



HIGHER SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS
NATIONAL RESEARCH UNIVERSITY

SCIENTIFIC E-JOURNAL

ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

ISSN 2312-5942

www.orgpsyjournal.hse.ru



2024. Vol. 14. No. 4.

2024. Vol. 14. No. 4.



Scientific e-journal

URL: www.orgpsyjournal.hse.ru

E-mail: orgpsyjournal@hse.ru

Founder:

National research university

Higher School of Economics



Published 4 times per year



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ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Editorial

We present our journal's new edition Issue No. 4, 2024.

In the section «**Research in Organizational Psychology**» readers will find four articles. They discuss various aspects of life in Russian business organizations: socio-psychological features of social capital, readiness to communicate in its connection with solidarity, as well as ideas about physical illnesses and discrimination in the workplace. The relationship between ethical leadership and the intention to quit among employees is studied in the article by an Indonesian author.

The section «**Organizational Psychological in Practice**» is represented by the article by M.O. Ermolaev, which describes the implementation and discusses the results of two international consulting projects on organizational changes based on the creation of emotional-semantic constructs.

The section «**Reviews**» includes an article by A.B. Karpov, devoted to a review of theoretical and practical publications on the topic of personnel engagement in the context of its connection with labor motivation.

The «**First Steps**» section of this issue features six articles by foreign authors. Two of them focus on professional stress and job satisfaction among nurses. The topic of the relationship between entrepreneurial thinking and intra-firm entrepreneurship is raised in an article by Chinese postgraduate students. Two more articles by Indonesian authors focus on two opposing forms of organizational behavior — citizenship and counterproductive — and study them in relation to job satisfaction, on the one hand, and organizational justice, on the other. The role of work autonomy and work involvement in work-life balance among IT employees attracted the attention of an Indian researcher.

Readers are offered two articles published in the «**Organizational Psychology in Dialogues, and Discussions**» section. A group of Moscow authors discuss family careers and their role in the professional and family self-determination of an individual. Irkutsk psychologists share their thoughts on the sources of resources for organizing communities and institutions in a multipolar world.

The «**Conferences**» section contains an announcement of the XXV Yasinskaya (April) International Scientific Conference on Problems of Economic and Social Development.

Please, enjoy the reading!



Socio-psychological features of social capital in Russian business organizations

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Abstract. The article continues a series of articles prepared by the authors on the theory and methodology of the organization's social capital. *Purpose.* To analyze the methodological support for the study of the social capital of organizations. *Objectives:* 1) on the basis of the analysis of foreign literature, to consider the methods proposed by foreign authors. We consider an organization as a collective subject of social capital, united by mutual trust, common norms, goals and values. Employees of the organization involved in the activities of the organization are individual subjects of social capital. The social capital of an organization is defined as a system of interpersonal relations in which the association of employees is based on mutual respect, unity of values, goals, compliance with corporate norms and the desire to maintain the reputation of their organization. *Method.* The sample consisted of 235 respondents — 97 men and 138 women. The average age of respondents was 40 years. The following methods were used: "Components of the Social Capital of an Organization" (CSCO) questionnaire; questionnaire "Organizational commitment"; methodology "Components of an organization's reputation"; questionnaire "Level of trust in the organization"; "Social Desirability Scale". *Findings.* The specificity of social capital in various organizations is revealed, the presence of significant relationships between the components of the organization's social capital and the methods developed by other authors is revealed. *Conclusion.* The consolidation unites collective and individual subjects into a single construct — the social capital of the organization. To create conditions for the consolidation of social capital, it is necessary to work with all its components and use new purposeful methods. *The value of the results.* The results showed the need to use comprehensive research methods. The originality of the study lies in the strict scientific substantiation of the content and structure of the organization's social capital.

Keywords: social capital of an organization, methods, specifics of social capital.

Fundings

The work was supported by the grant 23-28-00107 from the Russian Science Foundation.

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Received 25.05.2024



Differences in perceptions of physical illnesses and workplace discrimination

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Abstract. *Purpose.* The general goal of this study is to compare the existing attitudes towards people with different physical illnesses and also to identify differences in workplace discrimination against people with specific physical illnesses. *Study design.* A survey was conducted. $N = 1238$ (51.62% women, 48.06% men, 0.32% of respondents did not indicate their gender, $M_{age} = 36.00$, $SD_{age} = 11.84$). 79.32% of respondents do not have relatives or close people with disabilities and 20.68% do have them. Perceptions of physical illnesses were measured using five questions that were based on a study by Bonaccio et al. (2020). First, a correlation analysis was conducted. Second, the Friedman test and Durbin — Conover post-hoc test were performed. Next, ANOVA was conducted using the Bonferroni test for multiple comparisons. *Results.* Only the correlation between the visibility of the illness and willingness to work with a colleague with this illness is insignificant, while correlations between the other variables are significant ($p < .001$ or $p < .01$, respectively). There are significant differences in the perception of physical illnesses both in regard to visibility of an illness ($\chi^2 = 419.53$, $df = 9$, $p < .001$) and to acceptability of discussing an illness ($\chi^2 = 260.19$, $df = 9$, $p < .001$). The Durbin — Conover post-hoc test indicated that it is possible to identify the groups of physical illnesses in which the means do not differ significantly. The ANOVA results indicated that according to acceptability of discussing an illness and visibility of an illness, there are statistically significant differences in the possible negative impact of an illness on work ($F(3; 946) = 9.06$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.03$ и $F(3; 946) = 18.98$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.06$, respectively), in willingness to accept a person with a certain illness as a colleague ($F(3; 946) = 90.40$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.22$ и $F(3; 946) = 8.41$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.03$, respectively) and in willingness to accept a person with a certain illness as a boss ($F(3; 946) = 149.39$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.32$ и $F(3; 946) = 8.80$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.03$, respectively). *Findings.* The visibility of an illness is positively associated with negative attitudes towards people with these illnesses, which corresponds with previous studies (Dunn, 2015). The relationship between the acceptability of discussing an illness and negative attitudes towards people with these illnesses is ambiguous. People with various physical illnesses may be discriminated against in the workplace, and the likelihood of discriminatory intentions toward people with physical illnesses is not unambiguously related to either the visibility or the acceptability of discussing an illness. To conclude, other characteristics of illnesses that were not considered in this work may be associated with the more positive or negative perception of certain physical illnesses and, respectively, with following discrimination of people with these illnesses in the workplace. The scientific novelty of this study consists in comparing existing attitudes towards people with different physical illnesses, while taking into account the context of workplace discrimination.

Keywords: workplace discrimination, perceptions of physical illnesses; prejudice.

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Received 28.07.2023



The relationship between willingness to communicate and solidarity in Russian organizations

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Abstract. *Purpose.* The purpose of the study is two-fold: first, to translate the interpersonal solidarity scale and willingness to communicate (WTC) scale and adapt these measures to the Russian context; second, to investigate the relationship between WTC and peer-to-peer solidarity and supervisor-subordinate solidarity on a Russian sample. *Methodology.* Stage 1 involves: forward translation, synthesis, back translation, cognitive interviews, revisions, and pilot data sampling. Stage 2 employs factor analysis to group the scales' items into distinct categories of solidarity and WTC and correlations to analyze the relationship between the elements of WTC and peer-to-peer solidarity and supervisor-subordinate solidarity. Data collection method involves formalized questionnaires with employees across various occupations and organizations in the Russian Federation. The sample includes 220 people (37% male, 63% female), representing various Russian organizations. *Findings.* We revealed the relationship between the elements of WTC and peer-to-peer solidarity: higher level of willingness to communicate corresponds to a higher level of peer-to-peer solidarity (Somers' $D = .179$ at $p < .05$). WTC does not relate to supervisor-subordinate solidarity. So, we suppose that the employee can be unwilling to communicate, or it does not matter whether he or she has to communicate with their leader. The link between the variables of age and interpersonal solidarity in relation to the supervisor (Somers' $D = .124$ at $p < .05$) requires further investigation and explanation. The older the employee, the higher their level of solidarity with the supervisor is. Young employees are less engaged in work and corporate culture in Russian organization even when it includes events and induction programs to young specialists, activities to retain and attract them. *Value of results.* Applications may indicate the possibilities of managing and influencing the interaction between supervisors and subordinates at workplace.

Keywords: communication at workplace, interpersonal solidarity, willingness to communicate, peer-to-peer solidarity, supervisor-subordinate solidarity.

Introduction

Communication among employees and communication between supervisor and subordinates is an important element of the production activity of any organization. The efficiency of the organization depends on how workers interact and communicate. It has become imperative for all employees to possess strong communication skills to carry out daily job responsibilities. The failure

to communicate effectively within an organization is detrimental to the success of that organization since poor communication or the lack of it may create corporate stress, which is likely to lead to lower productivity (Fulmer, 2010; Pierce, Gardner, Dunham, Cummings, 1993). On the contrary, specific organizational outcomes might be fostered because of willingness to communicate effects (Richmond, Roach, 1992).

Today the study of communication processes in the organization is becoming in demand for a number of reasons. The pandemic caused the rapid transition into the online space. First, these changes reduce the interaction between colleagues (Lal, Dwivedi, Haag, 2021). Second, they increase psychological stress and job dissatisfaction (Kaur, Sinha, Chaudhary et al., 2021). Third, they expand the individual responsibility of the employee for the work performed. Under such circumstances, the interaction between employees, the ability of the leader to form a team and maintain a high level of interaction in it, become especially valued. Moreover, although teamwork is an important professional quality of a modern worker, due to enhanced individualism, employees are increasingly avoiding communication. This means it is more difficult for employees to work in a team. This challenge as a transition to work from home and the emergence of remote forms of work requires new study approaches to communication at the workplace.

To communicate with colleagues and managers, the employee must be internally prepared, i.e. his or her shyness should be less than the desire to enter into communication to solve certain work issue. Willingness to communicate (WTC) is a psychological characteristic of a person's inner desire to communicate with the people around them (Syed, 2016). Therefore, WTC is a prerequisite for entering communication at workplace. In addition, the established relations of interlocutors (employees) influence the communication process in a group or team — the more employees feel similarity with each other and the more similarities they find, the sooner they begin to communicate. This provides interpersonal solidarity in communication. Also communication between a leader (supervisor) and a subordinate influences organizations because subordinates' involvement in work and openness to communication depends on what communication strategies the leader chooses and forms (Kelly, MacDonald, 2016).

Thus, we have identified two essential elements of communication in the workplace: solidarity and willingness to communicate. These two characteristics can explain why employees can or cannot communicate with each other at work. However, since the involved internal feelings are very personal and difficult to assess, measuring communication has become a critical, yet challenging task. The purpose of this paper is to approach this task by employing two generally accepted measures of communication at workplace — willingness to communicate and solidarity — at a sample of Russian employees.

Willingness to communicate

The impact of a good psychological environment and interaction between employees are found to be significant, hence, they can be measured by economic results using indicators such as quality, productivity and profitability (Rathee, Rajain, 2020). Many researchers, who investigate how communication influences organizational effectiveness, find a direct link between effective communication and organizational productivity (Farmer, Slater, Wright, 1998; Uka, 2014; Musheke, Phiri, 2021).

However, communication is important not only for organization. Employees feel communication and understanding as a crucial element of work. Workplace communication can mitigate conflict, enhance employee engagement, create better client and partner relationships, and make work more productive and less stressful (Boljanović, Stanković, 2012; Deep et al., 2016; Mishra et al., 2019). Moreover, studies in supervisor-employee communication also find positive outcomes. Effective

organizational communication is directly linked to the increased employees' trust in management and the organization and is indirectly related to the satisfaction of employees' psychological needs "for competence and relatedness" (Men, Qin, Jin, 2021). Also, during the COVID-19 pandemic, with the demands for work from home, the employees' need for supervisor support, care and trust has increased (Lee, 2021; Sutarto et al., 2021).

Initially, J. K. Burgoon considered the negative side of WTC, i.e. unwillingness to communicate (Burgoon, 1976). J. C. McCroskey and J. E. Baer adapted this category on the positive side and renamed it to a willingness to communicate (McCroskey, Baer 1985). P. D. MacIntyre argued that these two concepts could be seen as opposite sides of one trait (MacIntyre, 1994). Therefore, willingness to communicate can be defined as the likelihood for a person to decide to initiate communication, or a person's intention to communicate (McCroskey, Baer, 1985; McCroskey, 1992). It has been suggested that a willingness to communicate functions as a personality trait, demonstrating stable individual differences over time and in different situations (MacIntyre, 1994). Nevertheless, WTC is also determined by situational variables, precisely "WTC is a disposition, similar to a trait that can be influenced by situational factors" (McCroskey, Richmond, 1990; Roach, 1999). From the intercultural perspective, willingness to communicate measure is found to produce mixed results, also in terms of validity (Sallinen Kuperinen, McCroskey, Richmond, 1991). In this respect, Russian population is under-investigated in terms of communicative behavior. Only a small fraction of international students of Russian background was questioned about WTC (Kassing, 1997). The purpose of this study is to fill the gap by applying the measure of WTC to a sample of employees in Russian organizations.

Solidarity

The paper considers the features of interpersonal solidarity as one of the important aspects of mutual understanding of employees in the workplace (Morgan, Pulignano, 2020). Interpersonal solidarity is a sense of closeness between people that develops as a result of shared feelings and similarities. Interpersonal solidarity is an affective (emotional) area of interpersonal relationships. Solidarity is viewed from different angles and has different definitions. For example, it may refer to intimacy in relationships, psychological intimacy, and rapport and understanding (Baus, Allen, 1996; Gremler, Gwinner, 2000; Wheelless, 1976). P. MacDonald with colleagues proposed the model of solidarity in workplace between the supervisor and the subordinate (MacDonald et al., 2019). It considers the influence of solidarity between a manager and a subordinate on job satisfaction, motivation and burnout of subordinates. Perceived solidarity in organizational peer relationships examined the correlation with self-disclosure and trust (Myers, Johnson, 2009). Following this overview, the construct of solidarity in this study includes solidarity between colleagues and supervisor-subordinate solidarity.

For instance, in the workplace, where subordinates feel low solidarity with their supervisors, there is less frequent supervisor-subordinate communication and the fear of the leader (Diefendorff, Morehart, Gabriel, 2010; Milliken, Morrison, Hewlin, 2003). In addition, the dynamics of solidarity in supervisor-subordinate relationships is unique. The legitimate power of superiors gives them complete control over formal or informal communication in their relationship with subordinates (MacDonald et al., 2019; Sanders, Schyns, 2006). This means that even if the subordinate wishes to build solidarity, often they cannot take the first steps towards it. On the contrary, a subordinate should wait until their supervisor reduces the formality of their interaction, allowing interpersonal conversation to take place. Thus, the assessment of the degree of solidarity of a subordinate with their leader is regarded as an assessment of the interpersonal communicative behavior of the leader (Kelly, MacDonald, 2016).

Furthermore, solidarity affects the workplace. Lack of solidarity between co-workers reinforces impoliteness in the workplace and leads to dissatisfaction with the organization (Itzkovich,

Heilbrunn, 2016). P. MacDonald, S. Kelly with colleagues found that executive solidarity leads to increased job satisfaction, which ultimately reduces subordinate burnout (MacDonald, 2019; Kelly et al., 2018). Organizational culture determines the level of solidarity. This is most powerful when leaders encourage informal communication. An organization that encourages upward and downward communication among its members increases positive relationships within and promotes solidarity. Consequently, solidarity is positively associated with perceived closeness between members of an organization (Wheless, 1978; MacDonald et al., 2019).

Colleagues who are mutually dependent, formally and informally, within the organization perceive greater solidarity with each other. Organizational teams that share responsibility for tasks among all team members have higher inter-member solidarity than teams that do not promote a culture of interdependence (Koster et al., 2007). While how well team members work together does not equate to workplace solidarity, adding extra hours to work is positively associated with employees' perceptions of vertical solidarity (Sanders, Emmerik, 2004; Sanders, Schyns, 2006). Colleagues with a high level of solidarity relate better to their bosses (Hodson, 1997).

Moreover, solidarity has an impact not only on employees. Organizational success depends on solidarity between supervisors and subordinates, characteristics of solidarity perceived by subordinates, because solidarity dictates open communication (Sanders et al., 2006). Supervisors are influencers/sources of power for solidarity in the boss-subordinate relationship (Sanders, Schyns, 2006). Low solidarity causes subordinates to withhold negatively perceived emotions, such as anger, while subordinates with a high degree of solidarity feel encouraged to openly display positively perceived emotions, such as happiness (Diefendorf, Morehart, Gabriel, 2010). This openness and comfort of communication is likely to be related to the job satisfaction of subordinates.

From the intercultural perspective, the level of interpersonal solidarity is influenced by the different emphasis on oral communication in low and high context cultures, and by different norms of communication within groups and with outside groups. Interpersonal distance, predisposition toward communication, communicative understanding and communicative competence of the interlocutors depend on solidarity (Allen, O'Mara, Long, 2014). When interacting interculturally, self-reported communication competence decreases along with confidence and solidarity. Furthermore, the published research on applied WTC and solidarity models supports established theoretical correlations in public and state institutions, public sector at a regional level, tourism and hospitality industry (Ansari, 2023; Zalivanskiy, Samokhvalova, Golikova 2018; Daskin, Pala, 2023; Saniyat, Leyla, 2024).

Interpersonal solidarity measure consists of different definitions and items. L. R. Wheless considered the concept of solidarity as a psychological intimacy with nine items (Wheless, 1976). P. MacDonald with colleagues deal with the role of supervisor communication in the workplace, as subordinates are unable to initiate solidarity (MacDonald et al., 2019). Furthermore, researchers revised Wheless' Solidarity Scale and used a 12-items measure with a seven-point Likert-type response scale ranging from Disagree Strongly to Agree Strongly.

Peer-to-peer solidarity and supervisor-subordinate solidarity for Russian organizations

After the collapse of the Soviet Union, great socio-economic changes had a significant impact on organizations and organizational culture in Russia. Previously, the Soviet economy had centralized state planning and administrative decision-making. As a result, the Soviet system assumed an authoritarian leadership style, and employees had to share responsibility for the operation of the enterprise (Temniczkij, 2003). Today we see two types of organizational culture in Russia.

The first group of enterprises have values and attitudes characteristic of the Soviet system, such as long-term stability and job security. Employees of these companies are more concerned about friendship, social contacts and equality at work. The management of companies relies on

the solidarity of subordinates, close personal relationships between employees. Often this group of enterprises includes large companies in metallurgy, chemistry, energy, etc.

The second group consists of companies with open communication and democratic values. Employees possess shared values, individual rivalry and clear personal interests. This group includes the service and consumer goods sectors, including IT and communications, retail, banking and recreation (Yaremchuk, 2020). Overall, solidarity in the first group of organizations is the solidarity with company while the second group represents interpersonal solidarity among co-workers.

Organizational culture in Russia has some specific features because of the national culture. For example, Russians prefer to work in groups rather than individually and they have been taught to value group loyalty and the protection it offers, and to avoid standing out (Puffer, 1994). Another point is that companies have traditionally been very hierarchical, and Russian business is characterized by vertical coordination. However, lateral coordination can become a problem if employees do not see their role and are never explained organizational goals. As a result, employees cannot see the whole picture and their role in achieving the organizational goals. Also, the flows of information in the organization depends on the degree of perception of the hierarchy. A diluted information environment indicates a lack of trust in superiors. Subordinates are often left in an information vacuum or with dosed (fragmentary) information for security reasons. Similarly, upstream messages sometimes intentionally distort or embellish the data out of fear. As a result, misunderstanding can lead to mutual distrust, psychological stress and moral dissatisfaction.

To sum up, there is a conflicting type of Russian organizational culture, since it combines competing values such as openness and closeness, collectivism and individualism. As soon as solidarity among employees depends on hierarchical organizational structure and the degree of trust, it is important to study supervisor-subordinate solidarity vs peer-to-peer one in their relation to WTC. Both WTC measure and solidarity measure have not been applied to the Russian context before. That is why the purpose of this study is two-fold: first, to translate the interpersonal solidarity scale and willingness to communicate scale and adapt these measures to the Russian context; second, to investigate the relationship between WTC and two kinds of solidarity — peer-to-peer solidarity and supervisor-subordinate solidarity on a Russian sample.

Methodology

The study includes two stages: cultural adaptation stage and the main study of the link between WTC and solidarity. We used two empirically derived scales in the questionnaire: willingness to communicate (WTC) and interpersonal solidarity. Surveys were prepared first in English and then translated into Russian. Native speakers of Russian translated it, followed by bilingual speakers conducting back-translation. The English version of the interpersonal solidarity and willingness to communicate scales was translated into Russian. Adaptation process was used to translate the interpersonal solidarity scale from English to Russian: forward translation, synthesis, back translation, cognitive interviews, revisions, and pilot data sampling.

Stage 1. Cultural adaptation

The interpersonal solidarity scale questionnaire

The interpersonal solidarity scale questionnaire consists of 13 items, divided into subscales of distance / closeness (“We are very close to each other”), trust / disclosure (“I trust this person completely”) and frequency of interaction (“I interact / communicate with this person much more than with most people I know”) (MacDonald et al., 2019). Two statements are binary and opposite. All items have a seven-point rating scale (“1” — “Disagree” to “7” — “Agree”). In the Russian version

we have slightly changed the last sentence in the directions — “Please indicate how much you agree that the following statements describe you” into “Please indicate how much you agree that the following statements” (“Укажите, насколько вы согласны со следующими утверждениями”), omitting “statements describe you”. Following the instructions and reading the statements, contextually referring to self-description in the statements provided is excessive and does not fit the standards of the Russian language.

The cross-cultural adaptation process

A six-stage translation and adaptation process was used to adapt the interpersonal solidarity scale from English into Russian: forward translation by two different translators, synthesis, back translation, cognitive interviews, revisions, and pilot data sampling.

Forward translation. The forward translation of the scale and directions, statements, and the poles of responses, was performed by two independent translators. The translators were all officially diploma qualified, both translators were bilingual, with Russian as their native language. Each translator provided a written translation, containing highlights of challenging phrases and uncertainties, and considerations regarding their word-choice and phrasing.

Synthesis. The results of both translations were compared by three researchers and difficult issues were discussed until consensus among the researchers was reached. Examples of difficulties included “I love this person”, “We do a lot of helpful things for each other” and “We share some private ways of communicating with each other”. The verbs of affection such as “love” in the Russian language may bear the different degree of intensity, not suitable for the context. Translating idiomatic phrases “to do things” and “to share private ways” require the search for exact words, which means going back to the papers describing the theories behind the development of the scale. This should have ensured that the theoretical constructs were not altered. At the synthesis stage discrepancies between the English and translated versions were identified and discussed. Also, semantic, idiomatic, experiential and conceptual equivalences were evaluated. Again, a written record documented the discussion and consensus process, the discrepancies, and how the discrepancies were resolved.

Back translation. One Russian questionnaire of the interpersonal solidarity scale was then back-translated into English by two other independent translators. Both translators were bilingual, with English as their native language. One translator is professionally certified, the other translator has many years of experience in communication and language research. Each translator provided a written translation, containing challenging phrases and uncertainties, and considerations for their decisions. The results of these two translations were compared by three researchers. The two translations from Russian into English were found to be very similar to each other, with few and minor discrepancies.

Harmonization. The Russian version was then scrutinized by the authors, and three independent researchers checked for discrepancies, typos, grammatical and content issues. The translation was also formatted in a way to match the standards of the Russian language. At the harmonization stage the decision was to accept the pre-final Russian translation of the scale.

Cognitive interviews. The pre-final Russian version of the scale was then tested on twelve participants that had no previous knowledge of the interpersonal solidarity scale or the translation process. The scale was assessed for comprehensibility and each participant was asked by the authors to complete the translated questionnaire. Thereafter the respondents were asked if they had understood each of the questions, response options and directions to the questionnaire. In addition, they were asked to describe in their own words what the questions meant and suggest alternative wording and phrasing for any statement that were not quite clear. Testing the questionnaire’s usability, the results indicated that all twelve participants understood the meaning and content of the directions,

instructions, statements, and response options in accordance with the researchers' intentions. The participants found the questionnaire easy to fill in and the amount of time to fill in was short enough. The layout, introduction, instructions and response alternatives were seen as clear and straightforward by the participants. Although the participants in the test understood the questions, they all commented and reflected on the questions and the questionnaire itself and shared their own experiences. The questions were perceived as stimulating discussion and self-reflection. Some of the phrasing of individual questions and some words were interpreted as too personal. Alternative wordings were offered by five participants. These suggestions were summarized by the authors.

Revision. Based on cognitive debriefing two statements, 13 items were subject to alterations. In Item 11 ("We do a lot of helpful things for each other"), the wording "to help" was perceived as too narrow. In Item 12 ("We share some private ways of communicating with each other the respondents had difficulties understanding the meaning of "private ways of communicating". Slight wording changes to clarify the questions were made after consideration and discussion at the research seminar.

The procedure and the participants in the pilot testing

The final version of the questionnaire was administered to two groups of employees in two selected organizations in Perm region, one — in higher education for non-academic positions and another — in service industry for a variety of positions in organizational ranking. All data were collected using online forms in January 2020. A total of 30 people participated in the pilot test on the online form, to estimate the completion.

Ethical statement. Before the pilot test data collection, all participants were informed about the aims of the study and the protection of personal data and confidentiality guarantees, non-discrimination, without remuneration, and the right to withdraw from the study. They were informed that participation in the pilot was voluntary and that the individual responses would be treated in confidence and anonymized. The study uses aggregated results only. These steps comply with the code of ethics in HSE University.

Stage 2. Main study

The willingness to communicate theoretical construction derives from work by J. K. Burgoon on unwillingness to communicate, C. D. Mortensen, P. H. Arntson, and M. Lustig on a predisposition to verbal behavior, and J. C. McCroskey and M. P. Richmond on shyness (Burgoon, 1976; McCroskey, Richmond, 1982; Mortensen, Arntson, Lustig, 1977). All the measures are based on an assumed propensity for communication. Willingness to communicate scale contains 15 items, each item was rated from "1" — "totally disagree" to "7" — "totally agree". The scale has shown high reliability in this study: Cronbach's alpha = .95 (Croucher, Kelly, in progress).

Interpersonal solidarity is the psychological result of the holistic perception of interpersonal communication and the self-disclosure of another person (MacDonald et al., 2019). While solidarity itself is not a form of communication, it is a psychological result of interpersonal communication and self-disclosure, which develop trust and a sense of synchronicity between communicators (Kelly, MacDonald, 2016). Solidarity Scale consists of nine, seven-interval Likert-type statements (Wheless, 1976). These are developed on the basis of their content validity for measuring the criterial attributes of the construct (Wheless, 1976). Reliability for the solidarity measure in this study was .89.

Data collection

In the sample of 220 people, 37% are men (n = 81) and 63% are women (n = 139). An online questionnaire was administered to subjects across various occupations and organizations in Russia.

All the participants are the employees of Russian organizations. The age of the respondents is from 18 to 66 (mean = 35.8) years, and the average length of service (tenure) for the sample is 8.6 years. The main employment domains are represented as follows: sales (21%), medicine (19%), skilled work (13%), education (13%), technology (6%), agriculture (4%), heavy machinery (4%), military (3%), service (2%) and others (14%). 56% of respondents got higher (university) education and 44% got secondary (high school) and vocational (college) education.

Data analysis

Analytical procedures involve descriptive statistics, correlation and factor analyses.

Results

Statistical analyses of the data were carried out using SPSS 27. We used factor analysis to group the questionnaire items into distinct categories of solidarity and willingness to communicate. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to assess each unidimensional measurement model. Items were tested for both internal consistency and parallelism. All problematic items have been removed from all subsequent analyses. All items of willingness to communicate scale were included in factor analysis. We deleted one item of solidarity scale from factor analysis: "I seldom interact/communicate with this person".

Willingness to communicate

The Kaiser — Meyer — Olkin (KMO) measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = .920. Bartlett's test of sphericity, $\chi^2 = 2786.863$, indicated that correlations between items were sufficient for factor analysis. Scree plots suggested a two-factor solution. The two-factor solution was interpretable. The two-factor solution, comprising 15 items, provided the most coherent interpretation, accounting for 60.21% (eigenvalue = 9.032), 8.46% (eigenvalue = 1.269) of the variance, respectively.

Factor structure of willingness to communicate is given in Table 1. Factor 1 comprises 12 items and expresses the employee's desire to enter discussion and all other forms of communication. Factor 2 clearly shows employees' projected opinions towards communication (three items).

Table 1. Factor structure of willingness to communicate items

Item	Factor 1 enter discussion	Factor 2 projected opinion
В целом, я с охотой общаюсь с другими людьми [In general, I am willing to communicate with others]	.794	
Общение с другими людьми не кажется мне обременительным [Communicating with others does not feel like a burden to me]	.830	
Мне кажется, я охотно обмениваюсь идеями с другими людьми [I consider myself to be willing to exchange ideas with others]	.872	
Мне кажется, я охотно делюсь своими мыслями с другими людьми [I consider myself to be willing to share with others]	.797	
Мне кажется, я охотно слушаю других людей [I consider myself to be willing to listen to others]	.621	
Я стараюсь слушать других столько же или даже больше, чем себя [I try to listen as much as or more than I share]	.577	
Я с охотой вступаю в дискуссии с другими людьми [I am eager to have discussions with others]	.660	
Мне нравится общаться с другими людьми [I enjoy socializing]	.765	
Я чувствую себя комфортно, когда делюсь мыслями с другими [I am comfortable sharing my thoughts with others]	.781	

Я стараюсь быть открытым при общении с другими людьми [I try to be open minded when I communicate with others]	.626	
Я по собственной инициативе вступаю в разговоры с людьми [I voluntarily initiate conversations with others]	.652	
Я легко общаюсь с другим и людьми, даже когда я не в настроении [I am willing to communicate with others even when I do not feel social]	.583	
Другие люди считают меня вежливым собеседником [Other people consider me to be a respectful communicator]		.885
Другие люди считают меня охотным собеседником [Other people would describe me as a willing communicator]		.896
Другие люди считают меня общительным [Other people would describe me as social]		.850

Peer-to-peer solidarity

Using factor analysis to evaluate the results (explanatory reliability of model is 93%), we get two groups of factors. The Kaiser — Meyer — Olkin (KMO) = .932. Bartlett's test of sphericity, $\chi^2 = 1760.914$, indicated that correlations between items were sufficient for factor analysis.

The two-factor solution, comprising 12 items, provided the most coherent interpretation, accounting for 58.93% (eigenvalue = 7.071), 8.98% (eigenvalue = 1.078) of the variance, respectively.

Factor structure of peer-to-peer solidarity items is presented in Table 2. The first factor is cohesion, trust and closeness that an employee finds important in frequent peer-to-peer interaction and close interactions in a formal and informal setting.

The second factor consists of two items and describes the similarity between the communicators.

Table 2. Factor structure of peer-to-peer solidarity items

Item	Factor 1. Cohesion	Factor 2. Similarity
Мы очень близки друг с другом [We are very close to each other]	.793	
Этот человек очень сильно влияет на мое поведение [This person has a great deal of influence over my behavior]	.649	
Я полностью доверяю этому человеку [I trust this person completely]	.836	
Я охотно рассказываю этому человеку о многих [I willingly disclose a great deal of positive things about myself, honestly and fully (in depth) to this person]	.836	
Я люблю этого человека [I love this person]	.739	
Я понимаю этого человека и кем он (она) по-настоящему является [I understand this person and who he (she) really is]	.706	
Я взаимодействую/общаюсь с этим человеком гораздо больше, чем с большинством других известных мне людей [I interact/communicate with this person much more than with most people I know]	.848	
Я чувствую, что я очень близок/-ка с этим человеком [I feel very close to this person]	.802	
У меня мало общего с этим человеком [I have little in common with this person]		-.956
У нас много общего [We share a lot in common]		.642
Мы много делаем друг для друга [We do a lot of helpful things for each other]	.789	
У нас есть особые, только нам понятные, способы общения [We share some private ways of communicating with each other]	.689	

Supervisor-subordinate solidarity

The Kaiser — Meyer — Olkin (KMO) = .938. Bartlett's test of sphericity, $\chi^2 = 1954.634$ indicated that correlations between items were sufficient for factor analysis. The same solidarity scale was used to measure supervisor-subordinate solidarity but factor analysis demonstrates different results. While SPSS forms one factor, still we decided to form two factors because the eigenvalue of second factor is significantly lower than one. Two-factor solution accounts for 61.22% (eigenvalue = 7.347), 8.32% (eigenvalue = .999) of the variance, respectively.

