and Cross-Situational Consistency: Testing a Principle of Trait Activation. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 34(4), 397–423. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jrpe.2000.2292>
- Volmer, J., Koch, I. K., & Göritz, A. S. (2016). The Bright and Dark Sides of Leaders' Dark Triad Traits: Effects on Subordinates' Career Success and Well-being. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 101, 413–418. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2016.06.046>
- West, M. A. (2002). Sparkling Fountains or Stagnant Ponds: An Integrative Model of Creativity and Innovation Implementation in Work Groups. *Applied Psychology*, 51(3), 355–387.
- Wisse, B., Barelds, D. P. H., & Rietzschel, E. F. (2015). How Innovative is Your Employee? The Role of Employee and Supervisor Dark Triad Personality Traits in Supervisor Perceptions of Employee Innovative Behavior. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 82, 158–162. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2015.03.020>
- Wu, W., Wang, H., Zheng, C., et al. (2019). Effect of Narcissism, Psychopathy, and Machiavellianism on Entrepreneurial Intention—The Mediating of Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10, 360. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.00360>
- Yang, J., Chang, M., Li, J., et al. (2020). Exploring the Moderated Mediation Relationship between Leader Narcissism and Employees' Innovative Behavior. *Chinese Management Studies*, 15(1), 137–154. <https://doi.org/10.1108/cms-10-2019-0363>
- Zettler, I., Friedrich, N., & Hilbig, B. E. (2011). Dissecting Work Commitment: The Role of Machiavellianism. *Career Development International*, 16(1), 20–35. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13620431111107793>
- Zibarras, L. D., Port, R. L., & Woods, S. A. (2008). Innovation and the 'Dark Side' of Personality: Dysfunctional Traits and their Relation to Self-Reported Innovative Characteristics. *The Journal of Creative Behavior*, 42(3), 201–215. <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2162-6057.2008.tb01295.x>

Article

Optimizing ecosystem of educational institutions: Elevating via positive organizational behavior to enhance employee performance

Asifa Younas

Superior University, Lahore 57000, Pakistan; asifayounas12@gmail.com

CITATION

Younas A. (2024). Optimizing ecosystem of educational institutions: Elevating via positive organizational behavior to enhance employee performance. *Human Resources Management and Services*. 6(3): 3480.
<https://doi.org/10.18282/hrms.v6i3.3480>

ARTICLE INFO

Received: 2 June 2024
Accepted: 28 July 2024
Available online: 14 August 2024

COPYRIGHT

Copyright © 2024 by author(s).
Human Resources Management and Services is published by PiscoMed Publishing Pte. Ltd. This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license.
<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>

Abstract: This study examined the correlations between highly entangled variables such as leadership, work environment, effective communication, reward fairness, and physical facilities for faculty members. The data was gathered from faculty members of educational institutions in Pakistan using a survey questionnaire, and the sampling method was purposive sampling. For this study, data was obtained from a varied group of education professionals from several places in Pakistan, each with a distinct degree of education and experience. This study demonstrates how independent factors affect faculty performance and can have a further impact on organizational productivity. The findings indicated that good organizational behavior had a considerable favorable influence on faculty performance. The paper reviews significant literature on the proposed factors and makes recommendations for further research.

Keywords: communication; leadership; physical facilities positive organizational behavior (POB); reward and recognition; work culture

1. Introduction

Positive organizational behavior (POB) is “the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today’s workplace” (Luthans, 2002a). Employee management has evolved from the skill stage, where personnel management began in the industrial age, progressing to the human resource management age (Luthans, 2002b). Almost all commercial organizations, whether profitable or unprofitable, rarely function in stable circumstances. For the sustainability of a corporation’s competitive edge, non-imitable assets, which are human resources, must be correctly utilized (Barney and Wright, 1998). Leadership may be well-defined in a variety of contexts and ways. (Schuler and MacMillan, 1984).

Almost all definitions of leadership aim to inspire, lead, or encourage an individual or group to follow a specific trend. Educational institutions, like any other organization, cannot compromise their leadership (Adesola and Baines, 2005). This is a system that urges and leads the teachers and other staff members to achieve the educational objectives. As with other institutions, the success of an educational institution is dependent on the leadership and dedication of all stakeholders (Baines et al., 2005). It is always a struggle for organizations to inspire and encourage their personnel through rewards, whether intrinsic or extrinsic, to achieve the greatest outcomes (Wiersma, 1992). It is difficult and fully challenging since the work environment is composite and is made up of a diverse workforce with different outlooks for reward and recognition (Hidi, 2016). So, motivating workers and enhancing their job motivation requires an in-depth study of individual metamorphoses and perceptions of acceptable rewards and incentives, as well as a

combination of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards (Eisenberger and Shanock, 2003). Fairness in remuneration is essential for motivating and boosting employee performance (Jackson et al., 2012). Fair remuneration is critical for motivating and improving employee performance (Jasso, 1983).

The organization should prioritize improving employee performance. To investigate the impact of the work environment on employee performance, it is necessary to understand organizational values and the many components of employee performance. This is because employee performance is significantly influenced by their work environment (Brayfield and Crockett, 1955). The work environment is portrayed as one of the primary tools for achieving competitive advantage, and it differs from others. So, the work environment may be viewed as an independent variable that influences many other dependent variables, particularly those that are directly connected to employees. In his landmark book “Human Resources Champions,” Ulrich (1997) explains this as follows: “Employee contribution becomes a critical business issue because in trying to produce more output with less employee input, companies have no choice but to try to engage not only the body but the mind and soul of every employee” (Cameron and Caza, 2004). The basic four D’s approach—damage, disease, disorder, and dysfunction—which focuses on preventing subpar work, low motivation, unwell-being, bad health, and alienation, is insufficient to achieve this goal. A crucial move away from the four D’s, which is where positive organizational behavior (POB) originates, is preferable. This particular topic includes five POB articles that focus on a wide range of favorably behaving engaged employees for the success of the organization (Hur et al., 2016).

To distinguish POB from other positive methods, it is first necessary to describe it properly. By doing so, the focus is drawn to four significant psychological capacity reserves that are defined by and meet the POB requirements. These include self-efficacy, resilience, hope, and optimism (Luthans, 2002b). The rationale for choosing these four resources of capabilities and their theoretical development stems from the conceptualization of the performance consequences that are employed in investigations (A. B. Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008). It was claimed by Luthans (2002b) that the inclusion criteria for people with psychological disorders are theoretical and research-based, measurable, treatable, and have an impact on performance in the workplace. This management-driven view is counterbalanced by Wright (2003) arguing that pursuing employee happiness and health as viable goals is the mission of POB. As claimed by Zwetsloot and Pot (2004), enhancing employee fitness and welfare is becoming a business value of strategic significance. For instance, increasing sound “investments” in employees who yield direct economic benefits to the company instead of costs, occupational health, and well-being measures. According to this viewpoint, a positive business value model of employee health and well-being can include the employee-centered opinion of Wright (2003) and the organization-centered opinion of Luthans (2002a) a strategy that has been dubbed “Integral Health Management” (Zwetsloot and Pot, 2004), that creates a win-win scenario for the company and its workers. Positive psychology circumstances and human resource qualities that are connected to employees’ well-being or performance growth are often the focus of POB research (Renwick, 2003).

This quantitative study aims to investigate the effects of positive organizational behavior on employee performance in Pakistani educational institutions by testing the notion of positive organizational behavior. The independent variable in this study is “positive organizational behavior,” and the dependent variable is “employee performance”. The controlling factors in this study include reward, work culture, reward systems, leadership, and physical facilities for college and university professors. The major source of data for this survey will be the questionnaire, which will be used as a tool for data collection. Establishing a pleasant workplace where workers feel at ease and can contribute to the success of the company is known as good organizational behavior. Positive reinforcement of employees may foster a positive work atmosphere, which in turn helps the organization accomplish its goals more efficiently because workers can work more productively in such an environment.

This study provides the framework to outline the goal and purpose of the research, which is based on a thorough understanding of college and university faculty members’ experiences with organizational behavior in the context of working with students and highly diverse management. The research topics are outlined to provide clarification on a few of the terms utilized in this investigation (Harmuth, 1969). In addition, the research design, participant selection, data collection, analysis, and interpretation are elaborated.

In Pakistan, positive organizational behavior has received less attention in educational institutions. This article will first discuss innovative approaches to emphasize positive organizational behavior in Pakistan. Second, as the approach is mainly utilized in wealthy nations, there are components of positive organizational behavior that have not been considered if it is done in underdeveloped nations. Educational institutions that prioritize positive organizational behavior and base their decisions on it may achieve enhanced performance. Lastly, the study’s quality standards and ethical considerations are elaborated.

Instead of announcing some new findings about the importance of positivity, as positive psychology does, POB highlights the need for more targeted theory development, research, and practical application of positive attributes, situations, and employee activities in organizations (Youssef, 2007).

This study will assist in developing effective strategies that will help both instructors and students. The sample size consists of 300 faculty members from various academic institutions in Pakistan. According to the subject, educational institutions will have the chance to focus more on positive organizational behavior. The research will produce very useful results that can be applied to any system operating in any type of educational setting. It will also help to reduce negative behaviors by promoting, valuing, and substituting positive, creative, and productive thoughts for negative ones to improve the organization’s capacity for work and productivity.

2. Literature review

The positive organizational behavior (POB) platform, which was developed from recent publications and is made available here, lays forth the concepts of exceptionality, assessment, openness to progress, and application for improving

employee performance and leadership efficiency in addition to positivity. The ideas of POB must be and are now being experimentally assessed in professional contexts. Other applications include cross-cultural entrepreneurship (Luthans and Jensen, 2002) human resource development (Luthans and Jensen, 2002), and entrepreneurship. Scholars and professionals have concentrated on a constructive technique over time for the selection, development, and management of human resources in organizations.

Positive organizational behavior (POB), the platform that has been derived from current articles and offered here sets down the principles not only of positivity, but also exceptionality, evaluation, openness to growth, and application for leadership efficiency and employee performance development (Koeswayo et al., 2024). POB must be currently being empirically evaluated in workplace settings for the thoughts of POB and other applications such as cross-culturally, in entrepreneurship, and human resource development. Over the years, a positive methodology for choice, growth, and management of human resources in organizations has been focused on by both scholars and professionals (Haryanto et al., 2023). The benefits are positively leveraging a variety of high-performance work in terms of employment, remuneration, and motivation. Their fundamental structures, methods, and cultures have also been extensively researched and advocated for their support of competitiveness and organizational performance (Becker and Huselid, 1998).

2.1. Leadership behavior

Leadership behavior is elaborated by Sosik et al. (1997) as the arrangement of leaders' behavior desires, whereas Sadler-Smith et al. (2003) define leadership behavior as a chain of attitudes, features, and abilities used by the managers in diverse circumstances according to individual and linked to organizational standards. Any leader may be more effective in a specific state of affairs but may not emerge as effective in diverse circumstances (Fiedler, 1966). The definition of several leadership styles that have developed many theories of leadership have been recognized (Bass, 1999). A procedure in which "leaders and followers raise one another to increase the levels of ethics and motivation" is transformational leadership which was described by Khanin (2007). This behavior discloses the positive significant relationship which is revealed in five aspects of studies on the effect of leadership style and organizational assurance (Ahmadimousaabad et al., 2013) The type of leadership behavior and factor of commitment can be different from the level of influences (Behrendt et al., 2017).

H1 = There is a positive relationship between leadership behavior and positive organizational behavior.

H0 = There is no relationship between leadership and positive organizational behavior.

2.2. Work environment

It is undeniable that a workplace favorable for the well-being of the workers can facilitate them to fulfill their responsibilities with high efficiency. Three forms of the perceived work environment include technical environment, physical environment, and organizational environment leads to high efficiency and effectiveness of the institution (James and James, 1989). The importance of a positive and encouraging

work environment as in other organizations cannot be denied for educational institutions as well (Amabile and Gyskiewicz, 1989). This type of environment has a positive effect on the staff's attitude, behaviors, and mindset. An encouraging work environment keeps the morale of staff members high, which is necessary for the completion of assigned tasks productively and effectively (Al-Ajez and Hallas, 2011). This simple suitable management style and physical modifications can be easily incorporated into effective work settings (Iriqat, 2016). When employees have this confidence that the organization cares about them, they will respond with higher levels of effectiveness and productivity (Tracey et al., 1995).

H2 = There is a positive association between work environment and positive organizational behavior.

H0 = There is no association between work environment and positive organizational behavior.

2.3. Fairness of rewards

In organizations where the number workforce is not too large, it is believed that a fair reward system is an essential factor that boosts morale and creates good relationships between managers and employees. Physical services, benefits, and gains of employees are part of employee relationships and are the forms of economic returns as Malhotra et al. (2007) define rewards. As Jasso (1983) stated employees provide or perform allocated duties by the employers, and in response the employers are also supposed to fulfill their promises with satisfactory wages and salaries (Hareendrakumar et al., 2020). The scope of organizational culture is stated by using the diverse models by organizational scholars (Tanford et al., 2018) and determining four possibilities of organizational culture into organizational values, beliefs, norms, and predictions. The research by Jackson et al. (2012) reveals the scope of organizational culture as organizational structure, organizational safety and the mutual obligation of welfare, communications, the conduct of the managers, employees' involvement in making decisions, and additionally, employees' responses and behaviors.

The capability to accomplish the organization's main objectives is the desired standard enforced by the majority of organizations today to reward their employees. It was discussed by Hwang et al. (2019) that, many organizations are incapable of inculcating the pleasure of working in accomplishing obligations and responsibilities if insufficient rewards are being promised (Haryanto et al., 2023b). Once more, reward offers an evident means of endorsing productive struggles and declaring to employees the organization's value and their efforts (Xu et al., 2021).

H3 = There is a positive correlation between fairness in reward and positive organizational behavior.

H0 = There is no association between fairness in reward and positive organizational behavior.

2.4. Effective communication

An effective communication system plays a vital role in creating positive organizational behavior and can help to increase the productivity of any organization

(Quill, 1995). All organizations need a well-defined communication system so that all stakeholders of the organization can synchronize and share mutual ideas (Quick and Macik-Frey, 2007). An ill-designed communication system can affect an organization's information values and responses, or it may overload it with excessive information (Haryanto et al., 2023a). Effective and flexible communications can allow companies to meet the demands of different circumstances (Baig et al., 2022). Significant to this description are non-rigid outlines of engagements, the skill to examine a state, and the capability to select from a social catalog of conducts that are most effective and suitable for the circumstances (Hadi et al., 2020).

Thus, effective communication seems to be a vital part of communication capability. People with effective communication are ever more capable, effective, and appropriate in communication circumstances (Kalogiannidis, 2020). They are capable of adjusting to the stresses of conditions (Musheke and Phiri, 2021). By looking at the leadership between effective communication and competence, it can be determined that the self-discovery of effective communication was a solid interpreter of personal adjustment in any organization (Hung and Lin, 2013).

H4 = There is a positive association between effective communication and positive organizational behavior.

H0 = There is no correlation between effective communication and positive organizational behavior.

2.5. Physical facilities

It was realized with time that knowledge delivery is not only conceivable in the four walls of the classroom from the teacher to the students, but rather atmosphere that offers the platform for perception to be demonstrated, direct experience, and improvement of the systematic approaches, abilities, among the individual well-being (Asiabaka, 2008). There is a series of literature on the importance of physical facilities towards the worth of education at different stages of the learning system, which certainly is desirable to the educators and displays the level of creativity and commitment of teachers towards effectiveness and productivity of the educational Institute (Babatope, 2010). Physical facilities assist the faculty members in doing their work in a good manner and support the learners to perform well. In this framework, the educational, physical, infrastructural, instructional, and educational amenities used are exchangeable, exceeding what is possible when they are not delivered (Wendel-Vos et al., 2007). Also, physical facilities are tangible possessions that are facilitated to maximize educational productivity in the coaching and learning procedure (Urwick and Junaidu, 1991).

H5 = There is a positive association between physical facilities and positive organizational behavior.

H0 = There is no connection between physical facilities and positive organizational behavior.

2.6. Performance

The inventiveness, dedication, and ingenuity of employees determine the success of the organization. By encouraging enthusiasm and creativity among their workforce

and helping them reach their full potential, workers may significantly improve the performance of their organizations. POB gives companies the ability to view each employee more thoroughly, facilitating a better knowledge of the workforce and a strategy for changing employee behavior. Scholars have furnished an abstract framework for arranging and integrating their investigations on affirmative organizations (Younas et al., 2023). “The study of that which is positive, prosperous, and life-giving in organizations” is how POS is defined, which talks about how organizations measure their processes and outcomes.

The term “organizational” describes the basic and relational dynamics that are fostered inside and through organizations, with a focus on the environment that might lead to successful outcomes. Positive organizational science (POS) refers to the rigorous, theoretically based, and scientific examination of positive organizational settings (Ogwueleka and Ogbonna, 2018). Like POB but different from positive psychology, POS is primarily focused on the job and reaching work-related goals. While there is some overlap, POB primarily focuses on the psychological conditions and human strengths of individuals that affect employee performance (Luthans, 2002a) whereas POS primarily worries about the organizational framework’s positive attributes that influence employees’ well-being (Younas et al., 2023). This particular issue indirectly impacts the transition between POB and POS because it combines a positive organizational viewpoint (POS) with a positive individual perception (POB) to the fullest extent possible (Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008).

H6 = There is a positive association between positive organizational behavior and employee performance.

H0 = There is no association between positive organizational behavior and employee performance.

2.7. Theory of positive organizational behavior

POB is relatively a new theory in the area of organizational behavior whose focus is positive attributes and outcomes in organizations. It is grounded in positive psychology principles (Luthans, 2002a), which emphasize strengths, virtues, and factors that contribute to individual and organizational productivity, this theory explores factors like positive emotions, hope, resilience, strength-based development, efficacy, employee well-being, positive relationships, OCB, and so on. (Luthans and Youssef, 2007).

This theory helps create a positive work environment by focusing on strengths and positivity rather than solely addressing problems and weaknesses. Fred Luthans, Kim Cameron, Jane Dutton, Adam Grant, and Martin Seligman worked to develop the theory of positive organizational behavior (Cunha et al., 2020). **Figure 1** below shows the theoretical framework of this study.

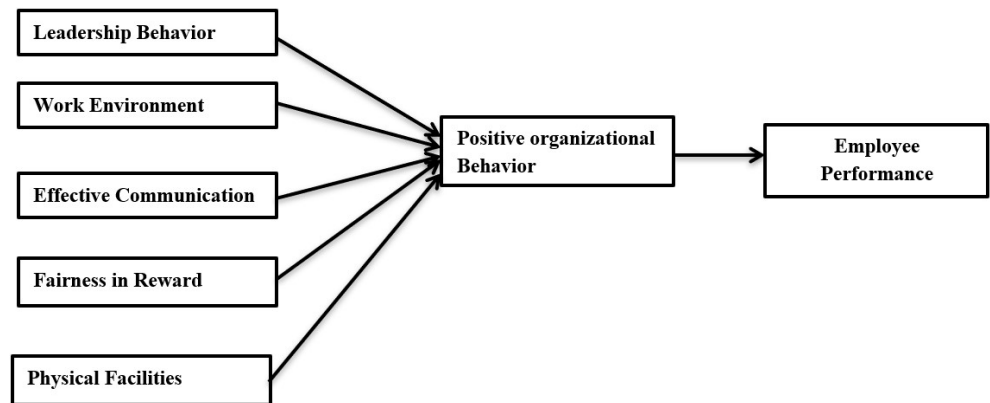


Figure 1. Theoretical framework.

3. Research methodology

The positivist paradigm forms the basis of this suggested study, which seems appropriate for this study. A quantitative research approach was used, which uses a cross-sectional design to gather primary data quantitatively through the use of a quantitative research technique (Park et al., 2020). Models, ideas, and hypotheses are frequently developed using a quantitative research technique. The specification and accuracy of the results will be improved by incorporating numerical data (Runfola et al., 2017). Faculty members were the intended group for this study, which focused on educational institutions. There were 300 people in the sample. A straightforward random sample method was used based on probability sampling techniques. 7 Items LMX leadership scale, 7 items work environment scale, 10 items scale for fairness in rewards, 8 items scale for effective communication, 9 items scale for physical facilities, 14 items scale for positive organizational behavior, and 10 items scale were used to measure the performance.

A self-administered, closed-ended online questionnaire was used to gather data. A 5-point Likert scale was employed to gather the data.

3.1. Data analysis

For data analysis, SPSS was used. After the data collection and data cleaning process was completed, the collected data was inputted into SPSS for further analysis. Cronbach Alpha is calculated with the use of SPSS for factor analysis to measure reliability and internal consistency (Bonett and Wright, 2015). After applying the Cronbach Alpha to all factors, the value of every factor is greater than 0.07 (Christmann and Van Aelst, 2006), which shows that all the factors used in the questionnaire are reliable as shown in **Table 1** below.

As shown in the table, the value of alpha for all variables is greater than 0.70 which shows that all the items of the questionnaire are reliable, so the data collected through the questionnaire is reliable for further analysis.

Table 1. Reliability test.

	Sample Size	N Items	Alpha
Leadership Behavior	300	7	0.783
Work Environment	300	7	0.790
Fairness in Rewards	300	7	0.904
Effective Communication	300	8	0.941
Physical Facilities	300	7	0.876
POB	300	12	0.961
Performance	300	8	0.938

Table 2 below shows the demographic profiles of the respondents.

Table 2. Demographic profiles of respondents.

Data	Frequency	%age
Gender		
Male	203	68.7%
Female	94	31.3%
Age		
20 Years or Less	2	0.7%
21–30 Years	128	42.7%
31–40 Years	122	40.7%
45 Years Plus	48	16.0%
Qualification		
Masters	86	28.7%
M. Phil/MS	152	50.7%
PHD	56	18.7%
Others	6	2.0%
Designation		
Lecturer or Less	124	41.3%
Asst. Prof	52	17.3%
Associate Prof.	16	5.3%
Prof	10	3.3%
Others	58	32.7%
Experience		
5 Years or Less	144	48.0%
6 Years–10 Years	46	15.3%
11 Years–15 Years	30	10.0%
15 Years Plus	62	20.7%
Others	18	6.0%

This table shows that the total number of respondents is 300 of which 203 are males and 97 are females, indicating the percentage of the respondents as 68.7% male and 31.3% female. The next variable age shows that the respondents aged 20 or less are 2, 21–30 are 128, 31–40 are 122, and above 45 are 48. The percentage of

respondents aged below 20 or less is 0.7%, 21–30 is 42.7%, 31–40 is 40.7%, and above 45 is 16%. The next variable qualification shows that the respondents with Masters are 86, M. Phil/ MS are 152, PHD are 56 and others are 6. The percentage of respondents who have a Master's is 28.7%, M.Phil./MS is 50.7%, PHD is 18.7%, and others are 2.0%. The next variable shows that the respondent's designation of lecturers or less is 124, Ass. Prof is 52, Associate Prof. is 16, Prof is 10 and others are 58. The percentage of respondents who are lecturers or less is 41.3%, Asst. Prof is 17.3%, Associate Prof is 5.3%, Prof is 3.3% and others is 32.0%. The next variable shows that the respondent's experience of 5 years or less is 144, 6–10 are 46, 11–15 are 30, 15 years plus are 62 and others are 18. The percentage of respondents with experience of 5 years or less is 48.0%, 6–10 is 15.3%, 11–15 is 10.0%, 15 years plus is 20.7% and others are 6.0%.

4. Results

4.1. Correlation analysis

A correlation analysis is conducted to determine the relation between the different variables selected for the study (Cohen et al., 2013). The tabular representation is given in **Table 3** below. The table shows that leadership behavior has a positive moderate correlation with work performance by a value of 0.062 at the significance level of 0.452, the work environment has a positive perfect correlation with performance with a value of 0.574 at a significant level of 0.000, fairness of reward has a positive correlation with performance with the value of 0.481 at a significant level of 0.000, effective communication has a positive correlation with performance with a value of 0.570 at the significant level of 0.000, physical facilities have a positive correlation with performance with a value of 0.495 at the significant level of 0.000, and positive organizational behavior has a positive correlation with performance with a value of 0.650 at the significant level of 0.000.

Table 3. Correlation analysis.

Leadership Behavior		Work Environment	Fairness Of Reward	Effective Communication	Physical Facilities	POB	Performance
Leadership Behavior	1	0.415**	0.389**	0.344**	0.262**	0.283**	0.062
Work Environment		1	0.704**	0.730**	0.655**	0.734**	0.574**
Fairness Of Reward			1	0.770**	0.703**	0.833**	0.481**
Effective Communication				1	0.666**	0.826**	0.570**
Physical Facilities					1	0.766**	0.495**
POB						1	0.650**
Performance							1

**Significant at 0.01 level of significance.

4.2. Regression analysis

The results as given below show that all the hypotheses are supported and it is seen that POB positively influenced the performance of the employees in the academic institutions, from the model 1 it can be seen that the value of ($\Delta R^2 = 0.074$, $\beta = 0.283$

where $P < 0.05$) this shows that leadership behavior positively associated with positive organizational behavior. Model 2 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.536$, $\beta = 0.734$ where $P < 0.05$) shows that the work environment is positively associated with positive organizational behavior. Model 3 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.692$, $\beta = 0.833$ where $P < 0.05$) shows that fairness in rewards is positively associated with positive organizational behavior. Model 4 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.681$, $\beta = 0.826$ where $P < 0.05$) shows that effective communication is positively associated with positive organizational behavior. Model 5 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.583$, $\beta = 0.766$ where $P < 0.05$) shows that physical facilities are positively associated with positive organizational behavior. Model 6 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.419$, $\beta = 0.650$ where $P < 0.05$) shows that positive organizational behavior is positively associated with employee performance. **Table 4** below shows the multiple regression analysis.

Table 4. Multiple regression.

Model	Dependent	Independent	R^2	ΔR^2	β
1	POB	CVs + LB	0.080	0.074	0.283
2	POB	CVs + WE	0.539	0.536	0.734
3	POB	CVs + FIR	0.694	0.692	0.833
4	POB	CVs + EC	0.683	0.681	0.826
5	POB	CVs + PF	0.586	0.583	0.766
6	Performance	CVs + POB	0.423	0.419	0.650

*Significant at 0.05 level of significance.

CV = Control Variables; (Gender, Age, Qualification, Designation, Experience).

LB = Leadership Behavior; WE = Work Environment; FIR = Fairness in Rewards; EC = Effective Communication; PF = Physical Facilities; POB = Positive Organizational Behavior.

Table 5 below shows the summary of all hypotheses. The results above show that all hypotheses are accepted, as all the values are significant at a significant level of 0.05.

Table 5. Hypotheses summary.

Hypothesis	P -Value	R^2	Out-Com
There is a positive relationship between leadership behavior and positive organizational behavior	0.000	0.080	Accepted
There is a positive relationship between work environment and positive organizational behavior	0.000	0.539	Accepted
There is a positive relationship between communication and positive organizational behavior	0.000	0.694	Accepted
There is a positive relationship between fairness in reward and positive organizational behavior	0.000	0.683	Accepted
There is a positive relationship between physical facilities and positive organizational behavior	0.000	0.586	Accepted
There is a positive relationship between positive organizational behavior and employee performance	0.000	0.423	Accepted

5. Discussion

As was previously said, workers are positively and directly impacted by leadership behavior, the work environment, rewards equity, effective communication, and physical facilities. The effectiveness of educational institutions is positively impacted by both positive and good organizational behavior. Additionally, the findings of the statistical study mentioned above demonstrate a favorable link between them. Regarding earlier studies, a large number of them concentrated on the beneficial relationship between performance and positive organizational behavior. According to

earlier research, this field of study comprises (Luthans and Youssef, 2007) positive organizational behavior in thriving organizations. It is evident that positive organizational behavior significantly improves faculty performance at universities and colleges when comparing the findings of this study with those of the researcher. Therefore, the independent and dependent variables have a direct and positive connection.

As discussed earlier, leadership behavior, work environment, fairness of rewards, effective communication, and physical facilities have a positive and direct impact on positive organizational behavior in the performance of educational institutions. The above statistical analysis and its results also show that there is a positive correlation between them. As far as previous research is concerned, many researches focused on the positive correlation between positive organizational behavior and performance. Previous research studies show that positive organizational behavior is present in flourishing organizations (Luthans and Youssef, 2007). By comparing the results of this study with the researcher's results, then it would be clear that positive organizational behavior effectively helps to enhance the performance of faculty members at universities and colleges. So there is a direct positive relationship between independent and dependent variables.

Leadership behavior has a positive impact on POB because it helps managers to improve their leadership behavior which ultimately has a positive effect on employee performance. The work environment has a great influence on POB as a positive work environment can improve performance, while in contrast, a negative work environment can lead the organization towards low performance. From the above statistical analysis, it is clear that the work environment has a great impact on POB and employee performance as well.

Fairness of rewards is also another important independent variable that can help immensely build up POB behavior. It is clear from the above correlation and regression analysis that fairness in rewards has a great impact on POB and employee performance.

Effective communication has a great influence on POB as shown by the above correlation and regression analysis. Organizations with effective communication behave more positively which results in improved organizational output, rather than those having ineffective communication.

Physical facilities also play an important role in building up a positive culture in any organization as shown by the above regression and correlation analysis. From the above statistical analysis of regression and correlation, there is a strong correlation between independent variables (leadership Behavior, work environment, fairness of rewards, effective communication, physical facilities) with POB and dependent variable (performance). The challenge is to implement properly the above properties in an institute at a particular time which will be helpful to enhance the performance of the employees which can lead the institute towards success and prosperity.

6. Future research directions

In this study, only faculty members were focused so it is suggested that future research should be done for management and other staff as well to give a clear picture

of positive organizational behavior's impact on the whole institute. This study can also be replicated to find out the positive organizational behavior in the school system. Each variable in this study can be studied separately in-depth. There are many other variables also which can also be used to measure the impact of POB on performance like emotions, power, organizational conflict, and so on. These variables can be considered for future research.

7. Conclusion

This comprehensive investigation of operations, encompassing leadership behavior, work environment, effective communication, fairness in rewards, and physical facilities, has uncovered valuable insights into non-profit organizations like academic institutions. The findings of this study elaborate interplay between these critical factors which can impact the performance of personnel at academic institutions.

A cornerstone leadership behavior provides direction and guidance that is crucial for organizational success. A more conducive work environment fosters a sense of belonging and facilitates productivity among all team members. Clarity in roles, tasks, and expectations can be effectively managed by effective communication skills. A culture of recognition, motivation, and equity can be maintained by ensuring the fairness in rewards system. Adequate physical facilities are necessary for the smooth functioning of operations and the well-being of the employees.

The pivotal role of POB as a mediator that promotes positivity, resilience, and well-being of the employees, catalyzing the enhancement and flourishing performance of the employees. Strategically addressing all these areas in an organization can create a nurturing ecosystem conducive to employee satisfaction and growth, and ultimately, improve the outcome of the whole system.

Conflict of interest: The author declares no conflict of interest.

References

- Adesola, S., & Baines, T. (2005). Developing and evaluating a methodology for business process improvement. *Business Process Management Journal*, 11(1), 37–46. <https://doi.org/10.1108/14637150510578719>
- Ahmadimousaabad, A., Bajuri, N., Jahanzeb, A., et al. (2013). Trade-off theory, pecking order theory and market timing theory: a comprehensive review of capital structure theories. *International Journal of Management and Commerce Innovations*, 1(1), 11–18.
- Al-Ajez, F., & Hallas, D. (2011). The reality of practicum program at the faculty of education at the Islamic University in Gaza and its ways to improve it. *The Journal of the Islamic University*, 19(2), 1–46.
- Amabile, T. M., & Grysiewicz, N. D. (1989). The creative environment scales: work environment inventory. *Creativity Research Journal*, 2(4), 231–253. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10400418909534321>
- Asiabaka, I. P. (2008). The need for effective facility management in schools in Nigeria. *New York Science Journal*, 1(2), 10–21.
- Babatope, B. A. (2010). Problems of facilities in south-west Nigerian universities and the way forward. *Journal of Educational Administration and Policy Studies*, 2(2), 39–43.
- Baig, S. A., Rehman, M. Z. U., Naz, A., & Jamil, K. (2022). High core self-evaluation maintains patient oriented behavior: a motivational model of reward system. *Journal of Public Affairs*, 22(2), e2488.
- Baines, T., Kay, G., Adesola, S., et al. (2005). Strategic positioning: an integrated decision process for manufacturers. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, 25(2), 180–201. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01443570510577029>

- Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2008). Positive organizational behavior: engaged employees in flourishing organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 29(2), 147–154. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.515>
- Barney, J. B., & Wright, P. M. (1998). On becoming a strategic partner: the role of human resources in gaining competitive advantage. *Human Resource Management*, 37(1), 31–46. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1099-050X\(199821\)37:1<31::AID-HRM4>3.0.CO;2-W](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-050X(199821)37:1<31::AID-HRM4>3.0.CO;2-W)
- Bass, B. M. (1999). Two decades of research and development in transformational leadership. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8(1), 9–32. <https://doi.org/10.1080/135943299398410>
- Becker, B. E., & Huselid, M. A. (1998). Human resources strategies, complementarities, and firm performance. SUNY Buffalo. Unpublished work.
- Behrendt, P., Matz, S., & Göritz, A. S. (2017). An integrative model of leadership behavior. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 28(1), 229–244. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2016.08.002>
- Bonett, D. G., & Wright, T. A. (2014). Cronbach's alpha reliability: interval estimation, hypothesis testing, and sample size planning. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 36(1), 3–15. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1960>
- Brayfield, A. H., & Crockett, W. H. (1955). Employee attitudes and employee performance. *Psychological Bulletin*, 52(5), 396–424. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0045899>
- Cameron, K. S., & Caza, A. (2004). Introduction. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 47(6), 731–739. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764203260207>
- Christmann, A., & Van Aelst, S. (2006). Robust estimation of Cronbach's alpha. *Journal of Multivariate Analysis*, 97(7), 1660–1674. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmva.2005.05.012>
- Cohen. (2013). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203774441>
- Cunha, M. P. e, Rego, A., Simpson, A. V., & Clegg, S. (2020). *Positive organizational behaviour*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315232249>
- Eisenberger, R., & Shanock, L. (2003). Rewards, intrinsic motivation, and creativity: a case study of conceptual and methodological isolation. *Creativity Research Journal*, 15(2–3), 121–130. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10400419.2003.9651404>
- Fiedler, F. E. (1966). The effect of leadership and cultural heterogeneity on group performance: a test of the contingency model. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 2(3), 237–264. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-1031\(66\)90082-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-1031(66)90082-5)
- Hadi, S., Tjahjono, H. K., & Palupi, M. (2020). Study of organizational justice in SMEs and positive consequences: systematic review. *International Journal of Advanced Science and Technology*, 29(3), 4717–4730.
- Hareendrakumar V. R., Subramoniam, S., & Nizar Hussain M. (2020). Redesigning rewards for improved fairness perception and loyalty. *Vision: The Journal of Business Perspective*, 24(4), 481–495. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0972262920946142>
- Harmuth, H. F. (1969). Applications of Walsh functions in communications. *IEEE Spectrum*, 6(11), 82–91. <https://doi.org/10.1109/mspec.1969.5214175>
- Haryanto, H., Suharman, H., Koeswayo, P. S., et al. (2023). Does internal control promote employee engagement drivers? A systematic literature review. *Australasian Business, Accounting and Finance Journal*, 17(4), 182–193. <https://doi.org/10.14453/aabfj.v17i4.12>
- Haryanto, H., Suharman, H., Koeswayo, P. S., & Umar, H. (2023a). Employee engagement in Indonesian logistics industry. *Quality - Access to Success*, 24(194). <https://doi.org/10.47750/qas/24.194.09>
- Haryanto, H., Suharman, H., Koeswayo, P., & Umar, H. (2023b). Employee engagement in logistics industry: a perspective in Indonesia. *Acta Logistica*, 10(3), 463–476. <https://doi.org/10.22306/al.v10i3.419>
- Hidi, S. (2015). Revisiting the role of rewards in motivation and learning: implications of neuroscientific research. *Educational Psychology Review*, 28(1), 61–93. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-015-9307-5>
- Hung, K.-P., & Lin, C.-K. (2013). More communication is not always better? The interplay between effective communication and interpersonal conflict in influencing satisfaction. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 42(8), 1223–1232. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indmarman.2013.05.002>
- Hur, W.-M., Rhee, S.-Y., & Ahn, K.-H. (2015). Positive psychological capital and emotional labor in Korea: the job demands-resources approach. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 27(5), 477–500. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2015.1020445>

