Uniwersytet
Ekonomiczny
w Krakowie

Zeszyty Naukowe

Cracow Review
of Economics
and Management

Nr 9 (933)

Kraków 2014

Spis treści

From the Editor

This volume of the "Cracow Review of Economics and Management" contains nine articles devoted to current issues in human resource management. Human resource management as a theoretical concept and sphere of practical applications has achieved a level of growth that may be described as strategic international human resource management (Briscoe, Schuler & Claus 2009, Stor 2011). The wide range of issues in human resource management today includes universal questions concerning strategy building, the organisation of processes and improving tools used to implement the HR function in various organisations, considered in the context of challenges resulting from changes in the labour market and the wider global economy. The trends known as comparative international human resource management (*Handbook…* 2012) and cross-cultural HRM (Morley 2009, Dowling, Festing & Engle 2007) are growing dynamically. As Reilly and Williams noted in 2012, the complexity and variability of the business environment for enterprises operating on domestic and global markets justifies the need to take up new research topics and find new practical solutions to improve human resource functions.

Several current questions concerning human resource management are the subject of the articles presented in this issue. A. Wojtczuk-Turek's paper, which looks at the role of human resource management practices in building employee innovation, opens the volume. Her work is part of the current stream of research being done on innovation in human resource management (see *Rola ZZL…* 2010, Pocztowski 2012). In explaining the relationship between human resource management and employee innovation, A. Wojtczuk-Turek emphasises the particular importance of matching the individual and the organisation as a mediator of this relationship. The four articles that follow this one concern various aspects of organisational involvement, a topic more and more frequently taken up as the subject of research and scientific publications (see Juchnowicz 2012).

The first of them, by T. Stanley, P. Davidson and J. Matthews, addresses the question of the relationship between a creative work environment and employee engagement. Based on the analysis of the subject literature, the authors offer specific directions and research methods pertaining to the relationship. In the

next article, I. Marzec, A. Frączkiewicz-Wronka and J. Strużyna set out to determine the value of learning in public organisations and if the value of that learning translates into employee engagement. They present the results of empirical research on the topic. S. Ptanawanit describes in his article factors that influence operational employee engagement in a transnational corporation, indicating ways to increase recruitment effectiveness, boost work effectiveness and employee retention. T. Kawka analyses the relationship between the level, structure and criteria of remuneration and components of employee engagement. On the basis of his empirical research, T. Kawka contends that the relationship between engagement and elements of the compensation system is a weak one. That employee engagement forms the basis of "pro-effective" behaviours and enhances productivity is the issue taken up by W. Ulrych, who focuses on the team element of management effectiveness and discusses the problems that exist in this area.

The next two articles examine the issue of leadership, which has for many years been the subject of research and practical investigation, yielding copious concepts and a rich subject literature (*Przywództwo…* 2007, Sikorski 2006, Eales-White 2000, "Zarządzanie Zasobami Ludzkimi" 2011). The first article, by Ł. Haromszeki, analyses the importance of social and cultural changes in the process of creating models of expectations towards global organisational leaders, looking at the similarities and differences depending on the context of the occurrence of a leadership relationship. In the other article, J. Furmańczyk introduces the idea and theoretical premises behind the cultural conditioning of leadership. Using empirical research, she examines their importance in managing international organisations using the example of enterprises backed by German and Japanese capital functioning on the Polish market in the automobile industry. I. Kołodziejczyk-Olczak's article closes the issue, introducing a strategic approach to age management in Polish enterprises. This is a current issue in the context of demographic changes, which are leading to an aging society and challenges for management that accompany them.

The overview of the content of the papers that make up this issue of the "Cracow Review of Economics and Management" suggest the timeliness and huge importance of the questions they take up. The issue of innovation in human resource management, building employee engagement, more effective work, leadership and age management constitute subjects of interest for researchers and practitioners in countries across the globe, as the numerous publications and appearance at international conferences of the topics they cover surely attest. In wishing you a pleasant read of the articles collected here, I hope that their content will be a source of scientific reflection and inspiration to take up further research.

Aleksy Pocztowski
Editor-in-chief

Bibliography

Briscoe D. R., Schuler R. S., Claus L. (2009), *International Human Resource Management. Policies and Practices for Multinational Enterprises*, 3rd ed., Routledge, London–New York.

Dowling P. J., Festing M., Engle Sr. A. D. (2008), *International Human Resource Management. Managing People in a Multinational Context*, 5th ed., Thomson Learning, London.

Eales-White R. (2000), *Jak to robić lepiej… być liderem*, Dom Wydawniczy Bellona, Warszawa.

Handbook of Research on Comparative Human Resource Management (2012), Ch. Brewster, W. Mayrhofer (eds), Edward Elgar Publishing Limited, Cheltenham (UK), Northampton (USA).

Juchnowicz M. (2012), *Zaangażowanie pracowników. Sposoby oceny i motywowania*, PWE, Warszawa.

Morley M. J. (2007), *Of Infants and Adolescents: Progress and Pessimism in the Development Trajectory of International Human Resource Management*, Keynote Presentation to the 9th IHRM Conference, Tallinn, 12–15 June.

Pocztowski A. (2012), *Od imitacji do innowacji w zarządzaniu zasobami ludzkimi*, „Organizacja i Kierowanie", nr 1A.

Przywództwo wyższego stopnia. Blanchard o przywództwie i tworzeniu efektywnych organizacji, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2007.

Reilly P., Williams T. (2012), *Global HR. Challenges Facing the Function*, Gower Publishing Limited, Farnham.

Rola ZZL w kreowaniu innowacyjności organizacji (2010), S. Borkowska (ed.), C.H. Beck, Warszawa.

Sikorski C. (2006), *Organizacje bez wodzów. Od przywództwa emocjonalnego do koordynacji demokratycznej*, C.H. Beck, Warszawa.

Stor M. (2011), *Strategiczne międzynarodowe zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego we Wrocławiu.

„Zarządzanie Zasobami Ludzkimi" (2011), nr 6(83).

Agnieszka Wojtczuk-Turek

Department of Human Capital Development
Warsaw School of Economics

The Importance of HRM in Creating Employee Innovativeness – The Mediating Role of Person-Organisation/Job Fit and Job Characteristics

Abstract

The purpose of the study presented in this article is to describe and explain the relationship between HRM practices and innovative behaviours initiated and performed by employees. In the model I propose, I use a "person-organisation fit" as a mediator of the relationship between HRM and creative activity in the workplace, and the influence the former has on the latter. The analysis also accounts for a variable which corresponds to person-organisation fit, and is defined as "job characteristics".

The research confirmed that a significant statistical relationship exists between innovative work behaviours and all of the variables examined: HRM practices, person-organisation fit and job characteristics/job demands. On the basis of the analysis with the use of structural equation model, it may be stated that the following factors influence innovative behaviours: 1) HRM practices (which have an indirect influence through person-organisation fit) and 2) person-organisation fit and job characteristics/job demands (which have a direct influence). The model explains the direct influence of HRM on person-organisation fit and job characteristics.

The research shows that the "person-organisation fit" construct, as a variable explaining individual innovative effectiveness in the workplace, provides a useful perspective which may facilitate not only understanding of factors which determine the occurrence of organisational innovative activity, but also stimulate creative behaviours

via HRM activities. This is because HRM practices play the key role both in adjusting competences to job characteristics and demands, and in creating attitudes which support employee innovative commitment.

The combination of variables presented in the research model helps to explain the significance of chosen determinants of behaviours which are essential from the perspective of company effectiveness and competitiveness on the market. The research focuses on both individual aspects of innovative behaviours (resources which are needed to perform a creative task) and their organisational aspects (person-job/organisation fit). The scope of the analysis also covers the strategic role HR departments play.

Keywords: HRM, innovativeness, person-organisation fit, person-job fit, job characteristics.

1. Introduction

The analysis of the determinants of employee innovativeness reveals a wide spectrum of factors which condition the occurrence of creative activities in a workplace, comprising both individual and organisational factors. The key predictors of innovative work behaviour (IWB) of an organisational nature include practices within the field of human resource management (HRM), as they exert a direct influence on employee attitudes and behaviours. Empirical studies confirm the influence of the entire HRM system and of its separate practices on: the development of innovative culture (Alharthey *et al.* 2013), the development and use of intellectual capital (Wright, Dunford & Snell 2001), the creation of knowledge and development of new products (Collins & Smith 2006), support for the capability of knowledge management (Chen & Huang 2009), and organisational learning (Snell, Youndt & Wright 1996). Among the practices which might support innovativeness in an organisation are the following: commitment-based HR practices (Ceylan 2013), knowledge-oriented HR configuration (Chiang & Shih 2011), incentive system pay (Wang 2013) and performance-based pay for generating incremental innovations (Beugelsdijk 2008), training and managerial coaching (Wang 2013), among others. At the same time, scholars stress that there are numerous mediators and moderators of HRM's influence on innovativeness, e.g.: employee attitudes (commitment), behaviours (task performance), and organisational practices (perceived organisational support, job design) (Alfes *et al.* 2013).

In the context of researching the mediators of HRM influence on innovativeness, significant descriptive-explanatory and applicational possibilities are created by including into the range of the analysis the constructs of person-organisation fit (P-O fit) and person-job fit (P-J fit) (Kristof 1996, Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman & Johnson 2005). This is because the studies show that fit mediates between HR practices and other variables, for example between perceived HR practices and employee outcomes (Boon *et al.* 2011), and between training investment and

turnover intentions among knowledge workers (Chang, Chi & Chuang 2010). Moreover, the construct of fit itself explains various individual variables related to employee professional functioning, including a readiness for change and general change self-efficacy (Caldwell 2011), job satisfaction (Kristof-Brown *et al*. 2005), organisational commitment and the intent to seek a new job (Verquer, Behr & Wagner 2003).

The usefulness of this construct for the analysis of innovative effectiveness in the workplace results from the fact that such analyses account not only for the fit between resources/supplies of an employee and job demands (person-job fit), but also the congruence between an employee and organisation with respect to innovative goals, values and needs (person-organisation fit). Research indicates that creative performance is positively related to demands-abilities fit when the creative abilities correspond to the required level (Odoardi, Battistelli & Montani 2010). At the same time, as Boon *et al*. proved empirically (2011), such human resource management practices as selection, training and development help strengthen the person-organisation fit. The practices allow an organisation, via selection and training, to adjust the competences of a given person to the requirements. At the same time, it is via HRM that the organisation's values, expectations and requirements are communicated. Finally, fit analysis may form the basis for designing HRM activities which cover the fit between competences and job requirements, job design, goal formulation and the creation of attitudes which facilitate employee innovative commitment. Such activities are expected to lead to the achievement of innovative outcomes by increasing the person-innovation fit.
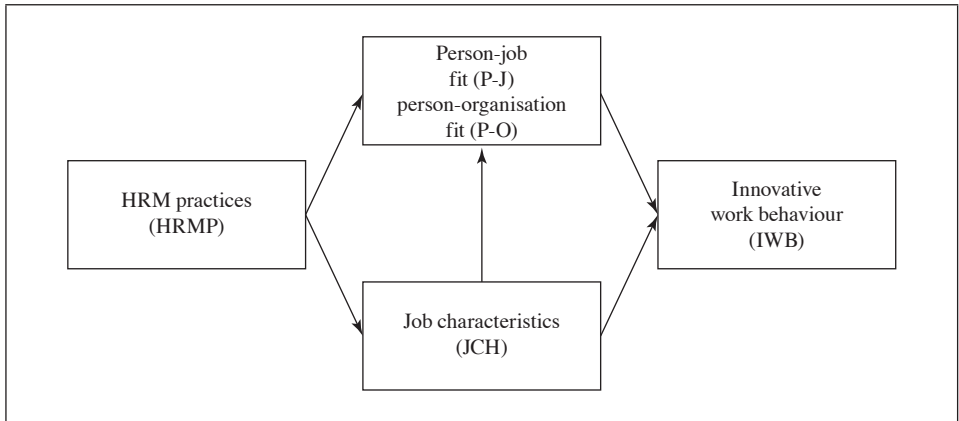

Fig. 1. The Hypothetical Model of Interrelations
Source: the author.

The purpose of the study presented in this article is to describe and explain the relationship between HRM practices and innovative behaviours initiated and performed by employees. In the model I use to explain the influence of HRM on creative activity in the workplace, the construct of person-organisation fit is used as a mediator of the relationship. The analysis also includes a variable that corresponds to person-organisation fit and is defined as job characteristics. The relationships conceptualised in the study are presented in Fig. 1. I assume that the influence of HRM on innovative behaviours is indirect – not direct – because the influence of other intervening variables has been accented in other studies done to date, e.g.: job satisfaction, commitment, task performance, and organisational citizenship performance (Den Hartog, Boselie & Pauwe 2004, Kinnie *et al*. 2005, Kuvaas 2008, Snape & Redman 2010, Takeuchi 2009). Consequently, the relationships between these variables in the model have an indirect character, because, for innovation to occur, it is first necessary for employees to be well fitted both to the organisation and the job requirements, and to relate to the job demands and job characteristics imposed on them. The model also accounts for the direct interrelations between person-organisational/job fit and job characteristics, on account of the fact that fit between employee resources (competences, attitudes, personal traits) and job requirements corresponds to job characteristics such as autonomy, task diversity, and level of control.

2. The Relationship between HRM and Innovative Work Behaviour (IWB)

Innovative work behaviour (IWB) (Kleyson & Street 2001, Scott & Bruce 1994, West & Farr 1989, Janssen 2000, Young 2012, Agarwal 2014) forms the key element of activities with a high potential of creating organisational value. Such activities may be defined as all types of activities oriented at creating, implementing, and/or effective application of beneficial "novelties" at any given level of the organisation (West & Farr 1989). The term denotes development of ideas not only for new products and technologies, but also changes in administrative procedures which might serve to significantly improve effectiveness in the workplace. IWB covers the intentional introduction and implementation of a new and improved *modus operandi*. It comprises a variety of forms of activity, including searching for opportunities, creating, testing, implementation, and promotion (Scott & Bruce 1994, Kleysen & Street 2001), which can be classified in two main IWB stages: behaviours directed at creation (recognising problems and generating ideas) and ideas directed at implementation (promoting and realising ideas) (Dorenbosch, Van Engen & Verhagen 2005).

As stressed by Janssen (2000), generating, promoting and realising innovative ideas for improvements are not typical jobs for most employees and, therefore, such activities are identified as extra-role behaviours. Thus, as an especially desirable type of employee activity in an organisation, one that leads to the creation of product and process-related innovations, should become subject to influences extended within the system of HRM, since HR practices have an influence on employee efficiency (Becker & Huselid 1998, Huselid, Jackson & Schuler 1997), which is achieved via influencing employee attitudes and behaviours, skills and motivation (Huselid 1995), as well as by shaping employees' manner of perception (Ostroff & Bowen 2000, Wright, Dunford & Snell 2001).

Researchers analysing the issue of HRM in its relation to innovativeness indicate the following aspects accompany creative activities in the workplace: proper organisational structure, shaping the recruitment in innovative companies, key roles, individual development and career, effective team work and leadership, extensive communication and participation, efficiency (and its measurement), bonuses, and the creation of a creative culture. One group of researchers also believe that HR practices play a vital role in creating innovative culture – via realising the roles required for that culture, including the roles of: creative geniuses who formulate innovative ideas; innovation champions who develop individuals' creative thinking to support innovation; and innovation leaders who focus on personal and organisational expectations and on promoting innovation (Alharthey *et al.* 2013). At the same time, under the influence of the culture of innovation, the HRM practices themselves also become modified.

Because innovative behaviours are characterised by a high level of productivity, performance work practices/systems likely play a significant role in supporting them (Huselid 1995). The systems include high-commitment work systems, high-involvement work systems, and high-performance human resource management (Gittell, Seider & Wimbush 2010). Empirical studies show that HR practices related to HPWS such as commitment-based HR practices (Ceylan 2013), knowledge-oriented HR configuration (Chiang & Shih 2011), performance--based pay for generating incremental innovations (Beugelsdijk 2008), and training (Wang 2013) determine innovative activity in the workplace. The major practices which support innovation-oriented business strategy are learning and development, employee involvement, quality initiatives, performance and management schemes, ND employee welfare and engagement schemes. Others include recruiting creative employees, empowerment, and autonomy (Cooke & Saini 2010).

One of the more important HRM areas of activity which serve to support innovation in organisations is formed by strengthening their knowledge

management capabilities (Chen & Huang 2009). In this context, for innovative behaviours to take place, it is essential that the organisation acquire and accumulate knowledge on the development of new products (new product development activities, NPD) (Chiang & Shih 2011). The coherence of HRM practices, described as a knowledge-oriented human resource (HR) configuration, may facilitate NPD learning processes. Thus, it might be stated that HR practices related to knowledge management and free access to information form a basis for organisational learning processes, which in turn facilitate employees' innovativeness. This is confirmed by research results which show that long-term and skill-oriented staffing is one of the HRM systems that promote innovativeness (Jiménez-Jiménez & Sanz-Valle 2008). At the same time, the indirect influence of HR practices on innovativeness, particularly through employee knowledge, has been stressed (Lopez-Cabrales, Pérez-Luño & Cabrera 2009).

Other research into the relationships between HRM and innovativeness shows that commitment to IWB is influenced by the perception of high commitment HRM practices (Dorenbosch, Van Engen & Verhagen 2005), empowerment and employee involvement (Shipton *et al*. 2006). In the case of high commitment HRM practices, the following types of activities are mentioned: employee participation, wages, training and development, information sharing, and supervisor support. Superior support perceived by employees increases their efficiency, especially when their self-esteem is low due to their role in the organisation (Rank *et al*. 2009).

Incentive system pay and developing employee competences also play a particularly important role in stimulating innovative behaviours. These aspects were covered in studies done by Shipton *et al*. (2006), who indicated that two groups of HR mechanisms are likely to enhance innovation in organisations – those designed to promote exploratory learning and those intended to exploit existing knowledge (training, induction, appraisal, contingent pay and team work) are significantly crucial to innovation in products and technical systems. Other research also confirms a positive relationship between employee creative activity on the one hand and training and coaching on the other (managerial coaching). These factors constitute intervening variables between characteristics of employees from R&D departments (in high-technology firms) and their innovative behaviours (Wang 2013).

In the light of the above analyses, it is possible to adopt the following hypothesis:

H1: HR practices have a positive impact on innovative work behaviour.

3. Job Characteristics and Innovative Work Behaviour

Dorenbosch, Van Engen, and Verhagen (2005) indicate that innovative work behaviours can be studied from both the perspective of job characteristics and organisational practices which promote the opportunity and motivation to show IWB. Research shows that the perceived characteristics of a job and HR practices facilitate innovative behaviour (Dorenbosch, Van Engen & Verhagen 2005, Kipp 2010). In this context, the design of a job, considered to be an important cause of employee motivation for innovativeness, is significant (Hackman & Oldham 1980, West & Farr 1990). In the case of innovative commitment, the particular characteristics present in Hackman and Oldham's (1980) Job Characteristics Model (JCM) – skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback – play a significant role. The three first ones lead employees to experience meaningfulness at work, while autonomy determines experienced responsibility for work, and feedback increases the knowledge employees possess of the results of work activities.

Empirical studies prove that from the point of view of job characteristics, the occurrence of radical innovation is facilitated by task autonomy and flexible working hours (Beugelsdijk 2008). The explanation of this relationship might be sought in personality preferences for job characteristics (Kipp 2010). Individuals who achieve high results with regard to openness, a characteristic correlated with creativity, highly appreciate the meaningfulness of work, and accept the possibility of responsibility in terms of autonomy and knowledge originating from feedback on the outcomes of their own work (Kipp 2010). Consideration for this aspect may be expressed through both recruitment activities and other HR practices – motivation, for example. Individuals with a high level of openness and core self-evaluation may be motivated through changes in their work, understood as job enrichment (e.g.: job rotation, enlargement) (Kipp 2010), which may facilitate innovativeness by helping them gain access to new knowledge and the opportunity to acquire new competences.

Moreover, activities with regard to job design may also be related to increasing functionality flexibility, which favours undertaking a variety of tasks (multitasking), and, via an increased range of job activities and psychological extension of the boundaries of one's work, the possibility to increase innovative behaviours (Dorenbosch, Van Engen & Verhagen 2005). Promoting functionality flexibility through increasing redundancy and multi-functionality stimulates a proactive attitude towards the work situation.

Another aspect related to innovative behaviours is the assignment of creativity goals and creative requirements (Binnewies & Gromer 2012), which positively influence creative performance in the workplace. Creativity goals

cause employees to invest more effort into finding creative solutions to problems. This is a response which, as a result, leads to, according to Odoardi, Battistelli, and Montani (2010), the occurrence of creative ideas of increased quantity and quality. These researchers also indicate that, in the context of creative activity, which is constituted by envisioning and planning, job autonomy, task variety and job demands play a particular role. Autonomy may increase the sense of control and self-regulation employees feel. Job control is related to opportunities for learning and an increase of appropriate, relevant task-related knowledge, and thus forms a predictor of creativity and innovativeness (Hammond *et al*. 2011) in all its stages – idea generation, promotion and implementation (Binnewies & Gromer 2012). Job variety stimulates envisioning and planning as well as self-efficacy and control. Job enrichment may increase individual responsibility for tasks and goals (including the innovative ones), which are not directly related to the role of one's job (have an extra-role character) (Frese *et al*. 1996, Parker, Williams & Turner 2006). Creative job demands predict idea generation, idea promotion and idea implementation (Binnewies & Gromer 2012). At the same time, when employees experience overload, it is difficult to set and accept innovative goals. However, research has shown that employees consider innovative efforts to be an effective way to deal with job requirements, through the fact that workload increases individual innovative efforts in order to meet the requirements (Bunce & West 1994).

Thus, from the point of view of stimulating innovativeness in the workplace, it is important for managers to both establish clear goals, and to stimulate employees' internal orientation towards goals within HRM influences, since research shows that individuals with high learning goal orientation approach tasks in order to build on knowledge and skills, improve their competences and master tasks (Odoardi, Battistelli & Montani 2010), which may lead to the effective realisation of creative aims.

In the view of the above findings, the following research hypothesis was formulated:

H2: There is a positive relationship between innovative behaviour and job characteristics.

4. Person-organisation Fit, Person-job Fit and Innovative Work Behaviour

To effectively undertake and realise innovative behaviours requires the appropriate qualifications and competences – especially creative ones. However, from the point of view of task effectiveness, it is particularly important that

employees not only possess them, but also fit the job and organisation. The lack of such a fit may lead employees who display considerably high innovative potential to not achieve the goals that have been set for them, though not because of the lack of opportunities to undertake productive professional activities. It appears, then, that the construct of "fit" as a variable explaining individual effectiveness versus lack of such effectiveness in the workplace (task performance) forms a useful theoretical perspective for the understanding of factors which determine the occurrence of innovative activity in an organisation.

Numerous studies indicate that good person-organisation fit forms the basis for positive attitudes and organisational behaviours leading to efficiency/outcomes (Cable & Judge 1997, Verquer, Beehr & Wagner 2003, Kristof-Brown *et al*. 2005) including creativity and innovativeness (Livingstone, Nelson & Barr 1997, Choi 2004, Choi & Price 2005, Puccio, Talbot & Joniak 2000, Kim *et al*. 2013, Sarac, Efil & Eryilmaz 2014).

Person-organisation fit (Kristof-Brown *et al*. 2005, Kristof 1996) assumes compatibility between an employee's individual characteristics and conditions of his or her job environment. Compatibility is expressed through two main dimensions: 1) the fit of goals, values, and the needs of employees to an organisation's ability to fulfil them, and 2) the fit between employee competences and job requirements. Fit forms an evaluation, expressed via affective and cognitive responses, and related to the degree to which a given job is beneficial or non-beneficial, while the optimal level of person-organisation fit – according to research – is connected with satisfaction (Kristof-Brown *et al*. 2005), which makes it an important factor for shaping employees' sense of psychological well-being. Fit also refers to the degree of similarity or compatibility between individual and situational characteristics (Livingstone, Nelson & Barr 1997). It is possible to discuss fit in terms of similarities as to the goals, values and beliefs (supplementary fit), as well as of differences, which are, at the same time, complementary (complementary fit) (Muchinsky & Monahan 1987). In the second case, the congruence is understood as a complementary exchange of resources – "needs-supplies", "demands-abilities". Naturally, these two perspectives employed to describe fit do not have to be mutually exclusive, a fact Kristof (1996) presented along with his model, which combined supplementary and complementary perspectives.

From the point of view of innovative behaviour, various types of fit may be discussed: person-job, person-organisation, person-supervisor and person-team, though given the scope of this article, only the first two are analysed here.

In the case of person-job fit, the subject of the discussion is congruence between individual predispositions for performing specific job tasks (specific demands). Cognitive abilities, knowledge and experience, as well as motivation are all predispositions that improve the job effectiveness of individuals

undertaking innovative behaviour. The interplay of individual factors (cognitive capabilities, intellect, and personality traits like self-efficacy) and environmental ones (the organisation) are certainly very important to the creative productivity of employees.

Fit with regard to the requirement of creativity will be manifested by the types of relations which can be taken from Harrison's (1985) concept of lack of person-environment fit (P-E), which is related to the relational trend in the treatment of the notion of stress. From this point of view, fit will be reflected by: 1) congruence between the objective environment (task demand) and objective person (an employee's resources for performing the task related to competences, personality, etc.), 2) congruence between the subjective environment and the subjective person (subjective perception, e.g.: demand for work creativity).

Extending the scope of job fit onto the non-task-related factors in terms of intellectual abilities indispensable for performing them, it is also possible to examine the extent to which an individual's job induces emotional overload (stress) versus underload (boredom, monotony, routine). To do so, it seems justified to capture various types of job demands as psychological stressors – the need to perform a job quickly and with a large amount of effort, as indicated by Janssen (2000). Research shows that fit between creativity demands and the capacity for creative behaviours is related to lower load and a higher sense of job satisfaction (Livingstone, Nelson & Barr 1997). Thus, it seems that both fit and job characteristics themselves are closely tied to the effective realisation of innovative behaviours.

Person-job fit is the basis for creating person-organisation fit, related to the overall context of employee's functioning in the workplace and covering its various elements (Kristof 1996, p. 4) including the organisational attributes of culture/climate, values, and goals and individual characteristics including personality, values, goals, and attitudes. Characteristics indicated here contain factors which exceed provisions covered by a formal employment contract, such as job remuneration. They are also related to aspects that more belong to a psychological contract – for example, needs. Fulfillment of mutual demands will condition the existence of person-organisation fit. A demands-abilities perspective refers to the fit that occurs when an individual's abilities meet organisational demands (Edwards 1991). In the case of innovative behaviours, particular significance seems to occur in the range of highly regarded values and goals, and a sense that needs that are important for an employee are being fulfilled and the possibility to develop creative potential exists. Common values and goals facilitate identification with an organisation. Research shows that creative activity is positively related to affective commitment (Jafri 2010).

When discussing the fit of needs of persons undertaking innovative behaviours, it is necessary to indicate the significance of the following factors for creating a commitment to innovation: the possibility to realise diversified, interesting tasks and tasks which might present a challenge, and the possibility to learn and develop professional competences and to develop interests. Fit in this respect will be possible if an organisation provides the conditions for realising such needs, e.g.: via an intellectually stimulating job environment.

On the basis of this analysis, the following research hypothesis was formulated:

H3: There is a positive correlation between innovative behaviour and job fit and organisation fit.

5. Methods

5.1. Sample and Research Procedure

The surveys covered 208 employees working at companies in Poland across a variety of sizes and lines of business. The majority of employees who participated in the survey represented corporations (67%), medium companies (11%), and small companies (17%); from financial agency services and banking (13%), construction (11%), industry and production (8%), electricity, gas and water supply (8%), and others (28%). The majority of the respondents were employees within the age range of 26–35 (46%), with university education (77%), holding non-managerial positions (59%), mostly with work experience of over 5 years (56%) or 1–5 years (37%). 51% of the respondents were female, and 49% male. The survey was anonymous, with a questionnaire emailed to respondents. 963 questionnaires were distributed, and 208, or 22%, were answered and returned. The companies chosen for the study were selected randomly. To preserve anonymity, the questionnaires were collected from HR departments in sealed envelopes.

5.2. Measures

The conducted survey took into consideration the following set of variables:
Innovative workplace behaviour (IWB), which was measured with the 14-item Innovative Behaviour Questionnaire developed by Kleysen and Street (2001). Answers were chosen on a 6-point scale, where 1 was "never" and 6 was "always". To ensure that the instrument was culturally adapted, statistical analyses were performed to verify reliability. The coefficient reliability α for the whole instrument amounted to 0.95. Confirmatory factor analysis was performed in order to verify

whether the tool could be used in the single-factor form ($\chi^2 = 69.011$, $df = 60$; $p = 0.017$; RMSEA = 0.037; CFI = 0.993; GFI = 0.948; NFI = 0.995; TLI = 0.989).

HRM practices (HRMP) were measured using a tool I developed for the purpose. The content of the 8-item tool was established on the basis of a review of available tools for measuring HR practices, including ones designed by Boon *et al.* (2011) and those described in other literature. HR practices concern a variety of aspects of activities related to high performance HR practices. These include recruitment of persons with high competence, the opportunity to improve one's competences, rewards for ideas, job position rotation, and the organisation of teamwork. The coefficient of reliability α for the whole instrument amounted to 0.77. The confirmatory factor analysis ($\chi^2 = 1.201$, $df = 2$; $p = 0.549$; RMSEA = 0.001; CFI = 0.999; GFI = 0.995; NFI = 0.990; TLI = 0.999) confirmed the possibility to employ this tool in further studies in the single-factor version. When completing the questionnaire, the respondents used a 5-item Likert scale, where 1 was "I completely disagree" and 5 was "I completely agree".

An eight-statement questionnaire was used to measure *person-job fit*, *person-organisation fit* (P-O fit, P-J fit). It covered both job fit (congruence between competences possessed and job requirements), and organisation fit (congruence as to the goals, values, and the possibility of realising vital needs), in accordance with Kristof's conceptualisation (1996). The tool's reliability came in at α = 0.75. After the model estimation ($\chi^2 = 22.799$, $df = 16$; $p = 0.119$; RMSEA = 0.063; CFI = 0.971; GFI = 0.952; NFI = 0.914; TLI = 0.950), it was decided that the questionnaire in the single-factor version would be used. The participants responding to statements contained in the tool used the 5-item Likert scale, where 1 was "completely untrue" and 5 was "completely true".

I used my own eight-item *job characteristics* (JCH) tool, referring to the aspects conceptualised in Hackman and Oldham's model (1980): diversity of tasks, degree of control, and autonomy. It also examined creative goals and creativity requirements, and cognitive and emotional overload. The reliability of the tool was estimated at α = 0.81. To validate the tool, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted ($\chi^2 = 23.630$, $df = 25$; $p = 0.541$; RMSEA = 0.001; CFI = 0.999; GFI = 0.959; NFI = 0.937; TLI = 0.999). Respondents completed the questionnaire using the 5-item Likert scale, where 1 was "never" and 5 was "always".

The study examined the control variables of: education, sex, age, job seniority, and job position.

5.3. Results

In order to verify the hypotheses, the correlations for individual variables were analysed. The results of inter-correlation, together with the descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviations) are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. HRMP	3.26	0.91	1								
2. IWB	3.82	0.97	0.228*	1							
3. JCH	3.53	0.66	0.349**	0.483**	1						
4. P-O fit, P-J fit	3.54	0.65	0.536**	0.446**	0.669**	1					
5. Education	1.24	0.43	−0.199*	−0.036	−0.221*	−0.262**	1				
6. Job position	1.58	0.49	−0.199*	−0.219*	−0.319*	−0.424**	0.256**	1			
7. Job seniority	2.50	0.62	0.198*	0.102	0.249**	0.246*	−0.508	−0.380**	1		
8. Sex	1.54	0.50	0.167	0.176	0.128	0.181	−0.085	−0.069	0.002	1	
9. Age	2.14	0.89	0.267**	0.054	0.169	0.317**	−0.464**	−0.362**	0.695**	0.125	1

$* p < 0.05$, $** p < 0.01$.

Source: the author's own calculations.

Statistically significant correlations were found between IWB and the remaining examined variables: HR practices, job fit, organisation fit and job characteristics. In the case of the positive relationship between IWB and the strongest force – job characteristics ($r = 0.483$, $p < 0.01$) – creative activity occurs when creative activity is required in connection with employee's autonomy, the possibility of control, and diversity of tasks which require flexible adjustment to requirements and dealing with overload. With regard to job/organisation fit and IWB, a positive relation was also present, although it was slightly weaker ($r = 0.446$, $p < 0.01$). This confirms the data in the literature that stress their significance for effective activity both from the point of view of fit between employee competences and tasks, and, more broadly speaking, the fit to the organisation's overall characteristics (Kristof 1996). In the case of the relationships between IWB and HR practices ($r = 0.228$, $p < 0.05$), it was found that creative activity is related to human resource management practices including teamwork, competence development programmes, motivation, and job position rotation.

Interestingly, statistically significant relationships between IWM and control variables were not observed, though the literature suggests they will exist with regard to sex, age and job experience, and that they should be controlled in research procedures on such types of behaviours (Agarwal *et al*. 2012, Young 2012).

The next stage of the analysis verified the model and research hypotheses using the structural equation modeling (SEM) method. The adopted research model assumed that there was no indirect relationship between HRM and IWB, but took into account the significance of job fit, organisation fit and job characteristics. Maximum likelihood was employed to model the estimation, with the following confirmatory factors: RMSEA, CFI, GFI, NFI and TLI. The model proved to be well fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 0.079$, $df = 1$; $p = 0.779$; RMSEA = 0.001; CFI = 0.999; GFI = 0.999; NFI = 0.999; TLI = 0.999) and the individual variables explained the interrelations in a statistically significant manner.

On the basis of the presented model (see Fig. 2) it may be stated that IWB is not directly related to HRM practices ($\beta = -0.03$). This relationship, however, has an indirect character ($\beta = 0.31$), which allows hypothesis 1 to be confirmed: P-J fit and P-O fit and job characteristics play the role of intervening variables for the influence of HRM on IWB. Intervening variables account for 10% of result variance with regard to innovative behaviours. At the same time, the direct relationship between innovative behaviours and the variables considered was observed, as assumed in the model. The value of coefficient β in the case of the relationship of innovative behaviours and organisation/job fit is $\beta = 0.34$, and in the case of job characteristics $\beta = 0.54$. It explains, respectively, 12% of the variants of the IWB and P-J/P-O fit results and 29% of the variants of the

IWB and JCH results. The obtained results allow hypothesis 2 to be adopted and to state that, together with the increase of congruence between the competence requirements and the congruence within goals, the values and needs of employees and the organisation, there is an increase in the frequency of employee initiative with respect to the generation and implementation of ideas.
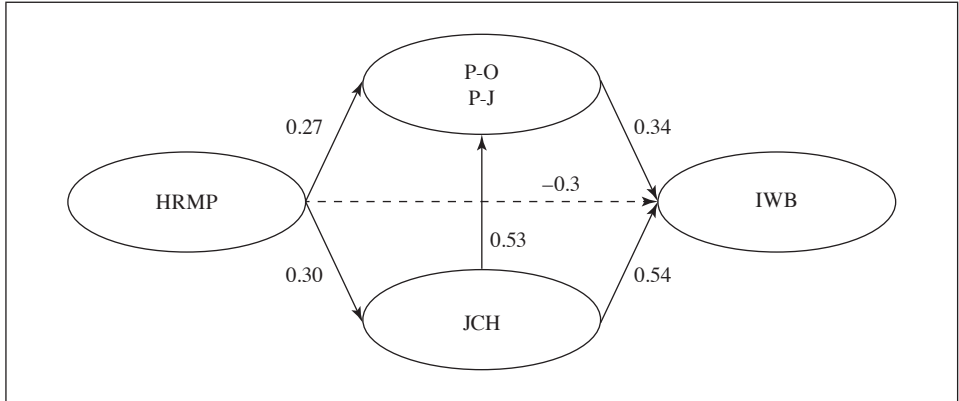
Fig. 2. The Analysis of the Assumed Research Model
Source: the author.

The situation is similar for job characteristics – with regard to that variable, IWB also presents statistically significant relations, confirming hypothesis 3. Thus, when requirements related to performed job are better adjusted to employee preferences with regard to autonomy, degree of control, task type, overload type and other job performance conditions, an employee undertakes creative activity in the workplace more often. The relationship between job/organisation fit and job characteristics is also important. The parameters of the model's estimation indicate that the relationship between these variables ($\beta = 0.53$) is unidirectional, since it turns out that job characteristics are a predictor of person-job/organisation fit.

To sum up, the results achieved in the analysis may be interpreted as follows: HRM practices will stimulate innovativeness in the workplace only when there is both a good person-job and person-organisation fit, and appropriate job characteristics.

6. Discussion of the Results

Innovative behaviour at work depends on HR practices, as well as person-job/organisation fit and job characteristics. The assumed indirect relation between

HR practices and IWB is confirmed by the research done in this area (although not with regard to the variables contained in the research model), which may be exemplified by, for instance, analyses done by the team of Lopez-Cabrales, Pérez-Luño, and Cabrera (2009), who stated that the influence HR practices have on innovation takes place via knowledge. On the other hand, an HRM system may also constitute a mediator and moderator of relations. That is to say, training and managerial coaching formed, in the light of research, an intervening variable between the characteristics of R&D department employees (in high-technology firms), and their innovative behaviours (Wang 2013). Such a result is not surprising when the knowledge of complex interrelationships between variables related to both innovativeness and HRM practices is taken into account. What is more, an organisation's use of certain practices is not as important as the perception that they are effective (Dorenbosch, Van Engen & Verhagen 2005, Nishii, Lepak & Schneider 2008, Boon *et al*. 2011), which, in turn, depends on other factors, including fit (Boon *et al*. 2011). The integration of practices was another factor indicated by researchers to facilitate positive effects of HRM activities on innovativeness (Arthur 1994, Huselid 1995).

The following variables were found to be mediators of the influence of HR practices on innovativeness: person-job fit, person-organisation-fit and job characteristics. At the same time, these variables display a direct influence on innovative behaviours in the workplace. The results agree with other studies, according to which creative performance is positively related to demands-ability fit when creative abilities remain in agreement with the level required (Odoardi, Battistelli & Montani 2010). In this context it is possible to speak of person--innovation fit influencing innovative outcomes. Naturally, fit only with regard to competences is not sufficient to undertake and effectively realise innovative activities. In spite of P-J fit and P-O fit convergence, it is stressed that work as a part of the work environment forms a separate concept (Kristof 1996), and possession of job skills does not have to signify congruence with organisational values and culture (Lauver & Kristof-Brown 2001). Therefore, fit between an employee and an organisation as a whole is also relevant, as confirmed by Choi and Price (2005), who showed that agreement between individual values and innovative values (supply-values fit) forms a predictor of commitment from the point of view of innovation implementation, while congruence between required abilities for innovation and the actual abilities of an employee (demands-ability fit) strongly correlates with effective behaviour directed at implementation.