Table 3. Factor structure of supervisor-subordinate solidarity items

Item	Factor 1. Closeness	Factor 2. Dissimilarity
Мы очень близки друг с другом [We are very close to each other]	.863	
Этот человек очень сильно влияет на мое поведение [This person has a great deal of influence over my behavior]	.696	
Я полностью доверяю этому человеку [I trust this person completely]	.796	
Я охотно рассказываю этому человеку о многих [I willingly disclose a great deal of positive things about myself, honestly and fully (in depth) to this person]	.884	
Я люблю этого человека [I love this person]	.863	
Я понимаю этого человека и кем он (она) по-настоящему является [I understand this person and who he (she) really is]	.685	
Я взаимодействую/общаюсь с этим человеком гораздо больше, чем с большинством других известных мне людей [I interact/communicate with this person much more than with most people I know]	.805	
Я чувствую, что я очень близок/-ка с этим человеком [I feel very close to this person]	.873	
У меня мало общего с этим человеком [I have little in common with this person]		.851
У нас много общего [We share a lot in common]	.846	
Мы много делаем друг для друга [We do a lot of helpful things for each other]	.831	
У нас есть особые, только нам понятные, способы общения [We share some private ways of communicating with each other]	.690	

Table 3 shows factor structure of supervisor-subordinate solidarity items. Overall, these factors match the factors of peer-to-peer solidarity. However, if the first factor is quite similar, i.e. closeness is stated when an employee demonstrates trust to the supervisor, the second factor is dissimilar, i.e. an employee assesses the distance and dissimilarity with their supervisor.

Link between solidarity and willingness to communicate

We revealed the relationship between the elements of WTC and peer-to-peer solidarity: higher level of willingness to communicate corresponds to a higher level of peer-to-peer solidarity (Somers' $D = .179$ at $p < .05$). WTC does not relate to supervisor-subordinate solidarity. So, we suppose that the employee can be unwilling to communicate, or it does not matter whether he/she has to communicate with their leader. Solidarity cannot be formed between leaders and subordinates unless the leader offers the level of interpersonal disclosure necessary to establish it. Interpersonal communication must be present to form solidarity (MacDonald et al., 2019). In general, employees show higher interpersonal peer-to-peer solidarity (Mean = 4.1), compared to solidarity towards the supervisor (Mean = 3.4). It means that informal horizontal communication with such features as attentiveness and understanding contributes to the development of peer-to-peer solidarity.

We need to understand how the employee solidarity changes with the age factor. The link between the variables of age and interpersonal solidarity in relation to the supervisor (Somers' $D = .124$ at $p < 0.05$) requires further investigation and explanation. The older the employee, the higher their level of solidarity with the supervisor is. Young employees are less engaged in work and corporate culture in Russian organization even when it includes events and induction programs to young specialists, activities to retain and attract them (Sysoeva, 2017). Moreover, as supervisor-subordinate solidarity is connected with satisfaction and work engagement, older employees show statistically significant higher work engagement than younger employees (Roberts, 2020). Supervisor-subordinate solidarity may be connected with the organizational level of solidarity as well when employees can unite in various associations and groups to realize their interests and defend their rights before the leadership of the organization (Morgan, 2020).

Discussion and conclusions

The study provides an assessment of solidarity and willingness to communicate among Russian employees and the difference between these indicators for the employee-employee and supervisor-subordinate groups. The results confirm previous findings that informal peer-to-peer communication and the two factors of peer-to-peer solidarity are connected with cohesion and mutual trust (Kelly, MacDonald, 2016).

However, factor analysis indicates one specific feature of Russian employees' solidarity, namely a strong negative relation between dissimilarity in supervisor-subordinate solidarity and willingness to communicate. In addition to the previously established supervisor-subordinate solidarity influence to supervisor-subordinate communication and positive workplace outcomes for subordinates, Russian employees can trust their supervisor and still feel the distance between them (MacDonald, 2019).

The results are novel in the fact that interpersonal solidarity at workplace is a new focus of research in the Russian context. Traditionally, organizational communication research dwells on various factors of employees' satisfaction ranging from the nature of the job to wage level. In the meantime Russian employees refuse to acknowledge the impact of solidarity or mutual assistance, relationships with supervisors as well as moral and psychological atmosphere at workplace (Blinov et al., 2008). Therefore, the obtained results from validated instruments such as measures of communicative behavior of employees explain how and why certain work satisfaction problems may persist.

The results of the study are also of applied significance, as the data can be included in the training and educational course content on organizational management, HR professional development, etc. In order to increase staff job satisfaction, organizational management may particularly consider employees' perception of distance on a subordinate-supervisor continuum while building interactions between colleagues with the account of their willingness to communicate.

Limitations and further study

The study is not devoid of limitations that could be addressed in future research. First, the since it was the one testing communication measures on a Russian sample, increasing the sample size and adding criteria for the respondents' selection, such as type of business and (or) organizational belonging, regional and ethno-national affiliation, will deepen the knowledge gained. Another limitation derives from the fact that the work at home and online communication were not the focus in this study. Hence, if the research includes the variables of online and offline communication, the results on willingness to communicate and solidarity measures would vary to provide more comparative analyses. Also, additional items like frequency and features of contact with the manager were not measured in the study, however, they are significant to be accounted for in future studies.

From the applied point of view, the verified measures can be used to assess the level of solidarity and willingness to communicate among employees of Russian companies with the purpose to offer the directions of managing and improving communication between supervisors and subordinates at workplace. From the theoretical perspective, the results can be used to perform a comparative cross-country analysis on the Russian sample and to provide more evidence to refine communication methodology.

Finance support

The publication was prepared within the framework of the Academic Fund Program at HSE University (grant № 25-00-020 "Promotion and criticality in academic professional communication").

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Received 06.02.2024



Ethical leadership and employee turnover intention in the social exchange perspective: Exploring a dual-pathway model

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Abstract. *Purpose.* Based on social exchange theory, this study aims to test the contribution of ethical leadership in employee turnover intention through the mediating roles of job satisfaction and work-life balance. *Methodology.* A total of 110 employees who work at the private hospital in Indonesia are registered as the research respondents. The proposed model was examined using structural equation modeling with Smart PLS 3.2 software. *Findings.* The empirical evidence showed that ethical leadership has a positive relationship with job satisfaction and work-life balance, as well as negatively relationship with employee turnover intention. Further, this study also revealed that work-life balance is positively related to employee turnover intention. In addition, the results from two mediation analyses found that work-life balance positively mediates the contribution of ethical leadership in employee turnover intention, whereas job satisfaction has no mediating effect. *Value of the results.* In the framework of social exchange theory, ethical leadership plays a pivotal role in shaping the dynamics of employee turnover intention within organizations, particularly through its contribution in work-life balance. Ethical leaders prioritize employees' work-life balance, recognizing the importance of harmonizing professional responsibilities with personal well-being. By implementing policies and practices that support flexibility, ethical leaders mitigate the strain of work-related stressors, thereby enhancing employees' overall quality of life and reducing the likelihood of turnover.

Keywords: social exchange theory, ethical leadership, job satisfaction, work-life balance, turnover intention.

Introduction

Since the emergence of the “ethical scandal” carried out by the leaders in some of the largest international organizations in recent times, the issue of ethical leadership becomes very crucial to be implemented in both public and private organizations (Benevene et al., 2018; DeConinck, 2015; Qing, Asif, Hussain, Jameel, 2020; Udin, 2023). Employing ethical leadership in organizations is able to diminish the gap between leaders and their employees, which in turn recedes employee intentions and turnover rates (Belete, 2018; Nannyanzi, 2023).

An ethical leader is a moral person who enlivens and instils ethical values into the organization to be followed by all members, including their employees (Shakeel, Kruyen, Van Thiel, 2019). Ethical

leadership is more focused on the greater impact for the welfare of the organization as a whole, by demonstrating caring traits for others, kindness and honesty to build their credibility as well as influencing employee attitudes and behavior (Ete et al., 2020; Brown, Treviño, Harrison, 2005; Nassif, Hackett, Wang, 2021; Zhu, Zheng, He, Wang, Zhang, 2019).

Empirical pieces of evidence prove that ethical leadership has a significant impact on the sustainable performance of business organizations as well as improves employees' trust and loyalty in organization, and reduces employee turnover intention (Dey, Bhattacharjee, Mahmood, Uddin, Biswas, 2022; Nannyanzi, 2023; Saleh, Mehmood, Khan, Jan, 2022; Torlak, Kuzey, Dinç, Güngörmüş, 2021). Additionally, through their empirical investigation in the Kurdistan Region of Iraq, R. A. Shareef and T. Atan provided insights into the significant role of ethical leadership in shaping employees' behaviors and reducing turnover intention (Shareef, Atan, 2019). Ethical leaders operate with high integrity and honesty, fostering trust among employees. When employees trust their leaders, they are more reasonable to remain committed to the organization and less likely to consider leaving. However, the extant studies revealed that ethical leadership positively affects turnover intention (Beshir, Wahba, Ragheb, Amara, 2022; Yaqub, Mahmood, Hussain, Sohail, 2021). The stronger the ethical leadership is applied in the organization, the higher the employee's desire to leave. Employees subsequently leave the organization and their jobs due to very strict ethical rules implemented by ethical leaders within the organization.

Given the limitations and inconsistent findings of previous studies regarding the role of ethical leadership on employee turnover intention in the social exchange perspective, this study seeks to offer an alternative path by examining the effect of ethical leadership on employee turnover intention as well as the mediating effect of job satisfaction and work-life balance (WLB). The great hope in the findings of this study is to develop knowledge both theoretically and practically, in the areas of ethical leadership, job satisfaction, WLB and employee turnover intention.

Literature review and hypotheses development

Social exchange theory

Social exchange theory (SET) is a widely recognized framework used to understand social relationships within organizations (Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels, Hall, 2017). SET focuses on the exchange of resources, benefits, and costs between individuals in social interactions and emphasizes the idea that individuals engage in relationships based on a cost-benefit analysis (Blau, 1964). Individuals compare the inputs (such as effort, time, and skills) they invest in an exchange with the outcomes (such as rewards and benefits) they receive (Lambe, Wittmann, Spekman, 2001). If perceived inequity arises from individuals, it can lead to feelings of dissatisfaction, which may impact their social exchange relationship.

According to P. M. Blau and also to R. Cropanzano and M. S. Mitchell, SET emphasizes the following key concepts including social interactions (i.e., the interactions between individuals or groups), rewards and costs (i.e., rewards can include tangible benefits like money, as well as intangible rewards like social support, love or emotional well-being, and costs refer to sacrifices that individuals may experience during the interaction), norm of reciprocity (i.e., individuals feel obligated to repay others for the rewards they have received), equity and fairness (i.e., individuals tend to seek fairness and balance in their relationships, expecting that the rewards they receive are proportional to the costs they incur in similar situations), and comparison level of alternatives (individuals compare the rewards and costs of their current interaction with the potential rewards and costs of alternative options) (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano, Mitchell, 2005). In summary, SET provides insights into how

individuals navigate social relationships and make decisions based on the perceived rewards and costs associated with those relationships (Cook, Cheshire, Rice, Nakagawa, 2013).

Turnover intention

Turnover intention refers to an employee's inclination to leave their current organization (Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee, Mitchell, 2012). When employees experience high turnover intention, it means they are considering leaving their current job and organization as well as seeking employment elsewhere in the near future (Karatepe, Shahriari, 2014). Also, when employees experience high turnover intention, it can have negative consequences for the organization, such as costly to achieve organizational goals, decreased productivity and loss of valuable talent (Owens Pickle et al., 2017; Stroo et al., 2020).

Several factors contribute to turnover intention in organizations, including job satisfaction (for example, dissatisfaction with various aspects of the job) and organizational commitment (such as feeling disconnected from the organization's goals) (Ampofo, Karatepe, 2022), WLB (for example, lack of flexibility and long working hours), and leadership (for example, lack of support from leaders and ineffective management practices) (Yu, Lee, Na, 2022). It is, therefore, crucial for leaders to monitor the factors that contribute to turnover intention. By understanding these factors, leaders can reduce turnover intention and retain valuable employees within organizations.

Ethical leadership

Ethical leadership in organizations refers to the practice of leading with integrity, honesty, and a strong commitment to ethical values and principles (Brown et al., 2005). Ethical leaders set a positive example for their employees by making decisions that are morally right and socially responsible. They prioritize the well-being of their employees and strive to create a conducive culture that promotes ethical behavior and accountability (Al Halbusi, Ruiz-Palomino, Williams, 2023).

Ethical leaders demonstrate ethical behavior and make decisions that are consistent with moral standards (Sosik, Chun, Ete, Arenas, Scherer, 2019). Key elements of ethical leadership, according to M. E. Brown with colleagues, include (1) integrity (i.e., leaders act with honesty, trustworthiness, and consistency in their words and actions), (2) empathy and respect (i.e., leaders demonstrate empathy and respect for well-being of others), (3) ethical decision-making (i.e., leaders consider the moral implications and potential consequences of their decisions), and (4) accountability (i.e., leaders take responsibility for their actions and decisions for upholding ethical standards and promote a culture of accountability within the organization) (Brown et al., 2005). Ethical leadership ultimately contributes to the long-term success and sustainability of the organization (Dey et al., 2022).

Ethical leadership plays a vital role in influencing employee turnover intention within the framework of SET. SET suggests that individuals engage in a social exchange relationship where they exchange resources and benefits with others, and this relationship affects their attitudes and behaviors, including turnover intention (Harden, Boakye, Ryan, 2018; Strom, Sears, Kelly, 2014). Ethical leaders establish trust with their employees by consistently demonstrating integrity, fairness, and transparency (Ruiz-Palomino, Linuesa-Langreo, 2018). When employees perceive their leaders as trustworthy, they are more likely to reduce turnover intention and develop a sense of commitment to the organization (Kim, Jeong, Seo, 2022). In addition, when leaders demonstrate ethical behavior and create an ethical work environment, it can positively impact employee satisfaction (Wamlawati, Serang, Arminas, Junaidi, 2023). Ethical leaders prioritize creating a supportive work culture where employees feel valued and treated fairly. They encourage open communication and recognition (Brown et al., 2005) and ensure equal opportunities for growth and development to reduce employee turnover intention (Saleh, Mehmood, et al., 2022). Thus,

H1: Ethical leadership is negatively related to employee turnover intention.

H2: Ethical leadership is positively related to employee job satisfaction.

In the workplace, employees exchange their time, effort, and skills in return for various rewards and benefits from their organization. Ethical leadership influences this exchange process and impacts WLB based on the principles of SET. By setting an example and implementing flexible work policies, ethical leaders create a good environment (Al Halbusi et al., 2023) where employees are supported in maintaining a healthy WLB. Ethical leaders understand that employees have responsibilities and commitments outside of work (Neubert, Carlson, Kacmar, Roberts, Chonko, 2009). They promote the types of flexibility available, such as remote work options and flexible schedules, to accommodate the diverse needs of their employees. By offering these options, ethical leaders enable their employees to better balance their personal and professional lives (Gardner, Coglisier, Davis, Dickens, 2011). Thus,

H3: Ethical leadership is positively related to work-life-balance.

Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined as an individual's subjective evaluations and feelings towards their job (Wright, 2006). It reflects the level of happiness and contentment an employee experiences in their work (Velasco Vizcaíno, Martin, Jaramillo, 2023). Job satisfaction is a critical factor in the overall well-being of employees and has several important implications for organizations. For instance, satisfied employees tend to be more committed to their work, leading to higher levels of productivity and better performance outcomes (Djastuti, Rahardjo, Irviana, Udin, 2019; Velasco Vizcaíno et al., 2023). They are more likely to contribute innovative ideas and willingly invest their time and effort in achieving organizational goals (Koo, Yu, Chua, Lee, Han, 2020).

The job characteristics model (JCM) posits that certain job characteristics can lead to higher job satisfaction (Anjum, Fan, Javed, Rao, 2014). JCM identifies five core job characteristics (such as skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback) (Hackman, Oldham, 1974). When jobs are designed to include these characteristics, individuals experience higher levels of satisfaction (Ali et al., 2014).

Job satisfaction within the context of SET influences turnover intention through factors such as perceived equity and alternative job opportunities. When employees are satisfied with their jobs and perceive a fair and positive social exchange relationship with their organization, they are more likely to experience lower turnover intentions (Chung, Jeon, 2020; Koo et al., 2020). In addition, employees' job satisfaction mediates the relationship between ethical leadership and turnover intention (Nejati, Brown, Shafaei, Seet, 2021). Thus,

H4: Job satisfaction is negatively related to employee turnover intention.

H5: Job satisfaction mediates the link between ethical leadership and employee turnover intention.

Work-life balance

Work-life balance (WLB) refers to the ability of employees to manage their work responsibilities and personal life obligations effectively (Felstead, Jewson, Phizacklea, Walters, 2002). WLB involves allocating time and energy to work-related activities, family and personal life, and other activities that bring fulfillment and satisfaction (Ninaus, Diehl, Terlutter, 2021).

Some dimensions that contribute to WLB include time management (i.e., efficiently managing and prioritizing time), flexibility (i.e., having flexible work arrangements helps in accommodating personal commitments, such as family obligations or pursuing hobbies), boundaries (i.e., establishing clear boundaries between work and personal life helps prevent work from encroaching on personal life and vice versa), and relationships and social connections (i.e., spending quality time with loved ones, engaging in social activities, and maintaining a support system contribute to a fulfilling personal life) (Phipps, Prieto, 2016).

Promoting WLB in an organization is important for several reasons (Ashley, Empson, 2016): (1) employee well-being (i.e., when employees have time for rest and relaxation for activities outside of work, they can recharge and maintain good mental and physical health), (2) attraction and retention of talent (i.e., employees seek organizations that value their personal well-being and provide flexibility and support to achieve work-life integration), (3) flexibility and adaptability (i.e., flexibility enables employees to manage their work schedules and personal obligations more effectively) (Ray, Pana-Cryan, 2021), and (4) enhanced productivity and performance (i.e., when employees have a healthy balance between work and personal life, they are more likely to be motivated and focused on their tasks).

SET provides insights into how WLB can influence an employee's decision to leave or stay with an organization. When employees perceive that the organization supports their WLB needs, such as flexible work arrangements or wellness programs, this fosters a sense of reciprocity from employees to commit to the organization and reduces their turnover intention (Ahmad Saufi et al., 2023; Yu et al., 2022). In addition, the employee's individual type (such as self-interest and friendship) mediates the link between ethical leadership and turnover intention (Saleh, Sarwar, Islam, Mohiuddin, Su, 2022). Thus,

H6: WLB is negatively related to employee turnover intention.

H7: WLB mediates the link between ethical leadership and employee turnover intention.

Research methods

By exploring the mediating roles of work satisfaction and WLB, this study used a quantitative approach to examine the impact of ethical leadership on employee turnover intention. In order to ensure suitable respondents, the data were gathered from 110 employees working in the private hospital in Kuningan regency, West Java province — Indonesia, using a cross-sectional approach and a self-administered questionnaire.

One hundred and ten respondents made up the study's sample. Of the respondents, 70.9% (78 individuals) were female, and 29.1% (32 individuals) were male. Most respondents were between 31 and 35 (27.3%, 30 individuals) years old and between 20 and 25 (26.4%, 29 individuals). In terms of marriage status, 69.1% of respondents were married. Furthermore, 37.4% of respondents have over ten years of work experience with their present organization.

A systematic five-point scale questionnaire (i.e., "1" = "strongly disagree" to "5" = "strongly agree") is developed based on the research framework depicted in Figure 1 to gather data from employees working in private hospitals in Indonesia. The six-item scale adapted from M. E. Brown with colleagues, M. J. Kim and B. J. Kim, and also U. Udin is used to measure ethical leadership (Brown et al., 2005; Kim, Kim, 2020; Udin, 2023). The sample item is "My leader sets an example of how to do ethical things the right way." The six-item scale adapted from M. M. Shafiq and M. U. Manzoor, E. Voltmer with colleagues is used to measure job satisfaction (Shafiq, Manzoor, 2011; Voltmer et al., 2012). The sample item is "I have a respectable nature of work." The six-item scale adapted from L. Wu with colleagues and S. Haider with colleagues is used to measure WLB. The sample item is "There is a good fit between work life and my personal life" (Wu et al., 2013; Haider et al., 2018). Moreover, turnover intention is measured using three items adapted from B. Yu. J. Koo with colleagues, R. Kaymakci with colleagues, J. Yin with colleagues such as "I have been seriously concerned about my job since joining the organization, I am not sure about staying to work in this organization until retirement, and I want to get a better job than my current one" (Koo et al., 2020; Kaymakci, Görener, Toker, 2022; Yin, Bi, Ni, 2022).

The proposed model of this study was examined using structural equation modeling (SEM) with Smart PLS 3.2 software. As compared to other path modeling tools (such as AMOS and Lisrel), Smart PLS has a big advantage because it can evaluate small amounts of data (Hair et al., 2019).

Results

PLS-SEM approach with Smart PLS 3.2 software is used for data analysis because it can predict the variance of the dependent variable (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, Gudergan, 2018) as well as utilised for analyzing a relatively smaller sample size of participants. Also, PLS-SEM enables the analysis of multi-construct, multi-indicator and multi-relationship in complex models (Ringle, Sarstedt, Mitchell, Gudergan, 2020). Table 1 displays all the scale items of the investigated constructs.

Table 1. Factor loadings

Items	Ethical leadership	Job satisfaction	Work-life balance	Turnover intention
EL1	.759			
EL2	.839			
EL3	.883			
EL4	.845			
EL5	.893			
EL6	.905			
JS1		.731		
JS2		.775		
JS3		.765		
JS4		.852		
JS5		.844		
JS6		.784		
WLB1			.176*	
WLB2			.144*	
WLB3			.684	
WLB4			.873	
WLB5			.837	
WLB6			.781	
TI1				.800
TI2				.854
TI3				.882

Note: * — not valid item.

Based on the result of factor loadings in Table 1, WLB1 and WLB1 should be dropped from the proposed model because the loading value of these items is lower than 0.60 (Chin, 2010; Moores, Chang, 2006).

Table 2. Reliability and convergent validity

Constructs	Items	Factor loading	CA	CR	AVE
Ethical leadership	EL1	.758			
	EL2	.838			
	EL3	.883			
	EL4	.846	.926	.942	.732
	EL5	.894			
	EL6	.906			
Job satisfaction	JS1	.731			
	JS2	.775			
	JS3	.765			
	JS4	.852	.882	.910	.629
	JS5	.844			
	JS6	.784			

Constructs	Items	Factor loading	CA	CR	AVE
Work-life balance	WLB3	.694	.817	.879	.647
	WLB4	.856			
	WLB5	.846			
	WLB6	.813			
Turnover intention	TI1	.808	.801	.883	.716
	TI2	.847			
	TI3	.882			

Note: CA = Cronbach's α , CR = Composite reliability, AVE = Average variance extracted

Table 2, after excluding WLB1 and WLB1, shows a standardized factor loading of ≥ 0.60 on its construct, confirming the recommended criteria of T. T. Moores, J. C.-J. Chang and W. W. Chin (Moores, Chang, 2006; Chin, 2010). Furthermore, the values of CA and CR are between 0.8 and 0.9, indicating the internal reliability of the constructs, as recommended by J. F. Hair with colleagues (Hair, Hult, Ringle, Sarstedt, 2021). Moreover, the AVE values of constructs are above the threshold value of 0.50, thereby confirming convergent validity, as the recommended value of M. Sarstedt with colleagues (Sarstedt, Ringle, Hair, 2022).

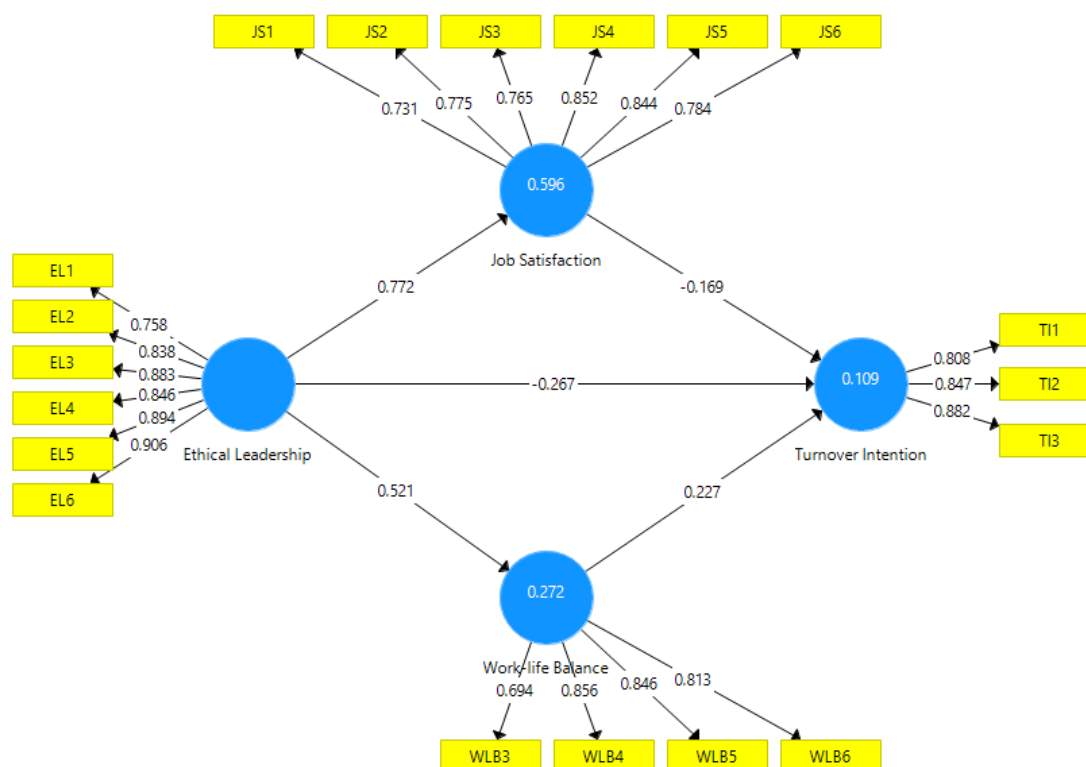


Figure 1. Research framework

Table 3 depicts the Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) criterion and Fornell-Larcker criterion. It is recommended that the HTMT criteria range from -0.85 to 0.85 to determine how the constructs differ from each other (Henseler, Ringle, Sarstedt, 2015). The analysis's findings demonstrate that the research construct falls within the suggested range, further demonstrating the discriminant validity. Also, the Fornell — Larcker criterion results show that the constructs' square roots of AVE are higher than their correlations for the remaining constructs.

Table 3. Discriminant validity

Constructs	Ethical leadership	Job satisfaction	Turnover intention	Work-life balance
<i>Heterotrait — Monotrait ratio (HTMT)</i>				
Job satisfaction	.844			
Turnover intention	.317	.268		
Work-life balance	.582	.735	.084	
<i>Fornell — Larcker criterion</i>				
Ethical leadership	.855			
Job satisfaction	.772	.793		
Turnover intention	-.279	-.232	.846	
Work-life balance	.521	.633	-.020	.805

Table 4. Path coefficients

Hypotheses	Original sample	Standard deviation	T statistics
Direct effects			
Ethical leadership -> Job satisfaction	.772	.050	15.476
Ethical leadership -> Turnover intention	-.267	.127	2.106
Ethical leadership -> Work-life balance	.521	.065	8.007
Job satisfaction -> Turnover intention	-.169	.154	1.099
Work-life balance -> Turnover intention	.227	.111	2.046
Indirect effects			
Ethical leadership -> Job satisfaction -> Turnover intention	-.131	.120	1.093
Ethical leadership -> Work-life balance -> Turnover intention	.118	.062	1.918

As shown in Table 4 and Figure 1, the results of the path coefficients for a two-sided test are significant at the 90% confidence level with t -values more than 1.65. Explicitly, ethical leadership has a positive effect on job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.772$, t -value = 15.476) and WLB ($\beta = 0.521$, t -value = 8.007) as well as negatively impacts employee turnover intention ($\beta = -0.267$, t -value = 2.106). Thus, these results reveal that $H1$, $H2$ and $H3$ are significantly supported. Besides, the influence of job satisfaction on employee turnover intention is insignificant ($\beta = -0.169$, t -value = 1.099). In addition, WLB demonstrates a positive and significant impact on turnover intention ($\beta = 0.227$, t -value = 2.046). Therefore, these results confirm the rejection of $H4$ and $H6$.

To examine the mediation roles of job satisfaction and WLB in the link between ethical leadership and employee turnover intention, the significance of the indirect effect should be tested (Nitzl, Roldan, Cepeda, 2016). The results, as shown in Table 4, confirm that the indirect effect of job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.131$; t -value = 1.093) is found to be not significant, while WLB ($\beta = 0.118$; t -value = 1.918) significantly mediates the link between ethical leadership and employee turnover intention. Thus, these results indicate rejecting $H5$ and supporting $H7$. As a result, this study thereby supports the idea that WLB's mediating role is helpful in rendering ethical leadership towards employee turnover intention.

Discussion

This study revealed that ethical leadership is positively related to job satisfaction and WLB as well as negatively related to employee turnover intention. When leaders prioritize ethical behaviour and demonstrate a high level of integrity (Al Halbusi et al., 2023), more surprisingly based on the

SET, it enhances the trust of employees in their leaders, which in turn leads to promoting employee satisfaction in their jobs. Also, ethical leaders demonstrate genuine concern for their employees' well-being by prioritizing the importance of WLB, such as flexible work arrangements and discouraging overworking. By valuing WLB, leaders contribute to reducing turnover intention levels and creating a foundation for a healthy and satisfying work environment.

This study also found that WLB positively influences employee turnover intention, whereas job satisfaction has no effect. When employees experience a high level of WLB, it may increase their likelihood of seeking alternative employment opportunities to support their overall well-being. In addition, employees have a lot of time and energy to engage in activities outside of work, such as pursuing hobbies or taking care of personal responsibilities, to contribute to their overall happiness and contentment (Ninaus et al., 2021). In contrast, according to JCM, when jobs possess certain characteristics, such as skill variety, autonomy, task identity, task significance, and feedback, employees are more likely to experience higher levels of job satisfaction (Anjum et al., 2014). Further, satisfied employees are less likely to want to leave their jobs, whereas dissatisfied employees are more likely to seek alternative employment opportunities. However, in JCM, employees may have high job satisfaction but still consider leaving if they perceive attractive alternatives outside their current job (Staelens, Desiere, Louche, D'Haese, 2018; Dam van, 2008).

This study further showed that WLB positively mediates the impact of ethical leadership on employee turnover intention, whereas job satisfaction has no mediating effect. When employees have the opportunity to focus on their personal lives and maintain a healthy WLB, they are more likely to be productive during their working hours. Moreover, ethical leaders prioritize the well-being of their employees (Sarwar, Ishaq, Amin, Ahmed, 2020), not just in terms of work-related tasks but also in their overall health and happiness. Ethical leaders may also provide resources and support for managing stress, promoting mental health, and maintaining a healthy lifestyle to promote sustainable work practices for employees.

Conclusion

This study, based on empirical evidence, concluded that ethical leadership has a positive effect on job satisfaction and WLB, as well as negatively impacts employee turnover intention. Further, this study also revealed that WLB positively related to employee turnover intention. In addition, the results from two mediation analyses found that WLB positively mediates the influence of ethical leadership on employee turnover intention, whereas job satisfaction has no mediating effect.

The findings of this study provide theoretical and practical information to help formulate a framework within organizations that ethical leadership is capable of promoting job satisfaction and WLB as well as reducing turnover intention. Ethical leaders create an environment where open communication is welcomed (Kim et al., 2022). Ethical leaders encourage their employees to discuss their WLB concerns without fear of judgment. By fostering an atmosphere of trust, employees feel comfortable sharing their needs and seeking support when necessary. In the context of SET, organizations that prioritize ethical leadership and support WLB are more likely to foster positive employee attitudes and reduce turnover intention.

Along with the important findings presented, this study also has some limitations. First, ethical leadership in this study is not measured from the leader's point of view, but only from employees'

perceptions of ethical leadership. As a result, multiple interpretations of ethical leadership emerge. Thus, future research needs to measure ethical leadership based on dyadic leader-follower perceptions (Mo, Shi, 2018) to obtain more comprehensive results. Second, job satisfaction in this study does not affect employee turnover intention. This finding is very different from previous studies which concluded there was a significant link between these two variables, both positively (Ali, Anwar, 2021) and negatively (Alam, Asim, 2019). Therefore, increasing attention to various aspects such as positive work environment, job design, competitive compensation, warm relationships with colleagues, and opportunities for growth and development may influence employees' decisions to stay within organization.

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Received 27.06.2023



ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Change management: emotional-semantic constructs in organizational sensemaking

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Abstract. *The purpose of the study.* To study the emotional-semantic constructs of the organizational subculture for the adoption of organizational changes in the context of managing staff resistance. *Research methodology.* The empirical study was conducted in two different projects. The first case examines the change in the subculture of the sales department of a retail bank in India. The second case is devoted to the change in the production functional subculture at a state-owned power plant (SPP) in Kazakhstan. The study has a descriptive design and consists of two stages. At the first stage, empirical material was collected related to the characteristics of the subcultures under consideration and the identification of the causes of resistance to change. Primary information was collected through observation, including participant observation, as well as semi-structured individual and group interviews. The collected information was analyzed using content analysis, phenomenological analysis, conversational speech analysis and visual analysis. At the second stage, emotional-semantic constructs were developed and their impact on staff resistance was analyzed. The ADKAR (Awareness, Desire, Knowledge, Ability, Reinforcement) change management model was used as a methodological basis for the projects. *The result of the empirical study* is a Program for managing personnel resistance to organizational changes. The use of emotional-semantic constructs in combination with the co-evolutionary model of organizational sensemaking and the change management model demonstrated a multiplicative positive effect, expressed in the acceptance of and openness of personnel to organizational changes, as well as the transformation of the organizational subculture that supports changes. *Originality and contribution of the author.* The use of the ADKAR change management model and the co-evolutionary model of organizational sensemaking allows us to offer a unique approach that includes a connection between emotional-semantic constructs and acceptance of changes. This approach is a contribution to the development of an interdisciplinary theory of organizational change from the perspective of management and social psychology.