- Hwang, E., Baloglu, S., & Tanford, S. (2019). Building loyalty through reward programs: the influence of perceptions of fairness and brand attachment. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 76, 19–28. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2018.03.009>
- Iriqat, R. (2016). Organizational commitment role in mediating the impact of the organizational culture dimensions on job satisfaction for MFIs' employees in Palestine. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 7(5), 125–135.
- Jackson, E. M., Rossi, M. E., Rickamer Hoover, E., et al. (2012). Relationships of leader reward behavior with employee behavior. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 33(7), 646–661. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01437731211265232>
- James, L. A., & James, L. R. (1989). Integrating work environment perceptions: explorations into the measurement of meaning. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74(5), 739–751. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.74.5.739>
- Jasso, G. (1983). Fairness of individual rewards and fairness of the reward distribution: specifying the inconsistency between the micro and macro principles of justice. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 46(3), 185. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3033790>
- Kalogiannidis, S. (2020). Impact of effective business communication on employee performance. *European Journal of Business and Management Research*, 5(6). <https://doi.org/10.24018/ejbmr.2020.5.6.631>
- Khanin, D. (2007). Contrasting Burns and Bass: does the transactional-transformational paradigm live up to Burns' philosophy of transforming leadership? *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 1(3), 7–25. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jls.20022>
- Koeswayo, P. S., Haryanto, H., & Handoyo, S. (2024). The impact of corporate governance, internal control and corporate reputation on employee engagement: a moderating role of leadership style. *Cogent Business & Management*, 11(1). <https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2023.2296698>
- Luthans, F. (2002a). The need for and meaning of positive organizational behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23(6), 695–706. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.165>
- Luthans, F. (2002b). Positive organizational behavior: developing and managing psychological strengths. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 16(1), 57–72. <https://doi.org/10.5465/ame.2002.6640181>
- Luthans, F., & Jensen, S. M. (2002). Hope: a new positive strength for human resource development. *Human Resource Development Review*, 1(3), 304–322. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484302013003>
- Luthans, F., & Youssef, C. M. (2007). Emerging positive organizational behavior. *Journal of Management*, 33(3), 321–349. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206307300814>
- Malhotra, A., Majchrzak, A., & Rosen, B. (2007). Leading virtual teams. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 21(1), 60–70. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amp.2007.24286164>
- Musheke, M. M., & Phiri, J. (2021). The effects of effective communication on organizational performance based on the systems theory. *Open Journal of Business and Management*, 9(2), 659–671. <https://doi.org/10.4236/ojbm.2021.92034>
- Ogwueleka, A. C., & Ogbonna, S. N. (2018). Effect of positive organizational behaviour (POB) characteristics on construction employees' turnover in Uyo City of Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria. *African Journal of Science, Technology, Innovation and Development*, 10(2), 159–168. <https://doi.org/10.1080/20421338.2017.1412610>
- Park, Y. S., Konge, L., & Artino, A. R. (2020). The positivism paradigm of research. *Academic Medicine*, 95(5), 690–694. <https://doi.org/10.1097/acm.0000000000003093>
- Quick, J. C., & Macik-Frey, M. (2007). Healthy, productive work: positive strength through communication competence and interpersonal interdependence. *Positive Organizational Behavior*, 25–39. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781446212752.n3>
- Quill, T. E. (1995). Barriers to effective communication. *The medical interview: clinical care, education, and research*. Springer. pp. 110–121.
- Renwick, D. (2003). HR managers. *Personnel Review*, 32(3), 341–359. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00483480310467651>
- Runfolo, A., Perna, A., Baraldi, E., et al. (2017). The use of qualitative case studies in top business and management journals: a quantitative analysis of recent patterns. *European Management Journal*, 35(1), 116–127. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emj.2016.04.001>
- Sadler-Smith, E., Hampson, Y., Chaston, I., et al. (2003). Managerial behavior, entrepreneurial style, and small firm performance. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 41(1), 47–67. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1540-627x.00066>
- Schuler, R. S., & MacMillan, I. C. (1984). Gaining competitive advantage through human resource management practices. *Human Resource Management*, 23(3), 241–255. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.3930230304>
- Sosik, J. J., Avolio, B. J., & Kahai, S. S. (1997). Effects of leadership style and anonymity on group potency and effectiveness in a group decision support system environment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(1), 89–103. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.82.1.89>

- Tanford, S., Hwang, E., & Baloglu, S. (2017). Evaluation of reward programs based on member preferences and perceptions of fairness. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 27(1), 106–126. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19368623.2017.1329047>
- Tracey, J. B., Tannenbaum, S. I., & Kavanagh, M. J. (1995). Applying trained skills on the job: The importance of the work environment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80(2), 239–252. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.80.2.239>
- Urwick, J., & Junaidu, S. U. (1991). The effects of school physical facilities on the processes of education: a qualitative study of Nigerian primary schools. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 11(1), 19–29. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0738-0593\(91\)90006-T](https://doi.org/10.1016/0738-0593(91)90006-T)
- Wendel-Vos, W., Droomers, M., Kremers, S., et al. (2007). Potential environmental determinants of physical activity in adults: a systematic review. *Obesity Reviews*, 8(5), 425–440. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-789x.2007.00370.x>
- Wiersma, U. J. (1992). The effects of extrinsic rewards in intrinsic motivation: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 65(2), 101–114. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1992.tb00488.x>
- Wright, T. A. (2003). Positive organizational behavior: an idea whose time has truly come. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24(4), 437–442. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.197>
- Xu, X., Lyu, L., Ma, X., et al. (2021). Gradient driven rewards to guarantee fairness in collaborative machine learning. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 34, 16104–16117.
- Younas, A., Majeed, N., & Hassan, Z. (2023). Effect of authentic leadership on academicians' performance through the lens of positive organizational behavior and knowledge sharing behavior. *International Journal of Management Research and Emerging Sciences*, 13(1). <https://doi.org/10.56536/ijmres.v13i1.383>
- Youssef, L. (2007). Emerging positive organizational behavior. *Journal of Management*.
- Zwetsloot, G., & Pot, F. (2004). The business value of health management. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 55(2), 115–124. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-004-1895-9>

Article

About the personnel problem in modern Russia

E. P. Tavokin

Russian University of Technology (MIREA), 119296 Moscow, Russia; tavokin@mail.ru**CITATION**

Tavokin EP. (2024). About the personnel problem in modern Russia. *Human Resources Management and Services*. 6(3): 3485.
<https://doi.org/10.18282/hrms.v6i3.3485>

ARTICLE INFO

Received: 3 June 2024
Accepted: 22 August 2024
Available online: 6 September 2024

COPYRIGHT

Copyright © 2024 by author(s).
Human Resources Management and Services is published by PiscoMed Publishing Pte. Ltd. This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license.
<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>

Abstract: According to official data, modern Russia has the lowest unemployment rate. However, there is still a huge contingent of hidden unemployment, many times higher than the official level. This situation is paradoxically combined with an acute and continuously growing shortage of qualified production personnel. Using a lot of factual material, the author reveals the causes of this phenomenon. The main one is the depopulation of the indigenous population, which is being replaced by people of other ethnic groups with the lowest qualification level. At the same time, due to the destruction (“optimization”) of the education system, the intellectual and qualification level of the indigenous population is continuously decreasing. The other is the various types and waves of growing emigration of “brains” and “golden hands.” As a result, for more than thirty years, the contingent of old engineering and technical personnel has exhausted itself, while new ones have not been trained in the required volume and quality. A huge personnel “hole” has formed. The author proposes to close this “hole” on the basis of a radical reorientation of the entire Russian education system, starting with kindergarten, school, etc. It is also necessary to reformat the public consciousness accordingly, especially the mass consciousness of young people.

Keywords: shortage of personnel; depopulation; emigration; “brain drain”; education system; technical illiteracy; degradation

1. Problem statement

In recent years, the shortage of personnel has gradually become the main problem of the Russian economy. The demand for qualified personnel in the productive sector has increased to the greatest extent. For example, in 2023 alone, the need for working specialties (primarily installers, turners, welders, builders, and others) increased almost 1.5 times [Institute of Economic Policy named after Gaidar (IEP) (2023)]. Designers and engineering workers are also in high demand. They have very thoroughly displaced IT specialists in the list of the most sought-after professions.

There are many versions regarding the causes of the situation. Their characteristic feature is a local approach to the consideration of the problem, the limited scale of its vision, and the “market” narrowness of the factual and analytical apparatus (Tavokin, 2024). It seems advisable to consider the problem in a broader context. First of all, let’s pay attention to the specifics of Russian unemployment as an associated phenomenon of employment.

2. About unemployment in Russia

2.1. The official approach

Describing the state of the Russian economy, government representatives consistently point to the record low unemployment rate for all the years of “democracy” as the most convincing indicator of its success. Indeed, according to Rosstat, as of

November 2023, the number of unemployed in Russia amounted to 2.2 million people or 2.9% of the total working-age population, the rest of which (74.1 million) according to the classification of the same Rosstat, it was defined very vaguely as “engaged in economic activity.”

However, senior officials among the outstanding achievements of economic development necessarily include an even more convincing indicator, as it seems to them, the number of unemployed registered in employment centers, which as of November 2023 was 504 thousand people (0.6%). For example, Deputy Prime Minister of the Russian Federation T. Golikova often uses it in his speeches. She is not at all embarrassed that the vast majority (almost 80%) of the real unemployed are not registered in these centers. The ridiculously low amounts of benefits that people can receive in these centers (they are several times less than the subsistence minimum), combined with a lot of formalities and meaningless obligations, do not attract them there at all. As a result, a very convenient indicator for demonstrating economic “success” arises.

The manipulative possibilities of both indicators are quite obvious. Indeed, in the mass consciousness, the “unemployed” and the “employed” coexist as communicating vessels. According to this view, a reduction in the number of some automatically leads to an increase in the number of others. Juggling such insignificant values of the number of unemployed in the mass information space, representatives of government structures form a positive picture of complete well-being in the economy for the average person who is not inclined to reflection.

2.2. The structure and causes of unemployment in Russia

However, in reality, the picture looks somewhat different. Let’s take a closer look at the structure of Russian unemployment and its underlying causes.

It is quite obvious that the reduction in the number of unemployed was influenced and is influenced primarily by mass demographic processes: the depopulation of the indigenous population, which began immediately with the onset of “democracy,” the supermortality caused by events related to the so-called “coronavirus pandemic” of 2020–2022, the mobilization of September 2022 and the departure of hundreds of thousands of men for contract service. There is a sharply increased flow of emigration of highly qualified specialists and many others, but all these processes in no way characterize the activities of the authorities to improve the sphere of the economy.

In this regard, it should be noted that both indicators, unlike many other Rosstat data, are objective and reliable, since the first (the number of unemployed) is provided by conducting surveys on large (up to 77 thousand) representative samples in strict accordance with the methodology of the International Labor Organization (ILO), and the second represents the total value of information from employment centers. However, the use of these indicators as self-sufficient, out of context, and in isolation from other indicators characterizing the sphere of work, is completely incorrect.

The fact is that according to the ILO methodology, the unemployed include people who do not have a job or a profitable occupation, and who are looking for work and are ready to start right away. Those who were transferred to a shortened working week, sent on simple and unpaid leave, etc., do not fall into the category of

unemployed. According to Rosstat, at the end of 2022, there were 4.24 million such people. That is, these are those people who are officially registered at work, but do not perform their functions and do not have the opportunity to fully realize their workforce. In fact, these are the hidden unemployed, although formally they fully correspond to the category of “engaged in economic activity.” Their number is not recorded by any structure, but, undoubtedly, their share is very significant. The particularly rapid growth of this category of unemployed began in February 2022. Already in the middle of 2022, the Center for Strategic Research (CSR) determined that with the departure of foreign companies from the Russian market, at least 350 thousand jobs would be put at risk (Kommersant, 2022). But at the end of the same year, assessing the prospects for further exodus of foreign business from Russia, experts predicted that the number of unemployed should increase to 5 million people by the end of 2023 (Pavlova, 2022).

This category of unemployed can be conditionally classified as “new.” However, there is a fairly large category of unemployed, the emergence of which is due to the ongoing “reforms” of the entire socio-economic sphere. In the economy, in particular, in the process of destruction (“reformation”) of the most important productive industries (machine tool construction, mechanical engineering, aircraft construction, production of electronic and electrical equipment, pharmaceuticals, and further on the list), new high-tech jobs equivalent to those destroyed were not created. As a result, people who lost the opportunity to work in accordance with their abilities and professional skills tried (and are still trying) to find other ways to earn money. Some of them have realized their intellectual potential and creative abilities outside their native country, contributing to the innovative development of other countries. Others have tried to integrate into the natural (retail) market element—mostly unsuccessfully. Someone decided to die out of desperation (according to WHO data for 2023, Russia is among the top ten countries with the highest suicide rate, neighboring the Central African Republic and South Korea in this ranking. At the same time, the suicide rate in men is 6.5 times higher than in women, so the Russian Federation occupies a strong 1st place in the number of suicides among men.). However, the vast majority of these people join the ranks of a relatively new and steadily growing social group of the population—the precariat, which can quite rightly be considered as one of the bright “achievements” of the “democratic” path of “development” of Russia (Toshchenko *et al.*, 2022).

The precariat (from Latin *precfrum* “unstable, insecure” and “proletariat”—a social class alienated from the results of labor and exploited in the interests of the ruling class; in English transcription, precariat means fragile) is a fairly new class in modern capitalist society. Unlike the proletariat, the precariat is not only alienated from the results of its labor but also from the entire society. He is fully experiencing a special, sophisticated form of oppression. Citizens in this category do not have fully guaranteed employment. They are forced to take on any temporary, often casual job, which, as a rule, does not always correspond to their professional abilities. This puts them in front of the need to constantly master new, unusual skills and abilities, the inevitable consequence of which is deprofessionalization. As a result, their income is unstable, they have weak social security (there is practically none), they are deprived of many social guarantees, and their financial situation is extremely unstable. But all

of them correspond to the Rosstat formulation “engaged in economic activity.”

The most active, creative part of the precariat (for the most part, these are quite young age groups) invents various “innovative” schemes for legal money-making, thereby gaining the status of self-employed. Government agencies in every possible way promote this particular way of overcoming unemployment, however, without creating any incentive mechanisms for this (material, financial, technological advantages, any benefits, etc.). The main areas of activity of the self-employed are taxi services, apartment landlords, tutoring, construction, home craftsmen (plumbers, electricians, repairmen, etc.), child care, sick people, delivery of goods, etc. These types of work can only be qualified as “economic activity” very, very conditionally, after all, there is no socially useful product as a result of this “activity,” exclusively personal services. The vast majority of people are engaged in these types of work not by vocation or out of any high professional principles, but out of desperation, because of the inability to earn a living in any other way. Therefore, it is more legitimate to call self-employment a rather crude form of masking unemployment.

According to the Federal Tax Service, as of November 2023, 9 million self-employed people were registered and their number is constantly growing: more than 8.5 thousand people are registered as self-employed every day (The Federal Tax Service (FTS) of Russia, 2023). However, according to experts, the real number of this population group (including unregistered ones) is at least two to three times larger and reaches 30 million people.

As you can see, Russian unemployment is a very complex, multifactorial, and contradictory phenomenon. It is impossible to give an exhaustive picture of it with the help of the two indicators discussed above, many millions of really unemployed people remain outside their instrumental sensitivity, whose involvement in “economic activity” is highly questionable.

3. The phenomenon of staff shortage

Therefore, the fact that we have established that there is a huge and rather rapidly growing number of unemployed in the country is paradoxically combined with another process, which is extremely difficult to attribute to positive ones. The fact is that in recent years (about five years), the most important problems of the country include the problem of an acute shortage of workers (namely, workers, productive) personnel, especially qualified personnel. Moreover, according to estimates by both theorists and practitioners of the issue, the relevance of this problem is not only not decreasing, on the contrary, has a distinct tendency to worsen: in January 2024, 53% of heads of industrial enterprises indicated a shortage of personnel as the main problem (Kommersant, 2024). This means that the unemployed for the most part are not a resource for the labor market. The reasons for this paradox are discussed as follows.

3.1. The reasons for the shortage of personnel

3.1.1. Depopulation of the indigenous population

The first and most common factor is the catastrophic decline in the number of indigenous people. The process of depopulation (extinction) was launched immediately after the establishment of “democracy” in the country. This is clearly

seen in **Figure 1**.

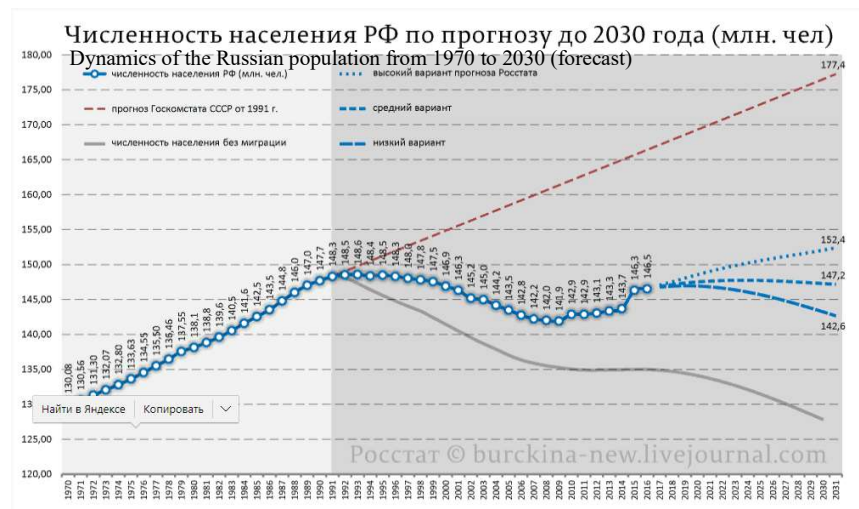


Figure 1. Dynamics of the Russian population from 1970 to 2030 (forecast).

Source: Rosstat.

In the left (light) its part shows the growth of the population of Russia (RSFSR) from 1970 to 1991. During this period, the population steadily increased by about 1 million people per year. The right (gray) part of the figure shows three graphs. The upper (straight line) is a forecast of the most likely population dynamics made by the USSR State Statistics Committee, which is an extrapolation of the previous twenty-year trend for the future, assuming that no extraordinary disturbing events will occur. According to this forecast, 173 million people should live in Russia in 2024.

But such an event happened—“democracy” came, the population began to decline rapidly, and, according to Rosstat, on 1 January 2024, 146.2 million people lived in Russia (this is with Crimea, which was not part of the RSFSR. Therefore, for the purity of the comparison, it is necessary to subtract 2.7 million people from the Rosstat data).

The average graph (with dots) gives an idea of the dynamics of the population of the Russian Federation since 1992. The lower graph (solid line) shows the change in the number of indigenous people, excluding legally imported immigrants who have received Russian citizenship. It shows that there are 132 million indigenous people left in 2024.

This means that the authorities, in order to overcome the demographic catastrophe, instead of creating conditions for the normal (natural) reproduction of their population, officially implement a policy of replacing the indigenous population under the guise of “compensation for demographic losses.” It is replaced mainly by representatives of radically different ethnic groups (Tajiks, Uzbeks, Kazakhs, Kyrgyz, etc.) with cultural and confessional traditions alien to the Russian people and civilizationally incompatible. But it is quite obvious that a dead (or unborn) Russian cannot be compensated in any way by a living Tajik, he can only replace him. 1–2 million of these immigrants are legally imported into the Russian Federation per year, and 2–3 times more enter the country illegally. These are mainly men aged 20–45, the vast majority of whom do not speak Russian and have the lowest professional level. Since 2024, due to the fact that the possibilities of importing immigrants from Central

Asia and the South Caucasus have decreased, it was decided to populate the rural lands of Russia devastated by the “reforms” with Africans even further removed from Russian traditions and culture (Samsonov, 2023). The share of this immigration component in the total population of the Russian Federation is constantly growing. But there is no reason to consider all these “substitute” people as a resource of skilled labor.

The indigenous population of the Russian Federation, on the contrary, is rapidly declining, and judging by the dynamics of the total fertility rate (currently it is officially 1.4, but in the central regions of the Russian Federation it is in the range of 1.2–1.3), no positive changes are expected in the foreseeable future. Along with the “natural” population decline, the country is losing people from, for example, events such as the fight against the so-called “pandemic,” as a result of which the supermortality amounted to about 1 million people.

3.1.2. Emigration of intellectual personnel

In addition to the “natural” decline in the population, the flow of citizens emigrating from the country for various reasons is growing. According to independent researchers, for the period from 2000 to 2020. About 5 million people left Russia. The flow of emigrants has been steadily growing since 2006, and in recent years the country has been losing about 300 thousand annually (Shirmanova and Kokourova, 2022).

It is easy to understand that the best people with high intellectual, professional, and creative potential are leaving. And this is indirectly confirmed by objective data. Among these five million, 55% are aged 30–40 years, 92% of them have higher education (31% in the Russian Federation as a whole), and 14% have an academic degree (1% in the Russian Federation). At places of permanent residence, a third of them work for themselves (company owner, entrepreneur, freelancer), half—in their existing specialty. In general, they are very successful in contributing to the comprehensive innovative development of those countries that have given them the opportunity to unleash their creative abilities. These are precisely the qualified personnel that modern Russia so badly needs.

This stream of emigrants can be classified as stationary. However, along with it, there are emigrant “waves” caused by various extraordinary socio-economic, political, etc. circumstances.

For example, in the first two weeks after the announcement of partial mobilization (21 September 2022), about 700 thousand people left Russia (Evseeva, 2022). As the intensive outflow of citizens from Russia continued, for the period of May 2023, the British Ministry of Defense estimated its total number at 1.3 million people (TIME, 2023).

There are also more extravagant estimates, according to which about 10 million people left the country in 2022 alone in connection with the SVO (special military operation) (Sakhnin, 2022).

We emphasize that 90% of this wave of emigration from Russia consists of young, strong, self-confident men from 20 to 40–45 years old, that is, the most active socio-demographic group in the labor market (Babichev, 2023). If we summarize the assessments of experts of the qualitative composition of those who left, then in general

they are mainly from big cities, on average younger, with better education, and better financial situation than those who stayed. Some parts of this migration flow have returned. But it is not known how many of these returned, for how long they returned: there is no reliable information.

There is every reason to assert that the resource potential, including professional and qualification potential, of those leaving Russia is higher than that of the corresponding remaining social groups. Indirectly, this is confirmed by the fact that many who left were able not only to find work in places of emigration but also to open their own business.

As can be seen, the authorities, following some perverse logic, have created “effective” technologies and appropriate conditions through which they systematically encourage the most qualified citizens (“brains” and “golden hands”) to leave the country and replace them with people capable of performing only primitive physical work.

4. Deindustrialization and its consequences

Undoubtedly, there are many talented, unique, highly professional specialists in the remaining indigenous population. However, there are a number of quite significant factors that together will lead to the fact that their number will steadily decrease, and some of them will also inevitably leave their homeland. The most important of them should include deindustrialization, which was carried out with phenomenal diligence in the country by the authorities immediately after the establishment of “democracy.”

In the era of “post-industrialism,” the so-called “information society” has come. In fact, both terms (in conjunction with the “knowledge economy”) are nothing more than science—like dummies, decorative deceptions designed to brainwash ordinary people who are not used to reflection, so that they are not very upset that they have been deprived of the fundamental basis of their lives—the productive sphere, industry. So that it does not immediately reach their consciousness that the basis of everything has been destroyed—the production of means of production, that the products and things necessary for their life are not printed on printers, but are now produced not in their homeland, but in factories and factories in modern workshops of the world—China and India, as well as in other countries.

Deindustrialization, in addition to its direct purpose (the transfer of a country from the status of a self-sufficient sovereign political entity to a state of a full-fledged raw material colony), has many side effects no less harmful. In particular, it radically changes the quality of people themselves. The people of industrial society are overwhelmingly versatile and professionally literate, intelligent, and skillful. They can easily cope with any household problems. In a country without industry, most people are inept, besotted with liberoid delirium, easily indoctrinated, and therefore inevitably dependent. Any household malfunction (electrics, plumbing, interior, etc.) is an insurmountable problem for them, which requires a specialist to eliminate. These people gradually atrophy their production skills—the ability to do useful things, not even super-complicated, but elementary, simple ones. In today’s Russia, even nails have already forgotten how to make, and toothpicks are brought from China. The country is no longer able to build a complete technological production cycle for any

complex product. The only thing that is still possible is the creation of assembly appendages of subsidiaries of international TNCs. But they are also leaving Russia. The process is proceeding quite rapidly according to the following scheme: deindustrialization → derationalization → degradation → debilitation.

4.1. Denationalization

A clear manifestation of denationalization is the abundance of previously not very popular and significant professions: lawyers, accountants (in general, financiers), economists, various kinds of “managers,” etc. The same number should include numerous populations of designers, marketers, developers, startups, psychologists, and various office workers, as well as representatives of the so-called “creative” professions—journalists, political scientists, image makers, bloggers, etc. other fighters of the conversational-boltological genre. Despite the significant differences in the subject of their activities, they are united by one important circumstance: the lack of a useful socially significant result “at the exit,” everything goes “to the whistle.” It is quite obvious that it is not possible to make that “breakthrough” to a new technological level, which has been included as a mandatory attribute in all election promises of government officials for two decades, with this personnel contingent.

The professions of engineers, the professions of workers, that is, those people who design and create real socially useful and necessary values, as well as the work of scientists, scientists, researchers who, in principle, can calculate and scientifically substantiate the optimal ways to implement this “breakthrough”, in a Russian deindustrialized society is not in price. Only in the last two years (2023–2024), when there was an urgent need to increase the volume of military production in connection with ITS, some high engineering positions and a small number of working specialties (in very remote areas from the center) entered the top ten relatively well-paid professions, taking 9th and 10th respectively places (Sokolova, 2023). Before that, none of these professions were included in the rating ranks at all, which meant (and still means) the extremely low level of remuneration for their owners. This is the specificity of economic priorities in modern Russia.

4.2. Degradation of education

In full compliance with the requirements of economic “development” in the new market conditions, the Russian education system has also been transformed. If in the USSR educational institutions trained not consumer clients, but specialists who are able to creatively participate in the production of a socially useful product, then the Russian education system currently represents an extremely effective conveyor belt for the production of qualified consumers and amazingly successfully solves the problems of degradation and debilitation of trainees. This is confirmed, in particular, by the results of the participation of Russian schoolchildren in international studies.

Nine-year-old Russian children who have not yet lost their natural intellectual abilities in the process of initial “learning” show excellent results in international studies of the quality of education. They occupy the first place along with Singapore and other leading countries in the field of education. However, fifteen-year-old Russian schoolchildren in terms of functional literacy in reading, mathematics and

natural sciences have shown the lowest results in Europe over the past 20 years: they occupy places in the fourth to fifth tens. Only 2% of Russian students have the ability to understand complex texts, objectively analyze the information presented, and formulate hypotheses and conclusions (Vetrova, 2016).

The current aggressively destructive system of Russian school education, functioning according to the scheme of a business project, in every possible way, displaces from the school environment those teachers and educators who are trying to preserve the principles and methods of classical education and upbringing intact. This largely explains the fact that, according to the Ministry of Education, 193.5 thousand teachers left schools in 2023 alone (Ministry of Education of the Russian Federation, 2024). This is despite the fact that there are chronically not enough teachers in many disciplines. This means that no improvement in the quality of graduates of Russian schools can be expected in the foreseeable future.

By accepting such “material” from school at the “entrance,” the Russian higher education system is forced to solve a rather exotic task: to provide higher education to those who, in fact, do not have secondary education. Strangely enough, the task is successfully solved in the conditions of the “market” model. The fact is that Russian universities under this model have been turned into educational supermarkets: applicants pay money, and the university sells them, according to the tax, educational services—a certain set of “competencies.” The educational process is imitated so thoroughly and so similar to the real one that graduates—bachelors and masters—continue to live for a long time in the world of the illusion that they have received some kind of (higher) education.

Of course, there are a certain number of specialized schools and a dozen and a half or two universities where students receive a fairly high-quality education. But the share of graduates of these institutions in the total mass of graduates does not exceed 4–5%. Since this process has been going on for more than 30 years, many experts talk about the massive degradation of the Russian population: “We must admit that we live in a world of functionally illiterate people. And if forty years ago scientists were looking for a way to combat functional illiteracy, now they are looking for ways to interact with it. The diagnosis has become so universal” (Sokologorskaya, 2016; Polyushkova, 2020). According to Rosstat, the majority of the Russian population is functionally illiterate, and less than 20% of people have full-fledged conceptual thinking (Yasyukova, 2016).

4.3. Degradation of science

Russian science is also “developing” in the same way “harmoniously” and in full accordance with the economy and the education system. According to Rosstat, during the years of “democracy” the number of researchers in the country has decreased by more than 3 times. At the beginning of 2024, their number was 320 thousand people (in 1991 there were 990 thousand), of which 93 thousand people with an academic degree. In terms of the number of patents, Russia lags behind the United States by almost 16 times, and China by 38 times. According to the indicator of internal research and development costs per researcher, Russia ranks 47th. The sphere of Russian science is unattractive even for scientists, due to the insufficient

development of appropriate infrastructure and low wages (Izotova, 2020). At the same time, there is no reason to expect any positive developments in this area either in the near or in the distant future. This follows from the data in **Table 1**.

Table 1. Graduate school graduation in the reporting year

	Total (person)	Including the defense of the dissertation	
		Total	%
2010	33763	9611	28.5
2015	25826	4651	18.0
2020	13957	1245	8.7

Source: Federal State Statistics Service, 2023.

As can be seen, the graduation rate of graduate students is decreasing at an accelerated pace, and the number of those who complete their studies in graduate school with a thesis defense is decreasing even faster. The fact is that in the process of deindustrialization, the consciousness of young people has been radically reformatted. As a result, two generations have grown up and formed in modern Russia, for whom science as a concept and as a kind of professional activity is generally absent from the alignment of their life interests (Gorshkov, 2020). Among the priorities of modern Russian youth are cosmetologists, designers, marketers, etc. “creative” professions. Lawyers, economists, and managers, who until recently were a priority, although they came off the pedestal of her life plans, are still considered promising by a significant part of young people. The professions of “scientist,” “researcher,” and “engineer” are beyond the professional guidelines of Russian high school students. All life goals and meanings, motives of interests, and actions of modern Russian youth are built around the universal equivalent—“money.” The vast majority of them firmly believe in the idea of enrichment at any cost. Through the optics of this “market” model of life, a person who spends enormous intellectual efforts to acquire a degree in order to then live on a miserable salary is perceived as nothing but a madman (there are also more adaptive terms: “sucker,” “loser,” “outsider,” etc.).

These are, in brief, the reasons that led to a radical decline in the intellectual and professional level of the indigenous population of modern Russia. This level is still quite sufficient to ensure the functioning of a raw material colony with a backward technological structure, the production of first-stage products (at best), an exorbitant level of social and regional inequality, and a degrading culture. But it is completely unacceptable for a country claiming to be a self-sufficient political entity.

5. The reasons for the shortage of personnel

From the above, it clearly follows that the personnel crisis that modern Russia is experiencing is not an accidental phenomenon: it was laid down and implemented by the entire logic of “democratic” “development.” It only escalated in 2022 in connection with the military actions in Ukraine and the complex system of restrictive sanctions that followed them. It was then that it became clear that the high-tech industry and the corresponding education system are an absolutely necessary condition for the full functioning of the country as a political entity. At the same time, it turned

out that the engineering and technical personnel resource that “democratic” Russia inherited from the USSR and which ensured the tolerable functioning of those few (mainly raw materials) industries that survived deindustrialization was inefficiently squandered and exhausted itself. Those few engineering, technical, and scientific personnel who are trained by the Russian education system are neither able in quantity nor in quality to solve the whole set of problems that have arisen.

The conclusion is as follows.

Both the low unemployment rate and the problem of a shortage of qualified personnel have, oddly enough, common causes:

- Rapid extinction of the indigenous population (depopulation);
- Significant losses of human resources due to emergencies (COVID-19; outflow of hundreds of thousands of men to their homes; refugee flow due to partial mobilization in September 2022; general deterioration of the economic situation, etc.);
- Increasing emigration of the able-bodied population.

It was the simultaneous overlap of these flows that led to the formation of a rather rapidly expanding personnel “hole.” In order to rectify the situation, it is obviously necessary to “redirect” these flows. However, it is also obvious that in order to do this, it is necessary to change the model of the country’s way of life, the entire system of basic values and guidelines, according to which people build their life “trajectories.” This is how it looks in relation to the first stream.

6. About the causes of depopulation

In the “market” world, where money is the measure and evaluation criterion of everything, there is and cannot be stability, there are no prospects and confidence in the possibility of a better future. Sharing the values of this world, a person, no matter how much money he possesses, is forced to join a mad race for an even larger amount, and face the same madmen as him with the remnants of his mind poisoned by greed and hatred of competitors. In this world, it is easier to make money through deception, speculation, and theft than to get it through honest productive labor. This is exactly the kind of world that has been forming in modern Russia for the fourth decade. However, for the vast majority of the population, it remains alien, as it is incompatible with traditional values and moral attitudes. Most people cannot “fit into” this world, they do not see any life goals or prospects in it. According to the conditions and criteria of this world, the birth of one child puts a young family in the category of poor, giving birth to a second child, this family is guaranteed to fall into poverty. Therefore, the birth of a child looks in a certain sense like a kind of protest against the rules and conditions of this world.

Russian government officials tirelessly develop various programs to stimulate the birth rate. Great propaganda hopes in this regard are pinned on the so-called “maternity capital” (MC). It is considered as the main financial incentive. Numerous reports and analytical documents for the general public consistently indicate the effectiveness of this particular measure.

Figure 2 shows the relationship between the size of maternity capital and the total fertility rate (TFR). A solid line (with dots) shows the annual change in the

amount of maternity capital (thousand rubles). The rectangles of the histogram located below give an idea of the value of the total fertility rate also by year. At the beginning (since 2007), an increase in the value of the MC and a slight increase in the TFR from 1.6 to 1.78 were visible. Then, from 2012 to 2016, it is clear that the size of the MC continues to grow, and the value of the TFR remains at one (rather high) level—1.9, forming a kind of “plateau.” This gave rise to court demographers and not-very-demanding media workers organizing a propaganda campaign about the amazing effectiveness of maternity capital. It was presented as a great success in overcoming the demographic problem.

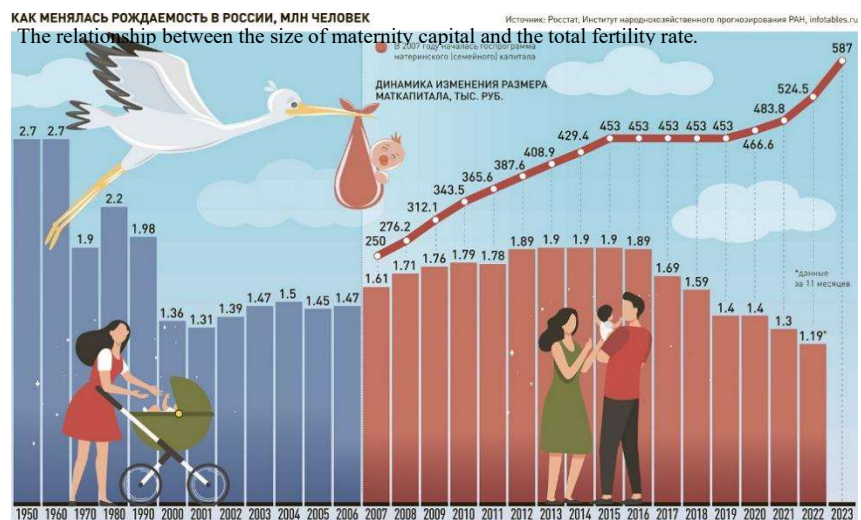


Figure 2. The relationship between the size of maternity capital and the total fertility rate.

Source: Rosstat. Institute of National Economic Forecasting.

In fact, the “surge” in the birth rate in 2012–2016 is the result of a truly unprecedented set of measures to stimulate the birth rate, which was implemented in the early 1980s by the Soviet government. The task was to dampen the second post-war demographic “pit,” which was supposed to happen in the mid-1980s (the first “pit” was in the mid-1960s). The task was successfully solved: instead of a “pit” on the population graph, a kind of “hump” turned out, and the total fertility rate exceeded 2.2 due to an increase in second and third births. A large generation of girls born in the mid-1980s, thanks to this set of measures, became the “culprit” of the origin of this “plateau.” It was they who, having reached the age of 25–28 (this is the average age of the birth of the first child in modern Russia), gave birth to their firstborn.

Thus, maternity capital has nothing to do with the slight increase in the birth rate in 2012–2016. This is confirmed by the further development (since 2017) of the processes under consideration (**Figure 2**): maternity capital continues to grow quite intensively, and the total fertility rate (approximately as intensively) decreases. Of course, there is no hard negative correlation between these processes. It just means that MK does not have the slightest effect on fertility at all. Judging by the results, it can be concluded that all other measures to stimulate fertility developed by the Russian government work about the same “effectively.” Apparently, their main purpose is to imitate the “violent activity” allegedly aimed at overcoming the demographic catastrophe, and “cover-up” with it the real task being solved—the replacement of the

indigenous population by peoples of completely different ethnic groups. As you can see, redirecting the first of the above-mentioned flows, while remaining within the framework of the existing socio-political system, is an occupation from the field of fiction.

7. Possible ways to overcome the personnel shortage

If we analyze the causes of the second and third flows, we can make sure that they, for the most part, are the result of certain actions of the authorities. Therefore, there is no reason to expect radical (and such radical changes are needed) in the direction of the actions of the Russian government. At the same time, as noted, the urgency of the problem of shortage of qualified personnel will only worsen. Already now (by the end of 2023), according to N. Akhapkin, there are 4.8 million workers missing in Russia (Akhapkin, 2023). In this situation, you have to act in the “fried rooster” regime. There are a few options.