With regard to job characteristics, which in the research presented are also related to employee innovativeness, and in particular such attributes as perception of autonomy, responsibility, and job control, may generate motivational processes through ascribing innovation-oriented goals by the management, since autonomy

and job enrichment strengthen the sense of responsibility both for employees' own work and for goals which are not directly related to their job roles. In such a situation, employees are more willing to perceive the innovativeness of goals as desirable (Odoardi, Battistelli & Montani 2010) – similarly, in the case of job control, which is positively related to creativity and innovativeness (Binnewies & Gromer 2012). Fit in that respect, together with a high level of control, creates a chance for experimentation at work, thereby enabling employees to freely create, communicate and express ideas (Ohly, Sonnentag & Pluntke 2006).

I would stress that HRM increases fit and job design, which are directly tied to innovative activity in the workplace. HRM practices are key both in adjusting competences to job characteristics and demands, and in creating attitudes that support the innovative commitment of employees. Moreover, I would recommend, as a relevant area of HR activities supporting innovations, measuring various types of complementary and supplementary fit, taking into account the dynamics of changes with regard to job requirements (e.g.: increased requirement of creativity or overloads), competences (outdating of knowledge), employee attitudes (especially sensitive to personnel policy), a sense of being appreciated, having a sense of one's own work and valuing it, perceived organisational support, a sense of organisational justice/fairness, and job satisfaction (Wojtczuk-Turek 2013). Divergences with respect to person-job fit by way of organisational changes should thus be eliminated (job conditions and content) while employees should be equipped with adequate competences. Furthermore, increased fit results in better acceptance of messages sent by the organisation (Boon *et al*. 2001). The signals communicated by HR systems might then be better understood and supported by employees, which will translate into their increased commitment, and, consequently, improved performance.

7. Limitations and Future Directions

While the research presented here contributes new knowledge with respect to mediators of the influence of HR practices on innovative behaviours, it is not free from shortcomings. First of all, the conclusions on the influence of variables assumed in the research model were indirect because the model did not cover experimental research.

Another issue is related to the manner of examination of the variables and to the study tools. Although cultural adaptation was conducted and the reliability of all the tools used in the research was accounted for, their accuracy was not validated. A reference is still needed to an external criterion which would validate the conclusions. Moreover, measures are based on self-reported data, which might raise

doubts with regard to the "social desirability" variable. In this context, it would also appear desirable, during future studies, to use numerous sources of knowledge with reference to the examined variables – for example, the opinions of managers (multisource), and not only the opinions of the employees covered by the study.

As for research on HR practices, two issues are significant: the study of the interactive influence of different types of practices on innovative behaviours (Jiménez-Jiménez & Sanz-Valle 2008), together with the evaluation of their significance by employees, and not only a diagnosis of the fact of their occurrence in an organisation. This is so because the research shows that from the point of view of the effects of such practices, their positive evaluation is also relevant (Boon *et al*. 2011). Future studies should also broaden the extent of analysis to diagnose the HRM fit itself, since research proves that it plays an important role in creating a team climate, which, when there are multiple teams, supports the generation of innovative products (Estrada, Martin-Cruz & Pérez--Santana 2013). Moreover, Boon *et al*. (2011) said, to date no extensive research has been conducted with regard to a set of "high efficiency" HR practices and P-E fit, although detailed research indicates positive interrelations exist. Finally, extending research on the range of moderators of the influence of HRM on innovativeness is recommended.

Bibliography

Agarwal U. A. (2014), *Linking Justice, Trust and Innovative Work Behaviour to Work Engagement*, "Personnel Review", 43(1): 41–73, http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/pr-02-2012-0019.

Agarwal U. A., Datta S., Blake-Beard S., Bhargava S. (2012), *Linking LMX, Innovative Work Behaviour and Turnover Intensions: The Mediating Role of Work Engagement*, "Career Development International", 17(3): 208–230, http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/13620431211241063.

Alfes K., Truss C., Soane E. C., Rees Ch., Gatenby M. (2013), *The Relationship between Line Manager Behavior, Perceived HRM Practices, and Individual Performance: Examining the Mediating Role of Engagement*, "Human Resource Management", 52(6): 839–859, http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/hrm.21512.

Alharthey B. K., Rasli A., Yusoff R. Md., Al-Ghazali B. M. (2013), *Impact of Innovation Culture on Human Resources Management Practices*, "International Journal of Academic Research", 5(3): 60–63.

Arthur J. B. (1994), *Effects of Human Resource Systems on Manufacturing Performance and Turnover*, "Academy of Management Journal", 37: 670–687, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/256705.

Becker B. E., Huselid M. A. (1998), *High Performance Work Systems and Firm Performance: A Synthesis of Research and Managerial Applications* (in:) G. R. Ferris (ed.), *Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management*, JAI Press, Greenwich, CT.

Beugelsdijk S. (2008), *Strategic Human Resource Practices and Product Innovation*, "Organization Studies", 29(6): 821–847, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0170840608090530.

Binnewies C., Gromer M. (2012), *Creativity and Innovation at Work: The Role of Work Characteristics and Personal Initiative*, "Psicothema", 24(1): 100–105.

Boon C., Den Hartog D. N., Boselie P., Paauwe J. (2011), *The Relationship between Perceptions of HR Practices and Employee Outcomes: Examining the Role of Person-organisation and Person-job Fit*, "The International Journal of Human Resource Management", 22(1): 138–162, http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2011.538978.

Bunce D., West M. (1994), *Changing Work Environments: Innovating Coping Responses to Occupational Stress*, "Work and Stress", 8: 319–331, http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02678379408256539.

Cable D. M., Judge T. A. (1997), *Interviewers' Perceptions of Person-organization Fit and Organizational Selection Decisions*, "Journal of Applied Psychology", 82: 546–561, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.82.4.546.

Caldwell S. D. (2011), *Bidirectional Relationships between Employee Fit and Organizational Change*, "Journal of Change Management", 11(4): 401–419, http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14697017.2011.590453.

Ceylan C. (2013), *Commitment-based HR Practices, Different Types of Innovation Activities and Firm Innovation Performance*, "International Journal of Human Resource Management", 24(1): 208–226, http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2012.680601.

Chang H.-T., Chi N.-W., Chuang A. (2010), *Exploring the Mediating Roles of Perceived Person-job Fit and Person-organisation Fit of the Relationship between Training Investment and Knowledge Workers' Turnover Intentions*, "Applied Psychology: An International Review", 59(4): 566–593, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2009.00412.x.

Chen C. J., Huang J. W. (2009), *Strategic Human Resource Practices and Innovation Performance – The Mediating Role of Knowledge Management Capacity*, "Journal of Business Research", 62: 104–114, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2007.11.016.

Chiang Y.-H., Shih H.-A. (2011), *Knowledge-oriented Human Resource Configurations, the New Product Development Learning Process, and Perceived New Product Performance*, "The International Journal of Human Resource Management", 22(15): 3202–3221, http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2011.560874.

Choi J. N. (2004), *Individual and Contextual Predictors of Creative Performance: The Mediating Role of Psychological Processes*, "Creativity Research Journal", 16: 187–199.

Choi J. N., Price R. H. (2005), *The Effects of Person-environment Fit on Individual Responses to Innovation*, "Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology", 78: 83–96, http://dx.doi.org/10.1348/096317904x22953.

Collins C. J., Smith K. G. (2006), *Knowledge Exchange and Combination: The Role of Human Resource Practices in the Performance of High-technology Firms*, "Academy of Management Journal", 49(3): 544–560, http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amj.2006.21794671.

Cooke F. L., Saini D. S. (2010), *(How) Does the HR Strategy Support an Innovation Oriented Business Strategy? An Investigation of Institutional Context and Organizational Practices in Indian Firms*, "Human Resource Management", 49(3): 377–400, http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20356.

Den Hartog D. N., Boselie P., Paauwe J. (2004), *Performance Management: A Model and Research Agenda*, "Applied Psychology", 53: 556–569, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2004.00188.x.

Dorenbosch L., Van Engen M. L., Verhagen M. (2005), *On-the-job Innovation: The Impact of Job Design and Human Resource Management through Production Ownership*, "Creativity and Innovation Management", 14(2): 129–141, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1476-8691.2005.00333.x.

Edwards J. R. (1991), *Person-job Fit: A Conceptual Integration, Literature Review, and Methodological Critique*, "International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology", 6: 283–357.

Estrada I., Martin-Cruz N., Pérez-Santana P. (2013), *Multi-partner Alliance Teams for Product Innovation: The Role of Human Resource Management Fit*, "Innovation: Management, Policy & Practice", 15(2): 161–169.

Frese M., Kring W., Soose A., Zempel J. (1996), *Personal Initiative at Work: Differences between East and West Germany*, "Academy of Management Journal", 39: 37–63, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/256630.

Gittell J. H., Seider R., Wimbush J. (2010), *A Relational Model of How High-performance Works Systems Work*, "Organization Science", 21: 490–506.

Hackman R. J., Oldham G. R. (1980), *Work Design*, Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA.

Hammond M. M., Neff N. L., Farr J. L., Schwall A. R., Zhao X. (2011), *Predictors of Individual Level Innovation at Work: A Meta-analysis*, "The Psychology of Aesthetics, Creativity, and the Arts", 5: 90–105, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0018556.supp.

Harrison R. V. (1985), *The Person-environment Fit Model and the Study of Job Stress* (in:) T. A. Beehr, R. S. Bhagat (eds), *Human Stress and Cognition in Organizations*, Wiley, New York.

Huselid M. A. (1995), *The Impact of Human Resource Management Practices on Turnover, Productivity, and Corporate Financial Performance*, "Academy of Management Journal", 38: 635–672, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/256741.

Huselid M. A., Jackson S. E., Schuler R. S. (1997), *Technical and Strategic Human Resources Management Effectiveness as Determinants of Firm Performance*, "Academy of Management Journal", 40(1): 171–188, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/257025.

Jafri H. M. (2010), *Organizational Commitment and Employee's Innovative Behavior*, "Journal of Management Research", 10(1): 62–68.

Janssen O. (2000), *Job Demands, Perceptions of Effort-reward Fairness and Innovative Work Behaviour*, "Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology", 73: 287–302, http://dx.doi.org/10.1348/096317900167038.

Jiménez-Jiménez D., Sanz-Valle R. (2008), *Could HRM Support Organizational Innovation?*, "The International Journal of Human Resource Management", 19(7): 1208–1221, http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585190802109952.

Kim S. K., Arthurs J. D., Sahaym A., Cullen J. B. (2013), *Search Behavior of the Diversified Firm: The Impact of Fit on Innovation*, "Strategic Management Journal", 34: 999–1009, http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/smj.2038.

Kinnie N., Hutchinson S., Purcell J., Rayton B., Swart J. (2005), *Satisfaction with HR Practices and Commitment to the Organisation: Why One Size Does Not Fit All*, "Human Resource Management Journal", 15(4): 9–29, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-8583.2005.tb00293.x.

Kipp T. (2010), *What Do People Want from Their Jobs? The Big Five, Core Self-evaluation and Work Motivation*, "International Journal of Selection and Assessment", 18(1): 28–39.

Kleysen R. F., Street Ch. T. (2001), *Toward a Multi-dimensional Measure of Individual Innovative Behavior*, "Journal of Intellectual Capital", 2(3): 284–296.

Kristof A. L. (1996), *Person-organization Fit: An Integrative Review of Its Conceptualizations, Measurement, and Implications*, "Personnel Psychology", 49: 1–49, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1996.tb01790.x.

Kristof-Braun A. L., Zimmerman R. D., Johnson E. C. (2005), *Consequences of Individuals' Fit at Work: A Meta-analysis of Person-job, Person-organization, Person-group, and*

Person-supervisor Fit, "Personnel Psychology", 58: 281–342, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2005.00672.x.

Kuvaas B. (2008), *An Exploration of How the Employee-organization Relationship Affects the Linkage between Perception of Developmental Human Resource Practices and Employee Outcomes*, "Journal of Management Studies", 45: 1–25, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.2007.00710.x.

Lauver K. J., Kristof-Brown A. (2001), *Distinguishing between Employees' Perceptions of Person-job and Person-organization Fit*, "Journal of Vocational Behavior", 59: 454–470, http://dx.doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.2001.1807.

Livingstone L. P., Nelson D. L., Barr S. H. (1997), *Person-environment Fit and Creativity: An Examination of Supply-value and Demand-ability Versions of Fit*, "Journal of Management", 23(2): 119–146, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/014920639702300202.

Lopez-Cabrales A., Pérez-Luño A., Cabrera R. V. (2009), *Knowledge as a Mediator between HRM Practices and Innovative Activity*, "Human Resource Management", 48(4): 485–503, http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20295.

Muchinsky P. M., Monahan C. J. (1987), *What Is Person-environment Congruence? Supplementary versus Complementary Models of Fit*, "Journal of Vocational Behavior", 31(3): 268–277, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791(87)90043-1.

Nishii L. H., Lepak D. P., Schneider B. (2008), *Employee Attributions of the "Why" of HR Practices: Their Effects on Employee Attitudes and Behaviors, and Customer Satisfaction*, "Personnel Psychology", 61(3): 503–545, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2008.00121.x.

Odoardi C., Battistelli A., Montani F. (2010), *Can Goal Theories Explain Innovative Work Behaviour? The Motivating Power of Innovation-related Goals*, "Bollettino di Psicologia Applicata", 261–262: 3–17.

Ohly S., Sonnentag S., Pluntke F. (2006), *Routinization, Work Characteristics and Their Relationships with Creative and Proactive Behaviors*, "Journal of Organizational Behavior", 27: 257–279, http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.376.

Ostroff C., Bowen D. E. (2000), *Moving Human Resource to a Higher Level. Human Resource Practices and Organizational Effectiveness* (in:) K. Klein, S. W. Kozlowski (eds), *Multi-level Theory, Research and Methods in Organizations*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.

Parker S. K., Williams H. M., Turner N. (2006), *Modeling the Antecedents of Proactive Behavior at Work*, "Journal of Applied Psychology", 91: 636–652, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.3.636.

Puccio G. J., Talbot R. J., Joniak A. J. (2000), *Examining Creative Performance in the Workplace through a Person-environment Fit Model*, "Journal of Creative Behavior", 34: 227–247, http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/j.2162-6057.2000.tb01213.x.

Rank J., Nelson N. E., Allen T. D., Xu X. (2009), *Leadership Predictors of Innovation and Task Performance: Subordinates' Self-esteem and Self-presentation as Moderators*, "Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology", 82: 465–489, http://dx.doi.org/10.1348/096317908x371547.

Sarac M., Efil I., Eryilmaz M. (2014), *A Study of the Relationship between Person-organization Fit and Employee Creativity*, "Management Research Review", 37(5): 1–23.

Scott S. G., Bruce R. A. (1994), *Determinants of Innovative Behaviour: A Path Model of Individual Innovation in Workplace*, "Academy of Management Journal", 37(3): 580–607, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/256701.

Shipton H., West M. A., Dawson J., Birdi K., Patterson M. (2006), *HRM as a Predictor of Innovation*, "Human Resource Management Journal", 16(1): 3–27, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-8583.2006.00002.x.

Snape E., Redman T. (2010), *HRM Practices, Organizational Citizenship Behaviour, and Performance: A Multi-level Analysis*, "Journal of Management Studies", 47: 1219–1247, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.2009.00911.x.

Snell S. A., Youndt M. A., Wright P. M. (1996), *Establishing a Framework for Research in Strategic Human Resource Management: Merging Resource Theory and Organizational Learning* (in:) G. R. Ferris (ed.), "Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management", 14.

Takeuchi N. (2009), *How Japanese Manufacturing Firms Align Their Human Resource Policies with Business Strategies: Testing a Contingency Performance Prediction in a Japanese Context*, "International Journal of Human Resource Management", 20: 34–56, http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585190802528227.

Verquer M. L., Beehr T. A., Wagner S. H. (2003), *A Meta-analysis of Relations between Person-organization Fit and Work Attitudes*, "Journal of Vocational Behavior", 63: 473–489, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/s0001-8791(02)00036-2.

Wang Y.-L. (2013), *R&D Employees' Innovative Behaviors in Taiwan: HRM and Managerial Coaching as Moderators*, "Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources", 51(4): 491–515, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-7941.2012.00049.x.

West M. A., Farr J. L. (1989), *Innovation at Work: Psychological Perspectives*, "Social Behavior", 4: 15–30.

West M. A., Farr J. L. (1990), *Innovation at Work* (in:) West M. A. Farr J. L. (eds), *Innovation and Creativity at Work*, Wiley, Chichester.

Wojtczuk-Turek A. (2013), *Person-organization Fit as a Significant Factor of Creating Company's Value – Implications for Human Capital Measurement*, "Education Economists and Managers", 3(29): 29–42.

Wright P. M., Dunford B. B., Snell S. A. (2001), *Human Resources and the Resource--based View of the Firm*, "Journal of Management", 27(6): 701–721, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/014920630102700607.

Young L. D. (2012), *How to Promote Innovative Behavior at Work? The Role of Justice and Support within Organizations*, "The Journal of Creative Behavior", 46(3): 220–243, http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/jocb.15.

Rola praktyk HRM w kreowaniu innowacyjności pracowników – pośrednicząca rola dopasowania człowiek–organizacja / praca i charakterystyka pracy

Celem artykułu jest opis i wyjaśnienie związków pomiędzy działaniami z obszaru zarządzania zasobami ludzkimi (HRM) a podejmowaniem przez pracowników zachowań innowacyjnych. W propozycji modelu wyjaśniającego wpływ HRM na aktywność twórczą w miejscu pracy wykorzystano konstrukt „dopasowanie człowiek–organizacja" jako mediator tej relacji. W analizie uwzględniono także zmienną korespondującą z dopasowaniem do pracy, określoną jako „charakterystyka pracy".

Badania potwierdziły istotne statystycznie związki pomiędzy zachowaniami innowacyjnymi a wszystkimi badanymi zmiennymi: działaniami z zakresu HRM, dopasowaniem do pracy i organizacji oraz charakterystyką pracy. Na podstawie przeprowadzonej analizy

z wykorzystaniem modelowania strukturalnego można stwierdzić wpływ na zachowa-nia innowacyjne następujących czynników: 1) praktyk HRM (wpływ pośredni – poprzez dopasowanie człowiek–organizacja) oraz 2) dopasowania i charakterystyki pracy (wpływ bezpośredni). Jednocześnie model wyjaśnia zidentyfikowany bezpośredni wpływ HRM na dopasowanie człowiek–organizacja i charakterystykę pracy.

Badania ukazały, że konstrukt dopasowanie człowiek–organizacja jako zmienna wyja-śniająca efektywność innowacyjną jednostki w miejscu pracy stanowi użyteczną perspek-tywę nie tylko dla zrozumienia czynników determinujących występowanie w organiza-cji aktywności innowacyjnej, ale także dla stymulowania zachowań twórczych poprzez działania w obszarze HRM. Działania z zakresu HRM odgrywają bowiem istotną rolę zarówno w dopasowywaniu kompetencji do wymogów stanowiska pracy, jak i w budowa-niu postaw sprzyjających zaangażowaniu innowacyjnemu pracowników.

Prezentowany w modelu badawczym zestaw zmiennych pozwala wyjaśnić znaczenie wybranych determinant zachowań kluczowych z perspektywy efektywności i konkuren-cyjności firmy na rynku. Badania koncentrują się bowiem na aspektach podmiotowych zachowań innowacyjnych (zasoby do wykonywania zadań twórczych), jak również orga-nizacyjnych (dopasowanie do pracy i organizacji), włączając w zakres analiz rolę strate-giczną działu HR.

Słowa kluczowe: HRM, innowacyjność, dopasowanie człowiek–organizacja, dopasowa-nie człowiek–praca, charakterystyka pracy.

Tracy Stanley
Paul Davidson
Judy Matthews
School of Management, QUT Business School
Queensland University of Technology, Australia

Creative Work Environments and Employee Engagement: Exploring Potential Links and Possibilities

Abstract

Companies that perform well are often identified as either possessing creative work environments and (or) having high levels of employee engagement. Creative work environments are largely not well defined, although research alludes to contributing factors. On the other hand employee engagement is defined as the multiple emotional, rational and behavioural dimensions of an employee's consistent level of effort, commitment and connection to their job. Some authors including Saks (2006) and Shuck and Wollard (2010) call for more scholarly research to increase our understanding of the drivers of employee engagement and the actions that organisations can take to improve engagement.

There are references made in the literature to the existence of a relationship between a creative work environment and engaged employees (Isaksen & Ekvall 2010), but there is a lack of empirical evidence providing support for the direct relationship between the two. This study aims to explore the relationship, addressing the question of how a creative work environment impacts on employee engagement. Exploratory research to investigate this relationship will use a qualitative methodology with semi-structured interviews, field observations and document analysis. Key themes will be analysed at both the individual and team level reflecting the multi-level nature of the constructs.

1. Introduction

The increasing globalisation of business is driving organisations to find new ways to enhance competitiveness through their employees while operating in very different marketplaces and cultural environments (Briscoe & Schuler 2013, Dowling & Welch 2006). One of the keys to success in operating internationally is building the dynamic capabilities of the firm so that it can attract the right people and facilitate high levels of performance.

The need for organisations to innovate is critical for organisational success (Drucker & Drucker 2007, Porter 1990). Indeed, creativity, an important component of innovation, is being increasingly recognised as a critical means by which organisations and their members can create meaningful, lasting value for their multiple stakeholders (Amabile & Khaire 2008, George & Zhou 2001). Various researchers have indicated that those organisations that achieve higher levels of employee engagement (Corporate Executive Board 2004, Gallup 2010, Robertson & Cooper 2011) and creativity in the workplace (George & Zhou 2001), also achieve higher levels of performance. There are many examples of higher levels of engagement leading to employees who are more productive, profitable, safer, healthier, less likely to evidence turnover, less likely to be absent, and more willing to exhibit discretionary effort (Buchanan 2004, Fleming & Asplund 2007, Wagner & Harter 2006). All this means, achievement of a workplace environment that stimulates creative behaviour and facilitates engagement by employees is a value-adding objective that is shared by many multinational companies. The self-evident significance of these concepts encourages a more detailed examination.

2. Defining a Creative Work Environment

A creative work environment can be understood to be the social environment of an organisation that most effectively supports the generation of new ideas (Amabile & Gryskiewicz 1989). As a multi-faceted construct, it can be difficult to assess because of its complexity (Amabile & Mueller 2008). The environment can be influenced by a broad range of contextual factors operating at multiple levels in the organisation, from individual employee factors to team dynamics, and including the overall organisational culture and climate.

Research indicates several characteristics and mechanisms that distinguish a creative work environment from a less creative one. These include but are not limited to: the behaviour of the manager (Abbey & Dickson 1983, Dewett 2004, Isaksen & Akkermans 2011, Mumford 2000), the design of work (Amabile &

Gryskiewicz 1987, Hackman & Oldham 1974), provision of time for creativity (Amabile & Gryskiewicz 1987, Amabile, Conti, Coon, Lazenby & Herron 1996, Amabile, Hadley & Kramer 2002, Hennesey & Amabile 2010, Shalley & Gilson, 2004), attitude to risk (Dewett 2004), existence of positive versus negative tensions, existence and management of different types of conflict (Isaksen *et al.* 2001, Jehn 1995, Pelled 1996, Shalley & Gilson 2004), extent of collaboration within and across teams (King & Anderson 1990, Perry-Smith 2006, Taylor & Greve 2006, Thompson & Choi 2005), level of participation in decision making (Tjosvold 1982, Woodman, Sawyer & Griffin 1993), existence of an effective process for creativity management (Amabile 1988, Smith *et al.* 2008) and positive social relationships (Abbey & Dickson 1983).

These characteristics can be grouped into four general factor areas: 1) leadership behaviours, 2) team climate, social interactions and norms, 3) communication and collaboration processes, and 4) the design of work and jobs. In the discussion that follows, the existing literature describing the different mechanisms that are present in each of these factors and how each is proposed to influence a creative work environment are briefly overviewed. The potential relationships within and between the two constructs are then explored and the conceptual model that guides the study is provided.

3. The Influence of a Leader's Behaviour on a Creative Work Environment

Existing research confirms that the nature and behaviours of a leader can have a significant impact on the behaviours of team members (Andriopoulos 2001, Isaksen & Akkermans 2011, Jung 2001, Mumford 2000, Oldham & Cummings 1996, Scott & Bruce 1994, Smith *et al.* 2008). Specific leader behaviours can include communication style, participative goal setting, providing coaching and development-oriented feedback and the modelling of creative behaviours.

In overview, it is recommended by most authors that managers must communicate the importance of creativity as well as model the behaviours that support creativity. It is also recommended that they should provide training if they feel that an employee is capable of performing a behaviour that will facilitate creativity and is currently not doing so. Also, leaders can encourage employees to seek training outside of work and even to pursue higher educational degrees with the expectation that their work will benefit from this enhanced knowledge base (Shalley & Gilson 2004).

A leader's behaviour may predict the climate for innovation within the organisation (Scott & Bruce 1994). Of particular interest here is the type of

interactions undertaken, with higher levels of interaction between leaders and subordinates (leader-member exchange or "LMX") resulting in a climate perceived to be more conducive to innovation (Tierney, Farmer & Graen 1999).

Feedback, especially from the team leader, is also an important element of communication. Higher levels of creativity are reported to result from feedback that is high in developmental orientation, i.e. that provides employees with information that helps them learn, develop, and improve (George & Zhou 2001). Just as there are many different types of leader behaviour that can encourage creative behaviour in the workplace, the absence of some behaviours may limit or indeed be obstacles to creativity.

4. Team Climate as an Influence on the Creative Work Environment

Team climate is the reflection of the organisational climate and culture, at the level of the team. As such it is influenced by the same factors, and manifests in the recurring patterns of behaviour, attitudes, and feelings that characterise life in the organisation. At the individual level of analysis, the concept has been called the psychological climate (Isaksen *et al*. 2001). This concept also exists at a team level including leader behaviour, reflecting the multi-layered nature of the concept.

A number of studies have sought to identify the climate and dimensions of culture that contribute to a creative work environment (Mumford *et al*. 2002). These studies identified a consistent set of interactional dimensions including: risk-taking, freedom, work challenge, openness, trust, support, intellectual orientation, intrinsic involvement, and activity/experimentation (Amabile, Conti, Coon, Lazenby & Herron 1996, Amabile & Gryskiewicz 1989, Isaksen & Akkermans 2011, Isaksen *et al*. 2001, Mumford & Gustafson 1988).

One of the characteristics identified as important within a creative work environment is psychological safety, described as an environmental condition in which people believe that others in their group will respond positively when they speak up to report mistakes, offer opinions, or propose new ideas. Edmondson and Mogelof (2006) proposed that psychological safety is crucial for creativity in organisations because creativity involves so much risk-taking, experimentation and frequent failure. Indeed, the social psychology of creativity has generated the greatest volume of work and has generated the most significant application in terms of the creative work environment (Hennessey & Amabile 2010). This research has focussed primarily on the impact of the social environment or the work environment (generally as created by leaders or managers) on the creativity of individuals, groups or entire organisations (Hennessey & Amabile 2010).

Other authors such as Edmondson and Mogelof (2006), and Abbey and Dickson (1983), De Dreu and West (2001), and Shalley and Gilson (2004) emphasise risk-taking. They propose that a work environment that encourages risk-taking, in which a person will not be harshly judged or ridiculed for failure (De Dreu & West 2001), is important for creativity because new product and process development requires employees to try and potentially fail (Shalley & Gilson 2004). If employees know that creativity is valued they are also more likely to experiment and seek input from others (Abbey & Dickson 1983). Indeed, research has found that when people generate open and ongoing contact with external others, from different or multiple sources, creativity in the workplace is enhanced (Ancona & Caldwell 1992, Dougherty & Hardy 1996). Of key importance is that risk-taking is not only supported by, but actively role-modelled by management (Shalley & Gilson 2004).

In addition to risk management, task controversy or conflict has also been identified as a key element within a creative work environment (Tjosvold 1982, Jehn 1995, Pelled 1996, Shalley & Gilson 2004). Work environments where managers explored, understood and accepted workers' arguments have often resulted in employees displaying more curiosity (Tjosvold 1982). In overview, team climate is a complex construct with many interacting variables related to behaviours, feelings, perceptions and processes which are often directly influenced by the manager of the team. We now turn to this final group of factors related to processes.

5. Communication and Collaboration Processes

The processes factor grouping is quite broad, and includes communication processes, the ways that a team interacts with other teams and other organisational processes such as processes that impact on an employee's sense of equity and fairness. As discussed by Amabile and Gryskiewicz (1989), some process factors can serve either to support or obstruct creativity in the workplace. For example, a lack of perceived fairness in terms of process could clearly be an obstruction to creativity.

Communication is an important influence in promoting creativity on many levels. Monge, Cozzens, and Contractor (1992) found that group communication was positively related to the generation of innovative ideas. Similarly, communications with other groups have been identified as important with Andrews and Smith (1996) contending that interactions with other functional areas enhanced the creativity of marketing campaigns. Indeed, consistently interacting with diverse others has been referred to in the creativity literature as

a necessary precondition for creative performance (Amabile 1988, Kanter 1983, Mumford *et al.* 2002, Woodman *et al.* 1993).

An employee's perception of the procedural fairness of organisational processes also appears to have an impact on their motivation, and the extent to which they are prepared to engage in creative behaviours. For example, Ramamoorthy *et al.* (2005) found that the organisational process of meritocracy, equity perceptions and procedural justice perceptions influenced innovative work behaviour.

In summary, this third broad group of characteristics to do with processes could be a subset of the earlier factor grouping identified as team climate, because perceptions relating to the appropriateness, efficiency and fairness of processes influence perceptions relating to the team climate. The final group of factors considered relevant to the current investigation into a creative work environment relates to the design of each of the jobs within the team structure.

6. The Influence of Job Design Factors on the Work Environment

There are several mechanisms of interest within the factor area of work or job design. These mechanisms include the complexity or challenges inherent in the job itself, the autonomy accorded to the incumbent to make decisions and plan their work, and resource availability. Each of these areas is discussed in turn.

The importance of the design of a "good job" and its impact on motivation was famously highlighted by Hackman and Oldham (1974) in the development of their job characteristics model identifying task identity, task significance, the use of a variety of skills and the provision of feedback on performance. They also identified the importance of providing the job incumbent with autonomy in decision making about how they undertook the role. Support for the provision of adequate autonomy on a creative work environment has also been provided by Ramamoorthy *et al.* (2005).

Later researchers supported the initial work of Hackman and Oldham (1974) with Shalley and Gilson (2004) reiterating that a "good job" must also have complexity and challenge. They also observed that when jobs are complex and demanding, i.e., high in challenge, autonomy, and complexity, individuals are more likely to focus all of their attention and effort on their jobs, making them more persistent and more likely to consider different alternatives, which should result in creative outcomes (2004, p. 37). This view has been supported more recently by Pink (2011), who highlighted the importance of autonomy, i.e. control over work, mastery, i.e. the capacity for a person to get better at what they do,

and purpose, i.e. an alignment with a broader objective, as key motivators driving behaviour within a role.

Resources also have an impact on a creative work environment. These resources include time, money, access to information, and access to people (Amabile & Gryskiewicz 1989). One frequently mentioned factor necessary for promoting creativity is sufficient time to think creatively, explore different perspectives, and to play with ideas (Amabile & Gryskiewicz 1987). Managers have a complex role in striking the right balance between providing employees enough time to be creative but not so much time that they are bored and no longer motivated to perform their jobs (Shalley & Gilson 2004). Similarly, there is a need to strike the right balance with regard to the provision of resources to support creativity. An abundance of resources can also make individuals too comfortable, which can have a "deadening effect on creativity" (Csikszentmihalyi 1997, p. 321).

The design of work is therefore most usefully seen as multi-dimensional, with a number of conditions that need to be met for the design of the job itself to have the necessary preconditions to inspire creative behaviours. Pulling the discussion together, it appears that leadership behaviours, team climate, organisational processes together with job design considerations are all important variables within a creative work environment. Attention is now directed to how these factors relate to each other.

7. The Relationships between Influences

As mentioned, the identified factor groupings interact, as do the characteristics inherent within them. It is proposed that a creative work environment needs the presence of most of these factors for the best conditions to exist for the presence of creative work behaviours and the subsequent generation of creative ideas. The term "most" as opposed to "all" has been deliberately used here as there still exists controversy as to the influence of some variables such as the sufficiency of resources. However, that caveat aside, it appears that the absence of some of the variables will diminish the creative potential of the work environment.

Having reviewed the key mechanisms that impact on a creative work environment, we would now direct readers' attention to understanding what employee engagement is and what are the most influential mechanisms impacting on this important psychological state and how it may relate to a creative work environment.

8. Employee Engagement

For this study, employee engagement is defined as the multiple emotional, cognitive and behavioural dimensions of an employee's consistent level of effort, commitment and connection to their job. Employee engagement is both a popular and controversial term and construct within the literature. It is popular because it has received the attention of HR professionals, internal communications practitioners, and business conference presenters in addition to being the subject of increasing academic interest (Macey & Schneider 2008, Shuck & Wollard 2010). However, controversy exists because it has been asserted that there is a challenge around how employee engagement should be defined (Macey & Schneider 2008). It has been asked whether the concept of engagement is just a repackaging of employee satisfaction (Macey & Schneider 2008) and organisational commitment (Schneider *et al*. 2005) while others have offered reinterpretations of the concept as work passion, organisational commitment (Robinson, Perryman & Hayday 2004, Saks 2006) or job involvement (Zigarmi *et al* 2009). Shuck and Wollard (2010) believe that this lack of continuity contributes to a deep misconception as to the complexities of the concept of employee engagement.
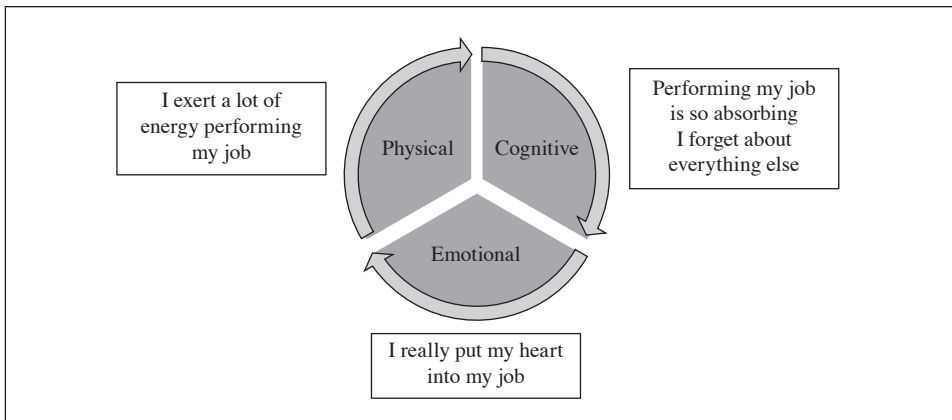
Fig. 1. Examples of Cognitive, Emotional and Behavioural Components that Exist within a State of Employee Engagement

Source: based on definition provided by May, Gilson and Harter (2004).

A synthesis of the current literature regarding the definition of the employee engagement construct was undertaken by Macey and Schneider (2008), who contend that there appears to be considerable agreement that engagement has a strong affective tone indicating that engaged employee have high levels of

involvement in their work, pride and identity in the organisation and a sense of self-identity. For the purpose of this study, two complementary definitions are provided by May, Gilson, and Harter (2004) and Shuck and Wollard (2010). What is consistent across both definitions is the recognition of the three core components within engagement related to cognitive, emotional and behavioural elements. These components are depicted in Fig. 1.

We will now describe the research related to the different mechanisms that impact on employee engagement. Like a creative work environment, there are many variables or mechanisms that impact on employee engagement, with Shuck, Rocco, and Albornoz (2011) observing that no one factor singularly contributes to the creation of engagement or disengagement at work. This is similar to the dynamic influencers within a creative work environment.

The discussion regarding employee engagement is organised in a similar way to that undertaken for a creative work environment. It begins with an analysis of factors related to the job itself, then the psychological climate – which may or may not relate to a team environment – perceptions regarding the equity of organisational processes, leadership behaviours and, finally, factors related to the individuals themselves.

9. The Influence of Job Design and Job Fit on Employee Engagement

The key role work characteristics play in impacting on job engagement was supported by Macey and Schneider (2008) and Christian, Garza, and Slaughter (2011) with Shuck, Reio, and Rocco (2011) highlighting the importance of the person fit with the job, i.e. that the job demands are congruent with the interests, values and personality of the employee (Resick, Baltes & Shantz 2007). Early research into engagement revealed that there was a complexity of influences on an individual's personal engagement and disengagement in particular moments of role performance, as a result of the relationship between a person and the role they occupy. The reality is that the employee can be either psychologically present or absent at work (Kahn 1990).

10. The Impact of Team Environment on Employee Engagement

An early qualitative study into employee engagement by Shuck, Rocco, and Albornoz (2011) considered the relationship between the employee and the work environment. From their analysis, a number of themes emerged as important to

engagement including relationship development, attachment to co-workers, the workplace climate and opportunities for learning. These findings highlighted the importance of the development of relationships in the workplace, the importance of an employee's direct manager and their role in shaping organisational culture and the critical role learning played in an engaged employee's interpretation of their work.

By testing a number of proposed antecedents and consequences of employee engagement, Shuck, Reio, and Rocco (2011) reported that those employees who experienced a positive psychological climate were more likely to report higher levels of discretionary effort. This behaviour has been identified as a direct consequence of an employee being engaged (Corporate Executive Board 2004, May, Gilson & Harter 2004).

11. Perceptions Related to Fairness in Processes

Perceptions as to the fairness related to procedural and distributive justice processes within an organisation also contribute to engagement. A study by Saks (2006) indicated that there is a positive relationship between perceived procedural justice and employee engagement. The study also found a positive relationship between job characteristics, perceived organisational support, perceived supervisory support, rewards and recognition, and employee engagement.

12. The Impact of Leadership on Engagement

The manager as a leader has a key impact on employee engagement (Corporate Executive Board 2004, Harter, Schmidt & Hayes 2002, Judge *et al*. 2001, Macey & Schneider 2008, Shuck, Rocco & Albornoz 2011). Indeed the impact of managerial behaviour on providing a sense of meaningful work was highlighted as far back as 1974 when Hackman and Oldham (1974) first developed their job characteristics model.

13. Individual Factors in Employee Engagement

As with a creative work environment, there are many characteristics of engagement that relate directly to the individual employees themselves. To be engaged, the employee must not only have the capacity for engagement, but also possess the freedom to be engaged (Macey & Schneider 2008). In short, there

appears to be no one step or process that will work to create engaged employees across a team and it is indeed a challenging task (Shuck & Wollard 2010).

Having defined employee engagement and discussed the different variables impacting on the construct, our discussion will now move to how and why a creative work environment may relate to employee engagement.

14. Creative Work Environments in Relation to Employee Engagement

Recent reference is made in the literature to the existence of a relationship between a creative work environment and engaged employees (Isaksen & Ekvall 2010), but there is a lack of empirical evidence providing support for the direct relationship between the two constructs. This study addresses that gap in the literature. Additionally, a need for further study into the relationship among the potential antecedents and consequences of engagement has been proposed as necessary because they have not been rigorously conceptualised and studied and as a consequence there is an inadequate understanding of the nomological network of engagement in work (Macey & Schneider 2008).

