

Workforce Coaching, Mentoring, and Counseling

Emerging Research and Opportunities



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Workforce Coaching, Mentoring, and Counseling:

Emerging Research and Opportunities

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A volume in the Advances in
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Preface

In the highly competitive business environment of today, organizations make valiant attempts to stay one step ahead of their competitors by making use of various stratagems and competencies. In that context, human resources can be considered collectively as one of the most important organizational resources, being a unique, rare, valuable and non-substitutable asset (Barney, 2002). Therefore, organizations keep applying various strategies to improve their employees' competencies and capabilities. In that context, human resource development (HRD) interventions such as Training, Coaching, Mentoring, and Counselling for career development may be considered as important human resource development strategies that will markedly enhance employees' capabilities to perform their duties more effectively (Noe & Schmitt, 1986). The theme of this book is to elucidate, examine and explore theories, practices and research-based HRD strategies that have proved effective at enhancing various aspects relating to the performance of individual employees as well as the organization as a whole.

As noted by Mangundjaya (2015), coaching can be defined as the focused imparting of skills that will improve the work performance of the individual in his/her organization, by providing robust support and stimulating him/her with challenges. It will enable the executive to learn on the job and enhance his personal development, contributing to steady career progress. Further, Mangundjaya (2015) states that Mentoring can be defined as off-line help rendered by the coach to the worker to assist him to perform his work better by equipping him with the knowledge and thinking that would help him to adapt to the environment and culture of the workplace. The coaching would also prove beneficial when a new employee assumes duties or a current employee is assigned to a different department. He can then receive personal guidance on specific job duties, processes or responsibilities. In this book, Chapter 1 and Chapter 2 specifically focus on workplace coaching, mentoring, and counseling.

Chapter 1 points out that the basic approaches of modern-day coaching, mentoring and counseling applications and practices were contributed by the ancient wisdom originating from the world's oldest surviving civilization in India. The review chapter refers to the two great Indian epics Ramayana and Mahabharata and explains how their coaching and mentoring practices can be applied in the modern world. This chapter will contribute to the development of practical methodologies by coaches and mentoring managers by offering them unique perspectives of great relevance to the fundamental approach to coaching. Further, the advice given in this book would have considerable practical applicability in the business world, as it deals with attracting suitable employees, and eliminating dissatisfaction and burnout.

Chapter 2 inquires into the question of how coaching leadership can contribute to employees' positive outcomes. This chapter initially defines what coaching leadership is and then argues that the application of coaching leadership will create positive outcomes for the employees, such as imbuing them with a sense of affective commitment, creativity and customer orientation.

Training not only expands the knowledge, skills and capabilities of employees, but it also contributes by exerting a positive impact on their attitude and behaviour. Training helps the individual employees to improve their performance and feel job satisfaction by addressing their weaknesses and eliminating them, and by ensuring that they have consistent experiences and background knowledge. Further, in the context of the organization, training will help to improve productivity and adherence to quality standards, enhance innovation and creativity, lead to new strategies and product development, reduce employee turnover rate and enhance the organization's reputation and image. This book pays special attention to adult learning in the work environmental context, training comprehensiveness and training transfer in Chapters 3, 4, and 5.

Chapter 3 provides an interesting review of the application of equity theory in the adult learning context in the workplace. This chapter identifies the gap by demonstrating that application of equity theory and its impacts are rarely considered by the learning theories in the human resource development domain. This chapter specifically develops a theoretical link between adult learning theory and equity theory of motivation based on the assumptions and arguments of both theories.

Chapter 4 focuses on the comprehensive training program by covering such topics as perception and attitude towards training, the trainer and other aspects of high performance HR practices. Further, the chapter explains that even though training comprehensiveness is a significant aspect of HRD, it has

Preface

not been widely explored in literature. This chapter starts with a definition of training comprehensiveness, its conceptualization and goes on to explain how to measure training comprehensiveness within the work environment settings.

Chapter 5 explores the impact of work environmental factors on transfer of training, especially with female workers in the apparel industries of Sri Lanka. The analysis was done through Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling and it was found that supervisor support, peer support, openness to change and personal outcomes significantly contribute to employees' grasp of the training contents in the workplace; however, feedback/ performance coaching had no significant impact on transfer of training.

Another most important concept in the domain of human resources is career development; it is defined as the series of activities connected to the on-going/ lifelong process of developing one's career. Career development usually refers to managing and improving one's career prospects in an intra-organizational or inter-organizational setting. It involves training to acquire new skills, and moving on to assume higher job responsibilities by making a career change within the same organization, by moving to a different organization, or by starting one's own business. Every employee working in an organization is aspiring for a career development that will move him in the right direction. The career path followed by an employee will determine his growth. Career should be planned in such a way that the employee keeps moving forward. Career progress depends on the framework of skills, goals, awareness, assessment and performance, which are essential to help an individual move in the right direction and achieve his career goals. This book specifically encompasses two areas of career development, which are career mobility and perceived career towards organizational objectives discussed in Chapters 6 and 7.

Chapter 6 is dedicated to an assessment of the impact caused by the conflict between work life and personal life on the career mobility of employees. This chapter initially identifies the main barriers faced by women in the workplace and then presents the impact of work life/ home life conflicts on the upward career mobility of women employees. It further argues and demonstrates that if the dimensions of this conflict, such as time balance, satisfaction balance, and involvement balance could be improved by the organization that will do much to boost the upward career mobility of female employees.

Chapter 7 highlights the increasing influence that uncertainty can exert on the perceived career, role, goal and performance of tasks by the employee and his contextual performance. This chapter emphasizes that role uncertainty and role conflicts can result in stress, which might influence their career decisions

negatively. This chapter also notes that the employees within the scope of this study have to a great extent, a perception of uncertainty with respect to the sub-processes of human resources management. However, it was noted that career uncertainty does not have an impact on the performance of tasks and contextual performance of the employees.

The target audience for this book includes Human Resource Development practitioners/ educators, college professors, human resource development managers, educational professionals and researchers working in the field of organizational learning, adult learning theory, career development, instructional training technology, coaching, mentoring and counseling.

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Chapter 1

Perspectives on Executive Coaching, Mentoring, and Counselling From Indian Mythologies

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this chapter is to point towards how modern-day coaching can benefit from the ancient wisdom of the world's oldest surviving civilization extant in India. Drawing from academic literature, this chapter looks into one instance of mentoring and coaching from each of the two great Indian epics, Ramayana and Mahabharata, to define what constitutes coaching, the attributes of an effective coach, hallmarks of good coaching, and characteristics of a good coachee. With the insights and understanding offered in this chapter, coaches can quickly and effectively guide their coachees to achieve more confidence and motivation. This contributes both to the understanding and knowledge in the mechanism of coaching as well as to the practice and methodology of coaching.

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INTRODUCTION

The area of human performance technology (HPT) has been the subject of much interest and study. The International Society of Performance Improvement defines HPT as “a systematic approach to improving productivity and competence, using a set of methods and procedures – and a strategy for solving problems – for realising opportunities related to the performance of people” (ISPI, 2012). It has also been more simply defined as a systematic approach to improving individual and organisational performance (Pershing, 2006).

While many areas are related to improving human performance, fundamental and core is the direct intervention at the “person” level, achieved through coaching, mentoring and counselling. In today’s fast-paced and unrelenting business and corporate world, many have turned to coaching to seek peak performance (Mask, 2016). Mentoring and coaching in the modern business world constitute an effective method of achieving targets and goals both individually and collectively. This may include analysis of employee performance, individual skill sets, effectiveness in the application of the skills and also provide feedback to give course correction as and when required. Hence throughout the process of achieving a goal or target, mentors provide motivation and support to encourage employees to pursue their goals.

Based on data (Coonan, 2017) by the International Coaching Federation (ICF), its membership has tripled world-wide over the past 10 years. According to its 2016 Global Coaching Study (International Coaching Federation; PricewaterhouseCoopers LLP, 2016), the number of professional coaches worldwide is estimated to be more than 50,000; and annual revenue estimated at US\$2.35 billion.

Coaching can be defined as “a systematic process that focuses on collaborative goal setting to construct solutions and employ goal attainment process with the aim of fostering the on-going self-directed learning and personal growth of the client” (Grant & Stober, 2006). The field of coaching has gained much attention, especially in the course of the past 2 decades (Kessler & Graham, 2015). The many sub-fields of coaching (e.g. performance coaching, leadership coaching, life coaching) that has emerged attest to its popularity and effectiveness. Coaching has generally been validated to be effective (Grant & Cavanagh, 2011).

In the recent decades, more discussion and debate have ensued on the nature of coaching. There were also discussions on differentiating coaching from counselling and coaching psychology. Inroads were also made to more

formally establish coaching models and processes (Passmore & Fillery-Travis, 2011).

However, the mechanism of coaching and why it is successful has not been fully understood. Some have attributed it to “active ingredients” such as the transformational and transactional leadership of the coach (Muhlberger & Traut-Mattausch, 2015), the coaching relationship (Baron & Morin, 2009), coaching techniques (Grant & O’Connor, 2010).

In Hegel’s dialectic (Gadamer, 1982), described as a three-stage movement, the dialectical moment is the second stage - the precise moment where the negation or contradiction is recognized, leading to the third stage where new ideas are created. We suggest that this is also essentially the “aha moment” of the coaching process (Grant & Cavanagh, 2011), where the client is skilfully led by the coach towards a desired outcome or to reach a set of post-coaching actions to take towards achieving the outcome.

However, as coaching is essentially a dialogue or dialectical exchange between persons. These persons come with their own historical background and expectations. Through the lens of the Cultural Historical Activity Theory or CHAT (Brown & Cole, 2002), we understand that human actions and behaviours are always situated in context.

Drawing from the above discussion, the key elements influencing the outcome of coaching are the coach, the client and their relationship. Another important element within the aspect of “relationship” is the dialogue of the coach and the client during the coaching session. Drawing on Vygotsky’s idea in *Thinking and Speech* (Vygotsky & Rieber, 1988), this dialogue through the use of language, serves as a catalyst to bring about the “dialectical moment” (Gadamer, 1982).

It should be noted that the outcome of the coaching (whether it has been successful) can only be determined much later, when it can be ascertained if the decisions made of post-coaching tasks are followed through by the client. Merely determining the actions to take after a coaching session does not mean that the coaching has been successful or effective for the client, especially if the client does not follow through with the tasks.

RESEARCH ON COACHING

The first literature record pertaining to coaching started emanating from 1937. It was a report of senior staff coaching their junior colleagues on how to save waste (Gorby, 1937). However, there has been little coaching research

since those early years. Publications and citations only started to grow more significantly in the past decade. In the 62 years from 1937 to 1999, there were less than 100 papers published (Grant, Passmore, Cavanagh, & Parker, 2010). This is in sharp contrast to the more than 500 papers published in the decade starting in 2000. Of these, the majority were opinion papers, descriptive articles and theoretical discussions – often pertaining to the characteristics of the coaches and clients, and the elements and delivery of the coaching service. There is a lack of research in the areas of understanding the mechanism of why coaching works.

Executive Coaching is defined as creating “a helping relationship formed between a client who has managerial authority and responsibility in an organisation and consultant who uses a wide variety of behavioural techniques and methods to help the client achieve a mutually identified set of goals to improve his or her professional performance and personal satisfaction and, consequently, to improve the effectiveness of the client’s organisation within a formally defined coaching agreement” (Kilburg, 1996).

Relevant Theories

Three theories relate directly to the purpose of this chapter. Social Determination Theory and Social Cognitive Theory explain the different aspects of motivations that drive behaviour, viz. internal and external factors. Prime Theory and Darwin’s Theory of Emotion and provide possible avenue to enhance motivation in the coachee by the use of emotion.

Self Determination Theory (SDT)

The Self Determination theory is about the human motivation and personality (Ryan & Deci, 2002). It posits that motivation is driven by people’s innate needs. It is concerned with the reason for people’s choice without the influence of external factors. It focuses on the degree in which one’s behaviour is self-motivated and self-determined. This theory has given rise to studies and research on intrinsic motivation.

The theory states that human nature shows persistent positive features. Under the theory, Inherent Growth Tendencies is used to describe human nature’s tendency to show effort and commitment. These tendencies are not learnt but innate, provided the basic needs of competence, relatedness and autonomy are met. In relation to coaching, it is important to understand the

driver of motivation so as to ensure that the motivation will move the client to implement the post-coaching actions necessary for the success of the coaching session.

Social Cognitive Theory (SCT)

The theory holds that an externally observed behaviour can influence subsequent behaviour. In other words, people learn new behaviour primarily by the replication of the actions of others (Bandura, 1986). These learned behaviour can become central to one's personality.

Under this theory, the motivation to behave in a certain way must first find a model or an example to follow. In contrast to SDT, the factors affecting behaviour are external and not innate. In the context of coaching, SDT will require that the client sees a model of behaviour before he/she will be able to commit to the post-coaching tasks.

Prime Theory

The Prime theory of motivation (Buck, 1985) states that it is the wants and needs that we pursue that drives our behaviour. Our internal intentions and beliefs will only change our behaviour if they are able to create sufficiently strong wants. Even though the theory has its roots in the biological evolution of species (Glickman & Schiff, 1967), it suggests that one of the potential strong sources of wants and needs is the image of ourselves and our identity.

Furthermore, the theory views motivation and emotion as different sides of the same coin. While motivation is the potential for behaviour, emotion is the "read-out" mechanism associated with the motivation. In other words, emotion is the manifestation of the internal motivation in an organism (Buck, 1985).

Under the theory, the unique role of language in human motivation-emotion is recognised. It explains that the fundamental difference between human and animals in the aspect of motivation and emotion is language. Language is also uniquely human. In this respect, Prime theory has direct relevance in the field of coaching where dialectic discourse takes place between the coach and the client.

Darwin's Theory of Emotion

Darwin suggested that physiological changes is not merely the consequence of emotion (Darwin, 1872). Rather, physiological change intensifies the emotion. Some scholars have extended this to the facial feedback hypothesis, which states that facial expressions plays a causal role in regulating emotion and behaviour. Extending this idea, it means that emotion can drive motivation. This, however, is not conclusive. Buck maintains that emotion is the “read-out” of motivation, and at best, emotion enhances the motivation, but does not cause it (Buck, 1980).

In the coaching context, it means that emotion can be made a strong peg to enhance, and even energise a motivation that is already there, albeit in a weakened state.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Deriving from the above discussion, the key elements influencing the outcome of a coaching session are the coach, the client and their relationship. Another important element within the aspect of “relationship” is the dialogue of the coach and the client during the coaching session.

Coach Behaviour

Of the three elements in coaching, this is probably the area most extensively studied. Much interest has developed in the aspects of training and the professional development of the coach. There has also been increasing focus on the background and characteristics of the coach, and his/her demeanour and disposition during the coaching sessions. These attributes of the coach have often been cited as the success factor in a coaching session.

Client Behaviour

From literature, it was often cited that it was important for a client to be “ready”. Focus has been on the needs of the client in various situations in the organisation. However, very little has been studied on what the client brings to the coaching session beyond the need to be “open and ready” for dialogue and change. This is surprising as the success of the coaching session

relies significantly on the post-coaching actions of the client. Whether he/she carries out what he/she has decided or determined to do during coaching directly affects the outcome and effectiveness of the coaching.

Coach-Client Relationship

The relationship is viewed in literature as an important element in a coaching session. Hence, much discussion had been on the correct matching between the coach and the client. This is sometimes also referred to as the “chemistry” between the coach and the client that can make or break the coaching relationship and outcome. Included in this aspect is also the dialectical exchange or dialogue between coach and the client.

The purpose of this chapter is to point towards how modern-day coaching can benefit from ancient wisdom from the world’s oldest surviving civilisation extant in India. By studying three most famous instances of coaching from Indian mythology, this chapter seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What motivates the coachee to want to follow through with the post-coaching actions?
2. How do we create or trigger the motivation?
3. How do we enhance the motivation? This is especially so if the motivation is likely to wane and weaken.
4. Is the approach and trigger for motivation transferable; specifically, is there a methodology (specific to this research context) that we can develop?

Example 1: The Story of Hanuman and His Coach Jambhavan in Ramayana

Maruti (later on called Hanuman) is generally called as pavan putra (son of the wind) and Anjali putra (after his mother Anjali, the monkey woman). Legends suggest that he is the son of the primary God in the Hindu Trinity that comprise Shiva, the Destroyer, Vishnu, the Protector and Brahma, the Creator. He was born with unnatural strength and ability to fly. Being of monkey origin, he had a constant need to eat and destroy all things around. Once, he flew off to eat the Sun, assuming that it was a big orange fruit that could make a tasty meal.

Misunderstanding this childish act as a threat to his throne, the ever insecure God of the Devas, Indra struck Hanuman with his weapon Vajra which hit the jaw (hanu), thereby giving him his name Hanuman. Following that incident, Hanuman fell unconscious. A distraught Pavan Dev withdraws all the wind from the universe, forcing Shiva to revive the dead boy from death and all the other Devas to bestow various powers and weapons on the young child.

In order to prepare Hanuman for the purpose of his life, which was to help the as yet to happen human avatar of Vishnu as Ram, Shiva ensures that Hanuman is accepted as Shishya by Surya Dev. Considered one of the *ashtavathars* (eight forms) of Shiva, Surya Dev bestows knowledge of all types on Hanuman. Notably, Hanuman gains the power of *ashta sidhi* (eight powers) – to increase or decrease one’s size, to be able to influence anyone, to make oneself as light as a feather and as heavy as lead and other powers.

One can derive several meanings from Indian mythological stories when we seek to understand them metaphorically. Hanuman’s story is a classic example.

Hanuman stands for anyone with lot of powers and capabilities (in both and learnt). But without a purpose or internal stability, the powers are unfocused and are of no use to anyone. Till he meets a human avatar of Vishnu, the Protector, Hanuman has no purpose or use for his powers. He was feared and avoided by most for his wanton damage to hermits and their *yagyas*. Hanuman is presented of monkey species – as a means to magnify the problem. Monkeys are known to be untameable, excessively energetic, destructive and uncontrollable.

One could imagine the havoc that a flying monkey bestowed with *ashta sidhi* can create for oneself and the world.

Hanuman’s strength was only matched by his curiosity. He had so many questions which no one could answer. When he did not get satisfactory answers, he would destroy the ashram and beat up the Rishis. One day, his destiny took him to the ashram of sages who descended from the lineage of illustrious seers Bhrgu and Angira. Once again, disappointed with not getting the answers that will satisfy him, Hanuman brought their ashram to the ground and started to beat up the people there.

Enraged at this behaviour, the sages cursed Hanuman, “you are abusing your power and strength. From today, you will forget your ability and power”. Being all-knowing seers, they knew that Hanuman’s very birth was for the special purpose of helping the achievement of Vishnu’s avatar Ram. So they also mentioned an exit clause, that **whenever anyone would remind Hanuman of his glory, his powers will again arise:**

yadā te smāryate kīrtistadā te vardhate balam [VR - 7.36.35]

When you will be reminded of your glory, then your powers will increase.

From that day, Hanuman was a deflated balloon with too many questions and legends say that all his questions vanished the moment he set his eyes on Lord Rama.

So when during the search for Ram's wife Sita the time came to cross the ocean, no one was sure who could do it. *Jambavan*, the minister to king Sugriva, was the only one who knew who could do that. Bears are known to be wise and it is not without reason that *Jambhavan* is born in the bear species. Legends suggest that he lived for a very, very long time, across several Vishnu's avatars. So it is possible that he was aware of Hanuman's birth, the purpose of his birth, Hanuman's powers and the curse and how it was to be broken.

He took Hanuman aside and did what we call in modern parlance, "executive coaching". He reminded Hanuman of how he was born of Vayu and his supernatural powers

स त्वम् केसरणिः पुत्रः क्षेत्रजो भीम वकिर्मः ॥

मारुतस्य औरसः पुत्रः तेजसा च अपतित् समः । त्वम् हवियु सुतो वत्स प्लवने
च अपतित् समः ॥

वयम् अद्य गत प्राणा भवान् अस्मासु सांप्रतम् । दाक्ष्य वकिर्म संपन्नः कपर्
राज इव अपरः ॥ [VR - 4.66.29,30,31]

Translation: "Such as you are, you are Kesari's son through his wife, oh, frightful pugilist, and you are the lineal son of Air-god, and even by your gusting you are self-same to Air-god, and even by your flying also you are his selfsame to Air-god, in all respects. Presently, we are as good as dead, and among us presently you are the only one rife with competence and valiance, you are the other Sugreeva, the king of monkeys, to us"

He went on to say

कवन सो काज कठनि जग माहीं। जो नहि होइ तात तुम्ह पाहीं ॥

राम काज लगतिव अवतारा। सुनतहि भियउ परबताकारा ॥३ ॥

you are the son of the Wind God, Pavan, you have the strength of the Wind God in you, you are full of intelligence, intellect and wisdom. What task is so difficult in this world, which can not be done by you?

Once the coach reminded the coachee of his powers and glory, the curse broke and Hanuman's powers rose. Hanuman rose to the size of a mountain, crossed the strait from India to Lanka and overcoming several watery dangers, he found the whereabouts of Sita. He burned down Lanka when he was caught and his tail set of fire as punishment. He was the chariot for Ram and Lakshman during their war with Ravan, the most powerful. When Lakshman almost lost his life on a day in the war, Hanuman flew all the way to the Himalayas and brought the medicine required to revive him and the other wounded soldiers.

It will not be an exaggeration to say that Ram could not have his war against Ravan without Hanuman by his side.

Example 2: Arjuna and His Coach Krishna in the Mahabharata

The next example is by far a classic example of executive coaching from the Mahabharata – a prince on the verge of a great war and his charioteer as his coach, telling him to go do his job. Again, metaphorically, the coach is given the role of a charioteer – a driver so to say, who takes the person to his destination.

The coaching story of Krishna and Arjuna goes like this.

The setting is the middle of a battlefield at Kurukshetra. The two armies have taken positions. The 18-day war is about to begin. Just then, Arjuna develops self-doubts and confusion about the need for the war. He says he does not want anything that will come by winning a war for which he has to kill his own great grandfather, teacher, cousins and friends. He is worried about the societal consequences when so many men die all at the same time. If he doesn't fight, he would let an evil regime prevail.

Arjuna's Dilemma: To fight or not to fight?

In this condition of absolute despair and confusion, Arjuna's bow slips from his hand, he slumps in his chariot and dejectedly turns to his charioteer and companion, Krishna, for insight.

In this way starts what is maybe the longest coaching discussion ever – 700 refrains of discourse, called The Bhagavad Gita, or, in other words, the spiritually most important section of Mahabharata.

Utilizing argumentative talk as a strategy for coaching, Coach Krishna presents Arjuna with one simple formula to enable him to settle his confusions and lead his life. Krishna's hypothesis includes an sound way to acquire eternal knowledge, a framework to understand the true nature of oneself and the world, and a moral code of conduct, deriving from these.

Krishna empathises with Arjuna's emotional state of complete hopelessness but does not accept it as an excuse for escaping action. He persuades Arjuna to see that inaction is also a kind of action. But not acting when he is called upon to act, Arjuna becomes responsible for the consequences of inaction which are as undesirable as the consequences of action.

By expanding Arjuna's awareness, Krishna leads Arjuna to deal with his dilemma by extrapolate his learnings to possible future scenarios. By resetting Arjuna's "errors in perception", Krishna guides him to avoid "errors in judgement" that arise from non-understanding of the true Nature of Reality.

Mentor Krishna listens, explains, encourages, questions, and now and again rebukes Arjuna. He inspires Arjuna to give vent to his feelings, convictions, qualities and his motivation of life. More importantly, Krishna guides Arjuna to associate these with the upcoming difficult decisions he has to make on the battlefield.

The choice is still Arjuna's to make. One can only take the horse to the water. No one can make it drink.

With his mind cleared of confusion and powered by a newfound clarity of vision, Arjuna chooses to do his duty – fight as a warrior. Krishna's coaching was effective for the entire 18-day duration of the war. Arjuna is not seen to be wavering in his resolve any more in the rest of the Mahabharata.

Krishna demonstrates a very high quality of coaching – direct the coachee in the right direction for him to make his own decision by giving him a complete new framework to assess the issues facing the coachee. Such a style of coaching empowers the coachee to internalise the recommended new thought paradigm, analyse his dilemma in the new light and make his own decision. For, as we said earlier, it is ultimately the coachee's own decision, because he has to live with it and its consequences.

For after the war, Krishna will never again play Coach.

Cox, Bachkirova and Clutterbuck (2014) define coaching "... as a human development process that involves structured, focused interaction and the use of appropriate strategies, tools and techniques to promote desirable and sustainable change for the benefit of the coachee and potentially for other stakeholders". The process of coaching adopted by Krishna epitomises all elements of effective coaching that can be emulated across epochs and situations.

Krishna demonstrates non-judgement, respect, friendship and empathy while listening to the problems as viewed by the coachee. Respectful of the intelligence and self-respect of the coachee, Krishna does not reject or disagree with the perceptions of the coachee. Once Krishna earns the trust of his mentee or coachee, he simply presents a new paradigm to look at the same problems and gently nudges the coachee along by answering every question and counter question.

There is also an implied requisite of a 'safe space' in the coaching relationship between Krishna and Arjuna relationship where the Coach begins from a position of non-judgment, respect, value and sensitivity towards the Coachee who is 'giving a valiant exertion' at this moment. The Coachee in this manner ought to trust in the Coach in his own of interest.

Such a Coach would normally bestow - Active Listening on the coachee and be completely present to the Coachee and to see the world from his/her eyes. This affirmation is critical to set up trust. Through a masterful display of conversation skills, the Coach empowers the Coachee to adopt another point in thought/feeling/activity as presented by the Coach.

The coach may adopt any number of devices in the administration of extending mindfulness, seeing new conceivable outcomes, articulating objectives, evacuating deterrents, and encouraging a state of mind, a disposition and an outlook most suitable to the purpose of the coachee.

In this manner, Krishna demonstrates the essential core of the coaching process. Arjuna's issues are not antiquated or exceptional. His disarray and gloom are felt by the most brilliant in every age. There are a lot of circumstances in our fast-paced modern lives where we require the benefit of a different paradigm in order to understand and adapt to ever-changing circumstances, make appropriate decisions and draw out the best in ourselves. Executive Coaching as it is conceived in today's corporate world may well do well to replicate the features of the Coaching Conversation between Krishna and Arjuna exchange to help deal with the fiercest mental and emotional clashes.

ANSWERING THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following common features can be identified from the two episodes of executive coaching discussed above:

1. Coaching is best done when it is needed – when the coachee needs to be performing some action. Therefore, coaching is not theoretical or done in a speculative context.
2. This is a need, not necessarily felt by the coachee, but by the coach who understands that the coachee alone can do that which needs to be done but is unable to bring himself to that due to lack of knowledge or lack of motivation or self-doubts.
3. The coachee is endowed with special powers or carries a special destiny to be doing the particular task. In the modern corporate sense, this could be interpreted as an executive known for his unique competencies or attitudes and that he has been identified as such by senior management for a higher role or position.
4. The coach and coachee have a trusting, long-term relationship which facilitates credible and authentic advice. Arjuna and Krishna were cousins and relatives. Arjuna is married to Krishna's sister. Jambhavan and Hanuman were part of King Sugriva's ministry. Jambhavan was a family friend of Hanuman's since his birth.
5. The coaching session, so to say, could be a dialogue or a monologue, depending upon the nature of the relationship and the personality of the coachee. Arjuna was born of high caste, well-raised and was a friend of his coach (Sri Krishna). He had several questions and confusion in his mind. His coaching session with Sri Krishna on the battlefield of Kurukshetra is more in the nature of a dialogue. Arjuna repeatedly questioning and doubting and seeking clarification. The Arjuna-Krishna relationship and Arjuna's manner of seeking knowledge is illustrative of *gyana yoga*.

On the contrary, Hanuman is representative of the bhakti yoga. By his own account, his curiosity and doubts had all vanished the moment he set eyes on Rama. He had no more questions or doubts. So, when Jambhavan narrated the story of his birth, childhood and his strength, it was but a reminder of what was already known. There was no place for any questions.

From the above discussion, the research questions can be answered as follows:

1. what motivates the coachee to want to follow through with the post-coaching actions?

The two classic instances discussed above suggest that when the coachee has a goal or purpose higher than himself and his selfish needs, his motivation gets fired up. In fact, the role of the coach seems to be to identify and point out the larger benefits that will derive from the coachee getting motivated and inspired to achieve his full potential.

2. how do we create or trigger the motivation? how do we enhance the motivation? This is especially so if the motivation is likely to wane and weaken.

This question is moot because the motivation in this case is more in the nature of awakening the latent inner strength and self-purpose of the coachee. The coach does not motivate the coachee to achieve any external goal, but simply ignites a call for action required to be

3. Is the approach and trigger for motivation transferable; specifically, is there a methodology (specific to this research context) that we can develop?

A simple comparison of the two instances above illustrates that the approach for coaching is transferable as in, they are similar. The two instances are from two different epics written about happenings in two different time periods. Yet, the basic features seem to be the same.

CONCLUSION

This chapter draws on the wealth of mentoring and coaching techniques by putting the spotlight on one sterling example of executive coaching from each of the two Indian epics Ramayana and Mahabharata. It identifies the attributes of good coaching and characteristics of a good coachee and makes a compelling plea for utilization of these techniques effectively in modern business environments.

Coaching is an intervention that companies provide typically to senior and top managers. It has traditionally focussed heavily on work situations, and much less on the individual. The coachee is therefore also less inclined to discuss

his thoughts on career changes during such coaching sessions. The findings from this chapter may be beneficial to develop practical methodologies to coach managers by offering unique perspectives in terms of the fundamental approach to coaching, specifically in relation to motivating and helping middle managers discern and consider the mid-career options available to them. Applying the findings of this study in the context of business managers in modern day India can help business organisations to deal with attrition, job dissatisfaction and burnouts.

The findings from this chapter are intended to help develop practical methodologies to coaching managers by offering unique perspectives drawn from Indian culture in terms of the fundamental approach to coaching, specifically in relation to motivating and helping middle managers discern and consider the mid-career options available to them. With the insights and understanding offered in this chapter, executive coaches can quickly and effectively guide their coachee to achieve more confidence and motivation. This contributes both to the understanding and knowledge in the mechanism of coaching, as well as to the practice and methodology of coaching.

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Chapter 2

The Impact of Coaching Leadership on Employees' Positive Outcomes

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ABSTRACT

Leaders resort to a coaching leadership style—which relies heavily on listening, helping, supporting, developing, removing obstacles, and empowering others—to promote valuable work experiences and positive attitudinal and behavioral responses from employees. These employees' outcomes are an important part of organizational success. In this chapter, the authors examine the connection between coaching leadership style and employees' affective commitment, creativity, and customer orientation. A quantitative study was carried out based on the perceptions of 80 front office workers from different Portuguese organizations on their leaders and their own attitudes and behaviors. The results, consistent with existing literature, indicated that, when leaders adopt a coaching leadership style, their followers are more affectively committed, exhibit more creative behavior, and perform in a more customer-oriented way.

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INTRODUCTION

Leadership is seen as an essential element in the study of organizations and it is considered the most important “ingredient” in the success of an organization (May-Chium et al., 2015). Leadership is much more than performing a role. In fact, leaders act in such a way that other people end up following their orders; this skill embodies decision-making, acting, and meeting objectives while influencing or guaranteeing the commitment of others in achieving precisely this. Even though this definition is relatively widespread and accepted, there are many types of leaders and leadership. For example, current economic challenges have increased the need for more positive forms of organizational leadership, and researchers found that participative leadership styles, such as the Coaching leadership style, positively affect business performance (Lancaster and Van der Velden, 2004).

The Coaching leadership style, as an example of transformational leadership, creates high levels of commitment, trust, and inspiration in its followers, whose commitment exceeds expectations (Pradhan and Pradhan, 2015). A leader who is also a coach is a facilitator and a key element in team dynamics. Leaders with Coaching skills help employees to grow professionally, and eventually personally while establishing good relationships with them.

The Coaching leadership style includes listening, helping, supporting, developing, removing obstacles, empowering others (Berg and Karlsen, 2016), setting clear performance expectations, increasing self-awareness, providing constructive feedback, and having regular conversations where individual and organizational goals are discussed (Larsson and Vinberg, 2010; Sparks and Gentry, 2008). Therefore, these leaders promote more positive work experiences and positive attitudinal and behavioural responses from employees. Leader-member exchange theory (LMX) can offer insights on how Coaching can effectively influence attitudes, such as affective commitment and intrinsic motivation (Onyemah, 2009). Leader’s emotional intelligence is also critical in predicting Coaching outcomes (Ladyshevsky, 2010) because emotionally intelligent leaders are more likely to build social relationships that positively stimulate performance (Howard, 2006).

Researchers have proposed that effective Coaching has become an essential element of management and a crucial skill when developing sustainable leadership (Boyatzis et al., 2006; Liu and Batt, 2010). Also, literature on leadership suggests that Coaching is linked to effective management behaviours

(Anderson et al., 2009; Hagen, 2010; Kinicki et al., 2011). For these reasons, executive Coaching has been a fundamental component of most organizations' leadership development strategy (Underhill et al., 2007).

Employees' performance and organizational success can be deeply influenced by Coaching leadership style, so it is vital to understand what leaders as coaches should do in organizations and how they influence their followers. Therefore, organizations are increasingly expecting leaders to coach their followers, and research has confirmed positive correlations between Coaching and employee satisfaction, individual performance, and achievement of organizational goals (Ellinger et al., 2011; Wheeler, 2011). These outcomes constitute relevant grounds for leaders to adopt Coaching as part of their practices.

Despite Coaching's popularity in organizations, empirical research on relationships between Coaching leadership style and employees' attitudes and behaviours is still scarce, even though several authors have confirmed the existence of a few empirical studies on the connection between managerial Coaching and workers' outcomes (Ellinger, 2013; Gilley et al., 2010; Hagen, 2012; Huang and Hsieh, 2015; Mackie, 2015; Tanskanen et al., 2018).

This study examined the connection between Coaching leadership style and employees' Affective Commitment, Creativity and Customer Orientation. These employees' positive outcomes are crucial for organizations' success (Grizzle et al., 2009; Solís e Monroy, 2015; Simintiras et al., 2012; Verghese et al., 2015). A quantitative study was carried out based on the perceptions of 80 front office workers from different Portuguese organizations on their leaders and their own attitudes and behaviours.

After exploring the theories and approaches that supported this research, namely related to Coaching, Leadership, Coaching Leadership Style and Leader's Coaching Skills, the researchers propose a connection between Coaching Leadership Style and employees' Affective Commitment, Creativity and Customer Orientation. The carried out empirical study is presented, its methodology is explained, and then the results are discussed. Finally, future research directions are suggested and the theoretical contributions and implications for management, the main objective of this study, are set forth.

BACKGROUND

Coaching

Coaching is an ancient practice which brings us back to classic Ancient Greece where the philosopher Socrates talked to his pupils aiming the development of specific skills (Krausz, 2007).