- 1) The traditional import of specialists from abroad. But we are no longer talking about the usual migrant workers but about highly qualified specialists. The limitations of this way of solving the problem are quite obvious. First of all, it is connected with the need to increase the wage rates not only for foreigners, but also for domestic specialists. Such experience is already available in Russian airlines, which faced a shortage of pilots and technical personnel after the “optimization” (reduction) of flight schools in the 2010s. In addition, the area of effective use of this area is limited mainly to operational industries where technological processes have already been debugged and their maintenance is required. In industries where the design, development and implementation of new high-tech technological solutions, the development and implementation of the latest technologies are necessary (namely, in this area, the most acute personnel “hunger” is felt), the possibilities of this method are very modest. Firstly, because here, in addition to certain qualifications, a specialist must also have high creative potential (not “creativity”), and the ability to make original engineering decisions. There are few such specialists, and luring some of them to Russia for a long time (there is no point in a short one) is not an easy task. Secondly, it is quite risky for reasons of state security, especially in the military-industrial complex sectors. As you can see, this method is really not promising.
- 2) Training of specialists with the necessary qualifications on the basis of the national education system. However, with all the evidence of this direction, it is not worth expecting an acceptable solution to the personnel problem on this basis in the near foreseeable future.

The fact is that the current Russian education system as a whole does not provide students with fundamental theoretical knowledge, does not motivate young people to work productively, and does not develop independent thinking skills: This is how the educational process is structured, and the content of educational programs is set up. None of this is necessary for a “qualified consumer.” In addition, it is 80% focused on training people who, in principle, are not able to function in the productive sphere. These are all the same lawyers, financiers, economists, managers, journalists, marketers, designers, crisis managers, targetologists, and other “creative” workers.

And no advanced training courses, no retraining programs, are ever, under any circumstances, capable of “reforging” any, for example, lawyer (anyone from the list can be substituted here) into a more or less ordinary engineer. The remaining 20% includes doctors, agronomists, geologists, programmers, and many other professions not directly related to the productive sphere. This means, firstly, that it is unrealistic to reorient some part of the huge number of available socio-humanitarian specialists to work in the productive sphere and thus reduce the severity of the shortage of personnel; and, secondly, the modern Russian education system trains extremely few specialists in engineering and technical profile, completely insufficient to solve the problems before the country of tasks.

Seeing no other opportunities, the heads of many (40%) enterprises are still trying to overcome the situation by “reaching out” to applicants close in profile to the necessary qualifications with the help of a mentoring institute, organizing educational structures, or simply luring the right specialists from competitors, offering them higher wages (Institute of Economic Policy named after Gaidar (IEP), 2023). In the most desperate situations, some employers are ready to employ convicts (Travkin, 2024). It is clear that it is impossible to radically solve the problem of scarcity in such ways.

8. Conclusion

For all its apparent triviality, the general conclusion is as follows.

The problem of shortage of personnel in the production sector did not arise today. It was laid down immediately after the onset of “democracy.” Over the past three decades, the old staff has left, but the new ones have not been prepared in the right quantity and quality. In addition, effective mechanisms have been created to stimulate the growing flow of emigration from the country of “brains” and “golden hands.” As a result, a huge personnel “hole” has been formed, which cannot be closed with palliative half measures. Comprehensive work is needed across the country. The main direction is a radical reorientation of the entire Russian education system, starting from kindergarten, school, etc. It is also necessary to reformat the public consciousness, especially the mass consciousness of young people. This process is certainly lengthy, associated with many objective obstacles and (much worse) subjective counteractions. However, the most important thing is that it requires the adoption of a principled non-trivial political decision at the highest level. Only under this condition can we hope for ultimate strategic success.

Will this decision be made?

Conflict of interest: The author declares no conflict of interest.

References

- Akhapkin, N. (2023). Available online: <https://www.rbc.ru/society/24/12/2023/65875bb99a7947bca518dbe2?from=copy>. (accessed on 25 August 2024).
- Babichev, S. A. (2023). How many left Russia in 2022! Migration statistics. Available online: <https://cont.ws/@VitimBabi4ev/2501593> / (accessed on 25 August 2024).
- Evseeva, E. (2022). After the start of mobilization, about 700 thousand people left Russia // *Forbs*, (accessed on 25 August 2024).
- Federal State Statistics Service. (2023). Available online: <https://rosstat.gov.ru/statistics/science> (accessed on 25 August 2024).
- Gorshkov, M. K. (2020). Russian Society in a sociological dimension. *Herald of the Russian Academy of Sciences*, 90(2), 149–

157. <https://doi.org/10.1134/s1019331620020021>
- Institute of Economic Policy named after Gaidar (IEP). (2023). Personnel hunger and wage growth: how the labor market has changed and what awaits it. Available online: <https://www.rbc.ru/economics/05/01/2024/6589738d9a794798dc106898> (accessed on 25 August 2024).
- Izotova, G. S. (2020). The level of funding for Russian science is insufficient to ensure a technological breakthrough Available online: <https://ach.gov.ru/checks/9658> (accessed on 25 August 2024).
- Kommersant. (2024). Available online: <https://lenta.ru/news/2024/02/02/max/> (accessed on 25 August 2024).
- Merchant. (2022). Available online: <https://www.kommersant.ru/doc/539670> (accessed on 25 August 2024).
- Ministry of Education of the Russian Federation. (2024). Available online: <https://dzen.ru/a/Zct-rup0yg8-5dEt/> (accessed on 25 August 2024).
- Pavlova, V. (2022). How many unemployed will Western fugitive companies leave behind. Available online: <https://newizv.ru/news/2022-03-16/skolko-bezrobotnyh-ostavyat-posle-sebya-zapadnye-kompanii-begletsy-351980> (accessed on 25 August 2024).
- Polyushkova, A. (2020). Is functional illiteracy a scourge of the XXI century? Available online: <https://russiancouncil.ru/analytics-and-comments/analytics/funktsionalnaya-negramotnost-bich-xxi-veka/> (accessed on 25 August 2024).
- Sakhnin, A. (2022). Leakage of men: how mobilization will change demographics and the labor market. Available online: <https://moskvichmag.ru/lyudi/utechka-muzhchin-kak-mobilizatsiya-izmenit-demografiyu-i-rynok-truda/> (accessed on 25 August 2024).
- Samsonov, A. (2023). From demographic to migration catastrophe. They propose to populate Russia with Africans. Available online: <https://topwar.ru/222065-ot-demograficheskoy-k-migracionnoj-katastrofe-rossiju-predlagaju-naselit-afrikancami.html?ysclid=lshtlrhnoa741792152> (accessed on 25 August 2024).
- Shirmanova, I., Kokourova, A. (2022). Available online: <https://tochno.st/materials/za-poslednie-20-let-iz-rossii-uekhali-do-5-mln-chelovek-chto-issledovaniya-govoryat-o-novoy-volne-emigratsii> (accessed on 25 August 2024).
- Sokologorskaya, D. (2016). New Sharikovs: a generation of functionally illiterate. Available online: <https://chips-journal.ru/reviews/novye-sarikovy-pokolenie-funkcional-no-bezgramotnyh?ysclid=ltn81upf4q313488498>. (accessed on 25 August 2024).
- Sokolova, V. (2023). The highest paid professions in Russia. Available online: <https://dzen.ru/a/ZOVGD6ad0lbYEpn> (accessed on 25 August 2024).
- The Federal Tax Service (FTS) of Russia. (2023). Available online: https://sfr.gov.ru/press_center/z_news~2023/11/28/257546 (accessed on 25 August 2024).
- Toshchenko, J. T. (2022). From precarious employment to precarization of life. The Whole World.
- Travkin P. (2024). Features of recruitment in 2024. Available online: <https://www.audit-it.ru/articles/personnel/a111/1095591.html> (accessed on 25 August 2024).
- Vetrova, E. (2016). New illiterates: education has nothing to do with it. Available online: <https://www.liveinternet.ru/users/marina94/post397623394/> (accessed on 25 August 2024).
- Yasyukova, L. (2016). Less than 20% of people have full-fledged conceptual thinking Available online: <https://marss2.livejournal.com/2075279.html> (accessed on 25 August 2024).

Article

Evaluating the effectiveness of human resources practices on teaching and learning outcomes in primary education

Ifeoma Chinyere Umeji

Department of Primary Education, School of Early Childhood Care and Primary Education, Nwafor Orizu College of Education Nsugbe, Nsugbe 432108, Anambra State, Nigeria; ifeoma.umeji2020@gmail.com

CITATION

Umeji IC. (2024). Evaluating the effectiveness of human resources practices on teaching and learning outcomes in primary education. *Human Resources Management and Services*. 6(3): 3490.
<https://doi.org/10.18282/hrms.v6i3.3490>

ARTICLE INFO

Received: 11 May 2024
Accepted: 28 August 2024
Available online: 11 September 2024

COPYRIGHT



Copyright © 2024 by author(s).
Human Resources Management and Services is published by PiscoMed Publishing Pte. Ltd. This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license.
<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>

Abstract: This study evaluates the effectiveness of human resources (HR) practices on teaching and learning outcomes in primary education. The research was guided by four research questions and two research hypotheses. The study utilized a survey design via Google Forms for efficient data collection on human resources practices' effectiveness in primary education. The questionnaire, validated by experts, garnered 60 responses within a month. Data analysis in Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) included descriptive statistics and analysis of variance (ANOVA) techniques, adhering to ethical standards. The findings highlight the importance of HR practices that accommodate diversity, support inclusivity, and foster a sense of belonging for all students. Challenges in implementing inclusive HR practices are also identified, emphasizing the need for ongoing efforts to promote inclusivity and equity in primary education. The study concludes by advocating for the development and implementation of effective HR strategies to enhance teaching and learning outcomes in primary education.

Keywords: effectiveness; human resources practices; teaching; learning outcomes; primary education

1. Introduction

Human resources practices play a crucial role in shaping the quality of education and learning outcomes in primary education. Human resources practices in schools encompass recruitment, hiring, training, and managing staff to foster a conducive educational environment (Al-Daboub et al., 2024). These practices ensure compliance with regulations, promote diversity, and address employee needs. Recruitment involves sourcing candidates, screening, and selecting the best fit for positions. Once hired, training programs enhance skills and align educators with school objectives. Efficient management involves performance evaluations, conflict resolution, and fostering a positive work culture. Human resources also manage benefits, payroll, and employee relations, striving to create an environment that supports both staff and student success while upholding educational standards and institutional values (Shilling, 2023).

Therefore, effective human resource management encompasses various strategies and initiatives aimed at recruiting, developing, motivating, and retaining qualified teachers, which in turn, can positively impact teaching quality and student achievement. Effective recruitment and selection practices are fundamental in ensuring that primary schools attract and retain high-quality teachers. Studies by Alajlani and Yesufu (2022) emphasized the importance of transparent and merit-based recruitment processes to ensure that qualified candidates are selected. Additionally,

strategies such as targeted recruitment campaigns, partnerships with teacher training institutions, and comprehensive screening procedures contribute to the recruitment of competent educators (Gomes et al., 2023).

Investing in teacher training and continuous professional development (CPD) programs is essential for enhancing teaching effectiveness and student learning outcomes. Research by Cesário et al. (2022) highlighted the positive impact of CPD initiatives on teacher motivation, instructional practices, and student engagement. Providing opportunities for ongoing training, workshops, and mentorship programs enables teachers to acquire new skills, stay updated with educational trends, and improve classroom practices (Uy et al., 2024). Implementing robust performance evaluation systems and providing constructive feedback to teachers are critical aspects of effective human resources practices in education. Studies by Eiamsa-Ard et al. (2014) emphasized the importance of regular performance assessments based on clear criteria and standards. Feedback mechanisms, including peer evaluations, self-assessment tools, and feedback from students and parents, facilitate continuous improvement and accountability among educators (Dolati et al., 2015).

Incentives and recognition programs are valuable tools for motivating and retaining talented teachers in primary education. Research by Mintrop et al. (2018) demonstrated that financial incentives, awards for exemplary teaching practices, and career advancement opportunities positively influence teacher morale and job satisfaction. Recognizing teachers' contributions and achievements fosters a culture of excellence and dedication within schools (Saddique and Raja, 2022). Creating collaborative learning communities within schools promotes professional growth, knowledge sharing, and collaboration among teachers. Studies by Candrasari et al. (2023) emphasized the benefits of collaborative planning sessions, professional learning communities (PLCs), and collaborative inquiry projects. Collaborative environments provide opportunities for teachers to exchange ideas, share best practices, and collaborate on instructional strategies that enhance student learning outcomes.

The effectiveness of human resources practices on teaching and learning outcomes in primary education represents a critical yet underexplored area of research. Despite the acknowledged importance of quality teaching and learning experiences in primary schools, there remains a significant gap in understanding how human resources practices impact these outcomes. One conspicuous problem lies in the lack of comprehensive studies that specifically investigate the relationship between HR practices and educational effectiveness within the primary education context. Existing research often focuses on broader educational settings or secondary and tertiary levels, failing to address the unique challenges and nuances present in primary education (Batista et al., 2022; Faizuddin et al., 2022). Furthermore, while there is recognition of the pivotal role of teachers in shaping student outcomes, there is limited empirical evidence regarding the specific HR practices that contribute to teacher effectiveness and subsequently impact student learning. This gap in knowledge inhibits the development of targeted strategies and policies aimed at optimizing HR practices to enhance teaching quality and student achievement in primary schools.

Additionally, variations in HR practices across different primary schools, regions, and socio-economic contexts exacerbate the complexity of the issue.

Understanding these variations and their implications for teaching and learning outcomes is essential for informing evidence-based interventions and fostering educational equity. Therefore, this study aims to address these gaps by systematically examining the effectiveness of HR practices on teaching quality and learning outcomes in primary education, thereby contributing to the advancement of educational research and policy development.

1.1. Research questions

- 1) How does professional development influence the pedagogical skills of primary school teachers?
- 2) How do teacher retention initiatives impact teaching and learning outcomes in primary education?
- 3) What is the effectiveness of mentoring for new teachers in improving classroom management?
- 4) How well-aligned are HR policies with diverse student needs for inclusive education?

1.2. Research hypotheses

- 1) There is no significant difference in the influence of professional development on the pedagogical skills of male and female primary school teachers.
- 2) There is no significant difference in the effectiveness of mentoring as perceived by male and female teachers in improving classroom management.

2. Methodology

The study was conducted across Anambra State, employing a survey design facilitated through Google Forms. This digital approach streamlined data collection, offering an efficient means to address the research question. The questionnaire, distributed digitally, solicited respondents' opinions on the effectiveness of human resources practices in primary education. Furthermore, it provided space for brief suggestions to enhance teacher quality practices. Utilizing a 4-point Likert scale, respondents rated their agreement levels, ranging from strongly agree (4) to strongly disagree (1). Prior to distribution, the questionnaire underwent rigorous validation by experts from relevant departments, ensuring clarity, suitability, and relevance. Their insights were incorporated into the final instrument. Upon receiving 60 responses within a month, data was extracted from Google Forms and meticulously cleaned to address inconsistencies. Subsequent analysis in SPSS focused on exploring correlations, trends, and associations across various facets of teaching, learning, and human resources policies, illuminating insights critical for educational improvement. Additionally, the data analysis also involved analysis of variance (ANOVA) techniques. This statistical method was applied to test the study's hypotheses. Throughout the research process, ethical considerations were strictly adhered to. Participants were informed about the study's purpose and assured of their anonymity and confidentiality.

3. Results

This section provides a comprehensive overview of the study population's demographic characteristics, including gender distribution and age range.

3.1. Demographics

Table 1 illustrates the gender distribution and age range of respondents. Among the 60 participants, 83.3% were female and 16.7% were male. In terms of age, the majority fell within the range of 23–32 years, comprising 58.3% of respondents. Specifically, 28.3% were aged 23–27 years, and 30% were aged 28–32 years. Those aged 33–43 years represented 28.3%, while respondents aged 43–65 years made up 13.3% collectively. Notably, the age group of 19–22 years accounted for only 3.3% of respondents. This distribution reflects a predominantly female and relatively young sample, with significant representation in the late twenties to early thirties.

Table 1. Gender profile and age range of the respondents (Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024).

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Age	19–22years	2	3.3	3.3	3.3
	23–27 years	17	28.3	28.3	31.7
	28–32 years	18	30.0	30.0	61.7
	33–43 years	17	28.3	28.3	90.0
	43–53 years	3	5.0	5.0	95.0
	54–65 years	3	5.0	5.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	-
Gender	Male	10	16.7	16.7	16.7
	Female	50	83.3	83.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	-

3.2. Descriptive statistics

Research question one: How does professional development influence the pedagogical skills of primary school teachers?

Table 2 showcases the impact of various professional development avenues on primary school teachers' pedagogical skills. Ongoing professional development significantly enhances instructional strategies (Mean = 2.97), while workshops and seminars refine classroom management (Mean = 2.80). Updated training sessions strengthen subject knowledge proficiency (Mean = 2.83), and exposure to new technologies enriches interactive learning experiences (Mean = 2.83). Specialized training enables teachers to address diverse student needs, though comparatively less impactful (Mean = 2.50).

Table 2. Professional development influence on the pedagogical skills of primary school teachers (Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024).

				Bootstrap ^a			
		Statistic	Std. error	Bias	Std. error	95% confidence interval	
						Lower	Upper
Ongoing professional development enhances teachers' instructional strategies effectively.	N	60		0	0	60	60
	Mean	2.97		−0.01	0.13	2.71	3.29
	Std. Deviation	1.008		−0.009	0.014	0.946	1.008
	Variance	1.016		−0.017	0.028	0.894	1.017
	Skewness	0.068	0.309	0.023	0.271	−0.620	0.631
	Kurtosis	−2.065	0.608	0.078	0.133	−2.070	−1.472
Workshops and seminars refine educators' classroom management techniques.	N	60		0	0	60	60
	Mean	2.80		0.00	0.13	2.47	3.01
	Std. Deviation	0.988		−0.009	0.036	0.853	1.008
	Variance	0.976		−0.016	0.067	0.728	1.017
	Skewness	0.419	0.309	0.006	0.306	−0.028	1.294
	Kurtosis	−1.889	0.608	0.100	0.382	−2.070	−0.339
Updated training sessions strengthen teachers' subject knowledge proficiency.	N	60		0	0	60	60
	Mean	2.83		0.00	0.12	2.55	3.08
	Std. Deviation	0.994		−0.008	0.027	0.895	1.008
	Variance	0.989		−0.015	0.051	0.803	1.017
	Skewness	0.347	0.309	0.014	0.267	−0.165	1.056
	Kurtosis	−1.946	0.608	0.083	0.282	−2.070	−0.876
Exposure to new technologies enriches interactive learning experiences.	N	60		0	0	60	60
	Mean	2.83		0.00	0.13	2.57	3.11
	Std. Deviation	0.994		−0.009	0.023	0.911	1.008
	Variance	0.989		−0.018	0.044	0.830	1.017
	Skewness	0.347	0.309	0.018	0.281	−0.234	0.971
	Kurtosis	−1.946	0.608	0.094	0.226	−2.070	−1.086
Specialized training equips teachers to address diverse student needs.	N	60		0	0	60	60
	Mean	2.50		−0.01	0.10	2.25	2.68
	Std. Deviation	0.873		−0.013	0.069	0.654	0.955
	Variance	0.763		−0.019	0.112	0.435	0.913
	Skewness	1.185	0.309	0.069	0.397	0.693	2.449
	Kurtosis	−.619	0.608	0.334	1.371	−1.572	4.424

a. Unless otherwise noted, bootstrap results are based on 60 bootstrap samples.

Research question two: How do teacher retention initiatives impact teaching and learning outcomes in primary education?

Table 3 shows that teacher retention initiatives significantly impact primary education outcomes. Stable teaching environments, indicated by a mean of 2.33, foster continuity and community (Skewness = 1.835). Reduced turnover, with a mean of 2.60, minimizes disruptions to student learning experiences (Kurtosis = −1.241). Long-term teacher relationships, mean of 2.97, enhance student engagement and

rapport (Kurtosis = -2.065). Continuity supports implementing lasting instructional strategies (Mean = 2.77), promoting stability and effectiveness (Skewness = 0.492).

Table 3. How teacher retention initiatives impact teaching and learning outcomes in primary education (Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024).

				Bootstrap ^a			
		Statistic	Std. error	Bias	Std. error	95% confidence interval	
						Lower	Upper
Effective retention programs foster a stable teaching environment.	<i>N</i>	60		0	0	60	60
	Mean	2.33		0.01	0.09	2.14	2.53
	Std. Deviation	0.752		−0.004	0.084	0.510	0.892
	Variance	0.565		0.002	0.120	0.263	0.795
	Skewness	1.835	0.309	0.047	0.527	1.083	3.555
	Kurtosis	1.413	0.608	0.461	2.601	−0.858	11.332
Reduced turnover minimizes disruptions to students’ learning experiences.	<i>N</i>	60		0	0	60	60
	Mean	2.60		0.01	0.11	2.37	2.81
	Std. Deviation	0.924		−0.005	0.051	0.780	0.991
	Variance	0.854		−0.007	0.091	0.609	0.981
	Skewness	0.895	0.309	0.007	0.303	0.390	1.679
	Kurtosis	−1.241	0.608	0.107	0.638	−1.912	0.846
Long-term teacher relationships contribute to student engagement and rapport.	<i>N</i>	60		0	0	60	60
	Mean	2.97		0.00	0.15	2.68	3.23
	Std. Deviation	1.008		−0.011	0.014	0.953	1.008
	Variance	1.016		−0.021	0.028	0.908	1.017
	Skewness	0.068	0.309	−0.002	0.308	−0.492	0.700
	Kurtosis	−2.065	0.608	0.096	0.137	−2.070	−1.536
Teacher continuity supports the implementation of long-term instructional strategies.	<i>N</i>	60		0	0	60	60
	Mean	2.77		−0.02	0.12	2.53	2.95
	Std. Deviation	0.981		−0.013	0.033	0.892	1.007
	Variance	0.962		−0.025	0.064	0.795	1.014
	Skewness	0.492	0.309	0.061	0.279	0.109	1.083
	Kurtosis	−1.819	0.608	0.146	0.341	−2.057	−0.858
Stable teaching staff fosters a sense of community and belonging.	<i>N</i>	60		0	0	60	60
	Mean	2.37		0.02	0.11	2.19	2.58
	Std. Deviation	0.780		0.001	0.087	0.586	0.915
	Variance	0.609		0.009	0.133	0.344	0.837
	Skewness	1.679	0.309	0.008	0.491	0.950	2.880
	Kurtosis	0.846	0.608	0.274	1.884	−1.135	6.543

a. Unless otherwise noted, bootstrap results are based on 60 bootstrap samples.

Research question three: What is the effectiveness of mentoring for new teachers in improving classroom management?

Mentoring significantly improves classroom management for new teachers. It offers guidance in navigating challenges (Mean = 2.93) and facilitates personalized

techniques (Mean = 3.04), fostering a supportive environment (Mean = 3.11). Ongoing mentorship promptly addresses emerging issues (Mean = 2.50), aiding in skill refinement. Mentorship cultivates a positive learning atmosphere (Mean = 3.25), enhancing the overall classroom experience. These findings underscore the importance of mentoring in equipping new teachers with the skills and support necessary for effective classroom management and conducive learning environments (**Table 4**).

Table 4. Effectiveness of mentoring for new teachers in improving classroom management (Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024).

				Bootstrap ^a			
				Bias	Std. error	95% confidence interval	
Statistic						Lower	Upper
Mentoring offers guidance for navigating classroom management challenges.	Mean	2.93		−0.01	0.13	2.69	3.22
	Std. Deviation	1.006		−0.009	0.015	0.957	1.009
	Variance	1.013		−0.018	0.030	0.916	1.018
	Skewness	0.147	0.319	0.015	0.282	−0.470	0.683
	Kurtosis	−2.053	0.628	0.086	0.140	−2.075	−1.584
Inclusive HR policies prioritize equitable access to educational opportunities.	Mean	3.04		0.02	0.13	2.84	3.37
	Std. Deviation	1.008		−0.010	0.019	0.929	1.009
	Variance	1.017		−0.019	0.037	0.866	1.018
	Skewness	−0.073	0.319	−0.037	0.290	−0.845	0.328
	Kurtosis	−2.070	0.628	0.093	0.203	−2.075	−1.253
Mentoring fosters a supportive environment for refining classroom management skills.	Mean	3.11		−0.02	0.14	2.81	3.39
	Std. Deviation	1.003		−0.008	0.019	0.930	1.009
	Variance	1.006		−0.015	0.036	0.865	1.018
	Skewness	−0.222	0.319	0.030	0.295	−0.862	0.405
	Kurtosis	−2.025	0.628	0.076	0.180	−2.075	−1.295
Ongoing mentorship addresses emerging classroom management issues promptly.	Mean	2.50		0.00	0.10	2.29	2.71
	Std. Deviation	0.874		−0.010	0.063	0.711	0.967
	Variance	0.764		−0.013	0.105	0.507	0.935
	Skewness	1.187	0.319	0.045	0.347	0.613	2.074
	Kurtosis	−0.615	0.628	0.236	0.989	−1.686	2.430
Mentoring cultivates a positive and conducive learning atmosphere.	Mean	3.25		0.03	0.15	2.95	3.65
	Std. Deviation	0.977		−0.020	0.053	0.763	1.008
	Variance	0.955		−0.037	0.095	0.585	1.017
	Skewness	−0.531	0.319	−0.091	0.382	−1.784	0.103
	Kurtosis	−1.783	0.628	0.257	0.707	−2.070	1.294

a. Unless otherwise noted, bootstrap results are based on 60 bootstrap samples.

Research question four: How well-aligned are HR policies with diverse student needs for inclusive education?

Table 5 illustrates the alignment of human resources (HR) policies with the diverse needs of students for inclusive education. HR policies effectively adapt to

accommodate diverse student populations, with a mean score of 2.50. Inclusive HR policies prioritize equitable access to educational opportunities, reflected in a mean score of 2.40. HR initiatives support the integration of inclusive practices in education, with a mean score of 3.40, and regular reviews ensure these policies evolve to address changing student needs, with a mean score of 3.20. Inclusive HR practices foster a sense of belonging for all students, scoring an average of 3.30.

Table 5. Alignment of HR policies with diverse student needs for inclusive education (Source: Author’s fieldwork, 2024).

				Bootstrap ^a			
		Statistic	Std. error	Bias	Std. error	95% confidence interval	
						Lower	Upper
HR policies adapt to accommodate diverse student populations effectively.	N	60		0	0	60	60
	Mean	2.50		0.00	0.10	2.32	2.70
	Std. Deviation	0.873		−0.008	0.061	0.739	0.962
	Variance	0.763		−0.010	0.105	0.546	0.925
	Skewness	1.185	0.309	0.033	0.340	0.645	1.906
	Kurtosis	−0.619	0.608	0.200	0.893	−1.640	1.697
Inclusive HR policies prioritize equitable access to educational opportunities.	N	60		0	0	60	60
	Mean	2.40		0.01	0.09	2.23	2.64
	Std. Deviation	0.807		−0.003	0.069	0.647	0.940
	Variance	0.651		−0.001	0.109	0.419	0.883
	Skewness	1.539	0.309	0.021	0.380	0.794	2.450
	Kurtosis	0.379	0.608	0.214	1.300	−1.402	4.139
HR initiatives support the integration of inclusive practices in education.	N	60		0	0	60	60
	Mean	3.40		0.00	0.13	3.15	3.60
	Std. Deviation	0.924		−0.012	0.055	0.807	0.995
	Variance	0.854		−0.020	0.100	0.651	0.991
	Skewness	−0.895	0.309	−0.044	0.341	−1.539	−0.305
	Kurtosis	−1.241	0.608	0.201	0.670	−1.954	0.379
Regular reviews ensure HR policies address evolving student needs.	N	60		0	0	60	60
	Mean	3.20		0.01	0.14	2.91	3.48
	Std. Deviation	0.988		−0.013	0.033	0.884	1.008
	Variance	0.976		−0.024	0.062	0.782	1.017
	Skewness	−0.419	0.309	−0.037	0.319	−1.124	0.199
	Kurtosis	−1.889	0.608	0.137	0.332	−2.070	−0.761
Inclusive HR practices foster a sense of belonging for all.	N	60		0	0	60	60
	Mean	3.30		0.01	0.14	2.99	3.61
	Std. Deviation	0.962		−0.016	0.051	0.799	1.007
	Variance	0.925		−0.027	0.094	0.640	1.014
	Skewness	−0.645	0.309	−0.056	0.356	−1.583	0.015
	Kurtosis	−1.640	0.608	0.207	0.622	−2.057	0.565

a. Unless otherwise noted, bootstrap results are based on 60 bootstrap samples.

3.3. Hypotheses testing

Hypothesis one: There is no significant difference in the influence of professional development on the pedagogical skills of male and female primary school teachers.

Table 6 presents the results of an analysis of variance (ANOVA) testing the difference in the influence of professional development on the pedagogical skills of male and female primary school teachers. The F -value (F) obtained from the test is 0.844, with a corresponding significance level (Sig.) of 0.525. In ANOVA, a significant result ($p < 0.05$) indicates that there is a difference between the groups being compared. In this case, since the significance level (0.525) is greater than 0.05, we fail to reject the null hypothesis. Therefore, there is insufficient evidence to conclude that there is a statistically significant difference in the influence of professional development on the pedagogical skills of male and female primary school teachers.

Table 6. ANOVA on the difference in the influence of professional development on the pedagogical skills of male and female primary school teachers (Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024).

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	35.341	5	7.068	0.844	0.525
Within groups	452.392	54	8.378		
Total	487.733	59			

Hypothesis two: There is no significant difference in the effectiveness of mentoring as perceived by male and female teachers in improving classroom management.

Table 7 presents the results of an ANOVA examining the difference in the perceived effectiveness of mentoring for improving classroom management between male and female teachers. The F -value obtained from the test is 2.736, with a corresponding significance level (Sig.) of 0.028. Since the significance level (0.028) is less than the conventional threshold of 0.05, we reject the null hypothesis. Therefore, there is evidence to suggest that there is a statistically significant difference in the perceived effectiveness of mentoring for improving classroom management between male and female teachers.

Table 7. ANOVA on the difference in the effectiveness of mentoring as perceived by male and female teachers in improving classroom management (Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024).

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	89.724	5	17.945	2.736	0.028
Within groups	354.209	54	6.559		
Total	443.933	59			

4. Discussion of results

Research question one focused on how professional development influences the

pedagogical skills of primary school teachers. The result indicates that ongoing professional development enhances instructional strategies, while workshops and seminars refine classroom management techniques. This finding aligns with research indicating that updated training sessions strengthen teachers' subject knowledge proficiency (Copriady et al., 2021). Furthermore, exposure to new technologies enriches interactive learning experiences, improving teachers' ability to engage students effectively. In contrast, specialized training specifically equips teachers to address diverse student needs, enhancing inclusivity and support within the classroom (Haniko et al., 2024). Overall, these diverse avenues of professional development collectively contribute to the continuous improvement of pedagogical skills among primary school teachers, ensuring they remain effective and adaptable educators in today's dynamic educational landscape.

Research question two covered how teacher retention initiatives impact teaching and learning outcomes in primary education. The findings showed that reduced turnover in teaching staff significantly minimizes disruptions to students' learning experiences. This finding is supported by research indicating that maintaining a stable teaching staff is crucial for ensuring consistent learning environments and minimizing the negative impacts of staff turnover on student achievement (Hughes, 2014). In contrast, long-term teacher relationships play a vital role in fostering student engagement and rapport. Studies have shown that when teachers build strong and lasting relationships with their students, it leads to increased student motivation, participation, and academic success (Boonk et al., 2018). Moreover, teacher continuity supports the implementation of long-term instructional strategies. Research has found that when teachers remain in their positions for extended periods, they have more opportunities to refine and adapt their teaching methods to meet the evolving needs of their students. This finding is in line with previous studies that emphasize the importance of consistency and continuity in teaching for effective educational outcomes (Ko and Boswell, 2013). In a related study, Nistor et al. (2015) found that stable teaching staff fosters a sense of community and belonging within schools, which positively impacts student behavior and overall school climate.

Research question three examined the effectiveness of mentoring for new teachers in improving classroom management. It was seen that mentoring plays a pivotal role in enhancing classroom management skills among teachers. It offers guidance for navigating challenges associated with classroom management, providing novice teachers with valuable support and expertise. In a related study, Arslan et al. (2022) found that mentorship facilitates the implementation of personalized classroom management techniques, allowing teachers to tailor their approaches to meet the unique needs of their students. Furthermore, mentoring fosters a supportive environment for refining classroom management skills. This finding is corroborated by Whitlock (2024), who observed that ongoing mentorship addresses emerging classroom management issues promptly, enabling teachers to adapt and respond effectively to evolving classroom dynamics. In contrast, Kutsyuruba and Godden (2019) found that mentoring cultivates a positive and conducive learning atmosphere, contributing to improved student behavior and academic outcomes. Together, these studies underscore the importance of mentoring in enhancing classroom management practices and fostering a positive learning environment in Nigerian primary schools.

Research question four was on HR policies and diverse student needs for inclusive education. The results showed that HR policies play a crucial role in creating inclusive educational environments that cater to the diverse needs of students. Recent studies indicate that HR policies effectively adapt to accommodate diverse student populations, ensuring equitable access to educational opportunities for all (Yonezawa and Shimmi, 2017). Also, a related study by Cobanoglu et al. (2018) found that HR initiatives actively support the integration of inclusive practices in education, fostering a more inclusive and welcoming school environment. Moreover, regular reviews of HR policies are essential to ensure they remain responsive to evolving student needs. Al-Daboub et al. (2024) observed that regular reviews of HR policies enable schools to identify and address gaps in support for diverse student populations, enhancing the effectiveness of inclusive education initiatives. In contrast, Shilling (2023) found that despite efforts to adapt HR policies, some schools still struggle to fully implement inclusive practices, resulting in students feeling marginalized or excluded. However, inclusive HR practices have been shown to foster a sense of belonging for all students. Alajlani and Yesufu (2022) highlighted that schools with inclusive HR practices create environments where every student feels valued and respected, leading to improved academic outcomes and overall well-being.

5. Implications for primary education studies

The implications of this study for primary education studies are significant. Through the implementation of recommended strategies, such as continuous professional development programs and structured mentoring initiatives, primary educators can enhance their instructional practices and classroom management skills. This directly correlates with existing research in primary education, which emphasizes the pivotal role of teacher quality in student outcomes. Additionally, the emphasis on inclusive HR policies aligns with the principles of inclusive education, ensuring that all students, including those with diverse backgrounds and needs, receive equitable access to learning opportunities. These implications underscore the relevance of HR practices in shaping the educational experiences of both teachers and students in the primary education context, ultimately contributing to improved academic achievement and overall well-being.

6. Conclusion

In conclusion, this study has provided valuable insights into the effectiveness of human resources practices on teaching and learning outcomes in primary education. Through the examination of various HR policies and initiatives, it is evident that these practices play a crucial role in shaping the educational experiences of both teachers and students. The findings underscore the importance of HR policies that adapt to accommodate diverse student needs, support the integration of inclusive practices, and foster a sense of belonging for all students. Moreover, the study highlights the significance of regular reviews of HR policies to ensure they remain responsive to evolving educational contexts and student needs. However, challenges remain, particularly in fully implementing inclusive HR practices across all schools. Addressing these challenges requires continued efforts from policymakers, school

administrators, and educators to prioritize inclusivity and equity in education. Moving forward, it is essential to build upon these findings to develop and implement effective HR strategies that government should:

- 1) Prioritize initiatives aimed at reducing teacher turnover rates and creating a supportive work environment for educators.
- 2) Develop HR policies that prioritize inclusivity and equity in education, ensuring equitable access to educational opportunities for all students.
- 3) Foster collaborative partnerships between schools, educational authorities, and community organizations to support teaching and learning outcomes.
- 4) Encourage ongoing research and evaluation efforts to assess the impact of HR practices on primary education outcomes effectively.
- 5) Build the capacity of school leaders and HR personnel to effectively implement and manage HR practices.
- 6) Maintain flexibility and adaptability in HR practices to respond effectively to changing circumstances and emerging trends in education.

Conflict of interest: The author declares no conflict of interest.