15. Emerging Research Questions and Proposed Methodology

With consideration for the existing literature and the gaps in the literature, the following model is constructed to guide this study. As indicated in Fig. 2, the creative work environment is one in which jobs are well designed both with complexity and challenge and for which the position incumbent has the autonomy to make decisions about how the work is undertaken. There is also time provided to engage in creative thought and activity. Additionally, the work team has a positive social climate in which creativity is actively encouraged and in which team members feel safe to disagree and to express different and sometimes risky ideas without the fear of judgement or adverse consequences. Finally, the leader of the team plays a guiding role in modelling creative behaviours and in providing positive feedback.

Employee engagement is described in Fig. 2 in terms of typical feelings, attitudes and behaviours that are associated with an "engaged" employee as identified by researchers (see May, Gilson & Harter 2004, Shuck & Wollard 2010). We believe that a creative work environment actively supports employee engagement in the workplace. This proposition will be the focus of this
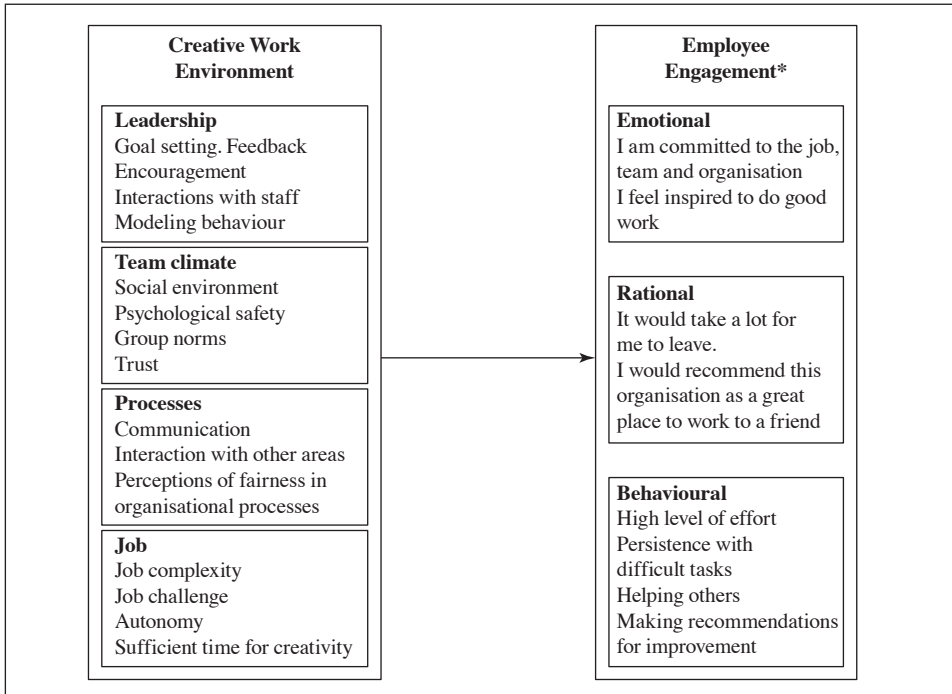
Fig. 2. Conceptual Model of the Relationship between a Creative Work Environment and Employee Engagement

* Based on May, Gilson and Harter (2004) definition of employee engagement.
Source: model developed for this research, incorporating definition of employee engagement by May, Gilson and Harter (2004).

study with the core research question being: What is the relationship between a creative work environment and employee engagement?

16. Proposed Methodology

There is justification for use of a case study approach for a study of this nature. Yin (2009) asserts that the case study is appropriate for exploratory analysis when investigating contemporary phenomena within their real-life context, and when the boundaries between the phenomena and the context are not clear. A case study is also the strategy of choice when the focus is on understanding the dynamics present within single settings, and when existing theory seems inadequate (Eisenhardt 1989). Furthermore, a case study approach permits flexible and opportunistic data collection methods such as additional questions during interviews (Easterby-Smith 1994, Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe 1991).

A qualitative methodology will be used to investigate the research question incorporating semi-structured interviews with team members and their managers, field observations and document analysis. This approach will allow the triangulation of data. The analysis will be undertaken at both an individual and team level, reflecting the importance of a multi-level approach to the examination of the two main constructs. There is solid coherence between the research question to be investigated and the research methodology. This methodological fit is critical for facilitating an effective contribution to the existing body of knowledge (Edmondson & McManus 2005).

Questions in the semi-structured interviews will directly relate to the research question being investigated and will be influenced by similar questions asked in relevant, similar studies that have already been assessed and tested for their validity. Additionally, questions will be included employing critical incident technique, in which, for example, interviewees are asked to describe a time when their team was highly creative and another when they were not. The critical incident technique allows data to be collected from the respondent's perspectives and in their own words (Gremler 2004). This approach not only facilitates rich data collection but allows the interviewees to prioritise their own experiences relevant to the phenomena being investigated (Gremler & Gwinner 2008).

17. Proposed Benefits of the Study

This study is expected to provide clearer insight into the subtleties in the relationships proposed between a creative work environment and the different states associated with employee engagement as identified by May, Gilson, and Harter (2004). At a micro-level, the most influential mechanisms impacting on each construct should be able to be identified.

From this analysis, actions can be designed to ensure that managers can create the conditions within their team that most effectively support creative behaviours and a deeper sense of engagement with the job, ultimately contributing to higher levels of both team and business performance.

18. Limitations of the Study

This exploratory study analyses the characteristics of creative work environments and employee engagement. It is recognised that these are both complex and multi-faceted concepts and that there are many variables which could influence these areas. As with all management field research, the research

process can be "messy, inexact and inefficient" (Edmondson & McManus 2005). As a result it is important not to overstate the contribution of some findings or the generalisability of the findings to other organisations. However, it is expected that the findings will inform practitioners and shape future actions in their organisation (Edmondson & McManus 2005).

19. Future Thoughts

It is expected that the study will provide some answers and bring the potential work environments into sharper focus. Work environments with high employee engagement and effective teams and groups are known to perform better. In an increasingly complex world with the technological evolution of science, engineering, management and organisation development, managers rely on all kinds of specialists and need to understand the process of "teaming", i.e. of bringing these specialists together (Edmondson & Schein 2012) if they are to manage within these complex environments with maximum effectiveness.

The importance of effective teams and teamwork environments is well established. The work of Abbey and Dickson (1983) and Gibson and Vermeulen (2003) have brought a closer focus to analysing sub-systems and sub-groups within teams while the work of Amabile *et al*. (1996) has shed light on the social environment of the work team. It is expected that this study will provide encouragement for further research into work environments generally, and more specifically in relation to those characteristics that impact on variations of creative behaviours and employee engagement.

Bibliography

Abbey A., Dickson J. W. (1983), *R&D Work Climate and Innovation in Semiconductors*, "Academy of Management Journal", 26(2): 362–368, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/255984.
Amabile T. M. (1988), *A Model of Creativity and Innovation in Organisations*, "Research in Organizational Behavior", vol. 10(1): 123–167.
Amabile T. M., Conti R., Coon H., Lazenby J., Herron M. (1996), *Assessing the Work Environment for Creativity*, "The Academy of Management Journal", 39(5): 1154–1184, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/256995.
Amabile T. M., Gryskiewicz N. D. (1989), *The Creative Environment Scales: Work Environment Inventory*, "Creativity Research Journal", December 2012: 37–41, http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10400418909534321.
Amabile T. M., Gryskiewicz S. S. (1987), *Creativity in the R&D Laboratory*, Center for Creative Leadership, Greensboro.
Amabile T. M., Hadley C. N., Kramer S. J. (2002), *Creativity under the Gun*, "Industry Week", 80(8): 52–61.

Amabile T. M., Khaire M. (2008), *Creativity and the Role of the Leader*, "Harvard Business Reviev", October.

Amabile T., Mueller J. S. (2008), *Studying Creativity, Its Processes, and Its Antecedents* (in:) *Handbook of Organizational Creativity*, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, New York.

Ancona D. G., Caldwell D. F. (1992), *Demography and Design: Predictors of New Product Team Performance*, "Organization Science", 3(3): 321–341, http://dx.doi.org/10.1287/orsc.3.3.321.

Andrews J., Smith D. C. (1996), *In Search of the Marketing Imagination: Factors Affecting the Creativity of Marketing Programs for Mature Products*, "Journal of Marketing Research", 33(2): 174–187, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3152145.

Andriopoulos C. (2001), *Determinants of Organisational Creativity: A Literature Review*, "Management Decision", 39(10): 834–841, http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/00251740110402328.

Briscoe D., Schuler R. (2013), *International Human Resource Management*, Taylor and Francis, Hoboken.

Buchanan L. (2004), *The Things They Do for Love*, vol. 82: 19, "Harvard Business Review".

Christian M. S., Garza A. S., Slaughter J. E. (2011), *Work Engagement: A Quantitative Review and Test of Its Relations with Task and Contextual Performance*, "Personnel Psychology", 64(1): 89–136, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2010.01203.x.

Corporate Leadership Council (2004), *Driving Performance and Retention through Employee Engagement*, *Research Summary*, Corporate Executive Board.

Csikszentmihalyi M. (1997), *Flow and the Psychology of Discovery and Invention*, Harper Perennial, New York.

De Dreu C. K. W., West M. A. (2001), *Minority Dissent and Team Innovation: The Importance of Participation in Decision Making*, "Journal of Applied Psychology", 86(6): 1191–1201.

Dewett T. (2004), *Employee Creativity and the Role of Risk*, "European Journal of Innovation Management", 7(4): 257–266, http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/14601060410565010.

Dougherty D., Hardy C. (1996), *Sustained Product Innovation in Large, Mature Organizations: Overcoming Innovation-to-organization Problems*, "Academy of Management Journal", 39(5): 1120–1153, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/256994.

Dowling P., Welch D. E. (2006), *International Human Resource Management: Managing People in a Multinational Context*, Thomson/South-Western, Mason, Ohio.

Drucker P. F., Drucker P. F. (2007), *Innovation and Entrepreneurship: Practice and Principles*, Routledge.

Easterby-Smith M. (1994), *Evaluating Management Development, Training and Education*, Gower, Brookfield, ERIC.

Easterby-Smith M., Thorpe R., Lowe A. (1991), *Management Research: An Introduction*, Sage Publications, London.

Edmondson A., McManus S. E. (2005), *A Note on Methodological Fit in Management Field Research*, Harvard Business School Publishing, Boston, MA.

Edmondson A. C., Mogelof J. P. (2006), *Explaining Psychological Safety in Innovation Teams: Organizational Culture, Team Dynamics, or Personality?* (in:) L. Thompson, H. Choi (eds), *Creativity and Innovation in Organizational Teams*, Lawrence Erlbaum Associated Press, Mahwah, NJ: 109–136.

Edmondson A. C., Schein E. H. (2012), *Teaming: How Organizations Learn, Innovate, and Compete in the Knowledge Economy*, Jossey-Bass.

Eisenhardt K. M. (1989), *Building Theories from Case Study Research*, "Academy of Management Review", 14(4): 532–550, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/258557.

Fleming J. H., Asplund J. (2007), *Human Sigma: Managing the Employee-customer Encounter*, Gallup Press, New York.

Gallup (2010), *The State of the Global Workplace: A Worldwide Study of Employee Engagement and Well-being*: 36.

George J. M., Zhou J. (2001), *When Openness to Experience and Conscientiousness Are Related to Creative Behavior: An Interactional Approach*, "Journal of Applied Psychology", 86(3): 513–524, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.86.3.513.

Gibson C., Vermeulen F. (2003), *A Healthy Divide: Subgroups as a Stimulus for Team Learning Behavior*, "Administrative Science Quarterly", 48(2): 202–239, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3556657.

Gremler D. D. (2004), *The Critical Incident Technique in Service Research*, "Journal of Service Research", 7(1): 65–89, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1094670504266138.

Gremler D. D., Gwinner K. P. (2008), *Rapport-building Behaviors Used by Retail Employees*, "Journal of Retailing", 84(3): 308–324, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jretai.2008.07.001.

Hackman J. R., Oldham G. R. (1974), *The Job Diagnostic Survey: An Instrument for the Diagnosis of Jobs and the Evaluation of Job Redesign Projects*, Yale University, Department of Administrative Sciences, New Haven, Conn.

Harter J. K., Schmidt F. L., Hayes T. L. (2002), *Business-unit-level Relationship between Employee Satisfaction, Employee Engagement, and Business Outcomes: A Meta--analysis*, "The Journal of Applied Psychology", 87(2): 268–279, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.87.2.268.

Hennessey B. A., Amabile T. M. (2010), *Creativity*, "Annual Review of Psychology", 61(1): 569–598, http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.093008.100416.

Isaksen S. G., Akkermans H. J. (2011), *Creative Climate: A Leadership Lever for Innovation*, "The Journal of Creative Behavior", 45(3): 161–187.

Isaksen S. G., Ekvall G. (2010), *Managing for Innovation: The Two Faces of Tension in Creative Climates*, "Creativity and Innovation Management", 19(2): 73–88, http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/j.2162-6057.2011.tb01425.x.

Isaksen S. G., Lauer K. J., Ekvall G., Britz A. (2001), *Perceptions of the Best and Worst Climates for Creativity: Preliminary Validation Evidence for the Situational Outlook Questionnaire*, "Creativity Research Journal", 13: 171–184, http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/S15326934CRJ1302_5.

Jehn K. A. (1995), *A Multimethod Examination of the Benefits and Detriments of Intragroup Conflict*, "Administrative Science Quarterly", 40(2): 256–282, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2393638.

Judge T. A., Thoresen C. J., Bono J. E., Patton G. K. (2001), *The Job Satisfaction-Job Performance Relationship: A Qualitative and Quantitative Review*, "Psychological Bulletin", 127(3): 376–407, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.127.3.376.

Jung D. I. (2001), *Transformational and Transactional Leadership and Their Effects on Creativity in Groups*, "Creativity Research Journal", 13(2): 185–195, http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/S15326934CRJ1302_6.

Kahn W. A. (1990), *Psychological Conditions of Personal Engagement and Disengagement at Work*, "Academy of Management Journal", 33(4): 692–724, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/256287.

Kanter R. M. (1983), *Change Masters: Innovations for Productivity in the American Corporation*, Simon & Schuster, New York.

King N., Anderson N. (1990), *Innovation in Working Groups* (in:) M. A. West, J. L. Farr (eds), *Innovation and Creativity at Work: Psychological and Organizational Strategies*, London.

Macey W. H., Schneider B. (2008), *The Meaning of Employee Engagement*, "Industrial and Organizational Psychology", 1(1): 3–30, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1754-9434.2007.0002.x.

May D. R., Gilson R. L., Harter L. M. (2004), *The Psychological Conditions of Meaningfulness, Safety and Availability and the Engagement of the Human Spirit at Work*, "Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology", 77(1): 11–37, http://dx.doi.org/10.1348/096317904322915892.

Monge P. R., Cozzens M. D., Contractor N. S. (1992), *Communication and Motivational Predictors of the Dynamics of Organizational Innovation*, "Organization Science", 3(2): 250–274, http://dx.doi.org/10.1287/orsc.3.2.250.

Mumford M. D. (2000), *Managing Creative People: Strategies and Tactics for Innovation*, "Human Resource Management Review", 10(3): 313–351, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822(99)00043-1.

Mumford M. D., Gustafson S. B. (1988), *Creativity Syndrome: Integration, Application, and Innovation*, "Psychological Bulletin", 103(1): 27–43, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.103.1.27.

Mumford M. D., Scott G. M., Gaddis B., Strange J. M. (2002), *Leading Creative People: Orchestrating Expertise and Relationships*, "The Leadership Quarterly", 13(6): 705–750, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(02)00158-3.

Oldham G. R., Cummings A. (1996), *Employee Creativity: Personal and Contextual Factors at Work*, "Academy of Management Journal", 39(3): 607–634, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/256657.

Pelled L. H. (1996), *Demographic Diversity, Conflict, and Work Group Outcomes: An Intervening Process Theory*, "Organization Science", 7(6): 615–631, http://dx.doi.org/10.1287/orsc.7.6.615.

Perry-Smith J. E. (2006), *Social Yet Creative: The Role of Social Relationships in Facilitating Individual Creativity*, "Academy of Management Journal", 49(1): 85–101, http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2006.20785503.

Pink D. H. (2011), *Drive: The Surprising Truth about What Motivates Us*, Penguin.

Porter M. E. (1990), *The Competitive Advantage of Nations*, "Harvard Business Review", 68(2): 73–93, http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/cir.3880010112.

Ramamoorthy N., Flood P. C., Slattery T., Sardessai R. (2005), *Determinants of Innovative Work Behaviour: Development and Test of an Integrated Model*, "Creativity and Innovation Management", 14(2): 142–150, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8691.2005.00334.x.

Resick C. J., Baltes B. B., Shantz C. W. (2007), *Person-organization Fit and Work-related Attitudes and Decisions: Examining Interactive Effects with Job Fit and Conscientiousness*, "Journal of Applied Psychology", 92(5): 1446, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.5.1446.

Robertson I., Cooper C. (2011), *Well-being: Productivity and Happiness at Work*, Palgrave MacMillan, London.

Robinson D., Perryman S., Hayday S. (2004), *The Drivers of Employee Engagement*, Institute for Employment Studies, Brighton.

Saks A. M. (2006), *Antecedents and Consequences of Employee Engagement*, "Journal of Managerial Psychology", 21(7): 600–619, http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02683940610690169.

Schneider B., Ehrhart M. G., Mayer D. M., Saltz J. L., Niles-Jolly K. (2005), *Understanding Organization-customer Links in Service Settings*, "Academy of Management Journal", 48(6): 1017–1032, http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2005.19573107.

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, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/256701.

Shalley C. E., Gilson L. L. (2004), *What Leaders Need to Know: A Review of Social and Contextual Factors That Can Foster or Hinder Creativity*, "The Leadership Quarterly", 15(1): 33–53, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2003.12.004.

Shuck B. M., Rocco T. S., Albornoz C. A. (2011), *Exploring Employee Engagement from the Employee Perspective: Implications for HRD*, "Journal of European Industrial Training", 35(4): 300–325, http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/03090591111128306.

Shuck B., Reio T. G., Rocco T. S. (2011), *Employee Engagement: An Examination of Antecedent and Outcome Variables*, "Human Resource Development International", 14(4): 427–445, http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13678868.2011.601587.

Shuck B., Wollard K. (2010), *Employee Engagement and HRD: A Seminal Review of the Foundations*, "Human Resource Development Review", 9(1): 89–110, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1534484309353560.

Smith M., Busi M., Ball P., Van Der Meer R. (2008), *Factors Influencing an Organisation's Ability to Manage Innovation: A Structured Literature Review and Conceptual Model*, "International Journal of Innovation Management", 12(4): 655–676, http://dx.doi.org/10.1142/S1363919608002138.

Taylor A., Greve H. R. (2006), *Superman or the Fantastic Four? Knowledge Combination and Experience in Innovative Teams*, "Academy of Management Journal", 49(4): 723–740, http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2006.22083029.

Thompson L. L., Choi H.-S. (2005), *Creativity and Innovation in Organizational Teams*, Psychology Press.

Tierney P., Farmer S. M., Graen G. B. (1999), *An Examination of Leadership and Employee Creativity: The Relevance of Traits and Relationships*, "Personnel Psychology", 52(3): 591–620, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1999.tb00173.x.

Tjosvold D. (1982), *Effects of Approach to Controversy on Superiors' Incorporation of Subordinates' Information in Decision Making*, "Journal of Applied Psychology", 67(2): 189–193, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.67.2.189.

Wagner R., Harter J. K. (2006), *12: The Elements of Great Managing*, Gallup Press, New York.

Woodman R. W., Sawyer J. E., Griffin R. W. (1993), *Toward a Theory of Organizational Creativity*, "Academy of Management Review", 18(2): 293–321, http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/AMR.1993.3997517.

Yin R. K. (2009), *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.

Zigarmi D., Nimon K., Houson D., Witt D., Diehl J. (2009), *Beyond Engagement: Toward a Framework and Operational Definition for Employee Work Passion*, "Human Resource Development Review", 8(3): 300–326, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1534484309338171.

Kreatywne środowisko pracy a zaangażowanie pracowników – badanie potencjalnych powiązań i możliwości

Przedsiębiorstwa osiągające sukcesy charakteryzują się często kreatywnym środowiskiem pracy i (lub) wysokim poziomem zaangażowania pracowników. W literaturze przedmiotu podkreśla się występowanie zależności między kreatywnym środowiskiem pracy a zaangażowaniem pracowników, ale brak badań empirycznych, które by potwierdzały taką zależność. Kwestia ta stanowi przedmiot rozważań w niniejszym opracowaniu, w którym przedstawiono koncepcję badań eksploracyjnych z wykorzystaniem podejścia jakościowego, wykorzystującego częściowo ustrukturyzowane wywiady, obserwację w terenie oraz analizę dokumentów. Główne kwestie badawcze analizowane są na poziomie indywidualnym i zespołowym, odzwierciedlając wielopoziomową naturę konstruktu.

Słowa kluczowe: środowisko pracy, kreatywne zachowania, zaangażowanie pracowników, zespoły.

Izabela Marzec
Aldona Frączkiewicz-Wronka

Department of Public Management
and Social Sciences
University of Economics in Katowice

Janusz Strużyna

Department of Knowledge Engineering
University of Economics in Katowice

The Learning Value of the Job as a Driver of Employee Commitment and Job Satisfaction in Public Organisations

Abstract

The transformation of Poland's public organisations poses new challenges for their employees. Growing social expectations regarding the quality of social services increase the importance of employees' development and commitment. This requires that special attention be paid to the learning value of the job, which not only enhances employees' commitment to the organisation but also positively influences their development and job satisfaction. This paper attempts to answer the question: what is the extent of the learning value of jobs in organisations in the public sector and is the learning value of the job connected with organisational commitment of employees and their job satisfaction? Empirical research is used in service to answering these questions.

Keywords: learning value of the job, organisational commitment, public organisations, job satisfaction.

1. Introduction

Changes in the Polish public sector pose new challenges for its employees. Sociey's growing expectations regarding the quality of public services increases the importance of employees' development and commitment. Employee competences and commitment are connected with the value of organisational human capital, which influences the potential of public organisations to develop. Poland's transformation continues to move forward, which establishes new requirements regarding employees' skills and knowledge. Many employees look for new ways to develop. However, the financial resources Poland's public organisations have at their disposal are limited, which may bring down job satisfaction and employee commitment. In turn, lack of commitment, competences and satisfaction can be a serious barrier to further changes in public organisations. In this context some researchers emphasise the significance of the learning value of the job as an employee development method and its positive impact on employees' commitment and job satisfaction.

This paper seeks to answer the questions: what are the levels of the learning value of a job and employees' job satisfaction in public organisations? What is the educational value of the job connected with organisational commitment of employees and their job satisfaction? We will answer these questions by presenting a short review of the literature and the results of empirical research on the learning value of the job and job satisfaction as well as relationships between the learning value of the job, job satisfaction and organisational commitment of those employed in Poland's public sector.

2. Theoretical Background and Development of the Hypotheses

2.1. Changes in Poland's Public Organisations

Public organisations are open systems that are strongly dependent on external events because their main goal is reacting to emerging social needs (Boyne 2002). Public organisations are unstable due to their politicisation. Moreover, they are often the subject of public interests and political turmoil. In the face of new challenges many traditional methods and practices used in administration have become ineffective. The traditional model of administration based on bureaucratic rationality was done away with in many European countries at the end of the 1970s and replaced with an approach called new public management. However, in Poland these changes began along with the process of political and economic transformation in the late 1980s.

Before 1989 the system of Polish administration was strongly centralised, hierarchical, and directed by political issues. This rendered rational social policy impossible, at both the national and local levels. It hindered the choice and realisation of proper social goals (Kulesza 2000). However, after the political transformation strong emphasis was placed on reforming public administration systems and structures, and work on numerous reforms began in 1989. The most important one for Polish administration took place in 1990, restoring local self-government after 40 years. However, in 1998 a fundamental reform of public administration was passed. It came into force on the 1st of January 1999, introducing a three-stage territorial division. Its main goal was to exempt central government from the management of local affairs, which paved the way to subsequent changes being made in other areas. By delegating power to the local authorities, the reforms were aimed at the enhancement of home-rule, local activities and rapprochement between the authorities and people.

The transformation of Polish administration was accompanied by changes in other public organisations and their management systems. Public organisations began to borrow methods and techniques of professional management from the private sector. Changing political and economic conditions gave rise to a growing focus on the results and effectiveness in Polish public organisations. New public management questioned the traditional model of public management based on public administration and introduced market mechanisms and management methods oriented at managerial control in the public sector. However, the specificity of the public sector and criticism of this managerial approach resulted in replacing solutions proposed by new public management with a new approach based on the use of mechanisms typical for the idea of public governance. In public services today the importance of customer orientation is emphasised, while there is also strong pressure on public organisations to achieve results. Many Polish public organisations have transformed from being hierarchical, centralised, resistant and unwilling to take risks to more flexible, client-oriented organisations that concentrate on the organisational environment while promoting risk and development.

2.2. The Learning Value of the Job

Continuous changes and instability result in the search for new methods of developing public sector employees. Today employees more and more often perceive the possibility to develop as a key factor in the decision to remain in the public sector, because continuous learning becomes necessary to maintain and enhance their employability. In this context many researchers point to the importance of the learning value of the job because the job content is one of the key factors which influences employees' perception of their work

environment. Some believe that even task-based learning leads to better results than other traditional forms of training (Murakami *et al*. 2009). Therefore, public organisations willing to keep and develop employees may partly replace expensive training by redesigning jobs to increase their learning value. The learning value of a job concerns "the extent to which occupational knowledge and skills can be used and expanded in one's job position" (Van der Heijden & Bakker 2011, p. 234). It also depends on the particularities of the job, and the aims and challenges it provides as well as the skills required to properly execute one's responsibilities (Van der Heijden & Bakker 2011, p. 234).

The job should provide employees with the opportunity to learn and improve their skills. Complex work content, diverse tasks and autonomy encourage learning and employee development. Proper job redesign may not just lead to increased motivation and job satisfaction but to the enhancement of employee's learning and commitment. The learning value of the job may be increased by job enrichment, job enlargement and job rotation. These give employees the opportunity to develop new skills, to enrich their experience and fully use their work potential. They also enhance an employee's position on the internal and external labour market because they increase the functional flexibility of the employee and his employability. Horizontal movement leads to similar effects while allowing workers to pick up skills and individual social capital. The literature on the subject indicates that changes in job content may benefit both employees and the organisation in a variety of ways. However, they may bring the expected results only if they are accepted by employees.

In practice, many employees reluctantly accept these changes, and their resistance only grows if the changes are imposed from the top down, which may even lead to many negative consequences – for example, the destabilisation of work processes and a decrease in work performance, motivation or employee satisfaction, to name a few. The problem of frequency of job movements should also be thoroughly considered. It depends on the kind of the new job, the pace at which the employee develops his or her competences and the employee's self-confidence. However, too long spent in the same job may result in a narrowing perspective, limited exposure to new experiences and learning. The optimal time to hold the same position is a few years for employees specialists. On the other hand, changes made too often do not allow employees to gain the proper experience and develop competences in the specific job domain (Van der Heijden 2001).

In the case of managers this time can be shorter because their jobs are not characterised by a high level of knowledge specialisation (Van der Heijden 2001). It is important that workers today more and more often consider their career in the context of a profession rather than in a specific organisation. Therefore, changes in job content or horizontal movements give them the chance to learn and to extend

their competences. Execution of the same tasks for a long time limits employee development and leads to decreased commitment and job satisfaction.

Empirical research shows that job complexity and the variety of tasks and experiences are positively related to employees' competences and their employability (Kohn & Schooler 1982, Juhdi *et al*. 2010). Moreover, the diversity of a job has a positive influence on employee proactivity (Brousseau 1978). Survey research in Dutch enterprises revealed that a job's learning value is closely tied to employees' expertise and flexibility (Van der Heijden 2006). It was also found that the learning value lifts employee initiative and proactivity (Fay & Kamps 2006). Interviews conducted with students who work proved that new job experiences not only enrich their knowledge and skills but also change the values, opinions and work attitudes of young employees (Murakami *et al*. 2009).

2.3. The Organisational Commitment of Employees in Public Organisations

A precursor of studies of organisational commitment was Becker (1960), who singled out two kinds: calculative commitment and attitudinal commitment. Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979, p. 226), continuing Becker's work, stressed the significance of an emotional element of organisational commitment, defining it as the power of an employee's ties and his or her identification with the organisation. Buchanan (1974) emphasised the emotional aspect of organisational commitment. In his opinion, organisational commitment is the emotional attachment of an employee to organisational goals and values as well as his role regarding these goals and values (Buchanan 1974, p. 533).

This subject arouses great interest among Polish researchers, too. According to Juchnowicz (2010, p. 58), organisational commitment is an employee's identification with an organisation, its aims and values, his wish to be a member of the organisation and readiness to spare no effort to help it. Similarly, Spik and Klincewicz (2008, p. 480–488) defined organisational commitment as individual attachment of the employee to the organisation and his or her identification with it.

In the last decade, Allen and Meyer's (1990) model has become very popular and has been successfully used in a great deal of empirical research. It includes three dimensions, i.e. (Allen & Meyer 1990, pp. 2–3):

– affective commitment, which reflects an employee's emotional attachment to the organisation;

– continuance commitment, which concerns employee-perceived costs connected with leaving the organisation;

– normative commitment, which reflects the employee's loyalty towards the organisation, and which is based on a feeling of obligation to stay with it.

It has been proven that organisational commitment provides various benefits both to the organisation and its employees. It is positively related to employee performance, job satisfaction and career success (Sager & Johnston 1989, Riketta 2002). Moreover, it has been found that organisational commitment is positively connected with the innovative behaviours of employees and organisational learning which are important factors in contemporary public organisations' success (Jafri 2010, Rose, Kumar & Pak 2009).

Organisational commitment of employees depends on a variety of organisational factors, e.g. perceived organisational support, procedural justice, a system of rewards, and the employee's participation in the decision-making processes (Allen & Meyer 1990, Meyer & Smith 2000). Job characteristics are also significant predictors of commitment (Flynn & Tannenbaum 1993, Mathieu & Zajac 1990). However, empirical research suggests that such organisational features as extended hierarchical structures or bureaucratic culture negatively affect the organisational commitment of employees in the public sector (Rowlinson 2001). Moreover, strict supervision, narrow autonomy and numerous procedural limitations characteristic of jobs in many public organisations may also negatively influence employee commitment.

2.4. Job Satisfaction

Despite the fact that job satisfaction has been the subject of researchers' interest since the human relations movement, there is no final definition of this notion and it is still understood in a variety of ways by theoreticians and management practitioners. These problems stem from the complex nature of the notion of job satisfaction.

Locke's classical definition (1976, p. 1304) presents job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences". It encompasses both emotional and cognitive elements. A simple definition of job satisfaction is proposed by Agho, Price and Mueller (1992). In their opinions job satisfaction reflects "the extent to which employees like their work" (1992, p. 185). Similarly, according to the popular Spector's definition, job satisfaction refers to people's feelings about their job and its various aspects and it can be considered to be both a total feeling of an employee to his or her job or a set of attitudes an employee has to various aspects of his or her job (Spector 1997, p. 2). Job satisfaction is defined somewhat differently by Aziri (2011, p. 78), who states that it is a feeling that results from the perception that the job satisfies the employee's material and psychological needs. This definition emphasises the connection between job satisfaction and employee motivation.

Job satisfaction depends on organisational characteristics, situational factors and personality traits (Agho, Price & Mueller 1992, Judge, Heller & Mount 2002). It is related to autonomy, the degree of task routinisation, compensation, work conditions, social relationships, supervision, levels of employee aspiration and needs achievement (Rue & Byars 2003, Eichar & Thompson 1986). Other researchers indicate that demographic characteristics including gender, tenure, and education may also affect job satisfaction (Łaguna 2012, Zalewska 2009). It has been found that employee job satisfaction benefits organisations and employees alike, and is considered to be one of the most significant factors that account for employee behaviours. Because it is related to employee motivation, it influences work performance.

2.5. Development of the Hypotheses

The idea of the learning value of a job clearly refers to Hackman and Oldham's (1976) job characteristics theory, which holds that job characteristics influence employees' motivation, satisfaction and performance. Research carried out in public and private organisations in the US showed that precisely defined but challenging tasks enhance employees' organisational commitment (Flynn & Tannenbaum 1993). According to Rue and Byars (2003), job design and perceived long-term opportunities are two of the main factors influencing job satisfaction. Today the possibility to learn on the job is just such a chance for many employees. It was also found that organisational commitment also improves job satisfaction (Rose, Kumar & Pak 2009). Some believe that job satisfaction mediates the relationships between organisational factors and employees' commitment to an organisation (Rue & Byars 2003, Aziri 2011). The results of previous research carried out in Polish organisations indicate that job satisfaction is positively related to the evaluation of chances which creates participation in trainings (Łaguna 2012). However, a high level of formalisation and control, restricted autonomy and numerous procedures specific to many public organisations can limit the learning value of jobs. Moreover, these features can also negatively influence employees' job satisfaction. Considering these findings, the following hypotheses have been posed:

Hypothesis 1: Employees in public organisations report that their jobs have a low learning value.

Hypothesis 2: Employees in public organisations report low job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: A job's learning value is positively correlated to employees' job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4: The learning value of the job is positively correlated to employees' organisational commitment.

3. Research Methodology – Sample, Measures and Data Collection

At the end of 2012, we conducted empirical research to to test the four hypotheses[1]. The data were gathered by means of questionnaires. The sample consisted of 318 employees of public organisations operating in southern Poland. Most of the respondents were women (85.8%). The sample structure by "educational qualification" of the respondents is as follows: 41.8% of the participants held a Master's degree, 45.0% a Bachelor's and 10.7% of the participants had secondary education. The respondents with other educational qualification constituted 2.5% of the sample. As for age, 20.8% were 18 to 26, 26.4% were 27–34, 22.6% were 35–43, 24.2% were 44 to 53, and 6% of respondents were 54 and above. 44% of the respondents were employed in public administration, 21.4% in education and 16.7% in public healthcare institutions. The share of respondents employed in organisations conducting other kinds of activity did not exceed 5% (in total 17.9%).

Organisational commitment was measured with Allen and Meyer's scale (1990), which consisted of eighteen items scored on a 7-grade Likert's scale (from 1 – strongly disagree, to 7 – strongly agree). Cronbach α for the subscale of affective commitment was 0.87, for the subscale of continuance commitment 0.81, and for the subscale of normative commitment 0.89. Cronbach α for the whole scale was 0.92. The learning value of the job was measured with 5 items adopted from Van der Heijden (2006) with responses ranging from 1 – strongly disagree, to 7 – strongly agree. Cronbach α for the sample was 0.91. Job satisfaction was measured with 6 items based on Agho, Price and Mueller's scale (1992), which was scored on a 7-grade Likert's scale. Cronbach α for this sample was 0.88.

Three essential pieces of information about the respondents were used as control variables: gender (coded: 1 – male, 2 – female), age, and educational attainment (coded: 1 – primary education, 2 – high school, 3 – Bachelor's degree, 4 – Master's degree, 5 – doctorate or PhD). This information was obtained with single items. Many studies have determined that these variables are significantly related to employee commitment and job satisfaction; thus they can also influence the relationships being examined here.

4. Results and Implications

Data was processed by means of SPSS 20.0. The results showed that in general the surveyed employees rated the learning value of their job highly, i.e. the mean

---

[1] Research potential "Organizational culture in public organizations", Department of Public Management and Social Science at the University of Economics in Katowice. Period of realisation: from 2011 to 2014. Project director: Professor UE dr hab. A. Frączkiewicz-Wronka.

score was 4.95 points on the 7-point scale (median 5.10), even if the ratings were diverse (standard deviation 1.34) – Table 1. The employees also gave their level of job satisfaction high ratings – the mean score was 4.71 (median 4.83). Therefore, the results did not confirm the first and second hypotheses (H1, H2).

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of the Learning Value of the Job and Job Satisfaction

Variables	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Learning value of the job	4.95	5.10	5.00	1.34	1.00	7.00
Job satisfaction	4.71	4.83	5.00	1.22	1.00	7.00

Source: the authors' own elaboration.

Table 2. Intercorrelations of the Examined Variables ($N = 318$)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Age								
2. Education	−0.002							
3. Affective commitment	0.006	0.064						
4. Continuance commitment	0.123*	−0.140*	0.420**					
5. Normative commitment	−0.047	0.014	0.712**	0.486**				
6. Organisational commitment (overall)	0.028	−0.022	0.855**	0.750**	0.892**			
7. Learning value of the job	0.126*	0.063	0.430**	0.102	0.327**	0.347**		
8. Job satisfaction	0.11	0.029	0.687**	0.310**	0.579**	0.634**	0.517**	

*$p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$.

Source: the authors' own elaboration.

We next examined the relationships between the learning value of the jobs, employees' job satisfaction and their organisational commitment (Table 2). The results of Pearson's correlation analysis showed that there is a significant relationship between employees' general level of organisational commitment and the learning value of their job (0.347, $p < 0.01$). At the same time, both normative and affective commitment were strongly correlated to the learning value of the job (respectively 0.327, $p < 0.01$ and 0.430, $p < 0.01$). Only continuance commitment was not significantly correlated with the learning value of the job. Moreover, strong relationships were found between the learning value of a job and job

satisfaction (0.517, $p < 0.01$) as well as between the general level of organisational commitment and job satisfaction (0.634, $p < 0.01$).

The results were therefore in line with hypotheses 3 and 4. However, to verify these hypotheses the examined relationships needed to be tested over and above the contribution of the control variables (Bozionelos 2003, p. 56), so we also tested them with regression analysis (Table 3).

Table 3. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Models Testing the Relationship between Learning Value of the Job, Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

Predictors	Dependent variable	
	job satisfaction	organisational commitment
	beta/beta in	beta/beta in
Step 1		
Gender	0.045	−0.039
Education	0.025	−0.018
Age	0.112*	0.026
Step 2		
Learning value of the job	0.510***	0.355***
t-value	10.435	6.642
R	0.519	0.355
R^2	0.269	0.126
ΔR^2	0.254	0.115
Adjusted R^2	0.260	0.123
–	$F_{(4, 313)} = 28.818$***	$F_{(4, 313)} = 11.280$***

Note: *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

Source: the authors' own elaboration.

Hypothesis 3 was tested with hierarchical regressions that utilised job satisfaction as the criterion. In the first step, control variables (i.e. gender, age, level of educational attained) were forcibly entered as one block into the estimated regression model but only age made a marginally significant contribution to the total amount of variance accounted for in scores on job satisfaction (Table 3). In the second step, scores on learning value of the job were entered into the model. Analysis revealed that the learning value of the job made a significant contribution to the total amount of variance accounted for in scores on job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.510$, $t = 10.44$, $p < 0.001$). There is therefore no reason to reject hypothesis 3.