Keywords: sensemaking, generation of meanings, emotional-semantic construct, organizational subculture, organizational changes, staff resistance, change management, ADKAR.

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Received 04.03.2024



ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Relationships of employee engagement and work motivation

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Abstract. Employee engagement has become recently one of the most evaluated parameters in organizations. Corporate psychologists and managers make assumptions about how to develop engagement, how to measure and evaluate it. At the same time, today there is no single definition of engagement, as well as no universal approach to its assessment. *Purpose.* The purpose of this study, through the analysis of business and scientific literature and having considered the most significant definitions, is to formulate the author's definition, combining the strengths of different approaches and theories. In addition, the goal is to determine the terminological relationship between engagement and labor motivation, since most theories do not fully disclose how these two constructs are related. *Methodology.* The author analyzes numerous theories of engagement, having considered the studies of both foreign and Russian scientists. Combined them into four groups, the relevance and value of each of the approaches is consistently considered. *Findings.* In the conducted analysis of the literature, clear patterns in the formulation of definitions of engagement were found and presented. Also, the relationship between engagement and motivation was found, the evolution of approaches to labor motivation was described, where engagement in work is the highest manifestation. *Originality of results.* Having systematized the data of scientific literature, the author offers an original definition of engagement as the highest positive manifestation of labor motivation, which evolves, complementing the constructs of loyalty and satisfaction. In conclusion of this literature review, the author notes that in modern organizational psychology there is a need for a new approach to labor motivation, which would combine developments in the field of employee engagement with the achievements of theories of labor motivation.

Keywords: employee engagement, work motivation, organizational psychology, job satisfaction, loyalty, labor productivity.

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Received: 21.11.2024



Role ambiguity and occupational stress as predictors of nurses' job satisfaction

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Abstract. *Purpose.* Purpose of the study is to investigate the relationship between role ambiguity and occupational stress for nurses' job satisfaction in developing country. *Study design.* The study design is quantitative and cross-sectional. The approved scales' consents were taken from authors to administer in Pakistan's one private and one public hospital. Sample of 240 nurses were drawn from private and public sector hospitals. "Role ambiguity" (Rizzo et al., 1970), "Occupational stress" (Yang et al., 2011) and "Job satisfaction" (Carbonell, Escudero, 2013) were used as instruments of measurement. The survey was conducted with informed consent from participants. Descriptive statistics were calculated using SPSS v.23 and Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was carried out through AMOS v.23. *Findings.* The study reported no significant differences of role ambiguity and occupational stress on job satisfaction for nurses. Qualitative reasoning suggests nurse personality and hospitals' culture to be conducive for long term job stay with extrinsic motivation. Nurses find their roles clear that makes them less occupationally stressed. Present nursing shortage drives the regular salaries to be comparatively higher in a safer medical environment. Hence, job satisfaction does not significantly differ for the sample. *Research limitations.* The limitations of the study include strict focus of two variables to one variable for validation. Covariate and inclusion of other variables like nurses' personalities, nurse practice environment, and nurse stress management skills can be important to assess further dimensions to the study. Moreover, cross-country comparative analysis between nursing professions in developing country with developed country can further add value to the study. *Value of the results.* Studying is valuable for health occupational psychology literature. In applied settings, hospital administration can delve into further factors to improve nursing profession in Pakistan.

Keywords: role ambiguity, occupational stress, job satisfaction, nursing, developing country.

Introduction

The societal impact of this study will help us to realize the potential struggles nurses face on day to day basis in hospitals. For this purpose, this study takes into account different variables that can affect nurses' job satisfaction levels. The job satisfaction of nurses has been particularly studied in the context of developing nations as it plays a major role in the functionality of public and private sector

hospitals. It is essential to note that what are the factors that contribute the most and the least to nurses' job satisfaction and what impact can those factors have on the ultimate outcomes. Socially, the issues of nurses have not been explicitly discussed; however some studies do approach problems that are posed to this portion of service sector. The background included review the literature for job satisfaction of nurses, the ambiguous roles they face and the occupational stress they encounter.

Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined as the job characteristic that takes into account all satisfying and unsatisfying elements (Lalani et al., 2012). Job satisfaction is determined as the most common outcome of emotional exhaustion research (Churchill et al., 1974). Job satisfaction is also defined as the active direction the worker covers for his job (Spector, 1997). A range of findings have suggested that job satisfaction of a an occupation relates to patients' colleagues (workers) interaction with each other, fulfillment with appraisal and recognition, feelings of control and responsibility and different leadership styles link with organizational policies (Hinshaw, Atwood, 1985). In Asian countries, and particularly South Asia faces issue of union membership for nurses. The moderation of union ship impacts job satisfaction levels (Shim, Park, 2022). Countries face a global shortage of nurses which is alarming, but Asian countries that lack motivational programs is where nurses find soft skills to manage their nursing jobs (Milutinović, Dragana, 2023). Almost 60.6% nurses report satisfaction in their job in a study despite pressure to perform in surgical wards (Dirdjo, Marsan, 2023). In another study of Jordan, nurses' job satisfaction remains a question to resolve (Hasan, Mohammad, 2023). If communication is healthy and a nurse has an optimal work life balance, it is then that she remains satisfied at job (Nilda, Huaman, 2023). If nurses feel that they are satisfied in their life that takes into account many aspects such as home life, salary expectations being met and sound work culture; then they are likely to report high life satisfaction that leads to acceptable job satisfaction levels (Kuppusamy et al., 2023). Furthermore, academic nurses are more likely to stay in Canadian hospitals as they can have more avenues to learn from (Emory et al., 2023).

Role ambiguity

Role ambiguity is the worker's improper knowledge regarding rules of job performance. Ambiguity usually results from lack of communication and poor training. The workers face a poor linkage between their duties and how they contribute to overall organizational performance (Price, 2001). Hence, empirical evidence suggests that role conflict and role ambiguity positively relate to each other. Higher the levels of role conflict, greater will be the role ambiguity (Mattson et al., 1979). Lower levels of role ambiguity has been reported in the findings of South Korea but the research conflicts with the study conducted in USA. There are factors in nursing practice environment and occupational stress that may differ from country to country. For example, Belgian nurses leave nursing profession due to single factor of work-related occupational stress (Behrman et al., 1984). Similarly, nurses in Missouri consider occupational stress as the dominant factor that makes nursing work tough. In another study carried out in Jakarta, nurses if have enough incentives would proactively solve role confusion (Andarusito et al., 2023). In a study, it reports that nurses who are newly hired would feel role ambiguity but with a passage of time, their roles are understood in organizational context (Maddox, Shermel, 2023). Furthermore, roles are perceived ambiguous when nurses would practice home-calls and would work within nursing homes and not in hospitals (Stewart, Cal, 2023). Nurses that feel ambiguous about their roles are mostly the ones working in medical-surgical units and not in general ward (Nazon et al., 2023). Recent studies have shown the mediation effect of rumination and worry that nurses without coping systems tend to have, report greater levels of stress and burnout (Bisht et al., 2023).

Occupational stress

Occupational stress is deemed as tension that can spread to physical and social spheres of worker's practicing life. Job satisfaction is the positive view of an individual towards job in such a way that makes the worker feel at ease with the working environment. Studies indicate that there are various reasons of occupational stress that includes workload and organizational settings. Occupational stress also varies according to the nature, experience of nursing staff. Nurses are burnt out due to extra workload and shortage of nurses that can impact job satisfaction levels. However, intrinsic motivation's presence helps nurses to balance work stress (Swedana, Nyoman, 2023). Nurses who feel pressurized by their peers will report occupational stress as when they encounter workplace bullying (Hosier et al., 2023). Moreover, if nurses receive adequate training to reinforce their professional identity, it helps them to deal with occupational stress in a proactive manner (Ammari et al., 2023) When nurses feel confident about delegated responsibilities, they eventually practice creativity in their work with intervention of enough organizational support as presented in one study (Saad, Rabou, 2023). Moreover, the nurses working in different wards have significant differences in reported stress levels (Dopelt et al., 2023). Nurses with different personalities tend to take stress differently, depending on Type A or Type B personality type. Nurses, who are between the ages of 26–35 have a proactive personality and would report less anticipated turnover with minimal stress levels (Hussein et al., 2023).

Methodology

The statistical analyses were assessed on AMOS v.23 to predict if nurses in hospitals had ambiguous roles and were stressed. This could lead to problematic societal outcomes if this situation is present at it can disturb patient and hospital organizational outcomes. For this purpose, Unit of analysis of this study involved public and private sector nurses from GangaRam and Avicenna Medical Hospitals, Pakistan respectively.

Multi-item variables have been assessed and only the most valid and reliable of the items have been retained according to the cut-off points. The content validity has been checked and the range of expert opinions from notified journals have been taken into account. The study was conducted using paper and pencil questionnaires. Written informed consent was taken from the participants. Permission was taken from the authorities of the hospitals. After running descriptive statistics on SPSS, the data was interpreted for a Confirmatory Factor Analysis. The convergent validity has been assessed through Average Variance Extracted along with Construct Reliability and discrimination.

Sample

This study took into account 240 as the sample size from AviCenna Medical and Ganga Ram Hospitals (Table 1).

Hypotheses

H01. Role ambiguity has no significant correlation with job satisfaction.

H02. Occupational stress has no significant correlation with job satisfaction.

Table 1. Demographics tests have been performed through descriptive statistics in IBM SPSS v.23

Age		Education		Years of experience	
22–25	25.8%	Matric	27.9%	Fresh graduate	57%
25–30	51.3%	FA/FSc	56.7%	1–2 years	15.8%
30–35	17.9%	Bachelors	10.8%	3–6 years	23%
35–40	.8%	Masters	3.8%	7 years or more	2%
40 years and above	4.2%	Others	.8%	-	

Measures

Role ambiguity

Role ambiguity has been measured by the four items with a five-point Likert scale (Rizzo et al., 1970).

Occupational stress

Occupational strain (stress) scale has been used to measure occupational stress with four items on a five-point Likert scale (Yang et al., 2011).

Job satisfaction

“Job satisfaction questionnaire” designed to check nurses’ job satisfaction with a four-items on five-point Likert scale (Carbonell, Escudero, 2013).

Results

Confirmatory factor analysis

The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) approach has been employed because the data structure of the model is known unlike in exploratory factor analysis (EFA). This method further helped in the specification of the variables that needs to be loaded with factors. Lower loadings (less than 0.4); which are not related to a given factor are given the value zero.

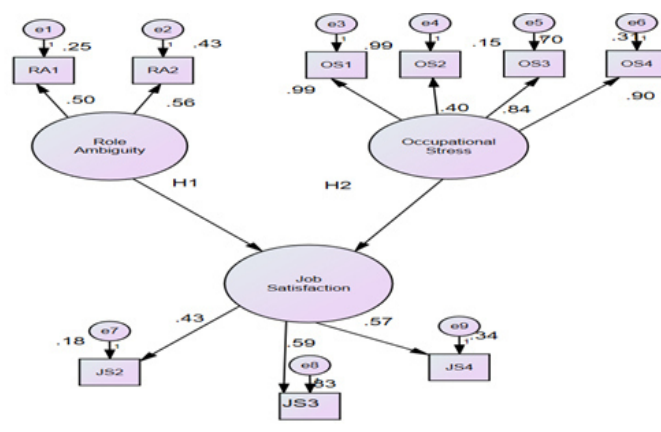


Figure 1. Illustration of a three-factor model.

Constructs of role ambiguity and occupational stress as predictors of job satisfaction

Table 2. Model fit indices

Symbol	CFA result	Model fit parameters
NPAR	47	[0; ∞]
DF	89	[0; ∞]
CMIN	525.201	
P value	.028	Needs to be insignificant
CMIN/DF	1.305	Close to 1
RMSEA	.036	[0 – .10]
PCLOSE	.912	PCLOSE > .5: good fit
NFI (better use CFI)	.934	Close to 1
RFI	.911	Close to 1
IFI	.984	Close to 1
TLI = rho_2	.978	Close to 1
CFI = RNI	.984	Close to 1
GFI	.943	Close to 1
HOELTER	N = 240	N >= 200: satisfactory fit with p = .05 or with p = .01

The model tested in this study the number of factors and their intercorrelations are specified in Figure 1. The item loadings along with any error term relations are also used in the method of test. Furthermore, the maximum likelihood result approach has been considered that explains the model through item loading significance; model fit indices, co variances and correlations between constructs (Table 2).

According to the above-mentioned results; the model is overall a good fit. The CFI (comparative fit index) that has a value near 1 shows that the model is of good fit. The model generates a CFI value of 0.984 (Santos et al., 2003). The NFI (normed index) greater than 0.9 suggest model fit hence the model generates an acceptable value of 0.934. The RFI (Relative Fit Index) also requires to be closer to 1 to show model fitness, hence model generates the value of 0.911. However, the model suggests RMSEA value of 3.6% which is less than 5% and is suggested as a good borderline fit (Hu, Bentler, 1999).

Table 3. Factor loadings of each item per construct

Items	Role ambiguity	Occupational stress	Job satisfaction
RA1	.498		
RA2	.659		
OS1		.993	
OS2		.404	
OS3		.836	
OS4		.901	
JS2			.429
JS3			.829
JS4			.572

Construct reliability

As far as reliability measures are concerned, the figure of Average Variance extracted for first order fits needs to be greater than 0.5 and construct reliability be greater than 0.7 (Rizzo, et al., 1970). Loadings for construct reliability that ranges from 0.5 to 0.6 which are the outer loadings are taken into account especially in the cases when the research is new.

The construct reliability of occupational stress at 0.88

The construct reliability of role ambiguity at 0.5

The construct reliability of job satisfaction at 0.65

Convergent validity

The convergent validity is tested to assess how significantly each indicator is linked to the latent variable. The Average Variance Extracted ranged from 0.34–0.95. AVE of occupational stress at 0.665; AVE of role ambiguity at 0.341; AVE of job satisfaction at 0.399.

Table 4. Correlation analysis

Construct relation	Correlations	Squared correlations
Role ambiguity — Occupational stress	-.035	.001225
Role ambiguity — Job satisfaction	.137	.018769
Occupational stress — Job satisfaction	-.061	.003721
	ASV =	.007905

For testing the *H1*, role ambiguity with estimate of 0.039 had no significant effect on job satisfaction as the p value was 0.961, which was statistically insignificant at 0.05. Hence, it is claimed that role ambiguity has no significant impact of job satisfaction. Thus, *H1* is rejected.

For testing H_2 , occupational stress with estimate of -0.058 has no significant effect on job satisfaction as the p value was 0.419 which was statistically insignificant at 0.05 . Hence, it is claimed that nurse practice environment has no significant impact on job satisfaction. Hence, H_2 is rejected.

The societal impact is far reaching for this study (Table 2). It has been examined that there is no significant and linear relation between nurses' job satisfaction and the relation within work role, work expectation and role confusion (Cordes, Dougherty, 1993). Another reason for an insignificant result may be due to the fact that majority of the nurses find clear job descriptions (a greater number of sample being distributed to private hospitals where job description is well defined). Moreover, there is a greater need for the evaluation of different roles that nurses may consider that could relate to job satisfaction levels. Moreover, the 'low participative' decision making corresponds role ambiguity.

The study suggests that in low participative decision-making roles, the role ambiguity is not significant; hence does not significantly impact job satisfaction (Lin et al., 2013). It has been suggested that the nature of nurse's job is pre-designed and is inflexible to decision making. The study also shows that occupational stress does not share a direct and significant effect to each other backed up by the author (Mitchell 1994).

Occupational stress can only impact job satisfaction if it is truly because of depression or psychological ailments. Furthermore, the direct and strong relation of rejection fear leads to greater effect on job satisfaction and no other factors of generic stress levels (Table 4). Hence, the limitation of the study is the absence of variable consideration of depression. Furthermore, occupational stress has no significant relation with job satisfaction unless and until the role of occupation referents exist (Equity Theory) (Aiken et al., 2002).

Hence, occupational stress can only have a negative and significant relation with job satisfaction if the worker believes that his or her comparison in the competitive organization is dealt better in terms of rumination (Packard, Motowidlo, 1987).

Moreover, socio demographics of education and age are important to discuss positive significant relationship with job satisfaction this study shows that 51.3% of the nurse age lies between the age bracket of $26-30$ years of age and 56.7% constitute as graduate nurses. It is established that younger nurses ($26-30$ years of age) are more prone to leaving although report high job satisfaction levels (Wallace et al., 1999). According to the U-shaped graph between job satisfaction and age: highest job satisfaction is reported in young nurses and in older nurses. But as nurses approach the age of 30 , job satisfaction falls (Adam, 1965). As the sample consists of 51.3% of young nurses, greater is the job satisfaction.

Discussion

The present study shows that role ambiguity and occupational stress do not significantly contribute towards job satisfaction. Economically, extrinsic motivation is evident for nurses to opt for the job. Since it is a gender specific profession in a conservative culture; it helps them to integrate well. Most nurses discuss problems informally with peers as nurse unions are not functional in Pakistani settings. Similarly, young and fresh nurses find it difficult to manage roles, however the study has a mean age of $40+$ years pertaining to middle adulthood.

It is to be noted that nurses take into account primary care, dental, auxiliary, professional and all personnel nurses. According to the World Bank statistics with the most recent year (2019) denotes a value of 0.5 (Figure 2) (The World Bank, 2019).



Figure 2.

Conclusion

According to the study, that is set in public and private hospitals of Pakistan; suggests that despite nurse shortage, nurses are clear about the roles and duties they have to perform. There can be variation in results depending upon covariates such as ward type, work-life balance and intrinsic motivation levels. If nurses are paid well, they have a conducive nurse practice environment and are supported through supervision will eventually depict high job satisfaction levels.

Recommendations

Personality assessment of nurses is integral. Different theories of personality with inventories can help assess nurses' role ambiguity and occupational stress better in regard to job satisfaction. Mindfulness, burnout, stress management, rumination and nurse practice environmental is integral to study across countries and during different conditions such as the pandemic and medical emergencies.

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Received 24.04.2023.



Organizational climate and job satisfaction of nurses: the mediating roles of job stress

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Abstract. *Purpose.* This study aims to investigate the role of job stress in the relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction of nurses in hospitals. Organizational Climate plays an important role in creating nurse job satisfaction because it's one of the main factors shaping the attitudes and behavior of nurses in the hospital. *Methodology.* The study used saturated sampling techniques, namely 90 nurses who are working at the XYZ Hospital in Kediri, East Java. Data collection techniques were carried out using questionnaires to respondents. Technical data analysis using PLS-SEM. *Findings.* An organizational climate has a positive and significant effect on job satisfaction. However, the organizational climate has a negative relationship with job stress. Job stress has no influence on job satisfaction. Job stress cannot play a role as a mediating variable in the relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction. *Value of the results.* The data obtained is used by the hospital management to increase the satisfaction of nurses by creating a conducive organizational climate therefore nurses can work more comfortably. Besides that, creating a conducive can reduce the stress that is felt by nurses. The findings of this study can also contribute to increased understanding related to organizational behavior and human resource management practices, especially in hospitals.

Keywords: nurses, hospital, organizational climate, job stress, job satisfaction.

Introduction

In Indonesia, the number of hospitals has increased significantly every year. This increase was driven by the demand for health services from the community which experienced a sharp increase. Many entrepreneurs are starting to look at the health industry as a business area by opening clinics and hospitals. With increasingly fierce competition, hospital management must prioritize the quality of services provided.

The increase in the number of public requests for health services is not matched by adequate service quality. Based on the data collected, Indonesia ranks 87th out of 167 countries included in the Global Health Index (Legatum Institute, 2023). This indicator shows an improving trend compared to previous years. This means that the implementation of health services is increasingly

improving towards excellent service quality. The Indonesian state must pay attention to the health services provided so that they can improve and enter the higher quality health category, good health management is needed. Policy from the Indonesian government with health services through the provision of health insurance or the term BPJS (Badan Penyelenggara Jaminan Sosial) [*Social Security Organizing Agency*]. The BPJS policy was formed by the Indonesian Government at the beginning of 2014. BPJS is a state-owned enterprise that functions as the body providing health insurance for the community (Ratnawati, Kholis, 2020).

BPJS users are people from various segments, from the top to the bottom of society, who can enjoy BPJS services. Existing research shows that patient satisfaction using health services is still not satisfied (Aminingsih et al., 2023). The cause of the emergence of a sense of dissatisfaction was triggered by one of them being concerned for patients. Nurses do not provide excellent health services to patients, which is the main cause of patient dissatisfaction.

In health services, the key to the success of services lies with the nurses. Nurses are the spearhead in the health services industry. Hospital management needs to pay attention to nurse satisfaction (Akinwale, George, 2020). When the nurses in the organization feel a feeling of satisfaction, it becomes one of the factors that determine individual well-being, because through these feelings of satisfaction employees will determine decisions regarding leaving or remaining in the organization (Ugwa et al., 2014). The perceived low job satisfaction will make it easier for employees to change jobs (Zhang et al., 2020).

Job satisfaction can encourage the emergence of various positive behaviors that are reflected by nurses. A high level of job satisfaction will encourage employees' efforts to be more productive (Akinwale, George, 2020). This can develop nurse behavior in creating patient satisfaction. Job satisfaction felt by nurses has various impacts that will increase the value of the hospital such as increasing patient satisfaction and providing optimal health services (Anaba et al., 2020).

Organizational hospitals must consider nurse job satisfaction because several previous studies have found that job satisfaction felt by each individual can be different from other individuals in the workplace, so it is necessary to determine the factors driving job satisfaction that are appropriate and suitable for individuals and groups (Choi et al., 2012). Many examinations have been made by researchers regarding job satisfaction felt by nurses which is related to emotions, remuneration, religiosity, authentic leadership, and organizational climate (Asiamah et al., 2019; Lee, Jang, 2020; Mensah et al., 2019; Shahnavaizi et al., 2021; Wong et al., 2020).

One of the reasons for nursing job satisfaction can be triggered by a conducive organizational climate. Several researchers have been able to prove that job satisfaction can increase along with the formation of a conducive organizational climate carried out by the organization (Ahmad et al., 2018; Appelbaum et al., 2019; Faramarzpour et al., 2021; Y. Li et al., 2020; Natawijaya et al., 2018; Rezaee et al., 2020; Shahnavaizi et al., 2021; Tsai, 2014). However, not all research indicates that a conducive organizational climate will create high job satisfaction. Existing research shows that the formation of climate is not able to increase the job satisfaction felt by the employees (Lan et al., 2019; Mahendra, Suwandana, 2020).

The different findings related to the correlation arising from the formation of organizational climate and job satisfaction is a research gap that can be re-examined by linking it to the mediating variables that affect this relationship. In this study, the job stress variable is chosen as a mediating variable. The research show that job stress can play a role in mediating the relationship related to organizational climate (Ningsih, Sarianti, 2022; Pradoto et al., 2022).

Several studies have been able to prove that the organizational climate in an organization can cause job stress for employees. If the organization is unable to create a conducive climate, job stress

will increase (Pecino et al., 2019). Besides that, high job stress can also trigger job dissatisfaction felt by employees. Previous research has explained that stress can be a driving factor in job satisfaction. If someone has a low level of job stress, job satisfaction will increase (Darmody, Emer, 2016; Dartey-Baah et al., 2020; Pindek et al., 2020).

This study tried to present a comprehensive model by presenting a mediating variable of job stress that is associated with the effect of organizational climate on nurse job satisfaction. This research was based on previous studies which showed different results regarding the effect of the organizational climate on job satisfaction. It is hoped that the job satisfaction of nurses can increase therefore they can provide optimal service to the community. This research can also cover the shortcomings of previous research, especially related to organizational climate in the health sector, which is rarely studied. Therefore, it presents an interesting discussion in the field of health associated with organizational climate. Existing research focuses more on the large and non-service industries.

Literature review

Organizational climate

Organizational climate reflects the perceptions of feelings held by employees regarding procedures, policies, and practices that exist within the organization (Steinke et al., 2015). It is more clearly defined that decision-making and norms that apply in the workplace will shape employee's perceptions of the organization (Stone et al., 2006). Organizational climate is believed to be a manifestation of a combination of organizational behavior and human resource management in an organization.

Organizational climates describe the organization and create uniqueness that can differentiate it from other organizations are implemented over a long period, and significantly contribute to individual and group behavior in the organization (Forehand, Von Haller, 1964). Remembering the impact of organizational climate can create a positive organizational atmosphere, the organization needs to pay attention to it. A positive organizational climate can improve the attitudes, behavior, and ethics of employees, especially nurses in providing services to the community (Vermeeren, 2016). Organizations must determine priorities based on the routines and behavior of employees. Individual priorities must be aligned with organizational priorities (Bellouu, Andronikidis, 2009).

Organizational climate has a direct and indirect effect on the organization. Organizational sustainability is determined by a good organizational climate (Rezaee et al., 2020). An important and meaningful construct for human resource management in organizations is the implications of organizational climate (Garcia-Garcia et al., 2011; Hsiung et al., 2021). Through organizational climate, one can know the organization's characteristics that are different from another organization which can effect the way individuals act and behave.

Job stress

Job stress is defined as a condition where employees experience tension which affects their emotions. Job stress experienced by employees is unable to complete the challenges and demands of the tasks given by the organization (Batistatara, Reio, 2011). Referring to the literature review, it was revealed that job stress felt by employees is an interesting research theme for further research because job stress has a strong potential to threaten organizational effectiveness and also disrupt employee health (Vong et al., 2018).

The effect of job stress which is a threat to organization cannot be underestimated. There have been several previous studies that showed the negative effects of job stress felt by employees (Sang et al., 2013). Employees who experience despair and lack enthusiasm for life, making them vulnerable to mental disorders, depression, frustration, and excessive anxiety (Kim, 2008). Besides that, stress

can also disrupt organizational effectiveness. Such as causing job accidents (Khoshakhlagh et al., 2021); job dissatisfaction (Dartey-Baah et al., 2020), and turnover (Arshadi, Damiri, 2013).

Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a positive perception that is reflected based on the results of evaluations of the conditions of work carried out (Locke, 1969). Job satisfaction is an emotion and feeling that exists in employees which refers to existing work experience (Azad, 2019). Satisfaction is related to what is considered important by employees and what has been given by the organization (Faramarzpour et al., 2021). Intrinsic job satisfaction includes the effectiveness of individual participation in work such as skills, development opportunities, and autonomy in carrying out work, while extrinsic job satisfaction relates to the context of salary and management (Abdallah et al., 2017).

Job satisfaction focuses on important components of work performance, occupational safety and health, and job expansion (Tsai, 2014). Job satisfaction is personal and cannot be equated with other employees (Schneider, Snyder, 1975). This causes large differences in job satisfaction between individuals. The main factors that determine job satisfaction are the job and workplace organization (Guinot et al., 2014).

The relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction

Previous research suggests that positive feelings felt by employees as a form of implementing a good organizational climate encourage the emergence of high job satisfaction felt by employees (Ahmad et al., 2018; Appelbaum et al., 2019; Faramarzpour et al., 2021; Y. Li et al., 2020; Rezaee et al., 2020; Shahnavazi et al., 2021). Many scientists believe that organizational climate and job satisfaction are two different things but still exist in the same family (Ahmad et al., 2018; Castro, Martins, 2010). The existing organizational climate will have significant implications regarding how employees will behave in their organization (Garcia-Garcia et al., 2011; Glisson, James, 2002). A good organizational climate can encourage the creation of job satisfaction by employees, especially in the context of nurses. A worker who is in a good organizational climate tends to be more satisfied with the work they do (Gaunya, 2016). Organizational climate has positive and significant effect in job satisfaction (Ahmad et al., 2018; Appelbaum et al., 2019; Faramarzpour et al., 2021; Y. Li et al., 2020; Molina et al., 2014; Rezaee et al., 2020; Shahnavazi et al., 2021; Tsai, 2014). Hence, the researcher proposed a hypothesis.

H1: Organizational climate has a positive and significant influence on job satisfaction.

The relationship between organizational climate and job stress

Organizational climate is reflected as an individual's inner condition regarding the organization through actions, attitudes, and behavior in the organization (Mohammadi, Youzbashi, 2012). Through a good organizational climate, it is easy to create trust and warmth in the organization. By creating such a climate, workers will not easily feel tired and stressed. Job stress is a worker's reaction to working conditions and individual characteristics therefore if organizational conditions are not good it will affect the worker's stress level. Stress will be reduced when the organization can provide a conducive climate. Research has stated that organizational climate can be a source of stress. Organizational climate has negative and significant effect on job stress (Arnetz et al., 2011; Sahni, Kumar, 2012). Hence, the researcher proposed a hypothesis.

H2: Organizational climate has a negative and significant influence on job stress

The relationship between job stress and job satisfaction

Job stress has been a cause of satisfaction when carrying out work (Guinot et al., 2014; Stanton et al., 2002). The pressure felt by workers will be able to create dissatisfaction. Workers who can manage the pressure felt both psychologically and physically will significantly encourage satisfaction (Ismail

et al., 2009). On the other hand, if workers can manage the existing pressure, it will cause negative effects on workers through worker behavior and attitudes, including job satisfaction. Workers who have high levels of stress will cause job satisfaction to become lower. Job stress has negative and significant effect on job satisfaction (Dartey-Baah et al., 2020; Guinot et al., 2014; Güleriyüz et al., 2008; Ismail et al., 2009; Tremolada et al., 2015). Hence, the researcher proposed a hypothesis.

H3: Job stress has a negative and significant influence on job satisfaction.

Job stress plays as a mediating variable in the relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction

Creating a good climate will encourage a sense of satisfaction among organizational workers therefore they can provide the best performance (Ahmad et al., 2018; Y. Li et al., 2020; Molina et al., 2014; Tsai, 2014). When the organization provides comfortable and warm conditions, it reduces the level of pressure felt by workers therefore job stress can decrease (Arnetz et al., 2011). One source of job satisfaction is job stress. Workers who feel a lot of pressure and are unable to manage this pressure will result in worker dissatisfaction (Guinot et al., 2014). The prior study of job stress stated that the job stress can act as a mediating variable in affecting organizational climate (Ningsih, Sarianti, 2022; Pradoto et al., 2022). Hence, the researcher proposed a hypothesis.

H3: Job stress plays a role as mediating variable in the influence of organizational climate on job satisfaction.

Methodology

Population and sample

The population for this research were all nurses who worked at XYZ Hospital in Kediri, East Java Indonesia. The total population is 90 nurses. In this study, non-probability sampling was used using a saturated sampling technique. Saturated sampling is a sampling technique using all members included in the population as samples (Sekaran, Bougie, 2016). In this research, saturated sampling was used because the number of respondents was slightly less than 100 respondents.

Questionnaire instrument

The research consists of three variables, each variable is measured using indicators. The organizational climate variable consists of four indicators namely responsibility, appreciation, support, and structure through five statement items (Ahmad et al., 2018). The construct of job satisfaction consists of four variables that have been developed previously namely promotion, salary, supervision, and employment using four items (Ahmad et al., 2018; Faramarzpour et al., 2021; C. Li et al., 2020). The job stress variable consists of four indicators and items namely role overload, role ambiguity, responsibility for persons, and strenuous working conditions (Ahmad et al., 2018). Data collection was carried out in this study by using a questionnaire where each question item was asked, respondents answered using a Likert five-point scale.

Data analysis

This study uses a structural equation modeling approach with Partial Least Square (PLS-SEM) (Hair et al., 2019). The reason researchers use PLS-SEM is because the number of research samples is small and the nature of indicators used are normative and reflective. An analysis of the description of the frequency of respondents' answers was carried out related to the characteristics of the respondents. They also performed data analysis of each research variable in the structural model. Facilitating understanding and simpler preparation using SPSS and SMART-PLS.

Result

Demographic analysis

Table 1 shows the profile of the respondents based on their characteristics. Most respondents were female as many as 45 respondents with a percentage of 72.58%. Most respondents have worked for one–three years, namely as many as 33 respondents with a percentage of 57.89%. Furthermore, for the description of the age of the respondents, most are in the range of 26-30 years, namely 28 respondents with a percentage of 45.16%.