Even though in the 1930s the word 'Coaching' started to be used in organizations to describe practices that helped professionals fostering their productivity (Correia, 2012), the truth is that, over the last 80 years, Coaching philosophy was brought from Sports to Management (McLean et al., 2005). After all, if all the great coaches could inspire their teams' high performance and foster leadership, maybe there were some lessons to be learned from them, as well as competencies that might be replicated and explored in the business environment (McDermott and Jago, 2005). Gallwey (1986) proposed a radical rethinking of what really worked to improve the overall performance and emphasised the importance of the inner self (the mind). This author claimed that the game takes place inside a player's mind and this inner game is played to overcome all the mental habits that inhibit performance excellence. In this 'game', an inner dialogue takes place between Self 1 and Self 2: Self 1 has a negative vision of performance, is a saboteur; Self 2 represents each individual's potential in all their abilities (Gallwey, 1986; Correia, 2012).

During the 1990s, Coaching has emerged as a way of describing a specific set of management activities within an organization. Whitmore (1995) was one of the first to understand the relevance of this approach to face the continuing challenges of a business environment. Since then, this methodology has been thoroughly used in all kinds of organizations.

Today, Coaching can be defined as an intervention through systematic feedback, designed to improve professional competencies, interpersonal awareness, and personal effectiveness (Núñez-Cacho et al., 2015). This modern management method is connected to organizational culture (Kolodziejczak, 2015) and it is described as a process which helps a person developing skills which allow them to perform well in four different spheres: (1) to be fully aware of their strengths, (2) to be conscious of their weaknesses, (3) to know how to take advantage of their strengths, and (4) to know how to compensate for their weaknesses (Cunha and Rego, 2009).

Coaching is an intervention that offers positive results (Correia, 2012). While trying to amend job-related performance issues and improving coachee's

competencies and skills to focus on their career development (Núñez-Cacho et al., 2015), the Coaching process creates a safe place for people to reflect upon their thinking process, relying on the coach (the facilitator) for support and with the coachee defining and meeting goals better with assistance than alone (Rego et al., 2007a). Thus, Coaching is a tool that promotes self-reflection and self-awareness, once it opens the mind to new insights and, consequently, makes it more prone to find and structure solutions (Cabeceiro, 2013).

Coaching stems from the enabling assumption that a person has inside themselves all the necessary resources they need, but they could benefit from external assistance to access those resources easily; this means Coaching offers a way of releasing a person's 'dormant' potential (McDermott and Jago, 2005). For Coaching to come to fruition, there's no need to learn a new process, since it is already known – for Coaching to happen, it is necessary to unlearn habits that interfere with the process and let it flow (Gallwey, 1986). It is necessary to decondition in order to transform.

Recently, abusive use of the word 'Coaching' has been witnessed, partly due to this method's constant evolution, adjustment and development (Kolodziejczak, 2015). In its essence, Coaching offers a self-assessment, self-development and self-control model (McDermott and Jago, 2005). Therefore, Coaching processes are characterized by active and spontaneous cooperation of both players (coach and coachee), and this cooperation takes place in a context of commitment with the production of useful results for the accomplishment of coachee's goals (Correia, 2012).

Leadership

The current economic and social context promotes a line of thought targeted at the competitive market, where leadership assumes a pivotal role because it is considered a factor that might determine organizational competitiveness (Ismail et al., 2011).

Leadership is a process of social influence, exercising authority, persuading, conducting, and mentoring others (Cunha and Rego, 2009). Therefore, the need to develop better leaders and leadership as a competitive advantage is thoroughly understood nowadays (Reams and Reams, 2015). Similarly, leader's capacity to inspire and capacitate others was deemed as essential in current professional, social, and economic climate, and it emerges contrastively with leaders involved in defensive practices due to fear of being weakened and overtaken (Watts and Corrie, 2013).

A leader is capable of influencing their employees by combining a mix of different behaviours that change their values, which in turn allows them to attain exceptional workplace performance (May-Chium et al., 2015); in fact, when a leader makes a correct usage of their skills, they positively influence their employees' satisfaction and the organization's performance (Cajnko et al., 2014). So that an organization can rely on its employees support to fulfil the proposed goals, it is crucial that leaders inspire their employees so that these can learn and evolve, motivate them to reach bigger goals, provide emotional support and guide them, understand their needs, and contribute to the development of their skills and the improvement of their talents (May-Chium et al., 2015).

A 21st-century leader – i.e., a leader who guides and is guided, who innovates, who experiments and makes mistakes, who learns, who survives and who grows – is an authentic virtuous, emotional, ethical, and Coaching leader. Followers perceive authentic leaders as being cognizant of their own and followers' values, moral standards, knowledge, and strengths (Avolio et al., 2004). According to Luthans and Avolio (2003), authentic leaders are confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, transparent, moral and/or ethical, and future-oriented, as well as giving priority to inspiring employees to be leaders. Authentic leaders seek to help followers develop by modelling and supporting self-determination (Gardner et al., 2005; Ilies et al., 2005). Fusco et al. (2015) consider authentic leadership as the leadership theory of this millennium.

A virtuous leader (a privileged creator of organizational virtuousness) is someone who presents certain qualities (attributes and practices) particularly relevant for their good acting, namely wisdom, courage, justice, humanity, temperance, and transcendence. These qualities grant them competencies to deal with complexity and heterogeneity in a globalized world but can also act as a source of positive change in society in general (Ribeiro et al., 2013).

Emotionally intelligent leaders are more likely to establish and maintain supportive relationships with their employees (Rego et al., 2007b). According to Goleman (2014), emotional intelligence must be a leader's strength; in fact, emotional intelligence is a *sine qua non* condition for leadership. One thing is sure: the most efficient leaders exhibit the four pillars of emotional intelligence: self-consciousness, self-management, empathy, and social competence (Goleman, 2014).

An ethical leader is one that listens to their employees and encourages the expression of their opinions and worries through a two-way, open communication system; this ethical way of leading has a significant impact

in promoting employees' better attitudes and behaviours in the workplace (Ma et al., 2013).

The Coaching leader encourages their employees to define goals, having in mind their strengths and weaknesses, and to create their plans to meet them into practice. This is a leader known for delegating tasks, for urging their employees, and for a strong capacity to deal with short-term fails (Goleman, 2014). This is also a leader whose leadership logic is based on values and whose approach focuses on behaviours (Cunha and Rego, 2009). The Coaching leader is an enabler – they enable others – and Coaching is a way of achieving personal development and authentic leadership (Fusco et al., 2015). When someone is helped to perform in a more integrated way, that person feels better, thinks clearly and acts in a more authentic way (McDermott and Jago, 2005).

Coaching Leadership Style

The manager's role as a coach is linked to a new way of seeing the relationship between the manager and their employees (McLean et al., 2005). A coaching leader represents a more humanized leadership style, more effective for creating high-performance teams. In fact, the concept of Coaching leader results from implementing comprehensive Coaching processes in organizational contexts over the last 20 years (Di Stéfano, 2005).

The Coaching leader is in a position to serve their employees so that they can reveal their options, enhance their potential, and define the most favourable paths for their development, thus contributing for both the team's and the organization's performance (Cunha and Rego, 2009); the Coaching leader is also the one who sees their employees' potential, who sees what they might become, who helps them finding solutions that lead them on the right track and who fosters their employees' (and organization) social responsibility (Cajanko et al., 2014); finally, they are the one who helps people to learn, who tells them where to find the answers, who spreads confidence (Cunha and Rego, 2009).

Clear signs allow us to associate the perception of a leader's behavioural change with higher engagement and a discretionary effort of their followers (Mackie, 2015). Therefore, it can be expected that leaders who participate in Coaching processes become more effective and efficient in their leadership duties (Núñez-Cacho et al., 2015). Change is perceived differently depending on the rank one occupies inside an organization, and those higher ranked

are particularly more sensitive to any shifts (Mackie, 2015). The Coaching leadership style is a way of managing relationships and it works particularly well when there are challenges and difficulties since awareness of the engagement value from the whole team towards solvency stands out (Karlsen, 2016)

The Coaching leader can use Coaching informally, resorting to their competencies without a Coaching process effectively taking place (McDermott and Jago, 2005). In fact, leaders frequently use Coaching without being aware of that: great leaders, when trying to develop their team's potential, believe that they can achieve their goals through daily efforts and challenges, thus using Coaching without knowing it (Cabeceiro, 2013). Considering Coaching is a fundamental behaviour for leadership, leaders who coach are paramount for the well-being of any organizations, they are natural coaches (Rego et al., 2007a) and their competencies might have been developed in a natural way (McDermott and Jago, 2005). However, these competencies and skills can and should be trained. Even those who exhibit a propensity for Coaching might learn how to improve practices (Rego et al., 2007a), namely through in-depth systematic training and constant monitoring (McLean et al., 2005).

Therefore, the Coaching leader is someone who, without necessarily being a professional coach, uses Coaching skills to help their employees' development. It is recommended that the Coaching leader goes through a Coaching process to recognise its advantages (Rego et al., 2007a). Knowing that individual Coaching of employees was emphasised as an important technique to influence their attitudes (Stock and Hoyer, 2005) and that, in an organization, the immediate superior is someone's natural coach because they know well their attitudes and areas where to improve (Rego et al., 2007a), a team leader might use motivational Coaching to boost their team's effort levels, advisory Coaching to improve development strategies and educational Coaching to raise awareness and skills (Rego et al., 2007a). Leadership is based on a relationship between two adults: this leader helps others pave their path of self-development by fostering it; each one discovers the best form of expression and shows their talents (Cunha and Rego, 2009).

Learning how to be a coach is like learning how to rule one's life: it does not have to be perfect, one just has to do the best possible management, with commitment, integrity, humbleness, and a certain dose of humour (McDermott and Jago, 2005).

Leader's Coaching Skills

A skill is a pooling of knowledge, abilities, aptitudes, and other measurable individual characteristics that result in performance differentiation (Spencer et al., 1994; Schippmann et al., 2000). The Coaching leader exhibits specific skills that empower them for the Coaching process, with a clear emphasis on personal and relational skills.

According to McCarthy and Milner (2013), researchers have identified specific Coaching skills as desirable in leaders. These are nurturing listening skills and communication that involve others, setting clear performance expectations, increasing self-awareness, providing constructive feedback, and having regular conversations between leaders or coaches and employees in which individual and organizational goals are discussed (Larsson and Vinberg, 2010; Sparks and Gentry, 2008). Interpersonal effectiveness, the ability to listen, empathy, patience, adaptability, and problem-solving are also examples of a specific set of skills that leaders as coaches must have if they are to be successful in this area (Ladyshewsky, 2010; Wasylysyn, 2003). Mclean et al. (2005) defined a four-dimension scale to assess leaders' Coaching skills: (1) open communication, (2) teamwork approach, (3) people appreciation, and (4) ambiguity acceptance.

According to Hamlin et al. (2006), the competence profile of the Coaching leader is a combination of knowledge, competencies, and values, which they aggregate into two groups, (1) group strengthening and (2) group enabling. In the first one, opportunities are encouraged and created to enhance solutions and promote self-reflection focusing on results; in the second one, feedback is improved both ways, confidently working together with the team and promoting a learning environment.

The Coaching leader is known for giving permanent support to their employees in order to develop individual skills to enable reaching the proposed goals. They also aim at giving their employees power and responsibility to act, improving their relationship and the organizational environment, and consequently eliminating the barriers often seen in the leader-employee relationship.

As Dolan (2011) mentions, Coaching skills are also encountered in millions of parents who renounce their needs to fully develop their children's potential, encouraging them to surpass difficulties and reach success. Similarly, in the organizations, leaders with Coaching skills promote their team's development and believe in each employee potential, helping them to identify their skills

through effort and constant challenge. They can meet the proposed goals and they can also perform positive changes. João (2011) refers that it is the coach's responsibility to provide discovery moments and clarity; therefore, the relationship between the Coaching leader and their employee is set on the indisputable principle of studying, asking pertinent questions and perceiving.

EMPIRICAL STUDY

An exploratory empirical study was conducted to confirm if a leader with Coaching skills has a positive impact on their employees' attitudinal and behavioural responses.

The Effects of Coaching Leadership Style

Previous research has demonstrated the impact of Coaching on important organizational outcomes (e.g., Ellinger, 2013; Gilley et al., 2010; Huang and Hsieh, 2015; McGovern et al., 2001). A recent study confirmed that managerial Coaching was connected to unit-level performance (Tanskanen et al., 2018). Other studies have focused on employees' perceptions of Coaching relationships (Graham et al., 1993) and indicated that Coaching leadership inspires better individual performance (Huang and Hsieh 2015; Wheeler 2011). The meta-analysis conducted by Christian et al. (2011) found that typical Coaching behaviours predict employees' work engagement.

Also, empirical evidence confirming that supervisors who provide Coaching are viewed more positively has been found (Fry et al., 1986). Through listening, asking critical questions, and providing performance feedback (Ellinger et al., 2003a), leaders who act as coaches foster their employees' appreciation and improve the quality of the relationships with them. Leaders with Coaching skills can build relationships based on trust and on believing in work team members' capabilities (Ladyshevsky, 2010). Employees repay these efforts by demonstrating work attitudes and behaviours desirable and valuable to their supervisors and organization, such as affective commitment and enhanced performance.

Lowman (2005) observed that work complicity between a Coaching leader and their employee determines success. Several scholars mention that a leader with Coaching skills promotes a series of positive effects in organizations (Grant, 2014; Kalkavan and Katrinli, 2014; Thach, 2002). A Coaching leader

might improve several aspects in the organizational context while presenting efficient and long-lasting results, specifically accomplishing proposed goals, offering problem solutions, increasing the team's availability and involvement, improving individual performance and resilience. On the same line of thought, Rosha (2014) considers Coaching is beneficial for individuals, insofar as they become more responsible, and it fosters both personal and professional development. As several competencies improve, it is possible to enhance an individuals' performance through their own efforts and determination.

According to Hagen and Peterson (2015), Coaching behaviours epitomising positive dimensions of leadership should lead to positive performance results. Organizations are, therefore, increasingly expecting leaders to coach their followers since research has confirmed positive correlations between Coaching and employee's outcomes (Ellinger et al., 2011; Wheeler, 2011).

Coaching Leadership and Employees' Affective Commitment

According to Allen and Meyer (1990, 1996), organizational commitment can be characterized by three distinct mindsets, namely a desire to remain with an organization (i.e., affective commitment), a felt obligation to remain in the organization (i.e., normative commitment), and the perceived cost of leaving (i.e., continuance commitment). The literature shows that, out of these three components, affective commitment — defined as employees' positive emotional attachment and identification with their organization (Allen and Meyer, 1990) — has more desirable outcomes for organizations (Meyer et al., 2002).

Committed people represent a source of differentiation and a competitive advantage for the organization (Simintiras et al., 2012). Affective commitment portrays a significative relationship with organizational results (Solís and Monroy, 2015) and a positive association with employees' contextual performance (Simintiras et al., 2012; Pradhan and Pradhan, 2015). People with a strong affective connection with an organization are the ones who contribute the most for its performance (Cunha and Rego, 2009).

To improve their performance, organizations must be able to develop their employees' affective commitment (Rego et al., 2010). Someone who is truly committed to fulfilling the organization's goals undertakes reasonable efforts to meet those goals and exhibit voluntary prosocial behaviours (like cooperation and sharing) (Pradhan and Pradhan, 2015). Employees' commitment and

the decision of staying in an organization are more often conducted by an emotional connection with the leader and the organization than by logical reasoning (Pradhan and Pradhan, 2015), since the experience of positive emotions (like satisfaction and achievement) by employees influences the way they look at the organization (Vitória, 2010). Recent studies have shown that positive ways of leadership have an impact on the employee's affective commitment, e.g. transformational leadership (Pradhan and Pradhan, 2015; Ribeiro et al., 2018b) and authentic leadership (Ribeiro et al., 2018a; Semedo et al., 2018 and 2019).

In the same line of thought, when leaders coach employees, the latter's organizational commitment improves (Ellinger et al., 2003a; Kim et al., 2013). Coaching leadership can thus be regarded as a form of perceived organizational support of workers. This theoretical framework (see Eisenberger et al., 2002) explains that employees reciprocate with affective commitment (Kim, 2014) because leaders with Coaching skills act as organizations' agents (Kottke and Sharafinski, 1988).

The Coaching leader creates empathy and trust, they wish to help others to grow, they are open to feedback and to personalised learning and they believe most people want to learn (Berg and Karlsen, 2016; Ellinger and Bostrom, 2002a, 2002b). These leaders build good relationships with their employees and, consequently, they raise their employees' positive feelings, which, in turn, raise their affective commitment.

The leaders that adopt a Coaching leadership style that includes listening, helping, supporting, developing, removing obstacles, and empowering others (Berg and Karlsen, 2016), promote more positive work experiences. Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory can offer insights into how coaching can effectively influence attitudes such as affective commitment and intrinsic motivation (Onyemah, 2009).

Given the above, the researchers set forth the following research hypothesis:

H1: Coaching leadership relates positively to employees' affective commitment.

Coaching Leadership Style and Employees' Creativity

In a knowledge-based economy, creativity has become one of the most important sources of sustained competitive advantage for organizations (Joo et al., 2012), even though there are organizations who operate in survival mode and do not leave much room for creativity (Chapman-Clarke, 2015). Amabile et al. (1996) suggest a set of conditions that stimulate or restrain creativity:

fostering creativity (to generate and to develop new ideas), freedom/autonomy (in a daily based professional conduct, being in control of one's own work), resources (the higher the number of resources allocated to a project, the higher the creativity levels), pressures (extreme pressure might undermine creativity, but a certain level of pressure might have a positive influence), organizational obstacles to creativity (formal management structure).

Employee creativity can be defined as the process of generating, promoting, and implementing novel and useful ideas or solutions concerning products, services, and processes (Amabile, 1988; George and Zhou, 2007; Shalley et al., 2004; Zhou, 2003; Zhou and Shalley, 2003) and represents an important aspect of organizational change and organizations' efficiency (Woodman et al., 1993). However, it involves risks, conflicts, difficulties, failures, and ethical dilemmas (Tu and Lu, 2013).

Since creativity is positively associated with a focus on attention and negatively with a sense of uncertainty (Mueller et al., 2011), it is vital that the organization does not neglect its responsibility in fostering an environment conducive to a healthy sharing of ideas. The psychological significance of environmental events influences creative behaviour to a great extent (Amabile et al., 1996). The closest social environment might influence both the level and the frequency of employee's creative behaviour, and it might hinder and discourage the suggestion of new and useful ideas (Amabile et al., 1996; González-Gómez and Richter, 2014). Management of creative processes represents a challenge and interaction with social context dictates how creativity is coded, interpreted and assimilated. Therefore, environments which support and encourage creativity, showing creativity is desirable, might drive employees' efforts and resources towards the creation of new and useful ideas (González-Gómez and Richter, 2014).

However, a stimulating environment on its own does not feed human creativity: inner factors (as motivation) are crucial to trigger bursts of creativity, whether this is incremental or radical (González-Gómez and Richter, 2014). As a principle of inner motivation for creativity, Amabile et al. (1996) suggest that people are more creative when they are inherently motivated by interest, enjoyment, satisfaction, and challenge than by the work itself. This is critical for creativity because an inherently motivated person tends to be curious and learning-oriented, cognitively flexible, willing to take risks and persistent when faced with obstacles, challenges and opportunities (Rego et al., 2007b).

Leaders can also promote or inhibit their followers' creativity (e.g., Liu et al., 2012; Tung and Yu, 2016). They can promote it by encouraging positive interactions and developing a supportive work climate. More specifically,

leaders can stimulate employees' creativity by fostering positive, fair, and transparent interactions (Madjar et al., 2002; Muceldili et al., 2013; Peterson et al., 2012); demonstrating the skills needed to solve technical and creative problems (Mumford et al., 2002); or providing support (Madjar et al., 2002; Oldham and Cummings, 1996).

According to George (2007), leaders have been considered a crucial factor in nurturing or suppressing employee creativity. Shin and Zhou (2003) found that supportive relationships between leaders and their followers improve followers' creativity. Prior studies have sought to understand the role of positive leadership — including transformational leadership (Gong, Huang and Farh, 2009; Shin and Zhou, 2003) and ethical leadership (Ma and Cheng, 2013) — in employees' creativity. Therefore, researchers may have a good reason to posit that Coaching leadership has a positive relationship with employees' creativity. Leaders who adopt Coaching as part of their leadership practices truly care about their followers and want to help them succeed. This encourages a positive environment in which individuals feel free to express their creativity. Coaching leadership also promotes the expression of ideas and opinions, and stimulates positive interpersonal relationships, and consequently, increases employees' positive emotions. These emotions create the urge to play, adopt unconventional thinking, and be creative (Wright and Cropanzano, 2004). Positive emotions also promote well-being at work, increasing employees' desire to explore and assimilate innovative ideas, to discover fresh information, and to develop their individual potential (Wright and Cropanzano, 2004), thereby inducing workers to be more creative. According to Ellinger et al. (2003a), supervisory Coaching is positively associated with employees' job satisfaction, that is related with positive emotions, which, in turn, stimulate employees' creativity (e.g., Fredrickson, 2003; Gavin and Mason, 2004).

Therefore, behaviours related to a Coaching leadership style create an atmosphere in which creativity is enhanced. The leader is responsible for creating a collaborative and well-balanced organizational culture which enables team assistance, interpersonal trust, and creative innovation (Joo et al., 2012).

Considering the above, the researchers present the following research hypothesis:

H2: Coaching leadership relates positively to employees' creativity.

Coaching Leadership Style and Employees' Customer Orientation

It is crucial to understand customers' preferences and needs and to create value for them so that organizations can maintain a competitive market position (May-Chium et al., 2015). Customer orientation is one of the dimensions of market orientation (Pekovic and Rolland, 2012; May-Chium et al., 2015). A market-oriented organization seeks to identify and satisfy customers' needs before competitors, and competitor orientation (another market-oriented dimension) consists of understanding the strengths, the weaknesses, and the capacities of current and future competitors (May-Chium et al., 2015). In market orientation, the customer orientation element improves both employees' and consumers satisfaction, it raises productivity and the quality of the service in the organization, which leads to a better global performance; thus, customer orientation is seen as a fundamental element of an organization's strategic orientation (May-Chium et al., 2015).

There is a positive connection between market orientation (and, consequently, customer orientation) and organizational performance (May-Chium et al., 2015). Customer-oriented behaviours are positively connected with organization profitability, providing sales growth without a concomitant increase in costs (Grizzle et al., 2009). Organizations who seek to create a long-lasting competitive advantage should offer their clients a greater value (Pkovic and Roland, 2012). In this regard, customer orientation is seen as a fundamental element of an organization's success (Verghese et al., 2015), due to its importance on generating long time profits (Chih et al., 2009), because it significantly improves organizational performance calculated on profit basis and gross surplus derived from paid labour (Pkovic and Roland, 2012) and considering customer-oriented employees are the ones who reveal the highest level of work satisfaction (Sousa and Coelho, 2013). According to Henning-Thurau (2004), the level of customer orientation of service companies' employees is one of the critical factors of customer satisfaction. Research shows that customer-oriented employees show better performance and exhibit more organizational citizenship behaviours (Babakus., 2009; Donovan et al., 2004; Kusluvan, 2003).

Customer orientation can be defined as the identification and understanding of customers' needs and the adoption of solutions to successfully satisfy those needs (Williams and Attaway, 1996). Brown et al. (2002) define customer orientation as an employee's predisposition to address customers' needs in a

professional context. Specifically, the external customer expresses their wishes and needs and the internal customer, as a customer-oriented organizational element, operates in a manner that meets their pretensions (Senra, 2015) – the greatest the customer orientation, the greatest their satisfaction.

Customer orientation in an organization depends on the customer orientation degree the top management wields in that organization (Verghese et al., 2015). Even though there is little research on leadership and market orientation impact on performance (May-Chium et al., 2015) and on employees' behaviours (Chow et al., 2015), evidence suggests that leaders have an essential role while influencing employees' attitudes towards customers, exhibiting proportional levels (Liao and Subramony, 2008). Révillion (2013) refers to the importance of leading by example from top to bottom so that all the organization adopts the customer orientation perspective.

Also, Gazzoli et al. (2012), on their research with restaurants' employees, show that empowerment exerts a direct and positive influence on customer orientation. Consequently, leaders who support and grant their followers autonomy and power to decide to contribute to their customer orientation. Leaders who adopt Coaching as part of their leadership practices truly want to help their followers thrive. The leader as a coach encourages individuals to express their ideas and opinions, and stimulates their autonomy and independence and, consequently, promotes empowerment among followers. Employees who are more confident concerning their skills (self-efficiency) – considering leaders with Coaching skills can promote this – tend to understand the importance of anticipating their customers' needs and tend to be happy in offering a quick quality service (the need of delivery). Finally, if employees exhibit influence and control in their workplaces, they tend to use their initiative to respond to their own need of interacting in a better way and improving their relationship with customers (the need of personal relationship) (Gazzoli et al., 2012).

Thus, with a Coaching leader stimulating employees' autonomy, prompting them to research and test different customer approaches, expressing the acceptance of different opinions and helping employees to be successful, employees will recognise their leader commitment. Necessarily, there will be a greater tendency to generate results that translate into a high performance shown by the employees and into greater proactivity towards customer relationships, namely through the willingness to satisfy customers' needs.

Based on this, the researchers propose the following research hypothesis:

H3: Coaching leadership relates positively to employees' customer orientation.

Coaching Leadership Style, Employees' Affective Commitment and Customer Orientation

The leaders that adopt a Coaching leadership style creates empathy and trust wish to help others to grow, are open to feedback and contribute to their employees' positive feelings (Berg and Karlsen, 2016; Ellinger and Bostrom, 2002a, 2002b), which, in turn, raises their Affective Commitment. Affective Commitment, in turn, leads to more customer-oriented behaviours (Chang and Lin, 2008). Employees who perceive organizational support, develop a strong affective attachment (Vandenberghe et al., 2004), and leaders with Coaching skills act as organizations' agents (Kottke and Sharafinski, 1988), therefore these leaders promote Affective Commitment. Consequently, affectively committed individuals make efforts on behalf of the company, since they perceive the organizations' winnings as their own (Jaramillo et al., 2005); understanding customers' preferences and needs and creating value for them help organizations maintain a competitive market position (May-Chium et al., 2015).

Given the above, the researchers present the following research hypothesis:

H4: Affective commitment mediates the relationship between coaching leadership and employees' customer orientation.

Study Methodology

- **Procedures:** Primary data were collected through a questionnaire. This was an in-person questionnaire because the researchers wanted to motivate respondents to cooperate, to get involved in the study and to give honest and precise answers. One of the researchers went to the organization and made sure the leader was barred from their employees while they answered the questionnaire. Each employee answered questions related to their level of affective commitment, creativity, and customer orientation, as well as related to their perception of their leader Coaching skills. In most cases, the whole universe of employees in direct contact with the leader answered the questionnaire. Respondents had worked with their leader for, at least, six months (for this minimum six-month period, see Rego et al., 2010).
- **Measures:** The constructs were measured with validated scales adapted from relevant literature. Also, information was collected on

respondents' demographics, such as age, gender, education, and tenure. Using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = "I do not identify at all"; 5 = "I identify completely") for creativity and a 7-point Likert scale (1 = "Does not apply at all"; 7 = "Applies completely") for the other variables, employees were asked to indicate to what extent each statement applied to them (i.e., affective commitment, creativity, and customer orientation) and to their leader (i.e., perceptions of managerial Coaching skills). The independent variable Leader Coaching Skills was measured by a scale based on the research conducted by McLean et al. (2005); a sample item is 'When you think about ways of reaching goals, you seek for information.' The dependent variable Affective Commitment was measured by a scale based on the research conducted by Rego et al. (2010); a sample item is 'I feel great affection for this organization.' The dependent variable Creativity was measured by a scale based on the research conducted by Zhou and George (2001); a sample item is 'I offer new and practical ideas to improve performance.' The dependent variable Customer Orientation was measured by a scale based on the research conducted by Homburg et al. (2009); a sample item is 'I want to understand what my customer needs are.' The translation of the items into Portuguese followed the standard procedures for translations of research instruments (Brislin and Berry, 1986). In what concerns the internal consistency of these scales, it was found that the four variables used presented Cronbach's Alphas between 0.92 and 0.95, which confirms a very good internal consistency of the measures here used (perceptions of managerial coaching skills: alpha [α] = 0.95; affective commitment: α = 0.92; creativity; α = 0.94; and customer orientation: α = 0.92).

- **Sample:** The sample for this study is made up of 80 Portuguese who work in the front office of several SME. 51.2% of the respondents are male, with an average age of 36.5 years old. More than half of the respondents (58.9%) has a college education. In what concerns the organization, 73.8% of the respondents belong to a private organization and they are linked to the organization for an average of 9.2 years.

Preliminarily Analysis

Before conducting the exploratory factor analysis, sampling adequacy was analysed by looking at the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistic. The value

obtained for this statistic is 0.857, which is higher than the recommended cut-off point of 0.6. The significance of Barlett's Test of Sphericity further confirmed that the sample variances are equal to the population (Snedecor and Cochran, 1989). Normality was checked using skewness and kurtosis values. The observed skewness and kurtosis statistics are less than the cut-off value, so the sample was considered to have a normal distribution.

In this study, data were collected using a single source method, raising concerns about potential common-method variance. To assess this bias's threat, Harman's single factor test was conducted, showing that the first factor only accounted for 26.7% of the 72.3% explained variance of all items, which suggests that common-method variance is not a severe problem (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986).

Results and Discussion

Data were analysed using IBM's SPSS software 22.0 version. Table 1 lists the means, SDs, and correlations between variables. Results show that Coaching Skills are positively and significantly correlated with Affective Commitment ($r=0.678$), Creativity ($r=0.241$) and Customer Orientation ($r=0.468$).

Table 2 presents the results of regression analyses performed for the Affective Commitment, Creativity, and Customer Orientation — with managerial Coaching skills as the predictor variable. These analyses facilitated the testing of the three research hypotheses.

The results show that managerial Coaching skills positively relate with Affective Commitment ($\beta = 0.837$; $p < 0.000$), Creativity ($\beta = 0.160$; $p < 0.031$) and Customer Orientation ($\beta = 0.379$; $p < 0.000$). These relationships are statistically significant (see Model 1, Model 2 and Model 3 in Table 2). Therefore, the hypotheses are confirmed.

Table 1. Ms, SDs, and correlations between variables

	M	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Managerial coaching skills (MCS)	5,16	1,07	-			
2. Affective Commitment (AC)	5,46	1,31	0,678**	-		
3. Creativity (C)	3,61	0,70	0,241*	0,198	-	
4. Customer Orientation (CO)	6,03	0,86	0,468**	0,426**	0,206	-
Notes: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$	C= 5-point response scale; MCS; AC and CO = 7-point response scale.					

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Table 2. Regression analyses: how managerial coaching skills predicts affective commitment, creativity, and customer orientation (standardised coefficients)

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Affective Commitment	0.837***		
Creativity		0.160*	
Customer Orientation			0.379***
R ²	0.460	0.058	0.219
Adjusted R ²	0.453	0.046	0.209
F	66.497	4.823	21.876
Sig	0.000	0.031	0.000
Hypotheses	H1 supported	H2 supported	H3 supported
*p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001			

To test Hypothesis 4, Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedure for mediation analysis was followed. Table 3 presents the results obtained, which suggest that Affective Commitment ($\beta = 0.201$; n.s.) does not mediate the effect of Managerial Coaching Skills on Customer Orientation.

The results do not support the mediator role of Affective Commitment in the relationship between Managerial Coaching Skills and Customer Orientation. It is possible that the employee does not need to be affectively committed to demonstrate customer-oriented behaviours. Other variables may explain this relationship and more studies with larger samples are needed to explore these effects.

Table 3. Regression analyses: how affective Commitment mediates the relationship between Managerial Coaching Skills and Customer Orientation (standardised coefficients)

	Model 4
	(Customer Orientation)
Managerial Coaching Skills	0.332*
Affective Commitment	0.201
R ²	0.241
Adjusted R ²	0.221
F	12.209
Hypothesis	H4 not supported
*p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001	

Nevertheless, this study provides empirical evidence that managerial Coaching skills promote employees' Affective Commitment, Creativity, and Customer Orientation. Leaders with Coaching skills, such as active listening, supporting, developing, empowering others (Berg and Karlsen, 2016), and who provide constructive feedback help employees grow professionally while establishing good relationships with them. The reciprocity principle suggests that employees with a Coaching leader show their appreciation by developing a sense of attachment to their organization (Onyemah, 2009). Coaching leadership also promotes employees' job satisfaction and positive emotions which, in turn, encourage unconventional thinking, and creativity (Ellinger et al., 2003a; Fredrickson, 2003; Gavin and Mason, 2004; Wright and Cropanzano, 2004). Finally, a leader who acts as a coach encourages individuals to express their ideas and opinions and stimulates their autonomy and independence, consequently promoting empowerment among followers. Empowerment, in its turn, has a positive effect on customer orientation (Gazzoli et al., 2012). Employees feel more valued and respected by leaders with Coaching skills and tend to develop better customer relationships (Deeter-Schmelz et al., 2008).

The results showed that, when leaders adopt a Coaching leadership style, their followers are more affectively committed, exhibit more creative behaviour, and perform in a more customer-oriented way. These findings are consistent with existing literature. Previous studies have confirmed that when leaders coach employees, the latter's organizational commitment improves (Ellinger et al., 2003; Kim et al., 2013). Leaders who adopt a Coaching leadership style establish trust and build good relationships with their followers and, consequently, enhance employees' positive feelings, which, in turn, increase the latter's affective commitment.

Leaders have traditionally been considered a crucial factor in nurturing or strangling employees' creativity (George, 2007). A positive work environment inspires employees to be more creative, so leaders must encourage and develop a supportive work climate, and fair and transparent interactions (Madjar, Oldham, and Pratt, 2002; Muceldili, Turan, and Erdil, 2013). Leaders who adopt a Coaching leadership style promote a positive work climate and establish supportive relationships with their followers and, therefore, contribute to their followers' creativity.

According to Pousa and Mathieu (2014), managerial Coaching behaviour can help bank employees develop their customer orientation. The leader as a coach treats the employee as a valuable and knowledgeable partner and establishes a trustful and high-quality working relationship. Employees feel

more valued and respected by these leaders and tend to give back by working harder, developing more trust on the leader, sharing more information (Onyemah, 2009; Pousa, 2012) and developing better customer relationships (Deeter-Schmelz et al., 2008).

In short, it can be inferred that adopting a Coaching leadership style is decisive for positively affecting the attitudinal and behavioural responses of collaborators. The leader's performance is vital in organizational success, and Coaching skills in a leader may very well be advantageous.

These research findings could prove beneficial to managers and organizations, providing insights into the impact of coaching leadership style on employees' positive outcomes. In other words, it is relevant to examine to what extent a leader as coach has a decisive role in creating their followers specific attitudinal and behavioural responses.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Given that research on coaching leadership outcomes at the employee level is still scarce, various possible avenues are available for future research. Other variables could be included in additional studies to test the impact of managers' coaching skills on employees' responses (e.g., affective wellbeing, empowerment, work engagement, employee's performance).

It is also important to understand if the organizational culture welcomes Coaching, if a leader's Coaching skills influence and/or are influenced by the organizational culture – identifying whether the organization welcomes or rejects certain behaviours – if it promotes a delimited and established organizational climate or if it restrains the scope of action of the individuals forming it. Also, it seems appropriate to expand research to other organizations with differentiated cultures, from SMEs to multinational corporations.