In order to check whether the learning value of the job is positively correlated to organisational commitment, i.e. to test hypothesis 4, the same procedure was used (Table 3). Organisational commitment was utilised as the criterion. Age,

gender and educational level were forcibly entered as controls into the regression in the first step but they did not make a significant contribution to the total amount of variance accounted for in scores on organisational commitment. In the second step scores on learning value of the job were entered into the regression model. The learning value of the job also made a significant contribution to the total amount of variance accounted for in scores on organisational commitment ($\beta = 0.355$, $t = 6.64$, $p < 0.001$), hence there is no reason to reject hypothesis 4.

5. Discussion and Conclusions

Despite the first and second formulated hypotheses the research showed that the employees examined rated highly both the learning values of their jobs and their job satisfaction; hence the first and second hypotheses were rejected. These findings suggest that changes in Poland's public sector have lead to a greater awareness of the importance of proper work design for employees' development, commitment and satisfaction. The conducted analysis also proved that the learning value of the job was positively connected with the general level of employees' organisational commitment and job satisfaction, hence the results provide no reason to reject the third and fourth hypotheses. It was also found that the strongest relationship was between affective commitment and the learning value of the job. These findings also indicate that employees of public organisations want to develop and learn at their jobs, as doing so can give them satisfaction and enhance their organisational commitment. Note that the learning value of the job was not significantly correlated only with continuance commitment. This suggests that the increase in the learning value of the job can enhance employees' loyalty and emotional attachment to an organisation. However, it has a limited impact on those employees who stay in their organisations more due to fear of leaving than to loyalty. Additionally, strong relationships between employees' commitment and their job satisfaction were found. This indicates that it is more likely that employees who are more satisfied with their jobs are also more committed to the organisation.

The limitations of the study must still be discussed. For now, we would emphasise that the sample was not representative and the study's findings cannot be generalised. Future studies should be widened to encompass public organisations throughout the entire country. Moreover, the effects of the learning value of the job – e.g. its impact on employees' performance – still need to be examined. Future studies could also lead to additional investigations of the relationships between the learning value of the job and individual career paths as well as between the learning value of the job and work experience. The changes in employment relationships in the public sector and growing job insecurity clearly indicate that new opportunities for learning should be provided in Polish public organisations to enhance employees'

employability. Future research should also investigate the influence of a job's learning value on the employability of employees in public organisations.

However, it should be also stressed that this research is one of the first attempts to link the learning value of a job with employees' organisational commitment and their job satisfaction in transforming the country's public organisations. By providing insight into the relationships between the learning value of the job, organisational commitment and job satisfaction the study has been intended to contribute to theory building on HRM in the Polish public sector. It shows how HRM practices can enhance employees' commitment and job satisfaction (Fleetwood & Hesketh 2010, p. 18).

To conclude, increasing the learning value of the job may benefit both employees and public organisations. Undoubtedly, job satisfaction and organisational commitment are important factors determining the quality of working life in the public sector. Despite the numerous problems and pathologies that still exist, the transformation of Poland's administration system is already a historical fact (Kulesza 2000, p. 79). However, nowadays employees of public organisations also look for opportunities to develop professionally and organisations should support them in these aspirations. It should be stressed that employees' commitment and their competences have become a vital factor in the success of Polish public organisations. It is therefore a new challenge for HRM in public organisations to create a job environment that enhances employee learning, which in turn may increase their organisational commitment and job satisfaction.

Bibliography

Agho A. O., Price J. L., Mueller Ch. W. (1992), *Discriminant Validity of Measures of Job Satisfaction, Positive Affectivity and Negative Affectivity*, "Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology", 1(65): 185–196.

Allen N. J., Meyer J. P. (1990), *The Measurement and Antecedents of Affective, Continuance and Normative Commitment to the Organization*, "Journal of Occupational Psychology", 63(1): 1–18, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1990.tb00506.x.

Aziri B. (2011), *Job Satisfaction: A Literature Review*, "Management Research and Practice", 3(4): 77–86.

Becker H. S. (1960), *Notes on the Concept of Commitment*, "American Journal of Sociology", 66(1): 32–42, http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/222820.

Boyne G. A. (2002), *Public and Private Management: What's the Difference?*, "Journal of Management Studies", 39(1): 97–122, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1467-6486.00284.

Bozionelos N. (2003), *Intra-organizational Network Resources: Relation to Career Success and Personality*, "International Journal of Organizational Analysis", 11(1): 41–66, http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/eb028962.

Brousseau K. R. (1978), *Personality and Job Experience*, "Organizational Behavior & Human Performance", 22(2): 235–252, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073(78)90014-4.

Buchanan B. (1974), *Building Organizational Commitment: The Socialization of Managers in Work Organizations*, "Administrative Science Quarterly", 19(4): 533–546, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2391809.

Eichar D. M., Thompson J. P. (1986), *Alienation, Occupational Self-direction, and Worker Consciousness*, "Work and Occupations", 13(1): 47–65, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0730 888486013001004.

Fay D., Kamps A. (2006), *Work Characteristics and the Emergence of a Sustainable Workforce: Do Job Design Principles Matter?*, "Gedrag en Organisatie", 19(2): 184–203.

Fleetwood S., Hesketh A. (2010), *Explaining the Performance of Human Resource Management*, Cambridge University Press, New York.

Flynn D. M., Tannenbaum S. I. (1993), *Correlates of Organizational Commitment: Differences in the Public and Private Sector*, "Journal of Business and Psychology", 8(1): 103–116, http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/bf02230396.

Hackman J. R., Oldham G. R. (1976), *Motivation through the Design of Work: Test of a Theory*, "Organizational Behavior and Human Performance", 16(2): 250–279, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073(76)90016-7.

Jafri M. H. (2010), *Organizational Commitment and Employee's Innovative Behavior. A Study in Retail Sector*, "Journal of Management Research", 10(1): 62–68.

Juchnowicz M. (2010), *Zarządzanie kapitałem ludzkim a poziom zaangażowania pracowników*, "Zarządzanie Zasobami Ludzkimi", 3–4: 58–66.

Judge T. A., Heller D., Mount M. K. (2002), *Five-factor Model of Personality and Job Satisfaction: A Meta-analysis*, "Journal of Applied Psychology", 87(3): 530–541, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.87.3.530.

Juhdi N., Pa'Wan F., Othman N. A., Moksin H. (2010), *Factors Influencing Internal and External Employability of Employees*, "Business and Economics Journal", 11: 1–10. http://astonjournals.com/manuscripts/Vol2010/BEJ-11_Vol2010.pdf.

Kohn M. L., Schooler C. (1982), *Job Conditions and Personality: A Longitudinal Assessment of Their Reciprocal Effects*, "American Journal of Sociology", 87: 1257–1283, http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/227593.

Kulesza M. (2000), *Transformacja ustroju administracyjnego Polski (1990–2000)*, "Studia Iuridica", 38: 79–86.

Locke E. A. (1976), *The Nature and Causes of Job Satisfaction* (in:) M. D. Dunnette (ed.), *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Rand McNally, Chicago.

Łaguna M. (2012), *Satysfakcja z życia i satysfakcja z pracy a motywacja do podejmowania szkoleń. Doniesienie z badań*, "Psychologia Jakości Życia", 11(2): 163–172.

Mathieu J. E., Zajac D. M. (1990), *A Review and Meta-analysis of the Antecedents, Correlates, and Consequences of Organizational Commitment*, "Psychological Bulletin", 108(2): 171–194, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037//0033-2909.108.2.171.

Meyer J. P., Smith C. A. (2000), *HRM Practices and Organizational Commitment: Test of a Mediation Model*, "Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences", 17(4): 319–331, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1936-4490.2000.tb00231.x.

Mowday R. T., Steers R. M., Porter L. W. (1979), *The Measurement of Organizational Commitment*, "Journal of Vocational Behavior", 14(2): 224–247.

Murakami K., Murray L., Sims D., Chedzey K. (2009), *Learning on Work Placement: The Narrative Development of Social Competence*, "Journal of Adult Development", 16(1): 13–24, http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/S10804-008-9044-9.

Riketta M. (2002), *Attitudinal Organizational Commitment and Job Performance: A Meta-analysis*, "Journal of Organizational Behavior", 23(3): 257–266, http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.141.

Rose R. C., Kumar N., Pak O. G. (2009), *The Effect of Organizational Learning on Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction and Work Performance*, "Journal of Applied Business Research", 25(6): 55–65.

Rowlinson S. (2001), *Matrix Organizational Structure, Culture and Commitment: A Hong Kong Public Sector Case Study of Change*, "Construction Management & Economics", 19(7): 669–673, http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/01446190110066137.

Rue L. W., Byars L. (2003), *Management, Skills and Application*, McGraw-Hill/Irwin, New York.

Sager J. K., Johnston M. W. (1989), *Antecedents and Outcomes of Organizational Commitment*, "Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management", 9(1): 30–41.

Spector P. E. (1997), *Job Satisfaction: Application, Assessment, Causes and Consequences*, Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks.

Spik A., Klincewicz K. (2008), *Nowe kierunki w zarządzaniu ludźmi* (in:) M. Kostera (ed.), *Nowe kierunki w zarządzaniu*, WAiP, Warszawa.

Van der Heijden B. I. J. M. (2001), *Encouraging Professional Development in Small and Medium-sized Firms. The Influence of Career History and Job Content*, "Career Development International", 6(3): 156–168, http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/13620430110389748.

Van der Heijden B. I. J. M. (2006), *Age Differences in Career Activities among Higher--level Employees in the Netherlands: a Comparison between Profit Sector and Non-profit Sector Staff*, "International Journal of Training and Development", 10(2): 98–120, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2419.2006.00247.x.

Van der Heijden B. I. J. M., Bakker A. B. (2011), *Toward a Mediation Model of Employability Enhancement: A Study of Employee-supervisor Pairs in the Building Sector*, "Career Development Quarterly", 59(3): 232–248, http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-0045.2011.tb00066.x.

Zalewska A. (2009), *Wiek, płeć i stanowisko pracy a zadowolenie z pracy*, "Psychologia Jakości Życia", 8(1): 1–20.

Wartość uczenia się wykonywanej pracy jako czynnik zaangażowania pracowników i satysfakcji z pracy w organizacjach publicznych

Transformacja polskich organizacji publicznych stawia nowe wyzwania przed ich pracownikami. Rosnące oczekiwania społeczne co do jakości usług publicznych powodują wzrost znaczenia rozwoju pracowników i budowania ich zaangażowania. Sytuacja ta wymaga zwrócenia szczególnej uwagi na wartość uczenia się wykonywanej pracy, która nie tylko wzmacnia zaangażowanie organizacyjne pracowników, lecz także wpływa pozytywnie na ich rozwój i satysfakcję z pracy. W artykule podjęto próbę odpowiedzi na pytanie, jaki jest poziom wartości uczenia się wykonywanej pracy w organizacjach publicznych oraz czy wartość ta jest powiązana z zaangażowaniem organizacyjnym pracowników i ich satysfakcją z pracy. Cel ten został osiągnięty poprzez zaprezentowanie wyników badań empirycznych.

Słowa kluczowe: wartość uczenia się wykonywanej pracy, zaangażowanie organizacyjne, organizacje publiczne, satysfakcja z pracy.

Surapone Ptanawanit

Department of Social Work
Thammasat University, Thailand

The Organisational Engagement of Manual Labourers in a Transnational Corporation

Abstract

Huge competition in global markets and an insufficient supply of manual workers have together forced transnational corporations in Thailand to look for appropriate strategies to reduce labour costs and improve worker productivity. This study, therefore, examines factors influencing the work performance and organisational engagement of manual workers. For the research I randomly drew a sample of manual workers in a branch factory of a transnational food company to analyse their work performance, organisational engagement, and retention. The article finally suggests ways management can recruit manual labourers, improve their performance, and prolong their tenure with the organisation.

Keywords: organisational engagement, worker performance, worker retention, transnational workers.

1. Introduction

Under the highly competitive conditions in the world market and the shortage of domestic labour supplies, both local and transnational corporations in Thailand are now searching for appropriate human resource strategies for reducing production costs and increasing labour productivity. Employment of foreign labour has become a strategy commonly utilised by both small and large corporations.

According to Huguet, Chamratrithirong, and Richter (2011), the number of foreign workers in Thailand is not less than 3 million and they are not decreasing in number. Although use of foreign labour does help reduce remuneration costs, it creates difficulties for human resource management in areas including administration, training, coaching, and the provision of welfare, particularly at the beginning of employment.

Many transnational corporations have moved their production bases to Laos, Cambodia, Indonesia, Vietnam, China, and other countries where cheaper labour is available. However, this requires a large amount of capital investment and is possible only for large corporations. Recently, Thailand's outward foreign direct investment has increased sharply, and is forecast to rise by 2020 to more than US$ 18 billion (Ernst & Young 2012). It is also accepted that the availability of cheaper labour is one of the reasons production has moved to other countries (Campos & Kinoshita 2003).

In the domestic labour market, where the supply of manual labour has not met the increasing demand, wage and welfare increases are the main strategy for attracting new recruits. Despite being an effective alternative, increasing wages or welfare is an expensive choice, especially given that the new government policy on the daily minimum wage of 300 bahts (or approximately US$10/day) has been in force for only a year. Competitive recruitments for manual workers based on an offensive compensation policy has created a wage war in which manufacturing firms have been attempting to win workers' hearts by offering higher financial incentives. Unfortunately, high wages and welfare seem to be a powerful incentive only in the short term as workers are always ready to accept better compensation from their organisations.

Many firms are, therefore, thinking of how to adapt a conventional means of enhancing employee engagement and productivity, which has long been limited to the white-collar workforce. These manufacturing firms do not want to bid for new workers against other firms. Instead, they intend to develop guidelines for finding prospective manual workers who can be productive and for retaining them. Not only should this development lessen labour costs but it should also improve workers' productivity, all of which can strengthen the firms' competitiveness in the world market. For large multinational corporations, the schemes for organisational engagement and manual workers' improved productivity will not benefit merely factories located in Thailand, but may become what is called "a global standard" their branch organisations in other countries can also apply.

This study aims to investigate factors affecting manual workers' performance and organisational engagement at a branch factory of a transnational company. The research findings are expected to lead to recommendations on how human

resource management may improve workers' productivity and retention in this and other branch factories located in Thailand and other countries.

A number of studies have attempted to investigate what affects employee performance. Many emphasise the effect of demographic factors on productivity. Shaiful *et al*. (2009), for example, agreed in their study that gender did not have a significant effect on work performance. This contrasts with the findings of Benggtson *et al*. (1978), which showed that women performed better at work than men. Studies on the relationships between age and work performance also show contradictory findings. Some studies (Yearta 1995, Birren & Schaie 2001) did not support the influence of age on work performance, while others did, including Smedley and Whitten (2006), Shultz and Adam (2007), and Kujala *et al*. (2005). Employees' educational background is another variable frequently considered in studies on work performance. Here too there has not been across the board agreement on its influence on work performance – some studies supported the effect of education (Ariss & Timmins 1989, McBey & Karakowsky 2001) while research conducted by Linz (2002) found that this variable had no influence.

In addition to demographic variables, management factors such as employee compensation, workplace environments, and human relations are often found to be related to work performance. Ryan and Deci (2000) believe that compensation is an extrinsic motivation which produces only a short-term effect on employee performance, while workplace environments, on the other hand, can better motivate employees to perform. Others (Mohr 1996, Huang, Robertson & Chang 2004) pointed out a similar argument, their studies indicating a positive influence of physical environments on business results and employee well--being. Chandrasekar's work (2011) shed light on performance feedback, which included information exchange and conflict resolution between employees and supervisors. Some studies (Haynes 2008, Patterson *et al*. 1997) have emphasised the importance of behavioural components and the management of people to organisational performance.

With regard to employee retention and engagement, most studies tend to affirm that financial rewards can induce personnel to remain with an organisation. Padoa (2012), for example, stated in his study that 43.2% of the sample mentioned that a pay raise could lead them to stay on longer; however, approximately half chose non-financial benefits as a retention motivator. Some studies have argued that cash incentives produce only short-term effects. If the management expected long--term employee retention, non-financial motivators should be a better alternative to attracting employees to stay with an organisation. Among these studies is a survey done in the UK which found that only 10% of the employees who had left their organisation were dissatisfied with the wage they had received (Bevan 1997). Another study found that the most important factor in employee retention

was to engage them with the employees' team and the organisational direction (Norman 2012). Higginbotham (1997) suggests that good and fair compensation is more important than high monetary payment, an argument that accords with the intrinsic motivation of an organisation's commitment by providing fair and equitable rewards proposed by Eby *et al*. (2000).

Like employee performance, many studies have tried to link organisational engagement with demographic characteristics such as gender, age, and education. In *What Drives Employee Engagement and Why It Matters?* gender, ethnicity, and work status were not found to be critical variables of engagement (Dale Carnegie Training 2012). This same study mentioned further that employees under 30 or over 50 years old were more engaged while the most highly educated were less engaged. Contradictory findings have been revealed by other researchers, who reported that females and older workers are more engaged (Avery, McKay & Wilson 2007, James, Swanberg & McKechnie 2007).

2. Methods

The study was designed as a sample survey. It collected data from the manual workers of a transnational food corporation's branch factory located in Nakornrachasima Province in northeastern Thailand. A few in-depth interviews with line supervisors were conducted as well, though these were not expected to answer research questions, only to provide some explanations to the survey results.

Research Population

The research population comprised approximately 2,700 manual workers who had been working in the factory for at least one year; their performance in 2013 was appraised.

Sample

Size. 2,700 was the sample size chosen based on the presumption about organisational engagement of manual workers. For the maximum sample size, the study presumed that half of the workers ($p = 0.5$) retained high organisational engagement, meaning the other half ($q = 0.5$) had a low level of organisational engagement.

The precision of the proportion estimate was set at 95% ($d = 0.05$) and the significant level at 0.05. Based on these presumptions, the study applied a simplified formula for estimating a population proportion (Yamane 1967) in determining sample size. This resulted in a sample size of 602 units. To increase the reliability of all the research findings, the sample size was enlarged to 700 units (or workers).

Sampling technique. The human resource department prepared a population frame which listed all the names of manual workers. 700 names were randomly drawn from this frame, and it was from these workers that the data were collected.

Research Instrument

Apart from workers' demographic characteristics and employment status, another two sections dealing with organisational engagement and factors concerning worker retention were included.

Organisational engagement. This section comprised 16 five-scale rating questions which divided organisational engagement into four sub-sections: loyalty to the organisation, work adaptability, energy at work, and employment security.

Worker retention. This part asked the sample to choose only five factors (from each of the lists provided) that would make them happy at work, cause them to resign, cause their co-workers to resign, or convince them to stay with the organisation.

The instrument did not incorporate the issue of worker performance, though the human resource department prepared performance grades (C–, C, B, A, or A+) of all the sampled workers appraised in the previous year for the study.

Data Collection

The data collection team from a private university in Bangkok was asked to become a third party to gather data from the workers. An individual interview according to the instrument inventories was the main method of data collection. However, I conducted interviews myself with a few line supervisors because this part of the data was used to provide additional clarity for the statistical analysis.

Data Analysis

The data were analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Estimates of the population's proportions (or percentages) were the main descriptive statistics used to show the approximate overall findings. To avoid the limitations of the theoretical assumptions on population parameters which always occur in practice, appropriate non-parametric statistics were employed to test the statistical hypotheses. Pearson's chi-squared test and the Kruskal-Wallis test were the two inferential statistics used to generalise the findings to the whole population.

3. Limitations

The research objective and research population implied a few limitations of this study. First, the research is specifically concerned with manual workers, so

the findings cannot apply to white-collar employees. Secondly, the population boundary covers only 2,700 workers in a branch factory of a multinational company. This means that generalisation of all the findings should not be made beyond this population boundary. Nevertheless, the human resource department of the multinational company that sponsored the research also intended to adapt some of the findings to improve the engagement and performance of workers in its other branch factories.

4. Results

74% of the manual workers who responded to the questionnaires were females. The age of those who responded was approximately between 28 and 47 years. Approximately 67.9% of the workers were local residents while 32.1% of them had moved from other provinces.

Worker Performance

Most of the manual workers scored well on their performance assessments, with 84% receiving an A+ or an A. Only 16% were given a grade of B or below.

Two factors that influence high performance are employment tenure and education. Table 1 clearly shows that the workers with more than six years of employment are much more productive than those who have been working for not more than six years.

Table 1. Relationship between Employment Tenure and Work Performance

Length of Employment	Work performance (frequencies and percentage)		Total
	A and A+	C– to B	
6 years and lower	279 (71.5%)	111 (28.5%)	390 (100.0%)
More than 6 years	309 (99.7%)	1 (0.3%)	310 (100.0%)

Note: p value from the Pearson's chi-squared test = 0.0000.

Source: the author's own study.

As Ariss and Timmins (1989) and McBey and Karakowsky (2001) previously argued, this study also found that education is another factor that affects high performance. According to Table 2, the workers with a senior high school or technical education background are more efficient than those with primary education and particularly than those with a junior high school education.

Table 2. Relationship between Level of Education and Work Performance

Educational level	Work performance (frequencies and percentage)		Total
	A and A+	C– to B	
Primary	376 (83.3%)	65 (6.7%)	441 (100.0%)
Junior high school	118 (75.2%)	39 (24.8%)	157 (100.0%)
Senior high school or technical education	94 (92.2%)	8 (7.8%)	102 (100.0%)

Note: *p* value from the Pearson's chi-squared test = 0.0000.

Source: the author's own study.

A few points are worth discussing. First, high performance is undeniably influenced by work experience and length of employment. Better education is also a significant cause of high performance. Table 2 does not imply that workers with primary education are more productive than those with a junior high-school background, but it actually confirms the effect of work experience mentioned in the previous topic as more than 70% of the workers with a primary education are mostly the persons with more than 6 years of employment.

The second point concerns manual work in this factory and perhaps across the entire food processing industry: since the data showed that the workers who had a longer employment period were mostly older individuals, we may conclude that workers can maintain high performance until they reach at least 50 years of age. The findings from the in-depth interviews confirm the statistical analysis – all of the supervisors interviewed agreed that the performance of the older workers was still competitive with that of the younger ones. The findings from both the quantitative and qualitative analyses, therefore, support the positive effects of age found by Smedley and Whitten (2006), Shultz and Adam (2007), and Kujala *et al.* (2005). Qualities including punctuality, obedience or being less problematic, and patience helped the older workers receive better performance grades.

Lastly, the findings indirectly indicate that local workers are more efficient than those who migrated from other provinces. This conclusion is based on the fact that the workers with a primary education, or with longer tenure, or who are more senior, were mostly locals who had been employed by the factory since it opened 9 years ago.

Organizational Engagement

In all, the manual workers had an average score of 87.6% on organisational engagement. They scored 90.6% on worker loyalty and 87.6% on employment

security. The average scores for the other two parts of "energy at work" and "work adaptability" were 84.1% and 80.6%, respectively.

Two important factors tied to organisational engagement are educational background and length of employment at the organisation. As far as the latter factor is concerned, the older workers received a significantly higher average for loyalty than their younger counterparts did. As for educational background, the workers with lower education scored significantly higher in all aspects of organisational engagement than those with a better education (Table 3).

Table 3. Organisational Engagement Scores by Level of Education

Level of education	Aspect of organizational engagement (average score)			
	loyalty	work adaptability	energy at work	employment security
Primary education	18.4	24.6	12.8	17.8
Junior high school	17.7	23.9	12.3	17.3
Senior high school or technical education	17.6	23.4	12.3	16.8
p value from the Kruskal-Wallis test	0.000	0.004	0.003	0.000

Source: the author's own study.

Agreement between the findings of this and the previous categories suggests a few conclusions. First, length of employment, organizational engagement, and worker performance are interrelated. A longer period of employment leads to organisational engagement, which ultimately results in better performance. Management may choose to employ applicants with better education in manual work positions and expect high performance from them. However, the price they pay for this alternative will be less loyalty to the organisation. Therefore, to employ applicants with a primary education is not a bad choice because management is able to make them highly engaged in every respect and eventually to be productive workers, although they may take a longer time to develop than those with a better education do.

Worker Retention

The critical period for worker retention was the workers' first five years of employment, particularly in their initial year during which more than 50% of new recruits decided to leave the organisation. Turnover rates clearly dropped after the first five years of employment and tended to be stable afterward.

Factors affecting length of employment. A few factors were found to have some relation with length of employment. In terms of gender, the study found that the female workers had approximately 1.5 years of employment longer than their male counterparts. This difference was statistically significant ($p = 0.000$) and is considerable for a factory running for less than 10 years.

The local workers had an average length of employment of 5.3 years, which was significantly longer ($p = 0.000$) than the 4.5 years of those who migrated from the neighbouring province of Buriram and particularly the 3.7 years of migrant workers from other provincial locations.

Educational background also had some effect upon length of employment. The workers with a primary education were employed, on average, for 5.5 years, which was significantly longer ($p = 0.000$) than the 4.3 years and 4.0 years of those with a junior high school education and with a senior high school/technical education, respectively.

The finding concerning length of employment affirms the greater loyalty to the organisation of the manual workers who are local residents and of those who have a lower educational background. In terms of gender, the present recruitment practice, which tends to employ more females than males, seems to be appropriate as the study showed that the female workers stayed with the organisation longer than their male counterparts did.
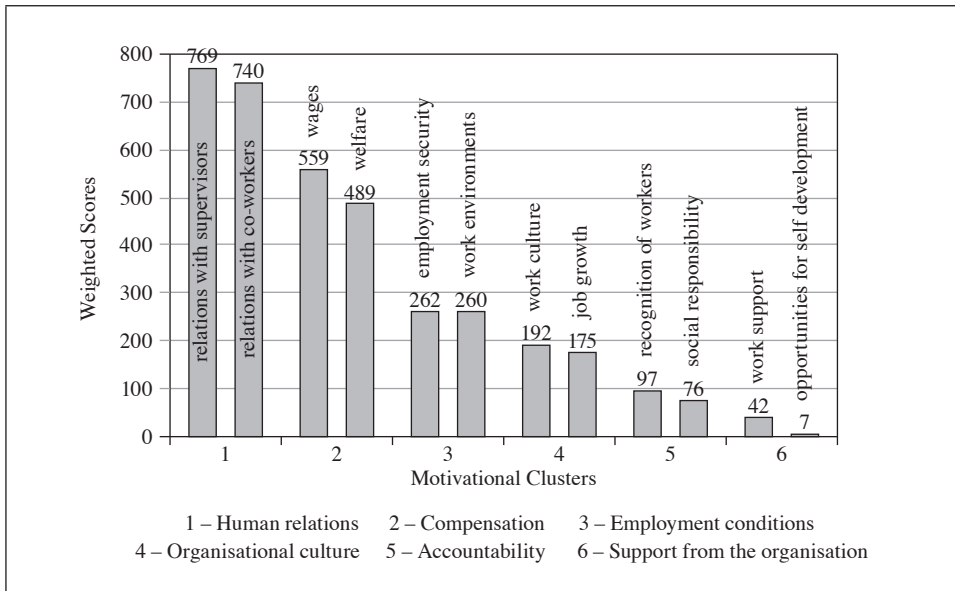

Fig. 1. Motivational Factors in Worker Retention
Source: the author's own study.

Motivational factors. The manual workers were asked to choose the five most important factors from the lists that would compel them or their colleagues to stay with the organisation, cause them or their colleagues to resign, and make them happy at work. The scores determined by the ranking and the percentages of the respondents indicated six clusters of motivations that could induce worker retention. Chart 1 shows that, for the manual workers whose economic status was at a decent level, the work compensation cluster ranks behind human relations, which includes relations with immediate supervisors and co-workers. This would seem to deny the strong influence of a financial reward stated by Padoa (2012), but confirms the importance of an intrinsic motivator found by Bevan (1997) and Norman (2012). Another important cluster is employment conditions, which include employment security and work environments. However, the scores of its components are still far behind those in the first two clusters.

The manual workers seem not to value intangible motivators. As Fig. 1 illustrates, the scores of the components in the other three clusters are rather low – including even opportunities for self development, which came in with a score of as low as 7.1.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Empirical findings based on the data collected from the manual workers at the transnational organisation I have considered lead to some conclusions on worker performance and organisational engagement. First, a better educational background is fundamental to employees working at a high performance level. Another cause of high performance is work experience reflected by length of employment. This helps explain why a significantly higher proportion of older workers receive A and A+ performance grades than younger ones do.

The analysis showed the advantages of using local workers, who had a lower educational background but nonetheless high performance grades for all aspects of organisational engagement. These local labourers have worked with the organisation for a longer time than workers who migrated from other provinces. This brings us to another conclusion – that local people should be more preferable than migrant workers. Finally, female workers did not show significantly higher organisational engagement scores, but their tenure was 1.5 years longer than their male counterparts.

In this transnational establishment where payment of wages and welfare provision are better than the minimum required by law, the decision to stay with or leave the organisation depended greatly on whether employees had good relations or conflicts with supervisors and co-workers. The workers' demands

for better wages and welfare proved to be the second priority after the human relations cluster. Another two influential factors in keeping the workers with the organisation were employment security and work environments. Abstract forms of motivators such as the organisation's accountability, its support, and opportunities for self-development were not influential enough to extend a manual worker's desire to stay.

The research findings suggest some guidelines that may be followed by managers recruiting new manual workers, improving the performance of new workers and boosting retention rates. These guidelines could probably also be applied by other multinational food manufacturing firms.

In the search for highly engaged and efficient workers, management should primarily recruit new workers from local applicants. Females may well be more preferable; however, this conclusion must not lead to discrimination against male applicants. New recruits with better education, particularly in an appropriate field of technical education, can develop high performance within a shorter period of time than individuals with a lower education. However, management may have to spend more money on payroll and cannot expect loyalty from these better--educated workers. It may therefore turn its attention to applicants with a primary education and some work experience because the research findings suggest that this group of workers is capable enough to obtain an A or A+ performance level, though they may require more time to develop their skills. Another advantage of hiring manual workers with a lower level of education is that they are more engaged than those with better education. This translates into reduced worker turnover and recruitment costs.

Regarding the employment of applicants with a lower educational background who have some work experience, management might avoid recruiting new graduates, but should give priority to more mature applicants. This will help save social security costs and the management can still expect high performance from these more mature workers until their retirement.

Although management does not need to offer very high compensation in promoting worker retention, it must be competitive and comply with labour law. Enhancing workers' good relations with immediate supervisors and co-workers is the most important motivator for retaining manual workers. Employment security and a decent work environment must also be provided to improve worker retention. For the manual workers in this setting, intangible and internalised rewards such as self-development, recognition from the organisation, and organisational accountability are too abstract for the workers to realise their value.

Bibliography

Ariss S. S., Timmins S. A. (1989), *Employee Education and Job Performance: Does Education Matter?*, "Journal of Public Personnel Management", 18(2): 100–112.

Avery D. R., McKay P. F., Wilson D. C. (2007), *Engaging the Aging Workforce: The Relationship between Perceived Age Similarity, Satisfaction with Coworkers, and Employee Engagement*, "Journal of Applied Psychology", 92(6): 1542–1556, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.6.1542.

Benggtson C., Vedin J. A., Grimby G., Tibblin G. (1978), *Maximal Work Performance Test in Middle-aged Women: Results from a Population Study*, "Scandinavian Journal of Clinical and Laboratory Investigation", 38(2): 181–188.

Bevan S. (1997), *Quit Stalling* (*Retention*), "People Management", 3(23): 32–35.

Birren J. E., Schaie K. W. (2001), *Handbook of the Psychology of Aging*, Gulf Professional Publisher, London.

Campos N. F., Kinoshita Y. (2003), *Why Does FDI Go Where It Goes? New Evidence from the Transition Economies*, https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/wp/2003/wp03228.pdf, accessed: January 2, 2014.

Chandrasekar K. (2011), *Workplace Environment and Its Impact on Organizational Performance in Public Sector Organizations*, "International Journal of Enterprise Computing and Business Systems", 1(1), www.ijecbs.com/January2011/N4Jan2011.pdf, accessed: December 20, 2013.

Dale Carnegie Training (2012), *What Drives Employee Engagement and Why It Matters*, www.dalecarnegie.com/assets/1/7/driveengagement_101612_wp.pdf, accessed: November 29, 2013.

Eby L. T., Adams D. M., Russel J. E. A., Gaby S. H. (2000), *Perceptions of Organisational Readiness for Change. Factors Related to Employees' Reaction to the Implementation of Team-based Selling*, "Human Relations", 53(3): 419–442, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0018726700533006.

Ernst & Young (2012), *Beyond Asia: Strategies to Support the Quest for Growth/Thailand Highlights*, www.bot.or.th/Thai/FinancialMarkets/ThaiDirectInvertment/Document/ThailandHighlights_ ErnstAndYoung.pfd, accessed: January 2, 2014.

Haynes B. P. (2008), *An Evaluation of the Impact of the Office Environment on Productivity*, "Journal of Facilities", 26(516): 178–190.

Higginbotham J. S. (1997), *The Satisfaction Equation*, "Research & Development", 39(10): 1–9.

Huang Y. H., Robertson M. M., Chang K. I. (2004), *The Role of Environmental Control on Environmental Sastisfaction, Communication, and Psychological Stress: Effect of Office Ergonomics Training*, "Environment and Behavior", 36(5): 617–638, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0013916503262543.

Huguet J. W., Chamratrithirong A., Richter K. (2011), *Thailand Migration Profile* (in:) J. W. Huguet, A. Chamratrithirong (eds), *Thailand Migration Report 2011*, International Organization for Migration, Bangkok.

James J. B., Swanberg J. E., McKechnie S. P. (2007), *Responsive Workforces for Older Workers: Job Quality, Flexibility and Employee Engagement*, The Center for Aging and Work/Workplace Flexibility at Boston College, Chestnut Hill, MA.

Kujala V., Remes J., Ek E., Tammelin T., Laitinen J. (2005), *Classification of Work Ability Index among Young Employees*, "Journal of Occupational Medicine", 55(5): 399–401.

Linz S. (2002), *Job Satisfaction among Russian Workers*, http://ssm.com/abstract-313641orDQI:10.2139/ssm.313641, accessed: December 15, 2013.

McBey K., Karakowsky L. (2001), *Examining Sources of Influence on Employee Turnover in the Part-time Context*, "Journal of Career Development International", 21(3): 136–144.

Mohr R. (1996), *Office Space Is a Revenue Enhancer, Not an Expense*, "National Real Estate Investor", 38(7): 46–47.

Norman M. (2012), *6 Ways to Retain Remote Workers – and Make Them Feel Part of the Team*, http://www.tlnt.com/2012/03/20/6-ways-to-retain-remote-workers-and-make-them-feel-part-of-the-team, accessed: December 1, 2013.

Padoa C. (2012), *The Other 3 R's: Recognition, Remuneration, and Retention*, http://bx.businessweek.com/employeeretention/view?url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.Executio-nandstrategy.com%2F2012%2F06%2Fother-3-rs-recognition-remuneration-and.html, accessed: December 5, 2013.

Patterson M. G., West M. A., Lawthorn R., Nickell S. (1997), *Impact of People Management Practices on Business Performance*, Issues in People Management No. 22, Institute of Personnel and Development, London.

Ryan R. M., Deci E. L. (2000), *Self-determination Theory and the Facilitation of Intrinsic Motivation, Social Development, and Well-being*, "American Psychologist", 55(1): 68–78, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0003-066x.55.1.68.

Shaiful A. K., Kamaruzaman J., Hassan A., Mohamad I., Kamsol M. K., Norhasimah A. R. (2009), *Gender as Moderator of the Relationship between OCB and Turnover Intention*, "Journal of Asian Social Science", 5(6): 108–117.

Shult K. S., Adam G. A. (2007), *Aging and Work in the 21st Century*, Routledge Publisher, New Jersey.

Smedley K., Whitten H. (2006), *Age Matters: Employing, Motivation, and Managing Older Employees*, Gower Publishing, Hampshire, UK.

Yamane T. (1967), *Elementary Sampling Theory*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.

Yearta S. K. (1995), *Does Age Matter?*, "Journal of Management Development", 14(7): 28–35.

Zaangażowanie organizacyjne pracowników operacyjnych w korporacji transnarodowej

Silna konkurencja na rynkach globalnych oraz niewystarczająca podaż pracowników operacyjnych skłaniają korporacje transnarodowe w Tajlandii do poszukiwania odpowiednich strategii zmniejszania kosztów pracy i podnoszenia produktywności pracy. W opracowaniu skoncentrowano się na zbadaniu czynników wpływających na efekty pracy i zaangażowanie pracowników operacyjnych. Badania empiryczne przeprowadzone zostały na próbie pracowników w fabryce należącej do korporacji transnarodowej działającej w branży spożywczej. Ich zakres obejmował analizę efektywności pracy, zaangażowania organizacyjnego oraz retencji pracowników. Na tej podstawie sformułowano wnioski dotyczące rekrutacji, podnoszenia efektywności pracy i retencji pracowników.

Słowa kluczowe: zaangażowanie organizacyjne, efekty pracowników, retencja pracowników, pracownicy transnarodowi.

Tomasz Kawka

Human Resources Management Department
Wrocław University of Economics

The Relationship between How Compensation Is Configured and the Level and Components of Commitment to Work – Findings Based on Allen and Meyer's Organisational Commitment Scale

Abstract

One of the most important problems in modern HRM is to design innovative solutions related to human capital management, which uses the maximum involvement and commitment to the organisation. One of the most critical solutions in this field is the system of remuneration. This article examines correlations between these areas. The first part of the paper provides a theoretical explanation of the basic assumptions, including definitions and concepts of commitment, elements of compensation, and Allen & Meyer's Organizational Commitment Scale theory. The second part presents the main conclusions and findings related to the configuration of compensation with the level and components of commitment to work gained by correlation analysis. The most important final outcome is that there are only a few significant correlations among commitment and its components. The main factor that is correlative with the affective component of commitment is the level of remuneration.

Keywords: compensation, organisational commitment, motivation, Allen & Meyer conception.

1. Introduction

The main objective of this article is to uncover and discuss the relationship between the level, structure and criteria for setting compensation with the level and components of declared commitment to work. This is a significant challenge, especially given today's global, international HRM environment (Stor 2011, pp. 7–13). Obviously, there are a lot of complex multi-directional relationships between a perceptible sense of commitment and engagement, and factors that affect them and the extent to which they occur. Compensation systems are among the best tools for understanding this relationship (e.g. Armstrong 2007, Cascio 2011, Borkowska 2007). The first part of the paper presents the concepts of commitment and engagement as discussed in the literature today. The subsequent part presents the results and findings of a survey related to the components of commitment with the structure and field of compensation.