References

- Alajlani, S., & Yesufu, L. O. (2022). The impact of human resource practices on employee retention: A study of three private higher educational institutions in the United Arab Emirates. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20, 1823. <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v20i0.1823>
- Al-Daboub, R. S., Al-Madadha, A., & Al-Adwan, A. S. (2024). Fostering firm innovativeness: Understanding the sequential relationships between human resource practices, psychological empowerment, innovative work behavior, and firm innovative capability. *International Journal of Innovation Studies*, 8(1), 76–91. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijis.2023.12.001>
- Arslan, A. S., Karataş, F., Ünal, S., & Aslan, A. (2022). The effects of group mentoring on teachers' classroom activities: An instrumental case study. *Participatory Educational Research*, 9(5), 390–413. <https://doi.org/10.17275/per.22.120.9.5>
- Batista, J. P., Torre, C., Sousa Lobo, J. M., & Sepodes, B. (2022). A review of the continuous professional development system for pharmacists. *Human Resources for Health*, 20(1), 3. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12960-021-00700-1>
- Boonk, L., Gijsselaers, H. J., Ritzen, H., & Brand-Gruwel, S. (2018). A review of the relationship between parental involvement indicators and academic achievement. *Educational Research Review*, 24, 10–30. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2018.02.001>
- Candrasari, R., Yorman, Y., Mayasari, N., et al. (2023). Visionary leadership in education management: Leading toward optimal achievement in the era of independent learning. *Indonesian Journal of Education (INJOE)*, 3(3), 451–467.
- Cesário, F., Sabino, A., Moreira, A., & Azevedo, T. (2022). Green human resources practices and person-organization fit: The moderating role of the personal environmental commitment. *Emerging Science Journal*, 6(5), 938–951. <https://doi.org/10.28991/esj-2022-06-05-02>
- Cobanoglu, F., Sertel, G., & Sarkaya, S. S. (2018). Human resource management practices in Turkish education system (Denizli case). *European Journal of Educational Research*, 7(4), 833–847. <https://doi.org/10.12973/eu-jer.7.4.833>
- Copriady, J., Zulnaidi, H., Alimin, M., & Albeta, S. W. (2021). In-service training and teaching resource proficiency amongst Chemistry teachers: the mediating role of teacher collaboration. *Heliyon*, 7(5), e06995. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2021.e06995>
- Dolati, A., Taghikhany, T., Khanmohammadi, M., & Rahai, A. (2015). Scenario-based seismic performance assessment of regular and irregular highway bridges under near-fault ground motions. *Earthquakes and Structures*, 8(3), 573–589.
- Eiamsa-Ard, P., Piriyaungroj, N., Thianpong, C., & Eiamsa-Ard, S. (2014). A case study on thermal performance assessment of a heat exchanger tube equipped with regularly-spaced twisted tapes as swirl generators. *Case Studies in Thermal Engineering*, 3, 86–102. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.csite.2014.04.002>
- Faizuddin, A., Azizan, N. A., Othman, A., & Ismail, S. N. (2022). Continuous professional development programmes for school

- principals in the 21st century: Lessons learned from educational leadership practices. In: *Frontiers in Education*. Frontiers. p. 983807.
- Gomes, J. F., Sabino, A., & Antunes, V. (2023). The effect of green human resources management practices on employees' affective commitment and work engagement: The moderating role of employees' biospheric value. *Sustainability*, 15(3), 2190. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su15032190>
- Haniko, P., Thoyyibah, M., Syamsurijal, S., et al. (2024). Culturally responsive teaching: Strategies for promoting inclusivity in diverse classrooms. *Global International Journal of Innovative Research*, 2(4), 821–830. <https://doi.org/10.59613/global.v2i4.127>
- Hughes, S. J. (2014). Teachers as placemakers: How primary school teachers design, manage and maintain learning spaces as part of their daily workflow [PhD thesis]. University of Southern Queensland.
- Ko, B., & Boswell, B. (2013). Teachers' perceptions, teaching practices, and learning opportunities for inclusion. *Physical Educator*, 70(3), 223.
- Kutsyruba, B., & Godden, L. (2019). The role of mentoring and coaching as a means of supporting the well-being of educators and students. *International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching in Education*, 8(4), 229–234. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ijmce-12-2019-081>
- Mintrop, R., Ordenes, M., Coghlan, E., et al. (2018). Teacher evaluation, pay for performance, and learning around instruction: Between dissonant incentives and resonant procedures. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 54(1), 3–46. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013161x17696558>
- Nistor, N., Daxecker, I., Stanciu, D., et al. (2015). Sense of community in academic communities of practice: Predictors and effects. *Higher Education*, 69, 257–273. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-014-9773-6>
- Saddique, F., & Raja, B. I. (2022). Enhancing morale through effective communication: A study of head teacher-teacher interaction in government schools of Rawalpindi City. *Pakistan Languages and Humanities Review*, 6(1), 229–240.
- Shilling, D. (2023). *The complete guide to human resources and the law: 2024 Edition*. Wolters Kluwer Law & Business.
- Uy, F., Abendan, C. F., Andrin, G., et al. (2024). Exploring strategies for fostering a culture of continuous professional development and learning: A systematic literature review. *International Multidisciplinary Journal of Research for Innovation, Sustainability, and Excellence (IMJRISE)*, 1(3), 191–198.
- Uy, F., Andrin, G., Vestal, P., et al. (2024). Transformative leadership in Philippine education: Fostering innovation and excellence. *International Multidisciplinary Journal of Research for Innovation, Sustainability, and Excellence (IMJRISE)*, 1(3), 185–190.
- Whitlock, B. (2024). Mentorship programs in schools: Bridging the character education gap. *Journal of Moral Education*, 53(1), 89–118. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03057240.2023.2280757>
- Yonezawa, A., & Shimmi, Y. (2017). Japan's challenge in fostering global human resources: Policy debates and practices. In: *Globalization and Japanese exceptionalism in education*. Routledge. pp. 43–60.

Article

Conceptual aspects of cognitive ergonomics and job design

Tinatini Sabauri

Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences, Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Academic Building I, Tbilisi 0179, Georgia;
chancellery@tsu.ge

CITATION

Sabauri T. (2024). Conceptual aspects of cognitive ergonomics and job design. *Human Resources Management and Services*. 6(3): 3478.
<https://doi.org/10.24294/jipd.v6i3.3478>

ARTICLE INFO

Received: 26 June 2024
Accepted: 21 August 2024
Available online: 12 September 2024

COPYRIGHT



Copyright © 2024 by author(s).
Human Resources Management and Services is published by PiscoMed Publishing Pte Ltd. This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license.
<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>

Abstract: The study of cognitive ergonomics and correct job design is a contemporary topic. This article defines and presents the main issues that ensure effective management of cognitive ergonomics and job design.

Keywords: cognitive ergonomics; job design; incentive; work-life balance

1. Introduction

Cognitive ergonomics and work-life balance are one of the most interesting challenges of the 21st century, and at the same time, it is an important component of job design. Ergonomics is a science that aims to increase human cognitive and mental abilities, and productivity by reducing discomfort and improving working conditions. This means job security, relaxation opportunities, and various activities that help the company recruit and retain a highly motivated and satisfied workforce.

Cognitive ergonomics is responsible for how the employee understands and performs the assigned work. It also covers analyzing and dealing with work stress (Hollnagel, E. 1997).

Modernity, also known as the age of digital technologies, which is distinguished by the accelerated pace of geometric progression, presents the modern person with the greatest challenge—he has to receive, process, and assimilate rapidly changing information in the shortest period, keep pace with the constantly growing demands of the labor market, perform the assigned work conscientiously and perfectly, and, at the same time, constantly taking care of one's development, in order to be a competitive and stress-resistant being (IEA 2014).

Today's reality has changed approaches to business careers. In the presence of an incorrect career management system, a person is often unable to fully unleash their potential, or the job scope does not meet their expectations. These reasons could create an undesirable working place and environment.

The negative consequences of improper career management can be described from two perspectives. On the one hand, when an individual is not satisfied at work, their psychological state will be affected. The disappointment that comes with making the wrong career choice and getting into the wrong place of employment has a directly proportional negative impact on one's personal life. On the other hand, poorly managed work design by managers and directors may lead to a shortage of professionals in the country and their outflow.

Modern career management systems allow for ensuring the professional development of a person, as well as determining the direction of one's further development based on the assessment of his abilities.

The research questions of the paper are as follows:

- 1) What aspects determine the effective management of cognitive ergonomics and work design?
- 2) How can incentives affect performance?

2. Literature review

Current transformations and changes in the modern world have had a significant impact on the human resource management process. In the past, the public and private sectors were mainly focused on attracting and recruiting staff; today, staff retention is a bigger challenge.

It is also important to take into account the modern challenges in the process of career management. The previous generation was guaranteed to continue working in the chosen profession for the rest of their lives. However, nowadays, career switching and job-hopping are common. Therefore, excellent management and leadership are pivotal to ensuring staff retention (Cavoulacos and Minshew, 2017).

Research shows that a stressful working environment not only has a negative impact on the quality of work but also the personal lives of the employees. As a result, problems such as work stress, depression, weight gain, etc. follow (Penn, 2013).

Studies reveal that ergonomic conditions impact a person's personal and family life. Additionally, the family and the micro-society in which a person interacts daily significantly influence their career role and development. In the 1950s, an American representative of clinical psychology and researcher Anne Roe (Anne Roe (1956)—theory of Career Choice and Development), who became a prominent representative of occupational psychology, was interested in this issue. Ann Roes's theory of career choice and development places a major emphasis on the role of the family in career management, particularly the influence of family relationships on career choices. Excessive care for a child can diminish their independence and foster a fear of decision-making in adulthood. Conversely, neglecting a child's interests can result in limited opportunities in later life. According to the author, the ideal option is unconditional acceptance of the child's needs and behavior. People brought up in such an environment are independent and manage their careers successfully. In her theory, Ann Roe proposes to classify the profession by taking into account two main factors, person-oriented and non-person-oriented cases (Roe, 1956).

A very interesting theory was developed by the modern American education specialist Duane Brown (2006) regarding work-life balance. According to Brown's theory, career and employment aspects are influenced by several values. Brown focuses on three types of values, namely: cultural, labor, and life values (Brown, 2002). It divides cultural values that influence career and employment into the following categories: human nature, social relationship, temporal orientation, relationship with nature, activity, and self-control. Brown considered work values to satisfy such needs as recognition from the collective,

financial well-being, altruism, and others. Life values cover work, recreation, community membership, interpersonal relationships, and others. Individuals often choose a profession and adjust to their roles based on these values. Brown considers cultural and work values as fundamental values that affect the process of choosing and maintaining a job, while life values significantly affect the entire process of career development (Brown and Crace, 1996). When employers create and uphold work designs and values that align with those of their employees, it enhances retention and motivation.

It is also an interesting issue to explore whether incentive pay can affect performance, and if so, how it does so and which factors play a major role.

In general, the impact of incentives on performance depends on various factors, such as the employee's needs and preferences, as well as timing. Incentives are typically ineffective when employees lack motivation or cannot influence the outcomes. Motivation works for everyone in different ways, because what motivates one person may not motivate the other. Incentives can be created both directly and indirectly. When the objective is clear, compensation such as cash payments or additional services can be offered for achieving it. Literature and practice provide examples where direct incentives for specific tasks can be overly effective, causing individuals to neglect other responsibilities.

For example, before the Soviet Union collapsed in 1989, Western publications often reported on the goal distortion and corruption endemic to Soviet attempts to manage the economy by mandating quantitative results. Industrial planners established targets for enterprise production and punished managers who failed to meet them. There were targets, for example, for the number of shoes to be produced. Certainly, increasing output was an important goal of the Soviet shoe industry, but it was not the only goal. Factories responded to the incentives by using the limited leather supply to produce a glut of small sizes that consumers could not use. Planners specified the number of kilometers that freight transport enterprises should cover each month. Certainly, transporters who cover more distance can deliver more goods. But when distance itself was incentivized, the haulers fulfilled their quotas by making unnecessary journeys or driving circuitous routes (Springer, 2009). Incentives affected people's behavior, but they failed to promote the social cooperation necessary for a productive economy.

Rewards do not have to be monetary, they can be anything that employees value. For example, managers in some organizations have little flexibility in what they pay employees. Incentives can be provided by rewarding more productive employees with desirable job assignments, better offices, preferred parking spaces, special honors, and trips to training sessions in attractive locations (Brickley et al., 2003).

For more than 15 years Thomas J. McCoy (1992) has improved the performance of organizations through improving the performance of their employees. In his book *Compensation and Motivation, Maximizing Employee Performance with Behavior-Based Incentive Plans*, published in 1992, he spells out the details of his innovative behavior-based incentive compensation system.

Behavior-based incentive compensation (BBIC) differs from traditional compensation in three significant areas: 1) The plan design requires a high degree of consideration of human resources as well as of finances; 2) BBIC is contingent upon performance; 3) It is extremely flexible in its ability to produce improvement in any area of organizational need.

No compensation system meets all needs, but the unique flexibility of behavior-based incentive compensation allows it to be applicable in a wide variety of business environments and on all levels of an organization (McCOY, 1992).

Incentive Compensation Management refers to the system and practices supporting the payment of variable compensation by companies to their sales force, agents, or other entities whose performance against desired metrics can help the company be more successful (Kelly, 2014).

For example, as far back as 1985, Frito-Lay's management accepted the fact that improvements in the technology of their business would bring only a limited degree of incremental improvement. David Halleck, manager of compensation at Frito Lay, wanted to determine to what extent the rewards influence employee motivation. The task force assignment was to develop a program that supported the business strategy through the coordination of management practices, employee participation, and shared rewards. The result of the assignment was a productivity incentive plan based on cost, quality, and productivity volume. Employee participation and feedback systems were designed and installed to support the process. In addition, incentive plan success criteria were designed and incorporated into the review cycle (McCOY, 1992).

Frito-Lay has a cultural history of utilizing the test process to explore different alternatives. Like many organizations, they use testing as a method of gaining company-specific information and data for assessment. Two plants were selected to participate in the test of incentive compensation. One plant was to be the test plant; the other plant was to be the control. The plants were selected based on a list of criteria that included comparable plant size and age, similar workforce demographics and experience, similar styles of management, and commonality of products (this would remove any variance based on seasonality).

The results were positive. At the test plant, cost and quality performance each improved by more than 10%. At the control plant, an increase in volume affected the cost indicators and an increase in new employees affected the quality measurements. Cost performance improved by 3%, and quality performance improved by 4%. (Management feels that if these changes had not taken place, performance in both categories would have improved by greater than 10 percent). To add perspective to the performance improvement, it is significant to note that the average Frito-Lay plant had an annual improvement rate of 5 percent in both cost and quality during this year. Employee ideas increased by 30 percent in the test plant, by 20 percent in the control plant, and by 10 percent in the average plant in the system (McCOY, 1992).

As part of the evaluation, Frito Lay's management conducted preplan and post-plan opinion surveys. The results and variations in the survey responses are as follows (**Table 1**):

Table 1. Results and variations in the survey responses.

	Percentage Increase, Control Plant	Percentage Increase, Test Plant
Feedback	4%	10%
Communications	5%	10%
Working Conditions	4%	9%
Employee/Management Relations	6%	10%

Employees at both facilities reported feeling that their job security had improved. They saw the program as an indicator of management and viewed that as a positive addition to the environment (McCOY, 1992).

A notable discrepancy in performance outcomes was observed, with nearly a two-to-one difference between the test plant and the control plant. Both plants offered the same intrinsic motivation to enhance performance, and the control plant demonstrated that intrinsic incentives alone had a positive impact on results. Both facilities implemented identical training, performance feedback systems, and employee participation processes. The distinguishing factor was that one plant offered extrinsic incentives, which notably bolstered the performance improvement process.

There is a very interesting theory about “carrots and sticks”. “Carrots and sticks” refer to using rewards and punishment to motivate others. This system is based on the principles of operant conditioning. Similarly, there is the expression “carrot-on-s-stick”, which conjures up the image of a carrot tied to a stick held just beyond the reach of a donkey to encourage the animal to go faster. In organizations, “carrots” refer to rewards or incentives dangled in front of employees to motivate them to strive toward some goal. These incentives range from coffee mugs to lucrative financial bonuses and everything in between. The obvious assumption is that employees are motivated by the particular carrot being offered (Marciano, 2010).

Motivation in the workplace changes with time. The workplace and its employees today, for example, are very different than they were before the second half of the twentieth century. One of the big changes is employees’ expectations and their relationship to their work. Managers, leaders, and human resources professionals must be willing to give up traditional beliefs about the role of motivation and factors that affect employee motivation to deal with today’s workforce effectively.

Whether a person enjoys his or her work is a recent and primarily Western Phenomenon. Certainly, through the 1950s, work served the primary purpose of putting food on the table and a roof over one’s head. While people undoubtedly developed friendships at work and may even have enjoyed their work depending on their profession and position, such issues were not viewed as particularly relevant to making a living. Over the past few decades, the level of satisfaction and meaning of the work has been increasingly emphasized. This is particularly true once employees reach a certain monetary threshold that comfortably provides for their quality of life. Today’s leaders who wish to maximize the productivity of their employees must fully understand and embrace

the notion that employees work for more than just money; they work to feel good about themselves (Marciano, 2010).

Money can motivate individual performance, but the impact on performance is typically short-lived. Money falls under what Frederick Herzberg called a Hygiene factor, in other words, a factor that has more to do with decreasing motivation than increasing it. Money matters a lot under two conditions. First, it matters at the very low end of the pay scale where an additional dollar an hour can make a significant difference to an individual. Second, it matters when people find out that they are being under-compensated relative to a colleague or market value; this situation violates the Equity Theory. A classic example occurs when a new employee is hired at a higher salary than an existing employee doing the same job. Under these conditions, the existing employee, who may have been perfectly satisfied with his pay, becomes upset and feels unappreciated. Typically, the employee will quit, demand more pay, or perform markedly worse.

Motivation techniques can be very helpful in raising a person's level of readiness to change and in getting him or her to begin engaging in desired behaviors. In the words of Jim Ryun, "Motivation is what gets you started; habits are what keep you going" (Marciano, 2010).

In Paul L. Marciano's *"Carrots and Sticks Don't Work, Build a Culture of Employee Engagement with the Principles of RESPECT"* (2010) specified twenty reasons why reward and recognition programs do not work. These reasons are summarized in **Table 2**.

Therefore, it is clear that even rewards that might appear to be desirable do not necessarily work for everybody (Marciano, 2010).

One of the major reasons that reward and recognition programs are unfairly administered is that the program guidelines are unclear and open to interpretation.

Trying to motivate employees with "carrots" will not increase the overall human capital of the organization.

This topic is highlighted in the RESPECT Model, an actionable philosophy founded on the principle that when individuals are treated with respect, they are more engaged and motivated to strive toward the organization's goals. Over the past few years, a handful of researchers from around the world have empirically supported this premise, most notably Ed Sleebos, Naomi Ellemers, and Dick de Gilder from the Netherlands. These researchers have demonstrated in both laboratory and field studies that when people feel respected, they exhibit greater discretionary and effort to benefit the group and organization. In addition, their research uncovered that when disrespected individuals exhibit discretionary effort, they do so to achieve personal gain—not to advance the goals of their group. These findings validate the basic premise of the RESPECT Model and highlight the distinction between engaged employees who work for the betterment of the organization and motivated employees who work for themselves. Based on engagement research, the Circle of RESPECT distinguishes five areas in which employees experience feelings of respect and disrespect (Marciano, 2010).

Table 2. Twenty reasons why reward and recognition programs do not work (Source: Marciano, 2010).

Reason 1	Programs fail because they are programs.
Reason 2	Rewards are not necessarily reinforcing.
Reason 3	Programs are too narrowly focused.
Reason 4	Programs focus on the wrong dependent variable.
Reason 5	Goals can limit performance.
Reason 6	Inconsistent and unfair administration.
Reason 7	Added stress for supervisors.
Reason 8	Programs foster cheating.
Reason 9	Programs destroy teamwork.
Reason 10	Programs are cover-ups for ineffective supervisors.
Reason 11	Programs offer a weak reinforcement schedule.
Reason 12	Giving gifts is not a reinforcement program.
Reason 13	Programs reduce creativity and risk-taking.
Reason 14	Extrinsic reinforcement reduces intrinsic motivation.
Reason 15	Wrong behaviors are rewarded.
Reason 16	Everybody's a winner.
Reason 17	Programs are manipulative.
Reason 18	Program architects are generally not experts.
Reason 19	Programs have no impact on workplace culture.
Reason 20	Reward programs decrease overall motivation.

Figure 1 shows the Circle of RESPECT.



Figure 1. Circle of RESPECT (Source: Marciano, 2010; Marciano, 2011).

All points above are taken from Paul L. Marciano, Ph.D. *Carrots and Sticks Don't Work, Build a Culture of Employee Engagement with the Principles of RESPECT* (Marciano, 2010).

It is interesting that whether on the battlefield or in the boardroom, people follow leaders they respect and by whom they are respected. Respect brings with it great power to influence others and their behaviors. Respected leaders inspire followers to engage in the work that needs to be done to fulfill the mission and vision of the organization. Leaders must earn respect by treating those around them with RESPECT every day and not assume, that respect should be automatically bestowed upon them based on their position and achievements.

Paul L. Marciano concludes his book *Carrots and Sticks Don't Work, Build a Culture of Employee Engagement with the Principles of RESPECT* with the sentence: "If you want the most out of your people, treat them with respect and they will respect and do more for you" (Marciano, 2010).

3. Conclusion

In short, recognition and a sense of purpose are often more important than money (salary) for most people. Hence, leaders should ensure that every worker feels valued and integral to both the organization and society. Additionally, they should communicate information regarding plans and achievements to their subordinates and actively consider their suggestions for enhancing plans and workflow.

Leaders should allow some form of independence among their workers, which can be manifested in the following ways:

Facilitating information exchange with subordinates and involving them in decision-making processes enables leaders to address individuals' fundamental needs. Consequently, this elevates motivation levels and diminishes dissatisfaction with formal leadership.

According to human resources theories, work is inherently satisfying for most individuals, as they aspire to contribute to the attainment of the organization's objectives. Many people are capable of working independently, exercising considerable responsibility and self-control. In such instances, the primary responsibility of a leader is to maximize the effective utilization of human resources. This entails creating an environment wherein each individual can demonstrate their abilities in successfully addressing the organization's challenges.

Special emphasis should be placed on the involvement of personnel in solving important problems of the organization and increasing their independence and self-control. This contributes to improved economic efficiency in production. Consequently, job satisfaction increases, facilitating guidance and refinement of work design.

Furthermore, while incentives can affect performance, their effectiveness hinges on various factors including employees' needs, preferences, and ability to impact results. Cultural disparities and economic situations also play significant roles in determining the efficacy of incentive schemes.

Moreover, while money can initially motivate individual performance, its impact tends to be short-lived. Employees are driven by more than just financial incentives; they seek fulfillment and a sense of accomplishment in their work. Long-term incentive structures often fall short in sustaining motivation. Motivation techniques can be effective in elevating an individual's readiness to engage in desired behaviors.

However, reward and recognition programs are sometimes inefficient and costly. Unclear program guidelines often result in unfair administration. Strong motivation and respect have a more enduring and positive impact on performance.

This paper shall conclude with a quote from Thomas Alva Edison: "One might think that the monetary value of an invention constitutes its reward to the man who loves his work. But I continue to find my greatest pleasure, and so my reward, in the work that precedes what the world calls success."

Conflict of interest: The author declares no conflict of interest.

References

- Brickley, J. A., Smith, C. W., Zimmerman, J. L. (2003). *Jerold L. Managerial Economics and Organizational Architecture*, 3rd ed. McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Brown, D. (2002). *Career Choice and Development*. Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.
- Brown, D., & Crace, R. K. (1996). Values in Life Role Choices and Outcomes: A Conceptual Model. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 44(3), 211–223. Portico. <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-0045.1996.tb00252.x>
- Cavoulacos, A., Minshew, K. (2017). *The New Rules of Work: The Modern Playbook for Navigating Your Career*. Currency, New York.
- Hollnagel, E. (1997). Cognitive ergonomics: it's all in the mind. *Ergonomics*, 40(10), 1170–1182. <https://doi.org/10.1080/001401397187685>
- IEA (International Ergonomics Association). (2024). What is Ergonomics (HFE)? Available online: <https://iea.cc/about/what-is-ergonomics/> (accessed on 12 March 2024).
- Kelly, D. (2014). *The Book on Incentive Compensation Management, The Systematic Administration of Variable Compensation in the Enterprise*. Lulu.com, North Carolina.
- Marciano, P. L. (2010). *Carrots and Sticks Don't Work: Build a Culture of Employee Engagement with the Principles of RESPECT*. McGraw Hill. pp. 19-35.
- Marciano, P. L. (2011). Increasing employee engagement by fostering a culture of RESPECT™. Available online: <https://www.slideshare.net/slideshow/chester-county-shrm-respect-model-presentation-22511/7078590>
- McCOY, T. J. (1992). *Compensation and Motivation: Maximizing Employee Performance with Behavior-Based Incentive Plans*. Penn, J. (2013). *Career Change: Stop Hating Your Job, Discover What You Really Want to Do with Your Life, and Start Doing It*, 2nd ed. CreateSpace Independent Publishing Platform, New York.
- Roe, A. (1956). *The Psychology of Occupations*. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York.
- Springer, M. G. (2009). *Performance Incentives: Their Growing Impact on American K-12 Education*. Brookings Institution Press, Washington, D.C.

Review

A balanced treatment of perceived organizational politics: A review of the positive influences

Musa Nyathi

National University of Science and Technology, Bulawayo, Zimbabwe; musa.nyathi@nust.ac.zw

CITATION

Nyathi M. (2024). A balanced treatment of perceived organizational politics: A review of the positive influences. *Human Resources Management and Services*. 6(3): 3403.
<https://doi.org/10.18282/hrms.v6i3.3403>

ARTICLE INFO

Received: 18 May 2024
Accepted: 3 July 2024
Available online: 9 July 2024

COPYRIGHT

Copyright © 2024 by author(s).
Human Resources Management and Services is published by PiscoMed Publishing Pte. Ltd. This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license.
<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>

Abstract: Purpose: The purpose of this paper is to review literature in the area of perceived organizational politics (POPs) and to present a model that explains the positive role of the phenomenon in the workplace. This involves understanding how POPs have evolved from playing a much-publicized destructive role to an emerging constructive one. **Design/methodology/approach:** An integrative review method was used to review articles on POPs published over the last 13 years (2010–2022). The primary sources of information were several databases, such as ISI Web of Science, Google Scholar, and Scopus. Specific search terms were considered to find relevant articles, leading to 7803 articles (3894 hits on Scopus, 1723 hits on Google Scholar, and 2186 hits on Web of Science). These studies were further examined for their relevance to this study, and 103 articles were identified. The application of exclusion criteria funneled them to 66 studies. The articles, employing quantitative, mixed, and qualitative approaches were coded. The themes were subsequently determined. **Findings:** The review notes that the POPs literature emphasis is shifting from a negative and dysfunctional approach to one where positive organizational outcomes are possible. The review concludes that POPs have functional consequences too. The phenomenon could illuminate favorable workplace outcomes if viewed as an enhancer rather than a hindrance. POPs should be viewed as a phenomenon that for all purposes is essentially neutral. It is individuals who label the otherwise neutral construct as negative (negative POPs) or positive (positive POPs). **Practical implications:** The paper reveals how antecedents help organizational members label politics as positive. Perceived organizational politics is largely a neutral construct until the perceiver decides to label it otherwise. A positive perception of politics is significant in predicting important employee outcomes such as motivation, employee satisfaction, and job performance. Management needs to invest in antecedents and moderators to help employees label the construct as positive rather than negative. **Originality/value:** The study is an original review of the positive POPs literature to identify the significant antecedents, moderators, and work outcomes, vital to organizational success.

Keywords: perception of organizational politics; political behavior; organizational power and politics

1. Introduction

Organizations are political arenas in which their members need not only political skills and an appetite to work in such an environment but also to engage in political activities (Mintzberg, 1985). Politics is an organizational reality and participation in its activities denotes an acceptable and functional practice (Gotsis and Kortezi, 2011; Byrne et al., 2017). Organizational politics is not a concrete and objective concept. Employee behaviors are a response not to actual organizational politics (Chang et al., 2009) but to their perception of what they think organizational politics is like at the time. This study uses Richardsen, et al.'s (2016) definition of organizational politics

as ‘an attitude that strategically escalates self-interest and challenges the combined organizational goals’. A number of deviant behaviors, such as workplace bullying, theft, sabotage, and organizational injustice, are stronger when the perception of organizational politics is high (Khattak et al., 2021).

An understanding of POPs, given their far-reaching effects on key organizational variables such as organizational performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and organizational justice (Bedi and Schat, 2013; Nyathi, 2022), is a reality that management practitioners ought to understand and appreciate. Therefore, this study focuses on POPs, a phenomenon that is viewed as a necessity for organizational growth (Maslyn et al., 2017; Mazzola et al., 2019).

It is defined as a process by which internal organizational stakeholders give meaning to the workplace after undergoing an organization and interpretation of their sensory process (Landells and Albrecht, 2017). The phenomenon is a “perception of an individual’s behavior that is not accepted by formal authority and may or may not affect organizational goals” (Khan et al., 2022). The POP outcomes are manifested in employee attitudes, behavior, and organizational performance (Nyathi, 2022).

The multifaceted construct of POPs has been studied from macro-level, micro-level, and multi-level perspectives. The macro-level perspective examines the structural sources of organizational power and the role of coalitions in promoting collective self-interest agendas (Pfeffer, 1992; Pettigrew and McNulty, 1995). The micro-level approach focuses on individual behavior, relationships, and perceptions (Gandz and Murray, 1980; Kacmar and Ferris, 1991; Ferris et al., 1996; Perrewé et al., 2000). A multifaceted perspective combines two approaches: the micro-level and macro-level approaches. This approach was adopted for this review.

POPs have been shown to have positive effects on several employee outcomes, such as job satisfaction (Opoku et al., 2020), organizational loyalty (Spurk et al., 2021), and job performance (Abbas and Raja, 2019), and ultimately value-adding effects on the total organization. Research findings have shown POPs to be organizational stressors through hindrance and challenge stressors. It is the challenge stressors that are of importance to this review. The challenge stressors provide opportunities for feelings of attainment, growth, and enhancement among internal stakeholders (Mazzola et al., 2019). Increased employee performance creates feelings of achievement, thereby buttressing the promotional prospects of employees. However, there is a lack of a theoretical model that explains these positive outcomes.

The two objectives of this review are to provide an understanding of how POPs have evolved to play a constructive role in the workplace. This means identifying antecedents and moderating and/or mediating variables that shape positive POPs among employees. The aim of this study is also to model the relationship between independent, moderating, and dependent variables. Previous reviews have not focused on the processes of positive perception formation in employees. There has been little attempt to identify social influence processes explaining positive perceptions amongst internal stakeholders. The motivation for this study stems from the realization that a substantial number of research findings have established perceived organizational politics as a manipulative and disruptive force within organizations. However, a growing list of research findings has established that POPs also play a constructive role. As such, POPs could be utilized by management to influence employees’

perceptions so that a positive role emerges.

A brief history of the perception of organizational politics

Developed just over 30 years ago by Ferris et al. (1989), POPs (then referred to as organizational politics) have generated much but inconclusive research (Chang et al., 2009; Antic et al., 2010; Ferris et al., 2019; Hochwarter et al., 2020). The dark side of organizational politics (OP) has been widely documented and well-articulated (Hall et al., 2004; Chang et al., 2009; Walter et al., 2012), reflecting employees' beliefs about the prominence of self-serving behaviors in organizations.

Ferris et al. (2000) noted the importance of investigating perceived politics, defining POPs as "an individual's subjective evaluation about the extent to which their work environment is characterized by coworkers and supervisors who demonstrate self-serving behaviors" (Ferris et al., 2000, p. 90). Three decades later, POPs continue to garner much interest from both researchers and practitioners as an independent area of scientific inquiry (Ferris et al., 2017). Much of the research has maintained a negative characterization, whereby POPs are viewed as the source of a variety of harmful work consequences, such as high stress and turnover intentions, lower job satisfaction, productivity, and work commitment (Ullah and Ahmad, 2018).

In the last ten years, some researchers (such as Gotsis and Kortezi, 2011; Ferris and Treadway, 2012; Maslyn et al., 2017) have established that POPs also generate positive and effective results for organizations. They have shown that when POPs are viewed as an opportunity, favorable work outcomes result. These outcomes fail to materialize when the phenomenon is viewed as a hindrance. As such, POPs may have both functional and dysfunctional consequences, depending on the self-serving or benevolent volition of decision-makers (Kapoutsis and Thanos, 2016; Gotsis and Kortezi, 2011; Landells and Albrecht, 2017). The positive side (Eldor, 2017; Landells and Albrecht, 2017; Nyathi, 2022) is gaining traction in challenging the exclusivity of the self-interest assumption.

Historically, several studies have viewed OP as a concrete and threatening construct. Specific behaviors often considered and measured as political, include striving for in-group status, sucking up to others, backstabbing, and pursuing personal goals instead of those that benefit the group or organization (Hochwarter et al., 2020). Early literature on the phenomenon described it as occurring when other employees are manipulated and utilized as resources in the workplace. Early theorists argued that it is not actual politics that matters most to organizations, but rather the subjective OP that results in adverse reactions and behaviors (Gandz and Murray, 1980). This argument is based on the suggestion that people operate based on perceptions of reality and not actual reality per se (Lewin, 1936). Similarly, Gandz and Murray (1980) asserted that the presence of OP is a subjective assessment of the behavior of others rather than an objective reality. This assertion rests on the premise that employees' perceptions of their work environment as political, even when misconstrued, create their reality and drive their cognitive and behavioral responses (Ferris et al., 2002; Ferris et al., 2000). This saw the birth of the perception of organizational politics (POPs).

2. Literature review methodology

2.1. Research process

This study explores the antecedents, mediators, and moderators that influence positive organizational consequences for POPs. An integrative review method was used to identify articles on POPs published in the last 13 years (2010–2022) and discuss the lessons learned from this review. Each article has been deductively coded, although inductive coding has also been allowed to gradually evolve. Subsequently, descriptive themes were generated, and differences (in themes) were reflected. A consensus on the main themes was then reached. This study intends to respond to the following research questions:

RQ1. What antecedents positively influence POPs, such that the phenomenon plays a constructive role in organizations?

RQ2. What variables mediate and/or moderate the effect of POPs on positive organizational outcomes?

2.2. Database search methods

The search on ISI Web of Science, Google Scholar, and Scopus made up the primary database for the purposes of this study. To find relevant articles, the following 8 search terms were considered: perception of organizational politics, perceived organizational politics, political skill, political behaviour in organizations, workplace bullying, outcomes of perception of organizational politics, functional politics, and perception of organizational justice.

This procedure resulted in 7803 articles (3894 hits on Scopus, 1723 hits on Google Scholar, and 2186 hits on Web of Science). A number of duplicates were removed from the list. Only papers with POPs as their main research focus were kept. The articles were then examined for relevance to the literature review. The relevance was determined by the article's ability to address the two research questions. A total of 103 articles were established.

2.3. Exclusion/Inclusion criteria

The exclusion criteria for selecting articles for the study were the following:

- 1) Only studies from peer-reviewed journals, for the period 2010 to 2022 were considered for the study;
- 2) The studies should have focused on the private and public sectors, excluding not-for-profit organizations.

This focused search registered a final sample of 66 articles that were relevant to the accomplishment of the set objectives. Of these, 40 were from 2010–2019, and 26 from 2020 to 2022. Of the total articles reviewed, 67% adopted a quantitative methodology, and 33% utilized a qualitative methodology. Sixty-seven percent (67%) of the papers examined POPs, thirty percent (30%) political behavior in organizations, and 3% perception of organizational justice.

3. Findings

3.1. Introduction

The aim of this review was to establish the antecedents and moderators that influence POPs to play a positive role in organizational growth. Four antecedents dominated the review: organizational, personality, employee skills, and contextual variables. Passion for work, tenacity, and social capital were the main variables moderating the effect of antecedents on positive outcomes (see **Figure 1**).

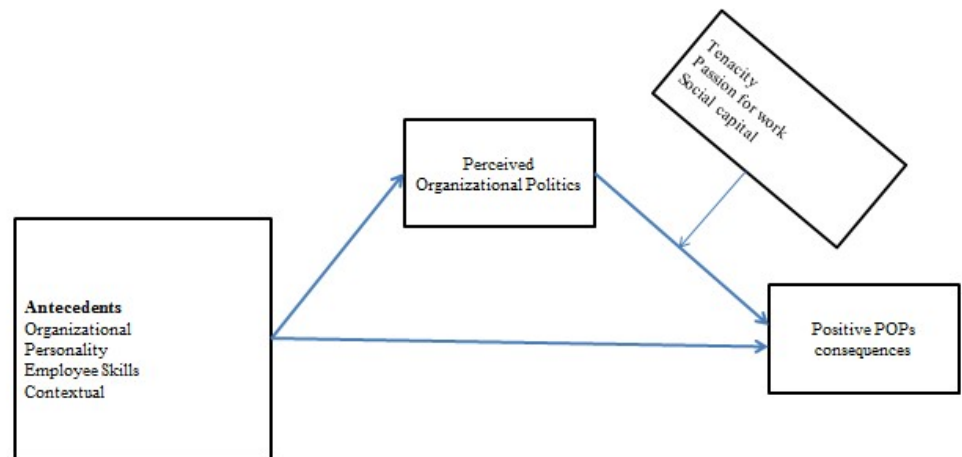


Figure 1. Antecedents and moderators of POPs.

Section I: Perception of Organizational Politics in organizations

The perception of organization politics is essential to the success of organizations in several ways (Bedi and Schat, 2013). The phenomenon influences and impacts several strategic employee outcomes, such as job performance, job satisfaction, job attitudes, organizational trust, commitment, and employee stress. These perceptions are also connected to lower perceptions of organizational trust and support. Negative POPs trigger higher intentions to leave, job stress, burnout, and low organizational citizenship behaviors (Bedi and Schat, 2013). The phenomenon also negatively affects discretionary extra-role employee behaviors that benefit the group and organization, such as volunteering and helping others.