It also seems relevant and highly fruitful to establish a connection between Coaching training and Coaching skills. Considering Coaching skills can be improved through training (McLean et al., 2005) and that many of the managers involved in Coaching programmes do it not only to assess its efficiency – eventually to apply in all the organizations – but also to improve their own Coaching skills (Grey et al., 2011), the correlation between a leader's Coaching skills and their Coaching training seems highly likely. Training needs in this area stress the importance of a longitudinal study which allows to train and follow up a leader's evolution, focusing on self-perception and on employees and peers' perception, acting assessors of attitudinal and behavioural

differences, but also on the resulting organizational improvements, namely in what concerns yield, customer retention, ROI among others.

THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGEMENT

The present chapter aims to contribute to the development of Leadership and Coaching theory. Several authors call for more empirical studies that link managers' Coaching behaviours and employees' attitudes and behaviours (e.g., Dello Russo et al., 2017; Ellinger et al., 2003a; Huang and Hsieh, 2015; Tanskanen et al., 2018). Tanskanen et al. (2018) report that the relationships between leaders and their followers are not particularly emphasised in studies of managerial coaching. Therefore, from a theoretical perspective, the current study is innovative, contributing to an understanding of how managers' coaching skills influence employees' outcomes.

From a practical perspective, this chapter provides potential benefits to managers and organizations through insights into the impact of managerial coaching on employees' Affective Commitment, Creativity and Customer Orientation. Therefore, managers should develop Coaching skills such as maintaining open communication, adopting a team approach, appreciating people, and accepting ambiguity. More specifically, a team leader who clearly assumes themselves as someone with Coaching attitude resorts to Coaching valences to:

- Foster employees' commitment (through creating a work basis that promotes employees' commitment, diversity management and creating a connection with employees), which leads to a greater affective connection with the organization;
- Guide performance for delivering results (through constructive feedback, setting performance plans with SMART goals and effective performance assessments) and, necessarily, aiming at market and client orientation;
- Avoid actions that create employee's dependency;
- Stimulate employees' initiative;
- Exploit tools that challenge employees to think by themselves;
- Resort to other employees to develop teams who 'plant' seeds in the right places);

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- Motivate employees (e.g., resorting to practical strategies that allow rewarding adequate behaviours, recognizing differences among employees or making sure business needs are in line with individual needs);
- Delegate tasks (determining what is delegated to whom and overcoming employees' resistance);
- Decide which areas need to be improved (making sure employees are engaged in their own learning);
- Exploit a constantly changing market (preparing employees for their careers' self-management);
- Teach employees to create opportunities (boosting creativity and fostering innovation and entrepreneurship);
- Recognise which competencies should be strengthened and which behaviours should be avoided so that team development goals are met, and good results are achieved.

Organizations need to focus on selecting managers with personality traits that facilitate the development of Coaching skills. Organizations should implement appropriate training activities, executive Coaching, and mentoring programs for managers to strengthen their Coaching skills.

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Chapter 3

Application of Equity Theory on Adult Learning

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ABSTRACT

Learning is a complicated process, notwithstanding the fact that the individual learners, particularly adults, are complicated beings. Adult learning is a subject of ever-growing interest. With the changing demographic situation of the developed world, there has been a focus on the concept of lifelong learning. Studying adult learning theory is rapidly growing across the globe in the context of human resource development. The application of equity theory and its impacts are rarely considered in studies of adult learning and human resource development, and the link between the two theories remains unclear. In fact, the role of equity theory and its impacts are rarely considered in studies of adult learning and human resource development. Hence, through the structured literature review, this chapter explores the role of equity theory in the context of adult learning theory and through that identifies the theoretical gaps and gives suggestions for future research.

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INTRODUCTION

The adult learner is a social presence who in relation to learning has to contend with his individual person and the social and societal environment he belongs to. As an individual, the adult learner would have his individual priorities and value system in life which is a product of previous years experience or life, influence by his environment and his individual preference and priorities. Furthermore, the adult learners' interaction with social and societal forces also affects his value system, priorities and views about life and learning in this particular context.

The emergence of the knowledge society, rapid overview of new technology and the changing work place increases the importance of adult learning. Moreover, in the integrated literature review related to motivation in training and development, scholars discussed about the Adult learners who have their particular personal biography, view of the world, what is needed to survive and succeed in their own endeavors and they even have their own personal opinion of success. Internal and external impacts on the adult learner both in their past and present experiences form

these views. These views in turn form the adult learners' motivation and obstacles to learning. These Adults learners can be defined either based on age, cognitive maturity or a nontraditional learner. Each definition has there own strong points but it is much more pragmatic to define an adult learner based on age. Several international organizations such as the UNESCO, OECD and EC have denoted to adult learners in various documents within the age group of 24 to 65. Additionally the selection, evaluation and classification of an adult learner become a lot simpler if it were based on age.

In the organizations learning intention of employees bring up their readiness, willingness and also their plans to overcome a gaps that they are experiencing in between their existing skills, attitudes and knowledge which related to their job and those that are vital or assumed to be needed for a person in order to keep that position, by following a specific educational track or through training (Kyntd et al., 2011). According to many scholars formation of a learning intention plays a vital role and takes up a central duty within the process of decision making and it always with respect to the any arrangement in learning activities (Kyntd, 2012). The objective to take part in learning activities was a reliable forecaster of actual participation in those learning activities (Maurer et al., 2003) and in addition to that, a learning

intention is well thought-out as a proximal determinant of participation in education and training (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Getting our employees to commit themselves to taking part in learning activities is considered the first valuable step in the direction of actual participation (Baldwin, Magjuka, & Loher, 1991; Guerrero & Sire, 2011; Hicks & Klimoski, 1987; Mathieu et al., 1992, Maurer et al., 2003).

Much of the early work in adult learning focused on intelligence, and whether intelligence declined with age (Merriam, 1993). The purpose of this study is to examine the role of equity theory of motivation in the context of adult learning. This research will utilize the framework of the principles of adult learning to identify the role of equity theory of motivation. This will help to understand the various aspects of the equity theory and adult learning theory in order to maximize the employee motivation.

However, the role of equity theory in the context of adult learning remains unclear. In fact, role of equity theory and its impacts are rarely considered in studies of adult learning and human resource development.

To address this gap, we advance a theoretical frame work of equity theory in the context of adult learning.

METHODOLOGY

The methodology used for this study is an integrated review of scholarly literature and books on equity theory and books on adult learning theory. The study limited to literature related mainly to equity theory and adult learning theories, Human Resource Development and other related theories which are linked and affected with the equity theory and adult learning. Databases that were searched in many published research papers included Emerald Insight, ERIC, Oxford Journals sage journals and Google Scholar articles.

THEORETICAL FOUNDATION OF ADULT LEARNING THEORY

Adult Learning Theory

Malcolm Shepherd Knowles was a well-known for the use of the term Andragogy as the same to adult education. Andragogy, as defined by Malcolm

S. Knowles (1984), is a theory founded on the psychological definition of adult, which states that people become adults psychologically when they reach at a self-concept of being responsible for their own lives, of being self-directing. The theory of andragogy contends that adults should be trained differently from children because their learning approaches are extremely different (Birzer, 2004; Taylor & Kroth, 2009; Wahler, Cartor, Fleischman, & Lambert, 1993). Adult learner dealing with separate, digital contexts in order to reach different goals for their professional development. ((Hermans, Kalz, & Koper, 2013). Each adult-learning experience needs to have clearly defined learning aims that address both the big picture of the learning experience and tactical session-specific objectives to retain learners focused. (Hefler & Markowitsch, 2010).

Clinton Longenecker, Rob Abernathy, (2013) Knowledgeable and successful professionals frequently possess egos and attitudes that can be obstacles to effective adult learning. it seek out ways to recognize participant talent and experience while at the same time transfer a wide variety of messages that the present learning experience is about “building on existing talents”, “taking performance to the next level” or “sharing new information that can provide participants a competitive advantage” (Longenecker & Abernathy, 2013).

Theories of Adult Learning

To answer the question ‘what’ role in adult learning in equity theory, it is necessary to have an understanding of adult learning motivation. This requires a more rapid look into a number of learning theories, such as Andragogy Theory, Characteristics of Adult Learners Theory, Margin Theory and Proficiency Theory. The first two theories, Knowles’ Andragogy and Cross’s Characteristics of Adult Learners can be characterized as adult learners’ attributes theories. Knowles’ (1980) theory was based upon certain assumptions.

The adult participants were thought to enroll or participate because of a number of needs such as, Social contact: these members want to generate and companion friendships, to be recognized by others, to improvement insight into personal complications, to increase relationships and their social position. They contribute for the reason that of their need for group activities and affable friendships. Social stimulation: participants enrolled for this factor want to get assistance from boredom, overcome the hindrance of day-to-day living, and have little hours away from other responsibilities (Boshier & Collins, 1985).

Additional, Cross (1981) proposed that the features of Adult Learners (CAL) theory. This theory was mainly based upon two classes of variables, personal characteristics and situational characteristics. The personal characteristics take account of the psychological stages. These were offered along a variety, which reflects growth from childhood to adulthood. Generally, the theory was measured comprehensive and holistic in explaining “what and how” adults learn, however the variables were rather broadly well-defined and it has yet to be empirically tested (Merriam & Caffarella, 2007).

At the same time, McClusky’s Margin theory undertakes that the adult’s “load of life” needs to be balanced compared to the adult’s “power of life”. Load of life here characterizes the adult’s development, problems, roles and various other responsibilities. Power of life denotes to the knowledge and skills that an individual needs in life. If power of life is larger than the load of life, there is a “margin in life.” Additional, Knox (1980) as cited by Abdullah, 2008 describes “proficiency” as “the capability to perform satisfactorily if given the opportunity” (p. 70). This performance in all tasks includes some arrangement of knowledge, attitude, and skill. Adult achievement and motivation in both learning activities and life characters depend largely upon the discrepancy among the prevailing and the desired level of proficiency. The purpose of adult learning is therefore to improve proficiency in order to advance performance and effectiveness.

However, Houle somehow conceptualized motivation as an inherent disposition or inclination towards learning. Houle identified three subcategories of adult learners in terms of their motivational orientations: (1) the goal-oriented, (2) the activity-oriented, and (3) the learning-oriented (Houle, 1961). Goal-oriented learners are “all alike in their confident acceptance of adult education as a way to solve problems or to follow certain interests” (Houle, 2003, p. 23). Those learners are likely to take a course to get a promotion, or to have arrangement with family problems. They search for education that is immediately practical, and attribute similar motives to other learners. The activity-oriented engage in learning for reasons such as creating social contacts or escaping an undesirable situation (e.g., boredom, aggravating family relationship), rather than for the contented or the declared purpose of the education program. The learning-oriented seek knowledge for its own sake. However Houle’s findings were criticized for its small number of sample which is 22 and the method of qualitative interviewing which used without meticulous presentation of the audit trail (Boshier & Collins, 1985; Kim & Merriam, 2004). Boshier conducted several large-scale quantitative efforts to test Houle’s typology in different contexts between year 1971 and year

1991 (refer to Boshier, 1971, 1982, 1991; Boshier & Collins, 1983, 1985). And these studies began with psychometrically constructed instruments administered to a large sample. The subjects completed a questionnaire containing 40 odd self-rating items (motives for participation) on a Likert scale. Their reactions were then subject to statistical classification, usually factor or cluster analysis. The resultant outputs are different versions of the Education Participation Scale (EPS), which have developed widely known and been accepted as research instruments by many. The Education Participation Scale (EPS), groups similar answers together and comes up with a number of major categories. Basically, all versions of the EPS contain of factors roughly isomorphic with the three components of Houle's typology, on the other hand demonstrate that activity-orientation is actually more complex than Houle envisaged. In place of example, Boshier (1971) found that the activity orientation was multifaceted and composed of seven items labeled Social Welfare, Social Contact, Social Conformity, Social Sharing, Television Abhorrence, Social Improvement and Escape, and Interpersonal Facilitation. A future study came up with four items: Social Stimulation, Social Contact, External Expectations, and Community Service (Boshier & Collins, 1985). The newest version of the EPS similarly identified four classes of activity-oriented motives. Two classes were the same as those found by Boshier and Collins (1985): Social Contact and Social Stimulation. The other two were dissimilar: Communication Improvement and Family Togetherness. These variations of result seem to suggest that those adults' motives for education or learning modification over time and vary with contexts of investigation.

Many of the investigations into adults' motivations for learning conducted by other researchers adopt the equivalent methodological design founded by Boshier: statistical analysis of motivational factors. However, only a few studies adopt a qualitative approach. Investigations by Adair and Mowseian (1993), Cope (2005), Schlesinger (2005), and Tough (1971) are some of the examples of using interviews to study adults' motives to undertake particular learning activities. Tough (1971) interviewed 66 participants of some adult self-learning projects and come up with the conclusions of that the learners were driven by a variety of reasons to participate, such as empowering themselves for specific tasks and problems on the job, get ready for or holding onto a job position, improving some broad areas of competence, learning for home and personal accountabilities, learning for interest or leisure, as well as being motivated by curiosity or to answer questions about certain subject matters. It was also found that the same person could have multiple motives for learning, and that the participants were principally motivated for pragmatic reasons.

Apart from the aforementioned examples of qualitative investigations, the huge majority of motivational research, on the other hand, makes use of the EPS or self-constructed questionnaire to survey adult education participants. Studies by Burgess (1971), Johnstone and Rivera (1965), Morstain and Smart (1974), and Sheffield (1964) are primary attempts to quantify adults' motivations for learning. More current examples contain studies by Chiang and Wang (2004), Gordon et al. (1990), Kim and Merriam (2004), Peterson (1981), Qureshi et al. (2002), and Thomas and Johnson (1992). Selected works of this followed Boshier's and tried to categorize the various motives adults put forward for participating in education or learning. They measured a large sample of participants joined in various courses.

Sheffield's work (1964) was the founding quantitative research on adults' motivations for learning, which even predated Boshier's first version of the EPS in 1971. As Boshier (1971) admitted, the EPS was really built on the foundation of Houle's typology and Sheffield's contributions. Researcher generated a list of fifty eight reasons for participation in education. Sheffield extracted five factors which Sheffield mentioned as orientations through a factor analysis of the responses. The factors were: (1) learning orientation - seeking knowledge for its own sake, (2) desire activity orientation - seeking an interpersonal or social meaning in the circumstances of the learning, (3) personal goal orientation - participation in education to accomplish fairly clear cut personal objectives, (4) societal goal orientation - participating in education to accomplish clear cut social or community centered objectives, and (5) need activity orientation - taking part because in the circumstances of learning an introspective or intrapersonal meaning could be found.

Moreover, as reasons for learning, Burgess (1971) suggested nine motivational goals once after he worked in a related fashion and suggested a more detailed formulation. Those goals were: knowledge, personal, community, religious, social, escape, obligation fulfillment, personal fulfillment, and cultural knowledge. Though these seem like finer gradations on the whole, they echoed the classifications formed by Sheffield and Boshier. With these typologies as the research basis, later studies tend to survey participants of a specific learning program in a specific learning context. The most primary reason for their participation is the interest in the content of the courses. Other researchers also confirm that older people are more influenced by cognitive interest to engage in learning than by any other factors (Kim and Merriam, 2004). A study by Thomas and Johnson in 1992 surveyed members of the non-credit continuing education courses and he found that there are many major reasons for participation were personal enrichment and career enhancement

along with mental fulfillment, cultural appreciation, socialization, and community service as only peripheral reasons.

“Apart from the above, numerous studies investigate the relations or correlations between people’s motives for participation in education or learning and their demographic characteristics such as age, gender, and socio-economic status (SES)” (Sutha, 2017). Johnstone and Rivera conducted a large-scale survey in early 1965, and concluded that younger adults were further influenced by job-centered reasons to take courses, while the employment goals of older adults were much less pragmatic and utilitarian. They were more likely to take courses simply for an attention in the knowledge or for leisure. Also, it was initiate that at all ages; men were more concerned with vocational aims while women enrolled more often in response to home and family life and leisure interests, as well as a desire to expand their social horizons or to get away from the daily routine. Moreover, adults from the lower SES were much more likely to take courses to prepare for entry level jobs than to advance their careers, while the opposite was true of participants from the higher socio-economic stratum, which were also more likely to pursue their interests in learning throughout their spare time.

In order to identify the reasons for adult participation in education in the United States, Morstain and Smart (1974) undertook a study by using Boshier’s EPS and also by working upon Boshier’s New Zealand study which was carried during 1971, they produced six factors out of fourteen of the original EPS. Their research similarly identified age and gender differences in relation to the motivations for learning between the subjects. Younger adults appeared to score comparatively higher on social relations as a motivator. Men were more motivated by external expectations than women, and women scored comparatively higher on the cognitive interest factor than men did. The 1982 version of the EPS (Boshier, 1982) was used to study the motivational orientations. Discoveries indicated that the female respondents were more motivated to enroll for professional progress and cognitive attention reasons than their male counterparts who in turn had a advanced mean rating for Community Service. Elder participants were also more motivated to enroll for community service reasons. In adding, motivational orientations varied among persons in dissimilar occupations. For example, people in the marketing profession were further interested in Professional Advancement than others, while business management personnel were more inclined than others to complete the degree for motives related to cognitive interest. Further investigations relate adult learners’ motivations to the needs philosophies, among which Maslow’s hierarchy has been cited most often. Researchers

frequently adopt the theory as the fundamental philosophy for a thorough understanding and interpretation of people's motivations but seldom did scholars formulate questionnaire items giving to the hierarchy. The study by Chiang and Wang (2004) is an exemption. Their research was lead among those who had graduated or who were then join up in continuing education programs in the Department of Business Administration at National Cheng Kung University in Tainan, Taiwan. Members for the study were found by simple random sampling. Results from the 176 returned questionnaires showed that all five levels of needs had an impact on the respondents' decisions to take part in the program. Self-actualization needs shaped the greatest motivation. This was followed in turn, by esteem needs, social needs, and safety needs. The least motivating factor was physiological needs. Concerning group differences, it was originate that at the level of social needs, lower income students were more motivated than the higher-income students, and young adults were additional motivated than the mature counterparts aged thirty-one to fifty. The results generally definite Maslow's hierarchy and mirrored that the majority of continuing education learners came from the higher socio-economic stratum, which did not concern so much about physiological or safety needs for the reason that these had already been fulfilled to a gratifying degree.

It can thus be seen that even though the conclusions emerging from diverse research efforts differ in detail, they generally substantiate Houle's typology, and confirm that almost every learner gives numerous reasons for learning. Also, there is a clear leaning for adult learners to be motivated by pragmatic requirements related to life transitions, as suggested by Tough's (1971) study of the participants of self-learning projects. Further, Adair and Mowsesian (1993) concluded that retirees participated in learning partly because of a need to manage basic survival needs at old age, while Schlesinger (2005) proposed that the African-American inmates mainly undertake correctional education for socialization as it is desperately looked-for by the incarcerated in their "lonely planet" environment. Besides, as reflected in the findings of the studies by Gordon et al. (1990), Johnstone and Rivera (1965), and Morstain and Smart (1974), younger adults are further interested in job-related learning than older adults who are more interested to seek education as a means of making novel friends, liking it as a pastime, or are interested by cognitive interest. It was also create that adults of lower SES were more motivated to take courses to make for jobs, whereas those with higher SES be likely to to devote time and energy in education for promotion or professional advancement, as well as for recreation of leisure-time interests. With admiration to gender differences,

the results were inconclusive. Early in 1965, Johnstone and Rivera bring into being that men were highly concerned with job-related motivations than women. Two and a half decades after, Gordon et al. come from argument to the opposite conclusion in a study dated 1990. This may be credited to a change in women's role in the labor market and an upturn in the number of female workers in all employment sectors. All in all, motivational factors for learning differ significantly among adults from diverse backgrounds and demographic characteristics, and tend to change over time.

However, two of the most broadly applied theories of adult learning are Andragogy by Malcolm Knowles, and the Characteristics of Adults as Learners model by K. Patricia Cross.

Andragogy

Andragogy (the science and art of learning in adults) was a revolutionary theory created to explain how learning in adults differed from the way in which children learn. According to andragogic theory, adults are motivated to learn, are self-directed, responsible, and use prior experiences as a template for learning

Andragogy is based on the assumptions that adult:

1. Tend to become more self-directed as they mature;
2. Have had rich life experiences;
3. Want to learn and are internally motivated to do so;
4. Want learning to be purposeful, practical, relevant, and immediately applicable; and
5. Are more problem-centered than content-centered.

A sixth assumption was later added: Adults need to understand why they are learning a particular topic.

Characteristics of Adults as Learners (CAL) Model of Adult Learning

The Characteristics of Adults as Learners Model is built upon differences in personal characteristics (physical, psychological, and socio-cultural) and situational characteristics (part-time versus full-time attendance and voluntary versus compulsory participation)

According to this model, four basic things characterize adult learners:

1. Participation is motivated by both positive and negative factors;
2. Participation is correlated to anticipated learning outcomes;
3. A sense of security precedes the need for achievement; and
4. Expectations of rewards affect motivation.

Pedagogy and Andragogy

The andragogic model asserts that five issues be considered and addressed in formal learning. They take account of, letting learners know why something is vital to learn, showing learners how to direct themselves through information, and relating the topic to the learners' experiences. In addition, people will not learn until they are ready and motivated to learn. Frequently this requires helping those overcome inhibitions, behaviors, and beliefs about learning.

Adult learning theories highlight the importance of experience and self-directedness in adult learning and imply that adult learner's advantage most from experientially-based constructivist learning environments.

Experientially-Based Learning Environments

A major theme of adult learning theory is that learning is an active procedure in which learners construct new ideas based upon previous knowledge and experience. Learning occurs by synthesizing new evidence into currently existing knowledge and adjusting prior understandings and beliefs to assimilate new experiences. In an experientially-based learning environment learners are exposed to a series of exercises or simulations that support active learning. Through active participation, knowledge is developed and self-constructed by the learner.

Constructivist Learning Environments

Adults have a rich repository of involvement from which to draw. How effective a learner will be may depend upon how well the learner can take part new knowledge into an existing schema and amend prior misconceptions.

Constructivist learning environments emphasize learning over teaching, encourage learners to engage in peer dialogue, support collaborative learning while inspiring learner autonomy, emphasize the context in which learning

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occurs, and anchor learning to real-world, authentic tasks, so as to link to that learner's prior experiences.

Anchoring learning to larger, relevant, complex, challenging tasks can help the learner develop learning strategies for problem solving through scaffolding. Scaffolding is a strategy in which support is provided to help the learner accomplish a task that he would be unable to achieve on his own; support is gradually removed as the learner takes more responsibility for his/her own learning. The goal of scaffolding is to support a learner goes beyond the "zone of proximal development", the gap between what a learner can do on his/he own and what he could achieve with assistance.

Since knowledge is embedded in experience and personally created, instruction must situate learning in authentic, real-world contexts that involve collaboration and social interaction. To be authentic, learning environment must have characteristics of real-world problems. Problems should be ill-structured and complex, contain both applicable and irrelevant information, and require the learner to recognize resources, to set priorities, and to discover alternative solutions in a combined setting.

Adult Learning Best Practices can be identifies as follows,

Adults will commit to learning when the goals and objectives are considered realistic and important to them. Application in the 'real world' is significant and relevant to the adult learner's personal and professional requirements.

Adults need to be the origin of their own learning and will resist learning activities they believe are an attack on their competence. Thus, professional development wants to give participants some control over the when, what, why, who, how, and where of their learning.

Adult learners need to see that the professional development learning and their day-to-day activities are related and relevant.

Adult learners want direct, concrete experiences in which they apply the learning in real work.

Adult learning has ego involved. Professional development necessity be structured to offer support from peers and to decrease the fear of judgment throughout learning.

Adults need to take response on how they are doing and the results of their efforts. Opportunities necessity to be built into professional development activities that allow the learner to practice the learning and obtain structured helpful feedback.

Adults need to contribute in small-group activities during the learning to move them beyond considerate to application, analysis, synthesis, and

evaluation. Small-group activities provide an opportunity to share, reflect, and generalize their learning experiences.

Adult learners derive to learning with an extensive range of prior experiences, knowledge, self-direction, interests, and competencies. This diversity must be accommodated in the skilled expansion planning.

Relocation of learning for adults is not automatic and need to be facilitated. Coaching and other kinds of follow-up provision are needed to help adult learners transfer learning into daily practice so that it is sustained.”

In the past, the learning experience is determined by the learner; in the latter, the learning experience is driven by the teacher. Andragogy is constructed upon five assumptions of adult learning: maturity moves one to more self-direction, experience is a rich resource for learning, learning readiness is strictly linked to the developmental tasks of the adult’s social role, adults are more problem centered than subject centered in their learning, and adults are interested by internal rather than external factors (Knowles, 1968; Merriam & Caffarella, 1999; Gillen 2005).

According to Knowles (1973, 1980, 1984), adults are distinct as learners in terms of self-direction, motivation readiness to learn, problem oriented and experience to learn. To come up with a definition of an adultlearner, certain assumptions about the adult learner published by Malcolm Knowles, the founder of andragogy, should be considered. Knowles (1973, 1980, 1984,p 12) assumptions listed below although criticized by some academics that it does not hold true for every situation and is more Eurocentric still is widely used and is a general description of an adult learners characteristics.(Chao & Yap, 2009)

Malcom Knowles summarized six key assumptions about adult learners, which form the foundation of adult learning. Those assumptions are as follows:

- **Self-Concept:** Adult becoming more self-directed and independent as they mature (Arghode, Brieger, & McLean, 2017). Adults typically want to choose what they want to learn, when they want to learn it, and how they want to learn. (Sutha, Kailasapathy, & Jayakody, 2016) As a person matures their self-concept moves from one of being a dependent personality to one who is self-directed. (Karakowsky & McBey, 1999) Adults tend to resist situations in which they feel that others are imposing their wills on them. Clinton Longenecker, Rob Abernathy, (2013) argues Adult learners want to know the ‘why’ behind the ‘what’ they are being requested to learn. Building a strong case in this regard is critical to prepare the learner.”

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They need to be free to direct themselves. Their teachers must actively involve adult participants in the learning process and serve as facilitators for them. Specifically, they must get participants' perspectives about what topics to cover and let them work on projects that reflect their interests. They should allow the participants to assume responsibility for presentations and group leadership. They have to be sure to act as facilitators, guiding participants to their own knowledge rather than supplying them with facts. Finally, they must show participants how the class will help them reach their goals (e.g., via a personal goals sheet).

- **Experience:** As a person matures, they accrue a growing reservoir of experience that becomes a growing resource for learning. (MacDonald, Gabriel, & Bradley Cousins, 2000) Adults tend to come into adult education with a huge amount of prior experiences compared to children. (Longenecker & Abernathy, 2013). If those prior experiences can be used, they become the richest resource available in the organizations. (Halpern & Tucker, 2015) Adult learners have a wealth of life experiences that they carry with them into new learning experiences. Because of this, they are talented to contribute richness to organization and are careful valuable resources for learning from and with each other. Some of the experiences, though, may cause misinformation or biases related to the new learning and must be clarified so as not to cause a barrier to the new learning. Adults have accumulated a foundation of life experiences and knowledge that may include work-related activities, family responsibilities, and previous education. They need to connect learning to this knowledge/experience base. To help them do so, they should draw out participants' experience and knowledge which is relevant to the topic. They must relate theories and concepts to the participants and recognize the value of experience in learning.
- **Readiness to Learn:** Readiness to learn becomes oriented to the development task of his/her social roles. Readiness to learn is reliant on an appreciation of the relevancy of the topic. Whether or not an adult is ready to learn depends on what they need to know in order to deal with life situations
- **Orientation to Learn:** As a person matures their time perspective changes from one of postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application, and accordingly their direction towards learning shifts from one of subject centeredness to one of problem centeredness. Adults are motivated to learn to the extent to which they perceive that

the knowledge that they are acquiring will help them perform a task or solve a problem they may be faced with in real life. Adults want to see the immediate application of learning. Therefore, they seek learning opportunities that will allow them to solve problems. Adults are relevancy-oriented. They must see a reason for learning something. Learning has to be applicable to their work or other responsibilities to be of value to them. Therefore, instructors must identify objectives for adult participants before the course begins. This means, also, that theories and concepts must be related to a setting familiar to participants. This need can be fulfilled by letting participants choose projects that reflect their own interests.

- **Motivation to Learn:** As a person matures the motivation to learn is internal (Knowles, 1984). Internal motivation may act as the key as a person matures. Although adults feel the force of external events, they are mostly driven by internal motivation and the desire for self-esteem and goal attainment. Adults will seek learning opportunities due to some external motivators, but the more strong motivators are internal. (Lieb & Goodlad, 2005)
- Motivation towards adult learning can be categorized into work/economic (higher earning potential, professional advancement and work retention), personal (cognitive interest, family togetherness) and social.
- Boshier, Morstain and Smart came up with six factors for participating in adult learning (Merriam & Caffarella, 1991, pp. 83-86). And also known as six factors serve as sources of motivation for adult learning:
- **Social Relationships:** To make new friends, to meet a need for associations and friendships.
- **External Expectations:** To comply with instructions from someone else; to fulfill the expectations or recommendations of someone with formal authority.
- **Social Welfare:** To improve ability to serve mankind, prepare for service to the community, and improve ability to participate in community work.
- **Personal Advancement:** To achieve higher status in a job or desire for job enhancement, secure professional advancement, and stay abreast of competitors.
- **Escape/Stimulation:** to relieve boredom, provide a break in the routine of home or work routine, and provide a contrast to other exacting details of life.

Application of Equity Theory on Adult Learning

- **Cognitive Interest:** To learn for the sake of learning, seek knowledge for its own sake, and to satisfy an inquiring mind.
- **The Need to Know:** Adults need to know the reason for learning something, why they need to learn something, they need to know what's in it for them – how this new knowledge will resolve a problem or be immediately applied. In adult learning, the first task of the trainer is to help the learner become aware of the need to know. When adults undertake to learn something they believe valuable, they will be willing to invest a considerable amount of resources, such as time and energy (Chan, 2010; Leyva, Sharif, & Ozuah, 2005; Thompson & Deis, 2004). The adult learner wants to know why he or she is learning something. (Hermans et al., 2013) Adults are *practical*, focusing on the aspects of a lesson most useful to them in their work. They may not be interested in knowledge for its own sake. Instructors must tell participants explicitly how the lesson will be useful to them on the job.

Having a context for the value of a particular lesson can lead to self-direction, as the learner will have a clearer understanding of the benefits of learning the lesson and the “negative consequences of not learning it” (Knowles, 1984). Framing lesson within the learners’ gaps in knowledge or skill, and clearly representing why that gap needs to be closed, is the “first task of the facilitator” of adult learners.

Based on Knowles’ assumptions and this paper’s decision to use age as a key determinant of the term adult, an adult learner is a self-directed person, 24 years of age and above whose engagement and readiness to learn is based on the immediate applicability to the development tasks of his/her social role incorporating his/her reservoir of experience. Learning is defined by Illeris (2006, p. 3) as “any process that in living organisms leads to permanent capacity change and which is not solely due to biological maturation or ageing”. This paper defines “learning as any process leading to a change in efficiency or use of conscious and unconscious cognitive processes that lead to a permanent capacity change not solely caused by biological maturation or ageing” (Chao, 2009) considering that learning is both a conscious and unconscious cognitive process influenced by the interaction between either both or all of the three dimensions of learning. Adult learning is therefore defined as any process of an adult learner that leads to learning as defined above.

THEORETICAL FOUNDATION OF EQUITY THEORY

Equity Theory

Equity theory highlighting on the consequences of reward sharing within the social exchange process.(Adams, 1963) An equitable reward system is recognized as the compensation of every single individual according to their level of contributions or inputs. Every individual then matches their reward to the reward of a cognitively select referent, and if the situation is perceived to be unfair or inequitable, the recipient will be motivated to restore equity (Adams, 1965). Equity theory has continued a main stay of the motivational literature since Adams' initial work in 1963 (Adams, 1963, 1965; Campbell and Pritchard, 1976; Walster, et al., 1978) and has been connected to such organizational outcome variables as turnover, pay satisfaction and organizational commitment (Organ, 1990, Dittrich and Carrell, 1979, Porter and Steers, 1973).

Employees look for retain equity among the inputs that they take to a job and the outcomes that they acquire from it against the perceived inputs and outcomes of others. The trust in equity theory is that people value fair treatment which causes them to be encouraged to keep the fairness maintained within the relationships of their co-workers and the organization.(Limpaphayom, & Smatt,Fadil, Williams, 2005)

But Adams' Equity Theory is a more complex and sophisticated motivational model than merely assessing effort and reward. Equity Theory adds a vital additional perspective of comparison with 'referent' others.

Although equity theory received considerable domestic attention (Campbell and Pritchard, 1976; Greenberg, 1990), it had not been explicitly tested in non-Western cultures until the early 1980's (Leung and Bond, 1982, 1984; Leung and Park, 1986; Mahler, Greenberg and Hayashi, 1981). When the tenets of equity theory were empirically analyzed in Eastern cultures, researchers discovered that equality, not equity, was the allocation norm of choice (Leung and Bond, 1984; Mahler, Greenberg & Hayeshi, 1981). Under an equality allocation rule, rewards are distributed equally to all members involved in the group performance, regard less of individual contributions.

Equity does not depend on our input-to-output ratio alone - it depends on our comparison between our ratio and the ratio of others. We form perceptions of what constitutes a fair ratio of inputs and outputs by comparing our own situation with other 'referents' in the market place as we see it. How an

individual selects this referent other has been one of the most fertile areas of research in equity theory over the past few years

Equity Theory can be broken down into four basic propositions (Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1987). Those are as follows:

1. An individual is concerned with his achievements as well as with achievements of others; Individuals develop their perception of fairness by calculating a ratio of their inputs and outcomes and then comparing this to the ratio of others (Huseman et al., 1987).
2. If the comparative ratios are perceived by the individual to be unequal, then inequity exists (Huseman et al., 1987). This can cause feelings of guilt and the ratios used for comparison are based upon the perception of an individual, and not an objective measure of inputs and outcomes. The choice of a comparison other is subjective selection of the individual.
3. As the difference in inequity increases, the tension and distress felt by an individual will increase (Huseman et al., 1987).
4. The larger tension an individual feels due to perceived inequity, the harder they will work to decrease their tension and increase perceived levels of equity (Huseman et al., 1987). Most individuals will try to achieve equity by adjusting their own inputs and outcomes, or attempting to change the inputs or outcomes of the comparison other. Individuals can use behavioural processes or cognitive processes in order to attempt to restore equity. The means of reducing inequity will differ depending on the situation and will not all be equally satisfying to an individual (Adams, 1963). Adam's equity theory does not predict which one an individual will use, but Adam's does believe the chosen behaviour will be the one that utilizes maximum utility (Stecher & Rosse, 2007).

All Western views of equity and fairness in reward allocation share the same basic psychological assumption (Homans, 1961; Adams, 1963; 1965; Walster, Berscheid and Walster, 1973; 1978). Individuals believe that, in a just distribution, rewards will be allocated amongst themselves in proportion to their contributions (Deutsch, 1985). According to Adams (1965), a social exchange relationship will be considered equitable if the individual's perception of the ratio of his/her out comes (rewards) to inputs (contributions) is equal to the corresponding outcome (reward) to input (contribution) ratio of a comparison counterpart.

Although the major "variable" components of this equation are "inputs" and "outcomes," the choice of a referent other is also an important theoretical

factor (Goodman, 1974). Based explicitly on social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954), it is proposed that a person will compare his/her perceived ratio of outcomes to inputs to those of a similar other. How an individual chooses this referent other has been one of the most fertile areas of research in equity theory over the past few years (Levine and Moreland, 1987; Kulik and Ambrose, 1992; Summers and Hendrix, 1991).