2. What Is Commitment?

Organisational commitment is manifested in the desire of employees to exert considerable effort for the organisation for which they work (Marzec 2011, p. 281). In this spirit, L. W. Porter defines the notion of commitment as the degree of employee identification with the organisation and his or her involvement in its overall affairs (Armstrong 2007, p. 223). In his view, organisational commitment is based on employees' acceptance of and faith in the organisation's goals, their willingness to devote significant effort for the good of the organisation and a strong desire to be a member of the organisation. A. M. Saks (2006) defines commitment as an intellectual and emotional devotion to the organisation or the level of the effort the employee puts in. According to M. L. Ballery and M. L. Morris (see Juchnowicz 2010), involvement is a condition in which employees want to provide on (submerge) the job. This means they are working towards a positive attitude and are satisfied with the job (Juchnowicz 2010, p. 35). M. Armstrong argues that engagement involves harmonising the goals and values of employees with the goals and values of the organisation and the need to belong to the organisation and the desire to work for its own good (Armstrong 2007, p. 31). B. Buchanan, on the other hand, stresses the emotional aspect of organisational commitment. In his view, it is affective attachment to the goals and values of the organisation, to one's role regarding these goals and values, and to the organisation (Buchanan 1974, p. 533). The desire to put an effort into work, the willingness to act and engage in the affairs of the organisation and possess a strong sense of being a member of the organisation are all rooted in employees' perception of motivation, both internal and external.

Commitment is seen by analysts and researchers as being different from motivation and job satisfaction (Spik i Klincewicz 2008, Juchnowicz 2012). Involvement affects the behaviour of the employee, regardless of other conflicting motives and attitudes. Factors that are in conflict with the motivation to work – the desire to spend time with your family, for example – do not eliminate the impact of organisational commitment on the behaviour of employees, but they can introduce a higher level of stress at work (Molek-Winiarska 2013, pp. 36–42). Improving job satisfaction while ensuring there is a high level of involvement from employees seems an obvious practice in human capital management (*Słownik…* 2010). However, numerous studies indicate that it is difficult to find a relationship between the concepts of efficiency, motivation, and commitment and satisfaction (Borowska-Pietrzak 2011). This problem is illustrated by Fig. 1.
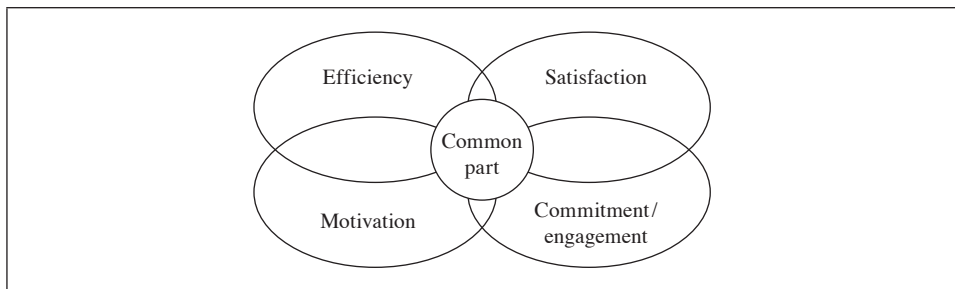
Fig. 1. Relationship between Notions in HRM – "the Holy Grail of HRM"
Source: own study.

The common part of these notions is the theoretical approach of understanding the goals of human capital management. The result of a high level of occurrence in all areas could indicate model behaviour and the attitude of the ideal, perfect employee. We can say, with a wink, that all practices and procedures of HRM seek just such solutions – "the Holy Grail of HRM". Now the question is if it is attainable. The interdependence of factors affecting the level of organisational commitment is discussed in the literature. The most frequently mentioned include perceived organisational employee support and procedural justice, climate and organisational culture, organisational structure, improvement and the system of professional development, the evaluation and reward system, management style and the participation of workers in decision-making, achievement, esteem from a supervisor, job responsibilities, responsibility and self-reliance, promotion, development and career, direct superiors, results and evaluation, communication, equal opportunities and fair treatment, health and safety, cooperation, friendly work environment', "family" relationships, and of course the system of

compensation. (e.g. Meyer & Allen 1991; Hampton & Howell 1989; Marzec 2011, p. 281; Robinson & Perryman 2004; Juchnowicz 2010, p. 116).

Organisational commitment can be broadly defined as a personal attachment to the organisation and individual identification with it. Employee relations with an organisation can be interpreted as a sequence of interactions, in which both sides define and gradually expand their powers, clarifying the operation of the rules contained in the contract of employment, and internal rules. Knowledge of sources and ways to increase involvement may therefore be sought after by managers to help them gain control over the hearts and minds of employees. In this light, an engaged employee is one who has a strong desire to remain a member of the organisation, is prone to giving a high level of effort, and believes in the goals and values of his or her organisation (Cohen 2007, p. 338).

According to Cascio and Boudreau (2011, p. 194), based on the analysis of financial indicators of the best companies of a "Fortune" magazine list, there is a relationship between the effectiveness of an organisation and the behaviours and attitudes of employees. The research suggests that positive labour relations may affect a company's financial performance. Of course, correlation is not causation. Unfortunately, HRM researchers have yet to clearly determine the direction of the vector of such a relationship. They frequently suggest that relations are mutual, and work in two-way mode. Although research results published by the Corporate Leadership Council and Hewitt Associates indicating a relationship between increases in attachment to a company and double-digit increases in the company's efficiency, there wasn't any evidence for what was causing it (Cascio & Boudreau 2011, p. 201). Bragg, Wiles, and Wolf (see Bugdol 2011) also showed the relationship between engagement and positively understood the indirect effects of HCM (Bugdol 2011, p. 72). Involvement contributes to increased productivity and fewer fluctuations of headcount, helps people adapt to change, and reduces absenteeism. It is also, of course, conditioned by culture. This means that there is a relationship between a "learning organisation" with high ethical standards in such kinds of firms (Bugdol 2011, p. 72).

Clearly, defining the notions of commitment and engagement is no easy task. This is especially true when we talk about influences from other fields of HRM. Commitment and engagement are multidimensional, and have cognitive, emotional, and functional components. Commitment to the organisation is closely linked to one's engagement in work (Cascio & Boudreau 2011, p. 196). Thinking, feeling, and action are the common components that shape commitment (Juchnowicz 2012, p. 34). The relationship between the three is positive, and leads to a state of mind about the work process which yields a feeling of vitality, dedication and absorption. This is a kind of inner energy and vigour of mind, a willingness to put effort into work, even in the face of problems. Also it could be a feeling of

importance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge at work, a focus on and absorption in the labour process, and a feeling of happiness. Commitment is an attachment to work that leads to one doing high quality work and to identify with the goals and both the successes and failures of the organisation. Stabilisation, identification, passion, effective action for the organisation are the basic features of employee engagement in the organisation (Juchnowicz 2010, p. 38). Such involvement is determined by the personality of the individual, as well as cognitive, behavioural, and emotional factors (Juchnowicz 2012, p. 58). The relationship between engagement and satisfaction, just as between trust and justice, lies in the fact that the basis of overall productivity resulting from engagement is created in parallel with trust and organisational justice.

Based on the great variety of research done on the topic, or varying criteria for separating a given type (attribute) of commitment, many forms and varieties of commitment can be discussed (Bugdol 2011, pp. 71–72). There are forms of normative commitment resulting from compliance with standards, and fear of punishment. Ideological commitment is based on respect for the overarching the organisation's objectives and values. Emotional commitment results from a positive or negative attitude towards environmental variables, depending on situational factors. Attractive (repulsive) commitment appears under the influence of leaders while calculation (implicit) commitment results from estimating profit and loss. Commitment to the organisation is therefore an attitude having in itself an attribute of behaviour based on engagement. Regardless of the factors influencing it, commitment is one of the most important attitudes expected by the organisation.

Summarising, commitment is the intellectual and emotional attachment to the organisation that results from the effort one puts into one's job. According to Hay Group's definition of engagement, it is an attitude so closely linked with the intention to remain in the organisation, and thus it can be identified with a high degree of commitment to work (Bugdol 2011, pp. 71–72). These notions are very similar.

3. The Meyer and Allen Model of Commitment

From the point of view of the organisation, it is important to determine the advantage of having motivated, attached personnel. Researchers working on understanding this field are mainly focused on finding relationships between the forms of attachment to the organisation and the employee behaviours that are shown by the organisation (Bańka, Wołoska & Bazińska 2002, p. 66). What tools are needed to create such attitudes? To answer these questions, there is a need to consider some theory to facilitate the understanding of the phenomenon of commitment to work.

The factors analysed above clearly coincide with the stimuli that affect the sense of belonging to the organisation. This is especially true of system improvement and development, the evaluation system, receiving praise from a supervisor, and the compensation system. To introduce the concept of organisational commitment in the context of an analysis of factors influencing it, the work of J. P. Meyer and N. J. Allen, who list the three components of organisational commitment should play a leading role (Meyer & Allen 1991, pp. 61–89).

The Meyer and Allen model of commitment is one of the most important theoretical concepts – so important that it produced a breakthrough in research on organisational commitment. Meyer and Allen created a methodological tool that is useful in both research and practice and which has enabled the development of research on organisational commitment relationships with behaviours in the organisation. Using a questionnaire, Meyer and Allen (1991) examined the levels of three independent components of organisational commitment: affective commitment (AC), normative commitment (NC), and continuance commitment (CC). They define organisational commitment as the individual employee's attachment to and identification with the organisation (Meyer & Allen 1991). This model of organisational commitment has become the dominant model used in studying workplace commitment (Jaros 2007, p. 7–18). Three components constitute an employee's overall sense of commitment to work:

Affective commitment (*AC*) is the employee's emotional attachment to the organisation, and identification with its values. AC reflects the extent to which the individual wants to belong to the organisation. Affective commitment reflects the extent to which the individual wants to be in the organisation because it is very good for one's long-term career path. A sample statement of commitment to the organisation from the questionnaire used to diagnose affective commitment is "In my organisation I feel like a family member".

Continuance commitment (*CC*) – is the level of the employee's consciousness about the need to continue working for the organisation in the context of costs and losses associated with leaving the organisation and limited alternatives on the labour market. This component of commitment corresponds to how much a person needs to be in the organisation. It is commitment which refers to the awareness of the wider costs to be incurred by an employee leaving the organisation. This is the kind of calculation made to determine if the employee loses, as he or she will leave the organisation. It is the drive rooted in the kind of thinking that tells the individual "I must stay in this job". A sample statement from the organisational commitment questionnaire related to the duration of engagement is: "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my professional life in the organisation".

Normative commitment (*NC*) is a feeling conditioned by social norms and a sense of obligation; it is loyalty and an employee's fidelity to the organisation.

This commitment reflects how a person feels about whether or not to remain in the organisation. It is a commitment conditioned by education, social patterns, and indicates the level of devotion to the organisation. It is a kind of obligation that grows out of a sense of duty or perceived loyalty. Employees remain in the organisation because they feel they should, and it is the right and best course of action. A sample question from the organisational commitment questionnaire on normative commitment is: "I feel that this organization deserves my loyalty".

According to Meyer and Allen (1997, see Bańka, Wołoska & Bazińska 2002, pp. 65–74), employees with highly developed AC to the organisation are more valuable employees – they work harder and produce better results than workers with less developed affective attachment. Similar but weaker effects are observed with NC. In contrast, workers with strong CC are worse performers, establish far fewer relationships with co-workers and have more dysfunctional activities than those with weaker CC. A good deal of research has indicated that there are negative correlations between attachment to the organisation and the motivation to leave the organisation. In light of the above, it can be assumed that commitment, and above all the scope of employee attitudes like "I want and I should" are closely connected with the system of non-material motivation, while the "I have to" component is most often associated with the material system of motivation. The following section examines material motivators, which to a large extent stimulate and affect whether an employee comes to and stays with an organisation.

On the other hand, the main process that leads to the development of affective attachment (AC) is the individual's personal satisfaction in the context of individual needs, a sense of support, a sense of the importance of the work, and the individual's contribution to the functioning of the organisation (Bańka, Wołoska & Bazińska 2002, p. 67). In this light, it is worth examining the impact of these factors towards configuring a compensation system. Consequently, the level of CC may develop as a result of some action or event that causes an increase in costs associated with a departure from the organisation. This is thinking in the context of alternative investments that the employee will potentially pay if he or she leaves the job. Such assessment of the level of investment incurred by the employee will refer to such expenses as the cost of retraining, the cost of relocation or the difference in salary to be received from a new employer. Thus there is more evidence to examine if the the remuneration system is a factor closely related to this component of commitment.

Finally, the normative component of commitment can be developed on the basis of a psychological contract between the employee and the organisation. Socialisation experience, the foundation of this attitude, includes a wide variety of information relating to the appropriateness of individual attitudes and behaviours. As a result, the person learns what is valuable and what is expected of him or her.

It has yet to be concluded if such a high level of NC is connected with the proper configuration of the compensation system.

4. Compensation as a Factor Affecting Attachment to the Organisation in the Context of the Meyer and Allen Model of Commitment

The factors clearly stabilising a sense of satisfaction and commitment in the cited literature (e.g. Jaros 2007, Juchnowicz 2012, Armstrong 2007, Borkowska 2007, Haromszeki & Kawka 2011) include: salaries, benefits, job security, work-life balance and a sense of security. Compensation should create the conditions required to fulfill the social partners of the psychological contract and provide organisational support. The material system in this light should be treated holistically – it should provide general benefits in a comprehensive manner, while also being individualised (Juchnowicz 2012, p. 58). Research conducted by A. Khon shows that a strong function of motivation and commitment, in accordance with the concept of Herzberg, is provided by the intrinsic motivation that comes from incentives (see Sedlak 2011, p. 180). A. Bańka and team, who adopted Meyer and Allen's original scale to the Polish version of OSC, did some correlation research on the scale and other variables related to quality of life and job (measures of job satisfaction). One of them was the remuneration system. They determined that job satisfaction is most strongly correlated with a high level of normative commitment and continuance scale. All scales correlated to satisfaction with pay, but the affective scale correlates most strongly. The highest coefficient was 0.56, and pertained to the relationship between compensation and affective commitment.

Table 1. Correlation of Scales AC, CC, NC and Overall Level of Commitment with the Measures Related to Satisfaction, $p < 0.001$

Specification	ACS	CCS	NCS	Overall Commitment
Job satisfaction	0.56	0.20	0.35	0.47
Satisfaction with Work performed	0.32	0.05	0.18	0.23
Satisfaction with Compensation	0.56	0.22	0.25	0.43
Self-appraisal	0.20	0.04	0.05	0.12
Identification with organization	0.62	0.33	0.50	0.59

Source: Bańka, Wołoska and Bazińska (2002, p. 73).

Taking into account the above considerations, there are some connections with the field of compensation. So, how material incentives are linked in the context of their configuration to overall level of commitment and distribution of its components must be determined. For this purpose, I did some pilot research, the main goal of which was to analyse the links between various elements of the compensation system and particular components of commitment in the Meyer and Allen model. I used a two-part questionnaire survey, the first of which contained more than 20 items related to elements of compensation. Respondents gave their own opinions and information about them. The second part consisted of a Polish version of Meyer and Allen's organisational commitment scales. The results were run through the Statistica programme, which counted the correlations between responses of parts on the attachment and variables relating to components of remuneration. Due to the small sample size of respondents and the nature of the data, which was collected as ordinal scales, I used the Spearman coefficient tool to do the calculations.

The study involved 63 employees – all MBA students – from different organisations characterised by the following dimensions:

1) Most highly represented:

a) big companies – 45%,

b) companies operating for more than 15 years – 61%,

c) companies whose financial results are better than a year ago – 67%,

d) limited liability and joint stock companies – 67%,

e) Polish (origin of capital) firms – 58%, and other European – 39%,

f) lower-level management – 42% – and higher level management – 19%,

g) employees with duration of employment: 3–7 years – 33%, 7–15 years – 30%,

h) generation X (born between 1965 and 1981) – 27%, generation Y (born after 1981) – 27%.

2) Least represented:

a) small organisations – 9%,

b) companies operating for no more than one year – 3%,

c) companies where economic results of the present year have worsened from the previous year – 9%,

d) single business activity – 3%,

e) Asian firms (origin of capital) – 0%, American firms – 3%,

f) position – assistant – 6%,

g) employees with duration of employment less than one year – 6%,

h) baby boomers (born before 1965) – 0%.

The first type of analysis is combined with the overall results for each of the components of commitment on a 7-point scale. Table 2 presents the division of these ratios.

Table 2. Results of Level of Commitment by Scale for All Groups of Respondents

Gained Values	ACS	CCS	NCS
Average value	4.73	3.01	4.16
Variation value	1.28	1.16	1.41
Maximum value	7.00	5.33	7.00
Minimum value	2.17	0.83	1.33

Source: the author.

As the table shows, the highest indication is the affective component of commitment, though the normative component came in at a similar level. Others have reported that CC usually shows lower scores (e.g. Bańka 2002, Jaros 2007, Juchnowicz 2012). ACS and NCS gained a maximum score, while the lowest AC and NC levels essentially differ from the lowest results at CC scale. All surveyed group of employees are divided into two sets:

a) 61% of employees gained the highest indicator in the ACS component,

b) 39% of employees gained the highest indicator in NCS.

0% of the employees gained the highest indicator in CCS.

These results suggest that the group of employees surveyed had a solid and average high level of engagement. They will also provide a starting point for further considerations regarding the analysis of remuneration.

One of the more interesting issues here concerns the distribution of results related to answers about overall level of engagement. 61% of employees declared that they are highly engaged in their work, while 30% think they are very involved and only 9% said they are not all that engaged. It is worth comparing these results with the results of the Meyer and Allen scale of commitment. The average commitment value came in at 3.97 on 7-point scale, or 56% of the full scale. The potential level of engagement is slightly higher than the commitment from the entire group of respondents. Surprisingly, the findings on the relationship between engagement and commitment, based on the surveyed group, did not indicate a statistically significant relationship among these dimensions. The value came in at less than +0.16.

The valuable result of this research is the correlation between the three scales and elements related to HRM and the compensation system. Table 3 presents the only meaning correlates in the context of statistical significance, accepted at the level of $\alpha = 0.05$. There are only a few essential relations, because the majority of factors (23 items) haven't indicated statistical correlation to the scale of the Meyer and Allen model. However, the most important relationship is the correlation between the scales and salary level, which is understood in this poll also as satisfaction with such gratification. The "x" in the table marks results with insignificant statistical numbers.

Table 3. Correlations between the Scales of the Meyer and Allen Commitment Model and the HRM and Compensation System ($p < 0.05$) (grey ground – compensation field in survey)

Elements of HRM	ACS	CCS	NCS	Overall level of Commitment
Overall satisfaction level with motivation system	0.376	x	x	0.350
Compensation level	0.518	0.360	0.427	0.451
Expectations for an increase in salary	0.428	x	x	x
Appraisal of quality HRM processes	0.366	x	x	x
Expenditure on training	0.532	x	x	0.381
Duration at the Company	−0.398	x	x	−0.359
Position in the hierarchy	0.451	x	x	0.373
Appraisal of communication processes	0.352	x	x	x

Source: own study based on survey.

Employees' answers didn't indicate a considerable scope of correlations in the configuration of the compensation system. There were over a dozen surveyed components in the entire compensation configuration field, including:

a) level of one's own salary, compensation level,

b) average level of salary in company,

c) internal structure of compensation,

d) the spread of salary within the company and towards the labour market,

e) evaluation of one's own level of compensation against market remuneration,

f) evaluation of the attractiveness of one's own salary against the requirements of one's own job position,

g) overall appraisal of motivating factors offered by the company (based on the Herzberg theory),

h) overall appraisal of engagement level,

i) evaluation of package salary,

j) evaluation of the bonus part of one's salary,

k) overall level of satisfaction with the motivation system,

l) expectations for increases in one's own salary,

m) decision criteria related to changes and salary increases,

n) frequency of pay increases.

There were also several questions related to HRM policies, including: evaluation of the company's HRM quality, opinions about its appraisal system, communication

system, and some questions related to the level of the job position, date of birth (the generation) of the surveyd employee, or source of origin of the capital.

Table 3 shows that the higher one's salary, the higher one's sense of commitment, and of all three of its components. In accordance with the theoretical assumptions, the most sensitive scale is the affective source of attitudes. The level of correlation in this scope was one of the highest of all the correlation values in this survey (+0.518). The scales CC and NC came in with slightly lower correlation levels and overall level of commitment. This may indicate that remuneration significantly affects the overall feeling of attachment to an organisation. Affective commitment is also closely related to expectations for an increase in salary, and higher appraisal by the motivation system. This may confirm the theoretical foundations of Meyer and Allen's theory. Affective attachment is based on the positive evaluation of employees regarding their expectations about present and future conditions in a company. These incentives are felt as factors that shape the good and motivating conditions of work. Additionally, the AC scale (besides the overall level of commitment) was the only component of commitment correlated to other fields of HRM practices, such as the evaluation of the communication system or level of expenditure on training, or general appraisal of HRM quality in a given company. One of the most interesting aspects of the data is the inverse relationship among duration of the company and the level of affective commitment. The more experienced an employee, the less attached he or she tended to be, especially as regards the affective scope of attitudes. Could it be that the longer the employee works in a company, the more he or she lets go of illusions about his or her relations to the organisation?

Analysis of the data is my contribution to the cautious generalisation that there is a positive relationship between high quality personnel practices and a high level of perception of affective commitment. On the other hand, it would be highly risky to overstress the strong relationships between the components of the remuneration system and the source of the formation of the involvement of employees. In the case of the analysis of compensation structure, it appears that only the level of wages and wage expectations are correlates. Given the above findings, the next step in research on this issue may be a project that identifies the commitment of managers in the context of the motivation system.

Bibliography

Armstrong M. (2007), *Zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi*, Oficyna Wolters Kluwer Business, Kraków.

Bańka A., Wołoska A., Bazińska R. (2002), *Polska wersja Meyera i Allen Skali Przywiązania do Organizacji*, "Psychological Journal", nr 8, Warszawa.

Borkowska S. (2007), *Strategie wynagrodzeń*, Oficyna Ekonomiczna Wolters Kluwer, Kraków.

Borowska-Pietrzak A. (2011), *Determinanty efektywnego motywowania pozamaterialnego* (in:) B. Urbaniak (ed.), *Efektywność zarządzania zasobami ludzkimi*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego, Łódź.

Buchanan B. (1974), *Building Organizational Commitment: The Socialization of Managers in Work Organizations*, "Administrative Science Quarterly", nr 19, Johnson Cornell University, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2391809.

Bugdol M. (2011), *Wymiary i problemy zarządzania organizacją opartą na zaufaniu*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego, Kraków.

Cascio W., Boudreau J. (2011), *Inwestowanie w ludzi. Wpływ inicjatyw z zakresu ZZL na wyniki finansowe przedsiębiorstwa*, Oficyna a Wolters Kluwer business, Warszawa.

Cohen A. (2007), *Commitment Before and After: An Evaluation and Reconceptualization of Organizational Commitment*, "Human Resource Management Review", 17/3: 336–354, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2007.05.001.

Hampton R., Howell R. D. (1989), *Career versus Organizational Commitment: Antecedants and Consequences of Retail Salespeoples' Commitment*, "Journal of Retailing", vol. 65, Spring.

Haromszeki Ł., Kawka T. (2011), *Struktura systemów motywowania pracowników nowej gospodarki* (in:) B. Nogalski, B. Wierzbicka (eds), *Źródła sukcesu organizacji*, Wydawnictwo Fundacji Uniwersytetu Gdańskiego, Sopot.

Jaros S. (2007), *The Meyer and Allen Model of Organizational Commitment: Measurement Issues*, "The Icfai 8 Journal of Organizational Behavior", Vol. VI, No. 4/07, Icfai University Press, Baton Rouge.

Juchnowicz M. (2010), *Zarządzanie przez zaangażowanie. Koncepcje, kontrowersje, aplikacje*, Polskie Wydawnictwo Ekonomiczne, Warszawa.

Juchnowicz M. (2012), *Zaangażowanie pracowników. Sposoby oceny i motywowania*, PWE, Warszawa.

Marzec I. (2011), *Zaangażowanie organizacyjne polskich pracowników – aspekty funkcjonalne i dysfunkcjonalne* (in:) Z. Janowska (ed.), *Dysfunkcje i patologie w sferze zarządzania zasobami ludzkimi*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego, Łódź.

Meyer J. P., Allen N. J. (1991), *A Three-component Conceptualization of Organizational Commitment*, "Human Resource Management Review", 1/1: 61–89, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/1053-4822(91)90011-z.

Meyer J. P., Allen N. J. (1997), *Commitment in the Workplace. Theory, Research and Application*, ATOB Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks.

Molek-Winiarska D. (2013), *Wdrożenie programu redukcji stresu w organizacji*, "Przegląd Organizacji", 1, Warszawa.

Robinson D., Derryman S. (2004), *The Drivers of Employee Engagement Report 408*, Institute for Employment Studies, Brighton.

Saks A. M. (2006), *Antecedents and Consequences of Employee Engagement*, „Journal of Managerial Psychology", 21(7): 600–619, http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02683940610690169.

Słownik zarządzania kadrami (2005), T. Listwan (ed.), C. H. Beck, Warszawa.

Spik A., Klincewicz K. (2008), *Nowe kierunki w zarządzaniu ludźmi – zaangażowanie organizacyjne* (in:) M. Kostera (ed.), *Współczesne koncepcje zarządzania*, Wydawnictwa Akademickie i Profesjonalne, Warszawa.

Stor M. (2011), *Strategiczne międzynarodowe zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego we Wrocławiu, Wrocław.

Tajniki HR. *Najlepsze praktyki wynagradzania i rekrutacji* (2010), K. Sedlak (ed.), Sedlak & Sedlak, Kraków.

Zarządzanie kadrami (2010), T. Listwan (ed.), C.H. Beck, Warszawa.

Zależności konfiguracji wynagrodzeń z poziomem i elementami zaangażowania pracowników – wnioski na podstawie skali zaangażowania organizacyjnego Allen i Meyera

Głównym celem poznawczym niniejszego artykułu jest diagnoza i analiza zależności między poziomem, strukturą i kryteriami wynagrodzeń z komponentami poziomu zaangażowania w pracę. Opisywany temat jest istotnym problemem aplikacyjnym, szczególnie w dzisiejszym globalnym, międzynarodowym środowisku HRM. W pierwszej części tekstu zostały przedstawione teoretyczne założenia przeprowadzonych wyników badań: definicje i pojęcia związane z zaangażowaniem i strukturą systemu wynagrodzeń oraz podstawy teorii Allen i Meyera. W drugiej części zostały syntetycznie opisane zasadnicze wnioski związane z zależnościami pomiędzy elementami konfiguracji wynagrodzeń a komponentami przywiązania do pracy. Wyniki mają charakter ilościowy, a do ich uzyskania zastosowano analizę korelacji. Najważniejszą implikacją badań okazał się wynik wskazujący na niską korelację między zaangażowaniem a elementami systemu wynagrodzeń. Głównym czynnikiem, który jest współzależny z afektywnym komponentem zaangażowania, jest poziom wynagrodzenia.

Słowa kluczowe: wynagrodzenia, zaangażowanie w pracę, motywacja, koncepcja Allen i Meyera.

Wojciech Ulrych

Department of Human Resource Management
University of Lodz

The Constraints and Problems in Team Performance Management

Abstract

A wide range of factors can affect team performance: setting clear and achievable goals, allocating individual work, utilizing an individual's skills, monitoring performance, maintaining team cohesion and identity, being able to handle internal conflicts, maintaining relationships with other teams, systems and resources available to teams and the quality of leadership. These problems and constraints affecting team performance management (TPM) are found on a global scale irrespective of a country's individual work culture.

This paper presents the nature of team performance management in order to discuss common TPM problems and constraints in the context of worldwide research findings. Environmental factors and team dynamics consistently influence team effectiveness. It is now clear that there is a need for future research to look at the complexity of team dynamics over time.

Keywords: team, performance management, IMO model, constraints, problems.

1. Introduction

Over the last decade a lot has been written about team performance management (TPM). Countless papers discuss either aspects of team management and literature reviews (e.g. Ilgen *et al.* 2005) or meta-analysis of TPM phenomena (e.g. Mathieu *et al.* 2008). It should come as no surprise that "a variety of global forces unfolding over the last two decades, however, have pushed organizations worldwide to restructure work around teams, to enable more rapid, flexible, and

adaptive responses to the unexpected" (Kozlowski & Ilgen 2006, p. 77). In the same vein Katzenbach and Smith (2001, p. 26) argue that teams should be the basic foundation of each organisation regardless of their size. They also reason, interestingly (2001, p. 127), that there is no one good model for a high performance team, because much of it depends on a team context that is sometimes beyond researchers. Yet they still put a lot of effort into working out their team models by composing different elements of the TPM puzzle. However, it is still a challenge. The reason for such failure may lay with a plethora of TPM variables which can influence overall team effectiveness.

This paper attempts to put together the most interesting constraints and problems TPM researchers have come across in their findings. It explores two main areas: 1) to present the nature of team performance management in order to 2) indicate TPM problems and constraints in the context of worldwide research findings. In this paper I don't attempt to present every single TPM constraint and problem found in the subject literature. Rather, those I highlight could show the way for future research moving towards much more integrated TPM and as a result improved team effectiveness. Given my aims here, the most appropriate team definition is Kozlowski and Bell's (2003, p. 334), which describes teams as "collectives which exist to perform organisationally relevant tasks, share one or more common goals, interact socially, exhibit task interdependencies, maintain and manage boundaries, and are embedded in an organizational context that sets boundaries, constrains the team, and influences exchanges with other units in the broader entity".

The first section is devoted to team effectiveness. The IMO model and its three stages are presented together with the dimensions which can influence team effectiveness. The second section examines TPM constraints and problems which are presented through the IMO perspective. It seems even more interesting in light of the fact that employee performance management (EPM) can hinder good teamwork (Armstrong 2009, p. 239), even though the same sequences can be used in EPM and TPM (p. 243). Nevertheless, Purcell, Hutchinson and Kinnie (1998, as cited by Armstrong 2009, p. 239) indicate that teams can be seen as "an elusive bridge between the aims of the individual employee and the objectives of the organisation (…) teams can provide the medium for linking employee performance targets to the factors critical to the success of the business".

2. Team Effectiveness from the IMO Perspective

McGrath's (1984) IPO (i.e. inputs → processes → outcomes) model represents a typical business process. From this viewpoint its "inputs" contain individual

KASOC (i.e. knowledge, abilities, skills and other characteristics; see: Bernardin 2010, p. 92), team level factors (i.e. task structure, objectives, resources) and organisational and contextual factors (i.e. organisational structure and environmental complexity). They are all directed towards team "outcomes" in the form of performance and its members' reactions (Mathieu *et al*. 2008, p. 413). The IPO model has been modified in several ways, but especially the wider contextual factors discussed by, among others, Cohen and Bailey (1997, p. 244) seem to be of the highest importance for TPM. However, not everything that happens in an IPO processes' stage can be treated as a process (Ilgen *et al*. 2005, p. 520), just like the psychological traits or the emotional states of its members. That is why the "processes" stage (i.e. member's action) in the IPO model was enriched by "emergent states" (e.g. psychological traits) that ultimately advanced the IPO into the IMO (i.e. inputs → mediators → outcomes) model (Ilgen *et al*. 2005).

The IMO model is currently widely accepted in the team management literature. On one hand it indicates the changing dynamic nature of teamwork as team members mature (Kozlowski *et al*. 1999). At the same time, however, many different team processes don't happen simultaneously (Marks, Mathieu & Zaccaro 2001, McGrath 1984). In addition, the processes happen in a cyclical nature as the team functions. This is why the IMO framework is often depicted as IMOI, i.e. inputs → mediators → outputs → inputs (Ilgen *et al*. 2005).

The IMO perspective enables one to look more closely into the different dimensions of team effectiveness. Although the compilation of such dimensions is rather challenging, most of them are arranged in Table 1 to show a "general picture". Hiding behind each dimension are often complex and ambiguous phenomena depicted in the form of variables. It would be far beyond the scope of this paper to go into the details of each of these dimensions. But it is precisely those details that are necessary to provide the "big picture".

The input stage consists of three areas: team composition level (i.e. individual level), team level and organisational / contextual level.

Through the years of team work research two general approaches to "team composition" have been worked out: individual-based models and team-based models (Mathieu *et al*. 2014, p. 132). Team composition includes a variety of attributes which influence the remaining two IMO stages. In general, all dimensions of the team composition category mentioned in Table 1 show a positive relationship between themselves and team performance. As far as personality is concerned, there is substantial research supporting the validity of the five-factor model ("Big Five") in the prediction of a number of criteria (e.g. performance, sales, counterproductive behaviours) for a variety of jobs (Bernardin 2010, p. 186). Belbin (2010, p. 23) indicated that complementary combinations of team key roles proved to be more effective than connecting people with similar profiles who usually begin

to compete with each other. Many personality traits (e.g. extraversion, emotional stability, and openness to experience) positively correspond to team performance (Bell 2007). In turn the question of competencies (i.e. KASOCs) shows that, for high performance, a different set of competencies is needed for both individuals working alone and team members working in cooperation (e.g. Morgeson, Reider & Campion 2005). The other attributes notion consists of many characteristics. Among them, Mathieu *et al.* (2008, p. 437) point out goal and team orientation as well as team values. It is interesting that team learning orientation can have both positive and negative consequences (Bunderson & Sutcliffe 2003). Findings highlight that "diversity is a complex input factor (i.e. in terms of demographic, functional background, personality, and attitudes/values) in team effectiveness models, with studies reporting diversity as being beneficial, detrimental, and having no impact on processes, states, and performance" (Webber & Donahue 2001, as cited by: Mathieu *et al.* 2008, p. 438). In turn complex combination represents much more sophisticated approaches to all the above dimensions and refers to subgroups, position / status and the network of communication.

Table 1. The IMO-based Various Team Dimensions Which Influence Team Outcomes

Inputs	Mediators		Outcomes
	team processes	emergent states	
Team composition level – Personality – Competencies – Other attributes – Diversity factors (demography, functional, attitudes/values) – Complex combinations	– Transition processes – Action – Interpersonal – Others	– Team confidence – Empowerment – Team climate – Cohesion – Trust – Collective cognition	Organisational-level performance Team performance behaviours
Team level – Interdependence – Technology / virtuality – Team training – Team leadership – Team structure	Blended mediators – Team learning – Behavioural integration – Transitive memory		Role-based performance Performance composite
Organisational / contextual level			

Source: the author's own compilation based on (Mathieu *et al.* 2008).

The "team level" consists of five areas: interdependence, virtuality, training, leadership, and team structure. Interdependence describes "the extent to which team members cooperate and work interactively to complete tasks" (Stewart &

Barrick 2000, p. 137) and can be discussed from the perspectives of input, process and outcome (Mathieu *et al*. 2008, p. 443). Outcome is the most important because "individual feedback and rewards should be linked to the group's performance in order to motivate group-oriented behavior" (Campion, Medsker & Higgs 1993, p. 827). Technology / virtuality findings on teams are ambiguous. However, some of them point to leadership behaviours as drivers of virtual team performance (Carte, Chidambaram & Becker 2006). Key questions about team training remain about "what" to train, "how" to train, and "when" to train (Kozlowski & Bell 2003), and most researchers share the opinion that it should refer to employee team members (Mathieu *et al*. 2008, p. 447). Traditional leadership and its influence on team performance is widely presented in literature reviews and has a positive influence on team performance (Mathieu *et al*. 2008, p. 449). In recent years shared leadership (i.e. "it emerges from within the team itself") research has been a key area of interest for researchers. Although little research has been done in this area, most researchers hold the opinion that it is positively related to team performance (e.g. Carson, Tesluk & Marrone 2007).

The organisational / contextual level consists of an HR system, climate and culture. It is obvious that teams operate in an organisational context that either facilitates or hinders its functioning, and the team itself has to be treated as the primary level of analysis (Gully 2000, p. 27, as cited by: Mathieu *et al*. 2008, p. 454). In turn, one of a few High Performance Work Systems (HPWS) is a "high percentage of workforce working in self-managed, project-based work teams" (Bernardin 2010, p. 6).

All of these input-stage "inputs" influence the next IMO stage, which is called "mediators". It consists of two areas: processes and emergent states.

Team processes have played a central role in most, if not all, team effectiveness models (Mathieu *et al*. 2008, p. 421). Marks, Mathieu & Zaccaro (2001) divided team processes into three categories:

– transition processes, in which team members focus on activities such as mission analysis, planning, goal specification and formulating strategies,

– action processes, in which members concentrate on task accomplishments, monitoring progress and systems, coordinating team members, as well as monitoring and backing up their fellow team members,

– and interpersonal processes, which include conflict management, motivation and confidence building, and affect.

In their review of the literature, Mathieu *et al*. (2008, p. 420) found many positive connections between team performance and time management, collective leadership and the quality of team performance plans. Transition processes, however, have received the least empirical attention among the processes. Meanwhile action processes, e.g. communication, coordination, participation and

information sharing, have been widely presented for their positive influence on team performance (Mathieu *et al*. 2008, p. 422). In addition, task conflict may positively influence team performance, and feedback has a positive impact on motivation, interpersonal trust, and ultimately performance in virtual teams. Bradley, White & Mennecke (2003) concluded that there is abundant support for the contention that interpersonal processes relate positively to team performance when teams engage in longer-term tasks. Team creative processes ("other processes" category, Table 1) have a significant positive effect on performance (Gilson *et al*. 2005), although they are not interpersonal processes. In turn there is a dearth of research into creative processes and affective outcomes (Mathieu *et al*. 2008, p. 423).

Marks, Mathieu & Zaccaro (2001, p. 357) described emergent states as "cognitive, motivational, and affective states of teams [that are] (…) dynamic in nature and vary as a function of team context, inputs, processes, and outcomes". Emergent states include: team confidence (which includes team efficacy, i.e. "the team's belief in success on a specific task" and potency, i.e. "the team's belief in success on a variety of tasks and in different contexts"), empowerment, team climate, cohesion (i.e. the commitment of team members to the team's overall task or to each other), trust and collective cognition. In general, research indicates a positive correlation between emergent states and team performance (Mathieu *et al*. 2008, pp. 424–30).

Team outcomes make up the last IMO stage. They are usually considered in terms of 1) performance effectiveness assessed in terms of the quantity and quality of outputs and 2) individual attitudes and behavioural outcomes (Cohen & Bailey 1997, p. 243). In general it is important "what" has to be done (i.e. outcome, standards of performance) and "how" it is to be done (i.e. competencies, personal traits). Nevertheless Mathieu *et al*. (2008, pp. 415–17) in their review of the team performance literature presented four outcome categories:

– organisational-level performance, which refers to top management teams but may concern the question of teams interdependence too,

– team performance behaviours (e.g. team feedback seeking; learning behaviors, error discussion) and outcomes as a result of performance behaviours (e.g. managers' rating scale usage, measuring sales or indices of effectiveness),

– role-based performance, which refers to team members competencies necessary to perform their jobs,

– and performance composite, as a blended measure of team outcomes, which is based on different team functions, and as a result produces a blended set of different indicators, from planning and problem solving measures to productivity and overall effectiveness.

When measuring team performance there are also types of criteria which refer to team members' affective reactions and team viability. Affective reactions

research generally refers to team atmosphere and how members are treated (Janssen, Van de Vliert & Veenstra 1999). In turn team viability remains a popular criterion measure yet suffers from a great deal of ambiguity (Barrick *et al*. 2007). It is usually associated with the team-level criterion, while members who wish to remain a team member, satisfaction, team climate, team commitment and group cohesion are used as indicators of viability (Mathieu *et al*. 2008, p. 418).