The seminal model of POPs, consisting of antecedents and consequences, anchors most studies in workplace politics (Ferris et al., 2002). The antecedents are factors contributing to POPs. Antecedents are the independent variables explaining the positive POP outcomes, which are dependent variables. The model categorizes antecedents into three groupings: organizational, job, and personal influences. This categorization permeates several studies prior to the period under study. Organizational influences consist of structural dimensions that make up the personality of organizations, e.g., level of formalization and centralization (Hochwarter, 2012). POPs are positively related to the centralization of decision-making and procedural justice in organizations. When power is decentralized and organizational procedures are consistent, transparent, and fair, employees experience lower POPs (Atinc et al., 2010). Formalization of rules, standards, and communication flows thereof also lowers POPs (Atinc et al., 2010). In this study, three additional

organizational influences are organizational democracy, the use of information technology, and the leadership style adopted by top managers (Hochwarter et al., 2020).

Job influences consist of factors inherent in the job/work environment (Atinc et al., 2010). Employees' POPs are likely to be lower if their job expectations are met. Their POPs are also likely to be lower if there are opportunities for development and advancement. This results in improved relationships with their leaders, and a trusting relationship with coworkers. Jobs involving higher autonomy and feedback also have lower POPs (Atinc et al., 2010). The availability of employee coping strategies is an additional job influence emerging post-2010. Personal influences consist of skills that organizational members possess (Elbanna et al., 2017). Employees who are pessimistic and hold an untrustworthy view of human nature are likely to experience higher POP, as are people who are prone to negative moods and emotions (Atinc et al., 2010). Conversely, people who believe they are in control of their environment and people who are prone to positive moods and emotions are likely to experience lower POP (Atinc et al., 2010). In this review, emotional intelligence is an additional influence on POPs.

The fourth influence of POPs consists of employees' political skills. This influence relates to employees' ability to maintain good leader-employee relationships. Employees with high political skills have the capacity to adopt positive behavior that benefits the whole organization as well as helping colleagues solve problems. This leads to lower POPs.

Earlier conceptualizations of POP consequences were described as negative and backward-looking. The consequences of negative POPs were listed as low employee morale, divisions amongst internal stakeholders, and ultimately high levels of conflict, stress, lower employee productivity, loss of focus on corporate goals, uncertainty about the future, and resistance to strategic change. These outcomes are all undesirable and dysfunctional. Such conceptualization emanates from using a reactive and reluctant lens. The reactive view sees POPs as destructive and manipulative. The reluctant lens sees POPs as a necessary evil that should be avoided. Management, however, reluctantly uses POPs as they get tasks done through the phenomenon. These perspectives therefore emphasize the negative aspects of POPs.

There has, however, been a slow but steady shift from this negative conceptualization to a positive one wherein the phenomenon is seen as playing a strategic role in aiding functions within organizations (Liu et al., 2010). POPs are also seen through integrated lenses as helping organizations function well in addition to facilitating better decision-making (Landells and Albrecht, 2017). These perspectives give rise to positive POP consequences such as the promotion of ideas, recognition for good performance, improvement of organizational goals, better decision-making, improved communication, and organizational citizenship behaviors (Ferris et al., 2019).

Several moderators have received attention in recent studies. The notable ones are tenacity, organizational commitment, social capital, goal congruence, and POPs. As with antecedents, there is a lack of consensus on the most effective moderators in the antecedent-POPs-work outcome relationship (Hochwartger et al., 2020). There is unanimity, though, when it comes to mediating variables, with all studies using POPs.

Recent research has focused on a balanced treatment of POPs that includes both positive and negative political perceptions (Ferris et al., 2002; Ferris and Hochwarter, 2011; Kapoutsis and Thanos, 2016; etc.). This approach is motivated by a desire to understand how employees actually perceive politics at play in their organizations (Ferris et al., 2017; Landells and Albrecht, 2017). They believe it is one's perception of an otherwise neutral construct that gets it labeled negative or positive.

Section II: Latest antecedents and moderators shaping positive POPs

POPs may be viewed as a manifestation of social influence processes that are essentially neutral. It is the purpose of the respective behavior that renders it positive or negative (Pfeffer, 1992), and hence the nature of outcomes. Several factors seem to shape employees' perceptions of organizational politics. These factors, with a high frequency of citation, share a lot in common with the classification provided by Ferris et al. (2002).

3.2. Organizational factors

3.2.1. Organizational democracy

When employees enjoy transparent and accountable management within a system of organizational democracy, negative political behavior declines (Turabik and Baskan, 2019). Political behaviors exhibited for the purpose of obtaining resources will decrease in the presence of fair resource sharing through participatory decision-making. Since employees are more likely to adopt rules that are shaped by their own decisions, conflicts and, consequently, political behaviors should decrease in a democratic workplace (Turabik and Baskan, 2019). There is a negative relationship between organizational democracy, on the one hand, and the frequency of encountering political behaviors. Organizational democracy predicts the frequency of encountering political behaviors (Turabik and Baskan, 2019). It is associated with increased job satisfaction, innovation, stakeholder attachment, and organizational performance through positive POPs (Harrison and Freeman, 2004; Kesen, 2015).

3.2.2. Leader-member exchange

Leader-member exchange has been investigated in several studies as a predictor of POPs (Miller and Nicols, 2008; Rosen et al., 2011). The leader-member exchange theory underpinning this relationship emphasizes the dyadic nature of the relationship between the leader and the subordinates (Humphrey, 2014). Leaders are assumed to adopt different leadership styles for different subordinates. The styles range from being friendly and close on one hand to being formal and impersonal on the other (Humphrey, 2014). Accordingly, some of the employees are designated as the 'in-group members' while others represent the 'out-group members' (Miller and Nicols, 2008). The leader supervises 'in-group members' in a personal manner, while the relationship with 'out-group members' is impersonal (Humphrey, 2014).

Several research findings have established a link between leader-member exchange and POPs (e.g., Rosen et al., 2011; Williams et al., 2016; Al Jisr et al., 2020). The construct has been found to be negatively related to POPs where relationships are poor (Miller and Nicols, 2008; Ferris and Kacmar, 1992; Kacmar et al., 1999). When employees have better relationships with their leader, they are less likely to consider the workplace as political. In good exchanges between subordinates and their

supervisor, information access and trust are increased, therefore leading to reduced political activity (Atinc et al., 2010). In low-quality exchanges, subordinates distrust their supervisor because the latter does not give them the support and rewards they need (Andrews and Kacmar, 2001).

3.2.3. Information technology

The introduction of information technology (IT) in organizations affects POPs in a number of ways. First, IT use redistributes power among organizational members: conferring more power on some and reducing the power of others. The beneficiaries of this power redistribution are likely to reward an organization by engaging in positive organizational citizenship behaviors, such as improved individual performance, job satisfaction, and lower labor turnover (Opoku et al., 2020). Second, IT use distributes non-randomly, the information required for coping with uncertainty, role ambiguity, and role conflict (Opoku et al., 2020). By distributing such information, the use of IT, therefore, allows organizational members to cope with the uncertainty brought about by the work environment.

Third, the use of IT enhances feedback pertaining to organizational policies and practices (Maslyn et al., 2017). When employees are afforded a chance to scrutinize organizational policies and practices, a perception of fairness and justice develops. POPs develop with the concomitant benefits of work attitudes and behaviors. Fourth, IT promotes centralized structures, leading to clarity of organizational rules (Maslyn et al., 2017). This again reduces role ambiguity and lowers the negative perception of organizational politics. Collectively, IT use results in a reduction of negative perceptions of organizational politics in the workplace (and an increase in positive political labeling).

3.3. Contextual factors

3.3.1. Co-worker cooperation

Co-worker cooperation is defined as “the quality of the relationship between an employee and his or her co-workers” (Andrews and Kacmar, 2001, p. 353). It is a form of social support and teamwork among members working in the same organization (Harris et al., 2005). According to Poon (2006), helping co-workers is a voluntary behavior that is costly and time-consuming for those employees who engage in it. Nevertheless, cooperative behavior is important for the organization to adapt to environmental changes. In reality, support and cooperation between co-workers alleviate the negative effects of the work environment by lowering competition over scarce resources and reducing self-serving behavior (Atinc et al., 2010). Cooperation also builds understanding among co-workers and enables them to cope with the adversities of the work environment (Valle et al., 2003).

The POPs literature that has explored the relationship between politics and coworker cooperation, notes the existence of an inverse relationship (e.g., Andrews and Kacmar, 2001; Harris et al., 2005; Poon, 2006). The cooperation among co-workers decreases POPs (Harris et al., 2005; Andrews and Kacmar, 2001; Parker et al., 1995; etc.). When intergroup cooperation exists, organizational members are less likely to compete over resources (Parker et al., 1995). The higher the cooperation among co-workers, the lower their perceptions of politics in the workplace.

3.3.2. Coping strategies

Cavanaugh et al. (2000) argued that workers appraise workplace stressors as either challenges or hindrances. Challenge stressors represent motivating obstacles (LePine et al., 2005), problems to overcome, and ones considered solvable. Though stressful, challenge stressors produce eustress, a positive feeling of achievement. Hindrance stressors, in contrast, are characterized as impasses, strain increasing, and demotivating (LePine et al., 2005), which result in distress, and a feeling of depletion. In response to these stressors, employees may activate one of two different coping strategies: (i) problem-focused coping, which involves employees industriously seeking ways to solve and overcome the threat, and (ii) emotion-focused coping (Carver and Connor-Smith, 2010; Nes and Segerstrom, 2006), in which employees attempt to alleviate negative stress effects through unresponsive actions, such as withdrawal or denial. Research supports the assumption that problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping both reduce stress and increase well-being. Research has also shown that problem-focused coping strategies are useful for controllable stressors but are potentially damaging responses to uncontrollable stressors (Aldridge and Roesch, 2007). Similarly, emotion-focused coping is most beneficial for uncontrollable stressors (Austenfeld and Stanton, 2004). Ultimately, employees who utilize emotion-coping strategies evaluate POPs as high due to their lack of resources to play the ‘political game’. Conversely, employees who utilize problem-focused strategies evaluate workplaces as having low POPs due to their ‘ability’ to manage the stressors.

3.3.3. Leadership style

Several studies have shown that organizational politics is strongly related to fairness and justice in the workplace (Kacmar and Ferris, 1991; Ferris and Kacmar, 1992; Butcher and Clarke, 2002; etc.). The managerial strategy underlying the transformational leadership style reinforces moral values, thereby contributing positively to feelings of fairness and justice (Kacmar and Ferris, 1991). This style of leadership may therefore create a positive organizational climate that supports professionalism and excellence, resulting in reduced POPs. In addition, the transparency in decision-making processes that characterizes the transformational leader may also contribute to reducing the POPs by strengthening the belief that both the leader and the organization are fair and just (Kacmar and Ferris, 1991; Ferris and Kacmar, 1992; Ferris et al., 1996).

The transformational leadership style reduces the POPs in organizations because it offers a vision, a mission, and an operative plan for goal achievement (Humphrey, 2014). Reduced ambiguity and uncertainty validate the feeling that it is possible to deal with organizational challenges in a way based on justice and fairness. Transformational leadership thus creates a positive organizational climate that supports professionalism and excellence resulting in reduced POPs. In sum, transformational leadership has characteristics that could reduce POPs among employees.

3.4. Employee skills

Political skill

Political skill is the ability to understand others at work and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives. Politically skilled employees are socially astute, can effectively read others, and have the ability to self-regulate and adapt to different situations (Andrews and Kacmar, 2009). With high political skills, employees who have outstanding capacities in networking can usually acquire more opportunities to meet, communicate, and cooperate with leaders than other employees, which can help to deepen mutual understanding and establish good personal relationships. Further, it is argued that to attain success, politically skilled individuals are more likely to perform organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) as a way to distinguish themselves from others (Jawahar et al., 2008). Besides, the sincerity of employees with high political skills is likely to attract their leaders' trust and faith. This is also very important for building and maintaining leader-member relationships. Employees with high political skills therefore have a capacity to adopt positive behavior that improves the whole organization as well as helps colleagues solve problems. This helps employees label the politics positively.

3.5. Personality factors

The personality of an employee plays a vital role in the way an individual perceives organizational politics and justice in the workplace.

3.5.1. Locus of control

A locus of control orientation is "a belief about whether the outcomes of our actions are contingent on what we do (internal control orientation) or on events outside our personal control (external control orientation)." (Zimbardo, 1985, p. 275). Employees with external locus of control perceive the workplace as more political because they attribute anything that happens to them to external factors. The opposite is true for employees with an internal locus of control. This relationship was substantiated in a number of research findings (Andrews and Kacmar, 2001; Miller and Nicols, 2008; Agarwal, 2016; etc.). POPs mediate the relationship between locus of control and POPs consequences. Internals therefore believe that the outcomes earned are based on the energy and effort that employees expend (Galvin et al., 2018). Internals are less likely to perceive higher workplace politics.

3.5.2. Emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence refers to an aptitude to manage oneself as well as other stakeholders (Louw and Venter, 2019). There are two sets of competencies: those for managing oneself, and those for managing one's relationships. The competencies for managing oneself are self-awareness, self-regulation, and motivation. Self-awareness relates to understanding one's "emotions, values and goals" and how these affect others (Louw and Venter, 2019, p. 425). Introspection involves identifying one's strengths and weaknesses, capabilities, and strategic direction (Gorgens-Ekermans and Roux, 2021). Research has shown that emotional intelligence improves work outcomes, such as job satisfaction, job performance, and conflict resolution (Mayer et

al., 2008; Meisler, 2013). Emotional intelligence affects how organizational politics is perceived (Meisler and Vigoda-Gadot, 2017) through a number of mechanisms. First, emotional intelligence increases the quality of interactions with others, which in turn leads to lower perceptions of organizational politics. POPs mediate the effect of emotional intelligence on work outcomes. Second, emotional intelligence improves leader-member exchange, resulting in a lower perception of organizational politics. It is therefore negatively related to POPs.

3.6. Moderator variables

Three factors (tenacity, passion for work, and social capital) affect the direction and/or strength of the relationship between antecedents and positive POP consequences (Baron and Kenny, 1986).

3.6.1. Tenacity

Tenacity refers to employees' perseverance or persistence in their efforts to achieve work-related goals, which is useful in adverse work situations (Baum and Locke, 2004; De Clercq and Belauuigoitia, 2017). Tenacious employees have the stamina and focus, to deal with the challenges that arise in strongly politicized organizational climates. They also overcome the resistance they encounter in their efforts to address unfavorable organizational conditions (De Clercq and Belausteguigoita, 2017). Ultimately, employees with strong tenacity can protect themselves from the threats of negative POPs and thus remain emotionally attached to their employers, with positive consequences for the organizations. Tenacity therefore moderates the antecedent and positive POP consequences relationship.

3.6.2. Passionate about work

Employees, who are passionate about their work, experience a positive sense of accomplishment when they are able to overcome work-related challenges (Vallerand et al., 2003). Similarly, employees who are passionate about their work can draw from significant positive energy that enables them to cope with self-serving organizational climates. They may derive a sense of personal accomplishment when they can address the associated challenges (Vallerand et al., 2003). Ultimately, these employees could protect themselves from the threats of POPs and thus remain emotionally attached to their employer.

Tenacity and passion for work function as buffers, such that the escalation of perceived organizational politics into diminished helping behavior is less likely. These buffers allow employees the discretionary energy to counter negative POPs. The negative relationship between perceived organizational politics and affective commitment is weaker among employees equipped with higher levels of tenacity and/or passion for work. These two variables, moderate the relationship between POPs and desired organizational outcomes.

3.6.3. Social capital

The construct represents an investment in social relations for mutual benefits (Klein, 2013). Sherif et al. (2006) associated social capital with the exchange of knowledge among employees. It is a network of mutual trust among employees, which helps in increasing creativity and efficiency (Sozbilir, 2018). It leads to powerful

societal outcomes (Lange, 2015) and helps individuals and organizations to solve conflicts, excel in learning, and increase performance. Jay and Andersen (2018) examined the relationship between social capital and workplace stress among 500 laboratory technicians. In this cross-sectional study, social capital helped employees against perceived stress. Boyas et al. (2012) examined the relationship between social capital, job stress, and turnover intentions among child protection workers in the USA. The results suggest that social capital is helpful in reducing stress, burnout, and turnover intentions among old workers as compared to young workers. This shows that age also matters in this regard. Social capital moderates the relationship between POPs and employee outcomes in terms of job stress, job satisfaction, and turnover intention (Lange, 2015).

Section III: Theoretical perspectives

Notwithstanding the lack of a POPs unifying theory, a number of theories and models have been adopted to explain the effect of antecedents, mediators, and moderators on work outcomes. Theories have been used to explain the relationship between antecedents and POPs and between POPs and work outcomes. The POPs are considered negative or positive out of the “idiosyncratic uniqueness of the perceiver” (Byrne et al., 2017, p. 6). The labeling of a work situation by employees is therefore dependent on the individual. The same theories that were used to label perceived politics as a negative phenomenon have been adopted to label the construct positive.

The conservation of resources (COR) theory (Sun and Chen, 2017) is the most commonly used theory to explain an individual employee’s perception of politics. The basic tenet of COR theory is that to maximize hedonic pleasure and future successes, individuals seek to maintain ‘resources,’ the absence of which produces an aversive, stressful state (i.e., strain). For example, one class of resources that the COR theory outlines is personal characteristics, such as political skill (Seitz and Misra, 2020), social capital (Jay and Andersen, 2018), emotional intelligence (Meisler and Vigoda-Gadot, 2017), tenacity, and passion for work (de Clercq et al., 2021). It has been argued that POPs threaten and diminish such resources (Halbesleben and Wheeler 2006; Harris et al. 2009), leaving individuals strained and unable to steel themselves against stressors (Hochwarter et al. 2020). The availability of these resources has a positive effect on POPs.

According to the attribution theory (Kacmar et al., 2013), employees who are capable of finding solutions to difficult “work situations tend to feel less overpowered by job situations and thus have a lower need to find scapegoats for the experienced hardships” (Clercq et al., 2021, p. 2244). Their ability to address such challenges reduces their tendency to blame an organization for its failures. Consequently, organizational members are demotivated to label these work situations as negative. Employees in possession of these solutions are likely to label perceived politics as positive because they can protect themselves from the threats of POPs. They remain emotionally attached to their employer, with positive consequences for their propensity to extend voluntary help to organizational colleagues.

The leader-member exchange (LMX) theory (Williams et al., 2016) is also a predictor of POPs. It is a relationship-based, dyadic theory of leadership. According to this theory, leadership resides in the quality of the exchange relationship developed between leaders and their followers. High-quality exchanges are characterized by trust,

liking, and mutual respect. The quality of this relationship has implications for job-related well-being and the effectiveness of employees. Improved trust and mutual respect in the exchange process reduce negativity associated with the work environment, leading to positive perceptions of politics.

Researchers have also used the social exchange theory (Crawford et al., 2019) to explain employees' reactions to POPs (Cropanzano et al., 1997; Rosen et al., 2014). Organizations exist in social marketplaces wherein employees and employers exchange resources, such that employers offer both concrete (e.g., pay) and symbolic resources (e.g., socio-emotional resources that indicate an individual is competent, supported, and considered a person of worth) in exchange for employee productivity. Employees seek balance in their exchange relationships. As such, employees are more likely to develop negative attitudes toward the organization and be less likely to maintain performance levels when they perceive their exchange partner is not providing expected resources. If the exchange is perceived as fair, POPs are labeled positive (Rosen et al., 2009).

The challenge-hindrane model is also associated with labeling POPs. The model identifies workplace stressors as falling into two categories: hindrance and challenge stressors. Hindrances and stressors interfere with performance goals. They do not provide opportunities for growth and development, e.g., poor equipment, ambiguity, and interruptions that prevent employees from performing their jobs well (Opoku et al., 2020). Challenge stressors, on the other hand, contribute to performance opportunities. They provide opportunities for feelings of accomplishment, growth, and development, e.g., workloads and deadlines (Mazzola and Disselhorst, 2019). Successful management of high workloads and scheduled deadlines by employees creates a sense of achievement resulting from high performance. Contrary to numerous conclusions on the negative effect of stressors, positive outcomes have been recorded, such as job satisfaction (Opoku et al., 2020), organizational loyalty (Spurk et al., 2021), and job performance (Abbas and Raja, 2019). The labeling of POPs under these circumstances is positive.

Each of these theories helps shed light on how perceptions, herein regarded as a neutral variable, are shaped either positively or negatively. When perceptions are positive, they become a catalyst for organizational growth. A combination of these theories could therefore help management influence employees' perceptions of organizational politics.

4. Discussion and conclusions

POPs, like several independent variables in organizational settings, make use of employee outcomes as their transmission mechanism to realize desired organizational consequences. The reactive and reluctant perspectives have rendered the phenomenon ineffective in engineering the desired organizational consequences. The strategic and integrated perspectives see POPs as playing a positive and value-adding role in achieving organizational outcomes.

This review sought to achieve two objectives. The first objective sought to establish the antecedents that influence POPs positively, such that the phenomenon plays a constructive role in organizations. There are four essential antecedents of

positive POPs: organizational, personality, employee, and contextual influences. These influences weigh in to influence how employees and managers perceive organizational politics. Organizational influences establish an organization-wide conducive environment for healthy manager-employee engagements. Accountable management (Turabik and Baskan, 2019), cordial relationships between management and subordinates (Al Jisr et al., 2020), and investment in information technology (Opoku et al., 2020), influence internal stakeholders' POPs. They influence managers and employees to adopt strategic and/or integrative perspectives when viewing POPs.

The enabling macro-environment alone is, however, inadequate to buttress a positive perception. The contextual (work environment) factors reinforce these perceptions by alleviating the negative effects arising from the organizational environment. Improved co-worker cooperation (Atinc et al., 2010), use of product-focused coping strategies (Carver and Connor-Smith, 2010), and transformational leadership style (Humphrey, 2014) help further the organizational micro-environment.

The personality and skills of employees also influence how employees and managers perceive organizational politics. The ability to enhance leader-subordinate relationships results in increased trust and mutual understanding. This augments the leader-member relationship through organizational influences. Employees' emotional intelligence and locus of control bring personal characteristics into play to influence one's view of the construct. Overall, there is a lack of consensus on the significant antecedents that influence POPs. Many studies are restricted to 'picking a few variables' from an inventory list (Atnic et al., 2010). Atinc et al. (2010) examined twenty-six primary antecedents, finding significant associations for just thirteen. There has also been no consensus on the role of antecedents in the model. The majority of studies show the antecedents as having an indirect effect on work outcomes, with POPs having an intervening role. Other studies have antecedents having a direct effect on work outcomes, with POPs playing a moderating role in the antecedent-work-outcomes relationship. Research on the antecedents of POPs has grown wider in recent years as researchers seek to add those that have a positive influence too. This growth was anticipated, given the subjective nature of the phenomenon (Hochwarter et al., 2020). It seems unlikely that the discipline will mature based on the significant antecedents that influence POPs positively, with the list continuing to expand.

The second objective sought to establish variables that moderate the effect of POPs on positive organizational outcomes. Alongside many antecedents, there has been a proliferation of moderators purported to explain relationships between POPs and work outcomes. The most identified moderators are tenacity, social capital, and passion for work. The list continues to grow with each new research project. There is, however, an absence of moderating variables to explain relationships between antecedents and POP variables. This gap is recommended for future research. Ferris et al. (1989, 2002) model limited moderating effects on personal characteristics (Yang, 2017; Rosen et al., 2011). The mediating role of POPs between antecedents and outcomes is well documented (Vigoda, 2000; Ferris et al., 2002; Atinc et al., 2010; etc.).

There has, however, been no growth in terms of forward progression or depth. This is in part due to the limitations imposed by the foundational models (Ferris et al., 1989; 2002) in the categorization of antecedents. There has been consensus, though,

on work outcomes in POPs research. POPs impact job involvement, job satisfaction, anxiety, withdrawal, commitment, justice, trust, cynicism, and performance (Ferris et al., 2002; Atinc et al., 2010; Hochwarter et al., 2020), in-role performance (Vigoda, 2000), organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and perceived innovation (Parker et al., 1995; Atinc et al., 2010; Hochwarter et al., 2020). The most researched outcomes are job stress/anxiety, individual performance, job satisfaction, commitment, trust, justice, and organizational citizenship behavior.

POPs are essentially neutral. It is employees who render it positive or negative. Organizational politics is not a concrete and objective construct. As such, employee behaviors are a response to POPs (Gandz and Murray, 1980), which is what they think organizational politics was like at the time.

5. Limitations

This research makes use of 66 peer-reviewed articles to evaluate the positive POPs. More articles were ideal for the 13-year period under review. This would have led to a better understanding of previously under-researched conceptualized POP relationships. The exclusion of non-profit organizations in this study makes it low on population validity. Results from this sub-sector would have been helpful in a sectoral comparison of attitudes amongst organizational members towards POPs. All studies carried out were cross-sectional in nature. They relied primarily on single-source survey approaches, often collected at one point in time. Although there are times when this approach is warranted, a mix of longitudinal designs is ideal in order to capture discrete political events that take time to evolve. POPs are a dynamic construct, and as such, they need to be studied over a period of time.

Conflict of interest: The author declares no conflict of interest.

References

- Abbas, M., Raja, U., Anjum, M., & Bouckennooghe, D. (2018). Perceived competence and impression management: Testing the mediating and moderating mechanisms. *International Journal of Psychology*, 54(5), 668–677. Portico. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ijop.12515>
- Agarwal, U. A. (2016). Examining perceived organizational politics among Indian managers. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 24(3), 415–437. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ijoa-07-2014-0786>
- Aggarwal, A., Goyal, J., & Nobl, K. (2018). Examining the Impact of Leader-Member Exchange on Perceptions of Organizational Justice: The Mediating Role of Perceptions of Organizational Politics. *Theoretical Economics Letters*, 08(11), 2308–2329. <https://doi.org/10.4236/tel.2018.811150>
- Al Jisr, S. A., Beydoun, A. R., & Mostapha, N. (2020). A model of perceptions of politics: antecedents and outcomes. *Journal of Management Development*, 39(9/10), 1013–1028. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jmd-12-2019-0503>
- Aldridge, A. A., & Roesch, S. C. (2006). Coping and Adjustment in Children with Cancer: A Meta-Analytic Study. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, 30(2), 115–129. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10865-006-9087-y>
- Andrews, M. C., & Kacmar, K. M. (2001). Discriminating among organizational politics, justice, and support. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 22(4), 347–366. Portico. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.92>
- Andrews, M. C., Kacmar, K. M., & Harris, K. J. (2009). Got political skill? The impact of justice on the importance of political skill for job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(6), 1427–1437. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0017154>
- Atinc, G., Darrat, M., Fuller, B., & Parker, B. (2010). “Perceptions of organizational politics: A meta-analysis of theoretical antecedents”, *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 22, 494–513.

- Austenfeld, J. L., & Stanton, A. L. (2004). Coping Through Emotional Approach: A New Look at Emotion, Coping, and Health-Related Outcomes. *Journal of Personality*, 72(6), 1335–1364. Portico. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.2004.00299.x>
- Baum, J. R., & Locke, E. A. (2004). The Relationship of Entrepreneurial Traits, Skill, and Motivation to Subsequent Venture Growth. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(4), 587–598. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.4.587>
- Bedi, A., & Schat, A. C. H. (2013). Perceptions of organizational politics: A meta-analysis of its attitudinal, health, and behavioural consequences. *Canadian Psychology/Psychologie Canadienne*, 54(4), 246–259. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0034549>
- Boyas, J., Wind, L. H., & Kang, S.-Y. (2012). Exploring the relationship between employment-based social capital, job stress, burnout, and intent to leave among child protection workers: An age-based path analysis model. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 34(1), 50–62. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2011.08.033>
- Buchanan, D., & Badham, R. (2020). *Power, politics, and organizational change*. Sage.
- Byrne, Z. S., Manning, S. G., Weston, J. W., & Hochwarter, W. A. (2017). All Roads Lead to Well-Being: Unexpected Relationships Between Organizational Politics Perceptions, Employee Engagement, and Worker Well-Being. *Power, Politics, and Political Skill in Job Stress*, 1–32. <https://doi.org/10.1108/s1479-355520170000015003>
- Carver, C. S., & Connor-Smith, J. (2010). Personality and Coping. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 61(1), 679–704. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.093008.100352>
- Chang, C.-H., Rosen, C. C., & Levy, P. E. (2009). The Relationship Between Perceptions of Organizational Politics and Employee Attitudes, Strain, and Behavior: A Meta-Analytic Examination. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(4), 779–801. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2009.43670894>
- Crawford, W. S., Thompson, M. J., & Ashforth, B. E. (2019). Work-Life Events Theory: Making Sense of Shock Events in Dual-Earner Couples. *Academy of Management Review*, 44(1), 194–212. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2016.0432>
- De Clercq, D., Shu, C., & Gu, M. (2022). Overcoming organizational politics with tenacity and passion for work: benefits for helping behaviors. *Personnel Review*, 52(1), 1–25. <https://doi.org/10.1108/pr-09-2020-0699>
- Elbanna, S., Kapoutsis, I., & Mellahi, K. (2017). Creativity and propitiousness in strategic decision making. *Management Decision*, 55(10), 2218–2236. <https://doi.org/10.1108/md-02-2017-0113>
- Eldor, L. (2016). Looking on the bright side: the positive role of organizational politics in the relationship between employee engagement and work performance. *Handbook of Organizational Politics*. <https://doi.org/10.4337/9781784713492.00017>
- Ellen, B. P. (2014). Considering the positive possibilities of leader political behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 35(6), 892–896. Portico. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1938>
- Ferris, G. R., & Kacmar, K. M. (1992). Perceptions of Organizational Politics. *Journal of Management*, 18(1), 93–116. <https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639201800107>
- Ferris, G. R., Adams, G., Kolodinsky, R. W., et al. (2002). Perceptions of organizational politics: Theory and research directions. *The Many Faces of Multi-Level Issues*, 179–254. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s1475-9144\(02\)01034-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/s1475-9144(02)01034-2)
- Ferris, G. R., Ellen, B. P., McAllister, C. P., & Maher, L. P. (2019). Reorganizing Organizational Politics Research: A Review of the Literature and Identification of Future Research Directions. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 6(1), 299–323. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-012218-015221>
- Ferris, G. R., Frink, D. D., Galang, M. C., et al. (1996). Perceptions of Organizational Politics: Prediction, Stress-Related Implications, and Outcomes. *Human Relations*, 49(2), 233–266. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001872679604900206>
- Ferris, G. R., Harrell-Cook, G., & Dulebohn, J. H. (2000). Organizational politics: The nature of the relationship between politics perceptions and political behavior. *Research in the Sociology of Organizations*, 89–130. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0733-558x\(00\)17004-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0733-558x(00)17004-1)
- Ferris, G. R., Perrewé, P. L., Daniels, S. R., et al. (2016). Social Influence and Politics in Organizational Research. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 24(1), 5–19. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051816656003>
- Ferris, G., Russ, G., & Fandt, P. (1989). Politics in organizations. In: Giacalone R., Rosenfeld P. (editors). *Impression management in the organization*. Erlbaum. pp. 143-170.
- Ferris, G.R., Hochwarter, W.A., Buckley, M.R., et al. (1999). Human resources management: Some new directions. *Journal of management*, 25(3), 385-415.
- Ferris, G.R., Treadway, D.C. (2012). *Politics in organizations: History, construct specification, and research directions*. Routledge. pp. 37-60.

- Fleming, P., & Spicer, A. (2008). Beyond Power and Resistance. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 21(3), 301–309. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0893318907309928>
- Frone, M. R. (2018). What happened to the employed during the Great Recession? A U.S. population study of net change in employee insecurity, health, and organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 107, 246–260. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2018.05.001>
- Galvin, B. M., Randel, A. E., Collins, B. J., & Johnson, R. E. (2018). Changing the focus of locus (of control): A targeted review of the locus of control literature and agenda for future research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 39(7), 820–833. Portico. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2275>
- Gandz, J., & Murray, V. V. (1980). The Experience of Workplace Politics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 23(2), 237–251. <https://doi.org/10.2307/255429>
- Gotsis, G. N., & Kortezi, Z. (2009). Ethical Considerations in Organizational Politics: Expanding the Perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 93(4), 497–517. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-009-0241-7>
- Hall, A. T., Hochwarter, W. A., Ferris, G. R., & Bowen, M. G. (2004). The dark side of politics in organizations. In: Griffin RW, O’Leary-Kelly A (editors). *The dark side of organizational behavior*. John Wiley & Sons. pp. 237-261.
- Haroon, A., Hussain, Y., & Nawaz, M. M. (2017). The influence of perceived organizational politics on employee performance: A case study of Lahore, Pakistan. *American Journal of Social Science Research*, 3(3), 7-11.
- Harrell-Cook, G., Ferris, G. R., & Dulebohn, J. (1999). Political behaviours as moderators of the perception of organizational politics-work outcomes relationships. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 10, 1093-1105.
- Harris, K.J., James, M., & Boonthanom, R. (2005). Perceptions of organizational politics and cooperation as moderators of the relationship between job strains and intent to turnover. *Journal of Managerial issues*, pp. 26-42.
- Hochwarter, W. (2012). The positive side of organizational politics. In: Ferris G, Treadway D (editors). *Politics in organizations: Theory and research considerations*. Routledge. pp. 20-45.
- Hochwarter, W. A., Rosen, C. C., Jordan, S. L., et al. (2020). Perceptions of Organizational Politics Research: Past, Present, and Future. *Journal of Management*, 46(6), 879–907. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206319898506>
- Humphrey, R. H. (2014). *Effective leadership: Theory, Cases, and Applications*. SAGE Publications.
- Jawahar, I. M., Meurs, J. A., Ferris, G. R., & Hochwarter, W. A. (2008). Self-Efficacy and Political Skill as Comparative Predictors of Task and Contextual Performance: A Two-Study Constructive Replication. *Human Performance*, 21(2), 138–157. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08959280801917685>
- Jay, K., & Andersen, L. L. (2018). Can high social capital at the workplace buffer against stress and musculoskeletal pain? *Medicine*, 97(12), e0124. <https://doi.org/10.1097/md.00000000000010124>
- Kacmar, K. M., & Ferris, G. R. (1991). Perceptions of Organizational Politics Scale (POPS): Development and Construct Validation. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 51(1), 193–205. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013164491511019>
- Kacmar, K. M., Andrews, M. C., Harris, K. J., & Tepper, B. J. (2012). Ethical Leadership and Subordinate Outcomes: The Mediating Role of Organizational Politics and the Moderating Role of Political Skill. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 115(1), 33–44. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-012-1373-8>
- Kacmar, K. M., Bozeman, D. P., Carlson, D. S., & Anthony, W. P. (1999). An Examination of the Perceptions of Organizational Politics Model: Replication and Extension. *Human Relations*, 52(3), 383–416. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001872679905200305>
- Kesen, M. (2015). Investigating the effects of organizational democracy and organizational identification on job satisfaction: a field study on retail industry. *IIB International Refereed Academic Social Sciences Journal*, 6(19), 61-78.
- Khan, H., Abbas, J., Kumari, K., & Najam, H. (2022). Corporate level politics from managers and employees perspective and its impact on employees’ job stress and job performance. *Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences*. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jeas-12-2021-0246>
- Khattak, M. N., Zolin, R., & Muhammad, N. (2020). The combined effect of perceived organizational injustice and perceived politics on deviant behaviors. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 32(1), 62–87. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ijcma-12-2019-0220>
- Klein, C. (2011). Social Capital or Social Cohesion: What Matters For Subjective Well-Being? *Social Indicators Research*, 110(3), 891–911. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-011-9963-x>
- Landells, E. M., & Albrecht, S. L. (2015). The Positives and Negatives of Organizational Politics: A Qualitative Study. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 32(1), 41–58. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-015-9434-5>