In conjunction with inputs, outcomes and the choice of a referent other, the final important component of equity theory is the individual's motivation to reduce inequity. According to Adams (1965), the perception of inequity will cause tension, which will motivate the individual to reduce the inequity. This tension to restore equity can be reduced by altering his/her own or the referent other's inputs and outcomes, leaving the field, cognitively distorting either his/her own or the referent other's inputs and outcomes, or by choosing another referent other in an attempt to bring the equity equation back into equilibrium (Adams, 1965).

While equity theory undoubtedly reflects the dominant ideology of reward allocation in Western society (Sampson, 1980), research has supported (Sampson, 1980; Marin, 1981; Leung and Bond, 1984; Berman, et al., 1985; Chen, 1995) the existence and importance of another allocation principle: equality. A substantial body of research has argued that equality is of vital importance in determining reward allocation in other cultures (Kabanoff, 1991; Leung and Bond, 1982; 1984; Leung and Park, 1986). Many authors suggest that an individual's view of fairness may be influenced by an equality norm (Sampson, 1980; Lerner, 1980; Leventhal, 1976). The equality mode of allocation refers to the process of distributing rewards equally to all contributing or participating individuals (Sampson, 1980).

This method directly contrasts with the view of equity, because outcomes are fixed and equal, and not directly related to individual inputs (Deutsch, 1985).

According to some authors (Mikula, 1980; Cohen, 1982; Deutsch, 1975, 1979, 1985; Chen, 1995), an equal allocation of rewards (according to contributions) is more likely to foster group harmony, loyalty, and solidarity than an equitable distribution of rewards. It has been posted that when team membership was stressed, subjects tended to ignore input differences and adopt an equality principle of reward allocation (Lerner, 1974). The equality principle has been found to promote status equilibrium (Deutsch, 1985), facilitate harmonious relationships (Lerner, 1974), promote solidarity (Leventhal, 1976), and minimize interpersonal conflicts and potential dissatisfaction (Leventhal, Michaels and Sanford, 1972). These studies, in conjunction with

others (Mikula, 1980; Chen, 1995), conclusively show that an equal reward distribution communicates a desire for solidarity, team work, harmony, and status congruence (Shapiro, 1975).

One of the leading researchers of the equality principle is Sampson (1983) who discussed the norms of equity and equality in a cultural and historical frame work. He argued that the preference for equity over equality reflects a particular historical and cultural pattern that presently dominates Western ideology. In the United States, the Protestant-ethic based capitalistic economic system focuses on individual achievement and equity. He suggested that the capitalist economic system fosters such values as agency (instrumentalism, individualism and competition), which are conducive to an equity principle of justice while an alternative set of values – communication, collectivism and cooperation – are conducive to an equality principle of justice.

Sampson (1980) further suggested that the typical individual who favors an equitable method of justice might only be indigenous to a particular socio historical period, the Western culture, or even a particular social class, such as the upper-middle class college student, upon whom almost all equity research has been conducted. Deutsch (1985) also agrees that different socio historical periods, different cultures, or even different personality types (Major and Deaux, 1982; Hochwarter and Stepina, 1993) may predispose individuals to have different conceptions and orientations to equity.

The preceding review of equality logically leads to two important theoretical research questions: (1) Are the qualities of solidarity, cohesiveness, loyalty and harmony more prevalent in certain cultures than others? And, (2) if the relationship between specific cultures and equality belief exists, would not these cultures be pre disposed to work toward an equality norm of allocation rather than an equity standard? The equity/equality dichotomy will now be examined within the context of culture by reviewing the cultural values of the Far East and contrasting them with the Western society.

ROLE OF EQUITY THEORY IN THE CONTEXT OF ADULT LEARNING THEORY

Even though the principles that strengthen the andragogy are exactly appropriate in many adult learning circumstance it is not essentially restricted to implementation within adult learning. Historically, andragogy has been hard to categorize. It has been referred to as “a theory of adult learning, theory of

adult education, theory of technology of adult learning, technique of adult education, method of adult education, and a set of assumptions.” The position of adult education within a post-modern landscape has been and endures to be a bothered one. In latest times, there has been much conversation about the consequence of post-modernism and post modernity on the study and practice of adult education. There are problems of continuing learning dealing with some of the changes that happened between those times. Due to the incredulity and misperception, the growth and the performance of knowledge based on social norms or habits created a loss of mastery.

Continuous life learning would be created as a post-modern situation of the education. They lays a dispute regarding the importance of the post-modern frame in the study of the education of the adults. Many people perceive it as globalization of capitalist economic relations and the evaluation of the post-industrial consumer oriented culture within an information rich atmosphere led by advance technologies (Harvey, 1989). Others believe it to be a form of analysis associated with deconstruction and post structuralism which places it as a challenge to foundational certainties in thoughts and actions (Lemert, 1997). Moreover, others interpret it as promoting individualism and lifestyle practices of a consumer society (Featherstone, 1991). Few people have faith that it delivers a space for forms of radical and emancipator politics related with new social movements and problems of gender, race, ethnicity and sexuality.

For many people, post-modern challenges about adult education’s traditional commitment to social action and its historical placement with working class organizations and other relegated groups in society. For other few, it destabilizes the commitment to liberal education of learning for its own sake and for personal development when it comes to the personnel development equity theory will plays a major role in adults’ education as the comparative aspect of Equity Theory provides a far more fluid and dynamic appreciation of motivation than typically arises in motivational theories and models based on individual circumstance alone. Awareness and cognizance of the broader situation and crucially comparison feature more powerfully in Equity Theory than in other earlier motivational models.

However, others believe that post-modern offers a theoretical and applied space for understanding and engaging with a completer range of adult learning practices. It is a space that opens up possibilities for recognizing adult education as encompassing the multiplicity and diversity of practices of adult learning that are a characteristic of the contemporary scene which is suggestive of the post-modern condition.

Equity theory plays a key role and connects with adult learning in the context of adult in workplace practices. Workplace practices comprise an important portion of people's lives, and accordingly it is understandable that the manner in which persons experience their workplaces will have a significant effect on their growth and development. And adults continue to learn throughout their life and their past experience can help or hinder this learning.(Brundage & MacKeracher, 1980; Caminotti & Gray, 2012) Organizations that encourage self-exploration, open-systems information-seeking, will aid individual growth and development (Kegan, 1982) and also workplace significantly influence on individual development, specified its ability to encourage individual challenge and critical reflection via the overview of new tasks and responsibilities (Basseches, 1984). Apart from that individuals are compared themselves within peer groups so; there is an impact of equity theory in the context of adult learning theory.

Two educational philosophers were products of Dewey's laboratory school for the Department of Education: Cyril Houle and Malcolm Knowles, and the concepts of both have framed the argument around adult educational theory (Tweedell, 2000). Houle's research, which was a qualitative study of individuals contributing in various types of learning, caused in a typology of the adult learner. Houle identified three subgroups of learners: adults who are goal oriented, adults who are activity oriented, and adults who are learning oriented (Houle, 1961). Goal oriented learners are out to achieve some identifiable objective, such as a degree or certification. Activity oriented learners are those who participate in learning for another reason unconnected to knowledge acquisition: to socialize, to find a spouse, to escape an unpleasant home life. Learning oriented learners are those who seek knowledge for its own sake. Houle's research was significant to the development of the concept of self-directed learning, a concept that has helped define learning in adulthood (Houle, 1961; Merriam, 1993; Tweedell, 2000). It was also significant to the development of the idea that all persons had a desire to learn, a rather essential thought for its time. (Griffith, 1987).

Most theories admit both internal and external influences on learning and development. But nevertheless, an emphasis on one or the other term of the 'person-social environment' relation is nearly always apparent. Within the person perspective there is a tradition of research which focuses on emotional development. In this tradition, the emphasis is on how our concept of self, and the conflicts within it, emerges and develops as we proceed through the life course. The ground work in this tradition can be traced to the humanistic psychology of Rogers and Maslow or to the psychoanalytic theory of Freud and

its subsequent developments. Many of the later theories of adult psychological development borrow from both the psychoanalytic and humanistic traditions (e.g. Loevinger, Gould, Levinson, Vaillant, Neugarten, Lowenthal). This is because education as an activity explicitly links the individual with the social. In particular, adult education is seen as a vehicle for explicitly addressing significant social issues connected to areas such as the environment, race, health, gender, class, the aged, and the unemployed and the dislocation and exploitation of migrants.

Existing approaches to understanding adult learning generally fall within one of three broad types. The first type seeks to provide a balanced overview of psychological, sociological and philosophical theory and research together with an assessment of its relevance to adult education (e.g. Cross, 1981; Long, 1983; Candy, 1991; Jarvis, 2004; Merriam and Caffarella, 1999; Rogers, 2003).

To facilitate learning in adult learners, a thorough understanding of how they are motivated to learn, what and how obstacles to learning are formed. Adult learners have their own personal biography, view of the world, what is needed to survive and succeed in their personal endeavors and they even have their own personal interpretation of success. Internal and external impacts on the adult learner both in their past and present experiences form these views. As a result many have to learn on a part-time basis, which means that it takes them longer to achieve their qualification goals. Third, reliant on their age, adults' qualifications may be out of date and some may lack confidence in their ability to succeed in an education or training Programme if there has been a lengthy interval since they last involved in formal learning. (Chao, R., & Yap, R., 2009).

Reasons and purposes why adults learn are varied especially at different stages in the adult learner's life. To fill in educational gaps, to develop personally, to perform a job better, enhance employment opportunities, or simply to join the job market are just some of the reasons but whatever the reason it can be classified as intrinsic, extrinsic or a combination of both. The adult learners' reason and purpose for learning creates the motivation to engage in adult learning therefore one has to understand why and what is the reason and purpose for engaging in adult learning. An employed adult can engage in adult learning out of his own initiative or through the initiative of his employer.

From a practical, managerial stand point, the Culturally-Sensitive Equity Model can serve as a realistic guide line for international managers who are newly assigned to their respective posts. Adapting to unfamiliar cultural surroundings can be very difficult. The conceptual insights provided by the

derived model can help to ease the transition new managers undergo as they assume their duties in an unfamiliar environment. While adult learning in the past was strongly associated with the provision of ‘adult education’, it is now a more mainstream concern. The final shift to be noted is the direct or indirect impact on psychology of the intellectual movement collectively labeled ‘postmodernism’, particularly the idea that in contemporary society fragmentation, diversity, difference and multiple identities are replacing cohesion, convergence, sameness and singular identities in our working, civic and private lives. In spite of any misgivings voiced about the state of adult education theory, and adult education as an activity is arguably becoming more urgent and central. This is particularly so given that demarcations between formal and non-formal educational institutions are breaking down, new interdisciplinary groupings are being formed which challenge the old disciplines, In this context it makes sense to continue the project of linking equity to issues and practices in adult education.

According to many scholars a person’s objective to learn is influenced by their attitude toward learning and his or her perception of the subjective social norm (Fishbein et al., 1975, Baert, Rick, & Valckenborgh, 2006; Kyndt et al., 2011). This attitude of an individual is determined by his or her personal valuation of the advantages benefits, disadvantages and also the costs of the educational participation. The subjective social norm is molded over and done with the observation of the norms of significant others and not of all others (Baert et al., 2006). The influence of its effect is also determined by the stronger or weaker tendency of that individual to conform.

“At the same time, in the organization perspective, If organizations take into consideration the important assumptions put forward by the adult learning theory and encourage their employees to search for and identify their own training needs, then that will reduce the training costs of the organization. Consequently, this will not only enhance the career prospects of the employees but also boost the business performance of the organization at the same time” (Sutha, 2017) In another way around this will emphasis the role of equity theory, because equity theorem clearly weight that the employees look intended for retain equity between the inputs that they provide to a job and the outcomes that they obtain from their job against the perceived inputs and outcomes of other co-workers. The trust in equity theory is that employees in the organization value fair treatment which causes his/her to be encouraged to keep the fairness maintained within the relationships of their co-workers and the organization. (Limpaphayom, & Smatt,Fadil, Williams,

2005). Encouragements given by the equity would be an own training need which will identify by the employees to have learning in organization.

MAIN FOCUS OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter contributes to extant research in several important ways. In the human resource development literature, most of the studies were conducted in the context of adult learning and those studies highlighted the assumptions and underpinning theories of adult learning theory in general. However, in the context of adult learning theory, the role of equity theory remains unclear and limited researches to explain the theory behind it. Hence, this requires the researcher to explain the link between those two theories and the application of equity theory of motivation on adult learning theory in terms of different theoretical foundation. To address these shortcomings, this study discovered the importance of adult learning theory from the perspective of equity theory.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

There is much to be researched in the various aspects of the model. Experience and how an adult learner actually values education in relation to their life stages need to be further studied. How motivational factors and barriers to adult learning affect the different dimensions of learning and how the different dimensions actually interact together and forms the decision to participate in adult learning especially in an adult learner's multi-faceted life.

There is a need for more empirical studies in order to get a better understanding of workplace learning in different and specific contexts and industry areas, including some of the learning and benefits that are buried deep within everyday workplace practices and conditions (Billett, 2001).

Therefore in any further research we would suggest an overall approach that does two things. Firstly, research should look at workplace learning in practice and in specific industries and workplaces, not just in theory. This is because there is considerable variation not only in what practices occur but in the ends to which they occur. For example, there are not necessarily shared ideas about what constitutes successful learning or successful outcomes from workplace learning beyond some very broad principles. Secondly, research should ground itself in an understanding that workplace learning is not an abstract idea or about learning for learning's sake. It needs to be understood

as learning for something in particular and it is a specific social, economic, and political context that shapes what that is, what counts as workplace learning, and what counts as successful workplace learning.

Transition

CONCLUSION

Adults learn by connecting experience with reflection (Gillen 2005, p.208). Learning in adulthood is different than learning in childhood (Knowles, 1984). This review of adult learning theory provides the foundation to explore what role institutional policies, services and the classroom environment have in persistence. How well institutions design curricula and services that are consistent with adult learning may well have an effect on whether an adult undergraduate persists to graduation. “Understanding learning in adulthood is like piecing together a puzzle; there are many parts that must be fitted together before the total picture emerges” (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999, p. 193).

Although this position seemed to have initial face validity, there was absolutely no theoretical foundation for its claims and none was developed to support future empirical inquiry. It continued to remain uncertain as to whether the equality allocation method was a meaningful theoretical advance in and of itself, or whether this egalitarian form of reward distribution could be considered an interpretation and reapplication of the equity principle. “Over a period of nearly 30 years, Knowles utilized his knowledge and understanding of adult learning principles in the development of highly effective learning activities. Hence, when it comes to the question of employees’ learning intention, it is seen that the adult learning theory plays a major role in this” (Sutha, 2017).

The purpose of this article is to conceptually examine the application of the equity/equality theory in adult learning. By exploring the complex effect of individual values on the individual components of equity theory, a theoretical framework integrating “equality” into the theoretical rubric of equity theory is developed and discussed. Utilizing this model, the authors derive a more global, applicable, pervasive interpretation of equity theory, which lays a strong theoretical foundation for future empirical analyses and incorporates culture as a significant component within its paradigm. This position will provide international managers with a more practical allocation framework, thereby facilitating improved effectiveness and accuracy of cross-cultural distribution decisions.

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Chapter 4

Understanding the Perception of Training Comprehensiveness

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ABSTRACT

Comprehensiveness of training programs is very crucial for the successful post-training performance levels. Although it is considered important, very few scholars have acknowledged and studied the conceptual basis of this variable. Therefore, this chapter attempts to draft the conceptualization of perception of training comprehensiveness. This chapter will explore the key aspects of perception and attitude towards training, trainer, and other important aspects of high performance HR practice (i.e., training comprehensiveness).

UNDERSTANDING PERCEPTION OF TRAINING COMPREHENSIVENESS

Introduction

In the ever changing highly competitive business environments, human resource practices and policies have observed a great number of modifications (Van Berkel, Ingold, McGurk, Boselie, & Bredgaard, 2017; Srivastava, 2018;

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Torbiörn, 2017). This development in HR practices and policies has stimulated researchers' attention towards the attitude towards HRD practices (Bratton, & Gold, 2017). Psychological studies indicate that attitudes and perceptions tend to frame the individual behaviour and how one reacts in a particular situation. However, very few academic researchers have acknowledged the importance of this phenomenon in HRD practices. In this direction, Ehrhardt et al. (2011) posited a term perception of "training comprehensiveness", which defines one's attitude towards training programs and activities provided in an organisation to polish their employees' skills and knowledge. Training comprehensiveness increases the level of commitment and self-efficacy among employees and also responsible for a significant decrease in absenteeism and employee turnover (Ehrhardt et al., 2011). The perception of training comprehensiveness continues to maintain significance for the post-training success of employees even in developing countries such as India (Paul and Anantharaman, 2004).

On the basis of rigorous review of literature, it can be quoted that till date, conceptual awareness of this term "training comprehensiveness" is quite scant. Majority of the studies are focussed on the outcome perspective of training as skill development programs (Srivastava and Dhar, 2017). This has been well documented that post training effectiveness, performance and outcomes are prominent tools to explain the actual importance of training (Kraiger, 2003). However, the pre-training perception of employees also has an important effect on the post training effect (Srivastava and Dhar, 2015, Srivastava, 2016). The way in which training is being perceived, decides how and up to what extent trainees are eager to accept the skills and knowledge imparted during the training. Therefore, this chapter attempts to contribute to the ongoing literature and also provided a theoretical background of perception of training comprehensiveness.

CASE

Nely, a single mother of two kids works as a school teacher in a primary government aided school. She teaches students upto 2nd standard. Recently, she was having trouble in managing her work and family domain responsibilities. She stays in her in-laws house with both the kids. Being the only earning person at home, she was facing physical and mental issues at the same time. She was also losing her efficacy to teach well. The job once she enjoyed the most, began to make her more tired and irritated.

Understanding the Perception of Training Comprehensiveness

The school principal Mr Kin, observed the substantial fall in her performance. He called her third time in the row and she ordered her to go for training. As the venue for the training was in the different city around 100 kms away from the home location, Nely found it difficult to obey the orders for attending training. On sharing the reasons for not attending the training sessions, her principal Kin responded, “you should have given full attention to your students. You need break”.

Initially, Nely resisted the decision and refused to leave her family for one week. Nely argued the training as non-fulfilling and time consuming repeated program. She can see what problems her family will face if she goes to another city . She remembered the previous training which was monotonous, boring and was completely not of any use to her career. She pleaded before the principal, although had no other option but to go. Mr Kin mentioned “it is the training that can bring a change in your life and career. If you refuse to go for it, I would like to see your resignation then!”. Nely was helpless. She had to go. She took her younger kid with her.

As she reached the venue, the supporting staff directed her to her accommodation. The room consistent a brief intro of the resource person, Mr Sandeep from India, his qualification, achievements and his list of lectures given. This was the first time, Nely was liking to be there and felt thankful to her principal Mr Kin for encouragement. Next morning, the supporting staff took the kid to day care facility. This was a big relief to Nely.

The training session was divided evenly into 5 days. Each day comprised a initial training on personality, behavior, orientation towards life, understanding self and others. Each day was filled with activities, plays, games and lectures. Nely on the last day was emotional and happy at the same time to have come for the training. She was now a new person. She showed gratitude towards her principal for sending her to this training.

Questions to discuss

1. What could have been done to improve the perception of Nely initially?
2. What effect does training effect has on perception of trainee?
3. Do you feel more awareness of the agenda of the training could have helped?

CONCEPTUALISATION

Training is defined as a learning experience that seeks a relatively permanent change in an Individual & skills, knowledge, attitudes or social behaviour (De Cenzo & Robbins, 1996). The improvement in employees' skills are deemed to play a significant role in enhancing the job role performance of employees (Hellriegel et al., 2001). Skills are referred as competencies and knowledge demonstrated by actions such as an ability to perform in a specific way (Wickham, 1998). On the basis of nature of expertise, skills are subdivided into various parts, technical, personal, interpersonal, business operations and management skills.

Perception of training comprehensiveness (TC) refers to an “individual tendency to judge institutional facilities for training and development and demonstrates what employees feel regarding the training provided, knowledge, and skill they perceive to have gained, perceived effectiveness of strategies used and usefulness of the overall training tenure” (Srivastava & Dhar, 2015, p.644). Training comprehensiveness represents a specific characteristic of training demonstrating the extensiveness of training programs. Additionally, TC expresses the activities that indicates the richness of human resource (HR) practices focused training provided by the organisation (Srivastava, 2016; Srivastava and Dhar, 2017).

Snell and Dean (1992) propounded the basic theory of comprehensive training and showed the requirement for a well-structured and regular training program for the effective performance of employees. Almost after a decade, Whitener (2001) examined the psychometric properties of the scale provided by Snell and Dean (1992) and proposed the relevance of comprehensive training towards the organisational commitment of employees. Though, Whitener also raised the concerns for reliability in the scale. Considering comprehensive training as “high commitment” human resource practice, Paul and Anantharaman (2004) showed training comprehensiveness as instrumental to employee's positive behaviour. Kuvaas (2006) argued training comprehensiveness as developmental HR practice that induces learning orientation and showed its effect on motivation and performance.

MEASUREMENT OF PERCEPTION OF TRAINING COMPREHENSIVENESS

With a view to re-establish the existing theory, Ehrhardt et al. (2011) proposed the training comprehensiveness as employee's perception of training. The researchers further indicated that perception of training comprehensiveness drives employees to give their best to the organisation and stay committed, and contented (Srivastava, and Dhar, 2015; Srivastava, 2016). Although the studies considered the perception of training comprehensiveness as an important aspect of post-training effects (Meyer & Smith, 2000), limited literature confirms the empirical examination of this factor. To fill in this gap, Srivastava and Dhar (2015), proposed a 19-item scale to evaluate perception for training comprehensiveness. The literature suggested comprehensive training as a predictor of employee's self-efficacy and positive role behaviour. The highly loaded sample questions of this questionnaire were "The training content is relevant, useful and easily understood"; "My roles and responsibilities are clearly discussed both as a team member and individually"; "I receive different styles of training (e.g. games, lectures and seminars)"; "My performance improves from the training provided"; "I receive training based on our practical issues and problems"; "Supervisors avail motivational and interactive training sessions" (Srivastava and Dhar, 2015). These items involved all the aspects of a training program to evaluate its comprehensiveness. This measure also enabled to understand how perception of training comprehensiveness affects the role behavior of employees in integrated model.

TRAINING AND PERFORMANCE

Many studies signified the importance of training in contemporary organisations (Nadda, Rahimi, Dadwal, & Singh, 2015; Kidwai et al., 2013). With an aim to enhance the performance of employees, training is offered to employees using various approaches such as offering exposure and imparting educational (Reid & Barrington, 1997); by enabling experimental learning (Erasmus & Van Dyk, 2003) and encouraging experiential learning (Van Dyk et al., 2001:292). Training is considered as a strategic skill enhancement necessity for overall growth oriented human resource programs. This HRD program enables employees to learn the latest productive techniques and tasks methodologies. Training also catalyses change in the

organisation, and directs effective skill acquisition along with the transfer of a broader range of skills (McLean & McLean, 2001). The extant literature has provided evidences indicating training as an essential aspect of human resource practices, in addition to general human resource practiced such as recruitment, selection and performance appraisals (Khosla & Saini, 2014). Highlighting the importance of training, the academic researchers strongly recommended the substantial increase in the investment for advanced training activities (Snell & Dean, 1992). Further, the studies have also encouraged expenditure of higher percentage of investment in planning, designing and implementing a training program. Such strategic investment into training will provide desirable returns in the form of improvement of skills and knowledge of trainees and enhancement in their trainee's tendency to attend the next one (Brown, 2005; Srivastava & Dhar, 2016a).

RESOURCES AVAILABILITY

Though, training is taken as a systematic development approach towards individual, team and organisation (Kraiger & Ford, 2007) yet, there is dearth of experimental support to explain explaining why and how attitudes towards training matters (Schmidt, 2007; Sitzmann, Brown, Casper, Ely, & Zimmerman, 2008). Very few researchers have focussed and examined on trainees' perceptions and reactions, and their subjective evaluations regarding their personal training experiences. The scholars considered this aspect of training as poorly stated and understood in research and emphasised on investigating trainee's attitude, perceptions and views towards training (Sugrue & Rivera, 2005). In line with, a few studies showed that training practices and its effect on employee work behaviour. However, this relationship differed in each study. Due to this inconsistency, researchers are in dilemma on the most adequate way to understand and interpret the trainee reactions, and analyse the means, how it influences trainee's decision making process to attend the training (Østergaard, Timmermans, & Kristinsson, 2011). As various studies provide diverse perspectives, it is likely to indicate that trainees' reactions and potential consequences of such responses are warranted. They supported the influencing ability of training reactions for providing extra insight to the association between training and employees' behavioural outcomes. However, a few questioned the validity of attitude and response of trainees for training (Srivastava, 2016). Supporting given former argument, Khilji and Wang (2006) reasoned training comprehensiveness as one of the most

progressive human resource development practices. The authors claimed training comprehensiveness as a tool to avail learning of new knowledge and skills, ability to perform well and can attract, retain, and also motivate employees by reducing the turnover intentions. Similarly, Brown (2005) claimed that perception of training comprehensiveness is based on employees' mood and emotion and has a significant effect on employees' engagement and information processing, training reputation and training enrolment.

PERCEPTION AND BEHAVIOUR

Bulut and Culha (2010) emphasised on attitudes towards training and presented its impact towards employees' work behaviour. The authors showed that employees' attitude towards training and other related human resource activities influence their commitment and job satisfaction at work. They considered organisational training as a multidimensional variable that includes the effect of motivation for training, access to training, benefits from training, and support for training. Hence, highlighting the importance of social exchange theory and psychological contract, they strongly argued that when an employee joins an organisation, he/she enters into a psychological contract, which includes an expectation from employers and that of employees from their respective employees. This exchange process is also explained as ongoing, with successful exchange relationships frequently leading to parties' budding feelings of commitment toward one another (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Rastogi, Rangnekar, & Rastogi, 2016). When both the sides (e.g., employee and employers) mutually accomplish the expectations of each other, then the positive reciprocal behaviour is exhibited. However, when any of the party sense non-fulfilment of desired expectation, they sense their psychological contract as broken and try to restore their positive work behaviour. This is considered as a breach of psychological contract. By the theory of psychological contract, Srivastava and Dhar (2016b) represented training comprehensiveness as individual's belief of what one gives and attains from their organization. They showed that when employee sense usefulness and comprehensiveness of training programs, they develop a sense of fulfilment and reciprocate by completing their part of a mutual relationship like extra-role behaviour (Kickul & Lester, 2001). However, when they experience a breach in this psychological contract, they tend to feel discontented and restore their overall performance (Yadapadithaya & Stewart, 2003).

TRAINING AND TRAINER

The perception of training related practices directly also relates to post training expressions (Forehand & King, 1977). Race and gender of the trainer also have a significant impact on the perception of the trainee (Srivastava, 2017; Roberts, 2017). The adverse presumption for trainer hurts the success of a training program. Similarly, a repetitive topic of training also decreases the employees' tendency to participate in training programs and gain from it willingly. These negative perceptions make an employee feel promises concerning training and development as broken. This further upsets them, causing a reduction in extra role behaviour (i.e. voluntary behaviour for the benefit of the organisation, beyond the call of duty) towards an overall organization. Although not much evidence exists, still personality of an individual was found to play a significant role in the kind of perception they hold (Ehrhardt et al., 2011; Wilfley et al., 2018).

INDIVIDUAL PERSONALITY AND PERCEPTIONS

Further, the relevance of individual difference on the perception of training comprehensiveness has also been highlighted by various researchers. Authors accentuate that perception of training comprehensiveness across the organisation vary from person to person, depending upon the ability of an individual to evaluate, select and reciprocate. Kraiger (2003) considered this significantly reasonable that employees will react differently to training, because of their individual differences. It assesses the broader scope of "attitude for training" and develops the employee skills and knowledge to fulfil the need for skilled human capital (Balkin & Richebé, 2007; Bressoux, Kramarz, & Prost, 2009).

DIMENSIONALITY OF PERCEPTION

Throughout the literature, training comprehensiveness has been measured by the three-item scale provided by Snell and Dean (1992). To extend the research, Srivastava and Dhar (2016b) provided the three different dimensions of perceptions for training comprehensiveness. First, *clarity and understanding* - training should be submitted at regular intervals, should have clear agenda

and purpose with relevant, useful and understandable contents. Further for effective team performance, training must clarify individual's role and responsibilities in a team. Second, *learning and skill development*- focus of the practice should be skill development, with solving real-life issues and fulfilling employee's training needs and providing new skills for eliminating the monotony.

Furthermore, the trainer must be knowledgeable, interactive and motivating during the sessions to encourage every individual to learn and adapt themselves and improve their performance. Lastly, *availability of resources*- for effective work outcomes, training must be given for sufficient hours on a regular basis under proper supervision, with adequate resources and types of equipment. Different styles of training should also be utilised to inspire trainees towards organisational success (Brown, Campione, & Barclay, 1979).

TRAINING COMPREHENSIVENESS AND OUTCOMES

Extra Role Behaviour

Extra role behavior can be defined as “behavior that is exhibited beyond the limits of formal in-role behavior and does not form a part of the formal reward system. These behaviors are based on individual intrinsic motivation to help and support others” (Srivastava and Dhar 2017; p.5). In a multilevel study, Srivastava (2016), showed that training comprehensiveness as a moderator between academic optimism and extra role behavior. The study was conducted on school teachers and principal working in government aided schools. The results indicated that “...when training comprehensiveness is high, the effect of academic optimism on extra role behavior improves. Through this result, it can be inferred that when training comprehensiveness is low, due to lack of effective training policies in the organisation, the effect of employee's collective efficacy, emphasis at work and trust in client on their exhibition of extra role behavior tends to reduce” (p.13)

INNOVATIVE BEHAVIOUR

Innovative behaviour refers to “intentional generation, promotion, and realization of new ideas within a work role, workgroup, or organization”

(Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004, p. 370). On a sample of tourist hotel employees, Srivastava and Dhar (2017) showed the positive and significant predicting ability of perception of training comprehensiveness on employee's innovative behaviour. Through multivariate data analysis on a data collected from 380 employees and their 76 managers/ supervisors (5:1 dyad) working in top rated tourist hotels in Uttarakhand India, they also confirmed *clarity and understanding learning and skill development and availability of resources* as three dimension of training comprehensiveness measure. The results indicated that when employees consider a comprehensive training as an expression of organisation's commitment towards their employees. When employees identify organisation's commitment to provide regular, different and sufficient number of training, they sense encouragement to perform innovative behaviour. Employees get stimulate to provide innovative ideas to solve problems, create original ideas to serve customers, seek new methods and techniques to do their work and consider them self-creative member of the team.

Further they provided two points to show the importance of training comprehensiveness. – “First, it is based on the past training programs provided by the organisation. Therefore, when employees have low training comprehensiveness perception, it means training, related resources, trainers and learnings provided were found to be less meaningful by the employees. Second, it includes broader perspective of training like quality of trainer, training resources, reason of training, time and frequency etc. This indicates that the perception of training comprehensiveness does not develop because of over confidence of employee or based on a social support/ consensus. It is generated out of one's need to receive a training that can support employee's day to day work and encourage their interest in work” (Srivastava and Dhar 2016b; p.335)

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organizational commitment can be explained as “certain sense of dedication and devotion of an individual toward an organization via acceptance of organizational objectives, rules, regulations, values and practices” (Srivastava and Dhar, 2016b; p.353). Grounded on the social exchange theory, Ehrhardt et al., (2011) examined the relationship between perceptions of training comprehensiveness and organizational commitment among individuals serving on cross-functional product development teams

within numerous large manufacturing firms. The multilevel regression analysis results supported a direct relationship between perceived training comprehensiveness and organizational commitment. Ismail (2016) examined through Multiple regression and showed the positive connection between training comprehensiveness and commitment on a sample of 124 employees working in different industries in the country of Lebanon. The author suggested offering of advanced training to individuals to increase their commitment to their employer.

ROLE BEHAVIOUR

Role behavior constitutes individual's in-role behavior, and organisational citizenship behavior towards individual and organisation. In role behavior refers to an employee's core task behaviour including job responsibility and role expectations. Organizational citizenship behavior explains behavior beyond in role behavior, mainly targeted towards organizational effectiveness.

Examining the effect of training comprehensiveness on role behavior, Srivastava and Dhar (2015) showed that "when teachers perceive training as comprehensive, they sense an increment in their skills and knowledge and aim at attaining professional excellence. Such feeling raises their efficacy towards problem-solving and managing work effectively, thus making them internally strong so as to give more efforts in teaching" (p.655).

ACADEMIC OPTIMISM

Academic optimism refers to a latent construct defining teachers' belief towards self, colleagues and students. AO can be defined as a "triadic set of interactions" (Hoy, et al., 2006) amid collective efficacy, academic emphasis and trust in students and parents (Kirby, 2009). AO is a latent construct, based on positive psychology, evolved through the empirical studies underwent in relating three school characteristics with academic achievement. The collective efficacy (CE) represents the cognitive aspect of human behaviour, a teacher's belief to make certain divergence in the degree of their student level of learning and their self-belief to cope up with adverse situations (McGuigan & Hoy, 2006). Conceived on the theory of Bandura's Social cognitive theory (2001), high CE provides teachers higher ability to control adverse situations and make decisions in stressful conditions (Mascall et al., 2008; Anderson, 2012)

with higher confidence to carry out their tasks successfully and encourage their students to perform well in the classroom (Wahlstrom & Louis, 2008).

Srivastava and Dhar (2016) proposed training comprehensiveness to moderate the effect of organisational commitment on teachers' academic optimism. The study provided that training comprehensiveness is "one of the perceptions of an individual which contributes to his or her judgement of whether the training fulfils his or her job-related needs (Srivastava and Dhar, 2015a). Extending Ehrhardt et al., (2011), the study showed the independent effect of individual-level perception of training comprehensiveness on teachers' academic optimism. In other words, they indicated that when perceptions of TC are positive, teachers' commitment to executing AO, that is, collective efficacy, academic emphasis and relational trust, would be higher. On the other hand, if the individuals perceive training as less comprehensive, the positive effect of commitment to perform AO would also decrease."

EMPLOYER BRANDING

Mishra, & Kumar, (2019), showed the relevance of training comprehensiveness towards employer branding. The authors presented that comprehensive training encourage individuals to stay committed with the organization by developing a positive employer branding. Employees commitment to organization increases their tendency to stay in the organization for a longer term. This further enhances the organizational performance and enable positive word of mouth promotion for the organization. Positive market branding of the organization enables attraction of skilled and knowledgeable applicants.

DEVELOPING A COMPREHENSIVE TRAINING

Few of the measures to make training more comprehensive are-

- The employers should contribute towards advancement of the training comprehensiveness to avail better opportunities for innovative and spontaneous teachers' extra role behaviour in the school.
- Training based on common pattern and framework does not give significant contribution to academic success.
- To improve the status of training and for making it comprehensive, the organisation can encourage context specific training.