Table 1. Profile of respondents

	Category	Frequently	Percentage %
Gender	Female	45	72.78
	Male	17	27.42
	Total	62	100
Length of work	1–3 years	33	57.89
	4–6 years	15	26.32
	7–9 years	7	12.28
	> 10 years	2	3.51
	Total	57	100
Age	<25 years	18	29.03
	26–30 years	28	45.16
	31–35 years	11	17.74
	> 36 years	5	8.06
	Total	62	100

Measurement result of research model

Data was processed using PLS-SEM. A question item can meet the loading factor value of each item. The criteria used to meet validity assumptions factor value is greater than 0.05 (Hair et al., 2019). Referring to the PLS-SEM calculation results, it was found that the loading factor value for each question asked was in the range of 0.641-0.867. Based on the validity criteria that have been determined, all items in the research are valid. Table 2 and Figure 1 show the loading factor values.

Table 2. Loading factor value of research value

Variable Item	Organizational Climate	Job Stress	Job Satisfaction
X1.1	.707		
X1.2	.705		
X1.3	.774		
X1.4	.705		
X1.5	.728		
Z1.1		.700	
Z1.2		.767	
Z1.3		.867	
Z1.4		.641	
Y1.1			.799
Y1.2			.835
Y1.3			.837
Y1.4			.730

Source: SMART-PLS 4.



Figure 1. Loading factor. Source: SMART-PLS 4

Reliability measurements are used to test the level of reliability for each question item. An item can meet reliability assumptions referring to the result in the composite reliability value. Based on the processing result in PLS-SEM, it can be seen that the resulting composite reliability value for each item is in the range of 0.833-0.878. Referring to the results obtained, it can be concluded that all research question items are reliable. Apart from using the composite reliability value, to determine reliability by using reference the average variance extracted (AVE) value obtained from the calculation results must be greater than the requirement, namely 0.5. Referring to the calculation results, the constructed value for AVE is above 0.5 thus meeting the reliability assumption. Table 3 shows the composite reliability and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values.

Table 3. Reliability test for research construct

Variable	Composite reliability	Average variance extracted (AVE)
Organizational climate	.847	.525
Job stress	.834	.560
Job satisfaction	.878	.643

Source: SMART-PLS 4.

Result of the direct effect test

Hypotheses testing direct effects as in the model that has been proposed. In the research, the number of direct hypotheses in the research was three hypotheses. Direct testing is carried out using pre-requisites based on *t*-statistical test values and *p*-value results. The direct hypotheses testing can be accepted if the statistical value requirements are greater than 1.96 and have a *p*-value of less than 0.05 (Hair et al., 2019).

Table 4. Direct hypotheses testing

Hypotheses	β	Std. error	<i>T</i> -statistic	<i>P</i> -value	Decision
Organizational climate $\rightarrow$ Job satisfaction	.683	.081	8.455	.000	Support
Organizational climate $\rightarrow$ Job stress	-.602	.076	7.947	.000	Support
Job stress $\rightarrow$ Job satisfaction	-.118	.122	.968	.333	Reject

Catatan : *p*-value significant at .05

Source: SMART-PLS 4.

Based on the table above, it can be concluded that testing the direct effects shows that organizational climate has a positive and significant effect on job satisfaction with a p -value < 0.05 and a statistical value > 1.96 . Thus, it can be concluded that $H1$ is accepted. Furthermore, for the effect of organizational climate on job stress experienced by nurses, it was found that there was a negative and significant effect because it had a p -value < 0.05 and a statistical value > 1.96 . This shows that $H2$ is accepted. The third hypothesis, namely the effect of job stress on job satisfaction, shows a statistical value < 1.96 and p -value > 0.05 , so it can be concluded that there is no significant effect between job stress and job satisfaction, $H3$ is rejected.

Mediation test

Indirect testing was carried out in this research because there is a mediation variable in the model. Through the mediation test, it can be seen regarding the role of the mediating variable. Table 5 shows the results that have been carried out in testing the mediating variables.

Table 5. Result of mediation variable testing

Hypotheses	β	Std. error	T-statistic	P-value	Decision
Organizational climate $\rightarrow$ Job stress $\rightarrow$ Job satisfaction	.071	.078	.913	.361	Reject

Source: SMART-PLS 4.

Based on the test result in the table above, job stress cannot play a role as a mediating variable on the effect of organizational climate on job satisfaction. This hypothesis is rejected because it has a p -value greater than 0.05 and a t -statistic < 1.96 .

Discussion

The research was conducted to provide an empirical contribution related to increasing the job satisfaction of nurses in hospitals by examining the relationship between organizational climate, job stress, and job satisfaction. The test was carried out by testing the four proposed hypotheses. First, the organizational climate was proven to be able to increase job satisfaction felt by hospital nurses, Second, organizational climate also affects the emergence of job stress and has no influence on nurse job satisfaction. Fourth, job stress cannot play a role in mediating the effect of organizational climate on nursing job satisfaction.

The empirical results obtained from this research require further discussion regarding several aspects. This research confirms that nurses who work in hospitals with positive organizational climate conditions will feel more satisfied with the work that they do. Nurses who are spearheads of the organization, if given comfort and warmth within the organization, will encourage feelings of satisfaction in carrying out the work provided by the organization. On the other hand, if there is no positive climate in the organization, employees will not do their work well because they will not be satisfied with the work they do (Y. Li et al., 2020). Comfort conditions provided by the organization will encourage nurses to feel pleasure when carrying out their work so that satisfaction can be created. Therefore, hospital leaders must always supervise and monitor the climate in the organization because it will effect on job satisfaction (Ahmad et al., 2018). The results of this research are consistent with previous research which states that organizational climate has a positive and significant effect on nurse job satisfaction (Ahmad et al., 2018; Y. Li et al., 2020; Natawijaya et al., 2018; Tsai, 2014).

A conducive organization will encourage the achievement of optimal performance (Walker et al., 2011). If organizational conditions are not healthy and conducive, it will be difficult for existing workers to work, which can cause stress (Sahni, Kumar, 2012). Besides that, if the organizational

climate is not by the employees' abilities, it will cause tension which can increase the level of stress (Singh, Dhawan, 2012). The stress level experienced by nurses will gradually decrease if the organizational climate can be maintained well. On the contrary, if the climate is not maintained, stress level will increase and endanger the organization. The research results show that there is a negative and significant relationship between organizational climate and job stress. These results are in line with the results of previous research presented by (Pecino et al., 2019; Singh, Dhawan, 2012; Tsui, 2021).

Employees who experience high stress tend to feel dissatisfied with the work that they do (Wu et al., 2022). However, this is different when it is related to the context of nurses working in a hospital. Nurses have a job, namely handling patients, which is considered a job that does not cause stress, and nurses tend to feel satisfied with the work that they do (Khamisa et al., 2016). Nurses feel happy with the work they do even though it contains an element of pressure, but there is a positive value obtained when meeting patients (Kalisch et al., 2011). These findings show that there is no effect between job stress and job satisfaction. This findings are in line with findings from previous research (Khamisa et al., 2016) and are inversely proportional to the findings stated by (Darling et al., 2012; Guinot et al., 2014; Tremolada et al., 2015).

The research results show that the organizational climate in the hospital can provide job satisfaction for nurses. A conducive climate will make nurses feel comfortable at work to create a sense of satisfaction in nurses (Y. Li et al., 2020). When the climate created in the organization is conducive, it will be able to reduce the stress level of nurses (Pecino et al., 2019). However, stress due to the work carried out does not encourage dissatisfaction among nurses. Nurses assume that no matter how hard the work is, there are positive elements to be gained from work (Kalisch et al., 2011). In this research, job stress cannot play as a mediating variable in the effect of organizational climate on job satisfaction.

Conclusion

The significant increase in health services has encouraged efforts to improve the quality of health services, especially for hospital managers. Nurses are the spearheads in the hospital. Therefore, it is important to pay attention to nurses' job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is affected by organizational climate and job stress of nurses. A conducive organization will create high job satisfaction. However, if the organization is unable to create a conducive climate, it will encourage increased job stress. The job stress experienced by nurses is not able to create job dissatisfaction.

Limitation and future research

Although this research can contribute practically and theoretically, there are still several shortcomings that can become opportunities for future research. Firstly, this research was only conducted in a small scope, namely in one hospital so the results cannot be generalized. Second, this research is not specific to nurses with higher workloads and challenges such as emergencies but to all nurses. Third, the number of samples used in this study was small because I only used one hospital.

Future research can carry out the developments and expansions needed therefore it is easier to increase understanding. Future research can add several variables related to nurse's job satisfaction such as emotions and remuneration (Asiamah et al., 2019; Lee, Jang, 2020).

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Received 11.09.2023



Unleashing intrapreneurial behavior: Cultivating an entrepreneurial mindset to meet the increasing demand for intrapreneurship

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Abstract. *Purpose.* This research endeavors to examine how entrepreneurial mindset functions on employees' intrapreneurial behavior. Besides, we also examined the role of situational cues such as psychological safety and work engagement in stimulating entrepreneurial mindset in the organizational context. *Methodology.* The study adopted the College Entrepreneurial Mindset Scale, which operationalizes the entrepreneurial mindset comprising five dimensions: innovativeness, need for achievement, risk-taking, autonomy, and proactiveness. Incorporating work engagement and entrepreneurial mindset as mediating variables, a hypothetical model was established to link these variables to employees' intrapreneurial behavior. A web-based questionnaire, authorized by departmental administrators working in SMEs in China, was disseminated to employees' individual work accounts, wherein they completed and submitted the questionnaire for the purpose of our research inquiry. A total of 278 responses were gathered, 261 valid responses remained for subsequent analysis. The collected data were analyzed using both SPSS and Mplus, the hypotheses were tested, and the model was verified through structural equation modeling analysis. *Findings.* The results of this study indicate that entrepreneurial mindset plays a significant role in fostering employees' intrapreneurial behavior, which is widely considered to be a critical driver of organizational performance and productivity. Besides, this research found that autonomy as an essential facet of the entrepreneurial mindset does not contribute to intrapreneurs' mindset. Furthermore, the study has pinpointed psychological safety and work engagement as the critical cues that evoke employees' entrepreneurial mindset. *Value of results.* This research has valuable implications as it highlights the important role that entrepreneurial mindset plays in promoting employees' intrapreneurial behavior. More importantly, our results also implicate the necessity of developing the concept of an "intrapreneurial mindset" within the realm of intrapreneurship research. We also identify situational cues for entrepreneurial mindset in the organizational context, adding a new perspective to the existing literature and managerial practices.

Keywords: entrepreneurial mindset, intrapreneurial behavior, psychological safety, work engagement, organizational performance, intrapreneurial mindset.

Introduction

In modern society, in which the business environment has become more dynamic, and technology is advancing rapidly, entrepreneurship, which leads to the creation of new opportunities and businesses, can potentially contribute to the revitalization of the economy (Schramm, 2005). In this context, cultivating an entrepreneurial mindset (EM) has been gaining increasing attention recently, as it is thought to be an important instrument to facilitate entrepreneurial activities (McGrath, MacMillan, 2000). However, scholars also identify EM as an encouraging factor not only in the field of venture creation but also in contributing to employee wellbeing and organizational innovation behavior (Bekki et al., 2018; Kuratko et al., 2021; Rekha et al., 2015). In other words, EM does not merely encourage its holders to initiate their own businesses but also helps them acquire the necessary skills that would enable them to identify and pursue new opportunities (Hartley et al., 2013; Auken van, 2013).

The imperative to identify and capitalize on novel opportunities has emerged as an intrinsic requirement for organizations, irrespective of their scale or international standing (García-Morales et al., 2006; Hartley et al., 2013). This inherent need for survival in a competitive operating environment facilitates the urgent need to promote an entrepreneurial spirit for organizational innovation (Alpkan et al., 2010). In this regard, the research on corporate entrepreneurship and employee intrapreneurship aims to respond to this increasing demand for organizational sustainability (Carrier, 1994; Garvin, Levesque, 2006; Stopford, Baden-Fuller, 1994). Hence, except for its role in contributing to business creation, cultivating EM as a way to facilitate entrepreneurial activities evolves another function to support organizational innovation through equipping employees with the ability to behave “entrepreneurially” in the workplace (Seshadri, Tripathy, 2006).

Prior researchers have examined the role of certain personality traits (the “Big Five”) and employees’ affect (such as job anxiety or psychological safety) in facilitating intrapreneurial behavior (IB) (Alam et al., 2020; Chouchane, St-Jean, 2023; Mahmoud et al., 2022). What’s more, research has also examined the role of EM in cultivating entrepreneurs’ venture-creating behavior (Mukhtar et al., 2021; Saptono et al., 2020). However, based on comprehensive knowledge available, the link between EM and employees’ IB has been barely explored. To fill this research gap, this research aims to explore how EM, as a traditional entrepreneurial construction, influences the IB.

In pursuit of the research aim above, this research established a research model where possible situational cues such as psychological safety (PS), work engagement (WE), and certain traits of EM (e.g., innovativeness, proactiveness, and risk-taking) were included to examine their role in facilitating IB. The inherent philosophic aspect behind this analysis is also intended to address the increasing challenge of balancing WE and IB arising with the competition pressure in the business environment. The structure of our research is organized around the aim described above. First, this paper reviewed the relevant literature for this topic and generated hypotheses in our research framework one by one based on the previous research and theories. Second, we devised a questionnaire according to the existing scales designed to measure the factors related to our research, such as WE, PS, EM, etc. Subsequently, this research collected relevant data and used SPSS 26 to primarily process it and Mplus (version 8) to conduct structural equation analysis. Moreover, we obtained our conclusion based on the testing results of the hypotheses and the practical meaning of these testing results. Last, this research addresses some of the practical realities facing managers or scholars who seek to investigate the mechanism of activating EM and thus facilitating employees’ IB.

Literature review and hypotheses development

Psychological safety, work engagement, and entrepreneurial mindset

PS refers to the mutual perception of employees regarding the level of safety and comfort in taking interpersonal risks in the workplace (Edmondson et al., 2007). Research on the antecedents of PS has examined supportive organizational practices, supportive leadership behaviors, relationship networks, team, and individual or team differences as usual antecedents of psychological safety characteristics (Bienefeld, Grote, 2014; Carmeli et al., 2009; Carmeli et al., 2010; Carmeli, Gittell, 2009; Carmeli, Zisu, 2009; Chen, Tjosvold, 2012; Halbesleben, Rathert, 2008; Liu et al., 2014; Nembhard, Edmondson, 2006; Singh et al., 2013). Besides, researchers also cogitate that PS is principally a mediating factor between the above-mentioned antecedents and workplace outcomes, such as knowledge sharing behavior, learning behavior, employee attitudes, and performance (Bstieler, Hemmert, 2010; Liu et al., 2014; Mu, Gnyawali, 2003; Xu, Yang, 2010; Zhang et al., 2010).

Arguably, PS is likely to enable WE. First, prior research has examined employee attitudes as a result of PS. Those employee attitudes include organizational commitment and positive working attitudes (Chen et al., 2014; Ruiz Ulloa, Adams, 2004). Specifically, research has verified the role of PS in predicting engagement in quality improvement work (Nembhard, Edmondson, 2006). Second, by reclaiming the social exchange theory employed by prior scholars in their conceptual part to justify how PS can influence employees' attitudes, we may present further evidence for our argument (Chen et al., 2014; De Clercq, Rius, 2007). Employees who are experiencing high levels of perceived PS appear to experience a great sense of freedom at work, as well as support and respect from their organizations (De Clercq, Rius, 2007). According to the reciprocity norm of social exchange theory, an organizational relationship should be the outcome of a cost-benefit analysis: if the costs of the relationship are higher than the benefits and are not reciprocated, the relationship may be terminated or abandoned, or vice versa (Cook, Emerson, 1978). Similarly, in this regard, employees with high levels of PS may repay the "support" and "respect" by increasing their WE.

Hypothesis 1: Psychological safety positively contributes to work engagement.

An EM includes an individual's willingness to blend risk-taking, creativity, and innovation with the intention of creating value, as well as their ability to plan and manage projects in order to achieve objectives (Bosman, Fernhaber, 2018). Since this research adopts the College Entrepreneurial Mindset Scale, which measures EM through innovativeness, need for achievement, risk-taking, autonomy, and proactiveness, particular emphasis is placed on understanding how working circumstances impact these five "entrepreneurial" traits (Jung, Lee, 2020).

With the aim of exploring the role of EM in facilitating IB, this research also proposes contributing roles of PS and WE to the application of EM in the workplace. This proposition may theoretically receive support from "trait activation theory" (Tett, Guterman, 2000), which holds that the expression of certain personality traits is influenced by situational cues or triggers. Based on the "trait activation theory," PS and WE may play a role in providing the situational cues for the expression of the above-mentioned entrepreneurial traits. In this respect, this research corresponds to the proposal from A. Newman with colleagues, who propose an agenda to incorporate prominent person-situation theoretical perspectives, such as trait activation theory, to further our understanding of the relationships among PS and work outcomes (Newman et al., 2017). Specifically, they concluded that a climate of PS would amplify the positive effects of an individual's personality traits, such as extraversion and proactiveness. Empirically, this conclusion could be supported by some research results, showing that conscientiousness predicted performance only in the simultaneous presence of high levels of work effort and a positive psychological climate (Byrne et al., 2005).

Existing research on the outcomes of PS and WE also give this proposition certain empirical evidence. In terms of PS, research has found that PS play a constructive role in facilitating EM, such as organizational innovativeness, achievement motivation, risk-taking, and proactiveness (Baer, Frese, 2003; Blynova et al., 2020; Bradley et al., 2012; Edmondson, 2003; 200; Gong et al., 2012; Moore, Wang, 2017). Similar research on the outcomes of WE also support our hypothesis that an engaged employee is more likely to display EM, e.g., innovative behavior and proactive behavior (Park et al., 2013; Montani et al., 2020; Sonnentag, 2003). In short, PS and WE may serve as triggers to encourage the expression of certain entrepreneurial traits. Henceforth, hypotheses are generated as follows:

Hypothesis 2: Psychological safety positively contributes to entrepreneurial mindset.

Hypothesis 3: Work engagement positively contributes to entrepreneurial mindset.

Entrepreneurial mindset and intrapreneurial behavior

The concept of intrapreneurship has its roots in entrepreneurship, which is traditionally associated with starting and managing new ventures. However, intrapreneurship focuses on employees within established organizations who exhibit entrepreneurial behaviors. Specifically, intrapreneurship refers to the spontaneous intentions and actions that deviate from the traditional business practices within established organizations (Antoncic, Hisrich, 2003). Scholars have posited that IB has been recognized as having a profound influence on two key areas, namely new venture creation and strategic renewal, as evidenced by notable studies such as those were conducted (Pearce et al., 1997; Gawke et al., 2019). The creation of new ventures typically takes the form of innovative products or services or the establishment of new semi-autonomous organizational units, both internally and externally, as highlighted in the research conducted by V. K. Narayanan with colleagues, while strategic renewal refers to the revitalization of a firm's operations by changing the scope of its business or market moves (Narayanan et al., 2009; Zahra, 1993; 1996). Besides, strategic renewal, together with corporate venturing and innovation, is considered one of the important components of corporate entrepreneurship (Covin, Miles, 1999; Guth, Ginsberg, 1990; Sharma, Chrisman, 1999; Zahra, 1996). Even though researchers occasionally utilize corporate entrepreneurship and intrapreneurship interchangeably due to the terminological confusion in intrapreneurship research (Blanka, 2019), recently researchers have tended to perceive corporate entrepreneurship as “top-down” behavior and intrapreneurship as “bottom-up” behavior (Åmo, Kolvereid, 2005; Rigtering, Weitzel, 2013; Sinha, Srivastava, 2013). In other words, intrapreneurship is more likely to be initiated by employees who possess the abilities of opportunity recognition and innovation (Camelo-Ordaz et al., 2012).

This research hypothesizes that EM may facilitate employees' IB, which is defined as entrepreneurial behavior occurring in the organizational context. The “traits activation theory” (Tett, Guterman, 2000) implies that situational cues may activate certain entrepreneurial traits, which serve as a predisposition or tendency to behave entrepreneurially in the workplace. In other words, these situational cues, together with the entrepreneurial traits being activated by them, may prepare employees with the intention to behave entrepreneurial in their careers. In this case, “the theory of planned behavior” could further justify this hypothesis. The theory of planned behavior postulates that the likelihood of an individual engaging in intrapreneurial behavior is correlated with the strength of his or her behavior intention (Ajzen, 1991). Other scholars further claim that intentions are the single best predictor of most behaviors, including entrepreneurial behavior (Heuer, Kolvereid, 2014; Shepherd, Krueger, 2002). The robustness of entrepreneurial intention in predicting entrepreneurial actions has been confirmed (Kautonen et al., 2015). Besides, longitudinal follow-up research conducted by S. Joensuu-Salo with colleagues also verified the value of intention

in predicting entrepreneurial behavior in the long term (Joensuu-Salo et al., 2020). Thus, we may have the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: Entrepreneurial mindset positively contributes to intrapreneurial behavior.

The mediating role of entrepreneurial mindset

With the establishment of hypothesis 4, together with the formulation of hypotheses 2 and 3, current study further proposes the mediating role of EM in the relationship between PS and IB, WE and IB. A mediation model seeks to explain the mechanism that underlies an observed relationship between an independent variable (in this research respectively, PS and WE) and a dependent variable (in this research, IB). Therefore, it can be implied that PS and WE indirectly influence IB through EM. When employees feel psychologically safe and engaged in their work, their EM is more likely to be activated, which, in turn, leads to increased IB. This is because an EM contains the willingness to be innovative, proactive, and risk-taking, which are critical components of IB (Kuratko et al., 2021).

Recent studies have extended the application of PS to the development of an EM among employees. For instance, it was found that psychologically safe environments foster risk-taking and proactive behavior, key components of an EM (Brown, Leigh, 1996; Elsayed et al., 2023; Kim, 2021). This is further supported by A. Newman, who demonstrated a strong correlation between PS and the cultivation of innovative thinking and creativity, a cornerstone of the EM (Gu et al., 2013; Newman et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2021). Transitioning from mindset to behavior, researchers have explored how an EM encourages IB within organizations by introducing the moderating factors such as the demographic variables (Wenjun, Panikarova, 2023). Several studies in the fields of organizational behavior and human resource management support the hypothesis that WE contributes to fostering IB among employees. For instance, a study by Y. K. Park with colleagues found a positive relationship between employees sustained high levels of WE and the subsequent development of an EM (Park et al., 2013). The research demonstrated that engaged employees tended to exhibit a proactive and innovative approach to their work, ultimately leading to a higher likelihood of engaging in intrapreneurial activities within the organizational context. This empirical evidence suggests that WE serves as a precursor to the cultivation of an EM, which, in turn, positively influences IB among employees (Figure 1).

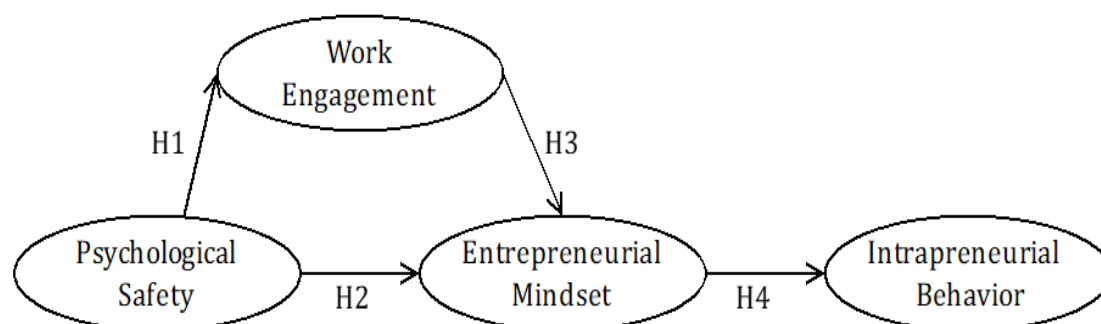


Figure 1. Proposed path analysis model for the formulation mechanism of intrapreneurial behavior

Hypothesis 5: Psychological safety has a positive indirect effect on employee's intrapreneurial behavior, through employee's entrepreneurial mindset.

Hypothesis 6: Work engagement has a positive indirect effect on employee's intrapreneurial behavior, through employee's entrepreneurial mindset.

Hypothesis 7: Psychological safety has a positive serial indirect effect on employee's intrapreneurial behavior, through employee's work engagement and entrepreneurial mindset.

Methodology

Sampling strategy

A web-based questionnaire, authorized by departmental administrators working in SMEs in China, was disseminated to employees' individual work accounts, wherein they completed and submitted the questionnaire for the purpose of our research inquiry. We first sent out invitations to 30 department administrators through familiar channels, and 23 of them expressed their willingness to assist us in collecting the data. A total of 278 responses were gathered, but 17 were deemed invalid as they did not accurately answer the quality-control queries. After excluding these inadequate samples, 261 valid responses remained for subsequent analysis. Table 1 elucidates the demographic characteristics of the participants in the current investigation.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for demographic variables

Variables	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	46	17.6
Female	215	82.4
Age		
18–30	235	90
31–40	25	9.6
41–50	1	.4
Education		
Junior college or university	193	73.9
Master's or doctor's degree	68	26.1
Income		
Below 4000 RMB (below 564.58 USD)	102	39.1
4000-8000 RMB (564.58-1129.16 USD)	109	41.8
8000-12000 RMB (1129.16-1693.74 USD)	32	12.3
12000 RMB and above (1693.74 USD and above)	18	6.9

Measurement

Psychological safety

The current investigation has incorporated A. C. Edmondson's seminal tripartite scale of PS (Edmonson, 1999). The survey instrument comprises three items that probe the extent to which "members of this organization are able to bring up problems and tough issues," "it is safe to take a risk in this organization," and "it is easy to ask other members of this organization for help." Notably, the ensuing composite construct reality garnered a coefficient of .801, thus attesting to the construct's robustness as a reliable measurement tool for PS.

Entrepreneurial mindset

The assessment of the EM was conducted using the College Students' Entrepreneurial Mindset Scale, a tool that was recently formulated and verified by Jung and Lee (2020). This study employed a seven-point Likert scale ranging from "1" (strongly disagree) to "7" (strongly agree) to measure 19 items, which were then categorized into five sub-factors: innovativeness (six items), need for achievement (four items), risk-taking (three items), autonomy (three items), and proactiveness (three items). According to their report, the Cronbach's α reliability coefficients for the sub-factors of innovativeness, need for achievement, risk-taking, autonomy, and proactiveness were .88, .83, .88, .77, and .80, respectively. Additionally, the reliability coefficient for the entire scale was reported to be .94.

Work engagement

In the present study, we utilized the three-item version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, to assess WE, incorporating the three dimensions of vigor, dedication, and absorption, which are also present in longer versions of the scale, such as the 17-item version (Schaufeli et al., 2002) and the nine-item version, with the aim of minimizing the burden on survey respondents (Schaufeli et al., 2006). Through analysis of five national samples, it was found that the three-item version exhibited a high correlation with the nine-item version, accounting for 86–92% of its variance (Carmona-Halty et al., 2019).

Intrapreneurial behavior

Items to measure IB were adopted from the Employee Intrapreneurship Scale developed by J. C. Gawke with colleagues (Gawke et al., 2019). The original scale consisted of eight items, measuring two dimensions: strategic renewal behavior and venture behavior. Cronbach's α for these two variables received .91 and .87 in their research, respectively, supporting its robustness as a measure of IB.

Results

Reliability and validity

This study used Mplus 8.0 to analyze the research model. The adequacy of each multi-item scale in capturing its construction needs to be assessed for all constructs in this measurement scale. Thus, this research checked internal consistency, convergent validity, and discriminant validity before testing the hypotheses via our conceptual model (Anderson, Gerbing, 1988). First, according to the results of confirmatory factor analysis, this research deleted items and compressed dimensions. Items on autonomy were deleted as the factor loading for this construct is significantly lower (.39) than other constructs such as innovativeness, need for achievement, risk-taking, and proactiveness (respectively, .900, .860, .839, and .914). It implies that autonomy might be a unique construct when it comes to measuring an employee's EM, which is worthwhile to discuss in the discussion part. Considering the confirmatory factor analysis results, it was also deemed necessary to consolidate the two dimensions associated with IB into a unidimensional construct. Additionally, two IB items were eliminated due to their suboptimal factor loading values.

Table 2. The reliability and validity analysis of each measurable variable

Constructs	Items	Est.	S.E.	Est./S.E.	P-value	SMC	CR	AVE
Intrapreneurial behavior	IB1	.832	.022	37.767	.000	.692	.935	.707
	IB2	.835	.022	38.124	.000	.697		
	IB3	.820	.023	35.675	.000	.672		
	IB4	.863	.019	45.332	.000	.745		
	IB5	.864	.019	46.199	.000	.746		
	IB6	.829	.022	37.565	.000	.687		
Work engagement	WE1	.863	.026	33.509	.000	.745	.872	.694
	WE2	.821	.028	29.384	.000	.674		
	WE3	.815	.028	28.737	.000	.664		
Psychological safety	PS1	.700	.043	16.441	.000	.490	.801	.574
	PS2	.726	.042	17.424	.000	.527		
	PS3	.840	.039	21.604	.000	.706		
Entrepreneurial mindset	I	.906	.025	36.611	.000	.821	.931	.772
	NA	.861	.028	31.294	.000	.741		
	RT	.836	.030	28.172	.000	.699		
	P	.909	.029	31.602	.000	.826		

Note: Est. — Estimate; S.E — Standard Error; SMC — Squared Multiple Correlation; CR — Construct Reliability; AVE — Average Variance Extracted; I — Innovativeness; NA — Need of Achievement; RT — Risk Taking; P — Proactiveness. * — $p < .05$, ** — $p < .01$, *** — $p < .001$.

Table 2 elucidates the outcomes pertaining to construct reliability within the purview of this study after item deletion and dimension compression. Construct reliability is a measurement of internal consistency in scale items. Generally, a reasonable threshold accepted by most of the scholars is anywhere up to .60 (Fornell, Larcker, 1981). A stricter threshold was proposed by J. F. Hair, who argue that the accepted value for construct reliability is above .7 (Hair et al., 1984). According to this table, the constructing values of all the constructs in this research are between .801 and .935, which match the above-mentioned reasonable threshold suggested either by researchers (Fornell, Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 1984). Thus, the adjusted scale of this research has good internal consistency.

Table 3. Result of discriminatory validity analysis

Constructs	CR	AVE	IB	PS	WE	EM
Intrapreneurial behavior	.935	.707	.841			
Psychological safety	.801	.574	.576	.758		
Work engagement	.872	.694	.658	.610	.833	
Entrepreneurial mindset	.931	.772	.809	.626	.809	.879

Note: CR — Construct Reliability; AVE — Average Variance Extracted. * — $p < .05$, ** — $p < .01$, *** — $p < .001$. Square root of AVE in Italic.

Finally, the validity of this study was evaluated using the outcomes of convergent and discriminant validity analyses. The degree to which two measurements that should theoretically be connected are really related is referred to as “convergent validity.” The average of the variance extracted is the most common tool to measure convergent validity. According to table 2, the average of the variance extracted of all the constructs in this research is between .574 and .772, which is above .50 (the stricter standard) and matches the threshold suggested by C. Fornell and D. F. Larcker, and R. P. Bagozzi and Y. Yi (Fornell, Larcker, 1981; Bagozzi, Yi, 1988). Discriminant validity tests whether concepts or measurements that are not supposed to be related are actually unrelated. According to the Fornell — Larcker criterion (Fornell, Larcker, 1981), discriminant validity is established if the square root of the average variance retrieved by a construct is bigger than the correlation between the construct and any other construct. Table 3, which contains the correlation between all constructs in this research and the square root of the average variance retrieved, supports the discriminant validity of this research tool. From the analysis above, it can be concluded that the research tool adopted in this research has promising reliability and validity.

Model fit analysis

After the pretest model of reliability and validity, we move onto comprehending the structural model's fitness. Following the suggestions of R. P. Bagozzi and Y. Yi, and J. F. Hair with colleagues, this study summarized indicators to measure the fitness of the entire model in Table 3 (Bagozzi, Yi, 1988; Hair et al., 1984). The result revealed that $\chi^2 = 730.289$, $df = 316.000$, $\chi^2/df = 2.311$, CFI = .917, TLI = .908, RMSEA = .071, SRMR = .049. All the indicators meet the criteria mentioned in Table 4, representing the acceptableness of the fit between the model and the observed data in this research.

Table 4. Model fit indicators

Index	Criteria	Research model
CH-SQR	SMALLER IS BETTER	730.289
DF	LARGER IS BETTER	316.000
CHI-SQR/DF	$3 > \text{NORM CHI-SQR} > 1$	2.311
CFI	$> .90$	.917
TLI	$> .90$	.908
RMSEA	$< .08$	.071
SRMR	$< .08$	.049

Note: CH-SQR — Chi-square; DF — Degrees of freedom; CFI — Comparative fit index; TLI — Tucker — Lewis index; RMSEA — Root mean square error of approximation; SRMR — Standardized root mean square residual.

Hypotheses testing result

Structural model

The current study employed path analysis to examine the relationships between dependent variables and independent variables, as delineated in Figure 2 and Table 5. This analysis focused on four hypotheses. Hypotheses 1 and 2 pertained to the influence of PS on employees' WE and EM, respectively, as depicted in the structural model (Figure 2). Hypothesis 1 posited a positive association between PS and WE. The analysis revealed a significant and positive path coefficient ($\beta = .609$, $SE = .052$, $p < .001$) from PS to WE, thereby corroborating Hypothesis 1 (Figure 2, Table 5). Hypothesis 2 similarly hypothesizes a positive impact of PS on the development of an EM. The data substantiated this hypothesis, with a significant and positive path coefficient from PS to EM ($\beta = .232$, $SE = .068$, $p < .01$), validating Hypothesis 2 (Figure 2, Table 5).

Hypothesis 3 explored the relationship between WE and EM, as represented in the structural model (Figure 2). It predicted a positive correlation between these variables. The empirical evidence, as demonstrated in Figure 2 and Table 5, indicated a significant and positive effect of WE on EM ($\beta = .668$, $SE = .058$, $p < .001$), thus affirming Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 4 focused on the link between employees' EM and IB (Figure 2). It anticipated a positive relationship between these constructs. The results, as presented in Figure 5 and Table 5, showed a significant and positive influence of EM on IB ($\beta = .815$, $SE = .027$, $p < .001$), thereby supporting Hypothesis 4.

Table 5 and Figure 2 also present the explanatory variances (R^2) for each variable within the overall model. The explanatory variance, often represented by R^2 , is a statistical measure that explains the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable that is predictable from the independent variables in a regression model. Specifically, the R^2 values for EM, WE, and IB were .689, .371, and .664, respectively. These figures indicate that PS accounts for approximately 37.1% of the variance in WE (hypothesis 1), while PS and WE collectively explain about 68.9% of the variance in EM (hypotheses 2 and 3). Furthermore, approximately 66.4% of the variance in IB is attributable to the EM (hypothesis 4). These findings provide a comprehensive understanding of the dynamics between these variables within the context of the study.

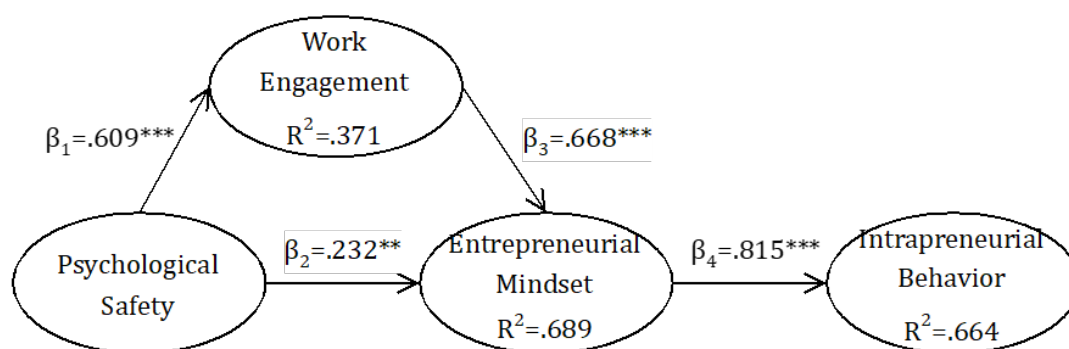


Figure 2. The structural model of psychological safety, work engagement, entrepreneurial mindset, and intrapreneurial behavior. **Note:** Significant at: * — $p < .05$, ** — $p < .01$, *** — $p < .001$

Table 5. Assessing structural model validity of baseline model

Independent variable	Independent variable	Est.	S.E.	Est./S.E.	<i>p</i> -value	R^2	Hypo
Entrepreneurial mindset	Psychological safety	.232	.068	3.430	.001	.689	Support
	Work engagement	.668	.058	11.490	.000		Support
Work engagement	Psychological safety	.609	.052	11.770	.000	.371	Support
Intrapreneurial behavior	Entrepreneurial mindset	.815	.027	30.118	.000	.664	Support

Note: Est. — Estimate; S.E — Standard Error; Hypo — Hypothesis. * — $p < .05$, ** — $p < .01$, *** — $p < .001$.

Mediating effect

This investigation extended its analysis to assess the validity of three indirect effects: (1) the influence of an EM mediating the relationship between PS and IB (hypothesis 5); (2) the impact of EM mediating the connection between WE and IB (hypothesis 6); and (3) the effects of two mediators, WE and EM, mediating the relationship between PS and IB (hypothesis 7). Bias-corrected bootstrapping was used to examine the indirect effect, with a 95% bias-corrected confidence interval for the indirect effect based on 5,000 bootstrap samples (MacKinnon et al., 2004). An indirect association is considered to be significant if the confidence interval does not include 0 (Howell et al., 2020).

Hypotheses 5 and 6 predicted the mediating effects of PS and WE on employee's IB (Hypothesis 5: PS → EM → IB; Hypothesis 6: WE → EM → IB). This study found the influence of EM as a mediator in the connection between PS and IB was significant (Table 7, $\beta = .189$, $p < .05$, 95%CI = [.040, .342]). Thus, hypothesis 5 receives support. In relation to the first indirect effect, the study unearthed that the influence of EM as a mediator in the association between WE and IB was also statistically significant (Table 6, $\beta = .544$, $p < .001$, 95%CI = [.396, .677]). Thus, hypothesis 6 receives support.

Hypothesis 7 predicted the serial indirect effects of PS on employee's IB (Hypothesis 7: PS → WE → EM → IB). The current study discovered that the indirect impact of PS on IB in the serial mediation model through two mediators, namely WE and EM, was statistically significant (Table 7, $\beta = .331$, $p < .001$, 95%CI = [.234, .464]). Thus, hypothesis 7 receives support. The visual presentation of standardized beta coefficients, standard errors, p -values, and standardized 95% confidence intervals associated with the indirect effects of the hypothesized model can be observed in tables 6 and 7.

Table 6. The effects from work engagement to intrapreneurial behavior

Total effect	β	SE	p -value	Lower confidence interval (at 95%)	Upper confidence interval (at 95%)
Total effect	.544	.071	.000	.396	.677
Total indirect effect	.544	.071	.000	.396	.677
Specific indirect effect (WE→EM→IB)	.544	.071	.000	.396	.677

Note: S.E — Standard Error; WE — Work Engagement; EM — Entrepreneurial Mindset; IB — Intrapreneurial Behavior. * — $p < .05$, ** — $p < .01$, *** — $p < .001$.

Table 7. The effects from psychological safety to intrapreneurial behavior

Total effect	β	S.E.	p -value	Lower confidence interval (at 95%)	Upper confidence interval (at 95%)
Total effect	.521	.060	.000	.394	.634
Total indirect effect	.521	.060	.000	.394	.634
Specific indirect effect (PS→EM→IB)	.189	.075	.012	.040	.342
Specific indirect effect (PS→WE→EM→IB)	.331	.058	.000	.234	.464

Note: SE — Standard Error; PS — Psychological Safety; EM — Entrepreneurial Mindset; WE — Work Engagement; IB — Intrapreneurial Behavior. * — $p < .05$, ** — $p < .01$, *** — $p < .001$.

Discussion

In the initial assessment of employees' EM, particularly with regards to the five facets evaluated, it was observed that the factor loadings for the "autonomy" items, as revealed by the confirmatory factor analysis results, were remarkably lower than the established threshold. Given that factor loadings represent the amount of variance explained by a particular variable on a specific factor, it can be inferred that autonomy, which is traditionally deemed as a pivotal element of the EM, may not fully capture the nuances of employees' EM or intrapreneurial mindset. This observation aligns with the findings of Douglas and Fitzsimmons (2013), who also reported that while attitude towards

autonomy positively influences entrepreneurial intention, it exhibits insignificance in relation to the formation of intrapreneurial intention. Consequently, this suggests that the conventional notion of the EM may not apply uniformly to intrapreneurs, possibly due to cognitive distinctions between entrepreneurs and intrapreneurs. Thus, there exists a compelling research opportunity to further explore the unique cognitive characteristics associated with the “intrapreneurial mindset.”

A preeminent discovery from the present study is that specific attributes of the EM can be activated through situational cues. Concretely, this research has pinpointed PS and WE as the critical cues that evoke employees' EM, which, in turn, fosters innovative and proactive behavior as well as stimulates their propensity for risk-taking and need for achievement. This particular finding is consistent with prior research that has demonstrated that engaged employees are more likely to exhibit innovative and creative behaviors (Agarwal et al., 2012; Spiegelare de et al., 2014). Our study's discovery regarding the influential role of PS in fostering an EM is largely congruent with previous fragmented research. Essentially, prior investigations have identified PS as a constructive element in promoting an EM by facilitating organizational innovativeness, achievement motivation, risk-taking, and proactiveness (Baer, Frese, 2003; Blynova et al., 2020; Bradley et al., 2012; Edmondson, 2003; 2004; Gong et al., 2012; Moore, Wang, 2017). Nonetheless, our research undertook a comprehensive examination of these fragmented variables by introducing a higher-level construct, namely, the EM. This novel finding underscores the role of situational context in shaping employees' IB and highlights the potential for creating a supportive organizational environment that facilitates the development and manifestation of an EM.

It is pertinent to observe that in addition to its role as a facilitator of WE, PS has been discovered to function as a catalytic agent or activator for the EM, ultimately fostering IB at the organizational level. This finding highlights the significance of PS as a key determinant of employees' intrapreneurial inclination and underlines its potential as a lever for organizational transformation and adaptation in the face of evolving market conditions. The present study's discovery regarding the pivotal role of PS provides a cogent response to prior research that posits PS as a predictor of WE in quality improvement work (Basit, 2017; Lyu, 2016; Nembhard, Edmondson, 2006). Furthermore, research by R. Kark and A. Carmeli also identified the salient role of PS as an activator for specific traits, such as the sense of vitality and aliveness, which spur innovative work behavior (Kark, Carmeli, 2009).

This study presents a novel model that provides a basis for comprehending how corporate objectives align with the promotion of WE, a longstanding human resource management objective, and the contemporary demand for employees' IB. Prior research has rationalized the tension between measures to encourage employees' WE and managerial initiatives to foster IB, which also necessitate highly qualified or trained employees. Complementing prior research, our study confirms the positive correlation between WE and IB elucidating a clear understanding of the interplay between WE and IB (Pandey et al., 2021). Specifically, the relationship between WE and IB is mutually reinforcing, whereby WE can boost IB and vice versa. However, it is noteworthy that specific mediators exist in these two relationships. In this study, we identified certain traits related to EM that mediate the path from WE to IB. For the second relationship, existing research has shown the mediating role of psychological capital in the relationship between entrepreneurship and WE (Pandey et al., 2021).

Implications

The findings of the current research carry substantial theoretical and practical implications for the domains of corporate entrepreneurship and organizational behavior. Theoretically, this research enriches the extant literature by introducing PS and WE as pivotal antecedents for fostering an EM among employees. This development calls for an expansion and refinement of existing theoretical frameworks in corporate entrepreneurship to accommodate these newly identified variables.

Furthermore, the study contributes to the discourse on the EM by extending its application to the internal labor market. It invites a re-examination of the conventional models that delineate the EM within employee cohorts, particularly by challenging the traditional conflation of EM with autonomy — a factor traditionally perceived as its core constituent.

From a practical standpoint, the study underscores the significance of situational cues, such as PS and WE, in catalyzing the EM among employees. This activation is crucial, as it engenders a range of behaviors conducive to innovation, proactive engagement, risk-taking, and heightened achievement motivation. Consequently, management is advised to cultivate an organizational milieu that not only promotes PS and WE but also actively encourages the manifestation of an EM. Such an environment is instrumental in enhancing employees' inclination towards IB. Moreover, the research highlights the mediating role of specific traits associated with the EM in bridging WE and IB. This insight is invaluable for managers in designing targeted interventions aimed at reinforcing these mediating traits to amplify entrepreneurial behavior among employees. Organizations with entrepreneurial aspirations are thus encouraged to implement two-fold strategies: firstly, to identify and select potential candidates exhibiting these entrepreneurial traits, and secondly, to adopt intervening measures that stimulate the EM post-selection. For instance, corroborating our hypothesized model, fostering a supportive organizational environment that prioritizes PS and, subsequently, WE, emerges as crucial for organizations aiming to nurture an entrepreneurial culture. This approach is expected to facilitate the emergence of EM and, by extension, intrapreneurial initiatives within the workforce.

Limitations and directions for future research

Notwithstanding the theoretical and pragmatic advancements of this inquiry, there remain certain constraints that highlight the need for further investigation in future scholarly pursuits. Firstly, as elucidated in the "Discussion" section, the conventional conceptualization of the EM may not fully capture the intricacies of the "intrapreneurial mindset," as evidenced by prior research (Douglas, Fitzsimmons, 2013; Honig, 2001; Monsen et al., 2010; Parker, 2011). Despite some scholarly endeavors to investigate these potential distinctions, the understanding of intrapreneurs' cognitive processes remains fragmented and lacking in systematicity. Given that the EM pertains to the cognitive orientation of entrepreneurs, the "intrapreneurial mindset" emerges as a novel and pivotal area of inquiry for scholars seeking to delve deeper into the field of intrapreneurship. Hence, future research should prioritize the development and elucidation of the construction of the "intrapreneurial mindset."

Secondly, the present study undertakes an investigation into the influence of situational cues, specifically PS and WE, on employees' propensity to exhibit their EM. Nevertheless, antecedent research has identified additional factors that warrant consideration at the organizational, personal, and socio-political levels. At the organizational level, for example, leadership styles and organizational support are potentially worthwhile incorporating into an inquiry, as these may exert an impact on EM and, in turn, IB. Additionally, individual personality traits such as openness and conscientiousness could potentially account for variations in intrapreneurial conduct among employees (George, Zhou, 2001). Moreover, governmental institutional support could conceivably influence organizational strategic renewal behavior, one of the core components of intrapreneurial behavior, through its effect on corporate entrepreneurial orientation (Shu et al., 2019). Additional scholarly investigation may be warranted to discern other potential situational cues that may function as influential variables in shaping the cognitive orientation and behavioral manifestations of the intrapreneurial mindset.

Lastly, this investigation utilizes the self-report technique to gauge the intrapreneurial conduct and the manifestation of entrepreneurial mentality among employees. Despite its widespread employment in the sphere of organizational innovation and performance research, this approach

has faced scrutiny for harboring social desirability, response, and memory recall biases among respondents during their answer submission. Future studies may also measure these variables through supervisor rating, as this way of measurement is also popular to quantify employee performance and employee creativity (Faraj et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021). As an alternative, the measurement of creativity could be enhanced by integrating both subjective appraisals, such as those by supervisors, and objective evaluations, such as invention disclosure reports, thereby enhancing the research's reliability and validity.

Conclusion

The primary aim of this scholarly investigation was to elucidate the role of the EM, a well-established construct in entrepreneurship research, within an organizational setting. This research further delved into examining the impact of PS and WE on IB, highlighting the intermediary function of the EM in the nexus between PS, WE, and IB. Empirical analysis, employing hypothesis testing on the gathered data, revealed that the EM substantially contributes to fostering employees' IB. This aspect is crucial, as IB is universally acknowledged as a pivotal determinant of organizational performance and productivity, particularly within enterprises characterized by an entrepreneurial orientation. Moreover, the current study discovered that while autonomy is typically considered a cornerstone of the entrepreneurial mindset, it does not appear to significantly influence the intrapreneurial mindset, as evidenced by the results of confirmatory factor analysis. Additionally, the mediation analysis identified PS and WE as vital precursors that activate the EM in employees, subsequently catalyzing their intrapreneurial endeavors. This nuanced understanding of the intricate interplay between these variables provides a richer comprehension of how IB can be effectively cultivated in organizational contexts, offering valuable insights for both theoretical exploration and practical application in the field of organizational behavior and entrepreneurship.

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How is organizational citizenship behavior and job satisfaction today? Evidence on retail companies in Indonesia

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Abstract. *Purpose.* The era of Globalization demands business competition. Companies need to adapt and require competent human resources who are able to go the extra mile by having organizational citizenship behavior. Organizational citizenship behavior is proven to provide great benefits for the company's business continuity. This study aims to determine the effect of compensation, servant leadership, psychological capital, and job satisfaction on organizational citizenship behavior and the mediation of job satisfaction. *Methodology.* Quantitative data analysis was conducted using the PLS-SEM method of SmartPLS 4 software with a population of 103 retail employees in East Java Indonesia collected through online questionnaires. *Findings.* The findings of this study indicate that job satisfaction and psychological capital are the biggest predictors that contribute to organizational citizenship behavior. While compensation and servant leadership directly do not contribute to and influence organizational citizenship behavior. Job satisfaction was found to be a mediation between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior, and a mediation between psychological capital and organizational citizenship behavior. *Implications for practice.* These findings provide practical implications for companies under the need to pay attention to job satisfaction and psychological capital in individual employees because it has an impact on their organizational citizenship behavior, and also need to apply servant leadership in leadership in the company. *Value of the results.* This study provides interesting results that the level of compensation received by employees does not have an impact on organizational citizenship behavior, and this is relevant to D. W. Organ's theory that organizational citizenship behavior is voluntary, discretionary behavior and is not formally recognized and there is no compensation.

Keywords: compensation, servant leadership, psychological capital, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior.

Introduction

The era of globalization and competition in the business world makes companies and organizations must have competent human resources and have a competitive advantage. Challenging conditions require companies to have human resources or employees who can work extra. A successful organization needs employees who can do work beyond the expectations of the organization itself delivering a performance that exceeds expectations, and the behavior of employees performing certain tasks go beyond their obligations (Mahayasa et al., 2018; McShane, Glinow, 2015; Ristiana, 2014; Sedarmayanti, Kuswanto, 2013). Employees not only need to complete their respective jobs according to their job descriptions, but employees must have organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). OCB is a behavior that exceeds formal obligations (extra role) that is not related to direct compensation (Ristiana, 2014).

OCB is one of the important factors that can contribute to the survival of the organization and is important for the success of the organization (Manenzhe, Ngirande, 2021; Winarto, Purba, 2018). OCB has an impact and benefits the organization or company, OCB increases the productivity of colleagues and managers, and OCB is positively related to various measures of organizational effectiveness, e.g., productivity, efficiency, and profitability (Kusumajati, 2014; Podsakoff et al., 2009; Zayas-Ortiz et al., 2015). OCB impacts organizational performance and success and enable organizations to adapt more effectively to environmental change (Podsakoff et al., 2000). High OCB has a competitive advantage and is highly productive for individual and organizational performance (Manenzhe, Ngirande, 2021; Morales-Sánchez, Pasamar, 2020; Salas-Vallina et al., 2017).

Compensation is one of the main reasons and motivations why employees work and why most people look for work (Kawiana, 2020; Sinambela, 2016). Previous empirical studies that stated compensation to be one of the variables that affect organizational citizenship behavior such as (Ardiansyah et al., 2020; Manenzhe, Ngirande, 2021). Compensation is especially important for employees because the amount of compensation mimics the size and value of their work and affects the level of organizational citizenship behavior (Boardman et al., 2017; Manenzhe, Ngirande, 2021). Previous empirical findings show that compensation has a significant effect on organizational citizenship behavior (Ahmed, 2016; Ardiansyah et al., 2020; Manenzhe, Ngirande, 2021). Contradictions of empirical findings state that compensation does not affect organizational citizenship behavior (Kurniawan et al., 2016; Pohan et al., 2021; Utami et al., 2022).

Servant leadership is also a factor that affects organizational citizenship behavior. Servant leadership improves OCB in the work environment (Abu Bakar, McCann, 2016). Leadership serves beneficial to the organization and awakens subordinates to behave in extra roles (Hu, Liden, 2011). Servant leadership makes subordinates go beyond their job roles to exhibit OCB behavior (Ehrhart, 2004; Reed, 2015; Walumbwa et al., 2020). The previous findings indicate the important role of serving leadership in improving employee OCB behavior. Servant leadership has a significant effect on employee organizational citizenship behavior (Elche et al., 2020; Kumari et al., 2022; Mathur, Negi, 2014; Shafi et al., 2020). The results of the study contradict the findings, that servant leadership has no significant effect on organizational citizenship behavior (Prabowo, Setiawan, 2013; Pratiwi, Nawangsari, 2021; Susanti 2021).

Psychological capital (PsyCap) is also known as a factor that affects organizational citizenship behavior. PsyCap was found to be positively related to desired organizational citizenship behavior and PsyCap enable positive work-related outcomes and positive organizational change that benefit the organization, such as OCB (Luthans et al., 2007; Luthans, 2011; Avey et al., 2011). Psychological capital is a high-level human capital need because it helps in dealing with various organizational

behavioral problems (Pradhan et al., 2016). Previous empirical findings showed the result that PsyCap has a significant effect on organizational citizenship behavior (Gupta et al., 2017; Kim, Yunheejin, 2018; Sepeng et al., 2020). Contradiction with the findings states that PsyCap has no significant effect on organizational citizenship behavior (Puspita et al., 2021; Putri, 2016).

Based on the results of the study above, it was found that there was an inconsistency or contradiction of research results that gave rise to a research gap between compensation to OCB, servant leadership to OCB, and psychological capital to OCB. So, the researchers added job satisfaction as a mediating variable in this research. Job satisfaction has a relationship with compensation, servant leadership, and psychological capital. It was found that compensation had a significant effect on job satisfaction (Chang et al., 2015; Purnama, Iqbal, 2020; Winda et al., 2017). Servant leadership also has a significant effect on job satisfaction (Al-Asadi et al., 2019; Farrington, Lillah, 2019; Zhang et al., 2016). Psychological capital has a significant influence on job satisfaction (Abbas et al., 2014; Jung, Yoon, 2015; Wirawan et al., 2020).

Job satisfaction is also one of the factors that affect organizational citizenship behavior. Job satisfaction is a very important element because it proves to be of great benefit to individuals and companies (Azhar et al., 2020; Indrasari, 2017). Earlier empirical evidence such found that job satisfaction results had a positive and significant effect on organizational citizenship behavior (Fitrianasari et al., 2017; Mahardika, Wibawa, 2019; Nurjanah et al., 2020; Pio, Tampi, 2018). Therefore, job satisfaction is used as a mediating variable (intervening) in the influence of compensation, servant leadership, and psychological capital on organizational citizenship behavior.

Researchers conducted a preliminary study through interviews with the owners of several Retail Businesses in East Java Indonesia regarding the retail businesses they manage and used Pre-Questionnaires as additional data. Based on the results of the preliminary study, several interesting things and phenomena were obtained related to human resources or employees who work in some of these Retail. Phenomena encountered regarding organizational citizenship behavior of Retail employees in East Java. The branch leader has made it a rule that each employee is directed to help each other when his main work has been completed. But the reality on the ground, there are still some employees who do not help other employees (low behavior of employee altruism) and especially if they do not match the employee (low behavior courtesy of employees). Employees will only help other employees when the employee is a close friend or close friend of the employee. So the sense of helping employees without paying attention to their basic duties is still low unless asked by their superiors. The employee's behavior indicates low organizational citizenship and a lack of voluntary behavior at work and in helping others.

Nominal compensation in the form of salaries given to employees has not been maximized and has not met the Regional Minimum Wage standards applicable in the area, but only adjusted to the appropriate nominal in the surrounding community but under the Regional Minimum Wage. Servant leadership was obtained from the results of the Pre-Questionnaire process that some employees were stating that the leader lacked service and help, the leader lacked listening and empathy and some dimensions of servant leadership were still low from the perspective of employees. Likewise, psychological capital still shows that some employees are low in self-efficacy, less optimistic, lacking expectations, and lacking a sense of resilience when facing difficult times. Some employees stated that they still did not feel job satisfaction. Job dissatisfaction is influenced by several factors and indicators of job satisfaction, such as not being satisfied with the salary, not being satisfied with promotions, not being satisfied with superior supervision, not being satisfied with colleagues, and much more.

Based on the description above and the empirical findings of previous research contradictions and the emergence of a research gap, researchers are interested in reconfirming previous findings

related to compensation, servant leadership, psychological capital, and OCB as well as job satisfaction. So, it needs to be reviewed and conducted research with the title "Job satisfaction mediating effect of compensation, servant leadership, and psychological capital on organizational citizenship behavior: study of retail employees in Indonesia". This study aims to determine the partial effect of compensation, servant leadership, psychological capital, and job satisfaction on organizational citizenship behavior and to determine the partial effect of compensation, servant leadership, and psychological capital on organizational citizenship behavior through job satisfaction.

Literature review and hypotheses development

Organizational citizenship behavior

D. W. Organ defines organizational citizenship behavior as "individual behavior" that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by formal reward systems, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of organizations" (Luthans, 2011; Organ, 1988). Furthermore, M. Pourkiani define organizational citizenship behavior as voluntary behavior, not a predetermined task and not part of the official duties of the person, and is a behavior that is not valued directly or through formal organizational structures that are not valued (Pourkiani et al., 2014). S. Robbins and T. A. Judge explain that organizational citizenship behavior is discretionary behavior that is not part of the employee's formal employment requirements, and that contributes to the psychological and social environment in the workplace (Robbins, Judge, 2019).

OCB behavior is influenced by several factors according to P. M. Podsakoff including 1) task characteristics, 2) job attitudes, 3) task variables, 4) different types of leader behavior, 5) job satisfaction, 6) perceptions of fairness, and 7) organizational commitment positively related to civic behavior (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Rianti, 2014). Other factors influencing OCB include compensation, servant leadership mentioned PsyCap was found to be positively related to the desired OCB (Abu Bakar, McCann, 2016; Avey et al., 2011; Luthans, 2011; Manenzhe, Ngirande, 2021). Job satisfaction should be a major determinant of organizational citizenship behavior, people who are more satisfied with their work are more likely to engage in civic behavior (Robbins, Judge, 2019). So, it was found that compensation, servant leadership, psychological capital, and job satisfaction were factors that influenced OCB.

Compensation

Compensation is defined as the total of all awards given to employees in exchange for the services they provide to the organization (Sinambela, 2016). Compensation is something that employees receive in place of their service contributions to the company (Kawiana, 2020). Compensation is all income received in the form of money, direct goods, or indirectly as a sign of repayment for services that employees have provided to the company (Hasibuan, 2016). Compensation is an award or reward directly or indirectly, financially or non-financially, that is fair and appropriate for employees, as a reward or contribution (service) for the achievement of company goals (Boselie, Harten van, Veld, 2021; Ramadan et al., 2021).

Servant leadership

Servant leadership theory emerged when R. K. Greenleaf defined the role of leaders as servants (Greenleaf, 1977). Servant leadership is a leader who goes beyond their interests and focuses on opportunities to help followers grow and develop (Robbins, Judge, 2019). Servant leadership is an emerging leadership style in which leaders prioritize the interests of employees over their motives as the most important concern for their existence (Kumari et al., 2022). A leader who serves views

leadership not as a position or status, but as an opportunity to serve others, to develop their full potential (Mathur, Negi, 2014). A servant leader places too much focus on the development and well-being of the individual as well as on the community to which he or she belongs (Shafi et al., 2020). The concept of servant leadership is increasingly seen as the ideal form of leadership that many people and organizations aspire to (Spears, 2010).

Psychological capital

Psychological capital (PsyCap) is one of the theoretical constructs of positive psychology in positive organizational behavior (Gurbuz, Bozkurt Yildirim, 2019). Positive organizational behavior brings positive psychology to the work environment (Gurbuz, Bozkurt Yildirim, 2019). F. Luthans defines psychological capital as the positive psychological development of individuals characterized by 1) having the confidence to take and make the necessary efforts to succeed in challenging tasks (self-efficacy); 2) making positive attributions about present and future successes (optimism); 3) persevere towards the goal, and when necessary, redirect the path towards the goal to succeed (hope); and (4) when plagued by problems and difficulties, survive and bounce back and even go beyond (resiliency) to achieve success (Luthans, 2011).

Job satisfaction

S. Robbins and T. A. Judge have positive feelings about the work resulting from the evaluation of its characteristics (Robbins, Judge, 2019). Job satisfaction is something individual. Satisfaction is an evaluation that describes a person for the feeling of his attitude of being happy or unhappy, satisfied or dissatisfied at work (Rivai, 2010). Job satisfaction is the result of employees' perception of how well their work provides things that are seen as important (Luthans, 2011). Furthermore, researchers give the notion of job satisfaction describing the measure by which a person enjoys his job (Kreitner, Kinicki, 2014). Job satisfaction is the result of employees' perceptions of how well their jobs provide things that are seen as important (Luthans, 2011). It was defines job satisfaction as how a worker can feel his job whether it is pleasant or unpleasant to do (Bangun, 2012).

Compensation and organizational citizenship behavior

Compensation can affect the civic behavior of employee organizations because it is a payment for individual performance that can increase awareness and performance (Ahmed, 2016). Although this OCB behavior is not considered formally and is not recognized in the reward system such as compensation, with the provision of compensation that is deemed appropriate, it will be able to influence a person's OCB behavior. Empirical research has shown a positive relationship between compensation and OCB. Findings showed the result that compensation has a positive and significant effect on organizational citizenship behavior (Ardiansyah et al., 2020; Manenzhe, Ngirande, 2021; Suryaman, Bayudhirgantara, 2020); Suryani et al., 2019; Fitrianasari et al., 2017; Mirsya et al., 2022; Nitawati 2020; Suseno et al., 2021; Susilo, Muhardono, 2021). Based on this, the researcher proposed a hypothesis.

H1: Compensation has a significant effect on organizational citizenship behavior.

Servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior

M. Vondey mentions that servant leadership and OCB have a very strong influence (Vondey, 2010). Servant leadership not only serves the organization as a workplace but also serves followers (subordinates), followers will be influenced to serve orientations like leaders. F. Saleem with colleagues conclude that subordinates who work with serving leaders develop passionate and empathetic personalities and ultimately tend to help and care for others (Saleem et al., 2020). The effect of implementing servant leadership will have an impact on employees' desire to serve and help other employees. There have been many previous empirical findings found that servant leadership has a positive influence and has a significant effect on organizational citizenship behavior (Bavik et al., 2017; Elche et al., 2020; Fatril et al., 2022; Harahap, Dilla, 2020; Kumari et al., 2022; Mathur,

Negi, 2014; Newman et al., 2017; Shafi et al., 2020). Based on the existing empirical findings, the researcher proposed the following hypothesis:

H2: Servant leadership has a significant impact on organizational citizenship behavior.

Psychological capital and organizational citizenship behavior

Higher PsyCap makes employees engage in high extra-role behavior along with commitment to their organization. Promoting PsyCap levels in improving employee attitudes and work behaviors (Gurbuz, Bozkurt Yildirim, 2019). Furthermore, researchers link employees with higher and positive PsyCap will direct extra role work behavior to employees (Gupta et al., 2017; Avey et al., 2011). A high PsyCap will be able to cultivate and improve employees on high civic behavior as well. It was found that PsyCap had a positive relationship with OCB. Previous studies obtained the result that Psy-chological Capital has a positive influence and has a significant effect on organizational citizenship behavior (Beal et al., 2013); Beikzad et al., 2017; Gupta et al., 2017; Kim, Yunheejin, 2018; Lather, Kaur, 2015; Pradhan et al., 2016; Sepeng et al., 2020; Theodora, Ratnaningsih, 2020). Based on previously existing research, the researcher hypothesized the following hypothesis

H3: Psychological capital has a significant effect on organizational citizenship behavior.

Job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior

Job satisfaction is the main thing in determining organizational citizenship behavior, it is mentioned that job satisfaction correlates with OCB (Robbins, Judge, 2019). Individuals who are more satisfied with their work will more easily engage in OCB behavior. Employees whose job satisfaction is met will devote their ability to engage with the organization or company. Previous findings showed that there was a positive and significant influence between job satisfaction on organizational citizenship behavior (Nurjanah et al., 2020; Pio, Tampi, 2018; Darmawati, 2018; Dewi, Suwandana, 2016; Fauziridwan et al., 2018; Fitri et al., 2021; Fitrianasari et al., 2017; Gunastri et al., 2019; Mahardika, Wibawa, 2019; Mahmudi, Surjanti, 2020; Noor et al., 2018; Prameswari, Suwandana, 2017; Wahyuni, Supartha, 2019; Winarto, Purba, 2018). Judging from the previous empirical findings, the researcher proposed the following hypothesis.

H4: Job satisfaction has a significant effect on organizational citizenship behavior.

Compensation on organizational citizenship behavior through job satisfaction

Empirical findings found a positive and significant relationship between compensation and OCB (Ahmed, 2016; Manenzhe, Ngirande, 2021). Compensation has become one of the indicators of job satisfaction itself. Job satisfaction is one of the main determining factors for organizational citizenship behavior (Robbins, Judge, 2019). Therefore, there is a relationship between compensation to OCB and job satisfaction to OCB. Previous empirical findings found and proved that job satisfaction can provide mediation between compensation and organizational citizenship behavior by (Angelina, Subudi, 2014; Dillah, 2019; Utami et al., 2022). Based on empirical findings and the relationship between variables, a hypothesis was formulated.

H5: Compensation has a significant effect on organizational citizenship behavior through job satisfaction.

Servant leadership on organizational citizenship behavior through job satisfaction

Servant leadership is one of the factors influencing OCB behavior. The empirical study of proven that servant leadership has a positive and significant influence on employee OCB. Serving leadership is indeed a factor that can improve OCB behavior in the workplace. Leaders' perceptions differ when their approach is more employee-oriented and subordinate-prioritizing, which inevitably drives sub-ordinate OCB (Isabel et al., 2021). This means that when this serving leadership is implemented, and the leader always cares and prioritizes his subordinates, then the employee's level of empathy leads to a higher level of OCB.

Job satisfaction was also found to be a factor other than servant leadership that influences organizational citizenship behavior (Pio, Tampi, 2018). Findings revealed that there is a positive and significant influence between servant leadership on organizational citizenship behavior through job satisfaction (Fatril et al., 2022; Setiawan, 2019; Wahyu et al., 2019). From these empirical findings, a positive relationship was found between servant leadership and OCB and a positive relationship between job satisfaction with OCB. Based on the previous empiric, the research hypothesis was formulated as follows.

H6: Servant leadership affects organizational citizenship behavior through job satisfaction.

Psychological capital on organizational citizenship behavior through job satisfaction

R. K. Pradhan with colleagues brought up the fact in their empirical study that employees who have high PsyCap tend to have extra-role behavior (Pradhan et al., 2016). PsyCap is thought to foster employee OCB. PsyCap has a positive relationship with OCB (Beal et al., 2013). I was affirm that job satisfaction can be improved through the formation of leadership that serves by revolutionizing interpersonal relationships in the workplace (Wahyu et al., 2019). There is a positive and significant relationship between PsyCap and job satisfaction (Farrington, Lillah, 2019). Job satisfaction was also found to be a factor other than PsyCap which was able to influence organizational citizenship behavior (Noor et al., 2018). From these empirical findings, a positive relationship was found between PsyCap and OCB and a positive relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. Based on the previous empiric, the research hypothesis was formulated as follows:

H7: Psychological capital affects organizational citizenship behavior through job satisfaction.

Based on the literature review and hypothesis development, the following conceptual framework for this study is shown in Figure 1.

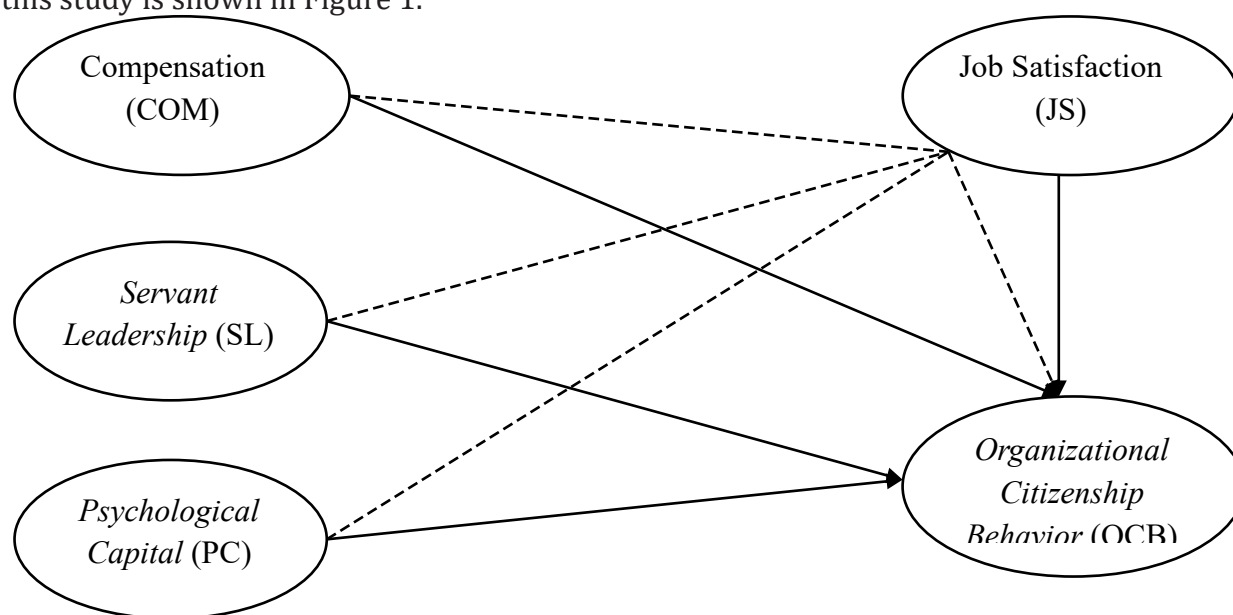


Figure 1. The proposed model for research

Methodology

Research design and research sample

This research was conducted at several retail businesses and restaurant branches spread across several areas of East Java Province Indonesia. The type of research used is explanatory research and quantitative analysis. The population used in this study were several employees totaling 103 people

from the Retail business and were used as research samples. Data collection using questionnaires distributed online starts from December 30, 2022, to January 31, 2023. Data analysis technique using Path Analysis with a structural equation model (SEM) partial least square (PLS) SEM-PLS equation model with SmartPLS software (Hair et al., 2019) with two stages of the measurement model, namely outer model and inner model.

Data analysis

The first evaluation in PLS-SEM is the Outer Model evaluation which includes: 1) convergent validity: outer loading of 0.5–0.6 is considered sufficient and average extracted (AVE) value $\geq 0,5$ (Chin, 1998; Ghozali, Latan, 2015; Hair et al., 2019); 2) discriminant validity: Fornell — Larcker value and HTMT (heterotrait-monotriat ratio of correlations) value $< 0,9$ (Hair et al., 2019), and 3) composite reliability: Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability value $> 0,7$ (Hair et al., 2019). The second evaluation of PLS-SEM is the inner model which includes: 1) R-Square (R^2) values of 0.75, 0.50, and 0.25 indicate strong, moderate, and weak models, respectively (Hair et al., 2011) SEM is equivalent to carrying out covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM); and 2) goodness of fit (GoF): Q-square value > 0 indicates that the model has predictive relevance.

Measurement scales

Data measurement uses a 5-point Likert scale ("1" = "Strongly disagree", "2" = "Disagree", "3" = "Neutral", "4" = "Agree" and "5" = "Strongly Agree"). This research uses indicators or dimensions of OCB and has been used in many international studies include: 1) altruism, 2) courtesy, 3) sportsmanship, 4) civic virtue, and 5) conscientiousness (Abrahams, 2016; Organ, 1997). Compensation uses measurement indicators include 1) salaries, 2) incentives, 3) insurance, 4) office facilities, and 5) benefits (Hasibuan, 2016).

Servant leadership in this study uses a global scale of 14 items (Ehrhart, 2004). This measurement scale was chosen because it has been widely used and validated in previous studies, namely (Bavik et al., 2017; Elche et al., 2020; Jaramillo et al., 2009; Newman et al., 2017; Saleem et al., 2020; Shafi et al., 2020). The seven dimensions of servant leadership are 1) forming relationships with subordinates, 2) empowering subordinates, 3) helping subordinates grow and succeed, 4) behaving ethically, 5) having conceptual skills, 6) putting subordinates first, and 7) creating value for those outside the organization (Ehrhart, 2004).

PsyCap measurement in this study used the psychological capital questionnaire which was developed by F. Luthans, the choice of PCQ was based because it has been widely used and proven valid in previous international research such as (Avey et al., 2011; Gupta et al., 2017; Gurbuz, Bozkurt Yildirim, 2019; Luthans et al., 2007; Norman et al., 2010; Pradhan et al., 2016; Shrestha, Jena, 2021) the growing interest in recent years on psychological capital (self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism. Psychological capital indicators used are the psychological capital questionnaire developed by F. Luthans, the four indicators include 1) self-efficacy, 2) hope, 3) optimism, and 4) resiliency (Luthans et al., 2007). Last, job satisfaction indicators include 1) the work itself, 2) payment, 3) promotion opportunities, 4) supervision, and 5) co-workers (Luthans, 2011).

Results

Demographic information (characteristic respondents)

This research was conducted at the retail businesses and restaurants, with questionnaires distributed to 120 employees, but the questionnaires did not return in their entirety from the number of employees and could be processed by as many as 103 respondents. The characteristics of respondents were categorized based on gender, last education, length of work, and age. Demographics

of respondents from the gender category were dominated by 55 women (53.4%) and 48 men (46.6%). The following are the detailed results of the characteristics of the respondents (Table 1).

Table 1. Demographic information

Demographic item	Frequency (N = 103)	Percentage
Gender		
Man	48	46,6%
Woman	55	53,4%
Education		
High school or Vocational high school equivalent	99	96,1%
D1/D2/D3	1	1,0%
Other	3	2,9%
Length of work		
< 2 years	38	36,9%
2–5 years	38	36,9%
5–10 years	23	22,3%
>10 years	4	3,9%
Age		
< 25 years	61	59,2%
25–35 years	40	38,8%
36–45 years	2	1,9%
Marital status		
Marry	47	45,6%
Unmarried	56	54,4%

Source: primary data processed (2023).

Outer model: validity and reliability

PLS-SEM has two stages of evaluation of the measurement model used, namely the measurement model (outer model) and the structural model (inner model). The first evaluation carried out is the evaluation of the outer model including convergent validity, discriminant validity, and composite reliability. Convergent validity is evaluated by looking at the outer loading value > 0.5 and the AVE value > 0.5 . Based on the results of the initial outer loading, it was obtained that for the items OCB4, OCB6, JS2, JS3, and JS4 the outer loading value was still < 0.5 . Thus, the item must be eliminated from the research model. Furthermore, after the PLS Algorithm was re-performed by removing the item, it was obtained that the COM1 item had an outer loading value of $0.407 < 0.5$ so it was eliminated again from the model. After the elimination of COM1 items, the results of the entire outer loading have been > 0.5 , but the AVE values of the Compensation Construct (0.500) and OCB (0.460) do not meet the AVE value standards > 0.5 . Thus, the lowest outer loading (COM2, OCB2, and OCB3) was eliminated from the model. The results of the final analysis obtained by outer loading have met the standards > 0.5 – 0.6 (Chin, 1999), the results of the complete convergent validity are in Table 2.

Based on Table 1, it is processed that all items after iteration III are declared Valid because the outer loading value has > 0.5 . Furthermore, convergent validity is also measured and evaluated by looking at the AVE value with an AVE value criterion of > 0.5 . From Table 1, it is obtained that all vars have an AVE value of > 0.5 and are declared valid. Thus, it is concluded that the variables OCB, compensation, servant leadership, psychological capital, and job satisfaction are declared convergent validity to be valid and meet the criteria.

The last outer model test, namely composite reliability, was evaluated using Cronbach's alpha value and the composite reliability value > 0.7 . Based on Table 1, results were obtained that Cronbach's alpha and Composite reliability values of all variables had > 0.7 (Hair et al., 2019). Thus,

it is concluded that all variable items OCB, compensation, servant leadership, psychological capital, and job satisfaction are declared reliable. Therefore, the evaluation of the outer model carried out has met the criteria and is declared valid and reliable.

Table 2. Convergent validity and composite reliability results

Variable	Items	Outer loading	AVE	Cronbach alpha	Composite reliability
Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)	OCB1	.690	.523	.816	.867
	OCB5	.697			
	OCB7	.816			
	OCB8	.796			
	OCB9	.673			
	OCB10	.651			
Compensation (COM)	COM3	.685	.571	.769	.840
	COM4	.667			
	COM5	.834			
	COM6	.820			
Servant leadership (SL)	SL1	.778	.616	.952	.957
	SL2	.830			
	SL3	.684			
	SL4	.782			
	SL5	.783			
	SL6	.763			
	SL7	.786			
	SL8	.788			
	SL9	.846			
	SL10	.886			
	SL11	.786			
	SL12	.809			
	SL13	.721			
	SL14	.722			
Psychological capital (PC or PsyCap)	PC1	.725	.504	.877	.901
	PC2	.742			
	PC3	.714			
	PC4	.742			
	PC5	.768			
	PC6	.700			
	PC7	.679			
	PC8	.639			
	PC9	.668			
Job satisfaction (JS)	JS1	.633	.527	.814	.868
	JS5	.562			
	JS6	.774			
	JS7	.827			
	JS8	.738			
	JS9	.785			

Source: processed PLS output (2023).

Furthermore, in the evaluation of discriminant validity, this study used HTMT to evaluate discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2019). From table 2, it is known that all correlation values between constructs have an HTMT value of < 0.9 . Thus, from the results of the HTMT, it is stated that all items are valid. HTMT test results are shown in the following Table 3.

Table 3. Values heterotrait-monotriate ratio of correlations

Variable	Compensation	Job Satisfaction	OCB	Psychological Capital	Servant Leadership
Compensation					
Job satisfaction	.470				
Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)	.622	.301			
Psychological capital	.512	.452	.854		
Servant leadership	.599	.432	.349	.458	

Source: processed PLS output (2023).

Inner model: goodness of fit

The second evaluation is the inner model, this evaluation includes R-Square (R^2) and Goodness of Fit (GoF). The R-square or called the coefficient of determination is used to see the magnitude of the contribution of the free variable to the bound variable. From the PLS test conducted, the following R-Square values were obtained (Table 4).

Table 4. Coefficient of determination (R^2)

Variable	R^2
Job satisfaction	.432
Organizational citizenship behavior	.613

Source: processed PLS output (2023).

Based on Table 5, it is known that the R-Square value of the job satisfaction variable is 0.432 or 43.2%. These results showed that 43.2% of job satisfaction variables were influenced and explained by compensation, servant leadership, and psychological capital variables, and 56.8% were influenced by other variables outside the model research. R-Square 43.2% is weak.

The R-Square value of the OCB variable is 0.613 or 61.3%. These results explain that 61.3% of the OCB variable is explained by the variables of compensation, servant, leadership and psychological capital, and job satisfaction, and 38.7% is influenced by other variables outside the built model. The R-Square of 61.1% is moderate because the R^2 value is $0.613 > 0.50$ and < 0.75 . Finally, from the evaluation of the inner model, namely goodness of fit (GoF), GoF can be determined by analyzing the predictive-relevance value (Q^2). From the results of R-Square, the GoF research model is as follows:

$$Q^2 = 1 - (1 - R_1^2) (1 - R_2^2)$$

$$Q^2 = 1 - (1 - 0.432) (1 - 0.613)$$

$$Q^2 = 1 - (0.568) (0.387)$$

$$Q^2 = 1 - 0.2198 >> Q^2 = 0.7802 = 78.02\%$$

The calculation results obtained that the value of Q^2 is 78.02% and includes GoF Large. The Q^2 value obtained explains that the diversity of data built on the model has a predictive relevance of 78.02% and the remaining 21.98% is explained by variables outside the model and error rates. Thus, this GoF interprets a well-formed model and can explain 78.02% of the variables studied.

Hypothesis testing

Next, testing the hypothesis formulated in the research framework is carried out. The hypothesis test is carried out to see the influence of the proposed hypothesis with the criteria of a t -statistical value of more than 1.96 and p -values < 0.05 then the hypothesis is accepted (Table 2).

Table 5. Hypothesis results

Hypothesis	Original sample	t-statistics	p-values	Information
<i>Direct effect</i>				
H1 Compensation -> Organizational citizenship behavior	-.069	.897	.370	Rejected
H2 Servant leadership -> Organizational citizenship behavior	-.124	1.125	.261	Rejected
H3 Psychological capital -> Organizational citizenship behavior	.646	8.338	.000	Accepted
H4 Job satisfaction -> Organizational citizenship behavior	.343	3.695	.000	Accepted
<i>Indirect effects</i>				
H5 Compensation -> Job satisfaction -> Organizational citizenship behavior	.043	1.103	.270	Rejected
H6 Servant leadership -> Job Satisfaction -> Organizational citizenship behavior	.145	2.343	.019	Accepted
H7 Psychological capital -> Job satisfaction -> Organizational citizenship behavior	.093	2.367	.018	Accepted

Source: processed PLS output (2023).

Discussion

The results of hypothesis testing showed that it was found that compensation had a negative and insignificant effect on OCB. This means that the level of compensation will not affect the level of individual OCB behavior. These findings support the results of research show that compensation has no significant effect on OCB conducted (Kurniawan et al., 2016; Pohan et al., 2021; Susilowati et al., 2022; Utami et al., 2022). These findings are following the OCB theory expressed by D. W. Organ a discretionary (free) individual behavior that is not recognized by the formal reward system, and M. Pourkiani organizational commitment, job involvement and organizational citizenship behavior. The study population included 1276 employees of the gas company in Khuzestan province, and 296 subjects were selected according to Cochran formula. To collect data, questionnaires of OCB Podsakoff et al (1990) with colleagues also mention OCB as voluntary behavior outside of individual duties (Organ, 1998; Pourkiani et al., 2014). Thus, because it is voluntary and discretionary, compensation is not a factor influencing OCB behavior. Employees with high OCB behavior do not expect rewards or compensation from the company, since OCB comes from a voluntary desire to help and work outside of the main job. OCB is optional or voluntary and that OCB does not have to be recognized by the organization's formal reward system (Luthans, 2011). The characteristics of OCB behavior are carried out spontaneously and are not the basis for rewards (Susilowati et al., 2022).

Servant leadership has a negative and insignificant relationship with OCB. These results interpret that the good or bad of a serving leadership style has no influence on an individual's OCB behavior. This finding is supported by the results of research which revealed the results that servant leadership did not have a significant effect on OCB (Handoko et al., 2021; Jaya, 2022; Prabowo, Setiawan, 2013; Pratiwi, Nawangsari, 2021; Salsabila, Berliyanti, 2022; Satiti et al., 2019; Susanti, 2021). Previous empirical findings show that servant leadership is not a determining factor in employee OCB behavior in companies. If it is associated with Organ's Theory that OCB is discretionary (free) behavior, this finding is appropriate because OCB arises spontaneously from the individual without direction from the leader. One of the indicators of OCB altruism (helpful behavior), will arise voluntarily even though it is not the task of the individual, and OCB is also carried out spontaneously and unsolicited (Susilowati et al., 2022). Servant leadership is a leader who goes beyond their interests and focuses on opportunities to help followers grow and develop (Robbins, Judge, 2019).

Psychological capital has a positive and significant effect on OCB. These findings interpret that the height or increase in PsyCap will also improve the OCB behavior of employees and vice versa. These findings corroborate the results of a study found that PsyCap was positively and significantly associated with OCB (Beikzad et al., 2017; Gupta et al., 2017; Kim, Yunheejin, 2018; Lather, Kaur, 2015; Pradhan et al., 2016; Sepeng et al., 2020) the growing interest in recent years on psychological capital (self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism. PsyCap was found to be positively related to OCB (Luthans 2011; Avey et al., 2011). These earlier empiricists have demonstrated the importance of PsyCap to individuals and organizations. R. K. Pradhan the growing interest in recent years on psychological capital (self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism with colleagues revealed in their study that employees who have high PsyCap tend to have OCB behavior (Pradhan et al., 2016) the growing interest in recent years on psychological capital (self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism. A. S. Lather and S. Kaur revealed that it is very important for organizations to invest in developing psychological capital to truly utilize benefits both for employees and also for the organization (Lather, Kaur, 2015). Individuals with higher PsyCap will direct extra role work behavior (Avey et al., 2011). In this study, the PsyCap variable became the largest predictor on its contribution in influencing OCB. Finally, a high PsyCap will have an impact on individual outcomes and boil down to increasing one's OCB behavior.

Job satisfaction has a positive and significant effect on OCB. This means that when employee Job Satisfaction increases and feels satisfied, it will increase the employee's OCB behavior at work. This finding is supported by the results of some research which found that job satisfaction has a positive and significant effect on OCB (Nurjanah et al., 2020; Pio, Tampi, 2018; Fauziridwan et al., 2018; Fitri et al., 2021; Noor et al., 2018; Wahyuni, Supartha, 2019). The empiricism shows that higher job satisfaction will result in higher employee OCB behavior, and conversely, low job satisfaction makes OCB behavior low as well. Work satisfaction describes the measure by which a person enjoys his work (Kreitner, Kinicki, 2014). Individuals who feel job satisfaction will show maximum performance and high OCB behavior. The findings of this study are relevant to what was revealed, that "job satisfaction is the main thing in determining organizational citizenship behavior", it is stated that job satisfaction correlates with OCB (Robbins, Judge, 2019). Individuals who are more satisfied with their work will more easily engage in OCB behavior.

The result from hypothesis testing indirect effects was found that compensation had a positive and insignificant effect on OCB through Job Satisfaction. From the results of direct influence testing, it was also found that compensation had a negative and insignificant effect on OCB. This means directly also that compensation is not a variable that shapes and impacts OCB behavior. This finding is in contradiction with the results of the research which shows that Job Satisfaction can provide mediation between the compensation variable and the OCB variable (Utami et al., 2022). These findings also suggest that high or low compensation has no impact on OCB, even through job satisfaction indirectly. These results show that job satisfaction does not become a mediation or compensation to OCB. This finding was found to be a novelty because there have been no studies similar to its empirical findings.

Servant leadership has a positive and significant effect on OCB through job satisfaction. These findings suggest that good and bad servant leadership will contribute to improving employee job satisfaction and ultimately influencing OCB behavior. These results reinforce the findings that Servant Leadership has a positive and significant effect on OCB through job satisfaction (Setiawan, 2019; Wahyu et al., 2019). Direct effect results in the fact that servant leadership has a negative and insignificant influence on OCB, and it is known that the indirect effect of servant leadership on OCB is through job satisfaction. Therefore, these results intercede that job satisfaction becomes a full mediation between and OCB. Supervision is an important source of job satisfaction, this is measured

by the extent to which supervisors take a personal interest and care about employees (Luthans, 2011). Empirical evidence suggests the main reason employees leave the company is that superiors don't care about employees (Luthans, 2011). Servant leadership implemented by the leader makes employee job satisfaction will be fulfilled if employees feel cared for and the relationship with superiors is well maintained.

Psychological capital has a positive and significant effect on OCB through job satisfaction. These results show that the high or low of PsyCap will have an impact on employee perceived job satisfaction and will ultimately improve employee OCB behavior. Based on the results of direct effects hypothesis testing, it was found that PsyCap had a positive and significant effect on OCB and was the largest predictor in the contribution of influencing OCB in this study. These findings imply that job satisfaction becomes partial mediation since PsyCap is, directly and indirectly, able to affect OCB. This result is known as a novelty because previous empirics have not found the results of exciting research. The emergence of PsyCap theory has focused on advancing the discipline of positive psychology (Pradhan et al., 2016). Chews with high PsyCap are more satisfied with their work, career, and life (Effendi et al., 2021). High PsyCap will increase job satisfaction, and ultimately be able to contribute to an employee's OCB behavior in the workplace.

Conclusions

The results showed that 1) compensation had a negative and insignificant contribution to OCB, 2) servant leadership had a negative and insignificant contribution to OCB, 3) psychological capital had a positive and significant contribution to OCB, 4) job satisfaction had a positive and significant contribution to OCB, 5) compensation had a positive and insignificant influence on OCB through job satisfaction, 6) servant leadership has a positive and significant influence on OCB through job satisfaction, 7) psychological capital has a positive and significant influence on OCB through job satisfaction.

This finding implies two main factors that contribute greatly to organizational citizenship behavior, namely job satisfaction and psychological capital. Individuals with fulfilled job satisfaction will do extra work as feedback from the sense of satisfaction provided by the company, job satisfaction is the main determinant of OCB behavior (Robbins, Judge, 2019). Likewise, individuals who have high self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resiliency (dimensions of PsyCap), will have more enthusiasm and endurance at work and positive thoughts. Positive organizations bring positive psychology to the work environment (Gurbuz, Bozkurt Yildirim, 2019).

Theoretical implications

This study provides interesting results and contributions to existing theories. First, this study reveals that the level of compensation received by employees does not have an impact on organizational citizenship behavior, and this is relevant to theory "that OCB is voluntary, discretionary and not formally recognized behavior and there is no direct compensation" (Organ, 1998). Empirical mention the characteristics of OCB behavior carried out spontaneously, and not the basis for reward (Susilowati et al., 2022). Second, employees are more concerned about the job satisfaction felt during work. When employees are satisfied, the organizational citizenship behavior will increase. This finding is relevant to what is revealed (Robbins, Judge, 2019), that job satisfaction is the main thing in determining organizational citizenship behavior, mentioned job satisfaction is correlated with OCB. Third, psychological capital is very important in increasing OCB behavior owned by employees. M. Seligman explored the existence of a fourth high-level need, PsyCap, which causes happiness and well-being at work (Seligman, 2002). This PsyCap transcends economic, social, and human capital (Luthans, 2011). Fourth, job satisfaction is a determinant predictor for servant leadership

in increasing OCB behavior, employees must feel job satisfaction first and then feel the impact of servant leadership. Fifth, we assume that this study is found as a novelty because empirically no study has been found with the variables of compensation, servant leadership, and psychological capital together influencing OCB.

Practical implications

These findings provide practical implications that:

- 1) companies need to pay attention to employee OCB behavior because of their great benefits and impact on individuals and organizations;
- 2) companies should pay attention to the Compensation provided to employees and provide a salary amount that is close to the applicable Regional Minimum Wage in order to meet the needs of employees;
- 3) companies need to apply servant leadership in work activities because the good and bad leadership style will affect employee productivity;
- 4) the company must maintain and improve the psychological capital owned by employees because PsyCap is very important because it is related to self-confidence, expectations, optimism and resilience of employees at work and is proven to be the biggest predictor in contributing to influencing OCB;
- 5) companies are obliged to increase and shape the job satisfaction felt by employees, especially on the indicators of payment and adapt to established standards and in particular can meet the needs of employees.

This is where the role of the manager (leader) is in making HR policies to fulfill employee job satisfaction, as well as maintaining employee psychological capital so that it always increases, most importantly leaders must start applying servant leadership to their subordinates at work.

Limitations and future research

This research has some limitations. First, including the collection of primary data through questionnaires alone, so researchers can then add other instruments such as in-depth interviews to enrich primary data in data analysis. Second, researchers are further expected to use larger samples and more objects. Third, other analysis software such as AMOS and LISREL with the CB-SEM method. Finally, future research is expected to reconfirm these findings with different samples and objects, as well as add other variables, because there are still many other variables and factors that affect OCB, for example, employee engagement, organizational culture, emotional intelligence, retention, and others.

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Received 10.06.2023



The contribution of interpersonal conflict and organizational justice to counterproductive work behavior and the moderating role of emotional intelligence

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Abstracts. *Purpose.* This study aims to examine the moderating role of emotional intelligence on the influence of interpersonal conflict and organizational justice to counterproductive work behavior. *Methodology.* This type of research uses a quantitative approach and causal associative methodology. A total of 72 respondents (47 civil servants and 25 non-civil servants) were obtained from a population of 256 employees at the regional secretariat of the Bima Regency, Indonesia, using the proportional random sampling technique. All variables under investigation are measured using the Likert scale, giving points from “1” (strongly disagree) to “5” (strongly agree). The questionnaire’s 70 items are presented as statements, like 19 items about counterproductive work behavior (Bennett, Robinson, 2000). 15 items about interpersonal conflict (Bruk-Lee, Spector, 2006), 20 items about organizational justice (Niehoff, Moorman, 1993), and 16 items about emotional intelligence (Wong, Law, 2002). PLS-SEM was used in data analysis with the Smart PLS 4 program. *Findings.* The results showed that interpersonal conflict had a significant positive contribution to counterproductive work behavior, while organizational justice had a significant negative contribution in counterproductive work behavior. Furthermore, emotional intelligence can weaken the effect of interpersonal conflict on counterproductive work behavior and strengthen the influence of organizational justice on counterproductive work behavior. *Theoretical implications.* The results of this study provide additional support regarding social exchange theory, which states that there is a reciprocal relationship as a form of recompense for the treatment of others. This theory is a framework used to understand social interactions and relationships between individuals based on mutually beneficial exchanges. In the context of this study, there is a relationship based on the exchange of resources in the form of emotional support, information, assignment assistance, promotions, and mutually beneficial recognition. *Implications for practice.* People with high emotional intelligence will be better at managing their emotions, so management needs to design emotional intelligence training and development to reduce employee involvement in counterproductive work behavior both caused by interpersonal conflict and perceived organizational justice.

Keywords: emotional intelligence, interpersonal conflict, organizational justice, counterproductive work behavior.

Introduction

Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) refers to a set of deliberate activities taken at work with the goal to cause harm to the organization and any interested parties (coworkers, clients, customers, and supervisors) (Rogelberg, 2007). CWB can happen in both public and private companies, and its effects have been shown to be harmful to stakeholders, employees, organizations, communities, and even entire nations (Mehmood et al., 2022). R. J. Bennett and S. L. Robinson divided CWB into two, namely interpersonal deviation (CWB-I) and organizational deviation (CWB-O) (Bennett, Robinson (2000). CWB-I is defined as an intentional act that has the potential to hurt people or group members. Examples include making fun of, cursing out, or behaving rudely against someone. While CWB-O is a purposeful conduct that might potentially affect the organization, examples include sluggish work performance and drinking alcohol (Bennett, Robinson, 2000). CWB can be caused by several factors such as hostility, negative emotions, personality, impulsiveness, and drug addiction, job stressors, perceptions of fairness, experiences, and group norms (Rogelberg, 2007).

Interpersonal conflict is defined as a mild dispute between co-workers to physical assault on others (Spector, Jex, 1998). Interpersonal conflict refers to how well an individual gets along with other people at work, such as the frequency of arguments and how often other people are mean to other individuals (Spector, Jex, 1998). Meanwhile, interpersonal conflict is a process that begins when one party feels that another party has or will negatively affect something that he cares about (Thomas, 1992). Then R. Ilies with colleagues explained that interpersonal conflict is a negative interpersonal encounter characterized by controversial exchanges, hostility or aggression (Ilies et al., 1998). Interpersonal conflict as one of the factors that triggers CWB shows a positive influence on the relationship between the two, where in conditions of high interpersonal conflict it will increase counterproductive work behavior (Hendrayani, Dewi, 2020). This is proven by several previous studies conducted that interpersonal conflict has a significant positive effect on CWB (Hasanati et al., 2018; Kundi, Badar, 2021). Likewise research conducted that there is a positive relationship between indirect supervisor conflict and CWB (Ma, Liu, 2018). However, different results in a other study conducted that interpersonal conflict has a significant negative effect on CWB (Rahim et al., 2018).

In addition, the factors that influence CWB are organizational justice. Organizational justice is employees' impression based on the fair treatment they experience that related to attitude, treatment, and compensation (Jufrizen, Kandhita, 2021). The fairness of policies and procedures, the distribution of organizational results, and the treatment of employees by management and superiors are all factors that are taken into consideration by employees about fairness in organization (Rogelberg, 2007). Employees with low organizational justice would perform more counterproductive actions compared to employees with higher organizational justice (Akmal et al., 2020). This relationship is consistent with earlier research, which found a negative relationship between organizational justice and CWB (Abbasi et al., 2022). A significant negative relationship between organizational justice and CWB is also demonstrated (Hany et al., 2020). The one study also demonstrates that there is a significant negative relationship between justice and CWB (Al-A'wasa, 2018). Distributive justice, on the other hand, had no effect on CWB, whereas procedural justice and interactional justice had a negative and significant impact on CWB (Zakiy, Hariyanto, 2022).

The findings of earlier studies indicate that there is a research gap in the connection between organizational justice and CWB as well as interpersonal conflict and CWB. This demonstrates that there are additional factors that influence this relationship, such as the presence of emotional intelligence (EI), job burnout, and negative emotion, as some research shows that interpersonal conflict lead to negative emotions, which in turn lead to the amount of CWB committed, then is

was showed that the indirect effect of perceived organizational justice on CWB through job burnout was significant among individuals with low moral identity but not among individuals with high moral identity (Kessler et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2016). The research also explain that the presence of interpersonal conflict and the sense of injustice will result in negative emotions, which will then enhance CWB (Spector, Fox, 2002). This can be explained that emotions can be controlled and CWB can be decreased by someone who has high EI. Someone who has a higher level of EI will be better able to understand, organize, and utilize emotional information compared to those who have a lower EI (Salovey, Mayer, 1990). So that EI can be a moderating variable, where EI will weaken the relationship between interpersonal conflict and CWB but strengthen the relationship between organizational justice and CWB.

The moderating effect of EI between interpersonal conflict and CWB is supported by previous research. Research show that EI weakens the influence of interpersonal conflict on CWB (Hendrayani, Dewi, 2020). J. Ma and C. Liu also revealed that EI weakens the relationship between indirect supervisor conflict and CWB (Ma, Liu, 2018). Then it was concluded that the relationship between interpersonal conflict and CWB will be moderated by EI, so that the positive relationship is weak at higher EI levels (Kundi, Badar, 2021). While different results were shown that social competence in the form of emotional intelligence does not moderate the relationship between interpersonal conflict at work and the level of involvement in abusive behavior at work (Kisamore et al., 2010). Previous study has also shown that EI has a moderating influence on the association between organizational justice and CWB, that is research, where was found that EI enhances the influence between perceived justice and CWB (Badawy, 2022). However, this is different from the results of the research, which shows that emotional intelligence (and its four subdimensions) does not moderate the relationship between perceived fairness and CWB (Devonish, Greenidge, 2010).

Research on CWB and the factors that influence it is a very important thing to do. This is because the negative impact of CWB behavior can result in reduced organizational productivity and harm targeted individuals. Then there is a research gap found in several previous studies, so researchers conduct research related to the influence of interpersonal conflict and organizational justice on counterproductive work behavior moderated by emotional intelligence.

Literature reviews and hypothesis development

Counterproductive work behavior

Deviant workplace behavior or also called counterproductive work behavior (CWB) has been defined as intentional behavior that violates organizational norms and can harm the organization or its members (Hollinger, 1986; Robinson, Bennet, 1995; Spector, Fox, 2002; O'Boyle et al., 2011). Some researchers view counterproductive acts such as theft, drug and alcohol abuse, lying, insubordination, vandalism, sabotage, absenteeism, and acts of aggression as a larger syndrome which they call organizational delinquency (Hogan, Hogan, 1989).

The definition of CWB refers to any purposeful activity made by members of an organization that breaches organizational and (or) cultural standards. Intentionality is an important element that functions in defining three types of bad behavior in organizations: type S (Self), O (Organization), and D (Damage) (Vardi, Wiener, 1996). In type S, bad behavior is self-serving (i.e., instrumental action designed to benefit the actor), in type O, behavior is aimed at benefiting the organization (e.g., misrepresenting company earnings to increase share prices), and bad behavior type D aims to cause damage (Vardi and Wiener, 1996).

Based on the definition stated above, it can be concluded that CWB is intentional behavior carried out by individuals or members of an organization in the form of unethical actions that violate organizational norms so that they can harm individuals and their organizations.

Interpersonal conflict

Interpersonal conflict is defined as the perception that occurs when different parties continue to have different views or conflicts when there is incompatibility between individuals with one another, which usually includes tension, hostility, and disturbances among members in a group (Jehn, 1995). Interpersonal conflict can be said to be a dispute that occurs when the interests, goals, or values of different individuals or groups are incompatible with one another (Henry, 2009). Interpersonal conflict is a dynamic process that occurs between individuals and (or) groups who are in interdependent relationships and is more likely to occur with a variety of situational backgrounds (e.g., zero-sum reward structures, resources rare, etc.) and personal circumstances (e.g., previous history of conflict, interpersonal diversity, etc.) (Barki, Hartwick, 2004). So that this interpersonal conflict can be a very emotional experience, which is often characterized by intense feelings and reactions (Moeller, Kwantes, 2015). Based on this definition, it can be concluded that interpersonal conflict is a dispute that occurs between individuals because of differences in views or interests, interference, and then causes negative emotions.

Organizational justice

Organizational justice (OJ) refers to employees' assessment of fair and equal treatment in certain workplaces (Ghran et al., 2019; Mulang, 2022; Novitasari et al., 2020). Organizational justice is an individual's evaluation of the ethical and moral positions of managerial behavior (Cropanzano et al., 2007). Organizational justice is a person's belief that things that happen, things that are done, or things that are decided upon within an organization are fair (Wiseman, Stillwell, 2022). Organizational justice is viewed as being essential to social and psychological functioning, and people's ability to predict how they will be treated in the future depends on their understanding of the level of organizational justice that exist (Faeq, Ismael, 2022).

Organizational justice is employees' impression based on the fair treatment they experience that related to attitude, treatment, and compensation (Jufrizen, Kandhita, 2021). Organizational justice refers to employees' perceptions of fairness in the workplace as a whole and includes the results attained, the method used to determine the results, and the quality of interpersonal treatment (Robbins, Judge, 2022). In an organizational context, where many employees with different values, interests and problems have to act together, fair treatment is very important (Cohen, Diamant, 2019). This justice will motivate them to work well and be diligent so that employee performance will increase (Mon, Jennifer, 2022). However, if employees do not feel that they are treated equally, they can express their dissatisfaction through the CWB. This is consistent with the performance model of P. E. Spector and S. Fox, who argues that organizational justice is a predictor that can influence the behavior of OCB and CWB (Spector, Fox, 2002). Based on the explanation above, it can be concluded that organizational justice is an employee's assessment of perceived justice in the form of processes or rules, results obtained, and equal treatment at work.

Emotional intelligence

P. Salovey and J. D. Mayer explain that emotional intelligence (EI) is a component of social intelligence and comprises the capacity to recognize one's own and other people's feelings and emotions and use that knowledge to inform one's decisions and actions (Salovey, Mayer, 1990). Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to recognize one's own feelings and those of others, to motivate oneself, and to manage one's emotions well in relationships with others (Goleman, 1998). EI is the ability to manage oneself and a relationship with someone in a mature and constructive manner

(Kreitner, Kinick, 2009). EI is the capacity to comprehend one's own and other people's emotions, as well as the meaning behind them, and to control one's own emotions in a certain way (Robbins, Judge, 2022). Based on the definitions explained by some of these experts, it can be concluded that emotional intelligence is the ability that a person must observe the emotions of himself and others so that he can be used to control his thoughts and actions.

The influence of interpersonal conflict on counterproductive work behavior

This study uses social exchange theory to understand the relationship between interpersonal conflict and counterproductive work behavior (Blau, 1964). Social exchange theory (SET) is the main paradigm for understanding workplace relationships (Chernyak-Hai, Rabenu, 2018). SET shows that individuals develop exchange relationships based on their experiences with others (Cook et al., 2013). In this theory there is a reciprocal relationship in return for the actions of others, so that this interaction is usually seen as a form of interdependence and depends on the actions of others (Blau, 1964).

This SET concept directs attention to the traits that appear in interpersonal relationships and social interactions. This can be explained that if someone who has received services from other people is expected to give the same treatment on certain occasions. If one person reciprocates accordingly, the social reward the other person receives serves as an inducement to provide further assistance and the resulting exchange of reciprocal service creates a social bond between the two. This social relationship is the result of the actions of both individuals, where each action depends on the actions of others (Blau, 1964).

In accordance with the SET on negative reciprocity, individuals tend to respond to negative treatment with negative treatment (Cropanzano, Mitchell, 2005). This is a form of interpersonal conflict, where the existence of this conflict between coworkers and superiors will increase counterproductive work behavior (Rogelberg, 2007). As in research it shows that interpersonal conflict positively and significantly affects CWB (Kundi, Badar, 2021). Other research also shows that there is a significant positive effect between interpersonal conflict and CWB (Hasanati et al., 2018). There is a positive relationship between indirect supervisor conflict and CWB (Ma, Liu, 2018). So, the hypothesis can be formulated as follows:

H1: Interpersonal conflict has a significant positive contribution in counterproductive work behavior.

The effect of organizational justice on counterproductive work behavior

The relationship between organizational justice on counterproductive work behavior also uses social exchange theory as explained in the previous interpersonal conflict relationship with counterproductive work behavior. In this relationship, someone who gets unfair treatment in his organization will provide feedback in the form of negative behavior in his workplace, both towards his organization and his co-workers. The environment in the workplace such as injustice and individual personality are factors that can influence the occurrence of deviations in the workplace (CWB) (Rogelberg, 2007).

Employees' perceptions of superior justice are at the core of organizational justice (Faeq, Ismael, 2022). Employees are sensitive to the decisions made by their superiors every day, whether on a small or large scale, and consider them unfair or unfair. Individual judgments influence their behavior, and if employees consider it unfair, it can lead to work deviations (Mulang, 2022). Then employees will respond to these actions by directly retaliating against their superiors (due to the boss's abusive actions) and employees may engage in deviance by targeting other organizations or individuals (Mitchell, Ambrose, 2007).

Apart from social exchange theory, the relationship between organizational justice and counterproductive work behavior is also based on justice theory. According to equity theory, when employees experience some form of injustice or inequality, they will be motivated to restore justice. Any attempt to balance the justice equation will be considered as retaliatory behavior (Rogelberg,

2007). So that employees will do CWB as a form of recompense for the perceived injustice. When the fairness felt by employees is low, it will trigger deviant behavior, conversely, high perceived fairness will reduce employee involvement in CWB (Badaawy, 2022; Clercq de et al., 2021). Research show a negative relationship between organizational justice and CWB, also show that organizational justice has a significant negative effect on CWB, likewise show a significant negative relationship between organizational justice and CWB (Abbasi et al., 2021; Hany et al., 2020; Nurmalaah et al., 2022). Therefore, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H2: Organizational justice has a significant negative contribution in counterproductive work behavior.

The role of emotional intelligence in moderating the influence of interpersonal conflict on counterproductive work behavior

The workplace is an environment that can generate strong emotions because it is a source of fulfilling physical and psychological needs, where individuals in the workplace will monitor situations, and situations that are considered very relevant in influencing well-being will tend to generate emotions, in this case, interpersonal conflict situations (Spector, Fox, 2002). Conflicts often generate a lot of emotions, and a collection of emotions will lead to anger and include feelings such as irritation, annoyance, contempt, envy, and torment (Burell et al., 2014).

Interpersonal conflict situations that trigger negative emotions will increase the likelihood of CWB occurring, either by actively and directly attacking the agent of the situation (for example, through intimidation and threats) or passively and indirectly coping with emotions (for example, by avoiding work or drinking alcohol) (Spector, Fox, 2002). So, to regulate the negative emotions of these individuals it is necessary to have EI, because EI is the individual's ability to feel, access, and generate emotions so that it can help thinking, understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and regulate emotions reflectively to increase emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer, Salovey, 1997). People with high EI are better able to manage their negative emotions, so they are less likely to do CWB because EI can reduce the effects of these negative emotions (Spector, Fox, 2002). As one research shows, EI weakens the influence of interpersonal conflict on CWB (Hendrayani, Dewi, 2020). EI weakens the relationship between indirect supervisor conflict and CWB (Ma, Liu, 2018). Then it was concluded that the relationship between interpersonal conflict and CWB will be moderated by EI, so that CWB will be weak at a high level of EI (Kundi, Badar, 2021). So that the hypothesis can be formulated as follows:

H3: Emotional intelligence weakens the influence of interpersonal conflict with counterproductive work behavior.

The role of emotional intelligence in moderating the effect of organizational justice on counterproductive work behavior

P. E. Spector and S. Fox also provide an explanation of the relationship model between organizational justice and CWB, stating that different organizational and working situations would result in both positive and negative feelings (Spector, Fox, 2002). A work environment that shows perceived injustice will generate negative emotions, then the presence of these emotions will increase CWB (Spector, Fox, 2002). According to the fairness theory of CWB, workers who are not treated fairly will usually participate in CWB (Rogelberg, 2007). This could be caused by the employee's low emotional intelligence, which makes it difficult for him to control his feelings in the face of perceived injustice and increases CWB. On the other hand, if their emotional intelligence is higher, they will be better able to control emotions, both positive and negative emotions, and this will reduce counterproductive work behavior. The some study demonstrates that EI strengthens the influence of organizational justice on CWB (Mahaiputra, Piartrini, 2021). The same findings, that EI improves the influence of organizational justice on CWB, were also found (Hendrayani, Dewi, 2020). Then another research also shows that EI strengthens the relationship between perceived justice and CWB, where people

with high EI are less involved in CWB even with perceived injustice (Badawy, 2022). So, the research hypothesis is as follows:

H4: Emotional intelligence strengthens the influence of organizational justice with counterproductive work behavior.

Based on the theoretical basis, framework for thinking and developing hypotheses, a conceptual framework can be made as follows.

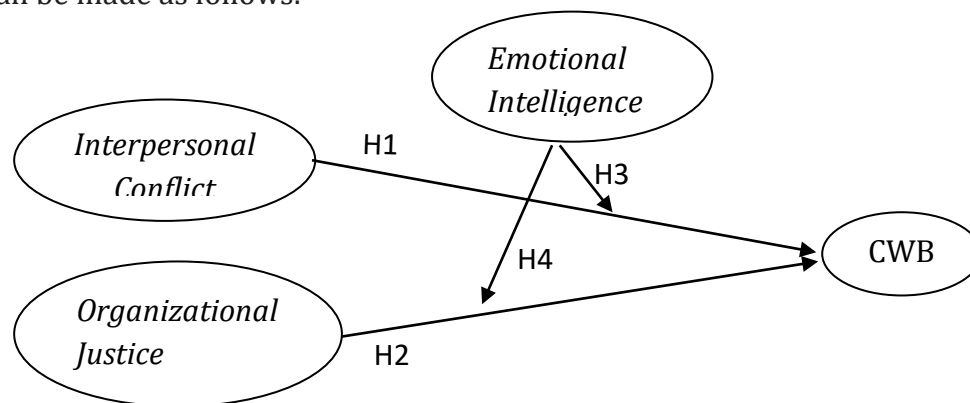


Figure 1. Research conceptual framework

Method

Data collection and analysis

The type of research used is causal associative with a quantitative approach. Causal associative research is a study to examine the relationship between one variable and another (Sugiyono, 2014). This research method relates to the collection and analysis of data that is structured and can be represented numerically (Goertzen, 2017).

A total of 72 people (47 civil servants and 25 non-civil servants) were selected from the total number of 256 personnel at the Regional Secretariat of the Bima Regency as samples using the proportionate random selection technique. utilizing a questionnaire as a data collection tool. Additionally, smart PLS 4.0.9 software was used to analyze the research data implementing the partial least square structural equation model (PLS-SEM). The results of the PLS analysis are in the form of a measurement model (outer model) and a structural model (inner model). The measurement model is used to test validity and reliability, while the structural model is used to test causality (hypothesis testing) (Setiaman, 2023).

Measures

All variables under investigation are measured using the Likert scale, giving points from "1" (strongly disagree) to "5" (strongly agree). The questionnaire's 70 items are presented as statements, like 19 items about CWB (Bennett, Robinson, 2000), 15 items about interpersonal conflict (Bruk-Lee, Spector, 2006), 20 items about organizational justice (Niehoff, Moorman, 1993), and 16 items about emotional intelligence (Wong, Law, 2002).

Results

Evaluation of the measurement model (outer model)

Outer Loading

Indicators of variables will be acceptable if outer loading value > 0.5 (Chin, 1998). Outer loading of this research variable can be seen in Figure 2.

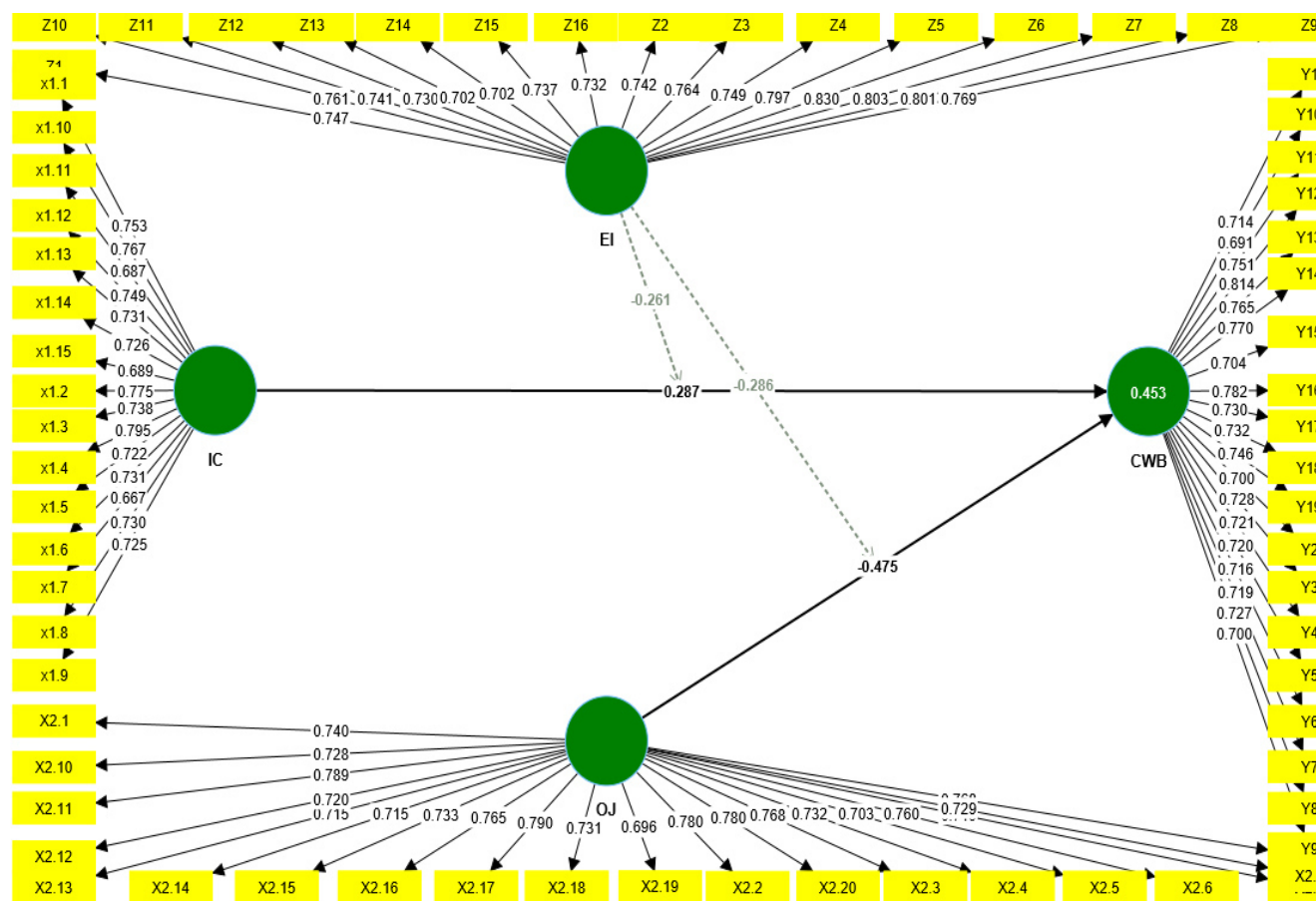


Figure 2. Path diagram model and outer loading value

Based on the picture, all measurement items for interpersonal conflict, organizational justice, and counterproductive work behavior variables have an outer loading value more than 0.5, so all indicators used in this study are valid.

Composite reliability and average variance extracted

According to J. F. Hair Jr, composite reliability values > 0.70 and AVE values ≥ 0.50 are acceptable (Hair Jr. et al., 2021). The composite reliability and average variance extracted values can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1. Composite reliability and average variance extracted

Variable	Composite reliability	Average variance extracted (AVE)
Interpersonal conflict	.946	.537
Organizational justice	.961	.553
Counterproductive work behavior	.957	.538
Emotional intelligence	.956	.574

Based on Table 1, all Composite Reliability value of these variables > 0.7 (reliable). Overall, the items that measure the variables counterproductive work behavior, emotional intelligence, interpersonal conflict, and organizational justice are consistent in measuring these variables. In this case, the AVE value for all variables is greater than 0.5, indicating that convergent validity is met by the level of variation across all items in this research variable.

Discriminant validity

The discriminant validity test describes how far the constructed variable or construct differs from other variables (constructs) and is statistically tested. This test can be done by looking at

the heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlation (HTMT) value in Table 2 and the Fornell — Larcker Criterion in Table 3.

Table 2. Heterotrait-monotrait value

Variable	IC	O.J	CWB	EI	EI x OJ	EI x IC
Interpersonal conflict (IC)						
Organizational justice (OJ)	.227					
Counterproductive work behavior (CWB)	.305	.560				
Emotional intelligence (EI)	.157	.290	.230			
Emotional intelligence x organizational justice (EI x OJ)	.093	.131	.169	.318		
Emotional intelligence x interpersonal conflict (EI x IC)	.180	.059	.137	.249	.342	

The table shows that the HTMT value of all pairs of variables is less than 0.9, so that discriminant validity is fulfilled. This means that the correlation between measurement items in measuring the same variable is stronger than the correlation between items and other variable items, in other words, measurement items are more correlated with the construct being measured than other constructs.

Table 3. Fornell — Larcker criterion

Variable	Interpersonal conflict	Organizational justice	Counterproductive work behavior	Emotional intelligence
Interpersonal conflict	.733			
Organizational justice	-.223	.744		
Counterproductive work behavior	.330	-.552	.734	
Emotional intelligence	-.107	-.331	.257	.757

The table shows the AVE root value of each variable on the diagonal axis, where all variables have larger AVE roots than their correlation with other variables. So that the evaluation of the discriminant validity of the research variables is fulfilled.

Evaluation of model quality and fit

R square

The R square (R^2) value is used to describe the overall effect of the exogenous variables on the endogenous variables in the structural model. The R^2 values are 0.67 (high), 0.33 (moderate), and 0.19 (weak). The R^2 value in this study is shown in Table 4 (Chin, 1998).

Table 4. R^2 value

Variable	R^2
Counterproductive work behavior	.453

The table above shows that the magnitude of the influence of interpersonal conflict and organizational justice on counterproductive work behavior is 45.3%, which is included in the moderate category.

Standardized root mean square residual

Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) is a measure to describe the differences or differences between the correlation matrix of empirical data and the correlation matrix of model estimates. This SRMR value can be seen in Table 5.

Table 5. Standardized root mean square residual value

Measure	Estimated models
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	.098

Based on the table, the SRMR value of this research model is 0.098 (smaller than 0.10). In accordance with the opinion of K. Schermelleh-Engel and H. Moosbrugger a huge variety of fit indices has been developed. These indices, however, can point to conflicting conclusions about the extent to which a model actually matches the observed data. The present article provides some guidelines that should help applied researchers to evaluate the adequacy of a given structural equation model. First, as goodness-of-fit measures depend on the method used for parameter estimation, maximum likelihood (ML) that SRMR below 0.10 is still acceptable, which means that the model built in this study fits the empirical data (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, 2003).

Structural model evaluation

Evaluation of the structural model or hypothesis testing is used to see the relationship between variables, if the value $t_{\text{statistic}} > t_{\text{table}}$ ($t_{\text{table}} = 1.96$ for a significant level of 5%) or the p -value < 0.05 then it can be said that the hypothesis is accepted (Yamin, 2022). The relationship between research variables can be seen in Table 6.

Table 6. Path coefficient (inner model)

Relations between variables	Path coefficient	t -statistics	p -values	Information
Interpersonal conflict (IC) -> CWB	.287	2.886	.004	Positive and significant
Organizational justice (OJ) -> CWB	-.475	4.442	.000	Negative and significant
EI x IC -> CWB	-.261	2.348	.019	Negative and significant
EI x OJ -> CWB	-.286	2.366	.018	Negative and significant

Based on Table 6 above, all research hypotheses (H1, H2, H3, and H4) can be accepted because the t -statistic value is > 1.96 and the p -value is < 0.05 for each relationship between the variables.

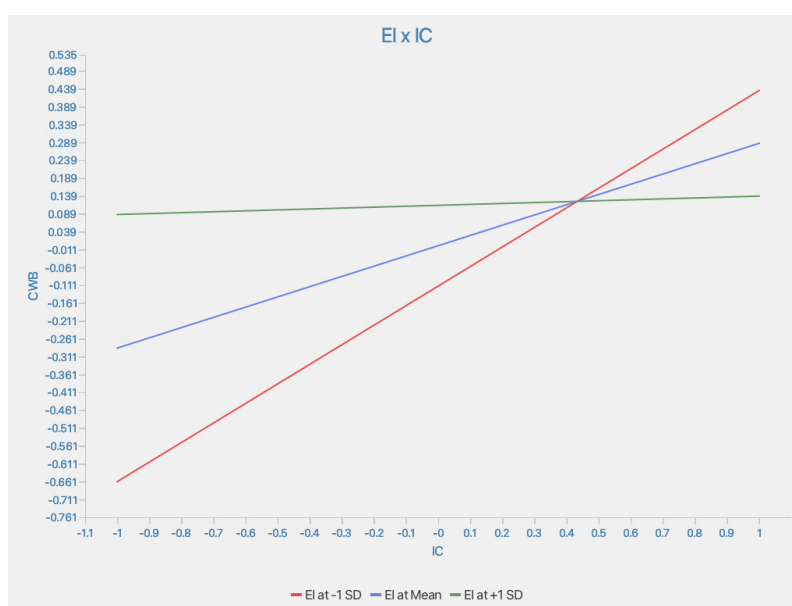


Figure 3. Simple slope analysis graph (emotional intelligence x interpersonal conflict -> counterproductive work behavior)

Additionally, a simple slope analysis graph can be used to illustrate the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the effect of interpersonal conflict and organizational justice on CWB. Figure 3 shows a simple slope analysis graph illustrating the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the impact of interpersonal conflict on CWB.

Three lines with very varying slopes are depicted on the graph. The blue line represents an average (medium) EI level, the green line represents a high EI level, and the red line displays a low EI level. The increasing slope of all these lines indicates that there is a higher CWB relationship when interpersonal conflict is larger. The CWB resulting from interpersonal conflict is lower in those with a greater level of emotional intelligence, as seen by the fact that the blue and green lines have a lower slope when compared to the red line. Therefore, it can be said that EI has the ability to lessen the impact of interpersonal conflict on CWB, resulting in a decrease in CWB.

Meanwhile, a simple slope analysis graph of the moderating role of emotional intelligence on the effect of organizational justice on counterproductive work behavior is shown in Figure 4.

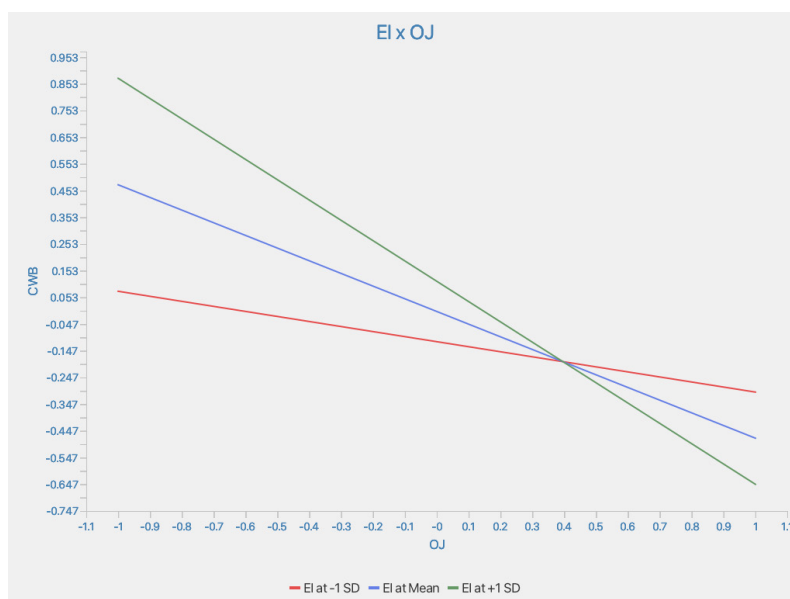


Figure 4. Graph of simple slope analysis (emotional intelligence x organizational justice -> counterproductive work behavior)

Additionally, the graph demonstrates that there are three lines with essentially distinct slopes. The line demonstrates that there is a CWB link that decreases as organizational justice increases, as indicated by the line's lowering slope level. The slope of the blue and green lines is then greater than that of the red line, indicating that people with higher levels of emotional intelligence have lower CWB produced by organizational justice. Therefore, it can be said that EI can enhance the influence of organizational justice and CWB, which will lead to a reduction in CWB.

Discussion

The results showed that interpersonal conflict had a significant positive effect on counterproductive work behavior. This means that the higher the interpersonal conflict occurs, the higher the occurrence of counterproductive work behavior and vice versa. This relationship is in accordance with social exchange theory, someone who gets good treatment in his organizational environment will tend to behave positively and avoid deviant behavior, but conversely when he gets bad treatment or there is conflict it will result in CWB. In this case, the existence of a conducive work environment in the form of low conflict between employees, both colleagues and superiors, can create a comfortable atmosphere at work and increase productivity and ultimately reduce counterproductive work behavior that occurs. The results of this study are in accordance with the

results of research which shows that interpersonal conflict positively and significantly affects CWB (Kundi, Badar, 2021). Other research also shows that there is a significant positive effect between interpersonal conflict and CWB (Hasanati et al., 2018). Likewise, there is a positive relationship between indirect supervisor conflict and CWB (Ma, Liu, 2018).

Then the results of the study show that organizational justice has a significant negative effect on counterproductive work behavior. This means that the higher the perceived organizational justice, the lower the occurrence of counterproductive work behavior. This relationship is in line with the social exchange theory, in which a person who receives fair treatment will also behave well for his organization (Blau, 1964). Additionally, the findings of this study are consistent with the notion of equity, which contends that people evaluate their own rewards in comparison to those of others (Sackett, DeVore, 2001). Contrarily, high perceived fairness will minimize employee involvement in CWB (Clercq de et al., 2021). The results of this study are also in line with the local government's efforts to provide justice to all its employees. In this case the leader assigns tasks to subordinates according to their abilities and the salary earned is in accordance with the rules that apply to both civil servants and non-civil servants. Then since the implementation of the decree related to contract labor for non-civil servants, where an evaluation is carried out every year so that there are several employees who sanctions have been imposed for the violations committed. With justice in terms of rewards, both rewards and punishments that are in accordance with their actions, they have been able to reduce the counterproductive work behavior of the employees of the Regional Secretariat of Bima Regency.

In addition, leaders try to establish good communication and relationships with subordinates by listening to input or suggestions from subordinates in making decisions and trying to understand and solve employee problems. Leaders also treat subordinates with respect and dignity by always prioritizing a culture of courtesy, where young people must respect elders regardless of position hierarchy. High perceptions of fairness both from interactions, processes, and results will be very important in efforts to reduce CWB. Employees who feel treated properly by the company are more likely to feel valued and recognized, which increases their motivation at work and helps the business, which reduces unproductive work behavior. The results of this study are in accordance with research which shows a significant negative relationship between organizational justice and CWB (Hany, et al., 2020; Abbasi et al., 2021; Carpenter et al., 2021) most of the existing CWB research focuses on outcomes for the individual employee. In the present study, we clarify fundamental issues regarding unit-level CWB, including its definition and how it is distinct from individual-level CWB. We then use social information-processing (SIP; Nurmalaah et al., 2022).

Furthermore, the results of the study show that emotional intelligence can moderate the influence of interpersonal conflict on counterproductive work behavior. which means that emotional intelligence will weaken the effect of interpersonal conflict on counterproductive work behavior, so that counterproductive work behavior will decrease. Interpersonal conflict that occurs can give rise to negative emotions, so to regulate these emotions it is necessary to have EI, because EI is an individual's ability to feel, access, and generate emotions so that it can help thinking, understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and regulate emotions reflectively so that they can enhance emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer, Salovey, 1997). Thus, employees with high emotional intelligence are better able to manage negative emotions caused by interpersonal conflict and lower CWB. The results of this study are in accordance with the results of research which show that EI weakens the influence of interpersonal conflict on CWB conducted (Hendrayani, Dewi, 2020). EI weakens the relationship between indirect supervisor conflict and CWB (Ma, Liu, 2018). The relationship between interpersonal conflict and CWB will be moderated by EI, so that CWB will be weak at a high level of EI (Kundi, Badar, 2021).

Additionally, organizational justice's impact on counterproductive work behavior can be moderated by emotional intelligence, which will increase organizational justice's influence and result in a reduction in counterproductive work behavior. The findings of this study support the fairness theory of CWB, which postulates that CWB is more likely to occur among employees who are not treated fairly (Rogelberg, 2007). The results of this study are in accordance with previous research which shows that EI strengthens the influence of organizational justice on CWB (Mahadiputra, Piartrini, 2021). The same results were also revealed that EI strengthens the influence of organizational justice on CWB (Hendrayani, Dewi, 2020). Then research also shows that EI moderates (strengthens) the relationship between perceived justice and CWB, where people with high EI are less involved in CWB even with perceived injustice (Badawy, 2022).

Conclusions

This study strengthens social exchange theory which proves that interpersonal conflict and organizational justice influence counterproductive work behavior. In addition, this research shows that Emotional Intelligence can weaken the effect of interpersonal conflict with counterproductive work behavior and strengthen the influence of organizational justice with counterproductive work behavior, so that counterproductive work behavior caused by interpersonal conflict and organizational justice will decrease. Therefore, it is important for organizations to recruit employees with high levels of emotional intelligence and provide emotional intelligence training and development for employees such as training in emotional management, stress management, conflict management, or resilience training.

Theoretical implications

The results of this study provide additional support regarding social exchange theory, which states that there is a reciprocal relationship as a form of recompense for the treatment of others. This theory is a framework used to understand social interactions and relationships between individuals based on mutually beneficial exchanges. In the context of this study, there is a relationship based on the exchange of resources in the form of emotional support, information, assignment assistance, promotions, and mutually beneficial recognition. In accordance with this social exchange theory, individuals tend to build positive relationships with others if these individuals experience a fair exchange of resources at work. Fair exchange occurs when individuals feel that they are receiving equal benefits for what they provide. The existence of this good relationship makes employees avoid deviant behavior both directed at individuals and organizations such as making fun of, speaking harshly, ignoring orders from superiors, or other negative actions that are not in accordance with social or organizational norms. In addition, the results of this study also support the theory of justice related to CWB. According to the theory of justice, when employees experience a form of injustice or inequality, they will be motivated to restore justice. Any attempt to balance the justice equation will be considered as retaliatory behavior (Rogelberg, 2007). People compare the rewards for their efforts with the rewards received by others for their efforts (Sackett, DeVore, 2001). So that when perceived fairness is high, it will reduce employee involvement in CWB (De Clercq et al., 2021).