- Lange, T. (2014). Social capital and job satisfaction: The case of Europe in times of economic crisis. *European Journal of Industrial Relations*, 21(3), 275–290. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0959680114542907>
- Lepine, J. A., Podsakoff, N. P., & Lepine, M. A. (2005). A Meta-Analytic Test of the Challenge Stressor–Hindrance Stressor Framework: An Explanation for Inconsistent Relationships Among Stressors and Performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(5), 764–775. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2005.18803921>
- Lewin, K. (1936). *Principles of topological psychology*. (F. Heider & G. M. Heider, Trans.). McGraw-Hill. <https://doi.org/10.1037/10019-000>
- Maslyn, J. M., Schyns, B., & Farmer, S. M. (2017). Attachment style and leader-member exchange. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 38(3), 450–462. <https://doi.org/10.1108/lodj-01-2016-0023>
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2008). Emotional intelligence: New ability or eclectic traits? *American Psychologist*, 63(6), 503–517. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066x.63.6.503>
- Mazzola, J. J., & Disselhorst, R. (2019). Should we be “challenging” employees?: A critical review and meta-analysis of the challenge hindrance model of stress. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 40(8), 949–961. Portico. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2412>
- Meisler, G. (2013). Empirical exploration of the relationship between emotional intelligence, perceived organizational justice and turnover intentions. *Employee Relations*, 35(4), 441–455. <https://doi.org/10.1108/er-05-2012-0041>
- Meisler, G., Vigoda-Gadot, E., & Drory, A. (2017). Stress, Psychological Strain, and Reduced Organizational Effectiveness: The Destructive Consequences of the Use of Intimidation and Pressure by Supervisors. *Power, Politics, and Political Skill in Job Stress*, 51–80. <https://doi.org/10.1108/s1479-355520170000015005>
- Miller, B.K., & Nicols, K.M., (2008). Politics and justice: A mediated moderation model. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 214–237.
- Mintzberg, H. (1985). The organization as political arena. *Journal of Management Studies*, 22(2), 133–154. Portico. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.1985.tb00069.x>
- Mishra, P., Sharma, S. K., & Swami, S. (2016). Antecedents and consequences of organizational politics: a select study of a central university. *Journal of Advances in Management Research*, 13(3), 334–351. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jamr-05-2015-0033>
- Nes, L. S., & Segerstrom, S. C. (2006). Dispositional Optimism and Coping: A Meta-Analytic Review. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 10(3), 235–251. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327957pspr1003_3
- Nyathi, M. (2022). The effect of electronic human resource management on electronic human resource management macro-level consequences: the role of perception of organizational politics. *African Journal of Economic and Management Studies*, 15(1), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ajems-04-2022-0168>
- Opoku, F. K., Acquah, I. S. K., & Issau, K. (2021). HRM Practice and Innovative Work Behavior: Organisational Politics as Mediator and Personal Locus of Control as Moderator. *Journal of Business and Enterprise Development (JOBED)*, 9. <https://doi.org/10.47963/jobed.v9i.181>
- Parker, C. P., Dipboye, R. L., & Jackson, S. L. (1995). Perceptions of Organizational Politics: An Investigation of Antecedents and Consequences. *Journal of Management*, 21(5), 891–912. <https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639502100505>
- Perrewé, P. L., Ferris, G. R., Frink, D. D., & Anthony, W. P. (2000). Political skill: An antidote for workplace stressors. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 14(3), 115–123. <https://doi.org/10.5465/ame.2000.4468071>
- Pettigrew, A., & McNulty, T. (1995). Power and Influence in and Around the Boardroom. *Human Relations*, 48(8), 845–873. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001872679504800802>
- Pfeffer, J. (1992). Understanding Power in Organizations. *California Management Review*, 34(2), 29–50. <https://doi.org/10.2307/41166692>
- Poon, J. M., Rahid, M. R., & Othman, A.S. (2006). Trust-in-supervisor: Antecedents and effect on affective organizational commitment. *Asian Academy of Management Journal*, 11(2), 35–50.
- Richter, M., & König, C. J. (2017). Explaining individuals’ justification of layoffs. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 47(6), 331–346. Portico. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jasp.12442>
- Rosen, C. C., & Hochwarter, W. A. (2014). Looking back and falling further behind: The moderating role of rumination on the relationship between organizational politics and employee attitudes, well-being, and performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 124(2), 177–189. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2014.03.003>
- Rosen, C. C., Harris, K. J., & Kacmar, K. M. (2009). The emotional implications of organizational politics: A process model. *Human Relations*, 62(1), 27–57. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726708099836>

- Rosen, C. C., Harris, K. J., & Kacmar, K. M. (2010). LMX, Context Perceptions, and Performance: An Uncertainty Management Perspective. *Journal of Management*, 37(3), 819–838. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206310365727>
- Sherif, K., & Sherif, S. A. (2006). Think Social Capital Before You Think Knowledge Transfer. *International Journal of Knowledge Management*, 2(3), 21–32. <https://doi.org/10.4018/jkm.2006070102>
- Sözbilir, F. (2018). The interaction between social capital, creativity and efficiency in organizations. *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, 27, 92–100. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tsc.2017.12.006>
- Sun, S., & Chen, H. (2017). Is political behavior a viable coping strategy to perceived organizational politics? Unveiling the underlying resource dynamics. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 102(10), 1471–1482. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000239>
- Turabik, T., & Atanur Baskan, G. (2020). The relationship between organizational democracy and political behaviors in universities. *Journal of Applied Research in Higher Education*, 12(5), 1135–1146. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jarhe-08-2019-0204>
- Ullah, R., & Ahmad, S. Z. (2018). The effect of organizational politics on job stress; mediating role of job satisfaction. *Electronic Journal of Business Ethics and Organization Studies*, 23(2), 1-31.
- Valle, M., Kacmar, K. M., & Zivnuska, S. (2003). Self-efficacy, outcome expectations and organizational politics perceptions. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management*, 5, 18-30.
- Vallerand, R. J., Houlfort, N., & Fores, J. (2003). Passion at work. *Emerging perspectives on values in organizations*. 6(8), 175-204.
- Vigoda, E. (2000). Organizational Politics, Job Attitudes, and Work Outcomes: Exploration and Implications for the Public Sector. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 57(3), 326–347. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1999.1742>
- Vigoda-Gadot, E., Vinarski-Peretz, H., & Ben-Zion, E. (2003). Politics and image in the organizational landscape. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 18(8), 764–787. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940310511872>
- Walter, J., Kellermanns, F. W., & Lechner, C. (2010). Decision Making Within and Between Organizations. *Journal of Management*, 38(5), 1582–1610. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206310363308>
- Williams, E. A., Scandura, T. A., Pissaris, S., & Woods, J. M. (2016). Justice perceptions, leader-member exchange, and upward influence tactics. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 37(7), 1000–1015. <https://doi.org/10.1108/lodj-02-2013-0021>
- Yang, F. (2016). Better understanding the perceptions of organizational politics: its impact under different types of work unit structure. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 26(2), 250–262. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432x.2016.1251417>

Review

Adoption of HR analytics to enhance employee retention in the workplace: A review

Kamalesh Ravesangar^{1,*}, Sivachandran Narayanan²¹ Department of Accounting and Business, Tunku Abdul Rahman University of Management and Technology, Penang 11200, Malaysia² Faculty of Business and Accountancy, Universiti Selangor (UNISEL), Batang Berjuntai 45600, Malaysia*** Corresponding author:** Kamalesh Ravesangar, anjalikha25@gmail.com**CITATION**

Ravesangar K, Narayanan S. (2024). Adoption of HR analytics to enhance employee retention in the workplace: A review. *Human Resources Management and Services*. 6(3): 3481.
<https://doi.org/10.18282/hrms.v6i3.3481>

ARTICLE INFO

Received: 6 June 2024

Accepted: 1 August 2024

Available online: 12 August 2024

COPYRIGHT

Copyright © 2024 by author(s).
Human Resources Management and Services is published by PiscoMed Publishing Pte. Ltd. This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license.
<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>

Abstract: Human resources (HR) analytics is garnering increasing interest each year and is set to play a pivotal role in the development of human resources. In the present era, numerous companies are harnessing the power of analytics to gain a competitive advantage by comprehending all the vital aspects of their workforce by enhancing employee retention through leveraging HR analytics to inform strategic HR choices. Many companies are now incorporating analytical tools into their HR function as a fact-based approach to develop relevant strategies and make informed decisions in managing their workforce more effectively. However, HR faces several challenges in implementing data analytics. Talent management commonly utilizes data analytics to enhance employee engagement, including retention rates, recruitment, job satisfaction, and happiness. This paper discusses the adoption of HR data analytics to enhance employee retention in the workplace. This study delves into the significance of HR data analytics in the realm of employee retention, aiming to assess the efficacy of data-driven decisions. A thorough examination of scholarly publications was undertaken, encompassing both indexed and non-indexed papers sourced from reputable electronic databases to gain insights into the present understanding of HR analytics and its influence on employee retention. The discussion uncovers that HR analytics has a noteworthy impact on improving employee retention in the workplace.

Keywords: HR; data analytics; employee retention; workplace

1. Introduction

The research of human resource (HR) analytics receiving great attention among scholars. The use of data in HR is referred to in terms such as “workforce analytics”, “human capital analytics” or “HR analytics”, among others. HR analytics is an emerging discipline, with several definitions of the term. HR analytics is defined as “processes to collect, transform and manage key HR related data and documents; to analyze the gathered information using business analytics models; and to disseminate the analysis results to decision makers for making intelligent decisions” (Jabir et al., 2019). It is also referred to as quantitative and qualitative data and information management that aims to gain insight and support decision-making processes regarding managing people in organizations (Handa and Garima, 2014; Zhao and Carlton, 2015). Marler and Boudreau (2017) defined it as “An HR practice enabled by information technology that uses descriptive, visual, and statistical analyses of data related to HR processes, human capital, organizational performance, and external economic benchmarks to establish business impact and to enable data-driven decision-making.” To simplify, HR analytics is a relatively novel intervention in the larger domain of human resource management (HRM), and it refers to the use of statistical

tools, measures, and procedures, which can be used in employing and masking the most effectual decisions such as HRM strategies and practices.

HR analytics is a paradigm shift from a traditional and intuitive-based approach to an evidence-based approach to accelerate decision-making processes to develop internal personnel as well as organizational performance to eventually attain profitability. HR analytics is a broad term to describe the use of big data and Internet-of-Things to derive insights which is relevant to various HR elements (LaValle et al., 2011). These various HR elements could range from getting information about the pool of prospective candidates for recruitment, supporting the decision-making process, enhancing HR processes more efficiently, and identifying and resolving HR issues. Besides those elements, HR analytics plays a crucial role in employee retention (Bulsari and Pandya, 2023).

Although the possibilities for HRM offered by analytics have been realized by employers and organizations, there remains immense room for growth in the area of retention of employees and the study of the relevance of analytics within the retention of employees. In today's dynamic working context, retaining great talent has emerged as a key priority for organizations across industries. Employee turnover not only interrupts operations but also incurs significant expenditures, ranging from recruitment fees to the loss of institutional knowledge. Recognizing the crucial importance of retaining competent workers, organizations are increasingly using HR analytics as a strategic tool to improve employee retention (Lee and Lee, 2024).

Therefore, the current study aims to investigate the existing literature on the relationship between HR analytics and the role they can play in improving employee retention. Throughout this systematic review, the study will evaluate existing literature on HR analytics and employee retention to provide a comprehensive understanding of the current state of knowledge in this domain, namely, (i) the development of HR analytics practices, (ii) implications for HR analytics on employees retention, (iii) factors affecting employee retention, (iv) HR data analytics enhance employee retention, (v) resource-based view (RBV) theory, and (vi) implications for HR analytics on employees retention.

2. HR analytical field in human resource management

Human resource management has emerged as a crucial functional area within organizations. According to Opatha and Uresha (2020), HRM refers to the effective and efficient utilization of human resources to accomplish the goals of an organization. The primary objective of HRM is to attract and retain competent and satisfied employees who can contribute their utmost towards achieving organizational objectives and goals. Human resources encompass all categories of employees working for the organization. In the current competitive business landscape, human resources have become a strategic asset for companies due to their rarity, value, uniqueness, and irreplaceability. Thus, employee retention is a crucial aspect for organizations as it pertains to their ability to retain employees for an extended period. In today's technologically advanced world, AI has been integrated to enhance employee retention in organizations. The growing interest from both professionals and scholars in utilizing AI in HRM (Vrontis et al., 2021) reinforces the assertion that

HRM has evolved into the most data-driven function within organizations. Specific AI capabilities that capture the attention of HR professionals include AI's ability to handle large amounts of data (Vrontis et al., 2021) and its capacity to utilize machine learning to analyze past data for predicting future outcomes (Berhil et al., 2020). For instance, an organization aiming to recruit top-tier talent may analyze the profiles of current high performers within the company, such as their backgrounds, education, work history, and so on, to forecast which job applicants have the potential to excel. While this task could be performed manually, AI can process the information much more efficiently. Furthermore, as new hires are onboarded and their performance is assessed, the AI can identify which candidates have indeed excelled and adjust its predictions for future hires accordingly.

A well-known expert in the analytics field has expressed that analytics is set to transform HR practices significantly, acting as the main driver behind business intelligence and a fundamental requirement for sustainable organizational success (Fred and Kinange, 2015). Analytics is closely linked with a range of disciplines including computer science, engineering, and science (Ghasemaghahi et al., 2018). In today's complex business landscape, data plays a crucial role in decision-making, with all decisions being rooted in data and evidence (Andersen, 2017). Human Resources, previously seen as a theoretical domain, now heavily relies on data for various functions like recruitment and employee management. The importance of data interpretation cannot be emphasized enough, and this is where human resource analytics comes into play (Mondore et al., 2011). The practice of collecting and analyzing HR-related data to improve workforce performance within an organization is known as HR analytics (Jugulum, 2016). This practice is also known as talent analysis, individual analysis, or workforce analytics (Edwards et al., 2022). By leveraging data from HR and organizational sources, HR analytics utilizes a variety of data analysis methods (Chatterjee et al., 2022).

HR analytics provides empirical evidence of how HR initiatives align with organizational goals and strategies (Qamar and Samad, 2022). It offers data-driven insights into what is working and what needs improvement, enabling businesses to progress and develop better strategies for the future (Chalutz Ben-Gal, 2019). The steps involved in HR analytics are outlined by Margherita (2022). HR analytics plays a crucial role in comprehending employee behavior through the analysis of diverse data sets and recognizing their underlying patterns. For example, organizations can gain insights into their employees' sentiments and behaviors by examining absence rates and patterns to address employee concerns. Additionally, by conducting employee surveys and scrutinizing the collected data, organizations can pinpoint the HR factors that significantly impact employee engagement and satisfaction. Consequently, this aids in identifying interventions to enhance employee engagement and job satisfaction. Dulebohn and Johnson (2013) highlighted that the main objectives of HR metrics and analytics include assessing and generating HR metric reports to evaluate individual, unit, and organizational performance. Furthermore, it enhances the HR decision-making process by adopting an ROI-based approach, calculating relevant metrics, and comparing them against industry standards and periodic outcomes. The implementation of HR analytics will facilitate a better understanding of the most effective strategies for recruiting, selecting, training,

motivating, developing, evaluating, and retaining employees to effectively achieve organizational objectives, while also reducing turnover rates within the organization.

2.1. Development of HR analytics practices

In 1990, the practice of comparing data with HR functions gained popularity, this is known as “benchmarking.” The concept aimed to assist organizations in gaining insights and evaluating business performance against others. An article by Davenport (2010) in the *Harvard Business Review* introduced the idea of “talent analytics”, shedding light on how to measure HR activities, which resonated with many organizations and researchers worldwide. Despite the challenges in data collection, storage, and interpretation, organizations remain optimistic that analytics can provide answers to questions such as what has happened, how, why, and what may occur in the future. This understanding can lead to evidence-based decisions that significantly impact business outcomes. Research by Bersin and Wang (2013) revealed that only 10% of Fortune 500 companies utilize advanced analytics, with 6% still relying on statistical methods and 4% employing predictive and prescriptive analytics. A study conducted by the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) indicated that “Top-performing organizations use analytics five times more than low-performing organizations” (La Valle et al., 2011). Deloitte’s 2017 survey highlighted that 71% of companies recognize the importance of HR analytics in measuring company performance, yet only 8% believe they have usable data, 9% have valid reports to comprehend the factors driving organizational performance, and 15% have implemented HR scorecards for line managers.

Bersin (2016) conducted a comprehensive study that highlights the widespread use of HR metrics and scorecards in companies. However, the study emphasizes the need for HR analytics to provide a meaningful description of the measurements that truly matter. This involves utilizing statistical tools, models, and appropriate data, as well as analyzing and evaluating the data using scientific standards. The results obtained from these analytics can then guide business decisions. Prominent organizations such as IBM, Oracle, Accenture, Phillips, Google, and Wipro have already embraced HR analytics practices. By leveraging these practices, these companies can identify high-performing individuals, enhance profitability and employee satisfaction, and effectively manage attrition. Ultimately, the adoption of HR analytics enables these organizations to achieve better overall performance. Despite the known benefits of HR analytics, many companies struggle to transition from traditional practices. Kapoor and Kabra’s (2014) study reveals that one of the main challenges faced by HR teams is the collection and analysis of data, as well as a lack of analytical executives with statistical expertise. A significant number of organizations still rely on spreadsheets and reports to analyze employee data. Additionally, some organizations face obstacles such as a lack of necessary tools or financial resources, while others are hesitant to take risks associated with advanced analytics practices.

2.2. HR data analytics enhance employee retention

Employee attrition or voluntary turnover is a significant concern for

organizations as it not only impacts their productivity and long-term growth strategies but also their work sustainability retaining employees poses a major challenge for both recruiters and employers, as attrition results in the loss of valuable skills, experiences, personnel, and business opportunities. In the era of data analytics, organizations and their human resources managers are leveraging people analytics to address attrition by transforming their approach to attracting and retaining talent. HR analytics is now considered an essential capability for HR management and a tool that enables the creation of value from people, while also expanding the strategic influence of the HR function (Angrave et al., 2016). It is essential to identify the right candidate for the success of the organization. A remarkable recruit who aligns with the organization's values, possesses the necessary skills, and motivates those around them can greatly contribute to the organization's confidence and financial growth (Hughes and Rog, 2008).

Talent acquisition, from an HR perspective, involves gathering employee data on various metrics such as education, knowledge, skills, attitudes, and performance. This data provides valuable insights that are derived from background information, skill evaluations, and surveys (Fernandez and Gallardo, 2021). HR professionals utilize this data to understand the key factors for success within the organization. Research has shown that employees also utilize this data to enhance retention rates, making talent acquisition a primary focus for decision-making (Anoopa, 2016). Additionally, organizations turn to talent acquisition to identify skill gaps, create attractive job offers, and gain insights into employee preferences (Jose, 2019). To effectively find exceptional employees, it is important to understand their preferred platforms and channels of engagement.

The contemporary world is heavily reliant on data to drive various aspects of life. Analytics serves as the primary tool for modern employees to understand how their organization operates and to pinpoint areas that necessitate enhancement from a business perspective. Data analytics plays a crucial role in facilitating informed decision-making by providing valuable insights into the direction in which a firm is progressing (Fernandez and Gallardo, 2021). There exist four principal categories of analytics, namely descriptive, diagnostic, predictive, and prescriptive as shown in **Figure 1**. Descriptive analytics focuses on analyzing past events using basic analytical techniques to comprehend facts, patterns, characteristics, and outcomes. For instance, descriptive analysis can be employed to determine churn rates, hiring expenses, and absenteeism. Diagnostic analytics represents an advanced analytical approach that delves into data or information to address the query, "What caused it to occur?". This method is distinguished by methodologies like drill-down analysis, data exploration, data extraction, and identifying correlations. Predictive analytics represents the subsequent phase of analysis, involving making forecasts about future actions and results based on historical data (Necula and Strîmbei, 2019). Lastly, prescriptive analytics aims to optimize outcomes while minimizing resource utilization. To identify the most cost-effective training investment for organizational success, the application of linear programming, simulation techniques, statistical modeling, and implementation support is essential (Angrave et al., 2016).



Figure 1. The types of HR analytics (Ikey, 2023).

The organization can gather important information about employees who are leaving and identify those who may be at risk of leaving by using data from classification or predictive models. By using predictive analytics, the organization can understand the potential effects of changing certain factors and determine which areas need immediate attention. This can help reduce the rate of employees leaving, especially when the organization wants to avoid too many changes. It is important for the organization to handle these changes properly to achieve the desired outcome and ensure that employees accept and embrace the changes. As a result, the organization is likely to take a strategic approach to implementing change and use its resources wisely. The organization can create a program to retain employees by using prescriptive analytics to understand the factors that contribute to turnover and retention. During this process, the organization can make informed decisions and take actions to improve employee retention as depicted in **Figure 2**.

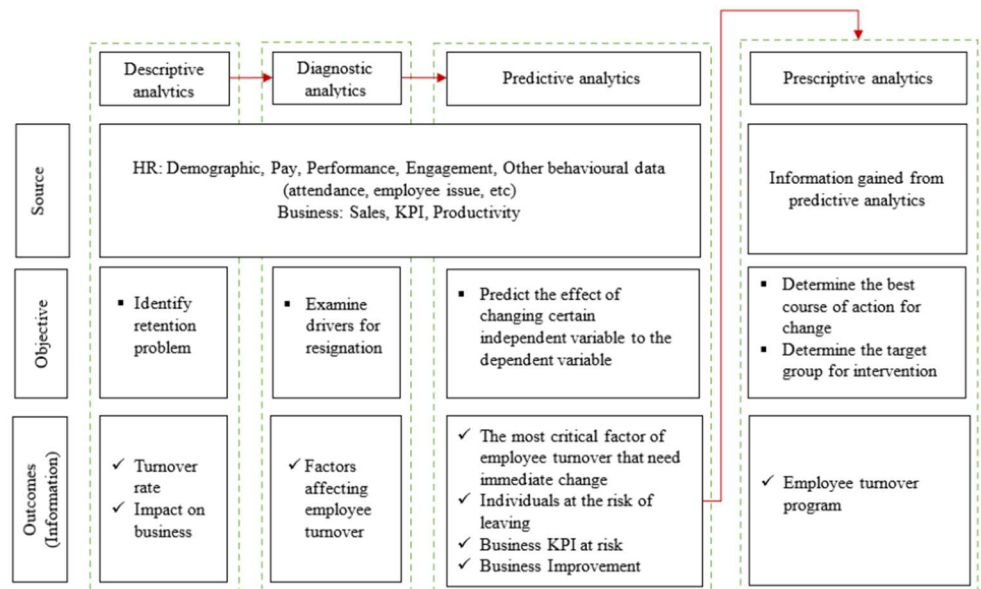


Figure 2. Employee retention strategy framework (HR analytics application) (Latif, 2022).

Setiawan et al. (2020) conducted a research study titled “HR analytics-employee attrition using logistic regression,” in which they employed logistic regression to analyze employee attrition. To gain a deeper understanding of the subject, the authors

utilized R studio for tasks such as data mixing, empirical data analysis, data planning, logistic regression, model assessment, and visualization. The study was divided into five stages: data gathering and business awareness, data pre-managing, experimental data analysis, model selection and preparation, and analysis and assessment of the model. To investigate employee attrition, the researchers considered various variables including the number of companies operated, total work experience, years with the current supervisor, frequent professional travel, poor work environment satisfaction, department HR, marital status (separation and wedded), poor job satisfaction, early logout, and working overtime. Additionally, the study also examined the reasons for attrition from both the employee's perspective and the company's perspective. The findings of the study indicate that to improve retention rates, the company should focus on developing the human resource department by assessing factors such as the working atmosphere, work or job satisfaction, employee workload, and communication between managers, leaders, and subordinates.

The researchers conducted a study on job satisfaction and resignations, utilizing the wealth maximization theory of quitting behavior on the German Socioeconomic Panel (1985–2003). Carvalho et al. (2020) observed that job satisfaction is a crucial factor for employees who possess exceptional experience and competency. The researchers took into account voluntary retirement, job satisfaction levels, surprises for employees, and the wealth maximization model to explain their research. The authors explained that the reasons for an employee's decision to leave or resign from an organization must be compared to the present values of future outcomes and the opportunities available outside of their current job. The results of the study confirmed that by conducting a simple subjective survey questionnaire on work structure and satisfaction levels, economists can easily uncover a wealth of hidden information or evidence. In fact, through this survey, a firm or industry can gain valuable insights to improve themselves, surpassing the need for traditional tools. In addition, Bhuva and Srivastava (2018) conducted a study focusing on machine learning techniques for predicting employee attrition rates. The researchers specifically targeted the IT sector and gathered a sample of employee data from IBM USA. The study followed a structured workflow for the analytics project, which included steps such as raw dataset collection, data processing, feature selection and scaling, modeling, model evaluation and tuning, and deployment and monitoring. By utilizing 35 data mining techniques and machine learning algorithms, the researchers were able to predict attrition within the IBM USA dataset. The study highlighted the importance of accurate employee attrition prediction as a significant business challenge. The results of the prediction using data mining techniques revealed that linear discriminant analysis outperformed other methods, with the logistic regression model following closely behind, especially when precision was the preferred metric for evaluation.

Furthermore, Ponnuru (2020) utilized logistic regression analysis to assess the risk of employee attrition. They employed the logistic regression technique to predict the probability of employee attrition in an organization, which was dependent on the demographic data of both current and separated employees. The researchers conducted their study based on a real-life project and collected demographic information from employees who had left the organization as well as those who were still employed. The authors of the study prepared a questionnaire to evaluate the probability of quitting

among the current staff members. The overall attrition risk was divided into two categories: Demographic risk and behavioral risk. In this particular study, logistic regression was primarily used to predict employee attrition risk based on demographic information. Additionally, a comprehensive retention plan was developed to address the identified risk categories. Besides, Zhao et al. (2019) conducted a study to explore the effectiveness of Extreme Gradient Boosting (XGBoost) in predicting employee turnover. XGBoost is known for its reliable performance due to its regularization formulation. The researchers utilized HRIS data from a global store and compared XGBoost with six commonly used supervised classifiers. The findings of the study demonstrated that XGBoost exhibited significantly higher reliability in predicting employee turnover. Another study revealed by Ghazi et al. (2021) proposed a profit-centric performance measure that combines the ideal customer percentage with the highest estimated likelihood of churning. This measure aims to calculate the maximum profit that can be generated through retention efforts.

2.3. Resource-based view (RBV)

Beatie and Smith (2013) emphasized the importance of the resource-based perspective in focusing on the inherent characteristics of employee skills and their contribution to value creation. They argued that the resource-based view (RBV) theory suggests that organizations should prioritize the development and maintenance of core employee skills that are crucial for competitiveness and productivity through internal processes, strategies, and practices while considering outsourcing skills of minimal or tangential value. Haar and White (2013) supported this view by highlighting the significance of investing in internal firm resources or heterogeneous resources that are difficult for competitors to imitate, thus serving as sources of competitive advantage. Ortlieb and Sieben (2012) further elaborated on these resources, indicating that they may include tangible and intangible assets capable of generating high returns over extended periods, such as work-life programs, HRM systems, employee career development initiatives, job enrichment programs, and promotion opportunities. The theory suggests that such resources can lead to significant benefits for organizations, such as improved employee retention, as they are challenging for competitors to replicate (Holtbrugge et al., 2010; Haar and White, 2013). This theory could potentially provide a strong foundation for conducting research in HR analytics. Marler and Boudreau (2016) state that a significant portion of the existing studies in the field of HR Analytics have relied on the resource-based view (RBV), which forms the basis for widely recognized theoretical frameworks like LAMP and the HR scorecard. Marler and Boudreau (2016) propose that HR analytics has the potential to be linked with enhanced employee retention and a competitive edge, provided that it is characterized by distinctiveness and value creation under the principles of the RBV.

3. Methodology

A literature review was conducted to investigate the link between HR analytics and employee retention. The review sought to discover relevant articles published between 2010 and 2023, emphasizing indexed and non-indexed papers from credible electronic databases.

Data sources included Science Direct, Emerald Insight, Scopus, EBSCOhost Databases, IEEE Xplore, and ProQuest. These databases were chosen since they provide a broad and thorough coverage of scholarly literature in human resource management. The initial search yielded 53 publications and articles. Following the screening procedure, 42 publications were identified as relevant to the study, with a primary focus on HR analytics and employee retention. The criteria for article selection included editorial, opinion, theoretical, qualitative, and quantitative studies that focused on the relationship between HR analytics and employee retention.

Articles were excluded if they did not directly address HR analytics and employee retention, or if they were not published within the specified timeframe. Furthermore, articles that did not fulfill the inclusion criteria, such as those that focused on unrelated themes or lacked empirical data, were removed from the review. The limitation of this review evaluation is the dearth of current publications from 2023–2024, which could be attributable to the scarcity of research papers on HR analytics in the context of employee retention during this period.

4. Discussion

According to the literature analysis, incorporating HR analytics into human resource management methods establishes a significant development and step forward in improving organizational employee retention strategies within an organization. Companies can use data-driven insights and advanced technologies like artificial intelligence (AI) to create targeted retention strategies that effectively attract, engage, and retain top talented people. This shift towards the use of HR analytics is consistent with the changing landscape of modern workplaces, in which strategic human resource management is critical to organizational success.

Fernandez and Gallardo (2020) mentioned the necessity of prioritizing key employee abilities or skills that are difficult for competitors to replicate, underlining the usefulness and importance of HR analytics in identifying and cultivating these valued skills. The resource-based view (RBV) theory emphasizes the importance of internal business resources, notably staff talents, in developing and sustaining competitive advantage. According to this RBV theory, investing in HR analytics to improve employee retention can result in distinctive and value-creating practices that competitors will face challenges to imitate (Marler and Boudreau, 2016).

Muhammad and Naz (2022) found that factors such as the work environment, career opportunities, and organizational culture all have an impact on employee retention. The application of HR analytics enables organizations to analyze these issues using data-driven insights, allowing for the identification of patterns and trends that influence retention rates. Companies can use descriptive, diagnostic, predictive, and prescriptive analytics tools to analyze previous events as well as estimate future results to effectively optimize retention strategies. The implementation of HR analytics in employee retention techniques is further supported by the findings of Shet et al. (2021) and Chatterjee et al. (2022), who emphasize the relevance of HR analytics in aligning HR activities or initiatives with organizational goals and strategies. By leveraging data from HR and organizational sources, HR analytics evidently provides empirical evidence for decision-making processes, allowing organizations to enhance

retention rates, improve workforce performance and productivity, and eventually achieve sustainable business success in the long term.

5. Implications for HR analytics on employee retention

To thrive in the ever-changing global landscape, HR Analytics is an indispensable technique for the industry. Therefore, strategic movements and decisions play a crucial role in managing the evolving aspects of the environment. The implementation of HR analytical tools, frameworks, and methodologies is key to enhancing overall organizational improvement, with major players leading the way. The utmost attention must be given to proper recruitment and selection, ensuring the right fitment and job satisfaction. Moving forward, the most significant implication for HR is to design an effective framework for organizational policies that provide a suitable work structure for employees. Additionally, HR should establish a counseling framework that allows employees to address personal and professional stress, discomfort, grievances, and more. A healthy working environment always contributes to enhancing employee performance. Recognizing and retaining employees is imperative in today's competitive world. Large firms and industries can retain their skilled and knowledgeable employees by effectively managing both monetary and non-monetary elements of the HR system. Furthermore, implementing proper rewards and recognition tools is equally essential for the fair assessment of competent, skilled, and talented employees. By prioritizing HR objectives and implementing effective HR analytical tools, organizations can reduce attrition rates and overcome the challenges faced by others.

6. Conclusion and future direction

The primary constraints of this research primarily revolve around the accessibility of literature about the topic. There exists a gap in the existing literature on HR analytics and employee retention, which is limited in scope. Therefore, the existing literature must possess adequate nuance and be grounded in case studies on the adoption of HR analytics to improve employee retention. This will ensure that the endorsed models and frameworks are thoroughly examined, tested, and reliable. Consequently, the present study was constrained by the limited range of literature available for review. Numerous factors contribute to the retention of employees. To fully comprehend the impact of these factors, organizations must gather relevant information and analyze it to extract meaningful insights. It is only through such insights that strategic actions can be taken to retain employees. Effective decision-making in this regard requires a scientific and data-driven approach. This is where data analytics, and specifically talent analytics, play a crucial role. By utilizing data analytics in the management of human resources, organizations can enhance their effectiveness. Such data can not only be used to analyze past trends and formulate plans but also to predict future events. Each new generation entering the workforce has unique aspirations, and it is no longer solely financial compensation that attracts talented individuals. A wide range of non-financial considerations also play a significant role in attracting and retaining talented individuals.

The transition from an industry-focused economy to a knowledge-driven

economy underscores the importance of evolving human resource management practices from conventional to strategic methods. This shift necessitates the utilization of data to inform decision-making processes. Human resource professionals must analyze diverse data sets to comprehend how various factors related to employees can influence organizational performance, particularly from a financial perspective. Leveraging HR analytics in human resource management offers significant benefits, such as enhancing strategies for retaining employees and effectively managing their behavior.

The future of HR analytics in employee retention is expected to have a sizable effect as the field develops. HR needs to prioritize the detection of mental health issues and workplace stress to provide assistance. This can be achieved through the implementation of analytics, that could help recognize symptoms of employee burnout or pressure. Thus, identifying those symptoms permits the early provision of intervention and support programs. Additionally, predictive modeling may be advanced by way of transferring beyond simple identification of who would possibly leave, to predicting both the likelihood and reasons for leaving. This allows HR to tailor additional interventions according to the situation. Furthermore, improvements to prescriptive analytics can go beyond just identifying issues by also recommending explicit actions on how to address them, thus enabling HR's transition from reactive to proactive retention strategies. Besides, experience analytics can be stepped forward by analyzing employee journey data during their tenure with the company. This enables HR to pinpoint crucial touchpoints that influence retention and personalize the employee experience.

Acknowledgments: Thank you to Kamalesh who carried out the research, and wrote and revised the article. Gratitude is expressed towards Sivachandran Narayanan who conceptualized the central research idea and formatted the article submission.

Conflict of interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

- Andersen, M. K. (2017). Human capital analytics: The winding road. *Journal of Organizational Effectiveness: People and Performance*, 4(2), 133–136. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JOEPP-03-2017-0024>
- Angrave, D., Charlwood, A., Kirkpatrick, I., et al. (2016). HR and analytics: Why HR are set to fail the big data challenge. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 26(1), 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12090>
- Anoopa, N. (2016). Talent management and employee retention: Implications of job embeddedness. *Journal of Strategic Human Resource Management*, 5(2), 34–40.
- Beattie, V., Smith, S. J. (2013). Value creation and business models: Refocusing the intellectual capital debate. *The British Accounting Review*, 45, 243–254. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bar.2013.06.001>
- Berhil, S., Benlahmar, H., Labani, N. (2020). A review paper on artificial intelligence at the service of human resources management. *Indonesian Journal of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science*, 18(1), 32–40. <https://doi.org/10.11591/ijeecs.v18.i1.pp32-40>
- Bersin, J. (2016). Is software better at managing people than you are? *Fortune magazine*.
- Bersin, L., Wang, A. (2013). High-impact talent analytics: Building a world-class HR measurement and analytics function. Bersin by Deloitte.
- Bhuva, K., Srivastava, K. (2018). Comparative study of the machine learning techniques for predicting the employee attrition. *IJRAR-International Journal of Research and Analytical Reviews (IJRAR)*, 568–577.
- Bulsari, S., Pandya, K. (2023). Future of HR analytics: Applications to recruitment, employee engagement, and retention. In:

- Managing Technology Integration for Human Resources in Industry 5.0. IGI Global. pp. 140–162.
- Carvalho, A., Riana, I. G., Soares, A. (2020). Motivation on job satisfaction and employee performance. *International Research Journal of Management, IT & Social Sciences*, 7(5), 13–23. <https://doi.org/10.25105/ber.v20i2.8006>
- Chalutz Ben-Gal, H. (2019). An ROI-based review of HR analytics: practical implementation tools. *Personnel Review*, 48(6), 1429–1448. <https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-11-2017-0362>
- Chatterjee, S., Chaudhuri, R., Vrontis, D., et al. (2022). Examining the dark side of human resource analytics: An empirical investigation using the privacy calculus approach. *International Journal of Manpower*, 43(1), 52–74. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJM-02-2021-0087>
- Davenport, T. H., Harris, J., Shapiro, J. (2010). Competing on talent analytics. Available online: <https://hbr.org/2010/10/competing-on-talent-analytics> (accessed on 21 January 2024).
- Dulebohn, J. H., Johnson, R. D. (2013). Human resource metrics and decision support: A classification framework. *Human Resource Management Review*, 23(1), 71–83. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2012.06.005>
- Edwards, M. R., Charlwood, A., Guenole, N., et al. (2022). HR analytics: An emerging field finding its place in the world alongside simmering ethical challenges. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 34(2), 326–336. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12435>
- Fernandez, V., Gallardo-Gallardo, E. (2020). Tackling the HR digitalization challenge: Key factors and barriers to HR analytics adoption. *competitiveness review. An International Business Journal*, 31(1), 162–187. <https://doi.org/10.1108/cr-12-2019-0163>
- Fred, M. O., Kinange, U. M. (2015). Overview of HR analytics to maximize human capital investment. *International Journal of Advance Research and Innovative Ideas in Education*, 1(4), 118–122.
- Ghasemaghaci, M., Ebrahimi, S., Hassanein, K. (2018). Data analytics competency for improving firm decision making performance. *The Journal of Strategic Information Systems*, 27(1), 101–113. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsis.2017.10.001>
- Ghazi, A. H., Elsayed, S. I., Khedr, A. E. (2021). A proposed model for predicting employee turnover of information technology specialists using data mining techniques. *International Journal of Electrical and Computer Engineering Systems*, 12(2), 113–121. <https://doi.org/10.32985/IJECES.12.2.6>
- Haar, J. M., White, B. J. (2013). Corporate entrepreneurship and information technology towards employee retention: A study of New Zealand firms. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 23(1), 109–125. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-8583.2011.00178.x>
- Handa, D., Garima, A. (2014). Human resources (HR) analytics: Emerging trends in HRM. *International Journal of Research in Commerce & Management*, 5(6), 59–62.
- Holtbrugge, D., Friedmann, C. B., Puck, J. F. H. (2010). Recruitment and retention in foreign firms in India: A resource-based view. *Human Resource Management*, 49(3), 439–455. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20353>
- Hughes, J. C., Rog, E. (2008). Talent management: A strategy for improving employee recruitment, retention and engagement within hospitality organizations. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 20(7), 743–757. <https://doi.org/10.1108/0959611081089908>
- Ikey. (2023). The types of HR analytics. Available online: <https://medium.com/@micky.ikeh/the-types-of-hr-analytics-and-how-they-accelerate-business-growth-a8f57de68206> (accessed on 21 January 2024).
- Jabir, B., Falih, N., Rahmani, K. (2019). HR analytics a roadmap for decision making: Case study. *Indonesian Journal of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science*, 15(2), 979–990. <https://doi.org/10.11591/ijeecs.v15.i2.pp979-990>
- Jose, S. (2019). Innovation in recruitment and talent acquisition: A study on technologies and strategies adopted for talent management in IT sector. *International Journal of Marketing and Human Resource Management*, 10(2), 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.34218/ijmhrm.10.3.2019.001>
- Jugulum, R. (2016). Importance of data quality for analytics. In: Sampaio, P., & Saraiva, P. (editors). *Quality in the 21st Century: Perspectives from ASQ Feigenbaum Medal Winners*. Springer. pp. 23–31.
- Kapoor, B., Kabra, Y. (2014). Current and future trends in human resources analytics adoption. *Journal of Cases on Information Technology*, 16(1), 50–59. <https://doi.org/10.4018/jcit.2014010105>
- Latif, N. A. (2022). Designing strategies for reducing employee turnover: Human resource analytics application. *International Journal of Advanced Research in Technology and Innovation*, 4(3), 31–35.
- LaValle, S., Lesser, E., Shockley, R. (2011). Big data, analytics, and path from insights to value. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 34–41.

- Lee, J. Y., Lee, Y. (2024). Integrative literature review on people analytics and implications from the perspective of human resource development. *Human Resource Development Review*, 23(1), 58–87. <https://doi.org/10.1177/15344843231217181>
- Lévy-Garboua, L., Montmarquette, C., Simonnet, V. (2007). Job satisfaction and quits. *Labour Economics*, 14(2), 251–268. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.labeco.2005.08.003>
- Margherita, A. (2022). Human resources analytics: A systematization of research topics and directions for future research. *Human Resource Management Review*, 32(2), 100795. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2020.100795>
- Marler, J. H., Boudreau, J. W. (2016). An evidence-based review of HR Analytics. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 28(1), 3–26. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2016.1244699>
- Mondare, S., Douthitt, S., Carson, M. (2011). Maximizing the impact and effectiveness of HR analytics to drive business outcomes. *People and Strategy*, 34(2), 20–27.
- Muhammad, G., Naz, F. (2022). A moderating role of HR analytics between employee engagement, retention, and organizational performance. *International Journal of Business Environment*, 13(4), 345–357. <https://doi.org/10.1504/ijbe.2022.126370>
- Necula, S. C., Strîmbei, C. (2019). People analytics of semantic web human resource résumés for sustainable talent acquisition. *Sustainability (Switzerland)*, 11(13), 3520. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su11133520>
- Opatha, H. H. D. P. J. (2020). HR analytics: A literature review and new conceptual model. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications (IJSRP)*, 10(06), 130–141. <https://doi.org/10.29322/ijsrp.10.06.2020.p10217>
- Ortlieb, R., Sieben, B. (2012). How to safeguard critical resources of professional and managerial staff: Exploration of a taxonomy of resource retention strategies. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(8), 1688–1704. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2011.610341>
- Ponnuru, S. R. (2020). Employee attrition prediction using logistic regression. *International Journal for Research in Applied Science and Engineering Technology*, 8(5), 2871–2875. <https://doi.org/10.22214/ijraset.2020.5481>
- Qamar, Y., Samad, T. A. (2022). Human resource analytics: A review and bibliometric analysis. *Personnel Review*, 51(1), 251–283. <https://doi.org/10.1108/pr-04-2020-0247>
- Setiawan, I., Suprihanto, S., Nugraha, A. C., et al. (2020). HR analytics: Employee attrition analysis using logistic regression. *IOP Conference Series: Materials Science and Engineering*, 830(3), 032001. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1757-899x/830/3/032001>
- Shet S. V., Poddar, T., Wamba Samuel, F., et al. (2021). Examining the determinants of successful adoption of data analytics in human resource management—A framework for implications. *Journal of Business Research*, 131, 311–326. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2021.03.054>
- Vrontis, D., Christofi, M., Pereira, V., et al. (2021). Artificial intelligence, robotics, advanced technologies and human resource management: A systematic review. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 33(6), 1237–1266. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2020.1871398>
- Zhao, Y., Hryniewicki, M. K., Cheng, F. (2019). Employee turnover prediction with machine learning: A reliable approach. Springer Nature Switzerland AG, 737–758.
- Zhao, G., Carlton, D. (2015). Forecast competency migration by a methodology of competency analytics. *Open Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(11), 16–22. <https://doi.org/10.4236/jss.2015.311003>

Review

Leadership theories and styles—A systematic literature review and the narrative synthesis

T. S. Nanjundeswaraswamy^{1,*}, P. Nagesh², Sindu Bharath², K. M. Vignesh³¹ Department of Management Studies, JSS Academy of Technical Education, Bengaluru 560060, India² Center for Management Studies, JSS Science and Technology University, Mysuru 570006, India³ Department of Mechanical Engineering, JSS Science and Technology University, Mysuru 570006, India* Corresponding author: T. S. Nanjundeswaraswamy, nswamy.ts@gmail.com

CITATION

Nanjundeswaraswamy TS, Nagesh P, Bharath S, Vignesh KM. (2024). Leadership theories and styles—A systematic literature review and the narrative synthesis. *Human Resources Management and Services*. 6(3): 3477.
<https://doi.org/10.18282/hrms.v6i3.3477>

ARTICLE INFO

Received: 20 June 2024

Accepted: 9 August 2024

Available online: 20 August 2024

COPYRIGHT



Copyright © 2024 by author(s).
Human Resources Management and Services is published by PiscoMed Publishing Pte. Ltd. This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license.
<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>

Abstract: This paper explores diverse conceptualizations of leadership, emphasizing its profound impact on individuals and organizations. Leadership's influence on followers' daily lives, necessitating adaptation to modern complexities. Various theories offer distinct perspectives: distributed leadership emphasizes shared expertise. While charismatic leadership focuses on vision alignment. Authentic leadership promotes ethical climates, while Emotional Intelligence theory emphasizes emotional competencies. Ethical leadership underscores moral conduct. Five Domains Leadership highlights talent management and strategy execution, while Leadership Transition Theory discusses dynamic changes. Other theories include direct/indirect leadership, entrepreneurial leadership, and leader-member exchange. Participative leadership explores decision-making styles, and situational leadership aligns styles with follower maturity. Trait and behavioral theories focus on inherent traits and learned behaviours. This review underscores leadership's complexity, offering insights into its diverse conceptualizations and practical implications across contexts.

Keywords: leadership style; leadership theory; transformational; transactional

1. Introduction

Leadership is very essential for managing a country, organization, and team (Antonakis and House, 2014). A leader's actions significantly impact the follower's daily life (Eberly et al., 2013). Leadership impacts the individual followers as well as the team, department, and entire organization (Hiller et al., 2011). Leadership can be conceptualized in three different ways, such as skill or ability; the second is the relationship between leader and follower; and the third is a dynamic social process (Edwards and Turnbull, 2013b). On the other hand, leadership is a multifaceted and complex construct (Shuck and Herd, 2012). It is inevitable to update and modify the leadership theories to become more applicable to today's competitive globalized complex business environment and turbulent changes in the technology environment (Antonakis and House, 2014).

An effective leader can guide their followers towards achieving specific goals in a manner aligned with their vision. Various leadership styles can influence the effectiveness and performance of an organization (Oladipo et al., 2013); in particular, transformational leadership stands out as a significant predictor of job satisfaction and overall contentment among employees (Berson et al., 2003). Moreover, studies indicate that organizational performance is closely linked to the presence of an innovative and competitive culture. It is evident that leadership style significantly influences organizational culture, which in turn affects organizational performance.

In today's dynamic organizational landscape, the role of leadership stands pivotal in driving teams towards common goals and navigating the intricacies of a rapidly evolving global environment. Leadership, as a social process of influence, involves the deliberate engagement of subordinates (Haryanto et al., 2023; Koeswayo et al., 2024; Haryanto et al., 2022) to voluntarily participate in achieving organizational objectives (Omolayo, 2007). A leader, as defined by Mullins (2007), is an individual who delegates tasks and influences others to align their actions with specified objectives.

Different leadership styles have been identified, each with its own distinctive characteristics and impacts on organizational dynamics. Transformational leadership, characterized by its focus on individual development and fostering a shared vision, has been recognized for its ability to inspire commitment and drive organizational success (Bass and Avolio, 1993). This leadership style emphasizes empowering employees to recognize their full potential and work towards collective objectives with passion and integrity.

On the other hand, transactional leadership operates on an exchange basis, where leaders offer rewards and incentives in return for the accomplishment of explicit goals and performance criteria (Trottier et al., 2008). This style of leadership relies on contingent reinforcement and the establishment of clear performance-reward linkages to drive desired outcomes (Bryant, 2003).

Leadership practices are deeply intertwined with organizational culture, values, and societal norms, reflecting the broader cultural context within which they operate (Prideaux et al., 2007; Victor et al., 2005). Furthermore, research has highlighted the significant influence of leadership styles on various organizational outcomes, such as employee satisfaction, performance, and group efficacy (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Kahai et al., 1997).

2. Literature

2.1. Leadership theory

Many theories define and explain leadership in different ways, such as: According to distributed leadership theory, leadership is created through the shared expertise of many actors in the organization (D'Annunzio-Green and Francis, 2005). Charismatic Leadership Theory explores that leadership is the follower's perception of the behaviour of the leader about the viewpoint of the vision and his capability to fulfil the follower's needs (Clarke, 2013).

Affiliated Leadership Theory defines leadership as the process of adopting an external focus, co-creating with others, collaborating, developing adaptability to changing conditions, improving abilities to listen and interact, and optimizing curiosity and responsiveness (Cummings et al., 2014). Based on authentic leadership, Carasco Saul et al. (2015) defined leadership as a model of the leader's behaviour that promotes a positive ethical and psychological climate that enhances self-awareness and moral perception, unbiased processing of information, and transparency in relation to.

Emotional intelligence theory explores that leadership is the emotional ability, competencies, and skills to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions in

coping with situational demand and pressure (Edwards et al., 2015; Collins, 2012). Ethical leadership theory explores that leadership is the most appropriate behaviour and motivates without any selflessness while attracting the attention of the followers for ethical conduct (Carden et al., 2007; Turnbull et al., 2005). Five domains of leadership theory define leadership as having the following characteristics: talent management, strategy for improvement, personal proficiency, human capital development, and execution of the strategies (Harland, 2003). Leadership transition theory says that leadership is a model of dynamic factors that will change within the perspective of the organization (Ma Rhea, 2013).

Affiliated leadership theory mentioned shifting attention outward, cultivating flexibility in adapting to dynamic circumstances, enhancing curiosity and responsiveness, and refining skills in attentive listening, interactive collaboration, and joint creation with others (Turner et al., 2018; Cummings et al., 2014). Authentic leadership embodies a steadfast commitment to fostering positive psychological attributes and cultivating an ethical environment through a consistent display of leadership actions. Its objective is to nurture increased self-awareness, a deeply ingrained moral compass, unbiased evaluation of information, and open, honest interpersonal relationships (Turner et al., 2018; Carasco-Saul et al., 2015).

In the context of direct or indirect leadership, leaders initially focus on fostering an environment conducive to creative thinking and idea-sharing among team members in the early stages. As ideas progress through the pipeline, the leader's role shifts to more direct involvement, necessitating decisions on which ideas to support. This dual influence, termed direct and indirect, presents the leader with a dynamic balancing act (Turner et al., 2018; Gilley et al., 2010). Entrepreneurial leadership is a dynamic style of leadership tailored for fast-paced, unpredictable, and fiercely competitive landscapes. This approach demands a unique set of competencies, empowering individuals with the precise skills to navigate and excel within entrepreneurial ecosystems (Carden et al., 2007; Turner et al., 2018).

Ethical leadership theory is an exemplary framework embodying ethical principles. Leaders prioritize building credibility and legitimacy, ensuring their actions align with societal norms, and being driven by altruistic motives. Skillfully draw followers' focus towards the ethical dimensions of their messages, fostering a culture of integrity and accountability (Carden et al., 2007; Turner et al., 2018). Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory is a relationship-based theory that highlights the interaction between followers and leaders. According to this theory, there are three phases of leadership: the stranger phase, the acquaintance phase, and the mature partnership stage (Byrd, 2007; Noelliste, 2013).

Participative Leadership Theory explores diverse decision-making styles employed by leaders, ranging from autocratic to democratic and laissez-faire. McWhorter et al. (2008) elaborate on these variations, shedding light on their implications for organizational dynamics. According to McWhorter et al.'s (2008) participative theory of leadership, leaders were classified into three categories: laissez-faire, democratic, and autocratic.

Monitoring the external environment, performance and feedback, providing direction and resources, and finally strategic structuring and planning are the most important functions of a leader (Antonakis and House, 2014). Due to globalization and

complexity, leadership nowadays becomes more challenging (Ardichvili et al., 2016). Bass (1985) proposed transformational leadership theories, which include four main elements about individuals: individualized consideration, influence, stimulation, and motivation.

Antonakis et al. (2014) proposed instrumental leadership theories; according to this theory, leaders are more responsible for identifying and implementing solutions to complicated societal issues than just addressing individual organizational issues. The path goal theory of Brown et al. (2011) explored that the effectiveness of leadership depends on three factors: work setting, subordinate characteristics, and leader style. According to situational leadership theory, the effectiveness of a leader hinges on the congruence between their leadership style and the specific context. This theory posits that the leader's approach should be tailored to the maturity level of their followers regarding the task at hand. It encompasses both supportive and directive dimensions, which should be flexibly applied according to the situation's demands (Bonebright et al., 2012; Wenson, 2010).

Trait or skill approach theory is a perspective that emphasizes the competencies and behaviours exhibited by leaders, focusing on what they do and how they interact. It posits that individuals possess specific traits that predispose them to leadership roles. In this view, there are three key personal skills: technical, human, and conceptual. Advocates suggest that leadership is innate rather than (Ausburn et al., 2014; Baltodano et al., 2012). Transformational leadership theory emphasizes inspiring and empowering followers to accomplish their goals through various methods, such as setting an example, motivating with vision, stimulating intellectual growth, and providing personalized attention. It encompasses three main leadership styles: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire (Martin et al., 2014; Muir, 2014). According to Trait theory, effective leaders commonly possess inherent qualities or traits. These traits, including intelligence, charisma, confidence, and determination, are seen as inherent attributes associated with successful leadership.

Behavioural Theory, often referred to as the Style Approach, posits that effective leadership stems from observable behaviours rather than inherent traits. This theory asserts that leadership skills can be developed through active observation, hands-on experience, and deliberate practice. This theory emerged as a reaction to the Trait Theory, which posited that leaders possess certain inherent characteristics that make them effective. Instead, Behavioral Theory argues that leadership effectiveness is determined by what leaders do rather than who they are (Derue et al., 2011). Contingency theories suggest that a leader's effectiveness hinges on diverse situational factors. Various circumstances may demand distinct leadership styles for optimal outcomes. The most famous contingency theory is Fiedler's contingency model, which suggests that the match between leadership style and situational factors such as task structure and leader-member relations determines leadership effectiveness (Strube et al., 1981). Servant leadership emphasizes the leader's role as a servant to their followers. Servant leaders prioritize the needs of others, foster a supportive environment, and focus on the personal growth and development of their followers (Parris et al., 2013).

2.2. Leadership styles

In today's dynamic business environment, leadership is viewed as a social process of influence, where leaders actively engage subordinates to willingly participate in achieving organizational goals (Omolayo, 2007). A leader is defined as someone who assigns tasks or influences others to act in alignment with specified objectives (Mullins, 2007). Effective leaders are essential for organizations to navigate the complexities of the rapidly evolving global landscape. Research suggests that when tasks are well-structured and leaders maintain positive relationships with their employees, team effectiveness tends to increase. Additionally, studies show that democratic leaders, who emphasize involving all team members in discussions and effectively collaborate with a small yet highly motivated team, contribute positively to team dynamics.

Higher leadership indexes don't solely mirror past achievements; instead, they signify a potential for enhanced performance and bolster the reputation of organizations. This underscores the substantial influence of behavioural intricacies and dynamics on perceived leadership effectiveness (Barchiesi et al., 2007). Moreover, research delving into how leadership styles impact team innovation in private research centres underscores the interplay between various leadership styles and innovation, with factors like knowledge sharing and team communication playing crucial mediating roles (Wang et al., 2009).

During our investigation into the correlation between organizational culture and leadership style, we examined pivotal factors encompassing organizational culture, charismatic leadership, transformational leadership, and transactional leadership. Meanwhile, Voon et al. (2011) delved into the influence of diverse factors such as salaries, job autonomy, job security, and workplace flexibility on employees' job satisfaction in public sector organizations in Malaysia. Among these elements, their study highlighted that the transformational leadership style displayed a more robust association with job satisfaction. Various leadership styles can positively impact organizational commitment and job satisfaction, thereby fostering enhanced organizational commitment and work performance (Chung-Hsiung et al., 2009).

Leadership practices are intricately entwined with cultural norms, encompassing traditional beliefs, values, and societal expectations (Prideaux et al., 2007). Furthermore, a leader's leadership style is significantly molded by their immediate and extended familial connections, as well as their clan and tribal affiliations (Victor et al., 2005). This underscores the significance of familial and cultural influences on leadership behaviour. Additionally, research indicates that the connections between organizational leadership and business ethics contribute to enhancing the quality of organizational life, thereby yielding positive effects on both organizational members and the wider community. Moreover, the transformational and transactional leadership styles displayed by executives are positively correlated with perceptions regarding the executive's promotion of innovation within the organizational climate (Ye et al., 2011).

Leaders' behaviours significantly influence the trust and satisfaction levels of employees toward the organization. Moreover, organizational citizenship behaviour plays a pivotal role in reinforcing the connection between leadership style and

organizational commitment directly (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Transformational leadership theory is renowned for its capacity to enhance subordinates' performance by reshaping their motives and values (Xu et al., 2008). Bass (1997) delineated leadership styles into two primary categories: transformational leadership and transactional leadership. Transformational leaders exemplify traits such as individual influence, spiritual inspiration, and intellectual stimulation. They prioritize individual needs, cultivate a shared vision, foster an open and trusting culture, and empower staff to realize their full potential.

Transactional leadership is centred on meeting the basic and external needs of staff, with the leader-subordinate relationship grounded in contractual agreements. These leaders typically achieve organizational goals through defined job roles and strategic mission planning, aiming primarily to ensure organizational stability. Leadership style denotes the consistent behavioural pattern exhibited by a leader (Dubrin, 2008). In today's landscape, organizations necessitate adept leaders who comprehend the complexities of the rapidly evolving global environment. The impact of different leadership styles on organizational effectiveness or performance is widely recognized (Nahavandi, 2015). Indeed, the success or failure of entities, whether organizations, nations, or other social units, is often attributed to the nature of their leadership style (Oladipo et al., 2013).

Leadership involves a dynamic process focused on inspiring others to fully realize their potential in achieving goals, vision, and integrity with passion (Mitonga et al., 2012). Additionally, the study emphasizes that interactions between leaders and workers significantly contribute to employee satisfaction, with this satisfaction notably influenced by the leader's adopted leadership style. The essence of transformational leadership lies in nurturing growth and addressing the needs of followers. Managers who employ this style prioritize enhancing employees' values, motivation, and ethical standards while also recognizing and leveraging their capabilities (Ismail et al., 2009). The objective of transformational leadership extends beyond surface-level changes; it aims to initiate profound transformations within individuals and organizations. This involves broadening vision, enhancing insight and understanding, aligning behaviour with values and principles, and fostering enduring, self-sustaining changes that create momentum (Bass, 1997).

Transformational leadership is characterized by leaders broadening their perspectives and advocating for the interests of employees. They foster awareness and acceptance of the group's purpose and objectives, motivating employees to transcend their self-interests for the collective good (Bass and Avolio, 1993). These leaders inspire followers to approach challenges with fresh perspectives, provide support and encouragement, and effectively communicate a compelling vision (Bass and Avolio, 1993). They possess the ability to articulate a clear organizational vision, impacting both individual-level factors such as motivation and organization-level dynamics like resolving conflicts among groups or teams (Tracey et al., 1996). The influence of transformational leadership extends to both individual and organizational outcomes, including enhanced employee satisfaction and performance. Furthermore, higher levels of transformational leadership correlate with increased group potency (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

Transactional leadership primarily focuses on a quid-pro-quo approach, where leaders and followers engage in a clear exchange: rewards are given for achieving specific objectives or reaching certain performance levels (Trottier et al., 2008). This leadership style is marked by a straightforward relationship between effort and compensation, with leaders using this relationship to enhance subordinates' performance by appropriately rewarding them (Bryant, 2003). In organizations, transactional leadership manifests as a reciprocal interaction between managers and their teams (Jung, 2001), emphasizing the mutual benefits of achieving set goals through the distribution of rewards and the enforcement of policies (Howell et al., 1993). Leaders who adopt this style drive motivation by offering rewards contingent on performance, applying corrective actions as necessary, and upholding organizational rules (Bass and Avolio, 1990). The strategy behind transactional leadership includes contingent reinforcement, which might involve positive rewards or various types of management-by-exception, both active and passive (Bock, 2008). By promoting a system where tasks are completed in return for rewards or privileges, transactional leaders effectively incentivize their followers (Yang, 2007), leading to higher group efficacy under conditions that embrace transactional leadership principles (Kahai et al., 1997).

3. Conclusion and discussion

Leadership emerges as a fundamental aspect of managing entities at all levels, from countries to organizations and teams. Its impact permeates the lives of individual followers and extends to the collective dynamics of entire organizations. The multifaceted nature of leadership is evident through various conceptualizations, including skill or ability, leader-follower relationships, and dynamic social processes. As highlighted by scholars, leadership is not static but rather evolves in response to changing global and technological landscapes, necessitating ongoing updates and modifications to leadership theories. Numerous theories offer diverse perspectives on leadership, ranging from distributed and charismatic leadership to authentic and participative leadership styles. Each theory sheds light on different aspects of leadership behaviour, emphasizing the importance of ethical conduct, emotional intelligence, and adaptive responses to dynamic environments. Moreover, situational factors play a crucial role in determining leadership effectiveness, as evidenced by contingency theories and the concept of servant leadership. In the face of globalization and increasing complexity, leadership challenges become more pronounced, requiring leaders to possess a diverse skill set and adaptability. By incorporating insights from various theories, leaders can navigate complex environments more effectively, fostering positive organizational climates and achieving sustainable success. Ultimately, the study of leadership remains a dynamic and ongoing pursuit, essential for understanding and enhancing leadership effectiveness in contemporary contexts.

The extensive array of leadership theories reflects the multifaceted nature of leadership and its pivotal role in organizational dynamics. Distributed Leadership theory, as elucidated by D'Annunzio-Green and Francis (2005), underscores the collaborative nature of leadership, where expertise is shared among organizational actors. Charismatic Leadership theory, as expounded by Clarke (2013), emphasizes

the leader's ability to inspire followers through a compelling vision and fulfilling their needs. Similarly, Affiliated Leadership theory, articulated by Cummings and Cummings (2014), emphasizes collaboration, adaptability, and co-creation. Authentic leadership, according to Carasco Saul et al. (2015), promotes positive ethical climates and fosters self-awareness and moral perception. Emotional intelligence, as explored by Edwards et al. (2015) and Collins (2012), underscores the importance of understanding and managing emotions for effective leadership. Ethical Leadership theory, proposed by Carden and Callahan (2007) and Turnbull and Edwards (2005), highlights the significance of ethical conduct and integrity in leadership. Furthermore, the Five Domains Leadership theory (Harland, 2003) emphasizes talent management, strategy, personal proficiency, human capital development, and execution. Leadership transition theory (Ma Rhea, 2013) posits leadership as a dynamic process that evolves within the organizational context.

The conclusion drawn from these diverse theories underscores the complexity and dynamism inherent in leadership. Effective leadership necessitates adaptability, empathy, and a keen understanding of contextual factors. As organizations navigate the challenges of globalization and complexity, leadership remains a critical determinant of success (Ardichvili et al., 2016). Whether through transformational, transactional, or situational approaches, leadership theories offer valuable insights into navigating the complexities of organizational life (Bonebright et al., 2012; Wenson, 2010).

This comprehensive literature is an exploration of the multifaceted nature and profound impact of leadership within organizational contexts. Leadership, as elucidated through various perspectives and scholarly contributions, emerges as a dynamic process of influence that shapes organizational culture, drives team performance, and fosters innovation. Through the lenses of transformational and transactional leadership styles, leaders are empowered to navigate the complexities of modern business environments and inspire their teams towards shared goals. The synthesis of research findings highlights the critical role of leadership in promoting employee satisfaction, organizational commitment, and ultimately, organizational success. By understanding the interplay between leadership styles, organizational culture, and contextual factors, organizations can cultivate environments conducive to growth, collaboration, and resilience. Furthermore, the recognition of leadership as a social process underscores the importance of fostering trust, communication, and mutual respect within organizational hierarchies. Leaders who effectively balance task-oriented behaviours with people-centred approaches can create environments that nurture employee engagement and unleash their full potential. As organizations continue to evolve and adapt to changing landscapes, the significance of effective leadership remains paramount. By embracing diverse leadership styles and leveraging the insights gleaned from research, organizations can cultivate leadership excellence and drive sustainable growth in an ever-changing world.

This extensive literature review examination underscores the intricate and profound impact of leadership within organizational settings. Leadership, as delineated through diverse scholarly perspectives and empirical findings, emerges as a dynamic force shaping organizational dynamics, team performance, and innovation (Bass, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 1990). Through the lens of transformational and

transactional leadership styles, leaders are equipped to navigate the complexities of contemporary business environments and inspire their teams towards collective objectives (Bass and Avolio, 1993; Bock, 2008). This synthesis of research underscores the pivotal role of leadership in fostering employee satisfaction, organizational commitment, and ultimately, organizational success (Nahavandi, 2015; Voon et al., 2011). Moreover, the recognition of leadership as a social process underscores the significance of fostering trust, communication, and mutual respect within organizational hierarchies (Omolayo, 2007; Mullins, 2007). Leaders who adeptly balance task-oriented behaviours with people-centred approaches can create environments conducive to employee engagement and the realization of their full potential (Ismail et al., 2009; Dubrin, 2008). As organizations continue to evolve in response to dynamic market forces, the importance of effective leadership remains paramount. By embracing diverse leadership styles and leveraging insights from scholarly research, organizations can cultivate leadership excellence and drive sustainable growth in an ever-changing landscape (Barchiesi et al., 2007; Howell et al., 1993).

Conflict of interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

- Antonakis, J., & House, R. J. (2014). Instrumental leadership: Measurement and extension of transformational–transactional leadership theory. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25(4), 746–771. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2014.04.005>
- Ardichvili, A., Natt och Dag, K., & Manderscheid, S. (2016). Leadership Development. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 18(3), 275–285. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422316645506>
- Ausburn, L. J., & Ausburn, F. B. (2014). Technical Perspectives on Theory in Screen-Based Virtual Reality Environments. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 16(3), 371–390. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422314532125>
- Baltodano, J.C., Carlson, S., Jackson, L.W. & Mitchell, W. (2012). Networking to leadership in higher education: national and state-based programs and networks for developing women. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 14(1), 62–78. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422311428926>
- Barchiesi, M. A., & La Bella, A. (2007). Leadership Styles of World’s most Admired Companies a Holistic Approach to Measuring Leadership Effectiveness. In: 2007 International Conference on Management Science and Engineering. <https://doi.org/10.1109/icmse.2007.4422046>
- Bass, B. M. (1997). *The ethics of transformational leadership, KLSP: Transformational Leadership*. working papers. Westport (CN): Praeger.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1990). Developing Transformational Leadership: 1992 and Beyond. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 14(5). <https://doi.org/10.1108/03090599010135122>
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership and organizational culture. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 17(3-4), 112-121. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01900699408524907>
- Bass, B.M. (1985). *Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations*. The Free Press.
- Berson, Y., & Linton, J. (2003). An examination of the relationships between leadership style, quality, and employee satisfaction in R&D environments. In: *Engineering Management Conference, 2003. IEMC '03. Managing Technologically Driven Organizations: The Human Side of Innovation and Change*; 2–4 November 2003; Albany, NY, USA. IEEE. pp. 410-414.
- Bharath, S., Nagesh, P., Nanjundeswaraswamy, T. S. (2022). Does Emotional Intelligence Influences the Leadership Style?. *Journal of Advanced Research in Leadership*, 1(1), 33-47.
- Bock, G.-W., Ng, W.-L., & Shin, Y. (2008). The Effect of a Perceived Leader’s Influence on the Motivation of the Members of Nonwork-Related Virtual Communities. *IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management*, 55(2), 292–303. <https://doi.org/10.1109/tem.2008.919679>

- Bonebright, D. A., Cottledge, A. D., & Lonnquist, P. (2011). Developing Women Leaders on Campus. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 14(1), 79–95. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422311429733>
- Brown, T., McCracken, M., & O’Kane, P. (2011). ‘Don’t forget to write’: how reflective learning journals can help to facilitate, assess and evaluate training transfer. *Human Resource Development International*, 14(4), 465–481. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13678868.2011.601595>
- Bryant, S. E. (2003). The Role of Transformational and Transactional Leadership in Creating, Sharing and Exploiting Organizational Knowledge. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 9(4), 32–44. <https://doi.org/10.1177/107179190300900403>
- Carasco-Saul, M., Kim, W., & Kim, T. (2014). Leadership and Employee Engagement. *Human Resource Development Review*, 14(1), 38–63. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484314560406>
- Carden, L. L., & Callahan, J. L. (2007). Creating leaders or loyalists? conflicting identities in a leadership development programme. *Human Resource Development International*, 10(2), 169–186. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13678860701347099>
- Clarke, N. (2013). Model of complexity leadership development. *Human Resource Development International*, 16(2), 135–150. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13678868.2012.756155>
- Collins, J. C. (2012). Identity Matters. *Human Resource Development Review*, 11(3), 349–379. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484312446810>
- Cummings, T. G., & Cummings, C. (2014). Appreciating Organization Development: A Comparative Essay on Divergent Perspectives. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 25(2), 141–154. Portico. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.21186>
- D’Annunzio-Green, N., & Francis, H. (2005). Human resource development and the psychological contract: Great expectations or false hopes? *Human Resource Development International*, 8(3), 327–344. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13678860500199725>
- Derue, D. S., Nahrgang, J. D., Wellman, N., et al. (2011). trait and behavioral theories of leadership: an integration and meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Personnel Psychology*, 64(1), 7-52. Portico. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2010.01201.x>
- Dierdorff, E. C., Rubin, R. S., & Bachrach, D. G. (2010). Role Expectations as Antecedents of Citizenship and the Moderating Effects of Work Context. *Journal of Management*, 38(2), 573–598. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206309359199>
- Dubrin, A. J. (2008). Leadership research findings, practice and skills. Dreamtech Press.
- Eberly, M. B., Johnson, M. D., Hernandez, M., et al. (2013). An integrative process model of leadership: Examining loci, mechanisms, and event cycles. *American Psychologist*, 68(6), 427–443. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0032244>
- Edwards, G., Schedlitzki, D., Ward, J., et al. (2015). Exploring Critical Perspectives of Toxic and Bad Leadership Through Film. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 17(3), 363–375. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422315587903>
- Fang, C.H., Chang, S.T., & Chen, G.L. (2009). Applying Structural Equation Model to Study of the Relationship Model Among Leadership Style, Satisfaction, Organization Commitment and Performance in Hospital Industry. In: 2009 International Conference on E-Business and Information System Security; Wuhan, China. pp. 1-5. <https://doi.org/10.1109/EBISS.2009.5137940>
- Gilley, J. W., Morris, M. L., Waite, A. M., et al. (2010). Integrated Theoretical Model for Building Effective Teams. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 12(1), 7–28. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422310365309>
- Haryanto, H., Suharman, H., Koeswayo, P. S., et al. (2022). Enhancing Employee Engagement in Indonesian Logistics and Forwarders Industry: The Moderating Role of a Democratic Leadership Style. *Economics*, 10(11), 284. <https://doi.org/10.3390/economics10110284>
- Haryanto, H., Suharman, H., Koeswayo, P., et al. (2023). Employee engagement in logistics industry: a perspective in Indonesia. *Acta Logistica*, 10(3), 463–476. <https://doi.org/10.22306/al.v10i3.419>
- Hiller, N.J., DeChurch, L.A., Murase, T. and Doty, D. (2011). Searching for outcomes of leadership: a 25-year review. *Journal of Management*, 37(4), 1137-1177. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206310393520>
- Howell, J. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, locus of control, and support for innovation: Key predictors of consolidated-business-unit performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(6), 891–902. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.78.6.891>
- Ismail, A., Halim, F. A., Abdullah, D. N. M. A., et al. (2009). The Mediating Effect of Empowerment in the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Service Quality. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 4(4). <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijbm.v4n4p3>

- Jeremy Mitonga-Monga. (2012). Perceived leadership style and employee participation in a manufacturing company in the democratic republic of Congo. *African Journal of Business Management*, 6(15). <https://doi.org/10.5897/ajbm11.2443>
- Joshi, P. P., Nagesh, P., & Bharath, S. (2022). Design Parameters of Cross-Cultural Training (CCT) Programs in Information Technology (IT) Organizations. *Indian Journal of Science and Technology*, 15(11), 468–473. <https://doi.org/10.17485/ijst/v15i11.2456>
- Jung, D. I. (2001). Transformational and transactional leadership and their effects on creativity in groups. *Creativity Research Journal*, 13(2), 185–195. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15326934CRJ1302_6
- Kahai, S. S., Sosik, J. J., & Avolio, B. J. (1997). Effects of leadership style and problem structure on work group process and outcomes in an electronic meeting system environment. *Personnel Psychology*, 50(1), 121–146. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1997.tb00903.x>
- Koeswayo, P. S., Haryanto, H., & Handoyo, S. (2024). The impact of corporate governance, internal control and corporate reputation on employee engagement: a moderating role of leadership style. *Cogent Business & Management*, 11(1). <https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2023.2296698>
- Ma Rhea, Z. (2013). Alien tutelage: on generalizability and contextualization in leadership development. *Human Resource Development International*, 16(3), 346–356. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13678868.2012.756158>
- Martin, B. O., Kolomito, K., & Lam, T. C. M. (2013). Training Methods. *Human Resource Development Review*, 13(1), 11–35. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484313497947>
- McWhorter, R. R., Lynham, S. A., & Porter, D. E. (2008). Scenario Planning as Developing Leadership Capability and Capacity. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 10(2), 258–284. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422307313332>
- Muir, D. (2014). Mentoring and Leader Identity Development: A Case Study. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 25(3), 349–379. Portico. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.21194>
- Mullins, L. J. (2007). *Management and organisational behaviour*. Pearson education, 8th ed. London: Pearson Education Ltd.
- Nahavandi, A. (2015). *The art and science of leadership*. Pearson. 3rd ed. Pearson.
- Nanjundeswaraswamy, T. S., & Swamy, D. R. (2014). Leadership styles. *Advances in Management*, 7(2), 57.
- Oladipo, K. S., Jamilah, O., Abduldaud, S., et al. (2013). Review of leadership theories and Organizational performances. *International Business Management Journal*, 7(1), 50–54.
- Omolayo, B. (2007). Effect of leadership style on job-related tension and psychological sense of community in work organizations: A case study of four organizations in Lagos State, Nigeria. *Bangladesh e-Journal of Sociology*, 4(2), 30–37.
- Packard, S. H., & Kauppi, D. R. (1999). Rehabilitation Agency Leadership Style. *Rehabilitation Counseling Bulletin*, 43(1), 5–11. <https://doi.org/10.1177/003435529904300103>
- Parris, D. L., & Peachey, J. W. (2012). A Systematic Literature Review of Servant Leadership Theory in Organizational Contexts. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 113(3), 377–393. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-012-1322-6>
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 1(2), 107–142. [https://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843\(90\)90009-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843(90)90009-7)
- Prideaux, M., & Beg, R. (2007). Uncovering Leadership Issues in Papua New Guinea. In: *Proceedings of the 4th SMEs in a Global Economy Conference*; 9–10 July 2007; Shah Alam, Malaysia. pp. 1–21.
- Sangameshwara, T., Nagesh, P., & Bharath, S. (2022). Critical Risk Features of Digital Buying: A Quantitative Assessment. *Indian Journal of Science and Technology*, 15(46), 2589–2593. <https://doi.org/10.17485/ijst/v15i46.2072>
- Shuck, B., & Herd, A. M. (2012). Employee Engagement and Leadership. *Human Resource Development Review*, 11(2), 156–181. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484312438211>
- Strube, M. J., & Garcia, J. E. (1981). A meta-analytic investigation of Fiedler's contingency model of leadership effectiveness. *Psychological Bulletin*, 90(2), 307–321. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.90.2.307>
- Tracey, J. B., & Hinkin, T. R. (1996). How transformational leaders lead in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 15(2), 165–176. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0278-4319\(95\)00059-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/0278-4319(95)00059-3)
- Trottier, T., Van Wart, M., & Wang, X. (2008). Examining the Nature and Significance of Leadership in Government Organizations. *Public Administration Review*, 68(2), 319–333. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6210.2007.00865.x>
- Turnbull, S. & Edwards, G. (2005). Leadership development for organizational change in a new U.K. University. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 7(3), 396–413. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422305277178>

- Turner, J. R., & Baker, R. (2018). A review of leadership theories: identifying a lack of growth in the HRD leadership domain. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 42(7/8), 470–498. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ejtd-06-2018-0054>
- Victor, G. Y. S., & Soutar, G. N. (2005). The role of ethical behaviours in the relations between leadership styles and job performance. In: *Proceedings of the ANZMAC Conference: Corporate Responsibility*, Fremantle, Australia. pp. 5-7.
- Vignoli, M., Depolo, M., Cifuentes, M., et al. (2018). Disagreements on leadership styles between supervisors and employees are related to employees' well-being and work team outcomes. *International Journal of Workplace Health Management*, 11(5), 274–293. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ijwhm-11-2016-0084>
- Voon, M. L., Lo, M. C., Ngui, K. S., & Ayob, N. B. (2011). The influence of leadership styles on employees' job satisfaction in public sector organizations in Malaysia. *International Journal of Business, Management And Social Sciences*, 2(1), 24-32.
- Wang, D., Xue, H., & Xu, J. (2009). Notice of Retraction: The Mechanism of Leadership Styles Affecting Team Innovation in the PRC. In: *2009 International Conference on Management and Service Science*. <https://doi.org/10.1109/icmss.2009.5302092>
- Wenson, J. E. (2010). After-coaching leadership skills and their impact on direct reports: recommendations for organizations. *Human Resource Development International*, 13(5), 607–616. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13678868.2010.520485>
- Xu, G., & Wang, Z. (2008). The impact of transformational leadership style on organizational performance: The intermediary effects of leader-member exchange. In: *2008 International Conference on Management Science and Engineering 15th Annual Conference Proceedings*. <https://doi.org/10.1109/icmse.2008.4669047>
- Yang, J.-T. (2007). Knowledge sharing: Investigating appropriate leadership roles and collaborative culture. *Tourism Management*, 28(2), 530–543. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2006.08.006>
- Ye, L., Junye, D., & Yan, M. (2011). The relationships between leadership styles and organizational innovation climate: Cases of some high-tech enterprises in Hebei. In: *2011 International Conference on Business Management and Electronic Information*; Guangzhou. 2011. pp. 316-319. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICBMEI.2011.5917910>

Perspective

The call for hybrid work arrangement post-pandemic

Amani Fadzlina Abdul Aziz, Tiffanie Ong*

Naluri Hidup Sdn Bhd, Kuala Lumpur 59000, Malaysia

* Corresponding author: Tiffanie Ong, tiffanie@naluri.life

CITATION

Abdul Aziz AF, Ong T. (2024). The call for hybrid work arrangement post-pandemic. *Human Resources Management and Services*. 6(3): 3417.
<https://doi.org/10.18282/hrms.v6i3.3417>

ARTICLE INFO

Received: 11 August 2024

Accepted: 13 September 2024

Available online: 20 September 2024

COPYRIGHT



Copyright © 2024 by author(s).
Human Resources Management and Services is published by PiscoMed Publishing Pte. Ltd. This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license.
<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>

Abstract: COVID-19 has led to abrupt changes in work norms and practices. Despite receding pandemic restrictions, the popularity of remote or hybrid work has not subsided. As employees around the world continue to call for more flexibility and autonomy in the way they work, human resource leaders must continuously consider and evaluate decisions based on ever-changing sentiment, balancing the interests of employees and employers alike. In this perspective article, we review the current state of work in the Southeast Asian region, focusing on Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia, the Philippines, and Thailand, and present preliminary results from a region-wide mental health assessment that was conducted in late 2022. We argue for the continuation of hybrid work in the region and elaborate on the mental health risks that come with remote working.

Keywords: remote work; hybrid work

1. Introduction

COVID-19 has led to abrupt changes in work norms and practices. Considered a luxury a mere 5 years ago, remote working has disrupted the way the world works and given rise to unprecedented workforce trends, such as The Great Resignation and Quiet Quitting, that have challenged organisations to make employee well-being a priority.

Despite receding pandemic restrictions, the popularity of remote or hybrid work has not subsided. As of mid-2022, 57% of companies in the Asia-Pacific region offer either fully remote or hybrid working arrangements (CBRE, 2022). In addition, most workers in Southeast Asia do not prefer a full-time office return, with 32% preferring to work from anywhere, 29% preferring full-time remote work, and 23% preferring a hybrid work arrangement (EY, 2021). Industry surveys have also shown that 6 in 10 workers in Southeast Asia would quit their jobs if not offered flexible working arrangements post-pandemic.

Despite the challenges in the early transitional periods of the pandemic, employees are not keen to let go of remote working arrangements. While some employers may express opposition to the idea of continuing remote work, heightened workplace productivity in the past 2 years indicates that employers too stand to benefit from the continuation of remote work. However, if remote work is to be normalised in the future of work, employers and employees in the region need to grasp the full picture that comes with remote work—the benefits, the risks, and the ways to optimise remote work for everyone involved.

2. Work arrangements in Southeast Asia post-pandemic

In October 2022, Naluri sought to measure the state of mental health in Southeast

Asia through an online public mental health campaign that asked for respondents to complete the Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scales (DASS-21) and the Burnout Assessment Tool (BAT-12) (Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995; Schaufeli, et al., 2020). We include results from $n = 13,227$ respondents who are full-time employees aged 18–65 years old across Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia, Philippines, and Thailand.

To obtain a clearer picture of the risk factors affecting the mental health of employees in the region, we also assessed their current work arrangements at the time. Contrary to Western markets, where remote and hybrid working has dominated the employment landscape the past few years, nearly 70% of employees across Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia, the Philippines, and Thailand are back in the office with a full onsite work arrangement (**Figure 1**). In contrast, roughly 24% of employees were working with hybrid arrangements, and only 7.5% of employees in the region were fully remote. This is certainly a stark contrast to the 34% of the American workforce who worked entirely remotely in 2022 (Owl Labs, 2022), and may be reflective of the increasing number of employers in the region calling for a full return to office life (CBRE, 2022).

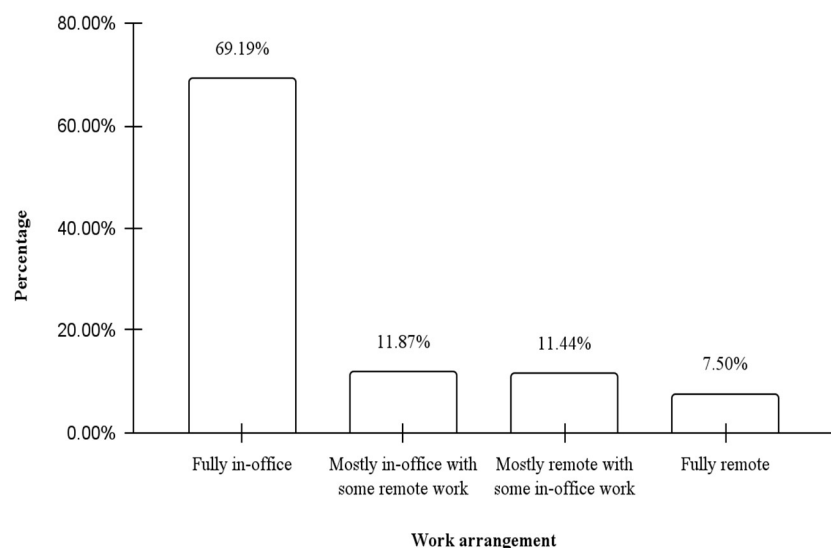


Figure 1. Distribution of employees in Southeast Asia by work arrangement.

Work arrangement and job satisfaction

The predominant narrative surrounding the adoption of remote work has been skewed towards the positive end, and a growing body of research supports this. Remote work has been shown to lower the risks of employee depression and anxiety (Lee, 2022), improve sleep health, and improve work-life balance (Ipsen et al., 2021). Furthermore, as measured using Dolbier et al.'s validated 1-item measure of job satisfaction (Dolbier et al., 2005), our findings show that fully or mostly remote workers in the region report higher job satisfaction than their in-office counterparts (**Figure 2**). Given that job satisfaction strongly influences turnover intention (Chen et al., 2019), this finding highlights the need for employers to fully consider and deliberate any decisions towards returning to office full-time in the future.

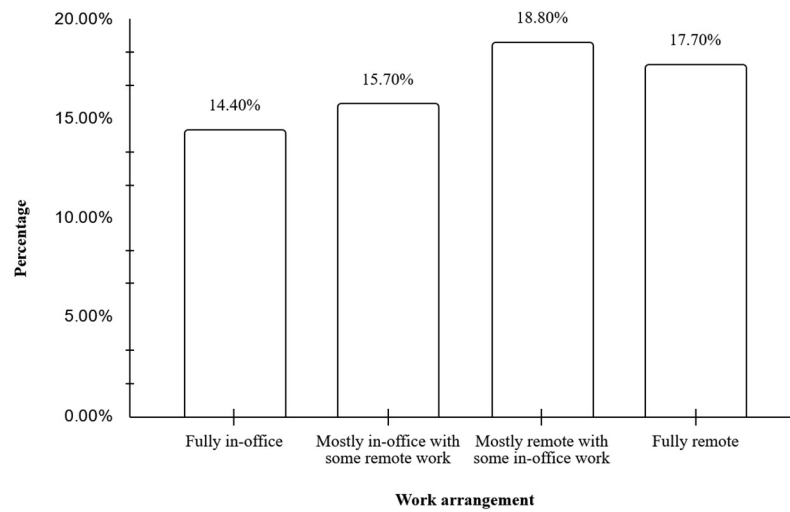


Figure 2. Percentage of employees reporting being satisfied or extremely satisfied with their job by work arrangement.

Employees are not the only ones gaining from remote work. Research has shown that, at an organisational level, remote working has translated to short- and long-term gains for employers. Globally, around 50%–60% of employees report being more productive when working remotely, with nearly 70% of employees aged 18–39 also reporting an increase in the quality of their work when working remotely (Cisco, 2022; Owl Labs, 2022). Not only do employers reap the benefits of higher productivity and quality of work, but when employees are offered access to remote work options, they also report increased innovation, work engagement, commitment to the organisation, and decreased intent to leave (Von Bommel, 2021).

3. Work arrangement and mental health

Despite the individual and organisational benefits that remote work can bring, it is equally important that employees and employers acknowledge the psychosocial risks of working remotely. With a higher commitment to work, remote employees can put themselves at risk of burnout, especially given that working remotely often comes with putting in more hours (Buffer, 2022).

Using the 12-item Burnout Assessment Tool (BAT-12) and the 21-item depression, anxiety, and stress scales, we set out to measure the mental health of employees in the region by different types of work arrangements (Lovibond and Lovibond, 1995; Schaufeli et al., 2020). Across the region, our data shows that employees who are working remotely—either fully or in hybrid arrangements—report higher risks of burnout than employees who have been back in the office full-time (Table 1). Fully remote employees are also reporting higher risks of depression, anxiety, and stress compared to their hybrid and in-office counterparts, which further accentuates the added risks that come with remote work.

Table 1. Breakdown of mental health prevalence by work arrangement.

	Work arrangement			
	Fully in-office	Mostly in-office with some remote work	Mostly remote with some in-office work	Fully remote
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
Depression				
Normal	2028 (22.20%)	410 (26.10%)	345 (22.80%)	168 (16.90%)
Mild	795 (8.70%)	147 (9.40%)	138 (9.10%)	62 (6.20%)
Moderate	1714 (18.70%)	308 (19.60%)	299 (19.80%)	170 (17.10%)
Severe or extremely severe	4615 (50.40%)	705 (44.90%)	731 (48.30%)	592 (59.70%)
Anxiety				
Normal	2353 (25.70%)	473 (30.10%)	400 (26.40%)	182 (18.30%)
Mild	580 (6.30%)	112 (7.10%)	99 (6.50%)	68 (6.90%)
Moderate	1663 (18.20%)	291 (18.50%)	288 (19.00%)	168 (16.90%)
Severe or extremely severe	4556 (49.80%)	694 (44.20%)	726 (48.00%)	574 (57.90%)
Stress				
Normal	2904 (31.70%)	565 (36.00%)	509 (26.40%)	251 (25.30%)
Mild	938 (10.20%)	112 (7.10%)	99 (6.50%)	109 (11.00%)
Moderate	1661 (18.10%)	274 (17.50%)	262 (17.30%)	186 (18.80%)
Severe or extremely severe	3649 (39.90%)	545 (34.70%)	559 (36.90%)	446 (45.00%)
Burnout				
Low	724 (8.10%)	86 (5.70%)	85 (5.80%)	59 (6.10%)
Average	3183 (35.80%)	537 (35.30%)	525 (35.80%)	289 (29.80%)
High or very high	4991 (56.10%)	899 (59.10%)	857 (58.40%)	621 (64.10%)

4. Discussion

4.1. Risk factors of remote working

Burnout is a work-related phenomenon that involves employees experiencing exhaustion, facing emotional and cognitive issues, and feeling detached from work (Schaufeli et al., 2020). One of the many ways employees develop burnout is through an imbalance between work-related demands and resources. When work stressors and demands exceed the personal or organisational resources that employees have access to, employees experience fatigue. When this imbalance is unaddressed and long-standing, this fatigue becomes chronic over time, eventually leading to the development of burnout (Edú-Valsania et al., 2022).

Where remote work is often touted as a solution to promote employee well-being, our findings show that this may not always be the case for employees in the region. Although it may seem counterintuitive for remote employees to report the highest job satisfaction and the highest risk of burnout at the same time, our findings do fall in line with existing research. While it is true that remote work can translate into improved employee well-being and productivity, research shows this relationship is rarely direct and often influenced by other factors such as physical health and emotional health, as well as social and organisational support at work (Fajri and Haerudin, 2022; Shimura et al., 2021). As remote work continues to be in high demand post-pandemic, identifying and addressing the unique risk factors that come with

remote work is important to help employers and employees fully optimise and benefit from remote work.

4.1.1. Hyperconnectivity

Increased adoption of digital technologies is a necessity to maximise the benefits of remote work. Ironically, the medium that allows for work to be conducted remotely is also the medium largely responsible for driving the high burnout rates in remote workers. Hyperconnectivity refers to the phenomenon of being instantly available for communication anywhere and anytime (Quan-Haase and Wellman, 2005). In the context of work, hyperconnectivity drives an “always-on culture” that demands an employee’s availability to attend to work tasks, such as answering emails, calls, and pings, almost anywhere and anytime (Ghislieri et al., 2022).

In addition to regular job demands, remote workers often face an additional expectation from their employers to be available 24/7 (Fukumura et al., 2021). Without question, an “always-on culture” drives employees to higher levels of burnout, as this expectation often translates to longer work hours and larger work demands with very little time for employees to fully rest and recharge their own personal resources (Fukumura et al., 2021). Given that the devices hosting the communication avenues for remote work are constantly within reach throughout the day, the lines separating work and non-work use of digital technologies are often blurred.

Thus, being hyperconnected also increases technostress—stress caused by work-related technology usage, which can lead to fatigue, restlessness, and physical discomfort (Singh et al., 2022). Owing to the increased use of new and familiar digital technologies (Farmania et al., 2022), technostress can increase psychological strain, causing technology exhaustion and decreased well-being (Singh et al., 2022). Given that remote employees rely on higher usage of digital technologies, unmitigated technostress serves to increase their risks of burnout and distress.

4.1.2. Work-home spillover

The easily blurred lines between work and non-work domains make remote workers more vulnerable to work-home spillover. While conflict between work and personal demands is experienced by all groups of employees, work-home spillover is distinct and unique to fully remote workers, driven by hyperconnectivity as well as the risks that come with a lack of temporal and spatial boundaries separating work and other domains of life.

An oft-cited benefit of remote work is the removal of commutes, which understandably removes a large source of stress for employees worldwide (Chatterjee et al., 2021). However, removing commutes can also mean removing the routine set of actions that psychologically and physically separate work from non-work domains of life. When work takes up at least 8 hours of the day, and those hours are spent largely at home, it is easy for employees to unknowingly make work the main aspect of their lives, making it harder to stop work from overtaking other aspects of life such as hobbies, friends, and family (Fukumura et al., 2021).

While research has shown that working remotely from home can make employees more immersed in their work, this immersion also makes it more difficult for employees to detach from work (Chi et al., 2021). A lack of time or temporal barriers

also makes it easy for remote employees to get lost in their work, resulting in long hours into the night and even working on weekends (Fukumura et al., 2021). Where these may seem to translate to higher employee productivity, this benefit is largely short-term and superficial. Work-home spillover merely facilitates remote workers to overwork themselves, often to extreme exhaustion, thus leading to higher burnout, and in effect, reduced productivity (Lazauskaitė-Zabielskė et al., 2022).

4.1.3. Lack of support

Working remotely has been shown to decrease communication, brainstorming, and social interaction with colleagues (Šmite et al., 2023). These aspects of social work life are integral to building social support at work, which can protect employees against burnout by mitigating the effects of work stress on well-being (Fajri & Haerudin, 2022). When working remotely, the social support systems at work are often displaced or limited by communication barriers, which increases the risk of loneliness and social isolation amongst remote employees, driving reduced work engagement, emotional exhaustion, and increased burnout (Bareket-Bojmel et al., 2023; Vander Elst et al., 2017).

Remote employees who do not work in remote-first organisations also face a higher risk of experiencing professional isolation—being removed from professional peers and facing the lack of professional mentorship, collaboration, and development that comes with it (Kutoane et al., 2021). Though some may see the removal of unnecessary work socialisation as a perk of remote work, this may actually be contributing to higher burnout in remote workers. Spontaneous, unplanned conversations in the workplace are not only essential for socialising but also function as avenues for collaborative problem-solving (Šmite et al., 2023). Without shared lunches and coffee breaks, or “over the shoulder” conversations, employees working remotely are not only at risk of isolation and loneliness, but they are also at a disadvantage when it comes to learning and development (Jämsen et al., 2022). Despite some seeing reduced work socialisation as a benefit owing to reduced distractions during the workday, this can also lead to increased workloads over time, as remote employees may spend additional unnecessary time addressing blocks or problems in work that could have been solved in a 5-minute conversation across cubicles (Jämsen et al., 2022).

Separately, despite having had the last two years to adapt to changes in remote work, remote employees often receive inadequate support from their employers. Remote employees often suffer from less visibility than their in-office counterparts, and this can translate to increased difficulty in career growth (Buffer, 2022). In addition, the inability to monitor remote employees can lead managers to overcompensate by demanding higher productivity, increasing expectations on employee availability, and micromanaging (Fukumura et al., 2021; Hernandez and Abigail, 2020), all of which may further the risk of burnout as well as jeopardise organisational trust in remote employees.

4.1.4. Unhelpful coping

Blurring work boundaries and schedules often comes at the expense of basic self-care. Partly driven by pandemic restrictions, but also by longer work hours, the past

two years of remote work have led to a proliferation of coping behaviours that can negatively impact the health and well-being of remote employees.

Compared to in-office or hybrid employees, being fully remote is associated with more sitting and less exercising, with remote employees reporting higher sedentary behaviour and lower physical activity overall (Fukushima et al., 2021; Streeter et al., 2021). Remote work has also been linked to impaired sleep health (Afonso et al., 2022), dietary changes such as increased snacking (Białek-Dratwa et al., 2022; Sato et al., 2021), and problematic internet use as a coping strategy (Deutrom et al., 2022). These behaviours can negatively affect the physical and emotional well-being of remote employees, which makes them more prone to strain when dealing with the demands of remote work (Perry et al., 2018), thus increasing their vulnerability towards burnout.

4.2. Mitigating risk factors of hybrid and remote work

4.2.1. Greater autonomy in job crafting

Despite concerns about trust and lack of monitoring, providing remote workers with more autonomy has actually been shown to improve job satisfaction and reduce the impact of work strain and emotional exhaustion (Charalampous et al., 2019). One way to allow employees more autonomy is by promoting job crafting, which allows employees to proactively redesign their work, in order to better balance the demands and resources of their jobs with their abilities and needs (Ingusci et al., 2021). Through job crafting, employees can take the steps needed to avoid behaviours that can negatively affect their well-being, and opt for strategies that can help them increase their resources. Research has shown that when job crafting strategies are used, the impact of workload on remote workers' stress can be reduced by up to 17.53% (Ingusci et al., 2021).

To promote job crafting, managers can consider (Gabriel & Aguinis, 2022):

- Allowing employees autonomy and flexibility to negotiate the types of work tasks that they do;
- Allowing employees flexibility in working hours, without expecting them to be accessible outside of those hours;
- Allowing employees the freedom to choose tasks that not only play to their strengths but are also challenging them towards further growth.

4.2.2. Practising empathy in leadership

By relating to the thoughts, emotions, or experiences of their employees, empathetic leaders are able to show that they really care for their employees' needs and achievements. When leaders are empathetic, they are more sensitive to signs of overwork or distress in their subordinates and show a higher willingness to help employees with personal problems, further consolidating a social support system for employees working remotely (Gentry et al., 2016). This can make a great difference in guiding supervisors and managers to reassess work objectives and priorities in a way that actively takes into account the well-being of remote employees.

Empathetic leadership has been positively linked to increased job performance for both leaders and their subordinates (Zivkovic, 2022). More importantly, research has shown that when managers practise empathetic leadership, remote employees

report a 43% decrease in work-related burnout (Von Bommel, 2021). When managers show active support and acknowledgment of employees' feelings and efforts, remote employees also feel less social isolation (Charalampous et al., 2019).

Organisations can help build empathetic leadership by providing resources for managers to improve active listening skills (Gentry et al., 2016). Given the limitations of remote work, nonverbal cues such as facial expressions, posture, and gestures can be easily overlooked. Hence, it is important that managers of remote employees improve their active listening skills—listening intently and mindfully—to ensure that their remote employees are given the appropriate time, attention, and visibility.

4.2.3. The importance of intention

With the blurring of boundaries between work and non-work, there is a greater need for intentional self-care among remote workers. As home no longer holds the same restorative effect, those working from home will require more self-discipline to routinely detach and reset from work. In addition, with the added flexibility that comes with remote work, intention plays a vital role in making sure that remote employees are mindful and focused on work during their set working hours, which can help reduce work-home spillover in the long run.

When it comes to well-being, self-discipline, and intention are often the key factors that determine how remote work can affect health and wellness. For remote employees, tangible strategies for more intentional self-care can include:

- **Morning and evening routines to help open and close work days**

With no commutes to physically separate work and non-work lives, routines to start and end the work day allow employees to create a psychological separation between work and non-work. In this aspect, we recommend including mindfulness breathing exercises, journaling, and spending time with loved ones to create more effective work openers or closers.

- **Setting a hard limit on when to physically and mentally get off work**

Often, the attractive factor of remote working is the flexible hours it provides. Hence, it is understandable that remote workers often shun set working schedules and hours. Creating a time limit on the last hour of the day to get off work helps employees become more accountable for creating time boundaries. Whether this limit is 6 p.m. or 10 p.m., when the time comes, we recommend physically removing yourself from your workstation, turning off the notifications on your work devices, and focusing on the rest of your day.

- **Self-discipline in managing physical and mental wellness**

Maintaining a consistent sleep schedule, getting appropriate amounts of physical activity during the week, making time for hobbies, and avoiding harmful coping behaviours—such as mindless scrolling and endless snacking—require a higher level of self-discipline for remote workers. Setting small, daily self-care goals can help remote employees be more accountable and self-disciplined in managing their own health.

4.2.4. The role of resilience in the new normal

Resilience can protect employees from burnout, acting as a personal resource to tap into when job demands are high and organisational resources are low. Specifically,

for remote workers, having higher resilience can increase feelings of personal accomplishment—something that is often reduced in remote work (Ferreira & Gomes, 2021; Hill et al., 2022), which decreases work engagement even further. Separately, resilience has also been shown to help remote workers reduce dysfunctional coping strategies (Sygit-Kowalkowska et al., 2022), which in the long run helps remote workers manage their stressors more effectively.

Despite being a personal resource for employees, employers also play a role in improving employee resilience through:

- **Training managers to practice resilience-enhancing leadership**

This can include being supportive of employees' personal goals, providing a sense of safety against failures—especially for challenging tasks, and building the core belief that employees can be further developed, regardless of where they are at the moment (Franken et al., 2022).

- **Providing resources for employees to build resilience remotely**

This can be in the form of mental health support via counselling or coaching, or online resilience and stress-management training. It is important for resources to be scalable, personalised, and most importantly anonymous to help employees overcome personal and social stigmas around help-seeking.

5. Conclusion

Despite its lauded benefits, remote work is not challenge-free and can come with increased psychosocial risks. However, shifting employee demand for greater flexibility will continue to persist in this new normal. Our data reveals that a win-win option for both employers and employees lies in the middle ground: hybrid working. Moving forward, the key concern lies in how to mitigate the risks of burnout when employees are working remotely while at the same time maximising employee productivity and engagement. We recommend employers provide for greater autonomy in job crafting, foster empathic leadership, and promote initiatives to build employee resilience. For employees working remotely, we highlight the importance of intention and self-discipline in managing the unique challenges that come with remote working. As organisational practices continue to shift and evolve post-pandemic, both employees and employers must play their roles in building a new normal that works for all.

Author contributions: Data curation, AFAA; writing—original draft preparation, AFAA; writing—review and editing, TO. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Conflict of interest: Authors AFAA and TO are employed by Naluri Hidup Sdn Bhd.

References

- Afonso, P., Fonseca, M., & Teodoro, T. (2022). Evaluation of anxiety, depression and sleep quality in full-time teleworkers. *Journal of Public Health*, 44(4), 797–804. <https://doi.org/10.1093/pubmed/fdab164>
- Bareket-Bojmel, L., Chernyak-Hai, L., & Margalit, M. (2023). Out of sight but not out of mind: The role of loneliness and hope in remote work and in job engagement. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 202, 111955. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2022.111955>

- Białek-Dratwa, A., Szczepańska, E., Grajek, M., et al. (2022). Health Behaviors and Associated Feelings of Remote Workers During the COVID-19 Pandemic—Silesia (Poland). *Frontiers in Public Health*, 10, 774509. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2022.774509>
- Buffer. (2022). 2022 State of remote work. Available online: <https://buffer.com/state-of-remote-work/2022> (accessed on 18 February 2024).
- CBRE. (2022). Asia Pacific companies expect employees to spend more time in office even as majority warm to hybrid work: CBRE. Available online: <https://www.cbre.com/press-releases/asia-pacific-companies-expect-employees-to-spend-more-time-in-office> (accessed on 18 February 2024).
- Charalampous, M., Grant, C. A., Tramontano, C., & Michailidis, E. (2019). Systematically reviewing remote e-workers' well-being at work: A multidimensional approach. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 28(1), 51–73. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2018.1541886>
- Chatterjee, A., Prinz, A., Gerdes, M., & Martinez, S. (2021). Digital Interventions on Healthy Lifestyle Management: Systematic Review. *Journal of Medical Internet Research*, 23(11), e26931. <https://doi.org/10.2196/26931>
- Chen, X., Ran, L., Zhang, Y., et al. (2019). Moderating role of job satisfaction on turnover intention and burnout among workers in primary care institutions: A cross-sectional study. *BMC Public Health*, 19(1), 1526. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-019-7894-7>
- Chi, O. H., Saldamli, A., & Gursoy, D. (2021). Impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on management-level hotel employees' work behaviors: Moderating effects of working-from-home. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 98, 103020. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2021.103020>
- CISCO. (2022). Employees are ready for hybrid work, are you? Cisco global hybrid work study 2022. Available online: https://www.cisco.com/c/dam/m/en_us/solutions/global-hybrid-work-study/reports/cisco-global-hybrid-work-study-2022.pdf (accessed on 18 February 2024).
- Deutrom, J., Katos, V., Al-Mourad, M. B., & Ali, R. (2022). The Relationships between Gender, Life Satisfaction, Loneliness and Problematic Internet Use during COVID-19: Does the Lockdown Matter? *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 19(3), 1325. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19031325>
- Dolbier, C. L., Webster, J. A., McCalister, K. T., et al. (2005). Reliability and Validity of a Single-Item Measure of Job Satisfaction. *American Journal of Health Promotion*, 19(3), 194–198. <https://doi.org/10.4278/0890-1171-19.3.194>
- Edú-Valsania, S., Laguía, A., & Moriano, J. A. (2022). Burnout: A Review of Theory and Measurement. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 19(3), 1780. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19031780>
- EY. (2021). Majority of surveyed Southeast Asia (SEA) employees prefer not to return to pre-COVID-19 ways of working. Available online: https://www.ey.com/en_id/news/2021/07/majority-of-surveyed-southeast-asia-sea-employees-prefer-not-to-return1 (accessed on 18 February 2024).
- Fajri, A., & Haerudin, H. (2022). The Effect of Work-From Home on Burnout during COVID-19 Disease: The Mediating Effect of Organizational and Family Support. *Budapest International Research and Critics Institute-Journal (BIRCI-Journal)*, 5(1), 1846–1855. <https://doi.org/10.33258/birci.v5i1.3785>
- Farmania, A., Elsyah, R. D., & Fortunisa, A. (2022). The Phenomenon of Technostress during the COVID-19 Pandemic Due to Work from Home in Indonesia. *Sustainability*, 14(14), 8669. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su14148669>
- Ferreira, P., & Gomes, S. (2021). The Role of Resilience in Reducing Burnout: A Study with Healthcare Workers during the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Social Sciences*, 10(9), 317. <https://doi.org/10.3390/socsci10090317>
- Franken, E., Plimmer, G., Malinen, S., & Bryson, J. (2022). Growing and adapting during continuous change: Building employee resilience in the public sector. In: Pinheiro, R., Frigotto, M. L., Young, M. (editors). *Towards Resilient Organizations and Societies: A Cross-Sectoral and Multi-Disciplinary Perspective*. Palgrave Macmillan; 2022. pp. 143–170. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-82072-5_6
- Fukumura, Y. E., Schott, J. M., Lucas, G. M., et al. (2021). Negotiating Time and Space When Working From Home: Experiences During COVID-19. *OTJR: Occupation, Participation and Health*, 41(4), 223–231. <https://doi.org/10.1177/15394492211033830>
- Fukushima, N., Machida, M., Kikuchi, H., et al. (2021). Associations of working from home with occupational physical activity and sedentary behavior under the COVID-19 pandemic. *Journal of Occupational Health*, 63(1), e12212. <https://doi.org/10.1002/1348-9585.12212>

- Gabriel, K. P., & Aguinis, H. (2022). How to prevent and combat employee burnout and create healthier workplaces during crises and beyond. *Business Horizons*, 65(2), 183–192. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2021.02.037>
- Gentry, W. A., Weber, T. J., & Golnaz, S. (2016). Empathy in the workplace: A tool for effective leadership. Available online: <https://cclinnovation.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/03/empathyintheworkplace.pdf> (accessed on 18 February 2024).
- Ghislieri, C., Dolce, V., Sanseverino, D., et al. (2022). Might insecurity and use of ICT enhance internet addiction and exhaust people? A study in two European countries during emergency remote working. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 126, 107010. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2021.107010>
- Hernandez, T., & Abigail, Y. (2020). Remote Workers During the COVID-19 Lockdown. What Are We Missing and Why Is Important. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 62(11), e669. <https://doi.org/10.1097/JOM.0000000000002018>
- Hill, N. S., Axtell, C., Raghuram, S., & Nurmi, N. (2022). Unpacking Virtual Work's Dual Effects on Employee Well-Being: An Integrative Review and Future Research Agenda. *Journal of Management*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/01492063221131535>
- Ingusci, E., Signore, F., Giancaspro, M. L., et al. (2021). Workload, Techno Overload, and Behavioral Stress During COVID-19 Emergency: The Role of Job Crafting in Remote Workers. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12. <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.655148>
- Ipsen, C., van Veldhoven, M., Kirchner, K., & Hansen, J. P. (2021). Six Key Advantages and Disadvantages of Working from Home in Europe during COVID-19. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 18(4), 1826. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18041826>
- Jämsen, R., Sivunen, A., & Blomqvist, K. (2022). Employees' perceptions of relational communication in full-time remote work in the public sector. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 132, 107240. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2022.107240>
- Kutoane, M., Brysiewicz, P., & Scott, T. (2021). Interventions for managing professional isolation among health professionals in low resource environments: A scoping review. *Health Science Reports*, 4(3), e361. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hsr2.361>
- Lazauskaitė-Zabielskė, J., Urbanavičiūtė, I., & Žiedelis, A. (2022). Pressed to overwork to exhaustion? The role of psychological detachment and exhaustion in the context of teleworking. *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 44(3), 875–892. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0143831X221095111>
- Lee, C. (2022). Remote employees in Japan less likely to be depressed. Available online: <http://hrmasia.com/remote-employees-in-japan-less-likely-to-be-depressed/> (accessed on 18 February 2024).
- Lovibond, S. H., & Lovibond, P. F. (1995). Manual for the Depression Anxiety Stress Scales, 2nd ed. Psychology Foundation of Australia.
- Owl Labs. (2022). State of remote work 2022. Available online: <https://owllabs.com/state-of-remote-work/2022> (accessed on 18 February 2024).
- Perry, S. J., Rubino, C., & Hunter, E. M. (2018). Stress in remote work: Two studies testing the Demand-Control-Person model. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 27(5), 577–593. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2018.1487402>
- Quan-Haase, A., & Wellman, B. (2005). Local virtuality in an organization: implications for community of practice. In: Van Den Besselaar, P., De Michelis, G., Preece, J., Simone, C. (editors). *Communities and Technologies 2005*. Springer. pp. 215–238. https://doi.org/10.1007/1-4020-3591-8_12
- Sato, K., Kobayashi, S., Yamaguchi, M., et al. (2021). Working from home and dietary changes during the COVID-19 pandemic: A longitudinal study of health app (CALO mama) users. *Appetite*, 165, 105323. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2021.105323>
- Schaufeli, W. B., De Witte, H., & Desart, S. (2020). Manual Burnout Assessment Tool (BAT) – Version 2.0. Available online: <https://burnoutassessmenttool.be/wp-content/uploads/2020/08/Test-Manual-BAT-English-version-2.0-1.pdf> (accessed on 18 February 2024).
- Shimura, A., Yokoi, K., Ishibashi, Y., et al. (2021). Remote Work Decreases Psychological and Physical Stress Responses, but Full-Remote Work Increases Presenteeism. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12, 730969. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.730969>
- Singh, P., Bala, H., Dey, B. L., & Filieri, R. (2022). Enforced remote working: The impact of digital platform-induced stress and remote working experience on technology exhaustion and subjective wellbeing. *Journal of Business Research*, 151, 269–286. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2022.07.002>
- Šmite, D., Moe, N. B., Klotins, E., & Gonzalez-Huerta, J. (2023). From forced Working-From-Home to voluntary working-from-anywhere: Two revolutions in telework. *Journal of Systems and Software*, 195, 111509. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jss.2022.111509>

- Streeter, J., Roche, M., & Friedlander, A. (2021). From bad to worse: The impact of work-from-home on sedentary behaviors and exercising. Available online: <https://longevity.stanford.edu/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Sedentary-Brief.pdf> (accessed on 18 February 2024).
- Sygit-Kowalkowska, E., Piotrowski, A., Boe, O., et al. (2022). Evaluation of Work Mode and Its Importance for Home–Work and Work–Home Relationships: The Role of Resilience, Coping with Stress, and Passion for Work. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 19(21), 14491. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph192114491>
- Vander Elst, T., Verhoogen, R., Sercu, M., et al. (2017). Not Extent of Telecommuting, But Job Characteristics as Proximal Predictors of Work-Related Well-Being. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 59(10), e180–e186. <https://doi.org/10.1097/JOM.0000000000001132>
- Von Bommel, T. (2021). Remote-Work Options Can Boost Productivity and Curb Burnout (Report). Available online: <https://www.catalyst.org/reports/remote-work-burnout-productivity/> (accessed on 18 February 2024).
- Zivkovic, S. (2022). Empathy in leadership: How it enhances effectiveness. In: Proceedings of the 80th International Scientific Conference on Economic and Social Development and 10th International OFEL Conference “Diversity, Equity and Inclusion: The Essence of Organisational Well-Being”; 1–2 April 2022; Dubrovnik, Croatia. pp. 454–467.



Pisco Med Publishing

PiscoMed Publishing Pte. Ltd.

Add : 73 Upper Paya Lebar Road, #07-02B-11

Centro Bianco, Singapore 534818

Tel : +65 8822 5925

E-mail : editorial@piscomed.com

Web : <https://ojs.piscomed.com/>