Understanding the Perception of Training Comprehensiveness

- Employers can assess the training needs of the employees and give feedback to the authorities responsible for designing a training session.
- One more important recommendation in this regard will be inclusion of content with specific objective to motivate extra role behaviour among employees.
- Furthermore, employers can involve all stakeholders together in the process and understand the needs based on their daily operational issues.
- Grounded on this, a requisition can be forwarded to authorities to plan and design the training accordingly. The main focus should be to improve performance and ability to cope adverse situations pertaining to effective execution of tasks.
- New technological aspects can also be involved in the training also with professionally trained personnel.
- There is an option of availing support from private training agencies for designing effective and comprehensive training modules that can minimize the performance gap (desired performance-actual performance=performance gap) of employees by offering them frequent and regular training to instil new skills and knowledge (Elgammal, 2013a).
- Information regarding what is expected from employees, agenda of training and the actual performance status can also be provided to trainees (employees). This can provide them better learning opportunity and can help them to improve themselves.
- Effective training can only enable teachers to perceive their training as comprehensive. Training facilities should be promoted by revealing their relevance to the teachers' development and their overall performance. Rather than providing a paid holiday to them, training programs should be framed in such a manner that they provide complete satisfaction among employees, thus allowing effective implementation of training skills in real life situations (Srivastava,2017).
- Appropriate resources should be availed relevant to a particular job.
- The trainer appointed should be well versed with the area of the job and should have in depth knowledge of the topic and real life examples.
- Social networks and blogging can also be used to market the training motives and its benefits in trainees' lives.
- A campaign can also be panned to make training perceived to be effective.

CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

Training comprehensiveness is a significant aspect of HRD. However, the construct of training comprehensiveness is not widely explored in literature. This study attempted to contribute to extant knowledge base in training domain by uncovering the dimensions of training comprehensiveness. Further, the study found that the construct of training comprehensiveness requires more emphasis in HRD literature. Because, only working on this construct can provide a strong basis for policymakers to redefine their HRD policies and practices. The formation of a strong knowledge base of the construct would give a ground to provide. The construct resembles that attitude towards training is very significant in defining the outcome behaviour of individuals. It is also relevant towards measuring post-training performance and behavioural changes. The construct of training comprehensiveness requires more emphasis in HRD literature as working on this construct can provide a basis for policymaker's to redefine their HRD policies and practices. Further, right knowledge of the construct would give a ground to provide. The construct resembles that attitude towards training is very significant in defining the outcome behaviour of individuals. It is also applicable towards measuring post-training performance and behavioural changes.

FUTURE SCOPE OF THE STUDY

This chapter is an outcome of initial study towards the conceptualisation of perception of training comprehensiveness that strategically paves way for other future studies in different contexts and samples. Further, scholars are encouraged to develop measures to evaluate the variable. Other independent variables can also be linked to the constructs and validity of the same can be checked. The perception of training comprehensiveness is context specific and depends on the demographics of the individual. Therefore, more studies are required to develop the concept in different cultures.

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APPENDIX

Questions

1. How can you make training comprehensive?
2. Does training comprehensiveness help employees to work better and effectively?
3. What are the key outcomes of perception towards training?
4. To meet the current generation training needs, what extra add-ons are required?
5. Imagine yourself as a management consultant. Your client needs to revise their training patterns and programme to suit the needs of the millennials. What strategy would you suggest them to let training be perceived as comprehensive.

Chapter 5

Work Environment Factors Affecting the Transfer of Training in Female Workers in the Apparel Sector of Sri Lanka

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ABSTRACT

With the increased investment in training and development initiatives, the organizations wishing to enhance their return on investment must understand the factors that influence transfer of training. This research analyzes the impact of the work environment factors on the transfer of training. Data were garnered through a questionnaire from a sample of 100 female workers in an apparel manufacturing company in Sri Lanka. Partial least squares structural equations modeling was used to analyze the proposed model and it could achieve the coefficient of prediction (R^2) of transfer of training as high as 82%, implying the significance of supervisor support, peer support, openness to change, and personal outcomes – positive on transfer of training, while feedback reported no significant impact. Further, positive personal outcomes had the strongest influence on transfer of training. Therefore, practitioners should take into account the contributions associated with each environmental factor and especially to ensure that training transfer outcomes are positive and valued by the employees.

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INTRODUCTION

In the era of knowledge economy, the organizations invest money, time and effort heavily on the training and development of its employees in the aim of empowering the knowledge base, as knowledge becomes the primary factor of production in the modern organizations. But the real question is how much of these investments really pay back. In other words the transfer of training at the workplace remain to be a question for most companies, as return on investment in training is generally considered unsatisfactory. As an organization has a limited budget to be spent across the overall functions of the organizations, most managers deals with the problem of opportunity cost of the training and development initiatives. The human resource development (HRD) professionals in the organizations should ensure that their decisions make a significant impact on improving the employees' performance due to the training and development efforts. To enable an organization to utilize learned knowledge, skills and behavior acquired during a learning event, learning transfer must take place between the classroom and the workplace.

Learning is defined as an enduring change in behavior or in the capacity to behave in a given fashion resulting from practice or other forms of experiences (Schunk, 2008). Transfer of training is the extent to which the trainees apply the learned knowledge, skills, and attitudes in the real workplace setting. As a result of the financial investments organizations make in training, it is important to provide evidence that training efforts are being fully realized (Cascio, 2000; Tahvanainen, Welch, & Worm, 2005). According to the literature, only 10% of learning is transferred as real behavioral changes, and no more than 50% of investment in training results in some real organizational improvement (Saks, 2002). As Arthur Jr, Bennett Jr, Edens, and Bell (2003) suggests, although approximately 40 per cent of content is transferred immediately following training, this falls to 25 per cent after 6 months and 15 per cent after 1 year. Further, the literature indicates that in the short term only 50% of training transfers to the job, and in the longer term, only 10% will ultimately transfer (Kim & Lee, 2001). However, empirical findings of Saks and Belcourt (2006) confirm higher transfer rates. Further as Griffin (2012) claims, most evaluation activities of transfer of training by the organizations focuses on learning rather than on performance outcomes. Therefore, the question of how the transfer of training problem applies both theoretically and practically has been resolved unsatisfactorily (Hutchins, Burke, & Berthelsen, 2010). Neither causes nor the determinants which boost or hinder transfer of training

are examined (Gessler & Hinrichs, 2015; Rowold & Kauffeld, 2008). For this reason, an analysis of the determinants of transfer of training is indispensable.

The organizations concerned with the return on investment from learning and training investments must do an accurate diagnosis of those factors that affect transfer of learning. Transfer of training is influenced by a number of factors categorized in various ways by researchers. The most widely accepted categorization available in the literature is given by Baldwin and Ford (1988), as trainee characteristics, training design and work environment. According to them, trainee characteristics concern the personal traits which include ability, personality, and motivation. The training design includes a strong transfer design and appropriate content. It is concerned with principles of learning, sequencing of training content, and training content. Work environment, include the support received by the managers/supervisors and from the peers in order to apply what they have learned back on the job, and the work environment dimension is also concerned with the extent to which the trainee has the opportunity to use and practice what he or she has learned in training.

Out of the factors related to training transfer, the work environment factor has received the least attention by researchers (Brown & McCracken, 2009; Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Cheng & Ho, 2001). More specifically, there is not a clear consensus on the nomological network of factors affecting transfer of learning in the workplace (Holton III, Bates, & Ruona, 2000). The lack of a well-validated and reasonably comprehensive set of scales to measure factors in the transfer system may be a key barrier to organizational transfer systems. This is certainly a neglected area and one in which much more work is needed (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). When re-entering the workplace after training, trainees have to cope with the dynamics of the workplace that might support or inhibit the use of learned knowledge and skills. It has often been argued that the workplace and work environment itself could be a major force in hindering or enhancing transfer. Nevertheless, the workplace environment has been proved to significantly influence the transfer of training (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Chauhan, Ghosh, Rai, & Shukla, 2016; Na-nan, Chaiprasit, & Pukkeeree, 2017; Noorizan, Afzan, & Akma, 2016; Pham, Segers, & Gijsselaers, 2013). The study argues that work environment factors could play a key role in the understanding of transfer of training. Thus examines the work environment factors that impact transfers of training in the female workers, with special reference to the apparel sector in Sri Lanka.

The present study aims to address several limitations of the previous studies. Firstly, the research examines the impact of the work environment factors on transfer of training. Secondly, the research examines the most

significant factor that impacts the effective transfer of training in the work place, among the work environment factors that are studies under the research. This research examines the above factors with regards to the female workers, hence providing an important insight into women learning theories and how female workers perceive transfer of training. Also this research empirically validates the Holton III et al. (2000) Learning Transfer Systems Inventory (LTSI) model, confirming its applicability among the female workers in the apparel sector of Sri Lanka.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study attempted to answer the following research questions:

- What is the impact of feedback, supervisor support, peer support, openness to change, and personal outcomes -positive on Transfer of Training?
- What is the most influencing Work Environment Factor that impact Transfer of Training to become strong?

Research Objectives

The objectives of the research can be projected as follows:

- To identify the impact of feedback, supervisor support, peer support, openness to change, and personal outcomes positive on Transfer of Training
- To identify the most influencing Work Environment Factor that impact Transfer of Training to become strong

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Transfer of Training

Transfer refers to the process of trainee's application of what is learned in a training program to the job. According to Baldwin and Ford (1988), transfer of training (ToT) is defined as application of the trained skills and behaviors

from the training environment to the work environment, and the maintenance of trained skills and behavior. The transfer of can also be regarded as the extent to which an individual is able to repeat behavior learned from training programs in new situations (Foxon, 1994; Subedi, 2004). According to Burke and Hutchins (2007) and Nur, Ruhizan, and Bekri (2015), ToT is referred to the application of acquired knowledge, skills and attitudes to assigned tasks which can the current or future tasks. Chauhan et al. (2016) and Pham et al. (2013) also noted that transfer of training refers to application of the leaned knowledge, skills and attitudes in the workplace, which improves the trainees' performance of current and future responsibilities. Applying the newly acquired knowledge, skills and attitudes is important to companies, because it leads to improving the performance of the employee (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005). ToT will help an organization to organize, enhance the level of skill, knowledge, and attitudes, and at the same time it can improve the productivity of quality in an organization (Holton III et al., 2000; Yamkovenko, Holton III, & Bates, 2007). The transfer is a behavioral measure of training evaluation. Past researchers have identified it as one of the most important among all training effectiveness criteria (Gaudine & Saks, 2004; Park & Wentling, 2007). Since Baldwin and Ford (1988) researchers have generally viewed ToT as being affected by a system of influences. In the literature it is generally agreed that the transfer of training is a multidimensional construct.

Leaning Transfer Systems Inventory (LTSI)

The model use in this study was originated from LTSI which had been developed by Holton III et al. (2000). This model was developed based on the Holton's Transfer Model 1998 and it was categorized into four dimensions, namely ability, motivational elements, the work environment and secondary influences. These dimensions were studies under sixteen factors as, performance self-efficacy, learner readiness, motivation to transfer, transfer effort, performance, outcomes, feedback, peer support, supervisor support, openness to change, supervisor sanctions, positive personal outcomes, negative personal outcomes, content validity, transfer design, personal capacity for transfer and opportunity to use.

The LTSI model can be regarded as a subset of the HRD Research and Evaluation Model and the model theorizes that HRD outcomes can be regarded as a function of ability, motivation and environmental influences (Noe & Schmitt, 1986). This model can be used as a diagnostic instrument to find out

the factors that influence the training transfer processes because it displays the complete transfer system including the elements in the trainee, training, and work environment. Three primary training outcomes were defined in this model. These outcomes were: learning; individual performance; and organizational results.

According to this model, six factors were identified under the work environment dimension. They were feedback / performance coaching, peer support, supervisor support, openness to change, supervisor sanctions, positive personal outcomes, negative personal outcomes. This research examines the impact of these work environment factors on transfer of training, by adapting a model originated from the LTSI model.

Work Environment Factors

Work environment factors are the factors in the workplace that may affect individual application and maintenance of new skills learned in training. Work environment plays a vital role as the supportive tool for the transfer of training since environmental factors help determine whether or not trainees exhibit learned behaviors once they return to the work setting (Burke & Hutchins, 2008; Doo Hun Lim & Morris, 2006). Among other factors that facilitate transfer of training, the work environment following training has a significant impact on transfer outcomes (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Chauhan et al., 2016; Na-nan et al., 2017; Noorizan et al., 2016; Pham et al., 2013). Workplace environment refers to factors such as organizational support, supervisor support, peer/colleague support, technological support, opportunities to use learned skills, and consequences and rewards for using training on-the-job. Workplace should contain cues that prompt the use of new skills, and trainees should be provided with such things as opportunities to practice, goals and incentives and performance feedback (Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993). According to Na-nan et al. (2017) a supportive workplace and a conducive environment would encourage the utilization of acquired knowledge and skills. The organizational culture, policy, reward systems and management, influences the extent of the application of acquired knowledge and skills on training transfer. According to Holton III (1996) trainees who worked in conditions supportive of training transfer are more likely to transfer their learning to the job. According to Tracey and Tews (2005) the workplace environment directly and indirectly influences the trainees' training transfer.

Research on work environment factors distinguishes three levels of related work environmental factors: (a) general environmental factors; (b) factors generally related to training; and (c) factors specifically related to training (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Richey, 1992). According to Nijman, Nijhof, Wognum, and Veldkamp (2006), the difference between general work environment and specific work environment (transfer climate) is that transfer climate is specifically and intentionally directed at the transfer of training. Therefore, the current study examines the specific work environment factors (transfer climate) which include, opportunities to use training content, peer and supervisor support, supervisor sanctions, positive and negative personal outcomes, and resistance to change (Holton III et al., 2000; Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993).

According to the literature review on work environment factors, some researchers find that the elements within the work environment, for example social support (i.e.: supervisor support and peer support) have a strongest impact on transfer of training (Grossman & Salas, 2011), while Some authors do not find support by superiors to have a significant (Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005; Homklin, Takahashi, & Techakanont, 2014; Velada, Caetano, Michel, Lyons, & Kavanagh, 2007). This highlights a further need for research regarding the effect work environment factors has within the process of transfer.

Feedback

Performance coaching or feedback includes receiving and asking feedback from colleagues and discussion on performance and improving it. It is the systematic and constructive provision of performance-related information to trainees on the quantity and quality of their use of newly gained knowledge and skills, as a result of attending training (Broad & Newstrom, 1992; Kuchinke, 2000). Peer support is regarded as the extent to which individuals receive constructive input, assistance, and feedback from people in their work environment when applying new abilities or attempting to improve work performance. Feedback may be formal or informal cues from the workplace (Coetsee, Eiselen, & Basson, 2006). Specific feedback may also provide detailed information on corrective actions. After attending training, trainees should do reflect on their training experience and follow up with practice and discussion with the others and receive feedback. Training instructors and supervisors should provide post-training follow-up and feedback (Blume, Ford, Baldwin, & Huang, 2010). Feedback from various people positively influences the performance in the workplace (Smither, London, & Reilly, 2005). Three types of feedback

may influence the effectiveness of the feedback: the way feedback has been given, the frequency and the source of feedback (Becker & Klimoski, 1989). The most important thing is that feedback is about the performance of work or about the way tasks have been carried out. This type of feedback, with details about how an employee can improve his performance, is the most effective one (DeNisi & Kluger, 2000). Many studies have confirmed the effect of feedback on training transfer. According to Goodman, Wood, and Chen (2011) specific feedback and explicit information processing work together to impact the learning and subsequent transfer. Velada et al. (2007), also found that feedback regarding trainees' post-training performance significantly influenced transfer of training. On the other hand, an absence of feedback to the trainee on his or her performance impedes the transfer of training (Clarke, 2002).

Supervisor Support

Supervisor support refers to provision of the resources and removal of operational hindrances contributed to the effectiveness of training/learning transfer necessary for efficient operations (Chauhan et al., 2016; Rothwell & Sullivan, 2005). Support from supervisors also include recognition of the importance of employees participating in training programs (Chauhan et al., 2016; Cowman & McCarthy, 2016). Further, superiors support includes creating an atmosphere conducive to learning and/or encouraging employees to apply the acquired skills (Van der Klink, Gielen, & Nauta, 2001). Supervisor support is a significant contributing factor for enhancing transfer of training, also supervisors indicated to be among the most significant sources of feedback for employees on their performance (Van der Klink et al., 2001). A supervisor can show involvement by asking questions about learning aims of the training that has been followed (Grossman & Salas, 2011).

Doo H Lim and Johnson (2002) and Blume et al. (2010) indicate that the most important work environment factors affecting transfer of training is the supervisors support. Supervisors can provide support in various ways and at multiple stages in the training process. It can be a discussion with the supervisor on the use of new learning, the supervisor's involvement or familiarity with the training and positive feedback from the supervisor. Further it was found that employees tend to apply newly acquired knowledge and skills more often when they are rewarded or being paid compliments as forms of encouragement (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Cromwell & Kolb, 2004). It has also emphasized

the importance of supervisor involvement or participation in training for transfer outcomes (Gilpin-Jackson & Bushe, 2007; Saks & Belcourt, 2006). On the other hand lack of management support is a significant barrier to the transfer of training.

Peer Support

This includes the degree to which peers mutually identify and implement opportunities to apply skills and knowledge learned in training, encourage the use of or expect the application of new skills, display patience with difficulties associated with applying new skills, or demonstrate appreciation for the use of new skills (Coetsee et al., 2006). Colleagues are supporting the employee's learning process by encouraging and helping one another during the process of applying newly acquired knowledge and skills. Peer support could take the form of advice, discussion and/or the sharing of experiences that increase participants' skills and expertise. During this learning process it is important that employees should reflect on their performance and that colleagues stimulate each other in this. According to Gilpin-Jackson and Bushe (2007), observing others using trained skills and being able to coach one another greatly facilitated training transfer. A study also demonstrated that transfer is facilitated when trainees network with peers and share ideas about course content (Hawley & Barnard, 2005). Peer support creates an atmosphere in which knowledge and experiences are freely shared and exchanged between employees (Grossman & Salas, 2011). When encouraging colleagues in their application of acquired knowledge and skills, a positive way of communicating is important (Van Woerkom, 2004). Literature supports a positive relationship between peer support and the transfer of training (Blume et al., 2010). Furthermore, peer support showed a strong, direct relationship with transfer, as well as an indirect influence through its impact on motivation.

Openness to Change

This includes the work groups' ability to change, willingness to invest energy in change, and the degree of support provided to individuals who use techniques learned in training (Coetsee et al., 2006). It is the extent to which prevailing group norms are perceived by trainees' to enable or encourage the use of skills and knowledge acquired in training. Openness to change is also defined as the extent to which employees are willing to support a change, and

their positive affect about the potential consequences of the change (Miller, Johnson, & Grau, 1994). Within the Theory of Planned Behavior (1991) it is referred to as 'subjective norms' that influence the intention to apply a specific behavior and ultimately behavior itself. Coming back to the workplace from the training, trainees have to confront environmental and situational factors, that not only support but also that might challenge the transfer process. In this study, openness to change was seen as cooperation of coworkers/peers to use new knowledge and skills of training or support doing the work by applying new learning, instead of doing in the usual manner. Previous studies concretely indicated that coworkers' openness will increase trainee motivation to transfer (EA Ruona, Leimbach, F. Holton III, & Bates, 2002) and transfer outcomes (Cheng & Ho, 2001). According to a study by Choi and Ruona (2011) openness to change is a strong predictor for motivation to transfer.

Personal Outcomes: Positive

It is the degree to which application of training on the job leads to positive outcomes or payoffs for the individual (Holton III et al., 2000). Or it is the degree to which applying training on the job leads to outcomes either positive or negative to the individuals (Holton III et al., 2000). Personal outcomes can be divided into two types; positive and negative (LeClaire, 2007). The degree to which applying training on the job leads to outcomes that is positive for the individual is regarded as positive personal outcomes. According to, LeClaire (2007) the trainees apply the training outcomes to gain advantage such as rewards in terms of promotions, higher salary and positions (Holton III et al., 2000), positive performance evaluations (Facteau, Dobbins, Russell, Ladd, & Kudisch, 1995), and verbal praise and promotion chance increases (Xiao, 1996). The perception of a clear link between training-based improved performance and rewards implies high outcome expectancies which, in turn, suggest high motivation to transfer (Bandura, 1982). Literature provides evidence that positive personal outcomes such as pay and promotion, praise and recognition, have a direct impact on post training behaviors and transfer of training (Tracey & Tews, 1995).

Conceptual Framework

As per the literature review, the conceptual framework is developed by the researcher by adapting a model from the Learning Transfer Systems Inventory

model (LTSI) by Holton III et al. (2000). This research aims to identify the impact of the work environment factors on the transfer of training. Thus, the independent variable of the study is the work environment factors and the transfer of training is considered as the dependent variable.

Hypothesis Development

According to the conceptual mode, following hypotheses were developed.

H1: Feedback has a positive impact on Transfer of Training

H2: Supervisor Support has a positive impact on Transfer of Training

H3: Peer Support has a positive impact on Transfer of Training

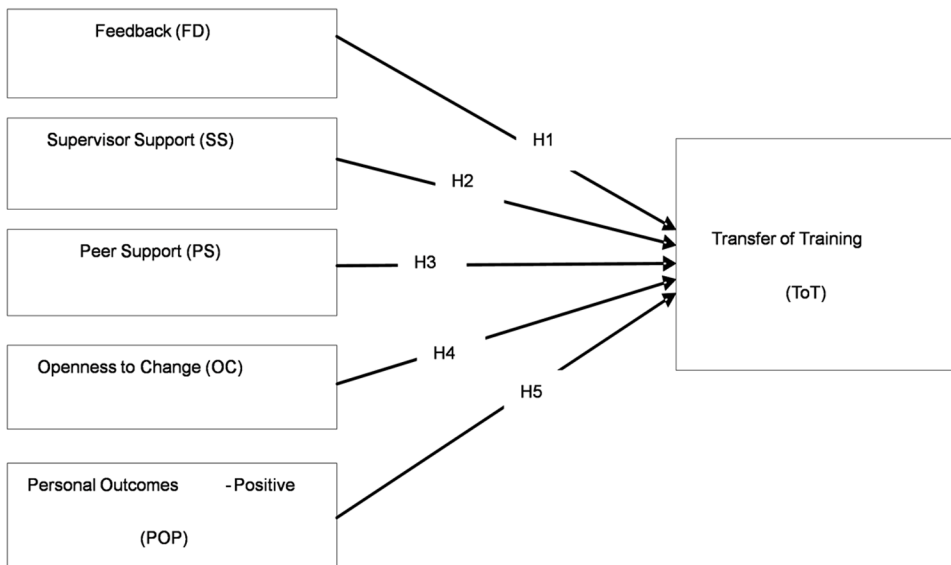
H4: Openness to Change has a positive impact on Transfer of Training

H5: Personal Outcomes- positive has a positive impact on Transfer of Training

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In order to achieve the research objectives of the study, the researcher follows the quantitative research design, as the aim of a quantitative research is to

Figure 1.



determine the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent or outcome variable in a population (Hopkins, 2008).

As mentioned before, this study is aimed to identify the impact of work environment factors on the transfer of training in the female worker in the apparel sector in Sri Lanka. The apparel sector was chosen for the study due to the fact that, Sri Lanka's textile and clothing industry plays a vital role in the country's economy and a significant amount of investments are allocated annually for the training and development efforts of the operational level employees (Fonseka & Fonseka, 1998). The apparel industry is a major source of employment and a major contributor to Sri Lanka's gross domestic product (GDP) and exports and foreign exchange earnings. The clothing industry in Sri Lanka has seen rapid expansion, and investments have been made in sustainability, innovation, creativity and skill developments. The development of the working abilities, skills and job relevant knowledge of employee by proper training with other initiatives is too much essential for retaining garment sector's growth and establishment in the country. Many of the apparel sector companies have realized the importance of training and development of the employees, yet a little attention has been focused on evaluating the transfer of training. Therefore this study focus on the work environment factors in an apparel manufacturing company and the impact of those work environment factor on the transfer of training.

The Sri Lankan apparel industry which operates in a highly competitive global market, mostly occupies female workers. The workforce has been dominated by women; in fact, women have always managed to secure more than 80 per cent of the employment share in the industry. Therefore this study identifies how female workers perceive the work environment factors and their impact on training transfer. However, the problem of transfer of training is not an issue limited only to females. Conceptually, Hyde (2005) gender similarities hypothesis argues that men and women are alike on most – but not all – psychological variables; and if studies report differences, then they are moderate or small (or even trivial) in size. As literature indicates, the gendered strategies are redundant (Zell, Krizan, & Teeter, 2015), thus the results of this study could be applicable when developing HRD strategies concerning both female and male workers (Gegenfurtner, 2018).

Data Collection

The data was collected for the study from one of the Sri Lanka's largest apparel sector company operating in a Board of Investment (BOI) zone in Sri Lanka. The company, hereafter mentioned as the ABC (Pvt) Ltd, manages a portfolio of businesses with revenue of USD 1.8bn and is positioned as one of the world's most recognized design to delivery solution providers in the realm of the apparel and textile manufacturing. It is also the largest apparel and textile manufacturer in South Asia. The organization is headquartered in Sri Lanka with 53 manufacturing facilities placed across 16 countries, with design locations placed in key style centers across the globe and over 95,000 people involved in its operation. Due to the above mentioned factor the ABC (Pvt) Ltd was chosen for the purpose of data collection.

The data was collected for the research from 100 female workers who have participated for the 'Shilpa Yathra' training program conducted by the company.

Purposive sampling technique was used to collect data as it was necessary that the participants of the survey have undertaken the 'Shilpa Yathra' training program prior to answering the questions. As Tongco (2007) defined purposive sampling is used in the study due to the fact that, particular settings, persons, or events are deliberately selected for the important information they can provide that cannot be gotten as well from other choices. A self administered written questionnaire was distributed to collect the data from the selected sample.

Measurement Scale

All items are taken from existing measurement scales that were found in literature and measured with a 5 point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 = "strongly agree".

The work environment factors which include feedback, supervisor support, peer support, openness to change and personal outcomes -positive were measure using the scale developed by Baharim (2008). Feedback construct was measured using five items, a sample items is "*After training, I will receive feedback to improve what I have learned from the training*". The supervisor support was also measured using five items where "*My supervisor sets the training objective to encourage me practice what I have learned from the training*" is a sample item. A sample item for peer support is "*My colleagues always willing to discuss on how to put into practice what I have learned in*

carrying out duties” and it was measure along with another three items. *“My team is ready to change”* is a sample item representing openness to change construct which was measured using five items. The personal outcomes positive was measured with six items, a sample item is *“My work will be rewarded if I put into practice what I have learned”*.

The transfer of training was measured using a scale by Tesluk, Farr, Mathieu, and Vance (1995), which included six items. A sample item of transfer of training is *“Usage of skills acquired from training has helped me improve my work”*

Data Analysis

In order to analyze the data obtained through the questionnaires both descriptive statistics and inferential statistics were employed by the researcher. Descriptive statistics are used to display and analyze the demographic profile of the respondents. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to identify the invalid items. The principle components extraction method was used to test whether the items loaded on the expected factors as the literature suggests. And the confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to further validate the results. The study employed structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis using PLS method to test the hypothesis of the research model. The partial least squares path modeling (PLS-PM) method to structural equation modeling (SEM) allows estimating complex cause-effect relationship models with latent variables. PLS SEM analysis was chosen for the study because recently SEM has been extensively used for model testing and it is an extension of multiple regression analysis and factor analysis and it is mostly suitable for a analysis with small sample size (Joe F Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011; Iacobucci, 2010).

Demographic Profile of the Respondents

The sample contains 100 female respondents. The age breakdown of the sample demonstrates that the great majority of the respondents are within the age group 23 years to 27 years which account into 54 percent of the total respondents. Another 22 percent of respondents within the age group ranging from 28 years to 32 years, and 13 percent from the age group of 33 years to 37 years. Only less than 10 percent of respondents fall in to other age categories. This analysis demonstrate that most of the respondents participated to the survey are young female workers who are below 32 years.

Gathered data shows that almost 77 percent of the respondent's highest educational qualification is the secondary education. 10 percent of respondents are undergraduates. Another 10 percent of respondents are having only completed primary education and only 3 percent of the respondents are graduates.

When analyzing the years of service rendered to the organization by the employees who participated for the survey, 45 percent of respondents' service period is 6 to 10 years, and 42 percent of respondents' service period account in to 1 to 5 years. Another 12 percent of the employees service period belongs to 11 to 15 years category, and only 1 respondent were reported with service period of 16 to 19 years.

Reliability and Validity of the Measurement Scale

The reliability of the measurement scale refers to the consistency of a measure. The reliability of the scales was analyzed in the form of internal consistency reliability, which is the consistency of people's responses across the items on a multiple-item measure. The results are presented in the Table 1. All the dimensions of the Work environment factors were confirmed to have high reliability exceeding the threshold, inter-item correlation above 0.4, Cronbach's α above 0.7. One item in the Transfer of Training scale (*I make fewer mistakes in job when I use the skills I have acquired from training*) was deleted due to poor inter item correlation, while all other items in the Transfer of Training scale were reported with high reliability.

Validity is the extent to which the scores from a measure represent the variable they are intended to. Exploratory factor analysis with promax rotation was conducted on the items which were confirmed from the reliability analysis. One item from the Openness to Change scale (*My team is too flexible with*

Table 1. Cronbach's alpha's reliability values

Variable	Cronbach's α
Feedback	0.826
Supervisor Support	0.869
Peer Support	0.803
Openness to Change	0.811
Personal Outcomes- Positive	0.930
Transfer of Training	0.921

the existing work procedures) were removed from the scale due to poor factor loading (<0.5). The Work Environment Factors loaded respectively to the five dimensions as suggested in the literature (Holton III et al., 2000) and the Transfer of Training loaded as a one-dimensional factor.

Data Screening and Preparation for PLS SEM

The data were initially screened and validated to see the suitability for conducting further analysis using PLS-SEM, through conducting the reliability and validity of the measurement scales. According to Chin (2010) and Joe F Hair et al. (2011) the thumb of rule for PLS path modeling is 1 to 10 times of arrows pointed to a variable in the model. The research model consists of five arrows in which the rule demands only a sample of 50 cases where the sample size 100 is well above the minimum requirement. Further, the Kaiser-Meyer- Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was used to examine the appropriateness of the factor analysis. The KMO value (0.857) was found to be over 0.5, indicating sampling adequacy.

Evaluation of Measurement Model

The PLS model assessment procedure is generally comprised of two stages as postulated by Chin (2010) and Joe F Hair et al. (2011). Accordingly the structural model assessment displays the relationships between the constructs and the measurement models assessment display the relationships between the constructs and the indicator variables.

Assessment of the reflective measurement models includes composite reliability to evaluate internal consistency, individual indicator reliability, and average variance extracted (AVE) to evaluate convergent validity and the Fornell-Larcker criterion and cross loadings are used to assess discriminant validity.

The results of the analysis of composite reliability showed a higher composite reliability of the constructs in the model ranging from 0.8693 to 0.9451 which is above the threshold 0.7 (Joseph F Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2013) as displayed in the Table 2.

To establish convergent validity, researchers consider the outer loadings of the indicators, as well as the average variance extracted (AVE). As a rule of thumb these outer loading should be statistically significant and they should be 0.708 or higher (Joseph F Hair et al., 2013). considering the impact of

removal of the items on the composite reliability and the convergent validity as suggested by the scholars, out of the 29 items which was confirmed from the exploratory factor analysis, one item from Feedback scale (*The feedback helps me a lot in increasing my job performance*), was removed from the confirmatory factor analysis due to the poor loading. Greater loadings of remaining indicators (0.748 to 0.926) specified the reliability of measures as shown the Table 2 below.

Convergent validity of measures was further established through Average Variance Extracted (AVE). According to Joseph F Hair et al. (2013) this value should be greater than 0.50. All AVE values of the measurement model (0.6250 to 0.7650) as shown in the Table 2, were above the standard requirement for robust PLS model loadings.

The discriminant validity of the constructs was established according to the Fornell-Larcker criterion. The results showed that the square root of AVE of each construct is significantly higher than the squared correlations between the other constructs as shown below in Table 3.

Evaluation of Structural Model and Hypothesis Testing

Before moving into the analysis, the researcher wants to examine the structural model for collinearity. The collinearity of the independent variables was assessed by using IBM SPSS Statistics 21, and the results indicated that the three independent variables; sensory experience, affective experience, and intellectual experience are free from collinearity issues. The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), of the predictor variables was below 5.0, and tolerance levels were above 0.2 for all the variables.

All path coefficients as presented in Table 4 show convincing positive values, only the connection between the constructs Feedback and Transfer of Training is quite weak positive but with a small value of 0.123.

PLS iterative bootstrapping procedure was conducted by generating 5000 sub samples with 100 cases, to identify the standard error of the constructs. The below Table 4 exhibits outcomes of the PLS bootstrapping procedure in evaluating proposed structural model relationships. The hypothesis one (H1) proposed a positive impact of Feedback on Transfer of Training. H1 was not supported due to non significance of the t-statistics, even though the path coefficients were positive ($\beta = 0.123$, $t = 1.518$). The hypothesis two (H2) proposed a positive impact of Supervisor Support on Transfer of Training and this hypothesis was accepted due to significant path coefficients ($\beta = 0.216$,

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Table 2. Measurement model estimation: reliability and convergent validity

Variable/ Item	Standardized Loadings	T- Statistics	Composite Reliability	AVE
Feedback			0.869	0.625
FD1 -After training, I will receive feedback to improve what I have learned from the training	0.776	10.906***		
FD3-I will accept any constructive comment every time I put into practice what I have learned from the training	0.753	10.190***		
FD4-I will accept any lesson every time I try to put into practice what I have learned from the training	0.849	20.379***		
FD5-I will accept any good advice every time I try to put into practice what I have learned from the training	0.782	11.674***		
Supervisor Support			0.906	0.658
SS1- My supervisor sets the training objective to encourage me practice what I have learned from the training	0.775	13.215***		
SS2- My supervisor meets regularly with me to work on problems I may be having in trying to use what I have learned	0.860	26.151***		
SS3- My supervisor will support me to apply what I have learned from the training in carrying out duties	0.786	12.741***		
SS4- My supervisor will help me to apply what I have learned from the training in carrying out duties	0.826	21.321***		
SS5- My supervisor will always provide me with encouragement to practice what I have learned from the training in carrying out duties	0.807	18.706***		
Peer Support			0.872	0.629
PS1- My colleagues always willing to discuss on how to put into practice what I have learned in carrying out duties	0.804	17.501***		
PS2- My colleague will support me to put into practice what I have learned from the training	0.771	12.995***		
PS3- My colleague is willing to help me to put into practice what I have learned from the training	0.779	13.620***		
PS4- My colleague is willing to give his opinions in helping me to put into practice what I have learned from the training	0.817	24.338***		
Openness to Change			0.884	0.657
OC1- My team is ready to change	0.748	11.045***		
OC2- My team is willing to accept changes	0.871	22.833***		
OC3- My team is ready to learn new methods	0.846	21.417***		
OC5- My team is willing to accept new ideas	0.770	13.415***		
Personal Outcomes-Positive			0.945	0.742

continued on following page

Work Environment Factors Affecting the Transfer of Training in Female Workers

Table 2. Continued

Variable/ Item	Standardized Loadings	T- Statistics	Composite Reliability	AVE
POP1- My work will be rewarded if I put into practice what I have learned	0.829	15.545***		
POP2- I will obtain a good score in my performance appraisal if I put into practice what I have learned in carrying out duties	0.863	27.198***		
POP3- My work quality will increase if I put into practice what I have learned	0.917	45.489***		
POP4- I will work with more confidence if I put into practice what I have learned from the training	0.868	21.057***		
POP5- I will work with more effective if I put into practice what I have learned	0.861	22.875***		
POP6- I will work with more organized if I put into practice what I have learned from the training	0.827	15.912***		
Transfer of Training			0.942	0.765
ToT1- Usage of skills acquired from training has helped me improve my work	0.826	15.733***		
ToT2- I can complete my work faster than I could before attending training	0.871	27.238***		
ToT3- I complete my work faster than I could before attending training	0.926	43.150***		
ToT4- I can complete my work in a better way after attending training	0.853	16.997***		
ToT5- The quality of my work has improved after using skills acquired from training	0.894	32.322***		

Note: Level of significance extracted from Bootstrapping Analysis *** Significant at 0.01 level. Key: AVE= Average Variance Extracted.