3. TPM Problems and Constraints in the Context of the IMO Findings

Team performance management activities follow the same sequence as employee performance management activities, and include the following (Armstrong 2009, p. 243):
    – agreeing objectives,
    – formulating plans to achieve objectives,
    – implementing plans,
    – monitoring progress,
    – reviewing and assessing achievement,
    – redefining objectives and plans in the light of performance appraisals.
Taking into account Armstrong's previous statement it is worth remembering that in the field of EPM there are many authors who share the belief that the same three-step process – planning, supporting and appraising performance – is paramount (e.g. Armstrong 2009, p. 309; Houldsworth & Jirasinghe 2006, p. 104; Williams 2006, p. 13). In addition, Armstrong (2009, p. 243–44) interestingly states that: 1) "work objectives for teams are set in much the same way as individual objectives", 2) "process (i.e. of TPM) objectives are also best defined by the team getting together and agreeing how they should conduct themselves as a team" and 3) "team performance review meetings analyze and assess feedback and control information on their joint achievements against objectives and project plans" with "a review of the individual contribution made by each team member – i.e. peer review". Such TPM activities include a wide variety of deeds and decisions that people (i.e. supervisor and team members) should take on as a team. More importantly, some TPM activities should be similar to those of EPM.

Indeed, some EPM and TPM solutions seem to be consistent. For instance, Egan (1995) explains that the whole process of EPM, coaching, consultation, feedback and all kinds of staff support should encourage each employee to develop. Additionally, he concluded: "It would be perfect if teams developed in the same manner" (Egan 1995, p. 34). However, following this mindset can bring about some important consequences that can be difficult to put into practice due to

the findings shown in Table 2. For instance, Furnham (2004, p. 84–85) indicates that not all goals can be pursued at the same time because the system can be simply overloaded. He also adds that EPM works best if the goals are clear, and their number is limited. This assumption is challenging due to the constraints and problems listed in Table 2, which highlights the lack of a clear connection between individual, team and overall organisational effectiveness. Beyond that, some assumptions on EPM already seem to be outdated and cannot keep up with both employee and team management. For example, Buchner (2007) indicates that many market trends such as downsizing, decentralisation and distance working can make it impossible for a manager to either observe a worker in the traditional way or devote enough time to this activity. Besides, at present employees have different expectations as to how to provide feedback and performance management. Research also indicates that the process of motivating, and even the collection and transfer of information feedback, can be transferred from the manager to the employee (Buchner 2007, pp. 61–62).

If one considers team management activities from an IMO viewpoint then there is an opportunity to observe the constraints and problems of team effectiveness (Table 2). In other words, such a perspective sees real human activities clash with the various team dimensions that influence team outcomes.

Table 2. The IMO-based Selected Constraints and Problems of Team Performance from the Viewpoint of Armstrong's TPM Activities

TPM / IMO	Constraints and Problems that Come from the IMO Model (Inputs → Mediators → Outcomes)
Planning performance: – agreeing objectives, – formulating plans to achieve objectives	– The question of clear connection of individual, team and overall organisational effectiveness still remains unsolved (Mathieu *et al.* 2008, p. 419). Thus, objectives don't have to stay the same over time as contextual factors influence employee activities and decisions. – There is still a lot of trouble understanding team composition and how to model its influences on team outcomes (Mathieu *et al.* 2014, p. 132). – There are no guarantees that having talented individual members will ensure team effectiveness, (…) although it enhances its likelihood of success (Mathieu *et al.* 2014, p. 136). – Belbin (2010, p. 25) indicates that in reality it is difficult to find a team composition in which every team member holds his or her job according to the proper key team role. – The benefits of training individuals versus training teams still represents limited empirical evidence (Kozlowski & Bell 2003, p. 357). – Transition processes have received the least empirical attention in the processes category of the mediators (Mathieu *et al.* 2008, p. 420). – Negative members can exert a very high disproportionate influence on team activities and effectiveness, and their presence should be considered in team composition frameworks (Felps, Mitchell & Byington 2006).

Table 2 cnt'd

TPM / IMO	Constraints and Problems that Come from the IMO Model (Inputs → Mediators → Outcomes)
Supporting performance: – implementing plans, – monitoring progress	– Performance behaviours (e.g., learning) are sometimes considered outcomes (Edmondson 1999) or creativity (Gilson & Shalley 2004) as well as mediators (e.g., Gilson *et al*. 2005). – One of the frequently voiced criticisms of individual performance management is that it inhibits good teamwork (Armstrong 2009, p. 239). – The reason for this can be derived from the findings that individual learning and competencies development can prevent teams from performing well in the short run (Bunderson & Sutcliffe 2003). – The individual composition models implicitly assume that the contributions of different members to overall team effectiveness are comparable. But that may not be the case (Mathieu *et al*. 2014, p. 138). – "It is assumed, but rarely ever directly assessed in research, that members' performance of task roles contributes to team effectiveness more or less directly through aggregation of accomplishments related to team tasks" (LePine *et al*. 2011, p. 319). – The composition of virtual teams may differ markedly from those who would be on the team if they had to be placed (Mathieu *et al*. 2008, p. 452). – From an interpersonal processes viewpoint it is known that both relationship and task conflict have strong, negative correlations with team performance and member satisfaction (De Dreu & Weingart 2003). – "Team potency" can have negative implications on performance in the case of service quality (De Jong, De Ruyter & Wetzels 2005).
Reviewing performance: – reviewing and assessing achievement, – redefining objectives and plans in the light of the performance appraisal	– The question of time is particularly relevant to the collection of team outcome data, and time lags have not been sufficiently considered (Mathieu *et al*. 2008, p. 419). – Performance is context specific; "what" to use as criteria measures and "when" to use them in terms of team maturity is a challenging opportunity (Mathieu *et al*. 2008, p. 419). – A team's life cycle whether it be a project-based team, production team or sales team can vary tremendously leading to difficulties in precisely measuring team processes and outcomes (Mathieu *et al*. 2008, p. 419). – Affective reactions and team viability are not often used as primary criteria because of their ambiguity, self-report nature and their lack of validity from team performance (Mathieu *et al*. 2008, p. 418). – Martins, Gilson & Maynard (2004) highlighted that not all virtual teams are similar to one another, so researchers should consider the effects that the extent of a team's virtuality can have on mediators and outcomes and thus performance.

Source: the author's own compilation based on different authors.

In addition, empirical analyses have demonstrated that different processes and (or) emergent states are highly correlated with one another or even among each

other (Mathieu *et al*. 2008, p. 432). This makes explaining team performance using each of these variables far more difficult. One of the reasons for this inconvenience is the needs to measure both team processes and emergent states at the same time.

4. Conclusion

Table 2 merely adumbrates the TPM constraints and problems – but in an interesting form of "similar-to-EPM" perspective. It is clear that both EPM and TPM research are still changing and facing challenges. Numerous authors have referred to the problems discussed in this paper. In their review on team management research, Cohen and Bailey (1997, pp. 244–45) presented their model of team effectiveness. They indicated wisely that "variables listed under each category are meant as examples; they do not constitute an exhaustive listing". They knew that the model was just "to help us make sense out of a complex set of relationships and to suggest directions for future work". That is why so many questions still remain. Ten years later Mathieu *et al*. (2008, p. 460–62) suggested that much progress in team effectiveness research had been done although two questions still represent prime areas for future research: 1) to what extent do environmental factors influence team job design characteristics and 2) how do team dynamics influence effectiveness in time? In addition, the authors (pp. 441–60) listed a variety of problems to be solved comprising all three "inputs" levels of the IMO model.

Mathieu *et al*. (2008, pp. 460–62) also indicated that research work is more and more defragmented, with advancing and testing complex models and simulations. Moreover, they suggest that the IPO/IMOI models are most suitable for situations where "a given set of members operate within a clearly defined boundary for a set period of time and produce some quantifiable outputs or services". They say that the dynamics of modern-day teamwork require many nuances which are not currently captured to be taken into consideration, e.g. some members work for long periods together whilst others don't; some join the team, others leave; some are more individual, others are not; a team leader may play different roles at each stage of team projects; the team may break into sub-teams. All these instances can be called the "dynamic inputs" to their later processes, emergent states and outcomes. Moreover, organisational and environmental contextual factors are not static and change over time. That is why there is a need for future research to embrace the complexity of team dynamics over time in a changing environment. The question of time influences results in many ways. For example, if age diversity has a generally detrimental influence on conflict management and performance,

this effect decreases as time goes by and members spend more and more time working together (Harrison, Price & Bell 1998).

Practical advice for team managers and team participants themselves isn't so easy. TPM is much more complicated than EPM, although they embrace the same activities of planning, supporting and reviewing performance. The bottom line is that team managers should be aware of a wider range of team effectiveness variables. However, a few general conclusions on team management may come down to the following ideas: the changing environment constantly drives team changes. Managerial experience gained in a stable team environment may no longer be helpful given today's complexity of team dynamics. This is why working with different teams in different environments over a longer period of time may produce more sufficient and diverse practical experience, which in turn can help to achieve the expected team results. However, in some cases rich managerial experience may not be enough. It doesn't come as a surprise that in some circumstances managers have to delegate some of their managerial functions to team participants in order to maintain overall control.

To summarise, only a few findings have already been presented in the form of dynamic team membership relationships (Mathieu *et al*. 2014, p. 148) and there is still much ahead. However, the trend is clear due to the fact that "to fully understand work teams, researchers must investigate how team dynamics develop and change over time" (Gully 2000, p. 35). Unfortunately, very little research has been done in this area. However, Mathieu *et al*. (2014, pp. 145–46), invoking other authors' findings, highlights that we have to take into consideration numerous factors that have influences on team processes and effectiveness both in a team's early life cycle (e.g. members' demographics or uncertainty avoidance) and its later life cycle (e.g. members' personalities, beliefs and attitudes).

Bibliography

Armstrong M. (2009), *Armstrong's Handbook of Performance Management. An Evidence-based Guide to Delivering High Performance*, 4th ed., Kogan Page.

Barrick M. B., Bradley B. H., Kristof-Brown A. L., Colbert A. E. (2007), *The Moderating Role of Top Management Team Interdependence: Implications for Real Teams and Working Groups*, "Academy of Management Journal", 50: 544–557, http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2007.25525781.

Belbin M. (2010), *Nie tylko zespół*, Oficyna a Wolters Kluwer business, Warszawa.

Bell S. T. (2007), *Deep-level Composition Variables as Predictors of Team Performance: A Meta-analysis*, "Journal of Applied Psychology", 92: 595–615, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.3.595.

Bernardin H. J. (2010), *Human Resource Management: An Experiential Approach*, 4th ed., McGraw-Hill International Edition.

Bradley J., White B. J., Mennecke B. E. (2003), *Teams and Tasks – A Temporal Framework for the Effects of Interpersonal Interventions on Team Performance*, "Small Group Research", 34(3): 353–387, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1046496403034003004.

Buchner T. W. (2007), *Performance Management Theory: A Look from the Performer's Perspective with Implications for HRD*, "Human Resource Development International", vol. 10, nr 1: 59–73, http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13678860601170294.

Bunderson J. S., Sutcliffe K. M. (2003), *Management Team Learning Orientation and Business Unit Performance*, "Journal of Applied Psychology", 88: 552–560, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/00219010.88.3.552.

Campion M. A., Medsker G. J., Higgs A. C. (1993), *Relations between Work Group Characteristics and Effectiveness: Implications for Designing Effective Work Groups*, "Personnel Psychology", 46: 823–850, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1993.tb01571.x.

Carson J. B., Tesluk P. E., Marrone J. A. (2007), *Shared Leadership in Teams: An Investigation of Antecedent Conditions and Performance*, "Academy of Management Journal", 50: 1217–1234, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/AMJ.2007.20159921.

Carte T. A., Chidambaram L., Becker A. (2006), *Emergent Leadership in Self-managed Virtual Teams*, "Group Decision and Negotiation", 15: 323–343, http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10726-006-9045-7.

Cohen S. G., Bailey D. E. (1997), *What Makes Teams Work: Group Effectiveness Research from the Shop Floor to the Executive Suite*, "Journal of Management", 23: 239–290, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/014920639702300303.

De Dreu C. K. W., Weingart L. R. (2003), *Task versus Relationship Conflict: Team Performance, and Team Member Satisfaction: A Meta-analysis*, "Journal of Applied Psychology", 88: 741–749, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.4.741.

De Jong A., De Ruyter K., Wetzels M. (2005), *Antecedents and Consequences of Group Potency: A Study of Self-managing Service Teams*, "Management Science", 51: 1610–1625, http://dx.doi.org/10.1287/mnsc.1050.0425.

Edmondson A. (1999), *Psychological Safety and Learning Behavior in Work Teams*, "Administrative Science Quarterly", 44: 350–383, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2666999.

Egan G. (1995), *A Clear Path to Peak Performance*, "People Management", vol. 1, nr 10: 34–37.

Felps W., Mitchell T. R., Byington E. (2006), *How, When, and Why Bad Apples Spoil the Barrel: Negative Group Members and Dysfunctional Groups*, "Research in Organizational Behavior", 27: 175–222, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0191-3085(06)27005-9.

Furnham A. (2004), *Performance Management Systems*, "European Business Journal", vol. 16(2): 83–94.

Gilson L. L., Mathieu J. E., Shalley C. E., & Ruddy T. M. (2005), *Creativity and Standardization: Complementary or Conflicting Drivers of Team Effectiveness*, "Academy of Management Journal", 48: 521–531, http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2005.17407916.

Gilson L. L., Shalley C. E. (2004), *A Little Creativity Goes a Long Way: An Examination of Teams' Engagement In Creative Processes*, "Journal of Management", 30: 453–470, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jm.2003.07.001.

Gully S. M. (2000), *Work Teams Research: Recent Findings and Future Trends* (in:) M. M. Beyerlein (ed.), *Work Teams: Past, Present and Future*, Kluwer Academic, The Netherlands.

Harrison D. A., Price K. H., Bell M. P. (1998), *Beyond Relational Demography: Time and the Effects of Surface and Deep-level Diversity on Work Group Decisions*, "Academy of Management Journal", 41: 96–107, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/256901.

Houldsworth E., Jirasinghe D. (2006), *Managing and Measuring Employee Performance*, Kogan Page.

Ilgen D. R., Hollenbeck J. R., Johnson M., Jundt D. (2005), *Teams in Organizations: From Input-process-output Models to IMOI Models*, "Annual Review of Psychology", 56: 517–543, http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.56.091103.070250.

Janssen O., Van de Vliert E., Veenstra C. (1999), *How Task and Person Conflict Shape the Role of Positive Interdependence in Management Teams*, "Journal of Management", 25: 117–141, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/014920639902500201.

Katzenbach J. R., Smith D. K. (2001), *Siła zespołów. Wpływ siły zespołowej na efektywność organizacji*, Oficyna Ekonomiczna, Oddział Polskich Wydawnictw Profesjonalnych, Kraków.

Kozlowski S. W. J., Bell B. S. (2003), *Work Groups and Teams in Organizations* (in:) W. C. Borman, D. R. Ilgen, R. J. Klimoski (eds), *Handbook of Psychology: Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, vol. 12, Wiley, London.

Kozlowski S. W. J., Gully S. M., Nason E. R., Smith E. M. (1999), *Developing Adaptive Teams: A Theory of Compilation and Performance across Levels and Time* (in:) D. R. Ilgen, E. D. Pulakos (eds), *The Changing Nature of Work Performance: Implications for Staffing, Personnel Actions, and Development*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.

Kozlowski S. W. J., Ilgen D. R. (2006), *Enhancing the Effectiveness of Work Groups and Teams*, "Psychological Science in the Public Interest", vol. 7, nr 3, 77–124, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1529-1006.2006.00030.x.

LePine J. A., Buckman B. R., Crawford E. R., Methot J. R. (2011), *A Review of Research on Personality in Teams: Accounting for Pathways Spanning Levels of Theory and Analysis*, "Human Resource Management Review", 21, 311–330, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2010.10.004.

Marks M. A., Mathieu J. E., Zaccaro S. J. (2001), *A Temporally Based Framework and Taxonomy of Team Processes*, "Academy of Management Review", 26(3): 356–376, http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/AMR.2001.4845785.

Martins L. L., Gilson L. L., Maynard M. T. (2004), *Virtual Teams: What Do We Know and Where Do We Go from Here?*, "Journal of Management", 30: 805–835, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jm.2004.05.002.

Mathieu J., Maynard M. T., Rapp T., Gilson L. (2008), *Team Effectiveness 1997–2007: A Review of Recent Advancements and a Glimpse into the Future*, "Journal of Management", 34(3): 410–476, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0149206308316061.

Mathieu J. E., Tannenbaum S. I., Donsbach J. S., Alliger G. M. (2014), *A Review and Integration of Team Composition Models Moving toward a Dynamic and Temporal Framework*, "Journal of Management", 40(1): 130–160, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0149206313503014.

McGrath J. E. (1984), *Groups: Interaction and Performance*, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.

Morgeson F. P., Reider M. H., Campion M. A. (2005), *Selecting Individuals in Team Settings: The Importance of Social Skills, Personality Characteristics, and Teamwork Knowledge*, "Personnel Psychology", 58: 583–611, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2005.655.x.

Purcell J., Hutchinson S., Kinnie N. (1998), *The Lean Organisation*, IPD, London.

Stewart G. L., Barrick M. R. (2000), *Team Structure and Performance: Assessing the Mediating Role of Intrateam Process and the Moderating Role of Task Type*, "Academy of Management Journal", 43: 135–148, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/1556372.

Webber S. S., Donahue L. M. (2001), *Impact of Highly and Less Job-related Diversity on Work Group Cohesion and Performance: A Meta-analysis*, "Journal of Management", 27: 141–162, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/014920630102700202.

Williams R. S. (2006), *Managing Employee Performance: Design and Implementation in Organizations*, "Psychology@Work".

Ograniczenia i problemy w zarządzaniu efektywnością zespołów

Wiele czynników może wpływać na efektywność zespołów: określenie jasnych i możliwych do osiągnięcia celów, indywidualny przydział obowiązków, wykorzystanie umiejętności danej osoby, monitorowanie wydajności, zachowanie spójności i tożsamości zespołu, umiejętność zarządzania wewnętrznymi konfliktami, relacje z innymi zespołami, a także systemy i źródła dostępne zespołom oraz jakość przywództwa. Wskazane problemy i ograniczenia wpływają na zarządzanie zespołową efektywnością i są znane powszechnie bez względu na indywidualną kulturę pracy danego kraju.

W niniejszej pracy przedstawiono naturę zarządzania efektywnością pracowników w celu wskazania powszechnych problemów i ograniczeń w zarządzaniu zespołową efektywnością w kontekście światowych wyników badań. Warto zaznaczyć, że czynniki środowiskowe i dynamika zespołu wpływają na zespołową efektywność. We wnioskach wskazuje się, że istnieje potrzeba dalszych badań w zakresie uchwycenia złożoności dynamiki zespołu wraz z upływem czasu.

Słowa kluczowe: zespół, zarządzanie efektywnością, model IMO, ograniczenia, problemy.

Łukasz Haromszeki

Department of Human Resource Management
Wrocław University of Economics

Expectations towards Global Organisational Leaders

Abstract

This article analyses issues about organisational leaders who have an impact on behaviour internationally. According to leadership categorisation theory, social identity and leadership theory, the expectations of employees are the result of many different processes which come out during the process of socialisation. People have some ideas about what constitutes a successful leader, which they compare with different managers' behaviour and image created in, for example, international organisations. The article presents ideas from and results of different international studies presented in the literature about this issue as well as my own pilot studies on expectations towards global organisational leaders which exist on the Web. The article presents circumstances of formed leadership relationships on a global scale. In conducting my research I sought to determine the significance of socio-cultural changes in the process of creating a model of expectations towards global organisational leaders, and also to illustrate the similarities and differences brought about by the context of the occurrence of a leadership relationship.

Keywords: global leader, organisational leadership, social expectations, cultural context.

1. Introduction

According to the leadership categorisation theory (Kożusznik 2005, pp. 117–118) and the social identity theory of leadership (Hogg *et al.* 2001), employee expectations are the result of many different processes which occur during the process of socialisation. People have some ideas about what a successful

leader is which they then compare with different managers' behaviour and the image they see created in, for example, international organisations. The set of features a leader is expected to exhibit is observed in behaviour, which is treated as the externalisation of one's personality, values and attitudes. If people observe behaviour that is consistent with their expectations, they start calling the person behaving that way a leader. Behaviour consistent with expectations causes the organisational leader to gain credibility.

This article presents ideas and results of different international studies presented in the literature concerning this issue as well as the results of my own pilot studies on expectations towards global organisational leaders which may be found on the Web. If organisational leadership is understood as "a relationship superordinate with subordinates (or co-workers, depending on the particular type of organisational leadership), aimed at achieving goals – visions, dreams, plans and values – based on respect and trust the qualifications of leaders, and often the fascination with them, rational or irrational commitment to the co-created vision of development" (Haromszeki 2010b). The relationship is based on having followers who confirm the existence of leadership (Haromszeki 2010b) – the most important questions are: What are the expectations of global organisational leaders? How do these expectations show up in the mind and behaviour of employees of international companies which have branches in different cultures around the world?

Other more particular questions are: What is the role of unified patterns of behaviour characteristic for the Internet and teaching in a similar way at different business schools around the world? What is the role of specific characteristic values according to relativism for local cultures to understand individually or absolutist values show up lately in increasing popularity of different national and religion moves?

This article seeks to determine the significance of socio-cultural changes in the process of creating model expectations of global organisational leaders and to show the similarities and differences because of the context of the occurrence of a relationship.

2. Accounting for Patterns of Behaviour – Does Place Still Play a Role?

Two factors play a crucial role in shaping expectations of organisational leaders over national borders (national and regional cultures) – formal education in business schools and the Internet, which is a forum where values and attitudes are created in the course of discussion: relativism (behaviour characteristic of

a particular cultural context) contra absolutism (behaviour expected from everyone according to the canon of rules). Such discussion of different opinions shapes the image of an ethical and successful organisational leader. It could also lead to the creation of expectations towards organisational leaders more or less related to the cultural intelligence approach (Livermore 2009).

Organisational behaviour differs greatly between cultures (Alvesson 2002, Bjerke 2004, Bjerke, Mesjasz & Hajdukiewicz 2004, Geertz 2000, Hofstede 2000, Schein 1992, Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner 2002), but in looking at organisational leadership development programmes at the best business schools in the world (according to *The Financial Times Ranking of Business Schools* 2012), we find that they share similarities, inspired by training methodology done in the United States, Great Britain and France. Tailored to individual needs, the programmes are designed to shape future leaders and, according to the universities, result in a very high percentage of people achieving success in managerial positions after graduation. The universities present statistics on successful graduates, broken down by sector and level of management. This information plays a crucial role in creating expectations towards leaders and the desire to apply similar behaviour in future professionals.

Managers strive to be well-educated leaders, prepared to make informed decisions in a variety of social, cultural, economic and market conditions, and to engage in creative, active and integrated thinking which encourages current and strategic actions. Employees judge their supervisors by these criteria. The success of the educational programmes described above is based primarily on the novel, multi-path approach of non-linear training offered. This incorporates the advice of scientists and experts, the opportunity to gain practical skills in individual and team activities, and stimulants to "doubt", which leads students to ask questions, an essential component of the overall philosophical underpinnings. These multilevel educational programmes offered by the leading business schools builds the students' confidence, facilitates communication and networking and the awareness of the dominant role of human capital in the organisation and relational capital in the business environment and prepares them to not make mistakes in their role as organisational leader. T. Kawka and A. Suchodolski proposed a similar approach to the role of organisational leaders in creating new circumstances for building human capital relationships in new socio-economic conditions (Kawka 2010, pp. 268–276; Suchodolski 2010, pp. 727–736). They show different expectations towards the process of creating a new quality of management relations with employees and the role of changing workers in the 21th century organisation.

Because the Internet's role in blurring the boundaries between users has descended from different societies, virtual space levels civilisation and cultural

differences. The increasingly broadened access to information and resources the Internet provides has improved people's knowledge, skills and ability to use them. It is an important component of the process of socialisation and learning, and of building an individual image of a successful leader. Increasing self-consciousness brings about different expectations of organisational leaders, which sometimes grow out of mass culture more than national and other regional cultures.

The shaping of relationships on the Internet is particularly influenced by freedom – that is the unrestricted possibility of communicating within the limits defined by the law. Freedom interpreted in such a way triggers in people the unhindered desire to exchange thoughts and ideas (Haromszeki & Jarco 2013, pp. 200–216). Internalising specific norms and values through this conduit may be more successful than learning in schools, where there is opposition to teaching methods and a lack of engagement when teachers are not treated as authorities. The greater confidence in virtual relationships may also be the result of a lack of trust in real world relationships and lack of integrity organisations such as companies exhibit. Leaders of virtual relations – people who exist on the Web – easily gain followers across both state and administrative divisions. Additionally, the world of the Internet and use of ICT tools on the Web can shorten the time it takes to bridge the competence gap between developed and emerging economies (Haromszeki & Jarco 2012, pp. 194–213).

Another important issue for leaders is to achieve reliability as the basis for operating effectively. The pragmatic and praxeological approach existing in the world of prevailing situational leadership requires that a leader have the necessary (socially expected) qualities. The significantly different natures of traditional and virtual relations means that the process of becoming reliable follows different patterns. The world of virtual relationships, unlike the world of traditional relationships, doesn't set the models of features, behaviour, attitudes based on the expectations arising from social and cultural contexts. The virtual world, which is much more uniform and is constantly changing as a result of the latest technological innovations, draws special attention to flexibility, dynamism, and the attractiveness of the message as the basis for the establishment of a leader's reliability in the scope of a given activity on the Web. The world of the Internet, which is constantly dynamically changing, provides the grounds for thinking that the feeling of unique identity and the fascination with a leader refer to one specific activity or idea. A leader that seeks to be influential has to be attractive to his or her followers throughout the fulfillment of a task. In addition, the leader's image should be consistent not only within such an activity but also in the entirety of information that can be found about this person on the Internet.

Observation of activities created in the Internet space reveals that the majority of them are based on expressing emotions in a more unlimited manner.

Such activities are possible because the freedom to express opinions and uncompromising attitudes is more significant in the virtual world – it is difficult to find them expressed to such a degree in the world of traditional relations arising from the values prevailing in given cultural circles, which often limit the expression of emotions in a natural, totally free and culturally unrestricted manner (considered to be undesirable or even deviant activities).

What is expected from leaders in virtual and traditional relationships is completely different (Haromszeki & Jarco 2013, pp. 200–216). Qualities expected in the virtual world include creativity (inventiveness), persuasive skills, the ability to interest people (including by shocking them), a constant readiness to communicate, interact and be available as a leader, interdisciplinary knowledge, the ability to anticipate, and charisma (Haromszeki & Jarco 2013, pp. 200–216). These qualities correspond to a 2013 analysis done by B. Feder, according to whom, until recently, knowledge, skills and abilities were enough to gain competitive advantage. At present, there are also other factors of fundamental importance such as the power of imagination, mental abilities, initiative, trustworthiness, the ability to predict and to use language that followers may identify with.

Totally different expectations exist towards leaders in the world of traditional relationships (Haromszeki & Jarco 2013, pp. 200–216). The most important are charisma, the desire to dominate, mental stability, equilibrium and resistance to stress, firmness, and the ability to speak and be objective in interpersonal relations. The order of features characteristic of leaders in the world of traditional relations confirms the earlier results concerning leadership relations, management styles (preferred by the superiors and expected by those managed) characteristic of Eastern and Southern Europe – strong authority, an autocratic approach, and taking full responsibility for decisions (Koopman *et al.* 2001, pp. 7–22; Maczyński & Wyspiański 2011, pp. 7–18). Much less uniform patterns suggest that there are those who support maintaining the existing social identity components (nation--states, regions) of the modern world. On the one hand, there is a systemic camp that emphasises the autonomy of the individual and the need for co-existence of different cultural areas based on human rights and cultural relativism. This approach stems from the growth of human consciousness and is opposed to the irrational treatment of others (people, transcendent power) by governments. Changing conditions require leaders to possess the necessary knowledge about cultural differences and to have adapted flexibly to the situation according to their cultural intelligence (Livermore 2009).

On the other hand, various strains of nationalism and religious fundamentalism that relate to the long-drawn and consistent sets of norms and values determining human behaviour that show a strong sense of separateness are becoming increasingly popular. They seek to maintain independence and national identity

based on the antagonistic attitude towards imperialist cultures and popular culture, which promote patterns of behaviour that promulgate hedonistic values.

3. Research Problem, Questions and Methods

Research Problem

The main research problem in this study concerns the similarities and differences in expectations of global organisational leaders according to the way of creating an image of the successful leaders and character of a leadership relationship.

General Research Questions

– What type of global leaders is expected in the second decade of 21th century?

– If, according to results presented above (Haromszeki & Jarco 2013, pp. 200–216), the importance of communication via the Internet increases in the near future and starts changing the organisational structures of international companies, will creativity play a major role in future leadership relationships?

– Will features characteristic of regional (national) cultures – for example, in Poland, a charismatic, strong and dominant leader – still play the most important role in organisations not based on the anonymity of relationships (like we have on the Internet) (see Alvesson 2002, Bjerke 2004, Bjerke, Mesjasz & Hajdukiewicz 2004, Geertz 2000, Hofstede 2000, Schein 1992, Trompenaars & Hampden Turner 2002, Koopman *et al*. 2001, pp. 7–22, Maczyński & Wyspiański 2011, pp. 7–18)?

Particular Research Questions

– What will be the real impact of changing the way we communicate from traditional to virtual means?

– What, if any, factors characterise generation change?

– Does the strategic approach to leading people still play an important role in changing reality?

– Are there strategic competences which help leaders find the right path in rapidly changing reality?

– If unified systems of education and patterns of behaviour and the increasing importance of human capital promoted in the literature have analogue confirmation in practice or in international organisations, do they still promote one's own (become from one culture) leaders and not assess candidates for the position of leader in accordance with a rational, pragmatic and praxeological approach?

– Is there an international system of values which normalises the behaviour of the ethical organisational leader?

Research Methods

In this study I have used critical analysis of the usefulness of theories and findings (including my own previous studies) to describe the similarities and differences of expectations of global organisational leaders.

4. Critical Analysis of Chosen Ideas and Findings

S. Kahai presents an interesting discussion about the role of the Internet in creating leadership relationships (2010). He argues against J. Champy's conviction that "leadership does not change in a Web 2.0 World, because leadership requires relationships and personal engagement and technology does nothing to alter this requirement in leaders" (Kahai 2010). Kahai assumes that "in a Web 2.0 world, our norms and expectations about effective leadership are changing. With proliferation of technology-mediated virtual teams, there is greater need and expectation for leaders to provide us with an inspiring purpose and structure that hold the team together and propel it forward despite the numerous challenges of working virtually. Our values and cultures may be changing such that we seek different qualities in a leader. Our younger generation, which is growing up in an open, tell-all culture, is likely to seek similar information-sharing qualities in its leaders" (2010).

In the light of this conviction, it is important determine the core behaviour expected by "Generation Y employees" towards global organisational leaders. According to J. Noone (2014), Generation Y workers have four key expectations:

– "Global collaboration: they expect to collaborate with colleagues globally and not be confined to a small network of contacts within their specific area,

– Direct and instant access to management: They expect more direct and more frequent communication with managers. The hierarchical distance the baby boomer generation accepted is not acceptable to Generation Y,

– Co-creation: They expect to co-create and work transversally to solve real business issues. Executing tasks or parts of a system or process will frustrate them greatly,

– Control/personalised work: they expect to have more control over their work and be able to personalise their work to suit their personal routine".

This new reality is like "playing chess with thousands of factors", which could play an important role in creating and maintaining global leadership relationships. This approach creates many scenarios for rapidly changing circumstances. We have to try to predict which competences will be crucial in virtual or quasi-virtual reality, which is and will be an important part of the process of socialisation. Maybe we have to assume, like I. Wanasika (2009), that in this new reality the most

important factor is absorptive capacity, which is the flexibility to adopt and create a strategic approach to leadership relationships in an organisation. Absorptive capacity enables the CEO to learn, synthesise new information and embrace new paradigms (Boal & Hooijberg 2000, pp. 515–549). Absorptive capacity is derived from cognitive capacity theory (Fiedler & Garcia 1987) and is described by Cohen and Levinthal (1990, pp. 128–152) from a path-dependency and innovation perspective of the firm. According to Wanasika, prior related knowledge confers the collective ability to recognise the value of new information, assimilate it and apply it to new ends. The following is expected from global organisational leaders in today's prevailing conditions:

– conceptual skills and a high level of abstraction – in order to be innovative, leaders must possess creative thinking skills (Mumford, Connelly & Gaddis 2003, pp. 411–432),

– future orientation – key leadership behaviour includes articulating a future orientation and an inspirational vision based on powerful imagery, values and beliefs (Waldman, Javidan & Varella 2001, pp. 355–381; Haromszeki 2010a).

– risk-taking – in the making of strategic choices, risk-taking is one of the instrumental variables that determine spectacular success or failure (Ganster 2005, pp. 492–502).

Researchers and managers at the Center for Creative Leadership propose a new approach to the strategic roles of the leader. One of the researchers, M. Johnson (2010, p. 28), presents the most important issues characteristic for leaders operating internationally. His and his coworkers' studies conclude that leadership should be used in the plural, because their results don't confirm that one person could be "a supreme leader". They state that "Complexity – those events, technologies and people – all conspire to make it well-nigh impossible for one person to lead any kind of globally responsible entity on their own". 40 years of conducting studies has led them to create a definition of leadership: "leadership begins with individuals in leadership positions, but it doesn't end there. It's not simply the number or quality of individual leaders that determines organisational success, but the ability of formal and informal leaders at all organisational levels to pull together in the support of common goals that ultimately makes the difference". According to Johnson (2010, p. 28), instead of specific features, employees expect collective leadership informally created through the exchange of ideas and solving problems, especially during times of crisis. Johnson adds that human resources and organisational development professionals play a major role in this change.

M. Stor presents interesting information on the role of a strategic approach of managers in the process of globalisation (2011). The behaviour of managers, although they exist in international organisations, is often more characteristic for national cultures and their stereotypes about foreigners than the conviction

that international leadership relationships should be forged according to cultural intelligence (Livermore 2009). Stor observed the mistrust towards foreigners in various international (e.g. German, Japanese and Korean) organisations with branches in Poland. Foreign managers don't want to use Polish proposals, even when better solutions could save the organisation from serious problems. This contradicts modern expectations and recommendations described in the literature.

According to J. D. Magwood (2011), it is suggested that leaders that use an anthropological mental model have a propensity to understand cultural uniqueness (Hesselbein & Goldsmith 2006). Magwood (2011) continues: "understanding various cultural norms and expectations and demonstrating ethical accommodating behaviors will alleviate the obstacles and realities associated with mistrust. For hundreds of years, foreign countries resist interacting with companies from developed nations because of lackluster trust and related anxiety (Grosse 2000). However, savvy and astute global leaders leverage their cultural expertise to extract the diverse richness of universal workers. The socio-cultural expectations of global workers and their communities increasingly prefer to do business without the threat of corruption and environmental destruction (Kubasek, Brennan, Browne 2003)".

Stor's findings suggest that our changing world is not so modern as some scientists suppose. National character continues to play a crucial role in behaviour dictated by traditional relationships, which is culturally and historically diverse and could be a relatively constant feature that occurs more frequently in one group than in others (Haromszeki & Jarco 2012, pp. 194–213). This is confirmed by various intercultural studies. For example, there are real differences between expectations of organisational leaders in societies treated as being very similar – Czechs and Slovaks (who existed in a single country for a half century). In the Czech Republic organisational leaders are expected to be effective bargainers (to negotiate effectively, intelligently and always be informed). Organisational leaders should be inspirational, diplomatic and boost morale, decisive, communicative, trustworthy, interested in temporal events, act logically, and be dynamic – which means being highly involved, energetic, enthused, visionary and a team integrator.

For Slovaks the most effective leaders should be kind to others, be able to unify people, be diplomatic, visionary, inspirational, and administratively competent. They should have personal integrity, be performance-oriented and decisive, should think about the future and be strongly performance-oriented through empowering team-work and team-spirit. They should empower decentralisation, informal relations and not lose control in an organisational environment, encourage subordinates to take initiative, sustain the participation of team members in decision-making, be pragmatic and encourage open relationships in teams (Čater & Lang 2011). The world of human relationships is more complicated than

differences between national cultures. In analysing expectations of organisational leaders, differences in organisational cultures that exist in three sectors of the economy – public, private and NGOs – should also be taken into account. NGOs differ strongly from other types of organisations. According to my own research, only employees of NGOs expect from their leaders honesty, trust and passion in creating and implementing activities at work (Haromszeki 2013).

These issues have a relationship with my own previous studies about ethical leadership. In them (Haromszeki 2010a, Haromszeki 2010b, Haromszeki 2012a, pp. 158–167, Haromszeki 2011, Haromszeki 2012b, pp. 66–80) I present results showing that one of the most important features of successful organisational leaders in developed western societies is the ethical leadership with high importance of trust. Promoted in different educational programmes in business schools around the world and company training programmes, this approach builds long-term relationships, which are expected in theories of human capital management. Contrary to expectations, the problem of a lack of trust exists in international organisations (some of them are presented in this article). A pressing question is how to change this situation. L. van den Akker *et al*. (2009) present interesting research about ethical leadership and trust as the most important expectations of organisational leaders. They analysed the relationship between ethical leaders' behaviour and trust in that leader. Apart from results in support of previous knowledge about this issue – "the more leaders act in ways followers feel is the appropriate ethical leader behaviour, the more that leader will be trusted. Thus, the relationship between ethical leader behaviours and trust is influenced by the congruence of desired and observed leader behaviour (displaying ethical consistency, securing ethical behavior, contextualizing success and encouraging transparency)"(Van den Akker *et al*. 2009, p. 15) – the four researchers discover that:

– The respondents only expect their leaders to demonstrate their moral values to them on a professional level; they are not interested in leader morality in their private lives.

– The respondents prefer more specific guidance through coaching rather than intense dialogue about ethics with colleagues (Van den Akker *et al*. 2009; see also Paine 1994).

These are some very interesting conclusions. The increasing role of coaching finds confirmation in many different studies presented in this paper and we may assume that guidance through coaching will appear as a major expectation in the near future. The first difference is surprising, because the increasing role of the Internet and virtual relationships cause global organisational leaders to become public people. Their image can easily be checked using information about their professional and personal lives, which makes it possible to compare their private

and professional moral behaviour. The role of the professional relationships seems less important than the increasing need to discover information about others, especially their shortcomings and mistakes.