This research results that interpersonal conflict affects CWB either directly or moderated by emotional intelligence. These results are in line with previous research that low interpersonal conflict will reduce the occurrence of CWB (Hasanati et al., 2018; Kundi, Badar, 2021; Ma, Liu, 2018). Then the research also states that the impact of interpersonal conflict on CWB will be weakened by emotional intelligence in individuals (Hendrayani, Dewi, 2020; Kundi, Badar, 2021). People with higher emotional intelligence will be better able to understand their own emotions and manage

them properly to avoid harmful deviant behavior. So, individuals with higher emotional intelligence can reduce CWB even though there is an interpersonal conflict that occurs.

This study also found that organizational justice influences CWB either directly or moderated by emotional intelligence. These results are in line with previous research which shows that organizational justice has a negative effect on CWB (Abbasi, et al., 2021; Carpenter et al., 2021). Most of the existing CWB research focuses on outcomes for the individual employee. In the present study, we clarify fundamental issues regarding unit-level CWB, including its definition and how it is distinct from individual-level CWB. We then use social information-processing (SIP; Nurmalaah et al., 2022; Hany et al., 2020). Employees who feel fairness at work can reduce counterproductive work behavior, both feelings of fairness in terms of scheduling, adequate salary, and workload according to employee capabilities (Nurmalaah et al., 2022). Then the research also shows that EI moderates (strengthens) the relationship between perceived fairness towards CWB, where people with high EI are less involved in CWB even with injustice that felt (Badawy, 2022; Hendrayani, Dewi, 2020; Mahadiputra, Piartrini, 2021).

Practical implications

The results of this study indicate that the existence of interpersonal conflict can trigger CWB which then harms both the organization and its members. Therefore, it is important for the organization to prevent and overcome any conflicts that occur within the Bima Regency Regional Secretariat organization. Things that can be done such as identifying the causes of conflict, facilitating communication between conflicting parties, making clear rules and policies to resolve conflicts, and taking firm action on conflicts that occur.

In addition, perceived organizational justice can affect CWB, so organizations need to implement fair policies to reduce CWB, such as: policies provide equal opportunities for employees to develop their competencies and careers, provide rewards or rewards according to their work, and ensure that each decision is implemented objectively and transparently.

The research findings also explain that emotional intelligence plays an important role in reducing CWB caused by perceived interpersonal conflict and organizational justice. Individuals with low emotional intelligence will do CWB more than those with high emotional intelligence. Therefore, organizations need to recruit employees with high emotional intelligence and provide emotional intelligence training and development for employees.

Limitations and future research directions

Research has several limitations that can be developed. First, the respondents of this study were limited to a sample of employees in one government organization. This research is likely to show different results when applied to other organizations or private companies that have a more challenging work environment, so the CWB may be higher. Second, this study only uses interpersonal conflict and organizational justice factors in influencing CWB and the moderating role of emotional intelligence in that relationship. Future research can examine other factors such as career perception, personal background, organizational constraints, self-esteem, and (or) punishment and use other moderating roles such as age and gender. Third, further research can be developed by providing open questions for each statement item. This is useful for obtaining more complete and accurate information on each research variable. Lastly, this study used a survey method, so it is possible that some employees involved in CWB did not participate in this research. Therefore, further research can use the census method so that the entire population can participate.

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Received 09.07.2023



The role of job autonomy and job involvement in work-life balance among the IT sector employees

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Abstract. *Purpose:* This article examines how job autonomy predicts work-life balance for employees working in the Information Technology sector of India. The country's IT sector is a prominent participant in the global technology industry that substantially contributes to economic growth. The sector draws top talent nationwide, making it a demanding and challenging workplace. Employees find it harder to balance their work and life due to fast-paced work environments, long working hours and high stress. This study also evaluated the mediating effect of job involvement on the association between job autonomy and work-life balance. *Study design:* With the help of hierarchical multiple regression analysis alongside R. M. Baron and D. A. Kenny's statistical mediation model, the author has assessed 225 employees working at four leading IT firms across Bengaluru, Kolkata and Bhubaneswar in India. *Findings.* It is found that there is a significant and positive impact of job autonomy on the work-life balance of IT sector employees in India. Moreover, there is evidence that job involvement has a mediating role in the stated relationship as well. Both job autonomy and involvement contribute positively to work-life balance. It is essential for organizations to implement policies and practices that support a healthy balance for their employees. *Implications for practice.* The analysis gives understanding into the Indian IT sector to identify the possibilities of job autonomy in improving the work-life balance of employees through job involvement. This study's findings help HR professionals, academics, and organizations create effective work-life balance strategies. *Value of the results.* This research improves the knowledge of how job autonomy and involvement affect the work-life balance of IT sector employees in India. The study provides a basis for understanding how the psychological aspects of employees play a major role in shaping their positive experiences at work.

Keywords: work-life balance, job autonomy, job involvement, IT sector, India, JEL classification.

Introduction

Over the last several decades, India's Information Technology (IT) industry has flourished, creating a substantial economic impact on the nation. The industry has driven India's economic progress and is a significant source of employment (Singh, Kaur, 2017). The Indian IT sector can be broadly categorized into two segments: IT services and IT-enabled services (ITeS). IT services include software development, maintenance and support, system integration and consulting. On the other hand, ITeS includes back-office services, customer support and data entry. The IT services segment accounts for most of the sector's revenue, followed by the ITeS segment (Joshi, 2011). A vast pool of highly trained and English-speaking people is a significant element contributing to the expansion of

the Indian IT industry. This has made India a preferred destination for IT outsourcing by companies worldwide. In addition, the Indian government has also been supportive of the sector and has taken various initiatives to promote the growth of the IT industry. However, the sector has challenges. Keeping up with the ever-evolving technology landscape requires constant training, and nations like China and the Philippines provide formidable competition (Hassan Malik et al., 2023).

In addition, the sector also faces challenges related to data privacy and security, which have become increasingly important in the digital age. The Indian IT sector is known for its fast-paced work environment, high salaries, and good employee benefits. However, despite these advantages, the sector also faces various challenges regarding the conditions of its employees. One of the significant issues employees face in the Indian IT sector is the long working hours. Many employees must work extended hours and even on weekends, leading to burnout and stress due to rigorous work, tight deadlines, and client expectations (Srivastava, Dey, 2019). Employees in the IT sector are in need of job security. The sector is characterized by frequent layoffs, especially during economic downturns, which can be a significant source of stress for employees. It is also challenging for many workers to find stable, long-term employment since many are on contract (Rajthilak et al., 2022). Work-life balance is a critical issue for employees in the Indian IT sector, as the demanding nature of their work often leads to long hours and limited personal time. This can result in long hours and workweeks that extend into the weekend, leaving little time for personal pursuits and relationships. The impact of this imbalance can be significant, as it has been shown to lead to decreased job satisfaction and morale, as well as increased levels of stress, burnout, and absenteeism (Srivastava, Dey, 2019). In light of this, the present study attempts to analyze the effect of job autonomy on job involvement and employee work life balance in the context of IT sector employees in India. The following research questions (RQ) are intended to be addressed in this study:

RQ1: What effect does employees' level of job autonomy have on their sense of involvement and their ability to strike a healthy balance between their work and personal lives?

RQ2: What kind of influence does employees' level of involvement at work have on the relationship between job autonomy and their ability to maintain a healthy work-life balance?

Previous studies have demonstrated that achieving and sustaining a healthy work-life balance is critical to an individual's overall happiness and sense of well-being (Naithani, 2010; Sirgy, Lee, 2018). In addition, the amount of autonomy that employees are given to make their own decisions on the job can have an effect on their capacity to maintain a balance between their professional and personal lives (Ng et al., 2017). To achieve a healthy work-life balance, individuals need to have faith that their personal and professional lives can coexist and even complement one another, given the priorities and ideals that they have set for themselves at this point in their lives (Kalliath, Brough, 2008). Work-life balance programs are an important tool for helping employees strike a good balance between the competing demands of their personal and professional lives, and it is imperative that employers recognize the importance of these programs (Naithani, 2010).

Work control, often referred to as job autonomy, is the degree to which an employee is granted discretion over how their work is carried out. This refers to the amount of control an employee has over how their work is carried out. When employees are afforded greater latitude in the performance of their tasks, research has shown that they can balance their work and personal lives better (Haar et al., 2019). When thinking about creating a more secure and encouraging work environment, job autonomy is crucial to be taken into account (Parker et al., 2001). The amount of leeway an employer gives an employee in terms of setting their work hours, determining their work methods, and making their own decisions is a measure of the degree to which that employee is trusted with autonomy on the job (Morgeson et al., 2005). Research has shown that job autonomy has an optimistic impact on workers' well-being and enthusiasm; nevertheless, a lack of autonomy in the workplace has been linked to adverse outcomes (Kubicek et al., 2017).

Job involvement refers to a person's sense of psychological identity with their work or the significance of their employment to their sense of self (Lodahl, Kejnar, 1965)). An individual's level of involvement in their job can be measured by the degree to which they feel emotionally connected to or invested in their work (Kanungo, 1982). It enhances an individual's belief that his or her work is meaningful and worthwhile in and of itself. Individuals who are deeply involved in their job will see it as fundamental to their sense of self (Kanungo, 1982). Involvement in one's job indicates how far an organization has succeeded in socializing a person by persuading them of the intrinsic significance of their work. Employees involved in their jobs are more inclined to value hard work and make strategic decisions that foster organizational progress (Lodahl, Kejnar, 1965). There is a one-to-one correlation between the amount of involvement one has in their job and the amount of success one experiences in their job performance (Diefendorff et al., 2002). Work-life balance indicates a state of harmony across multiple spheres of one's life, including but not limited to one's professional and personal responsibilities and other aspects of one's life (Greenhaus, Beutell, 1985).

The optimistic viewpoint maintains that handling many responsibilities can result in favorable outcomes, which suggests that a person's professional and personal lives can become an "ally" to one another. The latter, on the other hand, suggests that managing multiple domains at the same time is inherently problematic, thereby increasing the likelihood of a collision (Greenhaus, Beutell, 1985). It is possible to increase employees' enthusiasm, job involvement, and sense of work-life balance despite the stresses associated with their jobs by providing them with more discretionary decision-making autonomy while on the job (Li et al., 2018). Indicators of a healthy work-life balance include a high level of involvement in one's job and the absence of significant conflict between different social roles in one's life, both inside and outside the workplace (Sirgy, Lee, 2018). Challenges like lack of job contentment, decreased productivity, poor job involvement, and high attrition rate have all been linked to a disparity across the job demands and personal spheres (Lingard et al., 2007). The work-life balance of the workforce has been proven to strengthen when companies provide family-friendly policies and perks like on-site child care (Grover, Crooker, 1995). The core concept behind work-life balance is that one's involvement in one role can positively affect other roles in one's life by increasing one's capacity in those areas such as insight, competence, and capital (Greenhaus, Powell, 2006).

A theoretical explanation that describes how job factors affect workers' psychological state is the job-demand-control-support (JDCS) model (Karasek, Theorell, 2009). The theoretical model recommends that people seek ways to increase their job autonomy. Hence, they have more say in workplace decisions and can form mutually beneficial relationships with their fellow employees, which can safeguard against the adverse effects of stress at work (Karasek, 1979). Deci and Ryan (2000) developed self-determination theory (SDT) which is also a significant theoretical framework in understanding motivation and autonomy. The theory suggested that when individuals feel a sense of autonomy which means having control over their actions, they are more likely to be intrinsically motivated and experience positive psychological outcomes (Gagne, Deci, 2005). The principles of SDT are crucial when examining autonomy in various contexts that contribute to a broader understanding of the role of autonomy in motivation and well-being (Broek et al., 2016). Thus, it is imperative that the presence of high job autonomy at work results in better work-life balance (Tement, Korunka, 2015), whereas with lower job autonomy, there is a negative impact on work-life balance (Grotto, Lyness, 2010). Moreover, organizations have reported higher levels of efficiency, with employees dedicated to their job roles (Dey et al., 2023).

Extensive evidence highlights the complex relationship between job autonomy, job involvement, and work-life balance across industries. However, the IT sector in India presents unique challenges. With its demanding work culture, long hours, and high expectations, employees may feel overwhelmed despite autonomy and involvement. India's multigenerational family structure adds

to family responsibilities, impacting work-life balance regardless of autonomy. Social pressures to prioritize work over personal life are strong among the predominantly young workforce, potentially weakening autonomy's positive impact. While remote work and flexible arrangements offer new possibilities, their effectiveness in India may differ from other countries. There is an enduring void in the academic literature when it comes to studies that present scientific evidence regarding the role of job involvement in mediating the connection between job autonomy and work-life balance for employees working in the IT industry in India. This research aims to analyze job autonomy's impact on work-life balance and to look into the role that job involvement plays as a mediator between job autonomy and work-life balance. The findings of this paper add to the growing body of research by expanding theoretical and practical knowledge of the connection between job autonomy and job involvement towards work-life balance in the frame of reference of India's IT sector.

Research methodology

The information utilized in this study was gathered from the employees of select IT giants in Bengaluru, Kolkata, and Bhubaneswar. A snowball sampling technique was used to survey the individuals working in these organizations in the roles of "Software Developers" and "Quality Analysts." The questionnaire was distributed in a format that was accessible online, and the participants' responses were kept confidential. There was a supporting document that was included in the questionnaire as well detailing the research title, research goals, and ethical obligations were stated. In total, 270 questionnaires were dispatched for the response, of which 243 were received back. After removing the ones that were missing necessary information, the remaining 225 questionnaires were chosen for further examination. This research study used a questionnaire divided into four sections for its data collection. The initial section focused on the demographic characteristics of the respondents, including their age, gender, and marital status. The second component was about the aspect of job autonomy. The component was measured using a three-item measuring scale based on the one developed by (Voydanoff, 2004). The third part was related to job involvement which was analyzed with the help of a four-item measuring scale adapted by (Singh, Gupta, 2015). The final part of the questionnaire was about work-life balance that is evaluated using a four-item scale created by P. Bérastégui (Bérastégui, 2021). The reliability of the constructs used in the study is analyzed by Cronbach's Alpha (α). All these predictor and response dimensions had fair values on the reliability scale, i.e., job autonomy ($\alpha = 0.84$), job involvement ($\alpha = 0.74$) and work-life balance ($\alpha = 0.83$). The fact that the obtained reliability values are higher than 0.6 demonstrates that the variables used in the study are highly reliable and can be analyzed in greater depth (Malhotra, Birks, 2007). The choice of shorter scales in the present study is influenced by the characteristics of the study population (Rammstedt, Beierlein, 2014).

As the IT professionals in India have a busy work-life, shorter scales were adopted to enhance participation and response rates. The selected scales have all been previously validated for their reliability and validity. The short scales are deemed sufficient if they align closely with the specific objectives of the study, allowing for a more targeted investigation (Ziegler et al., 2014). In this study, job autonomy is considered to be the independent variable (X), job involvement is deemed to be the mediating variable (M), and work-life balance is taken into account to be the dependent variable (Y). The Likert scale, with its five points, was used to measure the variables involved in the study, and a binary scale is used to evaluate the demographic characteristics of the respondents. The foremost objective of this research study is to investigate the influence that job autonomy has on employees' work-life balance, with job involvement as a mediating variable. The following hypotheses are tested in the research:

H1: There is an association that can be described as both positive and significant between job autonomy and employees' work-life balance.

H2: There is a relation that is both positive and significant between one's level of job autonomy and the job involvement one has in their work.

H3: There is a positive connection that can be characterized as also significant across job involvement and having a healthy work-life balance.

H4: The connection between one's level of job autonomy and one's ability to maintain a healthy work-life balance is mediated by one's level of involvement in their job.

The model developed by R. M. Baron and D. A. Kenny was utilized in this research to perform a regression analysis to test whether or not mediation was present (Baron, Kenny, 1986). The authors suggested the following four steps confirm the requirements of a mediation relationship.

Step I. Perform a regression analysis, with the independent variable (X) as a predictor for the dependent variable (Y), with the sole intention of identifying path *c*.

Step II. Perform a regression analysis, with the independent variable (X) as the indicator for mediating variable (M), to locate path *a*.

Step III. Perform a regression analysis, with mediating variable (M) as a determinant for the dependent variable (Y), with the motive of determining path *b*.

Step IV. Perform multiple regression analysis, with the independent variable (X) and mediating variable (M) representing a predictor for the dependent variable (Y), to analyze path *c'*.

Following are the equations constructed based on the present study using the method described above, as was suggested (Hayes, Preacher, 2014). Figure 1 provides a visual representation of the research framework model that has been proposed.

$$\text{Job involvement} = \text{intercept1} + a (\text{Job autonomy}) + e1 \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Work-life balance} = \text{intercept2} + c' (\text{Job autonomy}) + b (\text{Job involvement}) + e2 \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Work-life balance} = \text{intercept3} + c (\text{Job autonomy}) + e3 \quad (3)$$

$$c = c' + ab \quad (4)$$

Here, *a* stands for the indirect effect that job autonomy has on job involvement, *b* stands for the indirect effect that job involvement has on work-life balance, *c'* stands for the direct effect that job autonomy has on work-life balance, and *c* stands for the total effect that job autonomy has on work-life balance. The sum of the direct and indirect effects must equal the magnitude of the total effect (Baron, Kenny, 1986). In order to analyze the data, SPSS version 25 is used.

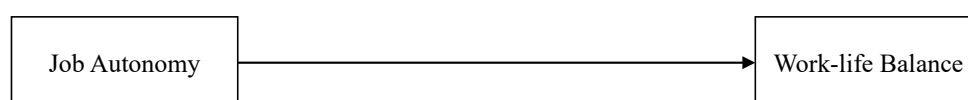


Figure 1 (a). Research framework model illustrating the relation between the job autonomy and work-life balance. *c* stands for the total effect that job autonomy has on work-life balance.

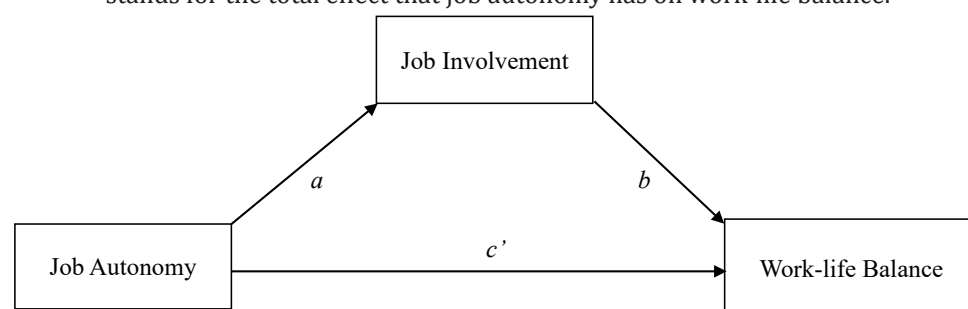


Figure 1 (b). Research framework model illustrating the relation between job autonomy, job involvement and work-life balance. *a* stands for the indirect effect that job autonomy has on job involvement, *b* stands for the indirect effect that job involvement has on work-life balance and *c'* stands for the direct effect that job autonomy has on work-life balance.

Findings and discussion

The respondents' demographic information is presented in Table 1, which contains the relevant data. According to the collected data, the vast majority of the workforce comprises individuals under 30 who are male and single.

Table 1. Demographic attributes

Attributes	Frequency	Percentage
<i>Age</i>		
Under 30	137	60.9
Above 30	88	39.1
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	169	75.1
Female	56	24.9
<i>Marital status</i>		
Unmarried	144	64
Married	81	36

Source: Authors' calculations using primary data.

To begin, the Pearson correlation coefficient (r) is utilized to ascertain the degree to which the variables investigated in the study were linked to one another. The correlation test revealed a positive and significant association between the employees' job autonomy and their ability to maintain a healthy work-life balance in the employees, $r(223) = 0.43$, $p < 0.001$. In addition, the relationship between job autonomy and job involvement is positively significant, with $r(223) = 0.55$, $p < 0.001$. The correlation between being involved in one's job and having a healthy work-life balance was found to be significant and positive, with $r(223) = 0.53$, $p < 0.001$. It is notable that the values of the correlation coefficient of the variables in our research are closer to +1, which indicates the existence of a strong linear link between the variables (Kirch, 2008). This was found to be the case when comparing the correlation values of the variables.

After that, the descriptive statistics of these variables are assessed, presented in Table II. The findings regarding the central tendency indicate that there are relatively high mean values for job autonomy, job involvement, and work-life balance, with those values amounting to 3.68, 3.45, and 3.21, respectively. It indicates that the individuals who provided their responses are in accordance with the questions posed to measure the variable. Additionally, when measuring the dispersion among the variables, the standard deviation values for job autonomy, job involvement, and work-life balance are correspondingly 0.84, 0.77, and 0.85. These values can be found in Table 2. The standard deviation values allow one to deduce that the data are densely concentrated around the mean and are, therefore, more reliable. This can be inferred from the fact that the standard deviation is relatively small.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics

Measures	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Job autonomy	225	3.68	.84
Job involvement	225	3.45	.72
Work-life balance	225	3.21	.85

Note(s): *N* — number of respondents, *SD* — standard deviation. **Source:** Authors' calculations using primary data.

Then, we validated our hypothesis by putting it through its paces using the methodology outlined by R. M. Baron and D. A. Kenny (Baron, Kenny, 1986). In the first part of the analysis, hypothesis *H1* is examined. This hypothesis postulates that there is a connection between job autonomy and the work-life balance of employees, which is not only positive but also significant. The model summary results for this association denoted by *c*, are presented in Table 3, which is based on the research framework that has been designed. It is found that job involvement accounts for 19% of the variance in terms of work-life balance. It has been determined that the standardized coefficient of 0.43 is both positive and highly significant, with $\alpha, p < 0.001$. This confirms that job autonomy favors work-life balance, so the *H1* hypothesis can be accepted. The regression equation is described in the following.

$$\text{Work-life balance} = 1.59 + 0.43 (\text{Job autonomy}) + e3 \quad (5)$$

Table 3. Model Summary for the relationship *c*

Relationship	R^2	Constant	β
Job autonomy $\rightarrow$ Work-life balance	.19	1.59	.43**

Note(s): R^2 — proportion of variance, β — standardized coefficient, ** $p < 0.001$. **Source:** Authors' calculations using primary data.

The next step executed is about testing hypothesis *H2*. It states that there is a positive and significant relationship between an individual's level of job autonomy and the level of job involvement they have in their work. Table 4 demonstrates, in accordance with the research framework, the model summary results of the association indicated by *a*. According to the findings, job autonomy is responsible for 30% of the variation that is present in terms of job involvement. It has been determined that the standardized coefficient of 0.54 is not only positive but also highly significant, with $\alpha, p < 0.001$. This substantiates the hypothesis that greater job autonomy is correlated with higher levels of job involvement; consequently, the *H2* hypothesis can be approved. The following outlines the regression equation.

$$\text{Job involvement} = 1.61 + 0.54 (\text{Job autonomy}) + e1 \quad (6)$$

Table 4. Model Summary for the relationship *a*

Relationship	R^2	Constant	β
Job autonomy $\rightarrow$ Job involvement	.30	1.61	.54**

Note(s): R^2 — proportion of variance, β — standardized coefficient, ** $p < 0.001$. **Source:** Authors' calculations using primary data.

The subsequent step is the testing of hypotheses *H3* and *H4*. According to *H3*, there is a positive connection that can be described as significant across job involvement and a healthy work-life balance. The relationship is represented by *b* in the research framework. The information regarding the results obtained can be found in Table 5. Based on the findings; job involvement accounts for 31% of the variation that can be found in contexts of a person's ability to maintain a healthy balance between their professional and personal lives. Not only has it been determined that the standardized coefficient of 0.42 is positive, but it is also highly significant, with $\alpha, p < 0.001$. This supports the hypothesis that higher job involvement is linked to increased degrees of work-life balance; as a result, the *H3* hypothesis can be accepted. Additionally, according to hypothesis, *H4*, there is a connection between an individual's level of job autonomy and their capacity to maintain a healthy work-life balance, which is mediated by an individual's level of involvement in their job. According to the research framework, the association is indicated by *c'*. The information regarding the results that were obtained can be found in Table V. The findings suggest that job involvement is responsible for 31% of the variation in the relationship between job autonomy and work-life balance. The standardized coefficient of 0.21 is shown to be both positive and highly significant, with $\alpha, p < 0.001$.

This supports the hypothesis that job involvement mediates the linkage between job autonomy and work-life balance; as a result, the *H4* hypothesis can be accepted. The equation for regression, using *H3* and *H4* as the independent variables, is depicted in the layout below.

$$\text{Work-life balance} = 0.86 + 0.21 (\text{Job autonomy}) + 0.42 (\text{Job involvement}) + e2 \quad (7)$$

Table 5. Model Summary for the relationship *b* and *c'*

Relationship	<i>R</i> ²	Constant	β
Job involvement → Work-life balance	.31	.86	.42**
Job autonomy → Job involvement → Work-life balance	.31	.86	.21**

Note(s): *R*² — proportion of variance, β — standardized coefficient, ***p* < 0.001. **Source:** Authors' calculations using primary data.

Using the equations (5), (6), (7), the approach was verified (Baron, Kenny, 1986).

Total contribution of job autonomy to work-life balance (*c*) = 0.43

Direct contribution of job autonomy to work-life balance (*c'*) = 0.21

Indirect contribution of job autonomy to job involvement (*a*) = 0.54

Indirect contribution of job involvement to work-life balance (*b*) = 0.42

The criteria to ascertain the existence of mediation in the model using the regression equations obtained is $c = c' + ab$ (Hayes, Preacher, 2014). This condition is ascertained in the context of our model and it can be inferred that job involvement acts as a mediating factor in the relation between job autonomy and work-life balance. Moreover, it is found that all the relationships amongst the variables are significant and the influence of independent variables is lower when the mediating variable is controlled. Thus, our model has the condition of partial mediation (Hayes, Preacher, 2014). Although the majority of the respondents are male, the author didn't find any difference in terms of gender when it comes to work-life balance in the IT sector. This is attributed to the fact that irrespective of gender, members are subjected to similar working conditions. Therefore, it can be said that work-life balance is largely a gender-neutral concept which is in line with past studies (Akanni, Oduaran, 2017; Shakya, 2023).

Conclusion and implications

Our findings are consistent, to a significant extent, with those of previous research that looked into a similar theme and found that the degree of job autonomy an employee has influenced both their level of job involvement. Furthermore, in turn, how well employees manage their time between work and their personal lives (Naithani, 2010; Sirgy, Lee, 2018). The research study outcomes are also in alignment with the JDCS model (Karasek, Theorell, 2009). The employees value the opportunity for job autonomy, seek out roles in workplace decision-making, and seek out opportunities to interact with their coworkers, all of which enable them to deal with the demands of their jobs (Karasek, 1979). According to the study, job autonomy and a healthy balance between work and personal life are positively related (Tement, Korunka, 2015; Grotto, Lyness, 2010). It is possible to draw the conclusion that job autonomy has a significant impact on the degree to which employees are involved in their work and maintain a healthy balance between their lives at home and work (Ng et al., 2017). The process of mediation is one that can be immensely valuable and influential in statistical testing. It is still the most common type of analysis that is carried out based on what is postulated (Baron, Kenny, 1986). The study found evidence to support the presence of partial mediation. It indicated that there is a significant relation among all of the constructs that were used in the study. Job autonomy influences both job engagement and employees' work-life balance, while

job involvement also influences employees' work-life balance. Additionally, it indicated that there is a significant relation among all the constructs that were used in the study (Haar et al., 2019).

Limitations of the study

While the study acknowledges limitations, it offers valuable insights for future researchers. The sample size may restrict generalizability, urging future researchers to use a larger and more diverse sample. The usage of self-report measures introduces potential response bias (Smith, 2004). Hence, suggesting the future researchers to explore more comprehensive instruments for a thorough evaluation. The findings may be context-specific that may limit direct applicability to other industries or regions. The lack of demographic diversity prompts future studies to aim for a more heterogeneous participant pool. Social desirability bias could also have an impact on the self-reported data accuracy (Chung, Monroe, 2003). Therefore, future researchers should include objective measures and a broader range of factors influencing work-life balance.

India's IT industry is one of the most lucrative and competitive in the world. However, there has been a notable amount of employee turnover in the industry. This imbalance has been documented to lead to decreased levels of job satisfaction and morale and increased stress, fatigue, and absenteeism. The repercussions of this imbalance can be substantial due to these factors (Srivastava, Dey, 2019). When compared to workers in other sectors in India, those employed in this industry face a greater level of job insecurity due to the nature of their work (Rajthilak et al., 2022). As a result, the company needs to consider how compensation affects the overall health and happiness of its workforce in addition to these factors. Employee well-being in an organization can be broken down into several categories, including job autonomy, job involvement, and a healthy balance between work and personal life. These are only possible if there is support from management.

The study's findings provided convincing evidence in favor of the hypothesis that job involvement has a mediation effect between job autonomy and work-life balance. The research study contributes significantly to our understanding of the factors that influence the health and happiness of workers. India's information technology industry needs to take action in this area to promote the happiness and well-being of its workforce. Also, the employees working in the Indian IT sector across gender reported a similar attitude towards work-life balance. The present research's findings are consistent with those found in previous research. However, considering these factors, this is only one of a handful of studies conducted in India against the IT industry. The subsequent research in this field needs to focus on incorporating a more significant number of different variables and utilizing a greater variety of sample sizes across a wider geographical area.

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Received 01.07.2023



ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Family career: Nature, basis for typology, and methods of support in professional and family self-determination

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Annotation. *Purpose.* The article substantiates the independent status of «family career» on the basis of considering the activities of family members as a special work. Using examples, it is shown that labor and family activity have a lot in common, and most importantly, the methodology of labor activity analysis itself is quite applicable to the analysis of family activity (in terms of subject, goals, means, conditions, responsibility). *Methodology.* But if we compare family and professional activities, then despite some similarities, there are also significant differences. Family relationships are usually based on more pronounced intimate and personal attachments, which is not typical for professional activity in general. A generalized model reflecting the importance of different spheres of life for family and personal happiness and success is proposed. *Results.* On the basis of this model, the consultative methodology «Family Career» is proposed, which makes it possible to determine «points of convergence», «points of repulsion» and «points of balance», reflecting the different attitudes of family members to the choice of certain priority areas of life by other members. According to the agreement or disagreement of these points, it is possible to clarify the problems of a particular family and look for ways to harmonize and even reciprocate family relations. Variants of the possible correlation of types of families and types of careers are shown. *Value of results.* The article also highlights different grounds for the typology of «family careers», and on some grounds, suggests possible types of such careers. At the end of the article, the options for practical assistance to family members who are trying to self-determine in choosing the preferred type of «family career» that is most suitable for this stage of their development are considered.

Keywords: family career; balance, harmonization of family and career; a basis for a typology of family careers.

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Received 26.04.2024



ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Economic ethnopsychology and isomorphism as sources of resources for organizing communities and institutions of a multipolar world

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Abstract. In the history of mankind, self-organizing associations and communities have played a significant role, according to their psychological, economic and ethno-cultural orientation (identity, hospitality, exchanges of goods and products, cooperation), some of which can be attributed to the “forerunners” of organizations in the multipolar world. Thus, the phenomenon of “multipolarity” has been found since ancient times not only in European territories, but also in India, China, the Near and Middle East. Moreover, in different countries, the desire for self-sufficiency, for “autarky” — i.e., the policy of economic isolation of a separate collective economic “subject” — was a priority in the psychology of any “policy”. Later, having complicated themselves with national attributes, some of them became the center states of a multipolar world. The system-forming factor of most communities in the multipolar world, from the point of view of organizational, economic and cross-cultural psychology, is interethnic cooperation, which, based on the cybernetic approach and the basic category of “activity”, allows consideration from the standpoint of the concept of isomorphism, demonstrating specific connections and dependencies between known phenomena: personality, group, norms, self-awareness, etc. In this article, as the goals and objectives of the analysis of the multipolar world, isomorphic parameters of such phenomena as identity (and varying from the science and practice of indigenization, to the recognition and acceptance of different degrees and proportions of external and internal polyethnicity) are considered; a combination of innovative and residual (“embryonic” in J. Moreno) social structures; which are the basis for effective feedback. Adequate autostereotypes and heterostereotypes are connected, as well as newly developed criteria for evaluating the parameters of a multipolar world. The functioning of a multipolar world has intercultural competence as its main “tool”, which is primarily significant in that it lends itself to purposeful formation and requires the organization of appropriate measures through education and upbringing.

Keywords: identity, indigeneity, multiculturalism, pluralism, residual structures, synergy, organizational culture, regional multiculturalism.

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