Table 3. Measurement model evaluation: discriminant validity (Fornell-Larcker criterion)

	FD	OC	PS	POP	SS	ToT
FD	0.791	0	0	0	0	0
OC	0.468	0.810	0	0	0	0
PS	0.340	0.280	0.793	0	0	0
POP	0.350	0.363	0.681	0.861	0	0
SS	0.331	0.338	0.641	0.767	0.811	0
ToT	0.478	0.469	0.729	0.845	0.776	0.875

Notes: FD=Feedback, OC=Openness to Change, PS=Peer Support, POP=Personal Outcomes-Positive, SS=Supervisor Support, ToT=Transfer of Training, Diagonal items: $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$.

$t = 1.988, p= 0.05$). Similarly the hypothesis three (H3) which proposed a positive impact of Peer Support on Transfer of Training was supported with significant path coefficients ($\beta = 0.207, t = 2.394, p= 0.05$). The fourth hypothesis (H4) was also accepted due to significant path coefficients ($\beta = 0.116, t = 2.435, p= 0.05$), which proposed a positive impact of Openness to Change on Transfer of Training. The Fifth hypothesis (H5) proposed that the Personal Outcomes- Positive has a positive impact on Transfer of Training and this hypothesis was accepted indicating a robust impact, and this hypothesis was accepted at 0.01 significance level ($\beta =0.453, t =3.939, p= 0.01$). The Table 4 below illustrates the standardized path coefficients (predictive relevance) and relevant t-statistic of relationships obtained through PLS bootstrapping performance.

The structural equation model illustrated by the Figure 2 was assessed by coefficient of determination (R²) of endogenous latent variables. The research model explains 0.815 percent of variance of Work Environment Factors on Transfer of Training. According to (Joseph F Hair et al., 2013), R² values 0.25, 0.50 and 0.75 represent weak, moderate and substantial predictive power of endogenous latent variables respectively. Thus the proposed model explains substantial predictor power of Transfer of Training construct. The structural equation model illustrated by the Figure 2, represent the above results in detail.

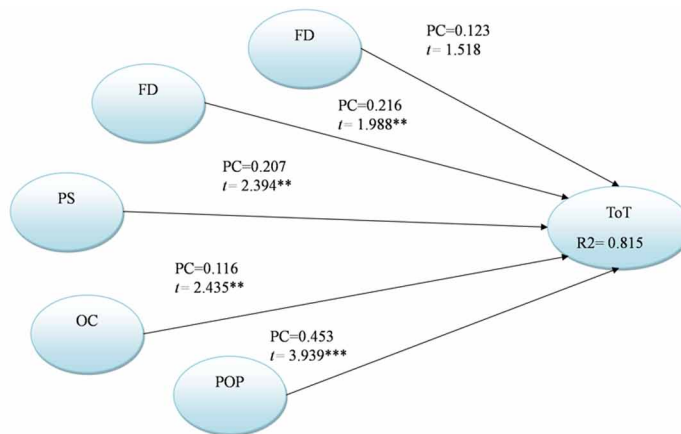
In addition to evaluating the magnitude of the R² values as a criterion of predictive accuracy, researchers should also examine Stone-Geisser’s Q² value. This measure is an indicator of the model’s predictive relevance. In the structural model, Q² values larger than zero for a certain reflective endogenous latent variable indicate the path model’s predictive relevance for this particular construct (Joseph F Hair et al., 2013).

Table 4. Results of proposed model (using PLS-SEM)

Hypothesis	Variables	Path Coefficients	t-statistics	Status
H1	Feedback- Transfer of Training (+)	0.123	1.518	Not supported
H2	Supervisor Support- Transfer of Training (+)	0.216	1.988**	Supported
H3	Peer Support – Transfer of Training (+)	0.207	2.394**	Supported
H4	Openness to Change- Transfer of Training (+)	0.116	2.435**	Supported
H5	Personal Outcomes Positive- Transfer of Training (+)	0.453	3.939***	Supported

Note: The significance levels are determined through bootstrapping analysis (Hair et al, 2013) *** = Significant at p<0.01 level, **= Significant at p<0.05 level.

Figure 2.



Note: PC= Path Coefficient or Predictive Relevance, t= t-statistic, *** = Significant at $p < 0.01$ level, ** = Significant at $p < 0.05$ level R2= Coefficient of Determination, FD= Feedback, SS=Supervisor Support, PS=Peer Support, OC=Openness to Change, POP= Personal Outcomes-Positive, ToT= Transfer of Training.

The Q2 value is obtained by using the blindfolding procedure for an omission distance of 7 ($D=7$). As per the threshold points, the Q2 value is higher than zero ensured path models' predictive relevance. Model's predictive relevance (Q2) for reflective endogenous variable Transfer of Training was satisfactory ($Q2=0.617$) indicating the path model's predictive relevance.

DISCUSSION

According to the results of the analysis, out of the five dimensions of the work environment, the Supervisor Support, Peer Support, Openness to Change and Personal Outcomes Positive were confirmed to have a significant impact on Transfer of Training, while Feedback/ performance coaching were had no significant impact on transfer of training. The results of this research demonstrate the importance of influence of work environment on transfer of training, as the model predicts 82 percent variance of Transfer of Training by the work environment factors.

The findings are consistent with existing literature who also found that Supervisor Support, Peer Support, Openness to change and Personal Outcomes Positive significantly influence transfer of training (Choi & Ruona, 2011; Holton III et al., 2000; Tracey & Tews, 1995). It has been documented that

trainees who work in conditions supportive of training transfer are more likely to transfer their learning to the job (Holton III, 1996). It can be said that there is a relationship between workplace environment and transfer of training. In other words, the more conducive and supportive the workplace environment is, the higher the likelihood that employees will apply the training they acquire to the tasks they are responsible for (i.e. training transfer). Work environment factors, as perceived by the trainees and supervisors, can impact on the trainees skills when being applied to the job (Abozed, Melaine, & Saci, 2009). However, it is also acknowledged that transfer climate is unique, with each organization having their own (Facteau & Craig, 2001; Holton III et al., 2000; Van der Klink et al., 2001). Thus it can be concluded that within the context of this study, Supervisor Support, Peer Support, Openness to change and Personal Outcomes -Positive has a positive and significant impact on the transfer of training of the among the female workers in the apparel sector companies in Sri Lanka.

Further, the research model predicted that Feedback or Performance coaching has no significant impact on Transfer of Training. This finding is consistent with Baharim (2008) who studied the government employees attending training programs, in Malaysian context, also found that feedback was negatively related to motivation to transfer, and it was indicated by a negative standardized beta, in his study. Thus it can be concluded that the perception of inadequate or negative feedback and lack of support are serious detractors of transfer of training.

The second research objective of the study was to find the most influencing factor within the work environment factors that supported transfer of training to become strong. Satisfying this objective the proposed model predicted that Personal Outcomes Positive had the strongest influence on transfer of training ($\beta = 0.453$, $t = 3.939$, $p = 0.01$). This results are also consistent with Baharim (2008) who found that the most significant transfer climate variable was personal outcomes positive. In the transfer of training literature, several studies have shown the significant influence of personal outcomes-positive on training transfer (EA Ruona et al., 2002; Holton III et al., 2000; Tracey, Tannenbaum, & Kavanagh, 1995). These results suggest that trainees are more motivated to transfer training when they believe that applying training on the job will lead to valued outcomes. Therefore it can be concluded that the degree to which applying training on-the-job leads to positive outcomes that are positive and favorable for the individual is the major factor influencing the transfer of training among the female workers in the apparel sector of Sri Lanka.

CONCLUSION

The objectives of the study was to identify the impact of work environment factor on the transfer of training and to identify the most influencing variable among the work environment factors that impact transfer of training to become strong. As a summary of the findings of this research it can be concluded that the work environment factors significantly impact the transfer of training within an organization, except Feedback which was found to have no significance on Transfer of Training. Further, fulfilling the research objectives, this study also presents the significant role of Personal Outcomes Positive as the major predictor of Transfer of Training.

Implications for Knowledge

Holton III et al. (2000), proposed the LTSI model, which describes a subset of an evaluation approach namely, the transfer of learning to individual, group and organizational performance. The model hypothesizes that HRD outcomes are a function of both ability/ enabling elements and motivation and environmental influences (Noe & Schmitt, 1986) at three outcome levels namely learning, individual performance and organizational performance. The research model of the current study was shaped by the LTSI model, indentifying the impact of work environment factors on Transfer of Training. Overall, this thesis confirmed the direct effect of work environment factors on transfer of training as in Holton III et al. (2000) model confirming its applicability among the female workers in the apparel sector of Sri Lanka.

This research offers a theoretical basis for understanding the influence of work environment factors of the apparel sector of Sri Lanka, which influence the transfer of training among the female workers. As Salas and Cannon-Bowers (2001) claims work environment factors are certainly a neglected area and one in which much more work is needed. Hence this study confirms the prior research finding on this construct by identifying the significant role of Supervisor Support, Peer Support, Openness to Change and Personal Outcomes- Positive as major predictors of transfer of training. Further, this research provide a new insights to the transfer of training literature, through the finding of Personal Outcomes -positive major as the major influencing factor in the work environment which impact transfer of training. Although this finding is consistent with Baharim (2008), this finding certainly provides new research directions, and supports theory building.

Implications for Practitioners

The findings of this research are particularly important for the practitioners, because work environment is a factor which is under the organizations control, and the dimensions studied under the research can be easily managed and changed by the organization. A positive and supportive work environment will assist in enhancing a trainee's own sense of intrinsic reward for successfully completing the training program.

The findings of the research raise the importance of the effect of managers /supervisors and peers in ensuring returns on investment through training that is followed through in the workplace. The extent to which supervisors and managers are involved in clarifying performance expectations after training, identifying opportunities to apply new skills and knowledge, setting realistic goals based on training, working with individuals on problems encountered while applying new skills, are important factor in the work environment that will facilitate successful transfer of training. Peer support is also an important factor because; peers are more proximal to trainees and hence have greater impact on transferring skills. Therefore the HRD practitioners should focus the on directing the supervisors / mangers and facilitating the peers in helping the employees to obtain the maximum investment out of the training. A training role for supervisors will also provide them with an overview of training course design, objectives and assessment requirements (Bleimann, 2004).

Further the openness to change also influence the transfer of training as the learning cultures within a company have an impact on transfer of training. The practitioners should enable the openness to change that is facilitated by the mean of providing organization support, helping each other, focusing on teamwork, involvement and empowerment and ensuring a high level of flexibility within the team, and in the overall work place.

One of the most important implications for HRD practitioners derived from this research is that a significant transfer of training can be facilitated within the organization if the trainees are backed by positive outcomes as a result of application of training to the job. Positively reinforcing the performance of trainees in the workplace, encouragement, praise or recognition, and rewards have a significant impact on the trainees to enable transfer of training. The extent to which training has positive outcomes, including increased productivity and work effectiveness, increased personal satisfaction, additional respect, a salary increase or reward, the opportunity to further career development

plans, or the opportunity to advance in the organization impact the trainees to apply what they learned from a training. A focus on personal outcomes offers the potential to refocus on what matters to people who use the knowledge, skills and abilities acquired through the training, with potential benefits for the individuals, staff and organizations.

Therefore, HRD managers should give serious attention to improving these work environment factors if they want to see their trainees apply training on the job.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

This research should be considered with having several limitations which are worthwhile mentioning. Firstly, it was conducted in a single organization with a small sample size. This creates issues of generalization to different industries and cultural contexts. Future study may focus on examining the generalization of this study results in different sectors. Secondly, the transfer of training in this research was measured by self-report of the workers. Although previous research also has used similar self-report measures of training transfer (Chiaburu & Tekleab, 2005; Fecteau et al., 1995), future research may be carried out using additional measures collected from different sources like supervisors and peers.

Further this research provide an important insight in to researchers interested in studying the impact of work environment factors on the transfer of training, as personal outcomes positive was identifies as the major driving factor among the others, through the results of this study. Future research can examine the personal outcomes- positive in detail and its implications on the work environment factors, in order to validate the above finding of this research.

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Chapter 6

Work–Life Balance and Its Impact on Upward Career Mobility of Women Employees in the Banking Sector

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ABSTRACT

The proportion of women in decision making is very low, and only a small number of women are represented in the managerial positions in Sri Lanka. The emergence and determined survival of women in organizations depends on their own willingness to confront and fight barriers. A major barrier in work is work-life balance as family and society demands more from a woman than a man. The objective of this chapter is to investigate the impact work-life conflicts on upward career mobility of women employees in the banking sector. A sample of 120 women employees was used for gathering data. Primary data was collected through a self-administered questionnaire. The collected data was analyzed using correlation analysis, regression analysis, and descriptive analysis methods. There is a positive relationship between work-life balance and upward career mobility, and all the dimensions of work-life conflicts, namely, time balance, satisfaction balance, and involvement balance, were positively correlated with upward career mobility. The study provides recommendations and future directions for further studies.

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INTRODUCTION

The society is filled with conflicting responsibilities and commitments, therefore work-life balance has become a predominant issue in the workplace (Kossek et al., 2011). Work-life balance is the relationship between the institutional and cultural times and spaces of work and non-work in societies where income is predominantly generated and distributed through labour markets (Felstead et al., 2002). As per (Kahn et al., 1964), work – family conflict is a type of inter – role conflict in which demands from the work role conflict with the demands from the family role. Work – life conflict is also a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressure from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). Also, work-life balance does not mean an equal balance in units of time between work and life.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Women at work have been an important topic of conversation and organizational strategy certainly in the last two or three decades as the woman employment has been increasing rapidly since last two decades. Women continue to be responsible for a disproportionate share of domestic duties at the same time they are continuing to enter the workforce in increasing numbers, and therefore they need to balance the two roles of work and life (Ernst Kossek and Ozeki, 1998). However, according to (Meyerson and Fletcher, 2000) women at the highest levels of business are still rare. They comprise only 10% of senior managers in Fortune 500 companies; less than 4% of the uppermost ranks of CEO, president, executive vice president, and COO; and less than 3% of top corporate earners. Not only that but also there is strong evidence of the under-representation of women in leadership positions in many countries all over the world such as Australia, China, France, South Africa, United Kingdom and United States (Meyerson and Fletcher, 2000). Even though women represent more than half of the population in Sri Lanka, their labour force participation rate is less than men. Men's participation in labour force is twice as women's.

According to the Table 1, in 2016, estimated economically active population is around 8.3 million and about 5.3 million (63.8%) of them are males. Female

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Table 1. Economically active / inactive population by gender in Sri Lanka - 2016

Gender	Economically active		Economically inactive	
	No.	%	No.	%
Total	8,310,682	100.0	7,137,997	100.0
Male	5,303,502	63.8	1,761,234	24.7
Female	3,007,180	36.2	5,376,764	75.3

Source: Labour Force Survey - Annual report 2016

participation rate is around 36.2%. Majority among the economically inactive population are females and it is about 5.4 million (75.3%).

Table 2 reveals that housework is the highly affected factor to being women as economically inactive. Table clearly shows that about 76.5% of inactive female population is engaged in studies or housework. The main reason for the majority of females (62.2%) to be under economically inactive category is that their involvement in housework activities. From the portion of labor force participation, men as well as women contribute to employed population in high rates (Table 2). However, it is reported that Sri Lankan women are being providing a large portion of Sri Lanka's factory work, but not for executive level position.

Table 3 shows the occupational summary of women and men and also this compares the proportion of men and women employed in different occupational categories. Women are heavily concentrated in certain occupations and 11.8 percent of females work in "Professional" occupation compared with 3.7 percent of males. This tab also shows the contribution of females to the total employment by each occupational group. This clearly shows that 63.8 percent of professional are women. The major reason for this situation is the traditional

Table 2. Reasons of being economically inactive by gender in Sri Lanka

Reason	Total	Male	Female
All Econ. Inactive	100.0	100.0	100.0
Engaged in housework	48.3	6.0	62.2
Engaged in studies	20.2	38.4	14.3
Retired/Old age	19.8	32.5	15.6
Physically illness/Disabled	7.8	15.9	5.2
Other	3.8	7.2	2.6

Source: Labor Force Survey - Annual Report 2016

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Table 3. Employed population by occupation

Occupation	Total	Male	Female	Contribution of females to the total employment
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	35.2
Managers, Senior Officials and Legislators	6.0	6.7	4.9	28.4
Professionals	6.5	3.7	11.8	63.8
Technical & Associate Professionals	6.1	6	6.2	35.9
Clerks and Clerical support workers	4	3	5.9	51.4
Services and Sales workers	11.2	11.8	10.2	32
Skilled Agricultural, Forestry and Fishery workers	18.1	18.1	18	35.1
Craft and Related Trades workers	16	16.1	15.9	34.8
Plant and Machine operators and Assemblers	8.8	11.8	3.4	13.5
Elementary occupations	22.6	22.1	23.4	36.5
Armed Forces Occupations	0.6	0.7	0.3	16.7

Source: Labor Force Survey – Annual Report – 2016

view of women's role and, only some women have made their approach to gradually climb up the management and leadership ladders (Drucker, 2012).

A family demanded more from a woman rather than from a man. She is expected to fulfil all the needs of all the family members and to look after and care about them. The greater the family demanded on a working woman, and the less help she receives, the more time she spends on housework (Silver and Goldscheider, 1994). Until the late 1970s, women remained virtually invisible as managers and employees and their absence was generally considered as non-issue. Research on working women is relatively recent. This study aims at studying the impact of work-life balance on the upward career mobility of women employees.

Even though women represent more than half of the population in Sri Lanka, their labour force participation rate is less than men. Men's participation in labour force is twice as women's. According to annual reports 2016, out of the economically inactive population, 75.3% are females and only 24.7% are males. Labour force survey done in 2016 reveals that out of the economically inactive females more than 62% are economically inactive because of engaging with house work.

Although attitude towards the women's role as homemakers is changing to being career people, only some women have made their approach to gradually climb up the management and leadership ladders. For an example from the world situation, the report, from Holloway and Valentine (2000), put Korea at bottom of a list comparing the percentage of female employees in 744 company executive committees of 10 major Asia-Pacific stock markets. Women take up only 1% of boardroom seats in this country, compared with 13% in Australia, 8% in China and 5% in India. Further, in the United States of America and United Kingdom for instance where gender balance is assumed to have been attained; women constitute 40% of the entire work force and only 2% hold top management positions (Cole, 1997). In Sri Lankan context employed females in Sri Lanka covers only a part of 4.9% from the category of managers, senior officials, and legislators (Labour Force Survey 2016)

Women continue to be responsible for a disproportionate share of domestic duties at the same time they are continuing to enter the workforce in increasing numbers though the social expectations affect the decisions women make about their careers (Hochschild, 1989). They are subjected to many different demands and are often expected to play several roles that may be conflicting (Hochschild, 1989) Women have reported greater barriers than men in getting developmental assignments and geographical mobility opportunities and caring for a family often means that many work-life conflicts emerge for women (Allen and Armstrong, 2006). These conflicts are often intensive, and women's response results in the reduction of employment which in turn leads to a restriction in career opportunities and advancement (Silver and Goldscheider, 1994). The extent to which a woman subordinates her career aspirations to meet her family needs or vice versa depends on such things as her value systems and priorities, the amount of support she gets from her spouse, the age-based needs of her children, and the support she gets from the organization she works for in terms of flexibility in working hours, and assistance for childcare (White et al., 2003).

A components approach to work-life balance emphasises balance as a direct formative latent construct (Edwards and Bagozzi, 2000), which means that work-family balance consists of multiple facets that precede balance and give meaning to it (Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007). For example, according to Greenhaus et al. (2003), work-family balance consists of time balance, involvement balance, and satisfaction balance. According to Frone (2003), in turn, work-family balance consists of work-family conflict and work-family facilitation (corresponding with role conflict and enhancement, respectively). The advantage of the components approach over the overall appraisals approach

to work-life balance is that one can use conceptually based measures of balance that tap into the different aspects of work-life balance. These aspects form the overall evaluation of how well an individual is meeting role-related responsibilities (Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007).

Many researches have been done on topics about various problems of women career. But there is a lack of literature on women's upward career mobility and work-life balance. Also there is an empirical gap in Sri Lankan context about the upward career mobility. As it is revealed that there is a problem with career mobility of women employees, it is worth to study whether giving priority for their household responsibilities, have failed them to have a better career management plan and their desire on career life has been reduced in women employees to fill the above knowledge and empirical gap. According to the identified problems, this study expects to focus following research questions and objectives.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What is the relationship between work-life balance and upward career mobility?
2. What is the impact of work-life balance on upward career mobility of women employees?

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1. To identify the relationship between work life balance and upward career mobility
2. To identify the impact of work-life balance on upward career mobility of women employees
 - a. To study the impact of time balance on upward career mobility of women employees
 - b. To study the impact of involvement balance on upward career mobility of women employees
 - c. To study the impact of satisfaction balance on upward career mobility of women employees

LITERATURE REVIEW

Career Development

A career is the sequence and variety of occupations which one undertakes throughout a lifetime. More broadly, career includes life roles, leisure activities, learning, and work. Career development is the process of managing life, learning, and work over the lifespan. Theorists such as (Schein, 1971) and (Super, 1957) assume that a career is a life-long, uninterrupted experience of work, which can be divided into neat stages of development, starting with initial ideas about working and ending with retirement.

It is important to understand the processes that influence organizational behaviour and the development of the individuals within them (Hall and Seibert, 1992). Within organizations, careers can be seen to be determined by the mutually interdependent dimensions of structure, culture and individual action (Dainty et al., 2000). Structure and culture are influenced by the decisions and actions of the individual, while at the same time helping to determine their decisions (Evetts, 1992). This perspective sees individuals as defining their growth throughout their life of work, rather than moving along pre-determined career paths (Sonnenfeld and Kotter, 1982).

Russell (1991) defines career development as the activities individuals participate in to improve themselves relative to their current or planned work roles. Similarly, Sears (1982) refers to career development as “the total constellation of psychological, sociological, educational, physical, economic, and chance factors that combine to influence the career of any given individual over the life span”. Swanson et al. (1998) proposed four stages of career development namely: exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline which are not determined by age but by an individual’s circumstances and perceptions. He adds that individuals go through life by developing interests, skills, and values; exploring the world of work; developing commitment to work; adapting to changes; and thereafter moving towards selective participation and retirement (Swanson et al., 1998).

Career Progression of Women

The patterns of women's career development are frequently affected by family as well as workplace commitments and responsibilities, unlike those of men. Therefore, Astin (1984) proposed that career development theory should describe women's career separately from men's careers. Her model of career development is based upon four constructs which she believes shape women's career development. They are: work motivation, work expectations, sex-role socialization and structure of opportunity which includes factors such as sex-role stereotyping, distribution of jobs and discrimination. Gutek and Larwood (1987) concluded that any theory of women's career development must take account of five factors: Career preparation, or how women are brought up to view the idea of a career and whether they believe they will have one or not; Availability of opportunities should be taken into consideration, and whether they are limited for women, compared with men; Marriage, viewed as neutral for men but harmful to the career of women; Similarly, pregnancy and having children inevitably cause women to take some kind of career break; Timing and age, as career breaks and family relocations often mean that women's careers do not follow the same chronological patterns as those of men.

Powell and Mainiero (1992) claimed that women have two overriding concerns in their lives, for their career and for others. Their model therefore incorporates the influence of personal, organizational and societal factors to describe the balance between work and non-work aspects of life which most women strive to achieve.

Traditionally and for the longest time, women have been viewed as child-bearers and keepers of the home (Njiru, 2013). This has continued to be the case despite the fact that the present charade gives the impression that people are liberal-minded about the issues pertaining to gender equality. Clutterbuck and Devine (1987) observe that only one in six women and one in five men take the view that men should go out to work while women stay at home. This age-old mind-set has posed many unnecessary barriers which women are forced to attempt to conquer in pursuit of their careers. According to Dyke and Murphy (2006), women could not have it all because men did; men had the fulfilling careers as well as a loving family to which they could come home to. Today, as married women commonly pursue their careers outside the home, concerns as to their ability to achieve equal footing with their male counterparts without sacrificing their families need trouble both policymakers as well as economists (Blau and Ehrenberg, 2000).

Factors Affecting Career Development of Women

Women generally continue to perform primary care-giving to children and dependents while simultaneously juggling the demands of their workforce participation. Their career development issues, concerns, tasks, and responsibilities, moulded by the work-family pressures they experience, may be distinctly different from those of men. Thus, on account of family responsibilities, women's careers may take on forms, continuity and advancement patterns, and directions substantially different from those of men. In this regard, this section looks at the factors affecting the career development of women. The following factors have been identified through literature.

Gender Inequality - Gender inequality is particularly prominent in the professions today, where women are concentrated in those occupations which are relatively low in the professional hierarchy (Ridgeway, 1997).

Chauvinism and Sexual Harassment - Male chauvinism is deeply ingrained than many people realize. Gender sensitivity and sexual harassment concerns both men and women. Women generally bear the brunt of male chauvinism as well as sexual harassment. Sexual harassment stands out as the key contemporary site of gender struggles over gender norms, sexuality, power and gender equality, as well as legal and organizational norms (Frehill et al., 2015).

Organizational Structure - Organizations structures often mirror the society's ideas on what informal expectations about gender, race and class of people that are best suited for a particular position, which in turn produce race- and gender-stratified work forces.

The Glass Ceiling Effect - The Glass Ceiling effect is defined by the Labour Department in New York as artificial barriers based on bias that prevents qualified individuals progressing in upper management levels in an organization.

Discrimination at work place - In practice, women face different forms of segregation. For example, some employers deliberately avoid employing women because of the costs associated with maternity leave (Mayoux, 2001). There has been an alarming increase in the number of pregnant women and new mothers who are being made redundant. It appears that some employers are using the recession as an excuse to break the law on discrimination.

Outcomes of Work-Life Balance

Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) studied the variance explained in work and family related outcomes, such as satisfaction and stress, by two means: using a single item of work-family balance and by using the four-fold taxonomy of work-family balance (Frone et al., 2003). They found that the components approach produced systematically higher explanation rates than did the overall appraisal: for example, in the case of job stress, the respective explanation rates were 45% as against 18%. Therefore Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) recommend the use of measures of work-family conflict and work – family enrichment for investigating and assessing the experience of work-family balance.

Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) point out one limitation, however, namely that the four-fold taxonomy of work-family balance together with other previously reviewed definitions of work-life balance tends to overemphasise balance as a psychological construct that is, as the experience of an individual, and thus fails to capture the contextual and social perspective of work-life balance. For example, daily interaction and conciliation of needs and responsibilities between work and non-work members exemplifies such a contextual and social nature of work-life balance. An extended definition of work-life balance, taking into account this limitation, was therefore developed as follows: work-family balance is the “accomplishment of role-related expectations that are negotiated and shared between an individual and his or her role-related partners in the work and family domains” (Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007).

Impacts of Balancing Work and Family Responsibility on Women’s Working Life

Work and family responsibility may impact more on mental health on women as compared to men. There are a number of times contradictory demands made by the worlds of work and family life lead to dissatisfactions that have an impact on the various spheres of an individual’s life. Some of the most alarming observations are found in a Meta-analysis prepared by Allen et al. (2000), which indicates a high correlation between this social phenomenon and depression. Indeed, many studies show that a high degree of conflict between professional and familial responsibilities increases an individual’s risk of depression.

Correlations have also been established between work-family conflict and a high degree of anxiety, irritability and overall stress in one's life; stress which translates into feelings of frustration and tension. In a study involving 2,700 workers, Frone et al. (2003) demonstrates that individuals who report experiencing work-family conflict are more likely to be clinically diagnosed with mood disorders, to experience anxiety, or to suffer from drug or alcohol dependence than individuals not experiencing this type of conflict. In addition, the results indicate that there are gender-based differences in the type of problem experienced, with women being more likely to be diagnosed with mood disorders or to experience anxiety and men being more likely to report a dependence on drugs or alcohol. Concern is raised by a 4 year longitudinal study confirming that depression and the abusive consumption of alcohol persist over time (Frone et al., 1992).

Work – Life Balance

In a society filled with conflicting responsibilities and commitments, work-life balance has become a predominant issue in the workplace (Lockwood, 2003). Felstead et al. (2002) defines work-life balance as the relationship between the institutional and cultural times and spaces of work and non-work in societies where income is predominantly generated and distributed through labour markets. As per Kahn et al. (1964) work – family conflict is a type of inter – role conflict in which demands from the work role conflict with the demands from the family role. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) defined work – family conflict as a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressure from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. The meaning of work/life balance has chameleon characteristics (Lockwood, 2003). It means different things to different groups, and the meaning often depends on the context of the conversation and the speaker's viewpoint (Lockwood, 2003). However, work-life balance is difficult to define because work-life balance is subjective phenomenon that changes from person to person (Delecta, 2011).

Theoretical Background of Work – Life Balance

Work-family research has long been guided by the role stress theory, wherein the negative side of the work-family interaction has been put under the spotlight. Recently, the emphasis has shifted towards the investigation of the

positive interaction between work and family roles as well as roles outside work and family lives, and scholars have started to deliberate on the essence of work-life balance (Jones et al., 2013).

The origins of research on work-life balance can be traced back to studies of women having multiple roles. Barnett and Baruch (1985) investigated the psychological distress connected to the balance of rewards and concerns generated by individual women's multiple roles as paid worker, wife and mother. They found that positive role quality – more rewards than concerns experienced in a given role – was related to low levels of role overload, role conflict and anxiety. Based on their research, Barnett and Baruch defined role balance as a “rewards minus concerns” difference score which could range from positive to negative values.

Following the theory of work-life balance (Marks and MacDermid, 1996), Greenhaus et al. (2003) has defined work-family balance as “the extent to which an individual is equally engaged in – and equally satisfied with – his or her work and family role”. Furthermore, according to these scholars, work-family balance consists of three dimensions of which **time balance** refers to equal time devoted, **involvement balance** refers to equal psychological effort and presence invested, and **satisfaction balance** refers to equal satisfaction expressed across work and family roles. Greenhaus et al. (2003) regard work-family balance as a continuum where imbalance in favour of the work role lies at one end, and imbalance in favour of the family role lies at the other end, and balance lies in the middle favouring neither work nor family role.

In the above stated conceptualisation, work-life balance and imbalance are not seen as inherently beneficial or detrimental, respectively, for psychological well-being and quality of life. Instead, Greenhaus et al. (2003) state that it should be empirically tested whether equal time, involvement, and satisfaction balance is better for an individual than imbalance in favour of either the work or family role. In their study, it turned out that among individuals with a high level of engagement across roles, those reporting the highest quality of life were those who invested more in the family than the work role, that is, they showed an imbalance in favour of family. In regard to their level of engagement, the equally balanced individuals scored lower in quality of life than those favouring family over work, but higher than those favouring work over family. Thus, those who invested most in work had the lowest quality of life.

Time Balance and Upward Career Mobility

Time balance can be identified as a component of work-life balance. Time balance is an aspect that refers to equal time devoted across work and family roles by an employee (Greenhaus et al., 2003). It regards time balance as a continuum where imbalance in time of the work role lies at one end, and imbalance in time of the family role lies at the other end, and balance lies in the middle raising neither work nor family role.

The negative job to home spill over is affected by a range of workplace practices including time of working hours. A flexible hour system and personal discretion over starting and finishing times tend to reduce the problems in the job to home spill over (White et al., 2003). The increasing prevalence of alternative work schedules creates the possibility that workers might select a work schedule that balances their work and personal obligations. Alternative work schedules do effect on the perception of work-life imbalance (Tausig and Fenwick, 2001). Accordingly, following hypothesis was performed by this study to identify the real scenario in women employment context.

H1: There is a positive relationship between time balance and upward career mobility

Involvement Balance and Upward Career Mobility

Involvement balance is consisted in the work-life balance. It refers to equal psychological effort and presence invested in both the work and family roles by an employee (Jeffrey, 2002). Involvement balance contributes an employee to improve their planned work roles (Jeffrey, 2002). He has further stated that there is a positive impact of involvement balance on upward career mobility. Hence, greater employee involvement encompasses workplace power, information, rewards, and knowledge and it creates good employee outcomes and business performance (Macky and Boxall, 2008). Based those argument, following hypothesis was formed.

H1: There is a positive relationship between involvement balance and upward career mobility

Satisfaction Balance and Upward Career Mobility

Satisfaction balance refers to equal satisfaction expressed across work and family roles. It is a component of work-life balance (Greenhaus et al., 2003). There is a significant interaction between satisfaction balance and total satisfaction prediction quality of life. If people are highly satisfied with their combined roles, their quality of life is high.

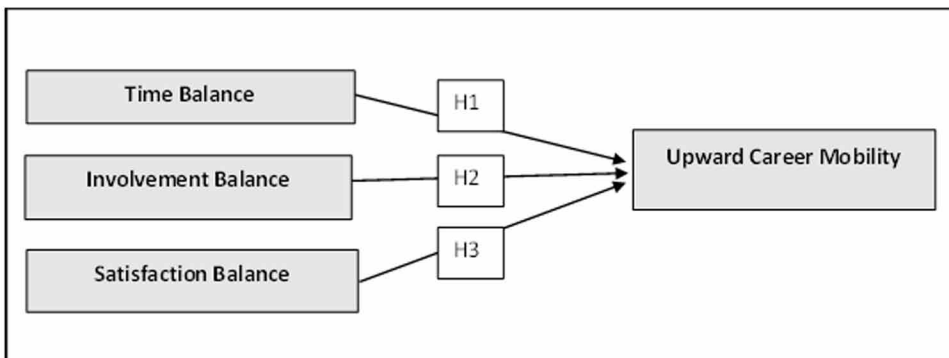
Satisfaction balance creates work-life balance through achieving satisfying experience in all life domains and to do so requires personal resources such as energy, time, and commitment to be well distributed among the domains (Kirchmeyer, 2000). Work-life balance also built through satisfaction and good functioning and work at home with a minimum of role conflict (Clark, 2000). Relying on those arguments, this study assumed following hypothesis.

H1: There is a positive relationship between satisfaction balance and upward career mobility

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The conceptual framework was derived as follow by referring the models and the previous literature of the relevant topics.

Figure 1. Conceptual framework
Source: Developed by the Researcher



METHOD

Participants, Sampling Procedure and Context

Population is the total elements which has some common qualities or characteristics in a special geographical scale. The population of this study is the executive level women employees in the banking sector in Eastern Province. Further, it should be noted that, after the 30 years of civil war in North and East part of Sri Lanka the participation of women in work places is rapidly growing. However, compare to male, female employees in banking sector is low (Gunawardhana, 2017). Because, women employees in the banking sector are facing a double glass ceiling effect and the executive level employees is the category who faces most of the difficulties because of the work-life balance issues. Therefore, this study selected executive women employees in banks. The researcher has employed a convenience sampling of 120 respondents from the members of the population who are conveniently able to provide it.