5. Conclusion

It is difficult to say that common expectations exist towards global organisational leaders. If we assume that principles characteristic in the world of virtual relationships become a dominative (determinant) in a quasi-virtual future world, we would start talking about a set of expectations with a worldwide scope. Their character will be the result of systems of values competing against each other: an absolutist approach according to the main religions and a set of features characteristic of Internet. The "bridle" for expansion of the Internet values and the maintenance of principles characteristic for Christian and Muslim doctrine will be the increasing role of national and regional cultures with the political and financial support that has lately become evident.

Different expectations of organisational leaders can be observed, but global trends related to values characteristic of the Internet show the increasing need of modernity/change based on creativity, ethical behaviour and professionalism understood as rationally using ICT tools in creating a human and relational capital approach.

Sometimes these declared expectations and approaches promoted in the literature and the best business schools around the world "collide with reality" in different parts of the world, which is less democratic and not based on the real assessment of individual qualifications and competences but more related to the values of national cultures and limited trust in people from different cultures.

Bibliography

Alvesson M. (2002), *Understanding Organisational Culture*, Sage, London.
Bjerke B. (2004), *Kultura a style przywództwa*, Oficyna Ekonomiczna, Kraków.
Bjerke B., Mesjasz C., Hajdukiewicz A. (2004), *Kultura i przywództwo w biznesie w Polsce* (in:) B. Bjerke, *Kultura a style przywództwa*, Oficyna Ekonomiczna, Kraków.
Boal K., Hooijberg R. (2000), *Strategic Leadership Research: Moving On*, "Leadership Quarterly", 11(4).
Čater T., Lang R. (2011), *Values and Leadership Expectations of Future Managers from Transforming Societies*, Chemnitz University of Technology, http://www.tu-chemnitz.de/wirtschaft/bwl5/forschung/schriften/doc/16.pdf, accessed: 5.01.2013.
Cohen W., Levinthal D. (1990), *Absorptive Capacity: a New Perspective on Learning and Innovation*, "Administrative Science Quarterly", 35, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2393553.

Feder B. (2013), *Nowe źródła przywództwa*, Akademia Przywództwa, Innowacji i Przedsiębiorczości, http://www.slideshare.net/akademialiderow/kiedy-lider-staje-si-przwdca, accessed: 20.06.2013.

Fiedler F., Garcia J. (1987), *New Approaches to Effective Leadership: Cognitive Resources and Organizational Performance*, Wiley, New York.

The Financial Times Ranking of Business Schools 2012, http://rankings.ft.com/businessschoolrankings/global-mba-rankings-2012/.

Ganster D. (2005), *Executive Job Demands: Suggestions from a Stress and Decision-making Perspective*, "Academy of Management Review", 3, http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amr.2005.17293366.

Geertz C. (2000), *The Interpretation of Cultures*, Basic Books, New York.

Grosse R. E. (2000), *Thunderbird of Global Business Strategy*, John Wiley & Sons, New York.

Haromszeki Ł. (2010a), *Przywódca organizacyjny przyszłości* (in:) S. Lachiewicz, A. Walecka (eds), *Współczesne problemy zarządzania zasobami ludzkimi*, Politechnika Łódzka, Łódź.

Haromszeki Ł. (2010b), *Przywództwo w czasie kryzysu* (in:) T. Listwan (ed.), *Zarządzanie w sytuacjach kryzysowych podczas Euro 2012*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego we Wrocławiu, Wrocław.

Haromszeki Ł. (2011), *Etos przywództwa organizacyjnego*, Przełomy w Zarządzaniu, Zarządzanie Zasobami Ludzkimi, red. M. Czerska, M. Gableta, TNOiK, Toruń.

Haromszeki Ł. (2012a), *Kwalifikacje menedżera jako główna determinanta przywództwa sytuacyjnego* (in:) *Sukces w zarządzaniu kadrami. Elastyczność w zarządzaniu kapitałem ludzkim*, vol. 2, *Problemy zarządczo-psychologiczne*, S. A. Witkowski, M. Stor (eds), Prace Naukowe Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego we Wrocławiu, nr 249, Wrocław, 158–167.

Haromszeki Ł. (2012b), *The Teaching of Leadership – Ways to Create Leaders in Selected Universities in the World*, "Journal of Intercultural Management", vol. 4, no 3, September.

Haromszeki Ł. (2013), *Talent Management as a Way to Explore and Create Organizational Leaders in the Three Sectors of the Economy: Polish Case in Context with other Central-Eastern European Countries*, Proceedings of the Global Conference on International HRM – Penn State, State College.

Haromszeki Ł., Jarco P. (2012), *Building a Proactive Attitude by Using ICT among Local Leaders in Developing Countries*, Proceedings of the International Conference on ICT Management for Global Competitiveness and Economic Growth in Emerging Economies, Wrocław.

Haromszeki Ł., Jarco P. (2013), *Psychological and Social Competences Characteristic of Virtual Space Leader*, Proceedings of the Second International Conference on ICT Management for Global Competitiveness and Economic Growth in Emerging Economies, Wrocław.

Hesselbein F., Goldsmith M. (2006), *The Leader of the Future: Vision, Strategies, and Practices for the New Era*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.

Hofstede G. (2000), *Kultury i organizacje. Zaprogramowanie umysłu*, PWE, Warszawa.

Hogg M. A., Martin R., Weeden K., Epitropaki O. (2001), *Effective Leadership in Salient Groups: Revisiting Leader-member Exchange Theory from the Perspective of the Social Identity Theory of Leadership*, University of Queensland, Queensland.

Johnson M. (2010), *Leadership & Talent Development in International Organizations*, "A CCL / AHRMIO Review of Current and Future Practice and Expectations Center for Creative Leadership", Association for Human Resources Management in International Organizations, http://www.ccl.org/leadership/pdf/capabilities/AHRMIO.pdf, January.

Kahai S. (2010), *Yes, Leadership Changes in a Web 2.0 World*, www.leadingvirtually.com/yes-leadership-changes-in-a-web-20-world/, May 11.

Kawka T. (2010), *HR Business Partner – nowa rola menedżerska w funkcji personalnej* (in:) T. Listwan, S. A. Witkowski (eds), *Menedżer w gospodarce opartej na wiedzy*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego we Wrocławiu, Wrocław.

Koopman P. L., Maczynski J., Den Hartog D. N., Witkowski S. A., and 48 European co-authors (2001), *Perception of Societal Culture and Preferred Leadership Styles in North/West and South/East European Countries*, "Polish Journal of Applied Psychology", 1(1): 7–22.

Kożusznik B. (2005), *Wpływ społeczny w organizacji*, Polskie Wydawnictwo Ekonomiczne, Warszawa.

Kubasek N. K., Brennan B. A., Browne M. N. (2003), *The Legal Environment of Business: A Critical Thinking Approach*, 3rd ed., Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River.

Livermore D. A. (2009), *Leading with Cultural Intelligence*, AMACOM, New York.

Maczyński J., Wyspiański D. (2011), *Differences on Organizational Practices and Preferred Leader Attributes between Polish Managers Studies in 2010/2011 and 1996/1997*, L. Sułkowski (ed.), "Journal of Intercultural Management", 3(2).

Magwood J. D. (2011), *No Comments*, http://customerthink.com/global_socio_cultural_expectations_on_ethics, blog post by Dr. Johnny D. Magwood on September 3 (date of access: 15.11.2013).

Mumford M. D., Connelly S., Gaddis B. (2003), *How Creative Leaders Think: Experimental Findings and Cases*, "The Leadership Quarterly", 14: 411–432, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/s1048-9843(03)00045-6.

Noone J. (2014), *Generation Y: Are We Preparing Leaders to Deal with New Employee Expectations?*, One World, Joseph Noone's blog, http://josephnoone.wordpress.com/global-teams-making-them-work/generation-y-are-we-preparing-leaders-to-deal-with-new-employee-expectations/, February.

Paine L. S. (1994), *Managing for Organizational Integrity*, "Harvard Business Review", March–April, 72(2): 106–117.

Schein E. H. (1992), *Organizational Culture and Leadership*, 2nd ed., Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.

Stor M. (2011), *Strategiczne międzynarodowe zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego we Wrocławiu, Wrocław.

Suchodolski A. (2010), *Porównanie praktyk rozwoju pracowników w firmach polskich i międzynarodowych* (in:) *Menedżer w gospodarce opartej na wiedzy*, T. Listwan, S. A. Witkowski (eds), Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego we Wrocławiu, Wrocław.

Trompenaars F., Hampden-Turner C. (2002), *Siedem wymiarów kultury*, Oficyna Ekonomiczna, Kraków.

Van den Akker L., Heres L., Lasthuizen K., Six F. (2009), *Ethical Leadership and Trust: It's All about Meeting Expectations*, "International Journal of Leadership Studies", vol. 5, iss. 2, School of Global Leadership & Entrepreneurship, Regent University,

http://www.regent.edu/acad/global/publications/ijls/new/vol5iss2/IJLS_vol5_iss2_akker_ethical_leadership.pdf.

Waldman D. A., Javidan M., Varella P. (2004), *Charismatic Leadership at the Strategic Level: A New Application of Upper Echelons Theory*, "The Leadership Quarterly", 15, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2004.02.013.

Wanasika I. (2009), *In Search of Global Leadership*, "Journal of International Business and Cultural Studies", 1, February, http://www.aabri.com/manuscripts/08011.pdf.

Oczekiwania wobec globalnych liderów organizacyjnych

Artykuł jest próbą diagnozy i analizy kwestii dotyczących przywódców organizacyjnych, którzy mają wpływ na zachowania w przestrzeni międzynarodowej. Oczekiwania pracowników zgodnie z teorią kategoryzacji przywództwa i teorii tożsamości społecznej i przywództwa są wynikiem wielu procesów, które pojawiają się w trakcie procesu socjalizacji. Ludzie przechowują w pamięci idee skutecznego przywódcy, które odnoszą do różnych zachowań i wizerunku menedżerów kreowanych m.in. w międzynarodowych organizacjach. W artykule zaprezentowano idee i wyniki różnych badań międzynarodowych istniejące w literaturze podejmującej taką problematykę oraz wyniki pilotażowych badań własnych na temat oczekiwań wobec globalnych liderów organizacyjnych funkcjonujące w Internecie. W uwarunkowaniach przedstawionych w artykule tworzone są relacje przywódcze o globalnym zasięgu. Prowadzone badania są próbą określenia znaczenia zmian społeczno-kulturowych w procesie tworzenia modelowych oczekiwań wobec globalnych przywódców organizacyjnych i pokazania podobieństw i różnic zależnych od kontekstu występowania relacji przywódczej.

Słowa kluczowe: przywódca globalny, przywództwo organizacyjne, oczekiwania społeczne, kontekst kulturowy.

Joanna Furmańczyk

Department of Education and Personnel Development
Poznań University of Economics

Does Authentic Leadership Depend on National Culture?

Abstract

The author presents the theoretical assumptions and concepts concerning the cultural determinants of leadership in Japanese and German international enterprises. The author not only describes the theoretical assumptions behind authentic leadership and the links between an organisation and culture, but also presents results of empirical research conducted among 57 top managers of international automotive enterprises operating in Poland. The results show that for German enterprises the strongest correlations were between dimensions of authentic leadership and power distance. In the Japanese enterprises, both power distance and individualism were key in determining the dimensions of authentic leadership.

Keywords: culture, leadership, international enterprises, Poland, Japan, Germany.

1. Introduction

For many years, it is through leadership that enterprises achieve maximum effectiveness. Despite the different data on the relationship between economy and leadership, a highly popular view was once that a charismatic, visionary leader who possessed rare skills and abilities could be perceived as "the cure" for organisations. However, the recent situation on the global economy has caused the importance of long-term relationships between leaders and their subordinates, which are based on shared values, to be emphasised.

The aim of this article is to present theoretical assumptions and results of empirical research on the cultural determinants of leadership in international organisations. The author presents the results of empirical research while also describing the concepts behind authentic leadership, its theoretical assumptions, roots and determinants. The empirical research was conducted among top managers in Japanese and German international enterprises which do business in Poland. Data obtained from the research show that there is a slight difference in the authentic leadership levels in German and Japanese enterprises. The levels of the features of authentic leadership as a leadership style proved to be nearly the same. However, there are differences in organisational practices, behaviour and the understanding of those specific features.

2. Leadership in the Organisation – the Authentic Leadership Theory

The phenomenon of leadership has been the subject of scientific interest for over 100 years. The subject literature contains numerous descriptions and definitions of that notion. Maxwell (1994) says that leadership is the ability to influence others. With a similar point of view, Yukl (2006) describes leadership as a process in which a leader influences other members of a group in a way that allows the group's or organisation's goals to be achieved. Locke i Kirkpatrick (1991) say that the main difference between a dictator and a leader is that the former uses physical, psychological and economic constraint while the latter does not. Strong leaders have the ability to build positive relations with their subordinates, who accept them because they like, respect and admire, rather than fear them or because of their formal power and position in the organisation's hierarchy.

The concept of authentic leadership is one of the most current leadership theories. The conceptual and theoretical origins of the concept draw on humanistic psychology and integrate knowledge from several fields (Avolio & Gardner 2005), including: transformational leadership, positive psychology, and ethics and morality. The assumptions of transformational leadership theory are particularly important. The main research question behind the concept of authentic leadership is whether a leader can be transformational and immoral. That is why Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) suggested the notion of the "authentic transformational leader" – in order to distinguish "authentic" leaders from those whose behaviour does not allow them to be described as such. According to the two researchers, ethical conduct is the core aspect of authentic leadership. The notion of "authentic" has been understood by researchers in different ways: as involving a leader's

courage (Terry 1993), as the skills used to build a strong organisation (George 2003), as using employees' motivation and their growth (Villani 1999). More recently, Luthans and Avolio (2003, p. 243) have defined authentic leadership as "a process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organisational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviours on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development". Thus, authentic leaders are persons who act consistently with respect to the values they hold and which are visible for their followers. They focus on the ethical, moral and correct aspects of an organisation. They communicate clearly, are open for feedback and a priority to them is the growth of others and building positive emotions (Avolio, Gardner & Walumbwa 2005). Authentic leaders could therefore be called those "who know who they are and (…) in what they believe" (2005, p. 13). The theory of authentic leadership theory has four features (or dimensions) which describe leaders' behaviour and allow them to be recognised as authentic (Luthans & Avolio 2003):

– transparency,
– self-awareness,
– balanced-processing,
– ethical/moral.

A leader's transparency is closely related to his or her high level of openness and trust in close relations with followers. Moreover, a leader acts consistently with his or her values and develops positive qualities including optimism, hope, self--confidence, all of which help in building relationships and influence the growth of both the leader and those he or she leads. An essential condition of transparency is one's coherent functioning in all aspects of life.

The second dimension, self-awareness, can be defined as "a process where one continually comes to understand his or her unique talents, strengths, sense of purpose, core values, beliefs and desires" (Gardner *et al*. 2005, p. 349). In being aware of oneself and one's value system, it is possible to motivate oneself to act in a way that leads to satisfaction. Thanks to an optimal self-evaluation and great optimism, authentic leaders can help those they lead to feel the same.

The next feature, balanced processing, involves authentic leaders being open and asking for feedback, listening to and accepting other viewpoints, and acting on suggestions even if they are critical of them.

The fourth feature that most thoroughly distinguishes authentic from would-be leaders involves the ethical/moral dimension. It involves acting in accordance with one's values and needs rather than to please others, receive rewards, or avoid punishments. To be truly authentic, leaders must bring their core values and actions into alignment.

Authentic leaders know that the most important thing is not their own individual success but that of those they lead and the realisation of the organisation's goals. This is why they try to help other people to perform better and they delegate more power, authority and responsibility to others. The main result of the authentic leadership style is the growing trust between a leader and his or her subordinates. Moreover, researchers (Avolio *et al*. 2004) suggest that authentic leaders are able to enhance follower attitudes towards engagement, commitment, and motivation to improve their work and, ultimately, performance outcomes through the processes of personal identification with followers and social identification with the organisation. The internal cohesion of leaders which coexists with personal development, with a sense of security and current job satisfaction could also lead followers to become more engaged.

3. Cultural Approach in the Organisation

The relationship between culture and the organisational success have been the subject of many researchers' interest. Because economies and society are in constant flux, competitive advantage is achieved not only thanks to economic factors, but also social and cultural ones. The role these factors play cannot be underestimated, as they are related to human capital, which often is considered to be the most important organisational resource.

One of the most frequently cited cross-cultural studies is Hofstede's (2000) survey of IBM and his definition of culture as "the software of the mind". His original study (1990) was based on research among IBM managers and employees in over 40 countries, and later (2000) other countries and samples were added. While it is used widely, Hofstede's research has received substantial criticism. Nonetheless, it has influenced almost all subsequent cross-cultural surveys.

The approach is most widely used while analysing culture through the identification and measurement of its dimensions, which are presented as a continuum with the extreme notions on its ends. Several different typologies of societal cultural value orientations or cultural dimensions have been developed (Hofstede 2000, Hall & Hall 1990). Those dimensions allow for a comparative analysis to be done on the values of dimensions specific to particular culture. Although researchers have discussed a large number of cultural dimensions, those which could be considered the most important in discussing the relationship between culture and leadership, especially the dimensions of authentic leadership, should be singled out. These include power distance, individualism versus collectivism and the avoidance of uncertainty. Those dimensions can be found in most of the concepts of culture. Moreover, they are considered to be primary

features, which significantly differentiate organisational cultures (Sułkowski 2002, p. 65). Providing specific cultural dimensions certain values allows the organisational culture of a particular enterprise to be analysed.

Power distance (*PDI*). Hofstede (1990, 2000) defines PDI as the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organisations is distributed unequally. In cultures with large differences in power between individuals, organisations will typically have more layers and the chain of command is felt to be more important. PDI has an impact on the management style in different organisations and is related to leadership. It also varies between cultures. GLOBE project (*Overview of GLOBE…* 2004) results on PDI show the endorsement of participative leadership in different parts of the world (in different cultures) and the impact of PDI on leadership effectiveness.

Uncertainty avoidance (*UAI*) is another dimension identified by Hofstede. It is a measure of how uncomfortable members of a society feel in ambiguous and uncertain situations, and take steps to avoid them. It describes a society's reliance on social norms and procedures to alleviate the unpredictability of the future. Hofstede (1990) defined uncertainty avoidance as the extent to which a society feels threatened by uncertain and ambiguous situations and tries to avoid these situations by believing in absolute truths and the attainment of expertise, providing greater stability, establishing more formal rules, and rejecting ideas and behaviours that deviate from them. This has several broad implications for organisations. For example, UAI has an impact on the characteristics associated with outstanding leadership and leaders' typical career patterns. UAI also influences the expectations leaders have of subordinates and customers have of businesses. In high UAI cultures, planning and detailed agreements are the norm, whereas in low UAI cultures flexibility and innovation are more prominent.

Individualism versus collectivism (*IDV*). Cultures characterised by individualism can be defined as loosely knit social frameworks in which people are supposed to take care of themselves and look after their own interests and those of their close family only. A tight social framework with strong and cohesive in-groups as opposed to out-groups, is a key characteristic of high collectivism. People expect their in-group to look after them and are loyal to it in return (Hofstede 1990, p. 20).

One of the reasons a particular leadership style exists in an organisation is culture in its national and organisational aspects, which are perceived as the specific basis of that leadership style. However, it should also be emphasised that though culture is common for a whole organisation, leaders do play an important role in creating it (Hofstede & Hofstede 2007). Because leaders serve as an example, an inspiration, they show followers behaviours which are acceptable or should be eliminated. On the other hand, culture influences leaders, how they

function, perform and build relations with subordinates. Sometimes different types of organisational cultures require different leadership styles to be used. In fact, some researchers (Avery 2009) have found that when a leader moves to another organisation, a change of the leadership style is also needed. Culture influences the behaviours of organisations' members, both creating and limiting them at the same time. Thus, culture is an essential component in the relationships built between a leader and his or her followers. Authentic leadership theory pays particular attention to that fact.

4. Organisation of the Research

Since the 1990s there has been rapid growth in foreign direct investments in Poland. Such investment of foreign capital plays an important role in the country's economic development. Moreover, it also creates and moderates the structure of employment. Through the transfer of knowledge, technology, experience and information, it accelerates regional development. International enterprises in various branches of regional economies are also patrons of the arts and culture, sponsors of sport events and innovators in, for example, ecology.

Driven by exports, modern industry and investment, Germany's economy is the fourth largest in the world, following only the US, Japan and China. Since 1989 it has been Poland's most important trade partner, and, behind only the Netherlands, it is the second-largest investor in Poland. While Japan is not a strategic investor in Poland, it should be treated as a country whose investments are crucial to the development of entire regions. According to JETRO (the Japanese External Trade Organisation), there were 73 Japanese-headquartered productive enterprises in Poland at the end of 2012. That these investments engage large material and human capital is of great significance. As much cross-cultural research has shown, German and Japanese cultures differ significantly. On the other hand, they originate from different cultural areas than Poland's. Thus, comparative research on the leadership in enterprises from those different cultures is not only legitimate but also interesting.

57 top managers from international automotive enterprises with German and Japanese capital and which do business in Poland took part in the empirical research. *The Collins English Dictionary* (2012) defines a "top manager" as "the most senior staff of an organisation or business, including the heads of various divisions or departments led by the chief executive". The respondents were differentiated in terms of the following criteria:

– nationality – 91% of respondents were Polish and 9% were Japanese. No German managers took part in the research, which is one of the limitations

of the survey. 52% of the Polish managers work in Japanese enterprises while the other 48% are employed by German automotive companies;

– gender – 68% of respondents were men and 32% women.

– age – 37% of the respondents were 35–39 years old, 31% were 40–49, 16% were 50–59, 12% were 30–34 and 4% were 25–29 years old.

In terms of education, the managers did not differ significantly. 77% of respondents have a minimum 18 years of education, confirming a postulate from the subject literature (Koźmiński & Jemielniak 2008): a leader should have deep knowledge of direct management functions and also knowledge of the economic situation. Special attention is paid to the competence of combining descriptive, qualitative knowledge (a humanities-based perspective) with quantitative data (a mathematical perspective). Moreover, one of the characteristic features of a leader seems to be a constant need to learn and develop different skills and competencies.

The empirical research was proceeded by quantitative and qualitative methods and techniques. A quantitative survey was carried out using a questionnaire technique with two questionnaires:

– the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ),

– the Values Survey Module 2008 (VSM08).

On the qualitative side of the research, in-depth interviews were conducted with 23 managers (5 Japanese and 18 Polish). The aim was to collect information on the influence exerted by the culture of the country an enterprise originates from together with the influence a host country's culture has on how an enterprise functions (cultural dimensions) and on managers (values and features of leadership).

Three dimensions of culture were taken into consideration: power distance, individualism versus collectivism and the avoidance of uncertainty. For the sake of comparison, previous research on the cultural dimensions in 74 countries (also Japan, Germany and Poland) by Hofstede (Hofstede & Hofstede 2007) were examined. The dimensions of culture were investigated using the Values Survey Module 2008 by Hofstede (2000) in its English and Polish versions. All 28 content questions are scored on a five-point scale. Index scores are derived from the mean scores on the questions for national samples of respondents and calculated by using formulas created by Hofstede. VSM08 is a research tool which has been evaluated many times and is also used in many scientific projects that draw on cross-cultural research.

The authentic leadership style was measured by using the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ, version 0.1) whose authors are Avolio, Gardner and Walumbwa from The Gallup Leadership Institute. That questionnaire consists of 16 items. All of them describe different kinds of leader behaviour which together constitute the authentic leadership style. In a particular version of that

questionnaire the leader him- or herself (version 0.2) or his or her subordinates (version 0.1) would answer questions. In the version for subordinates, respondents tested people on a five-point Likert scale (0 = "not at all", 1 = "once in a while", 2 = "sometimes", 3 = "fairly often", 4 = "frequently, if not always") concerning how often a statement aptly described the leadership style of their superiors and leaders. The ALQ has gone through extensive validation work, and is currently being used in a number of projects around the globe. The version which was used in the research was translated from the English language version by "back translation" method.

5. Research Results

The main research aim of this paper is to answer the following questions:

– What are the levels of the cultural dimensions in Japanese and German international enterprises?

– What level of authentic leadership may be found in German and Japanese companies?

– What correlations exist between the cultural dimensions and authentic leadership?

Data obtained during the research show that enterprises with Japanese and German capital differ in a statistically significant way in all three cultural dimensions (power distance, individualism versus collectivism, and uncertainty avoidance). The levels of those three dimensions are closer to their levels in the culture of the countries the enterprises originate in (Japan, Germany) than they are in the organisations they run in Poland. Moreover, management practice and techniques used in international automotive companies running their business in Poland come from countries of origin and they are implemented in almost all branches all over the world. This confirms the opinions of researchers (Sikorski 2006) who earlier claimed that Japanese and German culture are cultures of dominance, in which the management methods are based on the norms and values of the national culture of origin.

The power distance level is relatively high in Poland but is lower in international automotive enterprises, whose cultures originate in countries (Japan and Germany) characterised by lower PDI levels, which influences the behaviour of managers investigated for this study. Almost 50% of managers use group work with task teams, though doing so is an alternative to specialisation and is more characteristic of Japanese companies. Japanese firms also rely on horizontal labour turnover as a method of staff training more often than their German counterparts. Most of the managers (70% of the German enterprises and 80% of Japanese ones) declared

that they often delegate power because they assume it motivates employees in their professional development and helps build loyalty. The democratisation of open space and the direct relations that exist between a leader and his or her subordinates were also examined. In German culture, the foundation of the leader's authority is his or her knowledge and professional experience, not his or her place in the organisational hierarchy. Moreover, career-long learning is assumed to be a condition of development. On the other hand, in Japanese firms professional skills determine whether a manager is accepted and respected by a group of subordinates to a small extent. That is the result of common social beliefs. In Japanese culture, it is required that status and respect be bestowed as a matter of course upon leaders (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner 2006, p. 180–181).
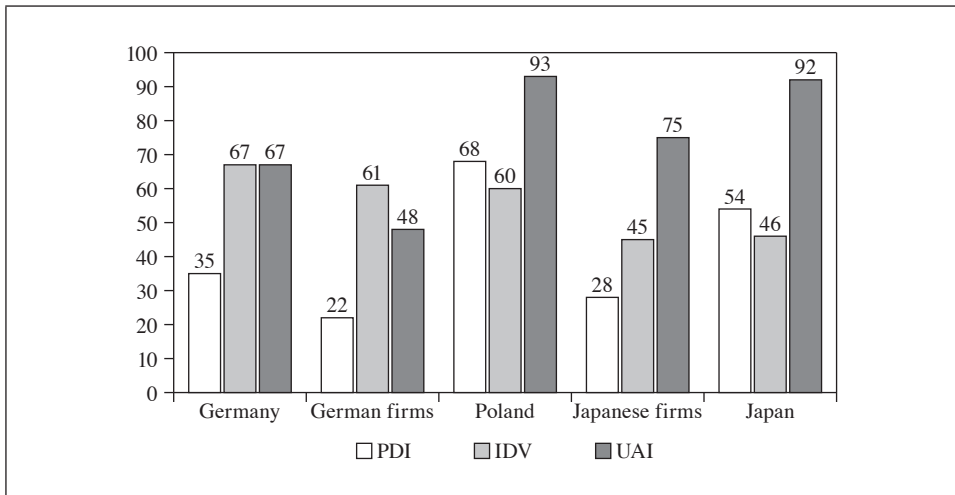

Fig. 1. Power Distance, Individualism and Uncertainty Avoidance Levels for Poland, Japan, Germany and Companies with Japanese and German Capital with Business Operations in Poland

Source: the author's own research and (Hofstede & Hofstede 2007, pp. 57, 91, 182).

In reference to the next dimension of culture – the opposition of individualism and collectivism – it may be claimed, based on the data obtained, that in international automotive enterprises with German and Japanese capital levels are different than in Hofstede's research (2000, p. 90). In German companies, mutual adjustment is relatively easy because of small differences in the IDV levels for German and Polish cultures. The situation is more complicated at Japanese companies, because of the higher level of collectivism that characterises Japanese culture. Confucianism, which accounts for that collectivism, may be perceived as "exotic" for the European tradition. In organisations which come

from individualistic cultures (Poland and Germany), relations between a leader and his or her subordinates are based on rules of mutually profitable transactions. There are clear regulations concerning achievement- and competency-based promotion. On the other hand, in organisations from collectivistic cultures like Japan, the relations between a leader and his or her subordinates are based on social ties, affiliation and status in a particular social group. And they are often the basis of professional promotion. In reference to an employee's achievements and skills, a leader could decide on the nature of one's professional tasks, but not on a dismissal or promotion. There is a clear division: "we" and "they".

That way of thinking, which is characteristic of collectivistic cultures, causes particular kinds of behaviour: members of "our" group (or groups) are treated better. This implies many practical effects. According to results of previous research (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner 2006, p. 218), when asked about a dilemma between a friendship and obeying the rule of law, Germans come down decidedly on the side of the law. German leaders obey the law and they do not adjust their thinking to a particular situation or needs. For the Japanese, because of their need to build harmony, cooperation and "save face"[1], relations and bonds of friendship are more important than obeying the law, especially as far as members of one's own group are concerned. Moreover, in German companies managers stated that building a sense of competition has positive effects on the organisation and employees. The Japanese managers said that building a sense of cooperation and team-work are higher priorities.

Also in reference to the next cultural dimension, uncertainty avoidance, the influence of the culture of enterprises' countries of origin has been observed. The lower level of UAI in German companies was reflected in the act of treating conflict as a chance to develop and master the organisation and its members. Claiming that any conflict in the organisation causes its destruction, Japanese managers felt just the opposite. Senior management staff of both types of enterprises also had different opinions about their health conditions[2]. Managers of German (lower UAI) companies stated that they feel "healthier" than Japanese (higher UAI) managers did. Many authors (Hofstede & Hofstede 2007, Hall & Hall 1990) have discussed the relationship between uncertainty avoidance and the perception of time (monochromic versus polychromic cultures). In both Japanese and German cultures features including punctuality, respecting one's own and others' time, and treating time as a highly valuable resource are extremely important. The managers who took part in the empirical research frequently

---

[1] The notion of „face" in Japanese culture is comparable to „honour" in Western cultures.

[2] According to Hofstede & Hofstede (2007) perceiving one's own state of health is correlated with a level of UAI.

emphasised that punctuality and optimal time management are, for them, crucial to achieving success. It is more difficult to point out reasons for lower levels of UAI in the surveyed companies than in Polish, German and Japanese cultures. However, Błaszczyk (1999) wrote that often top managers' UAI level is lower than that which is characteristic for managers of different types.

The empirical research turned up data showing that for the three cultural dimensions, there is an influence of cultures of companies' countries of origin. Features which are characteristic of Polish managers (as members of Polish culture) have changed, which may in part be attributable to the dominant features of German and Japanese cultures. However, there remain questions as to whether those changes are of a permanent or temporary nature.

Using authentic leadership theory to diagnose and analyse the existence of particular leadership features showed that there are very similar levels of transparency, self-awareness, ethical and balanced processing among top-managers from international automotive enterprises with Japanese and German capital running their business in Poland. Those features can therefore be assumed to be universal for leaders regardless of the culture they are from and the culture they work in. However, the empirical research turned up significantly different correlations between each authentic leadership feature. In enterprises with German capital, the most important qualities are transparency[3] and balanced processing[4] while in Japanese enterprises, self-awareness[5] has the strongest influence on the existence of the other authentic leadership features. Moreover, in companies backed by Japanese capital a very interesting correlation was diagnosed between ethics and transparency[6] – when ethics increase, transparency decreases. This is likely due to features of Japanese culture such as collectivism[7] and particularism. In their research, Pekerti and Thomas (2003) stated that in collectivist cultures (i.e. Japan) being authentic and true in relationships with other people is usually treated as less important than building harmony, politeness ("saving face"), obeying group rules, adjusting to them and to one's position in the group. Some also believe that for collectivist leaders "the authentic me", which seems to be the basis for building deep relationships with followers, means obeying group norms, rules and values. Leaders from individualist cultures, on the other hand, believe in universal values and norms. Moreover, despite the fact that the general levels of authentic leadership

---

[3] Pearson's *r* from 0.61 to 0.46.

[4] Pearson's *r* from 0.64 to 0.46.

[5] Pearson's *r* from 0.66 to 0.40.

[6] Pearson's *r* = –0.20.

[7] Previous research results showed that more individualistic Australians more often obey the law and ethical rules than collectivistic Chinese.

in Japanese and German enterprises are similar, managers of those companies differ in terms of expressing their emotions[8] – leaders from Japanese enterprises are more reserved than their German counterparts. This can be attributed to the phenomenon of "saving face" which is one of the most significant for Japanese culture and according to which showing emotions, especially in professional relations, is highly inappropriate.

Statistical analysis of the data showed that differences in leadership in international automotive enterprises with Japanese and German capital doing business in Poland are caused by the influence of culture dimensions. In German companies the strongest correlation was between authentic leadership and power distance[9], while in Japanese firms authentic leadership style is contingent upon power distance and individualism[10]. The results of empirical research show that there were no statistically significant correlations between uncertainty avoidance and existence, the general level of authentic leadership style or correlations between the features of authentic leadership. However, it should be emphasised that the survey does have some limitations. Probably the most important one is that there was only a small number of respondents, which makes it difficult to draw general conclusions. That is why survey results should be taken with caution until further research on the relationship between culture and leadership can be carried out.

6. Conclusions

Because the rapid changes in the world today have caused international enterprises to also develop quickly, managers who "only" realise the functions of management are not doing enough. Organisations need authentic leaders to create real and positive relationships with subordinates, and encourage them to constantly learn and develop their talents. On the other hand, because authentic leaders obey the values they themselves believe in, subordinates trust and respect them. Those are universal characteristics of the authentic leadership style, though their realisation is deeply rooted in national culture and depends on cultural dimensions.

---

[8] $\alpha = 0.05$ and *Ckor* $= 0.54$.

[9] Correlations with particular dimensions of authentic leadership from 0.47 to 0.32.

[10] Correlations with particular dimensions of authentic leadership from -0.32 to 0.09 for power distance and from 0.51 to -0.01 for individualism.

Bibliography

Avery G. C. (2009), *Przywództwo w organizacji. Paradygmaty i studia przypadków*, Warszawa, PWE.

Avolio B. J., Gardner W. L. (2005), *Authentic Leadership Development: Getting to the Root of Positive Forms of Leadership*, "The Leadership Quarterly", 16(7): 315–338.

Avolio B. J., Gardner W. L., Walumbwa F. O. (2005), *Authentic Leadership Theory and Practice: Origins, Effects and Development*, Elsevier, San Francisco.

Avolio B. J., Gardner W. L., Walumbwa F. O., Luthans F., May D. R. (2004), *Unlocking the Mask: a Look at the Process by Which Authentic Leaders Impact Follower Attitudes and Behaviours*, "The Leadership Quarterly", 15(6): 801–823, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2004.09.003.

Bass B. M., Steidlmeier P. (1999), *Ethics, Character, and Authentic Transformational Leadership Behavior*, "Leadership Quarterly", 10: 181–217, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/s1048-9843(99)00016-8.

Błaszczyk W. (1999), *Kadra kierownicza polskich przedsiębiorstw w warunkach zmian systemu gospodarczego*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego, Łódź.

Collins English Dictionary – Complete & Unabridged 10th Edition (2010), Harper Collins Publishers, Glasgow.

Gardner W. L., Avolio B. J., Luthans F., May D. R., Walumbwa F. O. (2005), *Can You See the Real Me? A Self-based Model of Authentic Leader and Follower Development*, "The Leadership Quarterly", 16(7): 343–372.

George W. (2003), *Authentic Leadership: Rediscovering the Secrets of Creating Lasting Value*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.

Hall E. T., Hall M. R. (1990), *Understanding Cultural Differences*, Intercultural Press, New York.

Hofstede G. (1990), *Measuring Organisational Cultures. A Qualitative and Quantitative Study across Twenty Cases*, "Administrative Science Quarterly", 35: 265–316.

Hofstede G. (2000), *Kultury i organizacje*, Warszawa, PWE.

Hofstede G., Hofstede G. J. (2007), *Kultury i organizacje*, PWE, Warszawa.

Koźmiński A. K., Jemielniak D. (2008), *Zarządzanie od podstaw*, Wydawnictwa Akademickie i Profesjonalne, Warszawa.

Locke E. A., Kirkpatrick S. A. (1991), *Leadership: Do Traits Matter*, "Academy of Management Executive", 5: 48–60.

Luthans F., Avolio B. J. (2003), *Authentic Leadership: A Positive Development Approach* (in:) K. S. Cameron, J. E. Dutton, R. E. Quinn (eds), *Positive Organizational Scholarship*, Berrett-Koehler, San Francisco.

Maxwell J. C. (1994), *Być liderem*, Medium, Warszawa.

Overview of GLOBE. Culture, Leadership and Organisations – The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies (2004), R. J. House *et al.* (eds), Sage, Thousand Oaks.

Pekerti A. A., Thomas D. C. (2003), *Communication in Intercultural Interaction: An Empirical Investigation of Idiocentric and Sociocentric Communication Styles*, "Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology", 34(2): 139–154, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0022022102250724.

Sikorski C. (2006), *Kultura organizacyjna. Efektywnie wykorzystaj możliwości swoich pracowników*, C.H. Beck, Warszawa.

Sułkowski Ł. (2002), *Kulturowa zmienność organizacji*, PWE, Warszawa.

Terry R. W. (1993), *Authentic Leadership: Courage in Action*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.

Trompenaars F., Hampden-Turner Ch. (2006), *Siedem kultur kapitalizmu*, Oficyna Ekonomiczna, Kraków.

Villani S. (1999), *Are You Sure You're the Principal? On Being an Authentic Leader*, Corwin Press, Thousand Oaks.

Yukl G. A. (2006), *Leadership in Organisations*, Prentice-Hall, New York.

Czy autentyczne przywództwo zależy od kultury?

W artykule autorka przedstawia koncepcje i założenia teoretyczne odnoszące się do kulturowych uwarunkowań przywództwa oraz wskazuje ich znaczenie w zarządzaniu międzynarodowymi przedsiębiorstwami z kapitałem niemieckim i japońskim. Opisując wymiary autentycznego przywództwa oraz kultury, autorka prezentuje wyniki badań empirycznych, które zostały przeprowadzone wśród 57 przedstawicieli kadry kierowniczej najwyższego szczebla zarządzania w międzynarodowych przedsiębiorstwach branży motoryzacyjnej, które prowadzą działalność w Polsce. Wyniki badań pozwalają na stwierdzenie, że w przedsiębiorstwach z kapitałem niemieckim najsilniejszy związek zdiagnozowano pomiędzy wymiarami autentycznego przywództwa a dystansem władzy. Natomiast w przedsiębiorstwach z kapitałem japońskim na wymiary autentycznego przywództwa wpływają dystans władzy oraz indywidualizm.

Słowa kluczowe: kultura, przywództwo, przedsiębiorstwa międzynarodowe, Polska, Japonia, Niemcy.