Accordingly, profile of the respondents shows that all respondents are female employees in the executive and managerial level of banking sector. Largest portion of women employees are in the level of Assistant manager (45.8%). 15.8% are Junior Executives and another 6.7% are Senior Executives. It shows that the total of executive level employees is less than each category of management level employees. 31.7% of employees hold the position of Senior Manager.

Further, the highest percentage 38.3% respondents are from the 46 -60 age category. Furthermore, 27.5% respondents are from the age category of 36 - 45. The remaining responses are distributed among other 3 age categories. Only 14.2% of employees are belonging to the age group of greater than 60 years while only 13.3% of employees are in 26 -35 years age group.

Consequently, the highest percentage of employees has first degrees and master degrees. 59.2% of the employees are having first degrees while 18.3% are having master degrees. For 10% of the sample, the highest education qualification is G.C.E. Advanced Level. Only 12.5% of employees have done diplomas. It is only 15 out of the total 120 employees. Only 22 out of all 120 employees have done a master degree. It explains that very few of females go above of their educational ladder. Most of them need to have a degree or diploma to survive in their job and do not try to go for further education.

Moreover, about 70% of employees are married from the total sample. 23.3% percent of employees are single and 5% are widowed while 1.7% are divorced. Besides, 30.8% of the employees have only two children. Only 6.7% have more than 3 children while 27.5% of women have no children and while 22.5% are having only one child. Only 12.5% of the employees are having 3 children. It can be stated that most of the working women like to have less number of children and they delay the having children.

Finally, it is noted that 34.2% of the employees in the sample have completed the service period of 10–15 years within the organization. 25.8% of employees have completed service period of 5–10 years and there are some employees (5.8%) who have not completed even their first year of service within the organization. Hence, 10% of employees have worked between 1-5 years while 24% of employees are having more than 15 years.

Measures

A structured questionnaire was developed to collect primary data from the sample of the respondents and which followed five point Likert Scale format which ranges from 1: Highly Disagree to 5: Highly Agree. The researcher employed the self-administration method to collect first hand data. Data were collected from respondents in Eastern province by visiting the places and publishing the questionnaire online to get the access to the people. The questionnaire consisted with main three parts namely demographical information, work life balance and upward career mobility. The work life balance construct consisted with three major dimensions such as time balance, involvement balance and satisfaction balance and the model was adopted from Greenhaus et al. (2003) work life balance model ($\alpha > 0.7$) which comprises 12 items (refer table 4). Consequently, Gutek and Larwood's (1987) upward career mobility questionnaire ($\alpha > 0.7$) was adapted to measure the dependent variable which consisted 6 items. Further, descriptive, correlation and regression analysis were used to analyse the selected data. Following section shows the used variables and constructs in this study.

Table 4. Operationalization

Variable	Indicator	Reliability	Source	Measurement
Time Balance (Independent Variable)	1. No. of hours averagely work per day 2. Time spend on domestic and family activities per day 3. Quality of the time spend with family 4. Work in holidays and overtime	0.795	Greenhaus et al. (2003)	5 point Likert Scale
Involvement Balance (Independent Variable)	1. Missing quality time with family and friends 2. Attendance for "home" events 3. Worry about work 4. Meet deadlines	0.718	Greenhaus et al. (2003)	5 point Likert Scale
Satisfaction Balance (Independent Variable)	1. Feeling about the time work 2. Stress in job 3. Feeling of the family life 4. Satisfaction of life	0.777	Greenhaus et al. (2003)	5 point Likert Scale
Career Progression (Dependent Variable)	1. Motivation of work 2. Career expectation 3. Opportunities available 4. Equal pay for men and women 5. Career breaks 6. Support from the family	0.754	Gutek and Larwood (1987)	5 point Likert Scale

RESULTS

Correlation Analysis

Pearson Correlation test was run to test three major hypotheses of this study and the results are depicted in Table 5.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 (H1) was designed for time balance factors to test whether or not there was a significant relationship between time balance and upward career mobility of the women employees. According to the Table 5, correlation

Table 5. Correlation between independent factors and upward career mobility

	Pearson correlation	Significance
TB	0.681	0.000
IB	0.548	0.000
SB	0.766	0.000

Source: SPSS output from field information 2018

between time balance and upward career mobility is 0.681. It denoted that there is a strong positive linear relationship between independent and dependent variable. In addition, the significance of P – value was at zero level ($0.000 < 0.05$). Hence it has been supported for the relationship. Therefore, it rejects the null hypothesis (H_0) and accepts alternative hypothesis (H_1) at 95% confidence level. When consider about the overall results it can be demonstrated that there is significance and positive association between time balance factors and upward career mobility.

Hypothesis 2

According to the data, correlation between involvement balance and upward career mobility is 0.548. Hence there is a positive linear relationship between two variables and significance of P-value 0.000, it was implied that test is highly significant. Therefore, it rejects the null hypothesis (H_0) and accepts the alternative hypothesis of there is a positive relationship between involvement balance and upward career mobility (H_2) at the 95% confidence level. Overall results demonstrated that there is significance and positive association between involvement balance and upward career mobility.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 (H_3) was designed for satisfaction balance to determine whether or not there was a significant relationship between satisfaction balance and upward career mobility of the women employees.

The correlation coefficient of satisfaction balance and upward career mobility is 0.766 and represented a strong positive relationship. It comprehended that there is a significant influence of satisfaction balance and upward career mobility. As per the figure, the data support for a statistically significant relationship ($P < 0.05$). Therefore, it rejects the null hypothesis (H_0) and accepts alternative hypothesis (H_3) at 95% confidence level. Overall results demonstrated that there is significance and positive association between satisfaction balance and upward career mobility. Accordingly, Table 6 portrays the summary of correlation results.

Table 6. Summary of correlation analysis

	Pearson correlation	Relationship
Time balance & Upward career mobility	0.681	Strong positive
Involvement balance & Upward career mobility	0.548	Positive
Satisfaction balance & Upward career mobility	0.766	Strong positive

Source: SPSS output from field information 2018

Regression Analysis

Regression analysis is concerned with the study of dependence of one variable (dependent variable) on one or more other variable (independent variable) and also tries to measure the relationship level quantitatively.

Regression model was used under Multi-variant analysis. The researcher has done multiple linear regression analysis in order to identify the best model and impact of the variables. A regression analysis is done for one of two purposes: In order to predict the value of the dependent variable for individuals for whom some information concerning the explanatory variables is available, or in order to estimate the effect of some explanatory variable on the dependent variable. Accordingly, in order to strengthen the findings in the previous section a Regression Analysis will be carried out.

To justify the findings even further the regression analysis can be used. Its simplest form can identify the movement when an independent variable changes, by how much the dependent variable change will take place. In here the total independent variables are taken together with the dependent variable to analyse the regression, ANOVA and the coefficient of the relationship.

$$UCM = 0.512 + 0.200TB + 0.299IB + 0.417SB + \epsilon$$

The coefficient of time balance is 0.200. When time balance increases from one unit, upward career mobility increases from 0.200 units. The coefficient of involvement balance is 0.299. When involvement balance increases from one unit, upward career mobility increases from 0.299 units. The coefficient of satisfaction balance is 0.417. When satisfaction balance increases from one unit, upward career mobility increases from 0.417 units. All these three variables have positive relationships with the upward career mobility.

Work-Life Balance and Its Impact on Upward Career Mobility of Women Employees

Table 7. Model summary for linear regression analysis

Figure	Value
R	0.836
R Square	0.700
Adjusted R Square	0.692
Std. Error of the Estimates	0.27455

Source: SPSS output from field information 2018

According to the model summary in Table 7, multiple correlation (R) is 0.836. This interprets joint association between independent variables and the dependent variables. As the coefficient is more than 0.7 there is a strong association jointly with independent variables and dependent variables. Coefficient of determination (R²) is 0.700. Proportion of the dependent variable covered by the regression model is explained by R². If the value is 0.6 or more model is nicely fitted. R² is 70%. This means that 70% of upward career mobility has been covered by the model. Model is nicely fitted. Even though researchers use unnecessary independent variables R² will increase. Therefore it should be adjusted using another coefficient, that is adjusted R². According to the results, 69.2% covered by the model.

Probability of F testing statistics is 0.0000. This is highly significant. It says that model is appropriate. Independent variables time balance, involvement balance and satisfaction balance jointly influence on upward career mobility.

According to the individual coefficient shown in Table 8, probability of time balance is 0.000. This is highly significant. Individual beta value is 0.272. This means that time balance has positive effect on upward career mobility of women employees. Involvement balance is significant (0.000) with positive beta value (0.267). This indicates that involvement balance influences on upward career mobility positively. Satisfaction balance is also significant

Table 8. Coefficients of construct

Model	Standardized Coefficients Beta	T	Sig.
Time Balance	.272	3.984	.000
Involvement Balance	.267	4.792	.000
Satisfaction Balance	.481	6.875	.000

Source: SPSS output from field information 2018

(0.000) with positive beta value (0.481). This also indicates that satisfaction balance is influencing on upward career mobility positively.

According to the standardized coefficient of Beta satisfaction balance is the highest one. Therefore most influencing factor is satisfaction balance. Second highest value that is 0.272 is represented by time balance. Therefore second influencing factor is time balance. As well as third value is 0.267 is represented by involvement balance. Therefore third influencing factor is involvement balance.

DISCUSSION

The Relationship Between Work-Life Balance and Upward Career Mobility

The first main objective of this research was to identify the relationship of work-life balance and upward career mobility. It is the direct relationship between an independent variable and the dependent variable in the research.

The correlation between time balance; involvement balance; satisfaction balance and upward career mobility is lower than the 0.05 level. It denoted that there is a strong positive liner relationship between independent and dependent variable. In addition, the significance of P – value was at zero level ($0.000 < 0.05$). Hence it has been supported for the relationship strongly. Previous researches have supported the finding of the study by giving supportive ideas as correlations have also been established between work-family imbalance and a high degree of anxiety, irritability and overall stress in one's life; stress which translates into feelings hopeless for improvement. In a study involving 2,700 workers, Frone (2000) demonstrates that individuals who report experiencing work-family imbalance are more likely to be rejected promotions.

The Influence of Time Balance on Upward Career Mobility

One of the objectives of this research was to identify the influence of time balance on upward career mobility. It is the direct relationship between an independent variable and the dependent variable in the research.

According to the mean and standard deviation obtained from descriptive statistics, it demonstrates that employees who are working in banking sector were highly agreed with the work-life balance activities conducted by their organizations.

Based on the first objective of research the researcher has been identified that there is a high positive relationship between time balance and upward career mobility with reference to the banking sector in Sri Lanka. As the literatures have stated in previously (Mathur-Helm, 2006). Greenhaus et al. (2003), companies need to be more ethical through employee initiatives by ensuring the ease of non-work life and extending the support to the employees by giving them enough time to be with their families in order to increase employee improvement and gain competitive advantage in his study. Thompson and Prottas (2006), have shown that time balance had positive consequences on the well-being, satisfaction, performance, and turnover intention of employees. Those past literature has supported to the findings of the study. In accordance with that when time balance is increasing, there having a potential for increasing the upward career in the banking sector. When consider about the multiple regression analysis between variables, the coefficient of the time balance was +0.272. Therefore, it ensured that when time balance is increasing in one unit, the upward career mobility increase by the 0.272 units. As a result of that, it has positive relationship between time balance and upward career mobility in banking sector of Sri Lanka and organizations can retain and improve their employees in the long run by helping work-life balance within their organization.

Furthermore, if consider about the correlation results, correlation between time balance and upward career mobility is 0.681. It denoted that there is a strong positive liner relationship between independent and dependent variable. In addition, the significance of P – value was at zero level ($0.000 < 0.05$). Hence it has been supported for the relationship.

This finding suggested that there is a strong positive relationship between time balance and upward career mobility. Based on that, the first objective of the study is achieved with many previous supportive findings (Barnett and Baruch, 1985; Frone, 2003; Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007; Tiedje et al., 1990; Voydanoff, 2005).

The Influence of Involvement Balance on Upward Career Mobility

The second objective of this research was to identify the impact of involvement balance on upward career mobility. It is the direct relationship between an independent variable, involvement balance and the dependent variable upward career mobility.

The researcher has been identified that there is a high positive relationship between involvement balance and upward career mobility with reference to the banking sector in Sri Lanka according to the researchers have stated in previously. According to Cole et al, 2002, flexibility with the family life with the occupation is helpful for an employee to have its maximum performance and for further improvement. Previous researches have further found that when the involvement with personal matters of employees are not restricted, the employees are more likely to have progress in their motivation and improvement (Thompson and Prottas (2006). Low involvement causes an employee not to move upward in his career (Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007; Voydanoff, 2005). In accordance with that, when involvement balance is increasing, there having a potential for increasing the upward career in the banking sector. When consider about the multiple regression analysis between variables, the coefficient of the involvement balance was +0.267. Therefore, it ensured that when involvement balance is increasing in one unit, the upward career mobility increase by the 0.267 units. As a result of that, it has positive relationship between involvement balance and upward career mobility in banking sector of Sri Lanka.

Furthermore, when considering about the correlation results, correlation between involvement balance and upward career mobility is 0.548. It denoted that there is a significant positive liner relationship between independent and dependent variable. In addition, the significance of P – value was at zero level ($0.000 < 0.05$). Hence it has been supported for the relationship.

This finding suggested that there is a positive relationship between involvement balance and upward career mobility. Based on that, the second objective of the study is achieved.

The Influence of Satisfaction Balance on Upward Career Mobility

The third objective of this research was to identify the impact of satisfaction balance on upward career mobility. Based on the third objective of research the researcher has identified that there is a high positive relationship between satisfaction balance and upward career mobility with reference to the banking sector in Sri Lanka as the literatures have stated in previously (Greenhaus et al., 2003). Satisfaction balance creates work-life balance through achieving satisfying experience in all life domains and to do so requires personal resources such as energy, time, and commitment to be well distributed among the domains while improving one's position (Kirchmeyer, 2000). He has further shown that work-family balance has positive consequences on the employee performance. The more the employee is satisfied with the work and family the more he has the freedom to go up in the career ladder (Greenhaus et al., 2003). Those past literature has supported to the findings of the study. In accordance with that when satisfaction balance is increasing, there having a potential for increasing the upward career in the banking sector.

When consider about the multiple regression analysis between variables, the coefficient of the satisfaction balance was +0.481. Therefore, it ensured that when satisfaction balance is increasing in one unit, the upward career mobility increases by the 0.481 units. As a result of that, it has positive relationship between satisfaction balance and upward career mobility in banking sector of Sri Lanka and organizations can retain and improve their employees in the long run by helping work-life balance within their organization.

Furthermore, if consider about the correlation results, correlation between satisfaction balance and upward career mobility is 0.766. It denoted that there is a strong positive liner relationship between independent and dependent variable. In addition, the significance of P – value was at zero level ($0.000 < 0.05$). Hence it has been supported for the relationship. This finding suggested that there is a strong positive relationship between satisfaction balance and upward career mobility. Based on that, the third objective of the study is achieved.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of the study are more practical oriented and they are important for the companies in Sri Lanka to Improve their work-life balance practices for better employee career improvement as well as those findings are helpful for the HR managers to make their decisions regarding their field. Hence, the study findings recommend the following;

Introduce special programmes to increase the self-confidence and capacity for management at any level of female employees.

Policies and programmes have to be focused to promote equitable gender relations and division of labour within the household and the economy.

Women in leadership positions should engage in self-development programs in order to update their knowledge, enhance their professional and leadership skills and develop other personal skills that would make them efficient in male organizations. In addition, engaging in a mentoring relationship could enhance self-development.

A series of measures related to improving working conditions for women are recommended. This included: the employment of more women managers: more flexible working conditions with more home-working, flexi-time, job-sharing, workplace childcare, career breaks and flexible contracts: the identification of role models through team working: workplace job shadowing and secondments: a greater focus on job specifications rather than person specifications: and the restructuring of bonus schemes.

Policy decisions as well as more accurate societal beliefs can be informed with greater understanding of the explicit challenges working women as well as all working parents of children of various ages confront when navigating the arenas of work and home.

For women to develop career wise and occupy top management or leadership positions, an explicit commitment of equal opportunities from the top management is required. The specific contributions that women can make should be identified and communicated to all employees. This commitment also requires investment of sufficient resources, including training and development strategy.

Women, in order to compete equally with their male counterparts, should be educated on management and leadership concepts through seminars and workshops.

Women should be accorded with special assignments and should be offered more challenging jobs so that they can prove their capabilities.

The organization should also stress on equal-opportunity policies, whereby women and men should be given equal opportunities in promotions, decision making and career advancement. Female employees should come up with strategic career planning.

The requirements of the various employees are very much conflicting in nature and it is very important to notice that satisfaction of one of these requirements will naturally lead to the dissatisfaction of the other. Therefore, care should be taken by the company top management when deciding the task to be done.

CONCLUSION

In the emerging realities of globalization and liberal business environment of Sri Lanka and the influx of women into the labour market create more opportunities for Sri Lankan women to reach higher positions. As a result of these changes, the women in work perform and achieve the barriers to corporate ladder would decrease and new opportunities would be created. Therefore, the proportion of women in management of different levels of the organizations has increased. However, the statistics presented in Department of Census and Statistics indicate that only around 5 per cent of employees who have reached the highest decision making positions in the public and private sector are women (2016). Towards the end of year 2016, the participation of women in decision making at various levels in the public and private sector is very low.

The study found that smooth progress in upward career mobility was impeded by work-life balance factors effect on women in work. This study looked at the impact of work-life balance for career progression and found out most of the working women has no proper balance between work and family. As a result of that imbalance, they are fed up with their lives and their performance is decreased. It has adversely influenced on career progression. As well as still society has negative attitudes towards working women to some extent and there is no equal opportunity for women. In this study, relationship between work-life balance and career progression has been developed through statistical analysis and recommendations are provided for identified drawbacks. The relationship was identified as a positive relationship.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Today most of the people give a considerable attention to upward career mobility concept in competitive environment. Most of the researchers doing and have done lots of researches about different topics or problems relevant to women career. Researcher seemed that there is a gap in the empirical knowledge available, in Sri Lankan perspective about the upward career mobility of women employees. Therefore identifying the impact of work – life balance on women workers is very important to decision makers in identifying key workplace issues in order to develop strategies to address and improve the policies for preventing such things.

Furthermore findings of this study would be a better guideline for those who are managers; to identify managerial woman's problems, the ways to shatter those barriers, students; as a referential material for their studies, policy makers; making and improving policies in organizations with regard to upward career mobility and work – life balance and other relevant organization and especially for all women workers; identifying things which hinder their career and way to balance their work life and personal life. Also this study would be important to Sri Lankan economy: through providing solutions for work – life conflict, Sri Lankan economy will be beneficial with more participation of working women in their work environment. Also it will help to rise up their earning as well.

And also it is important for future researchers and future job holders as it provides more knowledge on work – life balance that affect women career. As the job holders, they will be informed about the ways for balancing the dual roles of them. Ultimately it helps to climb up their career. In the case of male job holders they will be able to identify problems that faced by their counterparts as well as their working wives.

DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

It is advised that in case of future studies under this topic, a much representative sample should be taken by taking in to consideration more than one sector. Using a sampling technique in which all the categories of employees are presented in the sample equally will also be worth. Similarly, literature suggests that work life conflict leads to job turnover so there is a need for a separate study looking at women's work life conflict and job turn over and retention.

LIMITATIONS

There can be several other different factors affecting the work-life balance, but in order to avoid unnecessary complications, the researcher only considered three factors for the study purpose. Hence, the time frame for this study was limited to three months. It is quite disadvantageous for doing a broad research in such a broad field like Work – Life Balance. Further, the researcher employed the non-probability sampling technique where all the elements of the population do not have a probability of being selected for the sample. By using this technique there might be a problem in confidently generalizing findings of the study to the population. The researcher has specifically chosen this sampling technique over probability sampling technique to preliminary first-hand information in a quick and inexpensive way.

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Work-Life Balance and Its Impact on Upward Career Mobility of Women Employees

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Involvement Balance: Equal psychological effort and presence invested in work and life of the individual.

Retention: Ability of organizations to keep employees.

Satisfaction Balance: Equal satisfaction expressed across work and family roles of an individual.

Time Balance: Equal time allocated to both work and off work activities by an individual.

Upward Career Mobility: The improvement in one’s current or planned work role.

Work-Life Conflict: The problem that individual faces with their work responsibilities due to the interference of off-life activities.

Chapter 7

The Effects of Perceived Role, Career, Goal, and Performance Uncertainty on Employee Performance

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this chapter is to determine the effects of perceived role, career, goal, and performance uncertainty on employee task and contextual performance. The research model was constructed around four independent variables (role, career, goal, and performance uncertainty) and two dependent variables (task and contextual performance). Cronbach alphas for each survey were over 0.85. To determine the validity level of the surveys, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted and found that all surveys are between acceptable limits of goodness of fit index. Two hundred thirty-nine employees responded to the surveys. Principal components analysis (PCA) was used to create indices for uncertainty perception. PCA shows that the employees included in the study generally were in role, goal, career, and performance uncertainty. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant effect of role and goal uncertainty on employee task performance. The other main result is that there is a statistically significant effect of role and performance uncertainty on the employees' contextual performance.

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INTRODUCTION

Between the years 1967 and 1973, Hofstede studied on employees who worked for IBM and determined “uncertainty avoidance” as a major cultural dimension in his cultural analysis. Hofstede (2011:10) defines uncertainty avoidance as “the degree to which the members of a society feel threatened with uncertainty and ambiguity”. It is stated that in societies who score high on this dimension, there is a tendency towards more codes, regulations, and formal structures in order to reduce uncertain conditions. On the contrary, in societies with a low score on the uncertainty avoidance, it is observed that business is conducted on a daily basis, rules are disliked, and uncertainty is viewed as acceptable. Within the framework of Hofstede’s cultural classification, the results of the research performed by “*Hofstede Insights*” for Turkey has shown that uncertainty avoidance tendency in Turkey is low. In other words, it is seen that more laws and rules are needed in Turkey (Sıgır and Gürbüz, 2013:528).

With reference to the concerning research performed by *Hofstede Insights*, it can be seen that as an extension of a social culture, also in Turkish businesses, uncertainty avoidance and institutionalization tendency are low and organizations with formal structures and systematical processes are restricted accordingly (Yolaç and Doğan, 2011:106; Cevher, 2014:10; Ak, 2010:240; Çakıcı and Özer, 2007:87). In businesses having no systematic processes and with weak formal construct, uncertain conditions emerge and the concerning uncertainty reflects on employees’ performance in a negative way (Johlke and Iyer, 2013; Downey and Slocum, 1982). Similarly, uncertain conditions may appear due to the lack of systematic conditions in human resources processes as well. Role uncertainties (Rizzo et al., 1970), career planning uncertainties (Ito and Brotheridge, 2001), uncertainties stemming from restricted performance feedback (Bennett et al., 1990) or goal uncertainties (Jung, 2013) can be mentioned to exemplify the uncertainties related to human resources systems.

When literature in Turkish examined, it is possible to come across the studies supporting the main research question of the current research. The findings of the research by Ceylan and Ulutürk (2006:55) investigating the relationships of role uncertainty between job satisfaction and performance showed that role uncertainty affected employees’ job satisfaction and performance negatively. Another study (Sabuncuoğlu, 2008:46) concluded that role uncertainty led to desensitization and accordingly reduced job satisfaction of individuals.

Besides, a study conducted by Doğan et al. (2016:37) revealed that role uncertainty was effective on exhaustion levels of academicians working at university.

Research on career uncertainty carried out by Gümüştekin and Gültekin (2019:155) revealed findings asserting indirect effects of uncertainty on career planning. It has been stated that role uncertainty and role conflicts result in stress, which influences their career decisions negatively. Eryiğit (2007:41) pointed out that formal career management practices might be used as a tool in coping with employees' uncertainty challenges. In their study, Misican and Bedir (2017:83) drew attention to the role of uncertainty in employees career planning and expressed that individuals drift away from traditional career patterns due to uncertain conditions and switch to finite career model. Considering performance uncertainty, a study performed by Kaymaz (2011:129) suggested that performance feedback knowledge was an important variable decreasing uncertainty and increasing employee motivation. Despite the findings stated above, there has not been found any studies complying with the main axis of the research in Turkish literature within the scope of goal uncertainty.

The purpose of this study is to research the effects of perceived uncertainty in role, goal, career, and performance management systems on employees' performances. The basic research question stated below is based on the observations made by the author. Since 2008, the author has been in charge of Uludağ University, University-Industry Collaboration Center General Secretariat and within the framework of reconstruction projects related to human resources sub-processes performed during this duty, the following observations were made in relation to human resources practices:

Employees are working under uncertain situations in various industries. People working in most organizations do not know exactly what their role scope is because of lack of job analysis and job descriptions especially in SMEs. Employees could not clearly see the future of their own position in organizations. The individual and organizational based career planning activities are not well designed and communicated. EFQM and WCM practices force organizations to establish goal hierarchy but organizations do not determine goals with employees and do not get feedback if the goal is suitable for that person. Employees do not get systematic feedback about their performance level. So, low effectiveness level of role definition, goal establishment, career development, and performance management systems create uncertainty for all persons in organizations.

Uncertainty constitutes one of the fundamental questions of debate in the context of organization-environment interaction (Burns and Stalker, 1961; Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967). Coping with uncertainty is among the most challenging managerial issues for firms (Gifford et al., 1979:459). Different types of uncertainty are mentioned in the literature. Miller (1987:136) has classified environmental dimension of uncertainty as state uncertainty, effect uncertainty, and response uncertainty while Jackson et al. (1987) has dissociated it as strategic, structural, and job-related uncertainty. On the other hand, Buono and Bowditch (1989) has classified uncertainty as organizational (e.g., uncertainty about external business environments), group (e.g., uncertainty regarding structure of the organization), and individual (e.g., job, task, and role related uncertainty). Construction of uncertainty in the present study is more relevant to the uncertainty concepts at “individual” and “organizational” level as stated in the study of Buono and Bowditch (1989). In this study, uncertain processes which particularly stem from the practices of firms in their own internal processes are investigated rather than uncertain conditions based on the environment. The uncertainties stemming from undefined roles, mismanaging of feedback mechanism, misconstruction of career management system, and the uncertainties appearing during the setting of goals are the starting point of this research.

There have been a wide range of studies revealing the effects of uncertainty at individual level. Bordia et al. (2004:508) states that behaviors of organizations which includes strategical, structural, and human resource oriented changes in order to maintain competitive advantages may lead to uncertainty and that struggling with uncertainty has a direct effect on employees’ psychological well-being. In another study carried out on patients, Mishel (1984:166) concluded that perceived uncertainty was a stressful factor. In parallel with these results, various studies (Biasi et al, 2015: 80; Gerrity et al, 1992:1034; Ciairano et al., 2009:14) assert a linear relationship between stress and uncertainty. When the issue is considered from job satisfaction aspect, findings of a study on accounting staff by Ferris (1977:27) revealed a statistically significant and negative relationship between perceived uncertainty and job satisfaction. In the same study, Ferris states that uncertainty is a factor decreasing employee performance. Depending on the increase of uncertainty, Planalp and Honeycutt (1985:601) note that cognitive, emotional, and relational effects appear in individuals. The study has also emphasized that increase in uncertainty influences the persons’ beliefs of themselves and of others negatively and it may cause strong emotional reactions and relational tragedies. In their study regarding individual learning in organizations, March and Olsen (1975:168)

state that in conditions where the gained information is true, the targets are clear, and the environment is relatively stable, in other words, when uncertainty level is low, individual learning will be positively affected.

Uncertainty constitutes an important dimension of individuals' psychological discourses during organizational change. In organization mergers, re-organization efforts or organizational culture changes, uncertainty emerges as a factor impacting human psychology (Bordia et al. 2004:509). Another study conducted by Lane and Bocarnea (2011:107) found out that the efforts aimed to decrease uncertainty at organizational level positively influenced employee satisfaction. The same study also concluded that fulfilled activities in order to reduce uncertainty at individual level were effective on creativity.

In spite of its negative reflections at individual level, uncertainty is considered as a factor enabling some attitudes such as controlled behavior, struggling with the unknown and seeking for information. Gelatt (1989:255) uses the concept of "positive uncertainty" to explain this situation. According to Gelatt, positive uncertainty is a new decision making strategy and requires unsystematic and irrational decision making. In this strategy, the individual has been seeking for information, thinking and making a selection. As a result, despite many negative sides of phenomenon of uncertainty, positive uncertainty characterizes an important concept which is rapidly changing and providing the control of decision making process in a complicated environment. Barr-Annan et al (2009:123) remark that individuals try to eliminate uncertainty by finding out why and how the events create uncertainty and in that way uncertainty becomes a driving factor for rapid adaptation to a new condition.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The concept of uncertainty has been expressed in various ways in the related literature. Uncertainty has been defined as "an individual's inability to predict something accurately" (Milliken, 1987:136) and this uncertainty hinges upon lack of information (Lawrence and Lorche, 1967:317). In some studies, uncertainty has been described as a state of complexity and is used to highlight the state of complexity that emerges hinging on the presence of multiple factors during decision making process (Gifford et al, 1979:459). Due to the organization design literature, uncertainty is used as a tool for defining organization-environment interaction and lack of information about the environment (Milliken, 1987:134). In another study, uncertainty is defined

as a cognitive state created when an event cannot be adequately structured or categorized because sufficient cues are lacking (Mishel, 1984:163). In the current study, uncertainty has been employed as an unclear state based on the lack of systematical approach and information. In other words, the unclear states implied here are the ones hinging on the lack of institutionalized and systematized structures at institutional level in the fields of role, career, goal, and performance management and the lack of knowledge in related fields. The concepts of role, career, goal, and performance uncertainty have been discussed within this framework.

Role Uncertainty

The Classical Organization Theory endorses that tasks and responsibilities should be defined for each position included in formal organizational structure. Defined tasks and responsibilities will help executives call their subordinates to account and will guide about in which fields the employees need to perform. It is stated that the employees who are not informed about what they are expected to do and what type of assessment procedure they will face could not perform the required job performance.

Role theory (Kahn et al., 1964) indicates that organizational environment affects role behaviors of individuals. Organizational norms orient employees how they need to behave. The employees receive and evaluate the messages and behave within this message framework. The basic problem starts when the messages are not clear, direct or interpretable. In this case conflicts emerge and behaviors occur that are incompatible with the expectations of the sender. Role theory propounds that stress, depression, job dissatisfaction, and ineffective performance occur when there is inconsistency in expected behaviors of employee.

Within the context of role theory, role uncertainty (Katz and Kahn, 1978:206) is defined as not knowing exactly what to do on certain conditions. Rizzo et al (1970:151) describes role uncertainty as a lack of information required by a specific position to fulfill the activities. The concerning uncertainty may not only be related to unclearly identified role set but also may occur due to lack of clarity about expected behavior. Ahmad and Taylor (2009:903) note that the employees need to know the requirements of their positions such as roles, authorization and responsibilities. The authors also highlight two important reasons of this uncertainty. First, non-availability

of required information and second, inaccessibility of required information despite it exists.

A considerable amount of research has been conducted to reveal negative results of role uncertainty on employee performance. Referring to role theory, in their study, Rizzo et al, (1970:151) indicate role uncertainty as a variable increasing the possibility of job satisfaction decline. Furthermore, they state that role uncertainty leads to low performance and anxiety for employees. Another notable study in literature was conducted by Bedeian and Ermenakis (1981). The authors express that role uncertainty creates tension at work and decreases job satisfaction. Thus, low job satisfaction is expected to result in intention to leave. Conversely, Kemery et al. (1985:372) retested the study performed in 1981 by Bedeian and Ermenakis and found out that there was not a direct relation among role uncertainty, job anxiety, job satisfaction and intention to leave. However, it has been stated in other studies (Sonnentag and Frese, 1981:7; Netemeyer et al, 1190:148; Wispe and Thayer, 1957:47; Ingram, 2013:377) that role uncertainty creates anxiety, job dissatisfaction, low performance, lack of self-confidence, and intention to leave. In their study, Hill et al. (2015:45) claim that role uncertainty weakens organizational citizenship and increase absenteeism. The findings of the study (Koustelios et al., 2004:91) analyzing the relations among role uncertainty, role conflict, and job satisfaction show that role uncertainty diminishes job satisfaction. Clear information about how employees fulfill their work helps to standardize the expected behaviors and has a positive impact on employee performance (Bedeian and Ermenakis, 1981:423). In another study on sales staff, Sohi (1996:55) concluded that role uncertainty affects job satisfaction and employee performance negatively. By examining the effects of role uncertainty and role conflict on creativity, Rol Tang and Chang (2010:874) reported that role uncertainty has negative effect on creativity. Another study (Boles et al., 2003:106) noted that, role uncertainty is a work-related role stress and significantly and negatively related to employee satisfaction. Kalbers and Cenker (2008:340) *found that role uncertainty is negatively related to job performance*. Lastly, Onyemah (2008:306) studied the interactions between role uncertainty, role conflict and job performance and the findings showed that there was an inverted-U relationship between role uncertainty and performance. Onyemah indicated that an increase in role uncertainty would decrease the job performance.

Goal Uncertainty

According to goal setting theory, set goals directly influence employee motivation and performance (Latham and Locke, 1991: 213). Locke (1996:120) points out that the goals affect performance by orienting activities, determine the degree of the effort and thus they are important for providing sustainability of activities. Also, harder goals result in higher motivation and success when compared to easier goals (Latham and Locke, 1991:217; Latham and Locke, 2002:705).

Latham (2004:126) states that goal setting affect individual performance in 4 ways. Firstly, goal-orientation encourages employees to position themselves closer to goal related jobs. Secondly, especially harder goals require more effort, which provide employees do their job with higher energy with respect to easier goals. Next, hard goals and the jobs needed to finish in short time require faster work and higher effort. Finally, it encourages employees to share information around the goals and to seek information for reaching the goals.

Chun and Rainey, (2005:2) suggest that goal uncertainty at organizational level might appear in various dimensions. i) *Mission comprehension uncertainty* is used for describing the uncertainty about understanding, explaining and communicating the organizational mission. This situation is related to comprehending mission statement of the organization directly and easily or not. Easy and understandable mission statements will not cause interpretive gap and will make sense in common for everyone. ii) *Directive goal uncertainty* is associated with the matter of how much and to what extend the organization's mission statement guide organizational activities. iii) *Evaluative goal uncertainty* describes the uncertainty in evaluating the process and progress toward the achievement of the organizational goals. iv) *Priority goal uncertainty* is defined as the uncertainty in deciding on priorities among multiple goals.

The research (Jung, 2014:213) findings conducted on government institutions indicate that organizational goal uncertainty has a negative effect on institutional performance. Locke and Latham (2002:706) indicate that specific goals make positive contributions to employee performance. Chun and Rainey (2005:21) concluded that specific goals are important factors for accountability and organizational performance of government institutions. Furthermore, research by Jung (2013:973), Stazyk and Goerdel (2011:648) showed that specific and clear organizational goals supported employee job satisfaction and motivation positively. Jung and Rainey (2011:41) found

out that goal uncertainty decrease organizational service motivation and negatively affect employee efforts and outputs. Clarity of goals was also reported to reinforce internal communication (Pandey and Rainey, 2006:99). Jung (2015:207) also states that time-limited business goals positively affect employee performance.

Career Uncertainty

Career management requires decision-making so that the career related uncertainty should firstly be handled within the framework of decision theory. While normative decision theory is about how optimal decisions should be made, descriptive decision theory is about how decisions are actually made. Pitz and Harren (1980) constructed a four-phase process relating to optimal decision making of individuals. i) During decision process, the individual evaluates the alternatives and forms the most appropriate alternative sets for himself. ii) In the second step of decision problem the individual determines his objectives or potential goals. In this step he establishes a relation between objectives or goals and alternatives. iii) The individual evaluates the possible outcomes of each alternative to be preferred. iv) In the last step, the compatibility between obtained outcomes and objectives or goals is checked. Individuals try to make career decisions within an unstable environment and this environmental instability causes uncertainty (Roberts, 2006: 99). Tien et al. (2005:163) argue that career uncertainty has a significant effect on career processes and they define career uncertainty as all the uncertain factors which the individuals feel about their career future.

Uncertainty is an important factor affecting decision making (Dervishi and Kadriu: 2014:225). Within the context of decision theory, three factors- by creating uncertainty- complicating the decision making are pointed out (Germeijs and Boeck, 2003:12). First is *lack of information*. During career planning process, lack of information about what the alternatives are and accordingly about possible outputs of those alternatives leads to uncertainty which makes decision making more difficult. Second one is *evaluation problem*. Unclear career goals, implicit bound between career goals and alternatives or equal attractiveness of alternative career goals create uncertainty and thus, impact the career decisions negatively. Last is *uncertainty about the outcomes*. Unexpected conditions during career decision process or failure in reaching a result due to low abilities cause uncertain cases and again impact decision making negatively. Another study by Gati et al, (1996:512) emphasizes three

factors creating uncertainty during career decision process. First one is the lack of information of job content. Next is the lack of information about individual's own knowledge, skills, and abilities. Final one is uncertainty due to the lack of information sources.

From the point of individual aspect, possible uncertainties to be experienced during career related decision processes can be seen to lead negative results. Ito and Brotheridge (2001:418) state that uncertainty may cause tension in people during career process and might result in emotional exhaustion. At individual level, Roberts (2006:109) points out that working at a new workplace or changing job creates uncertainty. The author emphasizes that the uncertainty conditions are much more at newly-established companies than others. The study (Kramer, 1994:386) on employees newly recruited and assigned to a different position within the company indicates that those employees will experience high level of uncertainty while developing social relations, gaining new skills and building image in the organizational environment. In another study, Sias, Kramer, and Jenkins (1997) express that temporary workers and new hires will have uncertainty due to communications limitations in their new workplaces and this uncertainty will reflect negatively on their innovative and information creation performances.

Career uncertainty has been analyzed directly in relation with the concepts of job insecurity and employment uncertainty. Job insecurity stemming from uncertain conditions in job lead to stress, depression, physical and emotional exhaustion in individuals (Mantler et al, 2005:201; Sdykova, 2016:107) and those conditions affect employee performance negatively.

Performance Uncertainty

Various studies have provided evidence revealing the negative relationship of uncertainty both with individual performance (March and Olsen, 1975:168) and organizational performance (Martin et al., 2015; Hoffman, 2007; Otley, 2012). In the present study, uncertainty will be associated with only individual performance. The focus in this study is on the uncertainty of employees due to lack of information related to job performance at individual level. Within this context, Miller and Jablin (1991:95) stated that rise in the level of uncertainty increased information-seeking behavior of employees.

In job environment, when the perceived uncertainty level of performance is increased the more the tendency to feedback-seeking behavior (Bennett et al., 1990:343). In the perception of uncertainty, basically, the person's

past performance indicators play an important role. Employees with high or desired level of past job performance related to the job think that feedback information is unnecessary and they do not try to seek feedback specifically. On the contrary, the people with unsatisfactory level of past job performance need continuous feedback information [even if it is negative] as they are uncertain about their own performance (Audia and Locke, 2003:633).

Employees who achieved the desired results of their objectives will be more satisfied with the job. Providing feedback to the individual about the job not only increases the satisfaction but also help to improve skills. On the contrary, continue the work without information about the existing performance make difficulties to integrate with the organization and reach high performance (Keser, 2006:84).

Performance feedback is an important dimension of job characteristics model designed by Hackman and Oldham (1976). In this context, feedback is defined as the information providing awareness related to the degree to which an employee is carrying out the work and to what extent this effort reflects to the work results. This definition clearly reveals that feedback is an important tool in eliminating job performance uncertainty. Hackman and Lawler (1971) point out that the performance feedback to decrease uncertainty is one of the motivating job characteristics and unavailable performance feedback effect job satisfaction and internal motivation negatively. Furthermore, feedback as a job characteristics dimension has positive effect on employee's job satisfaction and internal motivation (Kumar et al., 2006:210)

In their study on the relationship between uncertainty, performance and job satisfaction, Behrman et al. (1981:1248) claim that uncertainties in employee's job environment (e.g. uncertainties in role, job definition, job security, career paths), uncertainties in customer relations (e.g. uncertainties in customer expectations, and purchasing behavior) or uncertainties in social life (changes in economic, cultural or political conditions) affects individual performance in a negative way. Presence of uncertain factors leads people to seek more certain conditions. This tendency is an important indicator of the effort of providing internal control on job. In this phase, in terms of eliminating uncertainty and providing internal control, the employees tend to seek feedback information and try to reinforce the skills for coping with uncertainty.

Uncertainty influences decision making process negatively. Making evaluations or choices is getting difficult especially under the existence of uncertain conditions (Einhorn and Hogarth, 1986:228). In uncertain conditions where it is unable to evaluate in which fields the performance is at desired

or under desired level, it becomes difficult to make decisions concerning what type of behavior to display and which technical issues to concentrate on (Atkins et al., 2002:588). In this case, feedback data leads employees' decisions regarding in which fields and what type of improvements they should make (Downey and Slocum, 1975:564).

Task and Contextual Performance

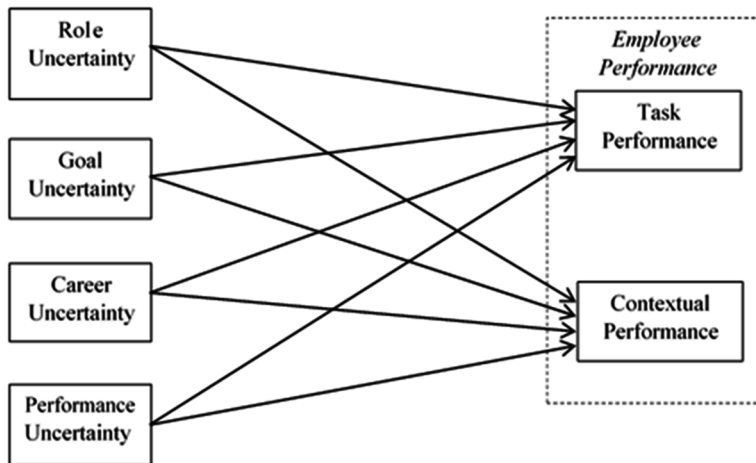
Task and contextual performance are the main sub-dimensions of employee performance. Goodman and Svyantek (1999) describe task performance as the activities written in the job descriptions that contribute the task performance. Contextual performance is viewed as discretionary behaviors not formally required by any particular job, yet helping to form the social context of all jobs (Jawahar and Carr, 2007). Contextual performance includes behavioral elements such as helping and cooperating with others, volunteering for additional task activities, persisting with extra effort, following rules and procedures, and endorsing organizational objectives (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

Borman and Motowidlo (1993) suggest that task and contextual performance have different meanings in four ways. First, task activities contribute either directly or indirectly to the technical core of the organization. Contextual activities, however, support the organizational, social, and psychological environment in which task performance occurs. Second, task activities vary between different jobs within the same organization. Contextual activities, however, are common to many (or all) jobs. Third, task activities are role-prescribed and are behaviors that employees perform in exchange for pay. Contextual behaviors, however, are less role-prescribed. Finally, the important human characteristics for completing task activities are knowledge, skills, and abilities. These knowledge, skills, and abilities usually covary with task proficiency. For contextual performance, the major sources of variation are employee predispositions and volition.

RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESIS

This research model designed for determining the effects of perceived uncertainty about human resources sub-systems on employees performance is shown in Figure 1. In the model there are four independent variables (role, goal, career, and performance) and two dependent variable (task and

Figure 1. Presents research model



contextual performance). The model is the basis of the hypothesis tested among the variables is stated in Figure 1.

Research has two basic questions within the framework of the model.

1. Do the employees working at the organizations where the research was carried out have a perception of uncertainty in the human resource sub-systems like role, goal, career, and performance?
2. Is the perceived uncertainty in role, goal, career, and performance sub-systems effect employee performance (task and contextual performance)?

Based on the model, hypothesis developed within the research questions are shown below.

H1: The employees who participated in the research do not have perceptions of uncertainty in terms of role, goal, career, and performance systems.

H2: Perceived role uncertainty has statistically significant effect on employees' task performance.

H3: Perceived goal uncertainty has statistically significant effect on employees' task performance.

H4: Perceived career uncertainty has statistically significant effect on employees' task performance.

H5: Perceived performance uncertainty has statistically significant effect on employees' task performance.

- H6:** Perceived role uncertainty has statistically significant effect on employees' contextual performance.
- H7:** Perceived goal uncertainty has statistically significant effect on employees' contextual performance.
- H8:** Perceived career uncertainty has statistically significant effect on employees' contextual performance.
- H9:** Perceived performance uncertainty has statistically significant effect on employees' contextual performance.

Method, Instruments and Sample

The data were obtained mainly via face to face surveys. During face to face surveys, the researcher personally carried out the procedure with employees and executives. E-mails were also sent to business e-mail addresses of employees and executives for response. Different measures were used to measure dependent and independent variables. Survey items were established through local and foreign literature review. The surveys which were particularly adapted in Turkish literature were included. All surveys has 5-point Likert-Scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree-1" to "Strongly Agree-5". Scales used in the research and statistical properties are explained below.

Role uncertainty scale was developed by Rizzo, House and Lirtzman in 1970, includes 6 items. The scale was adapted in Turkish literature by Basım, Erkenekli and Şeşen (2010, cronbach alpha 0.81). *Goal uncertainty* was assessed with 3 items by using Office of Personnel Management (OPM)'s 2012 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey. The original survey consist of totally 98 items but we take only three of them directly related to goal clarity. These 3 items were translated into Turkish by us and used in the research. The items in the *career uncertainty scale* were formed by the authors for the present study by reviewing the related individual and organizational career planning literature. For this purpose, 9 items in total were created in order to measure individual and organizational career planning uncertainty. *Performance uncertainty scales* designed by Miller and Jablin (1991) and Morrison (1993) were used. The cronbach's alphas of the scales developed by Miller and Jablin was 0.82 and by Morrison was 0.81 in the scope of solicited feedback. Similarly, the cronbach's alpha of the scales in the scope of unsolicited feedback and developed by Miller and Jablin was 0.80 and by Morrison was 0.85. 11 items adapted from the related original studies were translated into Turkish by the authors for the present study. A 17-item *task and contextual*

performance scale was used for measuring the perceived performance. The first 9 items measured “task performance” and was developed by Goodman and Syvanteck (1999) while 8 items developed by Jawahar and Carr (2007) and assessed “contextual performance”. Task and contextual performance scales were translated into Turkish in a study carried out by Bağcı (2014). In the stated study, Cronbach’s alphas for task performance and contextual performance were 0.88 and 0.85, respectively. Besides, the survey included 6 items to determine the respondents’ demographical characteristics. Totally 52 items were used in the research. Items of all scales displays in Appendix.

The population of the research consists of all firms which implement human resources processes effectively. However, it is impossible to reach such a wide population due to cost and time limitations. Therefore, the data were obtained via easy and snowball sampling methods. The research was conducted on the firms in automotive, textile, and food industries in which human resources processes were practiced relatively effective in Turkey. It has been observed that human resources processes make more progress in institutionalized establishments in the concerning industries. Hence, the starting point is the idea that perception of uncertainty in subsystems of human resources in automotive, textile, and food industries might be relatively less than as in other industries. Particularly in Bursa province, in organizations becoming more effective through foreign capital partnerships, human resources processes have been observed to improve. Within this framework, the research was carried out on 239 employees in total from automotive, textile, and food industries.

Table 1 displays demographical characteristics of the sample. The majority of the participants constitute males with a range of age 31-40, university graduate, and having 1-5 years of seniority. Profile of the firms included in the implementation covers large-scale organizations in general.

Findings

Reliability Analysis

Reliability analysis was conducted for six scales. As a result of reliability analysis, the cronbach’s alphas of the scales for role uncertainty is 0.88, goal uncertainty is 0.85, career uncertainty is 0.85, performance uncertainty is 0.91, task performance is 0.90 and contextual performance is 0.89. The results revealed high reliability level for the scales.

Table 1. Demographical profile of the respondents

		N	%
Industry	<i>Automotive</i>	68	28.5
	<i>Textile</i>	118	49.4
	<i>Food</i>	53	22.2
Gender	<i>Female</i>	89	37.2
	<i>Male</i>	150	62.8
Age	<i>20-30</i>	58	24.3
	<i>31-40</i>	132	55.2
	<i>41-50</i>	45	18.8
	<i>51 and +</i>	4	1.7
Education	<i>Secondary</i>	1	0.4
	<i>High School</i>	29	12.1
	<i>Associate Degree</i>	29	12.1
	<i>Bachelor's Degree</i>	157	65.7
	<i>Master</i>	23	9.6
	<i>Doctorate</i>	-	-
Seniority	<i>Less than 1 year</i>	23	9.6
	<i>1-5 year/s</i>	119	49.8
	<i>6-10 years</i>	52	21.8
	<i>11-15 years</i>	20	8.4
	<i>16 years and +</i>	25	10.5
Number of Employees	<i>0-49</i>	-	-
	<i>50-249</i>	25	10.5
	<i>250 and +</i>	214	89.5

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis is performed to test whether the consistency of a specified measurement model is statistically significant or not. As a difference from factor analysis being performed by conventional methods, confirmatory factor analysis is used to test the verification of factorial construct determined by the researcher in advance. At this point of view, it is assumed that more than one latent variables thought to be constructed by scale items are explained by another latent variable and consistency of this assumption with the data is tested.

Various goodness of fit indices which have statistical functions in evaluation of model consistency. In the analysis, goodness of fit index-**GFI**, standardized **RMR** and root mean square error of approximation-**RMSEA**, Bentler comparative fit index-**CFI** have been considered. For determining the performance of the model, above mentioned indices are expected to have specified fit values. The values are illustrated in Table 2.

Within the scope of the obtained data, in order to test the validity of measuring tools, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted. During the

Table 2. Model fit values and standard fit criterion

Fit Measures	Values for a Good Fit	Acceptable Fit Values
GFI	0.95<GFI<1.00	0.90<GFI<0.95
CFI	0.95<CFI<1.00	0.90<CFI<0.95
RMSEA	0.00<RMSEA<0.05	0.05<RMSEA<0.10
SRMR	0.00<SRMR<0.05	0.05<SRMR<0.10

analysis, index fit values of role, goal, career, performance uncertainty scales and task / contextual performance scales were calculated. Including all scales, goodness-of-fit values were within acceptable limits, which showed validity of the measuring tools (Table 3).

Principal Component Analysis

In the present study, it was attempted to determine whether the participants have uncertainty perceptions regarding human resources practices such as role, goal, career and performance. For this determination, an index was tried to be created. By using principal component analysis, general means were calculated on the basis of role, goal, career, and performance uncertainty scales and dimension reduction was made. KMO and Bartlett test results (KMO, 0.910 and Bartlett sig.<0.05) indicated that the data set is appropriate for dimension reduction analysis. Therefore, 29 items in role, goal, career, and performance uncertainty scales were reduced to one dimension which has

Table 3. Fit indices of the model

	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	GFI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Role Uncertainty Scale	10.680	9	1.187	0.99	0.99	0.02	0.02
Goal Uncertainty Scale	0.000	0	0	1.00	1.00	0.66	0.00
Career Uncertainty Scale	89.555	24	3.731	0.92	0.94	0.10	0.07
Performance Uncertainty Scale	135.778	31	4.380	0.89	0.95	0.11	0.09
Task Performance Scale	92.777	25	3.711	0.92	0.94	0.10	0.04
Contextual Performance Scale	9.201	7	1.314	0.99	0.99	0.03	0.02

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%70 explanatory power. Index studies were carried out through this single dimension. Considering this dimension, values at 1 and above indicate “state of clarity” while values under 1 show “state of uncertainty”, which can be seen in Figure 2.

As can be seen from frequency distributions, the values below 1 are %60 whereas it is %40 for the values above 1, which signifies that majority of the participants have “perception of uncertainty” in terms of human resources sub-processes (role, career, goal, performance). Within this scope, H1 (“*The employees who participated in the research do not have perceptions of uncertainty in terms of role, goal, career, and performance systems.*”) is rejected.

Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

Before multiple linear regression analysis, the data were tested for normality. It can be seen from normality test results (Table 4) that skewness and kurtosis values of six scales used in the research are generally between the range of -1 and +1. It has been indicated that skewness and kurtosis values between -1 and +1 is acceptable range for normality assumption (Kalaycı, 2005: 73).

Figure 2. Presents state of uncertainty (principal component analysis)

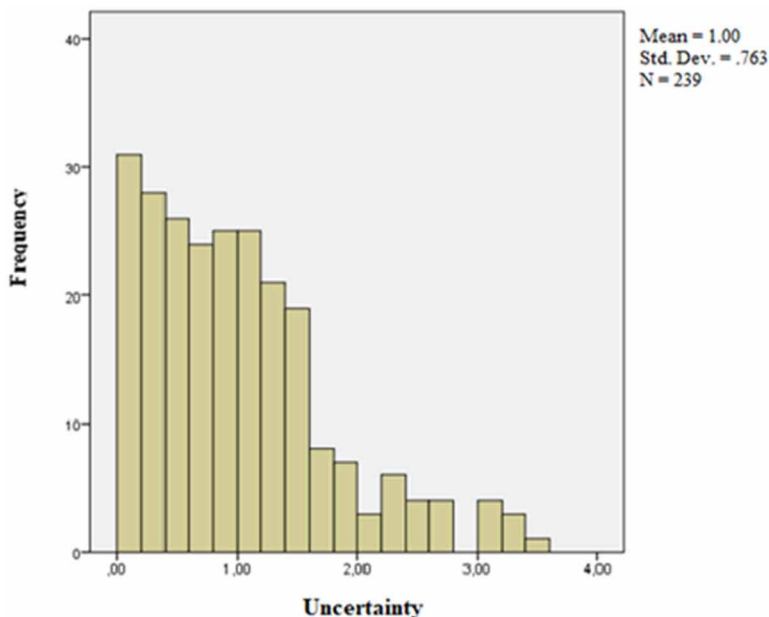


Table 4. Normality and homogeneity of variance test results

Measures	Normality Test		Homogeneity of Variance Test			
	Skewness	Kurtosis	Levene Statistics	df1	df2	Sig.
Role Uncertainty	-0.653	0.681	2.636	1	237	0.106
Goal Uncertainty	-0.562	0.050	1.686	1	237	0.195
Career Uncertainty	-0.099	0.073	0.399	1	237	0.528
Performance Uncertainty	-0.580	0.604	0.428	1	237	0.514
Task Performance	-0.923	4.761	0.366	3	234	0.778
Contextual Performance	-0.611	1.330	3.351	3	234	0.020

Therefore, all scales are determined to fall into generally acceptable limits for normality.

Besides, homogeneity of variance test was also performed, which is another prerequisite of regression analysis. According to values displayed in Table 4, variance of data (sig. ≥ 0.05) regarding the scales is homogenous in general. As a result, presuppositions for multiple linear regression analysis were fulfilled.

As shown in Table 5, correlation coefficients under 0.80 indicate that there is no multiple correlation problem in Model 1. D.W test result (2.052) reveals the absence of autocorrelation in the model. F test (7.796, $p < 0.05$) signifies that the model is significant as a whole. Coefficient of determination ($R^2 = 0.118$) shows that %11.8 of dependent variable (task performance) is explained by the independent variables included in the model (Table 6).

Considering the significance levels of parameters included in Model 1, it can be seen that role uncertainty is effective on employees' task performance ($t = 3.627$, $p < 0.05$). At that point it is determined that one unit of increase in role clarity causes 0.335 unit increase in task performance, which supports H2 (*Perceived role uncertainty has statistically significant effect on employees'*

Table 5. Means, Std.deviation, correlation coefficients for task performance

Model 1	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Correlations				
Task Performance	239	4.13	0.52	1.000				
Role Uncertainty	239	3.76	0.76	.299	1.000			
Goal Uncertainty	239	3.56	0.90	.115	.673	1.000		
Career Uncertainty	239	3.29	0.71	.134	.532	.565	1.000	
Performance Uncertainty	239	3.56	0.71	.258	.643	.569	.570	1.000

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Table 6. Multiple linear regression analysis results-the effects of perceived uncertainty on task performance

Enter Method N=239 Model 1	Model summary			Anova			Coefficients		
	R	R Square	Durbin Watson	df	F	Sig.	Beta	t	Sig.
Role Uncertainty	0.343	0.118	2.052	4	7.796	0.000	0.335	3.627	0.000
Goal Uncertainty							-0.188	-2.110	0.036
Career Uncertainty							-0.034	-0.421	0.674
Performance Uncertainty							0.168	1.946	0.053

task performance). Similarly, it was found out that goal uncertainty has an effect (t= -2.110, p<0.05) on task performance. One unit of increase in goal uncertainty causes -0.188 unit decrease in task performance, providing evidence to support H3 (*Perceived goal uncertainty has statistically significant effect on employees’ task performance.*).

On the other hand, career uncertainty was found out to have no effect (t= -0.421, p>0.05) on task performance. Thus, H4 (*Perceived career uncertainty has statistically significant effect on employees’ task performance.*) is rejected. In a similar way, it was detected that performance uncertainty did not have an effect (t=1.946, p>0.05) on employees’ task performance. The results reject H5 (*Perceived performance uncertainty has statistically significant effect on employees’ task performance.*)

As seen in Table 7, correlation coefficients under 0.80 indicate that there is no multiple correlation problem in Model 2. D.W test result (2.140) shows the absence of autocorrelation in the model. F test (18.834, p<0.05) indicates that the model is significant as a whole. Coefficient of determination (R²=0.244) signifies that %24.4 of dependent variable (contextual performance) is explained by the independent variables included in the model (Table 8).

Table 7. Means, Std.deviation, correlation coefficients for contextual performance

Model 2	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Correlations				
Contextual Performance	239	4.08	0.57	1.000				
Role Uncertainty	239	3.76	0.76	.437	1.000			
Goal Uncertainty	239	3.56	0.90	.309	.673	1.000		
Career Uncertainty	239	3.29	0.71	.245	.532	.565	1.000	
Performance Uncertainty	239	3.56	0.71	.449	.643	.569	.570	1.000

Table 8. Multiple linear regression analysis results - the effects of perceived uncertainty on contextual performance

Enter Method N=239 Model 2	Model summary			Anova			Coefficients		
	R	R Square	Durbin Watson	df	F	Sig.	Beta	t	Sig.
Role Uncertainty	0.494	0.244	2.140	4	18.834	0.000	0.287	3.352	0.001
Goal Uncertainty							-0.024	-0.296	0.768
Career Uncertainty							-0.078	-1.043	0.298
Performance Uncertainty							0.323	4.029	0.000

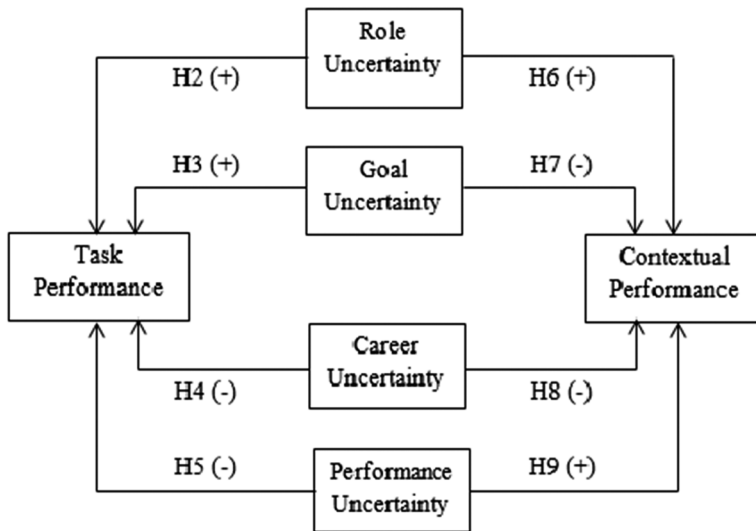
Taking into account the significance levels of parameters included in Model 2, it can be seen that role uncertainty is effective on employees’ contextual performance ($t=3.352$, $p<0.05$). Hence, it is found that one unit of increase in role clarity causes 0.287 unit increase in contextual performance, which supports H6 (*Perceived role uncertainty has statistically significant effect on employees’ contextual performance*). Similarly, it was found out that performance uncertainty has an effect ($t= 4.029$, $p<0.05$) on contextual performance. One unit of increase in performance clarity causes 0.323 unit increase in contextual performance, providing evidence to support H9 (*Perceived performance uncertainty has statistically significant effect on employees’ contextual performance*).

On the other side, goal uncertainty was found out to have no effect ($t= -0.296$, $p>0.05$) on contextual performance. Thus, H7 (*Perceived goal uncertainty has statistically significant effect on employees’ contextual performance*) is rejected. Also it was detected that career uncertainty did not have an effect ($t= -1.043$, $p>0.05$) on employees’ contextual performance. The results reject H8 (*Perceived career uncertainty has statistically significant effect on employees’ contextual performance*). Figure 3 summarizes the results of tested hypothesis in the research.

DISCUSSIONS

In this study, we tried to answer two fundamental research questions. First is to find out whether the employees within the scope of this research have a perception of uncertainty in terms of the sub-processes of human resources (role, goal, career and performance) or not while the second is to determine if a possible perception of uncertainty would have an impact on the performance

Figure 3. Presents results of research hypothesis



of the employees. Principal Components Analysis has been applied in order to seek an answer for the first question. Results of the analysis indicate that the employees within the scope of this research have, to a great extent, a perception of uncertainty with respect to the sub-processes of human resources. This result is in parallel with the expectations. As it was also stated in the introduction section of this study, observations stated before the research that constitute the starting point of study were in the direction that employees had been experiencing uncertain conditions with regards to the sub-processes of human resources. Therefore, the result that has been achieved supports the observations which had been made.

Results that are different from each other have been obtained with respect to the second question of the research, namely the impacts of uncertainty perceived in the sub-processes of human resources on employee performance (task and contextual performance). First of all, impacts of role uncertainty on employee performance were analyzed. Several studies existing in literature indicating the relationship between role uncertainty and employee performance (Wispe and Thayer, 1957; Rizzo et al., 1970; Netemeyer et al., 1990). In this research, it has been proved that there exists a statistically significant relationship between role uncertainty and employee performance. With a more detailed explanation, it was found out that an increase in role certainty would have an impact on task and contextual performance. This finding supports the

relevant literature. Another crucial question that needs to be answered at this stage is what should be done to reduce role uncertainty. In order to reduce role uncertainty, job descriptions should be reviewed and uncertain areas need to be clarified as a matter of priority. Not only the issues that were defined in job descriptions and that constitute the essence of task performance but also the “behavior” based performance expectations from the employee on the basis of contextual performance needs to be clarified. Clarification of goals and determining the framework of authority are also important factors that would reduce role uncertainty. When the subject is evaluated on an organizational level, Ebrahimi et al. (2014) point out that business administration practices implemented in the context of total quality management such as strategic management, process management, and employee participation create impacts that reduce role uncertainty.

Goal setting is another crucial variable affecting employee performance. When a goal is achieved, job performance and satisfaction increases. Within this scope, goal uncertainty has been affecting employee performance and motivation negatively (Latham, 2004). In general, there is a reverse relationship between goal uncertainty and employee performance (Locke, 1996; Bandura, 2003; Latham, 2004; Ritchie, 2014). Consistent with prior research in the related literature, this study provides empirical evidence of the effect of goal uncertainty on task performance. However, contrary to expectations, this study has concluded that goal uncertainty does not affect contextual performance. In order to minimize the negative impact of goal uncertainty on task performance, employees need to be supported to build a clear relationship between task descriptions and organizational targets. In other words, a link between the work in organization and the goals to serve should be created in the employees’ mind. To establish this relationship, it is obligatory for the top management to clearly express the interaction between strategic targets and specific job descriptions. For this purpose, individual based goals should be established with the employees and the goals should be agreed mutually. At this point, another important issue is the periodical reviewing of the level of goals achieved and preventing the deviations from goals through precautions.

Performance feedback is also a critical factor that influences employee productivity. It is seen that accurate, constructive and timely feedback creates positive influences on employee motivation and performance (London, 2003). Providing objective multiple feedback (managers, subordinates, peers, customers, etc.) contributes to personal and technical development of the employee. Kluger and DeNisi (1996) prove in their study that feedback

information has positive effects on employee performance. On the other hand, Brief and Hollenbeck (1985) state that feedback information contributes to technical and behavioral performance development on an individual level. Feedback is also an important tool, which develops the management skills of the directors (Korsgaard, 1996). In this study, it was found out that performance uncertainty has an impact on employee performance. It is concluded that perceived performance uncertainty is only effective over contextual performance. On the contrary, performance uncertainty does not have any effect on task performance. Accordingly, findings of the research partially support the literature in this regard. It is needed to encourage employees to look for feedback in order to overcome performance uncertainty. Competence of the employees to give and receive feedback should be enhanced and this should be supported through trainings. Managers should be encouraged to monitor performance of the employees systematically and conditions should be created for them to have formal and informal feedback interviews with their employees in the right time. Feedback mechanism is the most critical phase of formal performance evaluation system and it should be seriously pursued.

Finally, it was found out in the research study that career uncertainty does not have an impact on task and contextual performance of the employees. The most important finding revealed here is that perceived career uncertainty has an effect neither on task nor on contextual performance. In other words the most striking conclusion is that although career uncertainty is an uncertainty area with the lowest average values among the parameters used in the study, perceived career uncertainty does not have an effect on any of the performance dimensions. This conclusion can be related to the career management practices having a lower level of effectiveness compared to other human resources sub-processes examined within this research. Looking from another angle, this conclusion which has been achieved can be related with the fact that employees do not see the career uncertainty in performance management practices as a variable effective on their performance. Therefore, a necessity emerges for career management practices to be considered as more important and to be developed.

CONCLUSION

The increased level of complexity concerning technical and management processes require more control focused approaches. In this context, uncertainty has become one of the most important components that threaten general

functioning of the organizations. In order to decrease the level of uncertainty, organizations should structure formal institutions and facilitate the access to knowledge.

Uncertain conditions closely affect human resources processes just like other management functions. Uncertainty has two main sources with respect to human resources sub-systems. Firstly, uncertainty experienced due to failure of institutionalized human resources subsystems with a systematized practices. Secondly, uncertainty that occurs due to failure in informing the employees adequately about the human resources sub-systems. In this framework, it is required to structure processes in the institutions operating systematically and, which are transparent and based on a constant flow of information. Otherwise, employees would be deprived of the information that would enable their development and decisions concerning the future. As the level of uncertainty increases, it is observed that motivation, performance and productivity of the employees are negatively affected.

Target group of this study consists of entrepreneurs and human resources professionals. Entrepreneurs need to form systematic structures in their organizations that are institutionalized and express low level of uncertainty. Human resources professionals, on the other hand, require to share information that is related to human resources sub-systems with the employees systematically and decrease uncertain conditions that would influence individual performance.

FUTURE RESEARCH

In the research studies to be carried out in the future, it is planned to concentrate on the fundamental reasons behind role, career, goal, and performance uncertainty. It is necessary to determine and remove the problem areas which create perception of uncertainty in order to reduce the level of uncertainty. Otherwise, that issues that would negatively affect the performance of employees will also have a negative reflection on business outputs. On the other hand, possible effects of mediating and moderating variables could be defined via structural equation modelling in the future researches.

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APPENDIX

Table 9.

Variables	Scale Items	Source
Role Uncertainty	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I feel certain about how much authority I have. 2. Clear, planned goals and objectives for my job. 3. I know that I have divided my time properly. 4. I know what my responsibilities are. 5. I know exactly what is expected of me. 6. Explanation is clear of what has to be done. 	Rizzo et al. (1970)
Goal Uncertainty	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I know how my work relates to the agency's goals and priorities. 2. Managers communicate the goals and priorities of the organization. 3. Managers review and evaluate the organization's progress towards meeting its goals and objectives. 	Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (2012)
Career Uncertainty	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I have enough information about the organizational career planning. 2. I know what to do for to achieve my career goals. 3. I know which trainings I have to get for my career goals. 4. I can get career consultancy through my individual career planning. 5. I receive feedback through my career development process. 6. I know which open positions will be employed in organization. 7. I follow the organization and environment based career opportunities. 8. My career goal is clear. 9. I know my strength and weaknesses through my career goals. 	Produced by author
Performance Uncertainty	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I ask peers if am meeting my job requirements. 2. I ask my co-workers if I am doing a good job. 3. I ask co-workers if people like working with me. 4. Because of the reactions, I receive from my co-workers, I can tell whether I am doing the things that should be done. 5. From the reactions, I can tell how well I am getting along with my work group. 6. Through observing my co-worker's reactions, I can tell how well they think I am doing. 7. I ask my supervisor for feedback on how I am doing. 8. From my supervisor's reactions, to what I say, I can tell how well my supervisor thinks I am doing. 9. I ask my supervisor if I am meeting all my job requirements. 10. Without my asking, my supervisor tells me how well I am performing my job. 11. My supervisor lets me know if I am working up to his/her expectations. 	Miller and Jablin (1991) Morrison (1993)

continued on following page

The Effects of Perceived Role, Career, Goal, and Performance Uncertainty

Table 9. Continued

Variables	Scale Items	Source
Task and Contextual Performance	<p><i>Task Performance</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Achieves the objectives of the job. 2. Meets criteria for performance. 3. Demonstrates expertise in all job-related tasks. 4. Fulfills all the requirements of the job 5. Could manage more responsibility than typically assigned. 6. Appears suitable for a higher level role. 7. Is competent in all areas of the job, handles tasks with proficiency. 8. Performs well in the overall job by carrying out tasks as expected. 9. Plans and organizes to achieve objectives of the job and meet deadlines. <p><i>Contextual Performance</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I rarely miss work even when I have a legitimate reason for doing so. 2. I perform my job with unusually few errors. 3. I perform my duties with extra special care. 4. I always meet or beat deadlines for completing work. 5. I defend my organization when other employees criticize it. 6. I defend my organization when outsiders criticize it. 7. I show pride when representing my organization in public. 8. I actively promote my organization's products and services to potential users. 	<p>Goodman and Syvanteck (1999) Jawahar and Carr (2007)</p>

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To continue IGI Global's long-standing tradition of advancing innovation through emerging research, please find below a compiled list of recommended IGI Global book chapters and journal articles in the areas of workforce education, workforce training, and work-study programs. These related readings will provide additional information and guidance to further enrich your knowledge and assist you with your own research.

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