Izabela Kołodziejczyk-Olczak

Department of Labour and Social Policy
University of Lodz

Reactive and Proactive Age Management Strategies in Polish Companies – Research Results

Abstract

Population aging is an objective process that will be unavoidable for the foreseeable future, because demographic changes cannot be quickly reversed. Populations are aging in Poland and other countries, particularly highly urbanised and industrialised ones. As a result, in addition to having to cope with the numerous challenges of globalisation, internationalisation, tertiarisation, informatisation, growth of competition and innovation, as well as changing consumption patterns and customs, organisations also face the effects of aging.

Successive types of age management strategies and practices have arisen from how age management has been understood and handled, which shows that organisations develop linearly. Two early types are examples of reactive strategies that emerged in response to the requirements of the business environment. Other strategies, which I refer to in the paper as 1st, 2nd, and 3rd generation strategies, are proactive. In this paper I classify age-management strategies adopted by Polish employers using an indicator that I designed. The study results demonstrate that while Polish employers differ in how they approach the problem of age and how they manage it in the instrumental and functional sphere, in the institutional sphere they are only somewhat advanced and differentiated. „Soft" age management is a necessary part of a company's social model, and makes it possible for many stakeholders to benefit. The economic model, on the other hand, seems insufficient, particularly in the long term.

Keywords: age management, ageing society, older worker, active ageing, human resource management.

1. Introduction

Today's organisations are changing in numerous ways. In addition they must cope with the myriad challenges they face in globalisation, internationalisation, tertiarisation, informatisation, the growth of competition and innovation, changing consumption patterns and customs. Organisations also face the impact of aging.

The phenomenon of population aging is an objective process – it is inevitable for the foreseeable future, because demographic changes are not reversible in the short term. This phenomenon affects Poland and other countries, especially those that are highly urbanised and industrialised. An even greater number of Polish companies will come up against its effects in the future.

The purpose of this paper is to present age-management strategies currently adopted by Polish companies and to outline the necessary changes and improvements companies will have to make in the future.

2. Theoretical Characteristics of Age Management

The issue of age management appeared in the literature less than twenty years ago. Polish writers and researchers began to discuss it only a few years ago. It is most often discussed by Polish researchers in human resource management, including R. Jaros, P. Krajewski, M. Mackiewicz (*Osoby po 45. roku życia…* 2010, p. 50), B. Urbaniak and I. Wieczorek (2007, p. 11), J. Liwiński and U. Sztanderska (2010a), and T. Schimanek (2010a, p. 48). The term "age management" may refer to various dimensions of HRM within an organisation with a clear focus on aging (Walker 1997) but it can also refer to policy or collective bargaining (Walker 2005, p. 685). The term is sometimes associated with strategic management or diversity management: "(…) it is an element of human resource management, and more specifically: an element of diversity management. It consists in the implementing of a variety of actions that allow for a more rational and efficient use of human resources in enterprises by addressing the needs and abilities of workers of all ages" (Liwiński & Sztanderska 2010b, p. 3). Some approaches suggest using the term "age diversity management" in this context as a more appropriate one (Kulicka 2012, p. 13). Generally, age management instruments combat age barriers and (or) promote age diversity, and they help create an environment in which individual employees are able to exploit their potential without being disadvantaged due to age (Naegele & Walker 2006, p. 3). In the context of strategic management, thanks to age management instruments we can bridge the gap between current and desired resources (Fig. 1).

Fig. 1. Strategic Gap of Human Resources
Source: the author's own study.

J. Ilmarinen (2005) has a complex approach to age management, presenting it as part of strategic management, which is closely related to company strategy (Fig. 2).
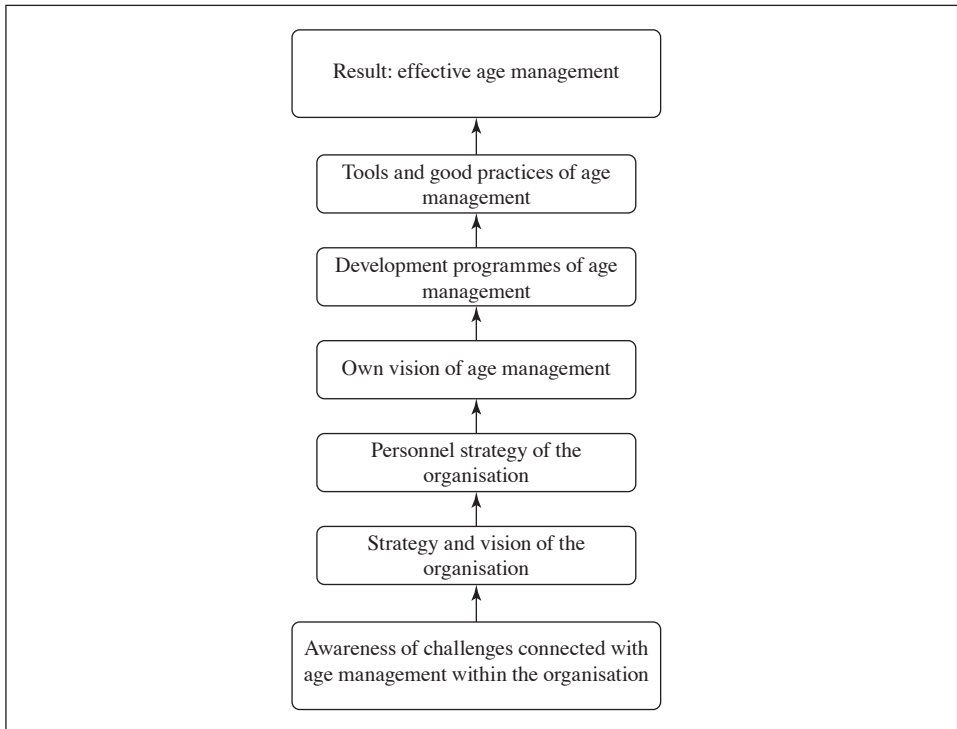

Fig. 2. Effective Age Management as a Result
Source: prepared on the basis of (Ilmarinen 2005, p. 235).

Awareness of the challenges associated with age management is at the core of Ilmarinen's process. This awareness in turn shapes HR strategy and individual age management instruments. In any case, a vision of age management, according to which all planned and executed actions are to create effective age management, is key.

3. Age Management Strategies

3.1. Age Management Strategies – The Concept of Wallin and Hussi

Experts at the Finnish Work Environment Fund, M. Wallin and T. Hussi are the authors of probably the first typology of age management strategies. The two have made a significant contribution to the dissemination of theoretical thought on society aging and the development of broadly defined practices of age management (Wallin & Hussi 2011).
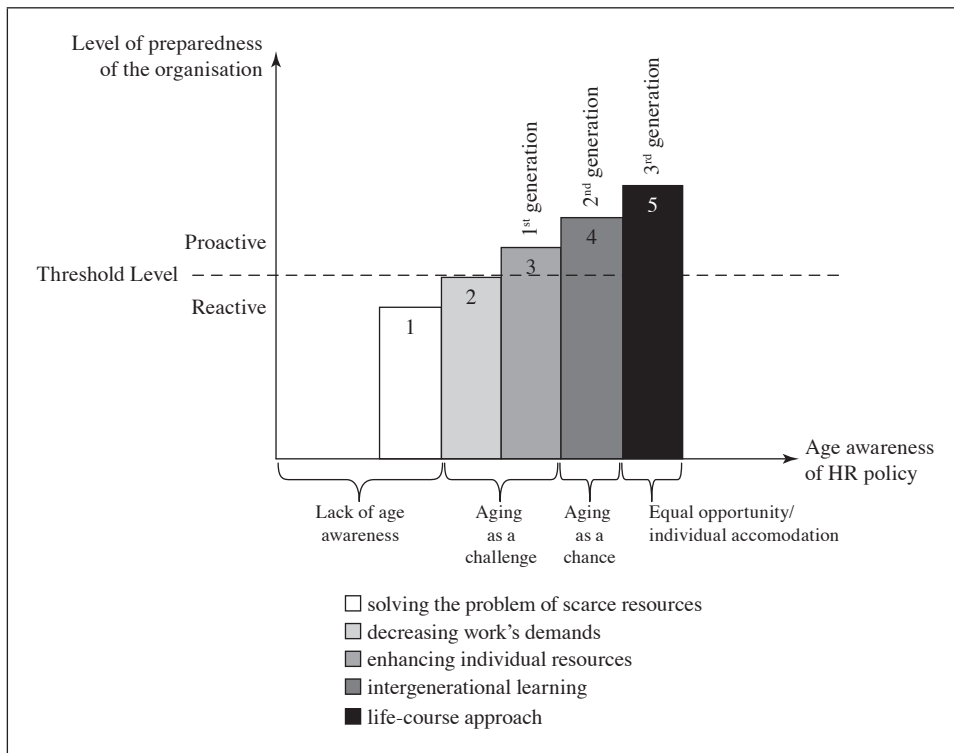
Fig. 3. Age Management Strategies Types
Source: based on (Wallin & Hussi 2011).

The typology[1] grew out of a 2011 analysis of case studies on the best practices of age management. 136 cases of 200 available in the Eurofound database were analysed. They contain descriptions of small, medium and large organisations in

---

[1] Typology should be understood as scheduling, see www.pwn.pl Knowledge Portal.

both the private and public sectors. Conclusions from the analysis of best practices say that two variables have the most important influence on age management: attitude towards aging and the level of readiness for action. In order to examine the ways used to manage age using two trajectories – 1) the preparation level of the organisation and 2) the role of age in HR policies – five different types were created. They were called "solving the problem of scarce resources", "decreasing work's demands", "enhancing individual resources", "intergenerational learning", and "life-course approach" (Fig. 3).

The types of management practices are essentially hierarchical, resulting from the maturation of organisations to next solutions. Organisations are at different stages of coping with the challenges of the current business environment and selecting specific solutions. The types of strategies and practices of age management currently being used have grown out, and continue to grow out of how previous measures and strategies were understood, indicating a linear maturation. The first two types are reactive strategies, built as a response to the demands of the business environment. The other strategies are proactive approaches that create 1st, 2nd and 3rd generation strategies.

Reactive Strategy: Solving the Problem of Scarce Resources

Companies using this strategy did not realise the problems associated with aging, but it resulted rather from the needs of the business and economic organisation. The most common problem in companies that used a reactive strategy was the lack of skilled workers, so organisations faced with limited resources created innovative solutions. These most often consisted in recruiting older, unemployed workers and training them and employing former, retired employees as extra hands to work in periods of increased production. Employment of older workers often required adapting tasks to their physical capabilities, by reducing their workload or working time. Older workers were used out of necessity or because they were seen as a strategic resource. Although these strategies were favourable for older workers, there were also by-products of innovative solutions in age management organisations (Wallin & Hussi 2011).

Reactive Strategy: Decreasing the Demands of Work

Organisations using this strategy recognise age as a challenge. It was believed that older workers have problems with further work on their positions, they are less physically fit and less resistant, they have a higher risk of diseases and therefore generally require more attention and flexibility on the part of the employer. They constituted a potential threat to productivity and generated the risk of higher labour costs. Measures used to solve these problems were meant to reduce the requirements of physical labour: tasks during a shift were organised in such a way

as to ensure workload uniformity, while older workers were permanently assigned to work requiring less physical strength, were not assigned to the night shift, and were offered extra days off. Ergonomics and tasks were controlled by implementing appropriate modifications. Guidance for older workers concerning their careers was also introduced in order to facilitate the preparation of plans for further employment or a smooth transition into retirement. These solutions were meant to improve the ability of older workers to continue working (Wallin & Hussi 2011).

1st Degree Proactive Strategy: Enhancing Individual Resources

This type of strategy is based on proactive age management measures applied in enterprises, recognising age as a challenge. It is implemented in response to the need to enhance the ability of older workers to work and improve the working environment, and a greater risk of loss of competence and health among them. The strategy of strengthening personal resources is used not only to reduce labour requirements, but also to release available resources. The most common measures taken to enhance the ability of older workers to work including promoting health, medical rehabilitation, healthy meals, and creating co-worker support groups for people who want to stop smoking or lose weight. An active lifestyle was promoted by providing company gyms, thus enabling physical exercise during working hours, and partially refunding the cost of physical activity. The ability of older workers to perform work was also increased as a result of constant education. Training programmes tailored to the needs of adults were used as well as counselling sessions and employee and supervisor talks on development. Such an approach is based on the belief that older employees are able to constantly acquire new skills and that it is possible to improve their welfare through a healthy lifestyle. The approach to age management described here can be considered the first generation of age management practices (Wallin & Hussi 2011).

2nd Degree Proactive Strategy: Intergenerational Learning

Companies using this strategy took into account the productive aging of employees recognising and appreciating the skills and experience of older employees. The companies took steps to exploit the expertise of mature employees as consultants, coordinators, trainers and mentors. These measures were primarily aimed at ensuring the transfer of know-how to younger employees.

They ensured a reduction in the work-load while at the same time improving the effectiveness of learning. It is also worth noting that knowledge was passed in both directions. The work of experienced seniors with younger employees allowed the artistry of the profession to be passed along by mature employees and IT skills to be showcased by younger employees. The age-management measures were also used to create a positive attitude to age in the organisation. Steps were also taken to improve the work environment and promote the health and well-being

of employees. Running training sessions to revise competencies without any age restrictions, mentoring, parallel execution of tasks and the use of older employees as internal coaches were additional important solutions. By employing this strategy, the company came to understand the demographic changes taking place and fully understood the processes of aging, leading to physical, psychological and social changes. These processes were perceived as parts of a very individualised course, which, in weakening some characteristics, such as physical strength, at the same time compensates for deficiencies arising, inter alia, from high efficiency, which enables employees to cope at work. Tacit knowledge – that is, knowledge acquired as a result of a lot of experience – was used and appreciated. Such a supportive environment encouraged the various generations to interact, which was beneficial for both the older and younger employees and ensured a continuous, two-way flow of knowledge. This approach to age management can be considered second-generation age management.

3rd Degree Proactive Strategy: Life-course Approach

This approach is based on proactive age management measures combined with the overall sensitivity of businesses to diversity. The motivation behind this strategy was not concern about aging employees, but the desire to ensure that all have equal opportunities. Companies using this strategy recruited people from different ethnic backgrounds and ages as well as applied horizontal and vertical transfers to ensure the full diversity of employee teams. These companies led an anti-discrimination policy, and therefore offered flexible working conditions to all employees regardless of their age, gender, or other special features. The "life-course approach" consisted in assigning flexibility to employees according to the their knowledge and career stage, thus providing welfare at work. Making management more sensitive was of great importance. All employees were covered with flexible solutions and flexible working hours tailored to their individual needs. Such elasticity makes it possible to carry out professional work and manage the balance between private and professional life, while also participating in training and in professional work at different career stages. The course of life approach provides for covering all employees, regardless of their age, with age management practices (Wallin & Hussi 2011).

Typologies are a theoretical introduction to the presentation of the results of studies on age-management strategies in Polish organisations.

3.2. Age Management Strategies – A Study of Polish Employers

To classify age management strategies used among Polish employers, a database of 1011 employers from the "Equal opportunities in the labour market

for people aged 50+"[2] study was used. On the basis of one of the survey questions, organisations based on traditional knowledge were distinguished and in the two sub-groups an analysis was continued, recognising that[3]:

– traditional organisations are entities which declare that their assets are primarily material resources (buildings, land, machinery and the like);

– knowledge-based organisations are entities which declare that their assets are mainly intangible resources (staff expertise and know-how, to name two).

This approach reduced the sample size to 928 subjects, though the sample still meets the conditions of representativeness[4]. The results can therefore be generalised for the population of employers in Poland. The results were analysed using the chi-square test of independence or Fisher's exact test.

The type of strategy, and hence the applied age-management instruments, selected depend largely on the perception of mature employees, their competence, health, fitness, and perception of the environment, changes and future challenges. Two perspectives – traditional and knowledge-based organisations – determine the organisational activities that are planned and modified as required.

In the present study of age-management strategies among Polish employers, I use an age-management indicator I developed for the purpose. The composite indicator is composed of partial indicators as presented in Tables 1–5. I examined the level of fulfilment in organisations (both sections) and the level of significance of all partial indicators. Intensity characteristics are marked with a colour (significant receivables are marked with a darker colour). Presenting the results this way makes it possible to illustrate the execution of different types of age-management strategies by Polish employers[5].

---

[2] "Equal opportunities in the labour market for people aged 50+" is a system project implemented by the Human Resources Development Centre in partnership with the University of Lodz for the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy. The project is co-financed by the European Social Fund under the Human Capital Operational Programme. From 2010–2013 I served as manager for the coordination of activities at the University of Lodz.

[3] In the Leader in Human Resources Management contest companies are analysed taking into account a close criterion: traditional production companies and production companies using advanced technologies and traditional services and knowledge pursuant to (Urbaniak & Bohdziewicz 2011–2012). The author of this paper is an auditor in this contest.

[4] The number of individuals in the limited sample is sufficiently large and, moreover, the sample randomness test (test series) leads to the conclusion that, due to the key for the research, included as criteria for stratification, the sample is random (random test series verifies the hypothesis that the selection of items from the population in the sample was random, which is the same as saying that the test variable (sample) is random (Malarska 2005, p. 143). At the same time, one has to notice that the two conditions of representativeness of the sample (sufficient sample size and its randomness (Wiktorowicz 2009, p. 37) have been met, which allows one to generalise about the population.

[5] Excerpt elaborated in (Kołodziejczyk-Olczak 2014).

Table 1. The Strategy for Scarce Resources (Indications in Percentage), *N* = 928

Synthetic characteristics	Partial indicator	Traditional organisation	Organisation based on knowledge
Recruiting older employees, the unemployed and retirees	Hiring people with pension entitlements over the past five years	33.8*	22.7*
	Allocating overtime hours to employees 45+ first	8.0*	1.5*
	Proposing employees with pension entitlements remain employed	20.0*	11.1*
	Proposing individuals with pension entitlements remain employed because it is not possible to replace them	11.5*	2.7*
	Paying attention to professional experience of similar nature when hiring employees	42.9*	31.5*
	Mature employees working on a three-shift basis	5.7*	0.6*
	Employing mature employees on a full-time basis	100.0*	79.0*
	Employing mature employees on the basis of a contract of indefinite duration	91.3*	82.5*
	Cooperating with self-employed individuals	41.2*	63.5*
	Not employing older people, because none applied in the recruitment process	54.1*	70.9*
	Re-employing, if necessary, retired employees	45.4	52.1
	Employing an employee because he was available	11.5	16.2
	Offering employment on the basis of a contract of employment for a specified period	15.8	21.6
	Offering employment on the basis of a civil law contract	9.1	9.5
	Offering employment for traineeships or under a different assisted form	0.0	1.6

* Statistically significant differences or relations were marked if the *p*-value was lower than the level of significance α = 0.05.

Source: the author's own research.

Scarce resource strategies were implemented mainly by traditional organisations. Recognising the shortage of personnel, they offered jobs to mature people and employed them on a full-time basis to work on a three-shift basis and overtime. At the same time, thanks to providing employment for an indefinite period of time, they got at the motivational nature of employment, because mature employees value job security. Examples of elements assigned to this type of age-management strategy achieved significantly more often by knowledge-based organisations may indicate their greater flexibility in how they do business. For example, they contracted with the people who run their own business and did not use discriminatory practices –

they did not employ anyone for lack of candidates, but because they instead opted for retirees. The desired candidates had to be available.

Table 2. Strategy for Decreasing the Demands of Work (Indications in Percent), $N = 928$

Synthetic characteristics	Partial indicator	Traditional organisation	Organisation based on knowledge
Higher risk of the reduction efficiency organisation of work selection of posts / time to the possibility of employees	Noticing the natural decline in physical fitness of people aged 45+	80.5*	77.8*
	Recognising the limited possibility of moving mature employees to other jobs	84.6*	82.1*
	The use of workforce planning, taking age into account	18.8*	10.8*
	Using work time planning with regard to age	18.8*	13.4*
	Suggesting major changes to enhance the employment of mature people in less mentally aggravating jobs	10.8*	4.8*
	Employing mature persons on a full-time basis	88.8	87.7
	Choosing forms of work with regard to age	19.2	15.9
	Suggesting major changes to enhance the employment of mature people in less stressful jobs	22.3	18.6
	Suggesting major changes to enhance the employment of mature people and supplying special equipment at the workplace	2.3	1.8
	Suggesting major changes to enhance the employment of mature people and adapting the workplace to the employee's ability	4.6	3.6
	Suggesting major changes to enhance the employment of mature people equals a smaller number of hours	13.8*	28.4*
	Suggesting major changes to enhance the employment of mature people equals flexible working hours	11.5*	30.5*
	Suggesting major changes to enhance the employment of mature people equals the possibility to work at home	8.8*	18.5*
	Hiring individuals aged 45+ on a part-time basis	21.4	24.3
	Suggesting major changes to enhance the employment of mature people equals a more convenient organisation of work	8.5	10.2

* Statistically significant differences or relations were marked if the *p*-value was lower than the level of significance α = 0.05.

Source: the author's own research.

The strategy of decreasing work's demands was the domain of traditional organisations. Knowledge-based organisations actually implemented this strategy to increase their flexibility. They offered part-time work for mature people, and declared that the most important changes that could be made to achieve greater inclusion of workers included allowing flexible hours, reducing the number of hours, and the ability to work from home.

Table 3. The Enhancing Individual Resources Strategy (Indications in Percent), $N = 928$

Synthetic characteristics	Partial indicator	Traditional organisation	Organisation based on knowledge
The promotion of healthy and active lifestyles, rehabilitation medicine, constant education	The use of individual wages for effects at work	66.3*	74.7*
	Expressing the opinion that if employees lost their jobs they could definitely find a similar one	66.5*	74.8*
	The use of health bonuses in the form of preventive vaccination campaigns	19.2*	24.9*
	The use of a free health bonus	6.2*	1.2*
	Expressing the opinion that employees aged 45+ are as interested in participating in training as the rest	12.7	13.0
	Offering passes to a swimming pool as a bonus	35.6	42.5
	Offering passes to a fitness club as a bonus	1.8	1.9
	Offering additional health insurance as a bonus	1.8	1.9
	Expressing the opinion that employees aged 45+ are more interested in participating in trainings than others	8.5	6.9
	Using individualised wages to bring about desired effects at work	4.2	4.2

* Statistically significant differences or relations were marked if the *p*-value was lower than the level of significance α = 0.05.

Source: the author's own research.

The 1st degree management strategy is already clearly being realised by organisations based on knowledge. Rewarding on the basis of competence, making rewards dependent on individual employee effects, to which high competences will certainly contribute, organisations use pro-efficiency rewarding. They perceive employees without bias, emphasising their willingness to receive training and the strong opportunities they enjoy on the labour market in the event of potential job loss. They also use health bonuses that can help keep mature employees in better shape and promote health through an active lifestyle and leisure sport activities.

Table 4. The Intergenerational Learning Strategy (Indicators in Percent), *N* = 928

Synthetic characteristics	Partial indicator	Traditional organisation	Organisation based on knowledge
Use the expertise of consultants, coaches, and mentors; knowledge transfer between mature and younger workers; training to improve skills; appreciation of competence; training for managers on topics related to aging	Using methods aimed at retaining knowledge in the form of contacts with pensioners with expertise in connection with retiring employees	35.4*	46.5*
	Hiring people with pension entitlements due to the unique qualifications of employees	3.8*	58.1*
	Using training methods that encourage the exchange of experiences: mentoring, coaching	32.7*	47.7*
	Using team work with teams of varied ages	43.1*	67.3*
	Applying knowledge management	56.2*	68.0*
	Using mirroring competence	53.5*	64.5*
	Participation in EU programmes	11.1*	5.3*
	Using the relay system	51.9*	38.0*
	Proposing employees with pension rights remain employed because they could teach others	4.2*	1.1*
	Preparing successors	36.0	36.9
	Preparing documentation as a knowledge-retention method	58.8	53.3
	Offering age management training	2.3	1.7
	Showing interest by employees aged 45+ in participating in trainings, but in the role of trainers	0	0

* Statistically significant differences or relations were marked if the *p*-value was lower than the level of significance α = 0.05.

Source: the author's own research.

The intergenerational knowledge transfer strategy is used significantly more often by organisations based on knowledge. They use various forms of retention of knowledge in the organisation, and match people based on their unique qualifications and expertise, and use coaching and mentoring, which is certainly one of the components that produces successors. Traditional organisations also appreciate this kind of strategy, as they suggest pensioners remain at work to teach others. These employees then use the relay system, which consists in their transferring knowledge to the next employee and helping them adapt to their newly occupied workplace.

Based on accepting the diversity of work organisation, and offering the employee the choice of flexible forms of work, the life-course strategy is implemented significantly more often by knowledge-based organisations. Traditional organisations excelled only in organising trainings, which are certainly

related to the use of training co-financed from EU funds. Managing diversity, age, and work-life balance are common and fashionable workshop topics.

Table 5. The Life-course Strategy (Indicators in Percent), *N* = 928

Synthetic characteristics	Partial indicator	Traditional organisation	Organisation based on knowledge
Diversity; equal opportu- nities; welfare; work-life balance; personal resources (self-reliance, health, compe- tence)	Using team work in teams of different ages for mature workers	43.1*	67.3*
	Expressing the opinion that employees aged 45+ prefer to work in teams of different ages	27.9*	36.3*
	Allocating tasks in accordance with the preferences of workers	5.4*	10.8*
	Assigning tasks according to their level of difficulty and requirements of the job	7.7*	14.6*
	Proposing individuals with pension entitlements remain in the company because of their unique qualifications	3.8*	58.1*
	Proposing individuals with pension entitlements remain in the company due to a stated desire to work longer	34.6	41.9*
	Equal treatment of employees in the event of over-time work	45.1*	68.0*
	Using knowledge management	56.2*	68.0*
	Using a health bonus	12.7	13.0
	Expressing the opinion that employees aged 45+ who have lost their job would get a similar position based on their competences	23.5	25.2
	Offering help to redundant employees aged 45+	0.0	3.2
	Ignoring age while reinforcing the opinion that results are what counts	95.4	95.8
	Conducting CSR training	6.5	6.9
	Individualising work schedules	19.7	24.7
	Conducting training on diversity management	19.5*	9.3*
	Conducting training on age management	2.3	1.7
	Providing training on how to manage the balance between work and life (WLB)	12.6	8.4
	Allocating tasks in accordance with employee efficiency (productivity)	31.9	30.3

* Statistically significant differences or relations were marked if the *p*-value was lower than the level of significance α = 0.05.

Source: the author's own research.

The indicator takes into account only statistically significant differences between traditional knowledge-based organisations and presents hybrid age management strategies employed by Polish organisations (Table 6).

Table 6. Hybrid Age-management Strategies of Polish Companies (Only Statistically Significant Differences)

"Hard-soft" age management		Traditional organisation	Organisation based on knowledge
HARD AGE MANA-GEMENT They employ mature employees when they need them; they train with the benefit of EU co-financing, and take additional measures to protect wor-kers against disease; ergonomi-cally healthy facilities;	Hiring people with pension entitlements over the past five years	33.8*	22.7*
	Allocating overtime hours to employees 45+ first	8.0*	1.5*
	Proposals to remain in employment directed at per-sons with pension entitlements	20.0*	11.1*
	Proposals to remain in employment directed at persons with pension entitlements because it is not possible to replace them	11.5*	2.7*
	Paying attention to professional experience of a simi-lar nature when hiring employees	42.9*	31.5*
	Offering training on diversity management	19.5*	9.3*
	Participation in EU programmes	11.1*	5.3*
	Making use of the relay system	51.9*	38.0*
	Proposals to remain in employment directed at a person with pension entitlements because he or she could teach others	4.2*	1.1*
	Making use of work time planning with regard to age	18.8*	13.4*
	Using workforce planning, taking age into account	18.8*	10.8*
	Using health bonuses in the form of preventive vac-cination campaigns	6.2*	1.2*
	Mature employees working on a three-shift basis	5.7*	0.6*
	Employing mature employees on a full-time basis	100.0*	79.0*
	Employing mature employees on the basis of a con-tract of indefinite duration	91.3*	82.5*
	Being aware of the natural decline in physical fitness of people aged 45+	80.5*	77.8*
	Recognising the limited possibility of moving mature employees to other jobs	84.6*	82.1*
	Suggesting major changes to enhance the employ-ment of mature people in less mentally aggravating jobs	10.8*	4.8*

Table 6 cnt'd

"Hard-soft" age management		Traditional organisation	Organisation based on knowledge
SOFT, FLEXIBLE AGE MANAGEMENT They see diversity and subjectively treat mature employees, they appreciate expertise and offer a work-life balance based on flexibility and remote work	Cooperating with self-employed contractors	41.2*	63.5*
	Not employing older people because none applied in the recruitment process	54.1*	70.9*
	Suggesting major changes to enhance the employment of mature people equals a smaller number of hours	13.8*	28.4*
	Suggesting major changes to enhance the employment of mature people equals flexible working hours	11.5*	30.5*
	Suggesting major changes to enhance the employment of mature people equals the possibility to work at home	8.8*	18.5*
	Using team work and teaming individuals of different ages	43.1*	67.3*
	Allocating tasks in accordance with the preferences of workers	5.4*	10.8*
	Assigning tasks according to their level of difficulty and the requirements of the job	7.7*	14.6*
	Employing people with pension entitlements due to the unique qualifications of employees	3.8*	58.1*
	Treating employees equally when it comes to overtime work	45.1*	68.0*
	Using knowledge management	56.2*	68.0*
	Using methods aimed at retaining knowledge in the form of contacts with pensioners with expertise in connection with employees retiring	35.4*	46.5*
	Using remuneration for competence	66.3*	74.7*
	Using individualised wages for individual effects at work	66.5*	74.8*
	Expressing the opinion that if employees lost their jobs they could definitely find a similar one	19.2*	24.9*
	Expressing the opinion that employees aged 45+ prefer to work with teams made up of different ages	27.9*	36.3*
	Proposing that a person with pension entitlements remain with the company following the employee's stated desire to work longer	34.6	41.9
	Equal treatment of employees working overtime	45.1*	68.0*
	Using competence mirroring	53.5*	64.5*

* Statistically significant differences or relations were marked if the p-value was lower than the level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$.

Source: the author's own research.

Although traditional Polish organisations often applied reactive age management strategies and their knowledge-based counterparts proactive age management ones, the hybridism of solutions should be noted. Two of the strategies – scarce resources, and reduced requirements – constitute hard management. Companies that use these strategies employ mature employees at the time of need, train with the benefit of EU financing, use bonuses to protect employees against illnesses and use ergonomic and organisational facilities for the elderly. "Hard" age management is the domain of traditional organisations. Knowledge-based organisations due to the fact that they see the diversity and treat mature employees as individuals, and value their expertise, recognising the need to strike a balance between work and life based on flexibility and remote work, use "soft" age management. A part of the social enterprise model, soft age management enables companies to achieve value for many stakeholders, as the economic and financial model appears to be insufficient, particularly in the long term. The division into "hard" and "soft" management comes from the classification developed by J. Storey (1992).

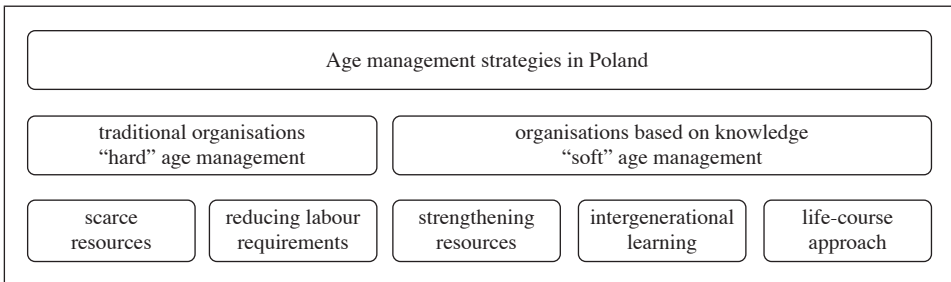Age management strategies in Poland are presented in Fig. 4.

Fig. 4. Age Management Strategies in Poland
Source: the author's own research.

In contrast, the areas assigned to the "soft" and "hard" approach are shown in Fig. 5.

"Hard" age management strategies focus mainly on economic benefits and motivations and those employers who use them seem to get results from implementing them fairly quickly. They are a derivative of the current situation in companies today and the deficit in human resources, organisational necessities as it were. "Soft" strategies are based on an entirely different philosophy. They focus more on social aspects of management, with the benefits showing the company to be diverse, flexible, willing to listen to stakeholders' needs and consider a long-term perspective and the possibilities of achieving deferred success. This model focuses on such aspects of management as communication,
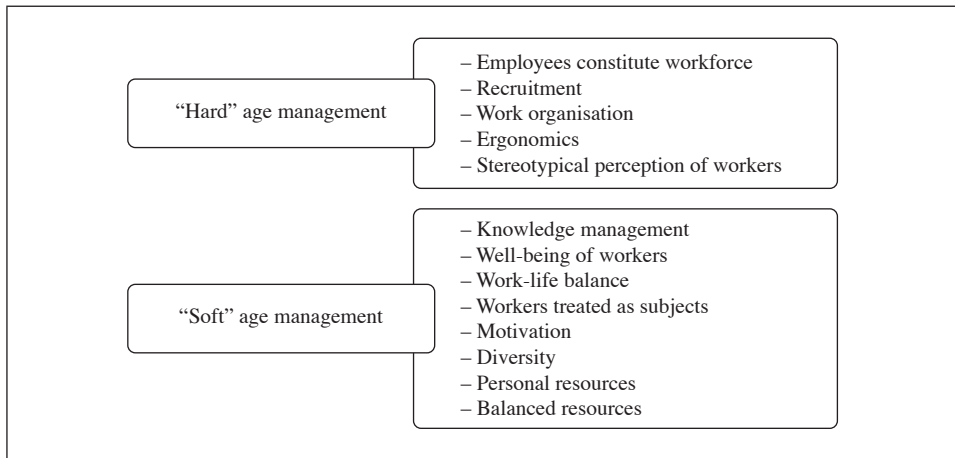
Fig. 5. Areas of "Soft" and "Hard" Age Management
Source: the author's own research.

motivation, involvement and leadership. In this respect, an employee is treated as a subject and a partner.

4. Summary

After looking at the subject literature and numerous study results, it is clear that Polish entrepreneurships do not, as yet, commonly employ age management. In terms of perceiving mature employees and age management tools used in practice as well as overall "climate", they have, however, advanced to an intermediate level and are quite diversified. The study presented in this paper has shown that adopting the 1st, 2nd and 3rd generation age management strategies are more frequently used by knowledge-based organisations while the strategies of "solving the problem of scarce resources" and "reducing labour requirements" ("hard" age management) are more often implemented by traditional companies.

Such model approach to age management in the form of hard and soft strategies may raise the question of the divisibility of both approaches. However, despite certain simplifications, their ordering character cannot be denied.

All companies would do well to employ a strategic approach to age management founded on comprehensive benefit-related attitudes, creating values for the organisation and the well-being of mature people. Both national and local regulations as well as promotional campaigns should focus on a soft approach to age management. An analysis of the best practices used by knowledge-based organisations would be very useful.

Bibliography

Ilmarinen J. (2005), *Towards a Longer Worklife! Ageing and the Quality of Worklife in the European Union*, Finnish Institute of Occupational Health, Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, Helsinki.

Kołodziejczyk-Olczak I. (2014), *Zarządzanie pracownikami dojrzałymi. Wyzwania i problemy*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego, Łódź.

Kulicka S. (2012), *Praktyczny poradnik zarządzania różnorodnością wiekową*, Caritas Polska, Warszawa.

Liwiński J., Sztanderska U. (2010a), *Wstępne standardy zarządzania wiekiem w przedsiębiorstwach*, PARP, Warszawa.

Liwiński J., Sztanderska U. (2010b), *Zarządzanie wiekiem w przedsiębiorstwie*, Uniwersytet Warszawski, Warszawa.

Malarska A. (2005), *Statystyczna analiza danych wspomagana programem SPSS*, SPSS, Kraków.

Naegele G., Walker A. (2006), *A Guide to Good Practice in Age Management*, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.

Osoby po 45. roku życia na rynku pracy Lubelszczyzny (2010), R. Jaros, P. Krajewski, M. Mackiewicz (eds), Fundacja CBOS, Warszawa.

Schimanek T. (2010), *Co to jest zarządzanie wiekiem?* (in:) *Aktywizacja zawodowa osób 50+ i zarządzanie wiekiem. Informacje użyteczne dla instytucji rynku pracy*, Akademia Rozwoju Filantropii w Polsce, Warszawa.

Storey J. (1992), *Developments in the Management of Human Resources: An Analytical Review*, Blackwell, Cambridge.

Urbaniak B., Bohdziewicz P. (2011–2012), *Human Resource Management. Creating Modernity*, IPiSS, Warsaw.

Urbaniak B., Wieczorek I. (2007), *Zarządzanie wiekiem* (in:) B. Urbaniak (ed.), *Pracownicy 45+ w naszej firmie*, UNDP, Warszawa.

Walker A. (1997), *Combating Age Barriers in Employment – A European Research Report*, European Foundation, Dublin.

Walker A. (2005), *The Emergence of Age Management in Europe*, "International Journal of Organisational Behaviour", vol. 10(1).

Wallin M., Hussi T. (2011), *Best Practices in Age Management – Evaluation of Organisation Cases*, Final report, Finnish Work Environment Fund.

Wiktorowicz J. (2009), *Organisation Survey* (in:) W. Starzyńska (ed.), *Fundamentals of Statistics*, Difin, Warsaw.

Reaktywne i proaktywne strategie zarządzania wiekiem w polskich organizacjach – wyniki badań

Zjawisko starzenia się społeczeństwa jest procesem mającym obiektywny charakter, jest nieuniknione w dającej się przewidzieć przyszłości, gdyż zmiany demograficzne nie są odwracalne w krótkim czasie. Zjawisko to dotyka Polskę i inne kraje, szczególnie te wysoko zurbanizowane i uprzemysłowione. Obok licznych wyzwań związanych ze sprostaniem procesom takim jak globalizacja, umiędzynarodowienie, tercjalizacja, informaty-

zacja, wzrost konkurencji czy innowacyjności, zmiany w konsumpcji i obyczajach, organizacje muszą zmierzyć się ze skutkami starzenia.

Strategie zarządzania wiekiem przyjęte przez polskich pracodawców zostały w artykule sklasyfikowane z wykorzystaniem wskaźnika zarządzania wiekiem zaprojektowanego przez autorkę badań. Wyniki analiz pokazują, że polskie przedsiębiorstwa jeszcze nie stosują powszechnie zarządzania wiekiem. Zarówno w kontekście postrzegania dojrzałych pracobiorców, jak i stosowanych w praktyce instrumentów zarządzania wiekiem oraz ogólnego „klimatu" są one średnio zaawansowani i zróżnicowani. Zauważalne jest przyjmowanie strategii zarządzania wiekiem I, II i III generacji raczej przez organizacje oparte na wiedzy, natomiast strategie „rozwiązywanie problemu skąpych zasobów" oraz „obniżanie wymogów pracy", czyli „twarde" zarządzanie wiekiem, wdrażane są raczej przez przedsiębiorstwa tradycyjne.

Słowa kluczowe: zarządzanie wiekiem, starzenie się społeczeństwa, pracownik dojrzały, aktywne starzenie się, zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi.