VOLUME VII | Issue 2 | 2019 | CIEO

Guest-Editor: Gabriela Gonçalves, Joana Santos and Cátia Sousa
Editor-in-Chief: Patrícia Pinto

Journal of Spatial and Organizational Dynamics

Human Resources Management: Human and Strategic Dimension of Organizational Development

In memoriam Cristina Gonçalves
Irmã, amiga e colega da Universidade do Algarve

"A saudade não está na distância das coisas, mas numa súbita fractura de nós, num quebrar de alma em que todas as coisas se afundam" (Vergílio Ferreira)

TECHNICAL INFORMATION

Volume VII, Issue 2, 2019

JOURNAL OF SPATIAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL DYNAMICS

Human Resources Management: Human and Strategic Dimension of Organizational Development

Authors:
Cátia Sousa
Cidália B. R. Gonçalves
Daniela Sousa
Gabriela Gonçalves
Ileana P. Monteiro
Irina Bordei
Joana Vieira dos Santos
José Ferreira da Costa
Liliana Vitorino
Marisol B. Correia
Mustafa Daskin
Susana Cabrita

Guest-Editors: Gabriela Gonçalves, Joana Santos and Cátia Sousa
Editor-in-Chief: Patrícia Pinto

Publisher:
Research Centre for Spatial and Organizational Dynamics - CIEO
Campus de Gambelas, Faculdade de Economia, Edifício 9
8005-139, Faro
cieo@ualg.pt
www.cieo.pt

Open Access Policy:
This is a blind peer-reviewed journal.
Articles submitted to this journal should not have been published before in their current or substantially similar form.
The JSOD is diffused by all links related to the Research Center for Spatial and Organizational Dynamics and is continually online (http://www.cieo.pt/discussion_papers_editions.php)
This journal is supported by the Portuguese Foundation for Science and Technology (FCT).

Indexation:
RePec-Ideas
Directory of Open Access Journals
Emerging Sources Citation Index (ESCI) - Thomson Reuters
Latindex
Academia.edu
Google Scholar

Networking and Indexing: Silvia Fernandes

Page Layout: Marlene Fernandes

Design and Cover Concept: Bloco D, Design e Comunicação

Quarterly Edition
ISSN: 2183-1912
CIEO, Faro, Portugal

TABLE OF CONTENTS

MULTICULTURALITY AS AN ANTECEDENT TO WORK WELL-BEING AND WORK PASSION

Cátia Sousa[1]
Gabriela Gonçalves[2]

ABSTRACT

Within the workplace, promoting positive feelings in regard to work well-being and work passion has become essential to an increase in health, motivation, and consequently to an increase in productivity. This study aims to assess cultural values, cultural intelligence and multicultural personality as predictors of work well-being and work passion. Based on a sample of 240 workers aged 20 to 64 years (M = 36.78, SD = 10.22), multiple linear regression was carried out. The results of the multiple linear regression analysis show that the dimensions of power distance and uncertainty avoidance have a negative influence on work well-being and work passion, whereas emotional stability is the dimension with the highest predictive value for both constructs. On the other hand, cultural intelligence has no significant predictor effect. As organisations must invest in enhancing work well-being and work passion, the identification of their predictors is of the utmost importance.

Keywords: Multiculturality, Cultural Values, Cultural Intelligence, Multicultural Personality, Work Well-Being, Work Passion.

JEL Classification: D23

1. INTRODUCTION

The growth of studies on positive psychology (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000) in recent years has led to an increased interest in organisational life. Rather than focus on the four D's—Diseases, Disorders, Damages and Disabilities (e.g., Seligman, 2002; Bakker, Rodriguez-Muñoz & Derks, 2012)—positive psychology seeks to focus on the dynamics that positively affect happiness and quality of life (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). This interest in the organisational context (e.g., Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011; Xanthopoulou, Bakker & Ilies, 2012) has shown positive aspects such as engagement (e.g., Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010), well-being (e.g., Diener, 1984), job satisfaction, positive experiences at work (e.g., Rodrígues-Muñoz & Sanz-Vergel, 2013) and work passion (e.g., Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003). For organisations, promoting positive feelings such as work well-being and work passion becomes essential to an increase in employee health, motivation and consequently to productivity. Most of the investigations carried out in the context of well-being have focussed on the concept of subjective well-being and not specifically on work well-being. Although we have noticed a high interest in work passion, there is still too much to understand in particular with regard to the antecedents of positive work feelings. Concepts such as cultural intelligence and multicultural personality have been shown to be predictors of numerous variables. Although addressed mostly in regard to multicultural contexts, cultural intelligence and multicultural personality are attributes that can and should be examined as predictors of

[1] University of Algarve, Research Center in Psychology, Faro, Portugal (cavsousa@ualg.pt)
[2] University of Algarve, Research Center in Psychology, Faro, Portugal (ggoncalves@ualg.pt)

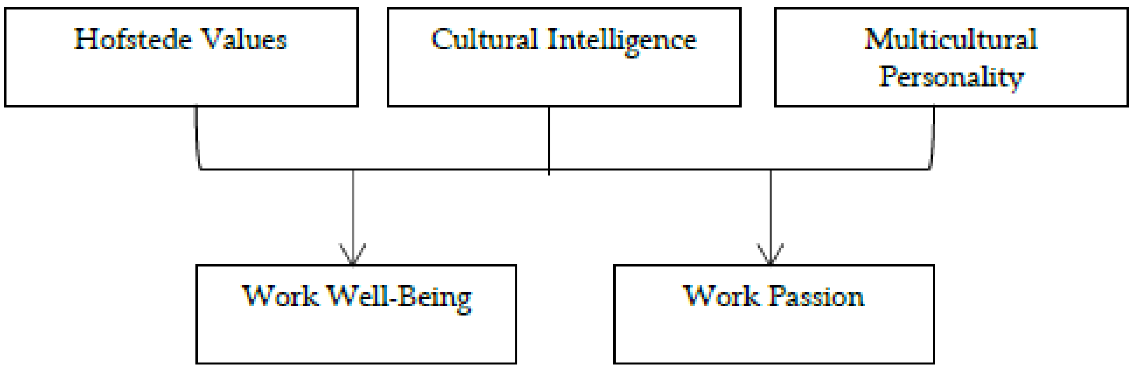
everyday situations—those that do not necessarily imply a context characterized by cultural diversity. This is because they are attributes that increase communicational effectiveness, performance, flexibility, satisfaction and adaptability to various situations (e.g., Earley & Ang, 2003; Van Dyne, Ang & Nielsen, 2007;Malek & Budhwar, 2013); promote creativity (e.g., Leung *et al*., 2008; Liu, Chen & Yao, 2011; Livermore, 2011); facilitate the avoidance and mediation of conflict (e.g., Chen, Wu & Bian, 2014; Polat & Metin, 2012); increase comfort with team management (e.g., Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000;Janssens & Brett, 2006); and promote leadership skills (e.g., Ng, Van Dyne & Ang, 2009a; Woerkom & Reuver, 2009; Tsaur & Tu, 2019). In sum, individuals who have these attributes are more likely to successfully face daily challenges, both at the social and professional level. Thus, it is our expectation that cultural intelligence and multicultural personality can function as predictors of work well-being and work passion, for those who are in culturally diverse contexts (e.g., situations of expatriation or immigration). Although it is not our goal in this study, we consider that these multicultural competences can also be important for those who are in work environments characterized by domestic multiculturalism (Gonçalves *et al*., 2016). Domestic multiculturalism is related to the fact that individuals from the same society do not have the same qualities, as people differ in biological, physical and sociocultural terms (Polat & Mettin, 2012). As expressed by Maugham, '(…) strange people live close to each other, with different languages and different thoughts; they believe in different gods and they have different values' (Maugham, 1921, as quoted in Adler, 2008: 128). For example, in America we can observe that there are norms and rules that vary from region to region, and as such, establish differences in the behaviours considered accepted, constituting the so-called 'melting pot' of the United States (Adler, 2008). In Switzerland, we can find a plurilingualism, since four languages are spoken (German, French, Italian and Romansh).

As globalization becomes more pronounced (Ritzer, 2011), countries' ability to suppress or erase cultural differences remains compromised (Arnett, 2002). Ultimately, multiculturalism is fully achieved, when demographic, sociopolitical and psychological factors converge to maintain cultural heritage among various ethnic and religious groups, encouraged by the promotion of positive group contact and fair and equitable participation in society in general (Berry, 2006). In recent years, several studies on multiculturalism have been conducted (see Arasaratnam, 2013, for a review), focussing in particular on attitudes toward multiculturalism (e.g., Apfelbaum *et al*., 2017; Goedert, Albert, Barros & Ferring, 2019), multicultural interactions (e.g., Sánchez-Sánchez, Salaberri & Sánchez-Pérez, 2017), multicultural education (e.g., Railevna, 2017), multicultural experience (Gonçalves, Reis, Sousa, Santos & Orgambídez-Ramos, 2015; Aytug, Kern & Dilchert, 2018) and multicultural identity (Arasaratnam, 2013). In general, there seems to be some variability resulting not only from the greater or lesser support given to multiculturalist policies, but also from the differences between the cultural values of each country. In this sense, Leong and Ward (2006) found that the dimensions of masculinity, distance to power, avoidance of uncertainty and collectivism were directly linked to weaker support of policies favouring multiculturalism. Masculinity and attitudes of superiority and mastery have also been associated with a greater pessimism towards multiculturalism. In general, studies indicate that in countries with a history of cultural plurality (e.g., Canada, New Zealand), multiculturalism works, albeit with some limitations. The challenge lies in the need to develop new solutions for a change in the management of cultural diversity (Leong & Liu, 2013).

Associated with multiculturalism and new multicultural attributes is the concept of culture, and the importance of the recognition and integration of cultural differences. Culture, defined as content, modes of thought and behaviours (e.g., language, history, religion, customs, values) transmitted through the process of socialization (Almeida, 2012), is not assimilated in the same way by all individuals. Despite sharing a common cultural basis, people have different experiences and different perceptions of the same reality, because individual personality is influenced by the correlation between heredity and the environment in which the individual lives. That is, the strategic guidelines and behaviours adopted by an individual depend on that person's personality characteristics (Cunha *et al*., 2005).

If multicultural personality and cultural intelligence are attributes that not only encourage and potentiate individuals' interactions and effective performance in multicultural contexts, but also provide them with a variety of tools that allow them to experience greater satisfaction, better relationships or greater creativity, it is unequivocally essential to study their effects as possible predictors of work well-being and work passion. On the other hand, both multicultural personality and cultural intelligence are relatively recent constructs; that is, there is a paucity of studies particularly in Portugal. Thus, our goal is to analyse the relationship between cultural values, multicultural personality and cultural intelligence in an organisational context, and to examine their effect on work well-being and work passion (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Proposed Model



Source: Own Elaboration

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Cultural values

Culture is a set of meanings, ways of thinking and behaviours (e.g., language, history, religion, habits and values) transmitted through the socialization process (i.e., it encompasses the human ability to adapt to the environment, changing and reinventing it). Several models have been proposed to assess and analyse cultural values (e.g., Schwartz, 1992; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997). Despite his work having been preceded by a number of studies on culture (e.g., Kuhn & McPartland, 1954; Rokeach, 1973), Hofstede was the first to present a theoretical model with quantitative indices describing different national cultures (Taras, Steel & Kirkman, 2012). As defined by Hofstede (1991), culture is a 'collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category or people from another' (19). Hofstede's model consists of six dimensions: 1) Power distance concerns the way in which a society manages the inequalities among individuals, i.e., this dimension expresses the degree to which less powerful individuals accept and expect an unequal distribution of power. 2) Collectivism vs. individualism distinguishes a preference for social environments where individuals are expected to take care of themselves and their relatives from a preference for social environments where people expect their relatives or members of a particular group to take care of them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty.

The social status in these dimensions is reflected in a personal image defined relatively as 'I' or 'We'. 3) Masculinity vs. femininity demarcates a social preference for success, heroism, assertiveness and the material reward for success from a preference for cooperation, modesty, quality of life and caring for the 'weak' and underprivileged. 4) Uncertainty avoidance defines the extent to which the members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity. 5) Pragmatic orientation vs. normative orientation[3] describes how people understand the fact that not everything that happens can be explained. 6) Indulgence vs. restraint contrasts the natural acceptance of fun and joy in life as basic human needs with the oppression of those needs through rules and norms (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010; Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). This last dimension emerged in 2010 as a result of the research of Hofstede and Minkov (2010).

2.2 Multicultural Personality (MP)

Some researchers (e.g., Kealey & Ruben, 1979; Bennett & Arthur, 1995; Basow & Gaugler, 2017) have identified a number of specific personality traits that determine sensitivity in cross-cultural interaction, such as empathy, respect for local culture, flexibility, tolerance, self-confidence, sociability, initiative and courage (Horverak *et al*., 2013). Accordingly, several studies have analysed the aspects of personality and social development that predispose individuals to an effective interaction between cultures and adaptation to multicultural communities. Multicultural personality (MP) emerges as one of the constructs that focus on cultural adaptation, intercultural competence and multicultural effectiveness (Ponterotto *et al*., 2011). Based on an analysis of the set of characteristics pointed out by several authors and previous studies, Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven (2000) have identified a number of specific personality characteristics, grouping them into five dimensions of multicultural competence: 1) Cultural empathy refers to the ability to empathize with the feelings, thoughts and behaviours of members from a different cultural group. 2) Open-mindedness refers to an openness and unprejudiced attitude towards different members, norms and cultural values. 3) Emotional stability describes a tendency to remain calm in stressful situations vs. a tendency to show strong emotions under stressful circumstances. 4) Flexibility has been reported by authors (e.g., Hanvey, 1976; Ruben & Kealey, 1979; Arthur & Bennett, 1995) as a dimension of utmost importance, especially when expectations about the host country do not correspond to the actual situation. Elements of flexibility, such as the ability to learn from mistakes and new experiences, are crucial to multicultural effectiveness (Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney, 1997). 5) Social initiative includes an attitude of openness to new cultures; a predisposition to seek and explore new situations, facing them as challenges; and the ability to establish and maintain contacts easily (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000, 2001).

The structure of personality arises from its various dimensions (dispositional factors that continuously determine personality), which are the result of grouping personality traits together (Almiro & Simões, 2010). Intercultural traits are tailored to face intercultural contexts, denoting specific behavioural predispositions that are predictive of effective adaptation in multicultural environments (Erp *et al.,* 2014). In general, studies report that cultural empathy is a predictor of life satisfaction and social support received by the host country; flexibility is a strong predictor of job satisfaction and social support; social initiative is a strong predictor of psychological well-being; and emotional stability is the most consistent predictor of adjustment (Suanet & Vijver, 2009).

[3] This dimension has replaced the dimension of long-term vs. short-term orientation.

Cultural Intelligence (CQ)

In recent years, the ability to adapt to others has been emphasised through the identification of various types of intelligence (e.g., Gardner, 1993) such as emotional intelligence (e.g., Goleman 1996), social intelligence (Cantor & Kihlstrom, 1985; Goleman, 2006) or interpersonal intelligence (e.g., Gardner, 1993). Although CQ is consistent with the conceptualizations of intelligence (adaptability and adjustment to the environment) (Gardner, 1993; Sternberg, 2000), it differs from other types of intelligence because it focusses specifically on culturally diverse interactions (Van Dyne, Ang & Koh, 2008). Despite its close relation to emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence is making headway where emotional intelligence leaves off (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004): an individual with high emotional intelligence integrates what makes us simultaneously human and different from each other, whereas a person with high cultural intelligence is able to apprehend certain features of human behaviour specific to a person or group, as well as those that are neither universal nor idiosyncratic. CQ is a set of attributes and competences that facilitate adaptation to different cultural situations and allow us to interpret unfamiliar behaviours and situations (Van Dyne, Ang & Livermore, 2010).

Earley and Ang (2003) define CQ as a multidimensional construct comprising four dimensions: 1) metacognitive refers to cultural awareness and sensitivity during interaction with different cultures, promoting active thinking about people and situations in an unfamiliar environment; 2) cognitive refers to the cultural knowledge of norms, behaviours, practices and conventions in different cultures, obtained through experience and education, and encompassing knowledge of the economic, social and legal systems/cultures; 3) motivational conceptualizes the ability to direct attention and energy towards cultural differences, i.e., it is a form of self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation in intercultural situations (Van Dyne *et al*., 2008); and 4) behavioural is the ability to express, verbally and nonverbally, appropriate behaviours when interacting with people from different cultures (Van Dyne *et al*., 2008). The empirical research on CQ is somewhat recent, but the initial results are significant and promising (Van Dyne, Ang & Nielsen, 2007). So far, authors such as Ang, Van Dyne and Koh (2007) and Ng, Van Dyne and Ang (2009a, 2009b) have shown that individuals with higher CQ are more efficient in decision-making in intercultural situations and are more likely to adapt to culturally diverse situations. The higher the metacognitive dimension of CQ, the higher the performance ability; and the higher the behavioural dimension, the better the performance in culturally diverse settings. Other studies have focussed on the relation between CQ and factors such as selection and training of expatriates (Ng *et al*., 2009a), adjustment of expatriates (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Shaffer & Luk, 2005; Ang *et al*., 2007; Ramalu, Wei & Rose, 2011) and performance of expatriates (Ang *et al*., 2007; Elenkov & Manev, 2009; Lee, 2010; Gertsen & Sodeberg, 2010). In addition to expatriates' other investigations have deepened for example, global leadership (House *et al*., 2004;Ng *et al.,* 2009b), innovative work behaviour (Korzilius, Bücker & Beerlageand, 2017), impact of cultural exposure on intelligence (Crowne, 2008), social adaptability (Soltani & Keyvanara, 2013), teachers' cultural intelligence (Petrovic, 2011) and international students (e.g., Shu, McAbee & Ayman, 2017). The CQ also showed to be related to the negotiation styles (e.g., Caputo, Ayoko, Amoo & Menke, 2019) and conflict management styles (Gonçalves *et al.,* 2016).

The influence of cultural dimensions, multicultural personality and cultural intelligence on work well-being and work passion

Based on the definition of well-being proposed by Diener and Diener (1995), who consider well-being a personal evaluation of life itself either in terms of satisfaction (cognitive evaluation) or affectivity (stable emotional reactions), Bakker and Oerlemans (2011) define work well-being (WWB) as a situation where an employee is satisfied with his or her work, frequently experiencing positive emotions (e.g., pleasure and satisfaction) and seldom having negative emotions (e.g., sadness and anger). Surveys conducted on the well-being concept have stressed the importance of joint personality, social environment and circumstances in determining levels of subjective well-being (SWB), related to experiencing a high degree of satisfaction with life, a high level of positive affect and low level of negative affect (e.g., DeNeve & Cooper, 1998; Deci & Ryan, 2008; Luhmann *et al.*, 2012). Differences in personality have shown effects on the well-being self-evaluations and influences on how individuals react to unfolding events (Helliwell, 2003). Steel and colleagues (2008) based on the analysis of various personality models (NEO, EPQ and EPI) and in order to determine the relationship between the personality and the subjective well-being, they concluded that 'personality is extremely important to understand the well-being' (151). In turn, investigations in the field of multicultural personality have suggested that individuals with certain traits of this attribute have higher levels of satisfaction with work (Van Oudenhoven, Mol & Van der Zee, 2003) and of subjective well-being (Van der Zee, Van Oudenhoven & Bakker, 2002; Ponterotto *et al.,* 2007). High results in the five dimensions of MP are predictors of success in complex, unfamiliar and stressful professions and in tasks that require specific skills to cope with different types of people (Van der Zee, Van Oudenhoven & Grijs, 2004a). Regarding the CQ, some studies have shown that individuals who possess a higher CQ are more efficient at decision-making and adaptation to different situations (Van Dyne *et al.*, 2007), and they exhibit more effective leadership skills (Deng & Gibson, 2009). CQ plays an important role in reducing anxiety and in satisfaction with work (Bücker *et al*., 2014). Thus, if the personality exerts influence on the SWB and the CQ is strictly related to the personality, and both emerge as predictors of satisfaction with work, of performance or of adjustment, it is our expectation that these influence positively the WWB.

Hypothesis 1: Cultural intelligence affects work well-being.
Hypothesis 2: Multicultural personality affects work well-being.

In addition, cultural and social differences are determinants in the differences of SWB at the international level (Diener, 2000). Some cultures seem to produce higher levels of SWB than others. One of the reasons for these differences is related to the fact that people value differently the concept of SWB (Diener, Oishi & Lucas, 2003). In other words, nationality influences the values of individuals and their visible physical behaviour, and affects their cognitive schema and their linguistic tendencies (Rego & Cunha, 2009), i.e., the culture facilitates or promotes certain behaviours and attitudes but also inhibits them as well. Additionally, different sociocultural traditions and legislative frameworks can perform a relevant role in defending employee interests with respect to, for example, social benefits and work conditions (Brewster, 2007). Thus, some cultural characteristics can be predictive of higher levels of SWB and WWB. For example, in feminist cultures, harmony between work and family prevails, there is a minimal differentiation of the social and emotional role between genders and there is a higher preference for cooperation and quality of life (Hofstede, 2011). In indulgent cultures, there is a higher percentage of happy people, greater importance is given to leisure and there is a greater number of people engaged in sports activities (Hofstede, 2011). In cultures where there is a low avoidance of uncertainty, there are high levels of subjectivity regarding health and well-being, and low levels of stress and anxiety (Hofstede, 2011). In pragmatic cultures, for example, which are characterized by rapid economic growth, people readily accept the setbacks of life, adapt according to circumstances, have a strong tendency to save and invest in the future, and exhibit an attitude of parsimony and perseverance in achieving results (Hofstede, 2011).

Investigations carried out with regard to SWB have shown that there are differences in the levels of SWB between cultures and between ethnic groups of the same culture (e.g., Inglehart & Klingemann, 2000; Diener *et al*., 2003; Tov & Diener, 2007). It is also worth mentioning some studies carried out on the influence of culture and differences between societies (Diener, 2000; Kitayama, Markus & Kurokawa, 2000; Diener *et al*., 2003; Tov & Diener, 2007); on aspects of work in different cultural environments (Aalto *et al*., 2014); and on the well-being of immigrants (Akay, Constant & Giulietti, 2014; Lara, 2014), including the relationship between immigrant co-workers and the host population, and their influence on well-being (Bergbom & Kinnunen, 2014). Other studies have additionally related organizational culture to work well-being (Santos, Gonçalves & Gomes, 2013). Also important is a study conducted by Schimmack and colleagues (2002), which aimed to relate personality, subjective well-being and culture (two individualist cultures—the United States and Germany—and three collectivist cultures—Japan, Mexico and Ghana), concluding that the personality influences the affective balance and that culture mediates the relationship between the affective and cognitive dimensions of subjective well-being (Schimmack *et al*., 2002). To our knowledge, investigations on work well-being are generally scarce. Most studies focus mainly on the concept of subjective well-being and not on the concept of work well-being. But considering the information available on the studies referred to, if subjective well-being varies according to cultural characteristics, then it is our expectation that work well-being is influenced by cultural dimensions (e.g., Hofstede) so we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Cultural dimensions affect work well-being.

Passion can be defined as a strong inclination for an activity that an individual likes (or even loves), thinks is important, and in which he or she invests time and energy on a regular basis (Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003). Passion can feed motivation, increase welfare and excite our daily life; however, it can also cause negative emotions, lead to obsessive behaviours and interfere with the achievement of a balanced and successful life (Orgambídez-Ramos *et al*., 2014). In the face of this duality between type and intensity of passion, Vallerand and Houlfort (2003) considered a dualistic model of passion: obsessive passion (motivational force that pushes the individual to the activity) and harmonious passion (motivational force that does not dominate the will, i.e., the individual pursues labour activity enthusiastically but without feeling compelled to do so) (Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003). According to Mageau *et al*. (2009), there are some contextual factors that may influence the development of passion for an activity, as for example the social environment in which the individual develops (e.g., family, education, values). Thus, there seems to be an influence on the process of internalization, not only of the personality (Vallerand *et al*., 2006), but also of the culture where the individual exists. Some investigations have pointed to a relationship between personality and work passion (WP), although using the dimensions proposed by Big Five (e.g., Balon, Lecoq & Rimé, 2013). Regarding CQ, some authors have found a positive relationship between CQ and job involvement (e.g., Chen, 2015). People who were involved in their work considered it as an important aspect of their lives, identifying themselves with it psychologically (e.g., Lodahl & Kejner, 1965; Kanungo, 1982; Naumann, 1992; Chen & Chiu, 2009; Chen, 2015). Involvement in work promotes attitudes of motivation, personal responsibility and concern (e.g., Zhao & Namasivayam, 2009). Following this line of thinking, CQ, by increasing the use of skills and knowledge learned in order to improve work and performance, is likely to increase involvement in work (e.g., Chen, 2015). Similarly, engagement (Kodwani, 2011) and organisational commitment (Anvari *et al.,* 2014) have also been pointed out as variables that are positively influenced by CQ. Since work passion is a variable that shares elements with either engagement, job involvement or organisational commitment (e.g., Zigarmi *et al.*, 2009), it is expected that CQ will present itself as a predictor of work passion. Thus, it seems appropriate to analyse the influence of MP and CQ on work passion. This is because their dimensions can be positively associated with harmonious passion, to the extent that they supply individuals with greater sensitivity, greater openness, curiosity and imagination, as well as greater stability and flexibility. Thus, we suggest the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: Cultural intelligence affects work passion.
Hypothesis 5: Multicultural personality affects work passion.

To our knowledge, there is scant literature on cultural dimensions with respect to the work passion variable. Thus, and starting from the premise that culture exerts influence on the behaviours, values, norms and characteristics of work, it is our expectation that certain characteristics such as masculinity, high power distance and high aversion to uncertainty have a negative influence on work passion. These dimensions can mirror inequalities, either in terms of gender, income distribution or even existential inequality; demotivation, which may stem from the fact that people remain in jobs even though they do not like them because of high avoidance of uncertainty; and high levels of stress, anxiety and emotional instability in the workplace (Hofstede, 1991).

Hypothesis 6: Cultural dimensions affect work passion.

In short, it is important to identify whether these variables work as predictors of work well-being and work passion, because it will enable organisations to increase their productivity and improve the performance of their employees. While promoting well-being at work, organisations are contributing to the satisfaction of their employees (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011) and to the increment of work passion. This may be manifested in a greater affective commitment to work (Forest *et al.,* 2011), an increase in creativity (e.g., Liu *et al.*, 2011) and an improvement in professional performance (e.g., Ho, Wong & Lee, 2011).

3. METHOD

3.1 Sample and procedures

This study used a convenience sample comprising participants who were required to conform to the following inclusion criteria: age above 18 years, Portuguese nationality and active employment. Upon approval of the institutional committee responsible for monitoring the procedures and ethical safeguards of research, and assurance of ethical criteria (e.g., information about the voluntary and anonymous nature of the study), participants were asked to answer a self-report questionnaire with an average completion time of 15 minutes. Data collection was performed in several places, collectively and individually: university classes, public and private companies, public libraries and other public places. Only the questionnaires completed correctly were considered. The sample consists of 240 participants, 35.4% male (N = 85) and 64.6% female (N = 155). Ages ranged from 20 to 64 years (M = 36.78, SD = 22.10). In terms of marital status, 50.8% of participants were married or living in common law, 38.8% were single, 9.6% were divorced/separated, and 0.8% were widowed. In educational level, the distribution of the participants was: basic education (1.3%), secondary education (24.6%), graduates (56.3%), postgraduate (3.3%), masters (8.8%) and doctorates (5.8%). In regard to professional activity, there was a prevalence of administrative staff (47.5%), followed by specialists of intellectual and scientific activities (28.7%); intermediate technicians (21.7%); representatives of the legislative power (1.3%); workers of personal services, safety and security (0.4%); and skilled industrial workers (0.4%).

3.2 Measures

Value Survey Module. Cultural dimensions were assessed through the Portuguese version of the Value Survey Module (VSM 94) developed by Hofstede (1980). This is a 20-item questionnaire using a 5-point Likert scale and comprising five cultural dimensions: 1) individualism vs. collectivism (e.g., item 1: 'Have sufficient time for my personal or family life'; item 4: 'Have security of employment'); 2) masculinity vs. femininity (e.g., item 15: 'Most people can be trusted'; item 20: 'When people have failed in life it is often their own fault'); 3) uncertainty avoidance (e.g., item 13: 'How often do you feel nervous or tense at work'; item 18: 'Competition between employees usually does more harm than good'); 4) power distance (e.g., item 3: 'Have a good working relationship with the direct superior'; item 6: 'Be consulted by your direct superior in his/her decisions'); and 5) long-term vs. short-term orientation (e.g., item 10: 'Thrift'; item 12: 'Respect for tradition'). This version of VSM does not include a sixth dimension, later added by Hofstede and Minkov (2010). The VSM reveals alpha values above 0.70 in all dimensions.

Cultural Intelligence. The Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS), adapted for the Portuguese population by Sousa *et al*. (2015), was originally developed in English by Van Dyne and colleagues (2008). This 20-item tool, rated according to a Likert-type scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree), is a multidimensional measure that includes four dimensions of 'intelligence': 1) metacognitive (four items, e.g., item 1: 'I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds'); 2) cognitive (six items, e.g., item 7: 'I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures'); 3) motivational (five items, e.g., item 11: 'I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures'); and 4) behavioural (five items, e.g., item 18: 'I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it'). The Cronbach's alpha of the scale was 0.95; the alpha of the scale dimensions ranged from 0.89 (Metacognitive) to 0.91 (Cognitive).

Multicultural Personality. Multicultural personality was assessed through the Portuguese version of the Multicultural Personality Questionnaire (reduced version) by Sousa *et al*. (2015). Originally developed in English by Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven (2000), the questionnaire consists of 91 items assessing the five dimensions of intercultural competence: 1) cultural empathy (e.g., item 21: 'I am attentive to facial expressions'); 2) open-mindedness (e.g., item 4: 'I am interested in other cultures'); 3) social initiative (e.g., item 2: 'I make contacts easily'); 4) emotional stability (e.g., item 11: 'I am optimistic'); and 5) flexibility (e.g., item 24: 'I have fixed habits'). More recently, Van der Zee *et al.* (2013) have proposed a short version consisting of 40 items. The adaptation for the Portuguese population also resulted in a reduced 40-item version (eight items by dimension), assessed using a 5-point Likert scale (1, Totally Not Applicable, to 5, Completely Applicable). The reliability coefficient of the scale was 0.91 and the alpha for the five dimensions ranged between 0.68 (flexibility) and 0.85 (cultural empathy).

Work Well-Being. The Work Well-Being Scale, validated and adapted for the Portuguese population by Santos and Gonçalves (2010), was originally developed in English by Warr (1990). It consists of 12 items and includes two dimensions: job-related anxiety-contentment (items 1–6) and job-related depression-enthusiasm (items 7–12). The items describe different psychic states through adjectives (e.g., item 1: 'tense'; item 2: 'anxious'; item 5: 'satisfied'; item 12, 'optimistic') that match the feelings and emotions experienced by individuals over the past weeks on a Likert scale from 1 (Never) to 6 (All Times). The reliability coefficient of the scale was 0.92 and the alpha values for anxiety-contentment and depression-enthusiasm were, respectively, 0.87 and 0.91.

Work Passion. In this study, we used the adaptation of the Passion Scale for the Portuguese population by Gonçalves *et al.* (2014), originally developed by Vallerand and colleagues (2003). This scale consists of two subscales of seven items: harmonious passion (e.g., item 3: 'This activity allows me to live memorable experiences'; item 5: 'This activity is in harmony with the other activities in my life') and obsessive passion (e.g., item 8: 'I cannot live without this activity'; item 13: 'I have almost an obsessive feeling for this activity'). This scale can be adapted to any type of activity, assessed according to a 7-point Likert scale (1, Strongly Disagree, to 7, Strongly Agree). The Cronbach's alpha for the overall scale was 0.87, and scores of reliability on the scale dimensions ranged from 0.82 (harmonious passion) to 0.91 (obsessive passion).

In addition to the scales, items on the biographical variables (age, gender, marital status, employment status and educational level) were included in order to characterize the sample.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Confirmatory factor analysis

Before testing the hypotheses, we performed a confirmatory factor analysis to evaluate the adjustment of the proposed model in this study, using AMOS 18 software. The values obtained were: χ^2 (125) = 286.15, p = 0.00, χ^2/df = 2.29, RMSEA = 0.07, CFI = 0.90, TLI = 0.87, AGFI = 0.83, IFI = 0.90; these values met the criteria suggested by various researchers (e.g., Bentler, 1990; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Byrne 2001; Ullman, 2006).

To detect the existence of common variance method (CVM), a Harman's one-factor test (Podsakoff *et al*., 2003) was conducted. We entered all scale items into a principal component analysis and examined the unrotated factor solution. This analysis did not produce a single or assigned factor, since the main factor only explains 17.51% of the total variance. In addition, the analysis produced 18 factors with eigenvalue greater than 1, which are necessary to explain 63% of the variance and indicate the absence of the CVM.

4.2 Descriptive statistics and correlation analysis

The mean scores, standard deviations and correlations among all research variables are displayed in Table 1. The masculinity dimension presents significant and negative correlations with all variables in the study, except for the flexibility, harmonious and obsessive dimensions. Cultural intelligence also presents correlations with most variables. It is also possible to verify that cultural intelligence and multicultural personality are related to each other.

Table 1. Means, standard deviations and correlations (*n* = 240)

	Variables	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Hofstede Dimensions	**1. MAS**	2.27	0.50	-																			
	2. PDI	2.22	0.57	0.42**	-																		
	3. UAI	2.97	0.55	0.23**	0.23**	-																	
	4. LTO	2.26	0.72	0.21**	0.27**	0.03	-																
	5. IDV	1.70	0.60	0.61**	0.51**	0.09	0.37**	-															
CQ	**6. Global**	4.21	0.97	-0.20**	0.00	0.14	0.37	-0.01	-														
	7. MC	4.57	1.04	-0.21**	-0.06	0.04	-0-08	-0.01	0.80**	-													
	8. COG	3.62	1.11	-0.16**	-0.02	-0.02	0.07	0.03	0.86**	0.57**	-												
	9. MOT	4.41	1.19	-0.18**	0.04	-0.01	0.07	-0.01	0.87**	0.60**	0.65**	-											
	10. BEH	4.38	1.18	-0.15*	0.03	0.05	0.02	-0.03	0.88**	0.67**	0.63**	0.69**	-										
MP	**11. CE**	3.67	0.50	-0.18**	-0.03	-0.01	-0.11	-0.05	0.54**	0.50**	0.41**	0.48**	0.47**	-									
	12. SI	3.63	0.55	-0.14*	-0.08	0.01	-0.09	-0.06	0.31**	0.24**	0.29**	0.31**	0.22**	0.47**	-								
	13. ES	3.48	0.80	-0.25**	-0.21**	-0.10	-0.16*	-0.10	0.33**	0.29**	0.29**	0.32**	0.23**	0.45**	0.55**	-							
	14. FX	3.11	0.40	0.06	0.06	-0.08	0.17*	0.03	0.12	-0.01	0.14*	0.22**	0.01	-0.03	0.14*	0.05	-						
	15. OM	3.51	0.60	-0.25**	-0.21**	-0.10	-0.16*	-0.10	0.65**	0.53**	0.55**	0.61**	0.51**	0.71	0.46**	0.46**	0.12	-					
WWB	**16. WWB**	4.11	0.90	-0.21**	-0.29**	-0.22**	-0.15*	-0.10	0.19**	0.18**	0.18**	0.17**	0.12	0.21**	0.30**	0.46**	0.08	0.25**	-				
	17. ANX	3.74	1.00	-0.18**	-0.26**	-0.27**	-0.10**	-0.10	0.15*	0.16*	0.14	0.14*	0.09	0.14*	0.20**	0.36**	0.85	0.20**	0.90**	-			
	18. DEP	4.48	1.01	-0.20**	-0.26**	-0.13*	-0.10	-0.10	0.13**	0.16*	0.18**	0.16*	0.12	0.25**	0.32**	0.47**	0.06	0.25**	0.90**	0.61**	-		
WP	**19. WP**	3.61	1.06	-0.14*	-0.16*	-0.08	-0.20**	-0.08	0.12	0.14*	0.10	0.08	0.10	0.20**	0.22**	0.32**	-0.07	0.21**	0.43**	0.30**	0.50**	-	
	20. HAR	4.53	1.33	-0.12	-0.13*	-0.17*	-0.02	-0.07	0.22**	0.23**	0.17**	0.17**	0.19**	0.33**	0.32**	0.44**	-0.03	0.32**	0.48**	0.30**	0.57**	0.85**	-
	21. OBS	2.69	1.20	-0.11	-0.14*	-0.60*	-0.18**	-0.11	-0.03	-0.01	-0.01	-0.04	-0.03	-0.01	0.03	0.07	-0.09	0.02	0.22**	0.15*	0.24**	0.82**	0.39**

Note: MAS – Masculinity, PDI – Power distance index, UAI – Uncertainty avoidance index, LTO – Long-term orientation index, IDV – Individualism index; CQ – Cultural Intelligence, MC – Metacognitive, COG – Cognitive, MOT – Motivational, BEH – Behavioural; MP – Multicultural Personality, CE – Cultural empathy, SI – Social Initiative, ES – Emotional Stability, FX – Flexibility, OM – Open-mindedness; WWB – Work well-being, ANX – Anxiety dimension, DEP – Depression dimension; WP – Work Passion, HAR – Harmonious Passion, OBS – Obsessive Passion

*p ≤ 0.05; **p ≤ 0.01

Source: Own Elaboration

4.3 Hypotheses testing

We applied multiple hierarchical regression analysis to test all the hypotheses. Model A (Table 2) evaluates the predictive effect of the cultural dimensions, cultural intelligence and multicultural personality in work well-being and its two dimensions. Model A1 (Hofstede's dimensions) explains 14% of work well-being, 15% of anxiety-contentment and 9% of depression-enthusiasm. The predictive effect increases 3% ($R^2 = 0.17$) by adding the variable cultural intelligence. The third model (A3) combines the variable multicultural personality with cultural intelligence and Hofstede's dimensions, increasing the predictive percentage by 12%; this is the model with the best predictive effect on the dependent variable (p = 0.00), explaining about 29% of work well-being, 24% of anxiety-contentment and 26% of depression-enthusiasm.

Model B evaluates the predictive effect of the dimensions of culture, cultural intelligence and multicultural personality on work passion and its two dimensions. Model B1 (Hofstede's dimensions) accounts for 6% of work passion, 4% of harmonious passion and 6% of obsessive passion. The inclusion of cultural intelligence increases the predictive effect only 1% (R^2 = 0.08). In the third model (B3), by adding the variable multicultural personality to cultural intelligence and Hofstede's dimensions, the predictive percentage that explains work passion increases 7%; this model explains about 15% of work passion, 24% of harmonious passion and 7% of obsessive passion.

This is the model with the best predictive effect on work passion ($p = 0.00$) and harmonious passion (p = 0.00), except for the obsessive passion dimension (p = 0.24) (Table 2). The values showed by the Durbin-Watson test are close to 2, indicating no autocorrelation of residuals.

Table 2. Hierarchical regression for the prediction of WWB and WP – Models

Model A		*Work Well-Being*				*WWB Anxiety*				*WWB Depression*		
		r^2	ΔR^2	p		r^2	ΔR^2	p		r^2	ΔR^2	p
1	HD	0.14	0.14	0.00		0.15	0.15	0.00		0.09	0.09	0.00
2	HD+CQ	0.17	0.03	0.00		0.17	0.03	0.00		0.12	0.03	0.00
3	**HD+CQ+MP**	**0.29**	**0.12**	**0.00**		**0.24**	**0.07**	**0.00**		**0.26**	**0.14**	**0.00**
		d = 1.91				d = 2.03				d = 1.86		
Model B		*Work Passion*				*Harmonious Passion*				*Obsessive Passion*		
		r^2	ΔR^2	p		r^2	ΔR^2	p		r^2	ΔR^2	p
1	HD	0.06	0.06	0.01		0.04	.044	0.06		0.06	0.06	0.01
2	HD+CQ	0.08	0.01	0.03		0.09	.048	0.01		0.06	0.00	0.09
3	**HD+CQ+MP**	**0.15**	**0.07**	**0.00**		**0.24**	**0.15**	**0.00**		**0.07**	**0.01**	**0.24**
		d = 1.71				d = 1.78				d = 1.74		

Note: HD – Hofstede´s Dimension, CQ – Cultural Intelligence, MP – Multicultural Personality.

d - Durbin-Watson test; $\Delta R^2 = R^2$*change*

Source: Own Elaboration

The predictive effect of the dimensions of the independent variables on work well-being (model A3) and work passion (model B3) is presented in Table 3. There are only a few dimensions with significant contributions. The power distance (PDI) dimension contributes negatively to work well-being (β = -0.20, $p < 0.01$) (the higher the distance, the lower the work well-being levels) and its dimensions—anxiety-contentment (β = -0.17; p = .019) and depression-enthusiasm (β = -0.18, p = 0.01)—meaning that the higher the power distance, the lower the contentment and enthusiasm. Uncertainty avoidance (UAI) also contributes significantly and negatively to work well-being (β = -0.15, $p < 0.01$) and anxiety-comfort (β = -0.21, p = 0.001), which may indicate that the higher the uncertainty avoidance of comfort, the higher the anxiety felt. The long-term orientation dimension (LTO) shows a marginally significant contribution to the anxiety-contentment dimension (β = -0.07, p = 0.05). There is no significant contribution of the cultural intelligence dimensions to work well-being. In terms of multicultural personality, stability is the only dimension with a significant contribution to work well-being (β = 0.34, p = 0.00) and its two dimensions—anxiety-contentment (β = 0.26, p = 0.001) and depression-enthusiasm (β = 0.35, p = 0.00). This means that the higher the emotional stability, the higher the work well-being (with higher levels of contentment and enthusiasm, and lower levels of anxiety and depression). Overall, the three variables significantly explain 29% of work well-being (R^2 = 0.29, p = 0.00).

In regard to model B3, there are few dimensions with significant contributions. Uncertainty avoidance (β = -0.15, p = 0.03) and long-term orientation (β = -0.14, p = 0.05) are negatively associated with obsessive passion. Cultural intelligence has no predictive effect on work passion. As to multicultural personality, emotional stability is the only dimension with a predictive effect on work passion (β = 0.22, $p < 0.01$) and harmonious passion (β = 0.33, p = 0.00), similar to model A3. Together, these three variables explain about 15% of work passion and 24% of harmonious passion, and the explanatory value of obsessive passion is not significant (R^2 = 0.07, p = 0.24).

The VIF values indicated that there is no multicollinearity (Montgomery & Peck, 1982).

Table 3. Results of the predicting effects of Hofstede dimensions, CQ and MP on WWB and WP

		Model A3				Model B3			
		WWB	**WWB Anx**	**WWB Dep**	**VIF**	**WP**	**WP Har**	**WP Obs**	**VIF**
		β		**β**		**β**	**β**		
Hofstede´s dimensions	MAS	-0.03	-0.02	-0.04	1.39	-0.01	0.04	-0.06	1.39
	PDI	-0.20**	-0.17**	-.018**	1.50	-0.06	-0.06	-0.04	1.50
	UAI	-0.15**	-0.21***	-0.06	1.06	-0.05	0.06	-0.15**	1.06
	LTO	-0.07	-0.13*	0.00	1.17	-0.13	-0.08	-0.14*	1.17
	IDV	0.09	0.10	0.06	1.64	0.02	0.01	0.01	1.64
CQ	MC	0.04	0.07	-0.00	2.12	0.02	0.05	-0.02	1.99
	COG	0.01	-0.02	0.04	2.04	-0.01	-0.03	0.02	2.00
	MOT	-0.02	-0.00	-0.03	2.32	-0.07	-0.00	-0.04	2.27
	BEH	0.00	0.01	0.00	2.58	0.03	0.06	-0.01	2.54
MP	CE	-0.05	-0.12	0.03	2.33	-0.01	0.07	-0.09	2.19
	SI	0.05	0.01	0.08	1.67	0.05	0.06	0.03	1.64
	ES	0.34***	0.26***	0.35***	1.71	0.22**	0.33***	0.02	1.57
	FX	0.05	0.07	0.03	1.19	-0.07	-0.02	-0.09	1.06
	OM	0.08	0.13	0.02	2.76	0.12	0.12	0.08	2.18
r^2		0.29	0.24	0.26		0.15	0.24	0.07	
p		0.00	0.00	0.00		0.00	0.23		

Notes: WWB – Work well-being, ANX – Anxiety dimension, DEP – Depression dimension; WP – Work Passion, HAR – Harmonious Passion, OBS – Obsessive Passion.

*p ≤ 0.05; **p ≤ 0.01; *** p ≤ 0.001; VIF – Variance Inflaction Factor

Source: Own Elaboration

5. CONCLUSION

The organisational complexity caused by cultural diversity is now a challenge for human resource management. Work well-being and work passion are presented as important factors for organisational success. By developing multicultural competences such as cultural intelligence and multicultural personality, individuals are more capable of facing cultural differences and other aspects of organisational life (e.g., leadership, motivation, team and conflict management, innovation and interpersonal relationships). The purpose of this study was to examine to what extent cultural characteristics, cultural intelligence and multicultural personality influence work well-being and work passion.

A multiple linear regression was run to find the best predictive model of work well-being and work passion, according to the independent variables (Hofstede's dimensions, cultural intelligence and multicultural personality). Several models for determining the influence of these variables (cultural values, cultural intelligence and multicultural personality) on work well-being and work passion were carried out. The hypotheses were all confirmed, except for hypotheses 1 and 4 (H1: 'Cultural intelligence affects work well-being'; H4: 'Cultural intelligence affects work passion'). The results indicate that the models with great explanatory power were those comprising the independent variables together. Respecting the variables with the greatest predictive power, those of greatest importance were power distance, avoidance of uncertainty, long-term orientation and emotional stability. With regard to cultural variables, these showed a negative relationship. Portugal is a country with a strong power distance, where the unequal distribution of power in society and organisations (and the inequality between the top and the base) generate lack of motivation and initiative, which may explain its negative influence on work well-being and work passion. Similarly, characterized by a high level of uncertainty avoidance, Portuguese workers have high levels of stress, surface-level emotion, anxiety, instability and emotional need for rules. There is a disposition for low levels of subjectivity towards health and well-being (and to stay in jobs without even liking them), which predictably leads to a negative effect on well-being and work passion. In contrast, emotional stability, considered a strong predictor of adjustment and life satisfaction and a key to deal with psychological stress, has emerged as a positive predictor of both variables.

Contrary to what would be expected, cultural intelligence showed no significant contribution relative to work well-being and work passion (H1 and H4). This may be due to the existence of varied cultural intelligence profiles. According to Van Dyne and colleagues (2012), while some individuals may experience high levels in all cultural intelligence dimensions, others may experience them only in some dimensions, suggesting the existence of different cultural intelligence profiles. Another reason may be related to the fact that the scale used in this study is currently the only tool developed to measure cultural intelligence (Van Dyne *et al.*, 2008) and has some limitations. One is its small size (20 items), which cannot capture all the knowledge, skills and abilities associated with cultural intelligence (Huff *et al.*, 2014). In this case, different results might be obtained by using alternative means for measuring the dimensions of cultural intelligence, as proposed by Thomas and colleagues (2008). Future research is suggested to look into the different cultural intelligence profiles, relating them to multicultural personality and cultural values. Other investigations may use the cultural competence variable (Johnson *et al.*, 2006) that combines aspects of cultural intelligence and multicultural personality.

Another issue is related to the work itself. As suggested by Warr (2007), work well-being is related to individual (intelligence, personality) and work characteristics, which can increase well-being and happiness or lead to unhappiness and less well-being. In this case, the sample of this study may show some dissatisfaction with the attributes of their job or the tasks performed. It would be interesting to examine this point, i.e., to identify the level of satisfaction/dissatisfaction with the very nature of the work (which would allow us to identify the factors with greater influence on work well-being and work passion). The sample size used in this study can also be considered a restriction on the results, since it is relatively small and homogeneous (collected only in Portugal). A larger sample would lead to a closer analysis. Larger sample sizes from different countries should be included in future research, in order to conduct comparative research. It would also be pertinent to construct an instrument to further deepen the concept of domestic multiculturalism and its practical implications. Future studies on predictive validity may also provide additional insights into the nature of work well-being and work passion.

Notwithstanding its limitations, this study allowed us to observe that the emotional stability dimension has a positive predictor effect either on work well-being or on work passion, and that a high power distance and a high uncertainty aversion exert a negative influence on them.

5.1 Practical Implications and Contributions

Working with people from different cultures can be a complex process for individuals and their organisations, since cultural barriers can create misunderstandings that undermine multicultural interactions (Adler, 2008). For Nardon and Steers (2008), this intercultural reality is more complex than it appears to be, for several reasons: 1) individuals are often influenced by multiple cultures (national, regional, organisational, functional and professional); 2) in no country are people monolithic in their beliefs, values and behaviours; people are different even though they are from the same country of origin; 3) culture itself is very complex and may seem paradoxical to outsiders; and 4) business partners are also learning to interact with foreigners, which may make them deal with others in a way that is not typically characteristic of their culture (Nardon & Steers, 2008). Having as a final purpose the success of their business, organisations must offer conditions of integration and good communication. For that it is of the utmost importance to understand the cultural differences of the individuals and to know the cultural values of their society. The values that prevail in a society end up mirroring the culture of their organisations. For example, organisations based in societies with a more autonomous culture and with less rooted values may be relatively more open to change and cultural diversity. All organisational culture is influenced by the general societal culture, whether at the level of rewards policy (e.g., Erez & Earley, 1993), feedback (e.g., Morrison, Chen & Salgado, 2004), job satisfaction (e.g., Diener *et al.,* 2003; Posthuma, Joplin & Maertz, 2005), organisational commitment (Meyer *et al.,* 2002), psychological contract (Rosseau & Schalk, 2000;Pekerti & Thomas, 2003), leadership (Ensari & Murphy, 2003), performance evaluation or even dismissal practices (Rego & Cunha, 2009). The simple motivation to reach individual objectives and goals varies according to the culture of the society. Kurman (2001) has shown that in collectivist and far-reaching cultures, choosing moderate and achievable goals is more motivating than more complex and challenging goals and objectives. In the area of recruitment and selection, cultural competences can determine the contracting trend in the organisation. According to Horverak and colleagues (2013), those who demonstrate a less open attitude tend to be more detrimental when hiring an individual of another nationality (Horverak *et al.*, 2013). On the contrary, when individuals are open to the diversity of social categories they tend not to show discriminatory attitudes towards those who are different, whether of a different race, gender or age (Lauring & Selmer, 2013). Directors, managers and employees of organisations that operate globally interact daily with various cultures (Mendenhall, Dunbar & Oddou, 1987). For an accurate assessment of what motivates workers in a multicultural environment, organisations should understand the differences in values as well as the patterns of behaviour of individuals from other cultures (Ralston *et al.*, 1997) once the knowledge of such differences and behaviours is central to multicultural workers, not only for those working with individuals from other cultures but also for those working in a foreign country (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). In this multicultural context, competences such as cultural intelligence and multicultural personality may be the key to success for organisations dealing with cultural diversity on a daily basis (Sousa, Gonçalves & Cunha, 2015). Organisations should focus on the training of their collaborators, both in regard to cultural intelligence and multicultural personality as well as to knowledge of cultural values, and not only in regard to expatriates and immigrants but also to all of their collaborators, who, even without leaving their homeland, interact daily with members of other nationalities (Sousa *et al.*, 2015). From our point of view, an effective adjustment to cultural differences in the workplace will increase both well-being and work passion. In addition, incremental positive changes in these attributes present several advantages, not only for individuals, but also for their organisations, whether in terms of satisfaction, engagement, commitment, performance or motivation. Thus, the importance of identifying their predictors becomes a key factor in enabling organisations to devise strategies for their growth, seeking to promote a healthy organisational environment where multiculturalism is perceived as an asset. In summary, this study contributes to a greater understanding of cultural intelligence, multicultural personality and cultural dimensions, especially regarding outcome variables such as work well-being and work passion, for which studies are still scarce. Multicultural competences are key variables that support the employees of international organisations and also the employees of the host countries, who interact daily with colleagues or foreign clients. This is a group often neglected in international research because it is working in its home country (Bücker *et al*., 2014). However, these collaborators may experience anxiety or demotivation due to communication barriers and the lack of knowledge of certain cultural characteristics, which can mean, in the medium term, demotivation, malaise and dissatisfaction. Thus, increasing well-being at work and work passion can contribute to effective employee performance and also to the success of the entire organisation.

REFERENCES

Aalto, A., Heponiemi, T., Väänänen, A., Bergbom, B., Sinervo, T., & Elovainio, M. (2014). Is working in culturally diverse working environment associated with physicians' work-related well-being? A cross-sectional survey study among Finnish physicians. *Health Policy,* 117, 187-194.

Adler, N. (2008). *International Dimensions of Organizational Behaviour* (5th ed.). Thomson South-Western. Mason, OH.

Akay, A., Constant, A., & Giulietti, C. (2014). The impact of immigration on the well-being of natives. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization,* 103, 72-92.

Almeida, A. (2012). *Alguns conceitos sobre cultura*. [*Some concepts about culture*]. Acceded in 4th of November 2018, in: https://books.google.pt/books?id=fb-Nec1KFsYC

Almiro, P. & Simões, M. (2010). Questionário de Personalidade de Eysenck – Forma revista (EPQ-R): Breve revisão dos estudos de validade concorrente. [Eysenck Personality Questionnaire - Revised Form (EPQ-R): Brief review of concurrent validity studies]. *Revista Portuguesa de Psicologia [Portuguese Journal of Psychology]*, 42, 101-120. Acceded in 8th of May 2018, in: https://sites.google.com/site/revistaportuguesadepsicologia/numeros-publicados/vol-42/resumo-42-101.

Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., & Koh, C. (2007). Cultural intelligence: Its measurement and effects on cultural judgment and decision-making, cultural adaptation, and task performance. *Management and Organization Review*, 3, 335-371.

Anvari, R., Irum, S., Ashfaq, M., & Atiyaye, D. (2014). The impact of leader's cultural intelligence on organizational commitment. *Asian Social Science,* 10(17), 45-51.

Apfelbaum, E., Grunberg, R., Halevy, N., & Kang, S. (2017). From ignorance to intolerance: Perceived intentionality of racial discrimination shapes preferences for colorblindness versus multiculturalism. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology,* 69, 86-101.

Arasaratnam, L. (2013). A review of articles on multiculturalism in 35 years of IJIR. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations,* 37(6), 676-685.

Arnett, J. (2002). The psychology of globalization. *American Psychologist,* 57(10), 774-783.

Arthur, W. & Bennet, W. (1995). The international assignee: The relative importance of factors perceived to contribute to success. *Personnel Psychology*, 48, 99-114.

Aytug, Z.G., Kern, M.C., & Dilchert, S. (2018). Multicultural experience: Development and validation of a multidimensional scale. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations,* 65, 1-16.

Bakker, A. & Oerlemans, W. (2011). Subjective well-being in organizations. In K.S. Cameron & G.M. Spreitzer (Eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of Positive Organizational Scholarship* (pp. 178-189). New York: Oxford University Press.

Bakker, A., Rodríguez-Muñoz, A., & Derks, D. (2012). La emergencia de la Psicología de la Salud Ocupacional Positiva. *Psicothema,* 24, 66-72. Acceded in 24th of August 2018, in: http://www.psicothema.com/pdf/3980.pdf

Balon, S., Lecoq, J., & Rimé, B. (2013). Passion and personality: Is passionate behaviour a function of personality? *European Review of Applied Psychology,* 63(1), 59-65.

Bashar-Shrinivas, P., Harrison, D., Shaffer, M., & Luk, D. (2005). Input-based and time-based models of international adjustment: Meta-analytic evidence and theoretical extensions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48, 25-281.

Basow, S.A. & Gaugler, T. (2017). Predicting adjustment of U.S. college students studying abroad: Beyond the multicultural personality. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations,* 56, 39-51.

Bentler, P. (1990). Comparative fit indexes in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin,* 107(2), 238-246.

Bergbom, B. & Kinnunen, U. (2014). Immigrants and host nationals at work: Associations of co-worker relations with employee well-being. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations,* 43(B), 165-176.

Berry, J. (2006). Mutual attitudes among immigrants and ethnocultural groups in Canada. *International Journal of Intercultural Research,* 30, 719-734.

Brewster, C. (2007). A European perspective on HRM. *European Journal of International Management*, 1(3), 239-259.

Bücker, J., Furrer, O., Poutsma, E., & Buyens, D. (2014). The impact of cultural intelligence on communication effectiveness, job satisfaction and anxiety for Chinese host country managers working for foreign multinationals. The *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(14), 2068-2087.

Byrne, B. (2001). *Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications and programming*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Cantor, N. & Kihlstrom, J. (1985). Social Intelligence: The cognitive basis of personality. *Review of Personality and Social Psychology*, 6, 15-33.

Caputo, A., Ayoko, O., Amoo, N., & Menke, C. (2019). The relationship between cultural values, cultural intelligence and negotiation styles. *Journal of Business Research*, 99, 23-36.

Chen, A. (2015). CQ at work and the impact of intercultural training: an empirical test among foreign laborers. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations,* 47, 101-112.

Chen, A., Wu, I., & Bian, M. (2014). The moderating effects of active and agreeable conflict management styles on cultural intelligence and cross-cultural adjustment. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management,* 14(3), 270-288.

Chen, C.-C. & Chiu, S.-F. (2009). The mediating role of job involvement in the relationship between job characteristics and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Social Psychology,* 149(4), 474-494.

Crowne, K. (2008). What leads to cultural intelligence? *Business Horizons,* 51, 391-399.

Cunha, M., Rego, A., Cunha, R., & Cabral-Cardoso, C. (2005). *Manual de Comportamento Organizacional e Gestão*. [*Manual of organizational behavior and management*]. Lisboa: RH Editora.

Deci, E. & Ryan, R. (2008). Self-Determination Theory: A macrotheory of human motivation, development, and health. *Canadian Psychology,* 49(3), 182-185.

DeNeve, K. & Cooper H. (1998). The happy personality: A meta-analysis of 137 personality traits and subjective well-being. *Psychological Bulletin,* 124, 197-229.

Deng, L. & Gibson, P. (2009). Mapping and modeling the capacities that underlie effective cross-cultural leadership. An interpretative study with practical outcomes. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal,* 16(4), 347-366.

Diener, E. (1984). Subjective well-being. *Psychological Bulletin*, 95(3), 542-575. Acceded in 8th of November 2018, in: http://internal.psychology.illinois.edu/~ediener/Documents/Diener_1984.pdf

Diener, E. (2000). Subjective well-being: The science of happiness and a proposal for a national index. *American Psychologist,* 55, 34-43.

Diener, E. & Diener, M. (1995). Cross-cultural correlates of life satisfaction and self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 68, 653-663.

Diener, E., Oishi, S., & Lucas, R. (2003). Personality, culture, and subjective well-being: Emotional and cognitive evaluations of life. *Annual Review of Psychology,* 54, 403-425.

Earley, P. & Ang, S. (2003). *Cultural intelligence: Individual interactions across cultures*. Palo Alto, CA: Stanford University Press.

Earley, P. & Mosakowski, E. (2004). Cultural intelligence. *Harvard Business Review*, October, 139-153. Acceded in 12th of November 2018, in: http://hbr.org/2004/10/cultural-intelligence/ar/1

Elenkov, D. & Manev, I. (2009). Senior expatriate leadership's effects on innovation and the role of cultural intelligence. *Journal of World Business,* 44, 357-369.

Ensari, N. & Murphy, S. (2003). Cross-cultural variations in leadership perceptions and attribution of charisma to the leader. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes,* 92, 52-66.

Erez, M. & Earley, P. (1993). *Culture, self-identity and work*. USA: Oxford University Press.

Erp, K., Van der Zee, K., Giebels, E., & Dujin, M. (2014). Lean on me: The importance of one`s own and partner`s intercultural personality for expatriate`s and expatriate spouse`s successful adjustment abroad. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology,* 23(5), 706-728.

Forest, J., Mageau, G., Sarrazin, C., & Morin, E. (2011). "Work is my passion": The different affective, behavioural, and cognitive consequences of harmonious and obsessive passion toward work. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences,* 28, 27-40.

Gardner, H. (1993). *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences*. New York: Basic Books.

Gertsen, M. & Soderberg, A. (2010). Expatriate stories about cultural encounters – A narrative approach to cultural learning processes in multinational companies. *Scandinavian Journal of Management,* 26, 248-257.

Goedert, C., Albert, I., Barros, S., & Ferring, D. (2019). Welcome or not? – Natives' security feelings, attachment and attitudes toward acculturation of immigrants. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 69, 24-31.

Goleman, D. (1996). *Inteligência emocional. [Emotional intelligence*]. Lisboa: Círculo de Leitores.

Goleman, D. (2006). *Inteligência social. A nova ciência das relações humanas*. [*Social Intelligence. The new science of human relationships*]. Barcelos: Círculo de Leitores.

Gonçalves, G., Orgambídez-Ramos, A., Ferrão, M., & Parreira, T. (2014). Adaptation and initial validation of the Passion Scale in a Portuguese sample. *Escritos de Psicología,* 7(2), 19-27.

Gonçalves, G., Reis, M., Sousa, C., Santos, J., & Orgambídez-Ramos, A. (2015). The effect of multicultural experience in conflicts management styles: Mediation of cultural intelligence and self-monitoring. *Journal of Spatial and Organizational Dynamics,* 3(1), 4-21.

Gonçalves, G., Reis, M., Sousa, C., Santos, J., Orgambídez-Ramos, A., & Scott, P. (2016). Cultural intelligence and conflict management styles. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 24(4), 725-742.

Hanvey, R. (1976). Cross-cultural awareness. In E. Smith & L. Luce (Eds.), *Towards internationalism: Readings in cross-cultural communication (*pp. 44-56). Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers.

Helliwell, J. (2003). How's life? Combining individual and national variables to explain subjective well-being. *Economic Modelling*, 20, 331-360.

Ho, T., Wong, S., & Lee, C. (2011). A tale of passion: linking job passion and cognitive engagement to employee work performance. *Journal of Management Studies*, 48, 26-47.

Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind*. Maidenhead: McGraw-Hill.

Hofstede, G. (2011). Dimensionalizing Cultures: The Hofstede Model in context. *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture,* 2(1).

Hofstede, G. & Minkov, M. (2010). Long-versus short-term orientation: New perspectives. *Asia Pacific Business Review,* 16, 493-504.

Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G.-J., & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Horverak, J., Sandal, G., Bye, H., & Pallessen, S. (2013). Managers' selection preferences: The role of prejudice and multicultural personality traits in the assessment of native and immigrant job candidates. *Revue Européenne de Psychologie Appliquée*, 63, 267-275.

House, R., Javidan, M., Gupta, V., Dorfman, P., & Hanges, P. (2004). (Eds.). *Culture, leadership and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hu, L. & Bentler, P. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling,* 6, 1-55.

Huff, K., Song, P., & Gresch, E. (2014). Cultural intelligence, personality, and cross-cultural adjustment: A study of expatriates in Japan. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations,* 38, 151-157.

Inglehart, R. & Klingemann, H-D. (2000). Genes, culture, democracy, and happiness. Acceded in 12th of June 2018, in: http://isites.harvard.edu/fs/docs/icb.topic96263.files/genecultdemohap.pdf

Janssens, M. & Brett, J. (2006). Cultural Intelligence in Global Teams: A Fusion Model of Collaboration. *Group & Organization Management,* 31(1), 124-153.

Johnson, J., Lenartowicz, T., & Apud, S. (2006). Cross-cultural competence in international business: Toward a definition and a model. *Journal of International Business Studies,* 37(4), 525-543.

Kanungo, R. (1982). *Work alienation: An integrated approach*. New York: Praeger Publisher.

Kitayama, S., Markus, H., & Kurokawa, M. (2000). Culture, emotion, and well-being: Good feelings in Japan and the United States. *Cognition and Emotion*, 14, 93-124.

Kodwani, A. (2011). Cultural intelligence and engagement. *Singapore Management Review,* 33(2), 16-28. Retrieved from http://connection.ebscohost.com/c/articles/65870968/cultural-intelligence-engagement

Korzilius, H., Bücker, J., & Beerlage, S. (2017). Multiculturalism and innovative work behavior: The mediating role of cultural intelligence. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations,* 56, 13-24.

Kuhn, M. & McPartland, R. (1954). An empirical investigation of self-attitudes. *American Sociological Review,* 19, 68-76.

Kurman, J. (2001). Is self-enhancement related to modesty or to individualism-collectivism? A test with four Israeli groups. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology,* 4, 225-237.

Lara, L. (2014). Psychological well-being of immigrants in Spain: The immigrant paradox. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences,* 132, 544-548.

Lauring, J. & Selmer, J. (2013). Diversity attitudes and group knowledge processing in multicultural organizations. *European Management Journal,* 31, 124-136.

Lee, L. (2010). Multiple intelligences and the success of expatriation: The roles of contingency variables. *African Journal of Business Management*, 4, 3793-3804. Acceded in 12th of June 2018, in: http://www.academicjournals.org/AJBM

Leong, C. & Liu, J. (2013). Multiculturalism, beyond ethnocultural diversity and contestations. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 37(6), 657-750.

Leong, C. & Ward, C. (2006). Cultural values and attitudes toward immigrants and multiculturalism: The case of the Eurobarometer survey on racism and xenophobia. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations,* 30(6), 799-810.

Leung, A., Maddux, W., Galinsky, A., & Chiu, C. (2008). Multicultural experience enhances creativity: The when and how. *American Psychologist,* 63(3), 169-18.

Liu, D., Chen, X., & Yao, X. (2011). From autonomy to creativity: A multilevel investigation of the mediating role of harmonious passion. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 96, 294-309.

Livermore, D. (2011). *The cultural intelligence difference*. Retrieved from http://www.culturalq.com/docs/CQ-Difference-Chapter-1.pdf

Lodahl, T. & Kejner, M. (1965). The definition and measurement of job involvement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 49(1), 24-33.

Luhmann, M., Hofmann, W., Eid, M., & Lucas, R. (2012). Subjective well-being and adaptation to life events: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 102(3), 592-615.

Mageau, G., Vallerand, R., Rousseau, F., Ratelle, C., & Provencher, P. (2005). Passion and gambling: Investigating the divergent affective and cognitive consequences of gambling. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 35, 100-118.

Malek, M. & Budhwar, P. (2013). Cultural intelligence as a predictor of expatriate adjustment and performance in Malaysia. *Journal of World Business*, 48(2), 222-231.

Mendenhall, M. & Oddou, G. (1985). The dimensions of expatriate acculturation: A review. *The Academy of Management Review,* 10(1), 39-47.

Mendenhall, M., Dunbar, E. & Oddou, G. (1987). Expatriate selection, training and career-pathing: A review and critique. *Human Resource Management,* 26(3), 331-345.

Meyer, J., Stanley, P., Herscovitch, L., & Topolnytsky, L. (2002). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* 61(1), 20-52.

Montgomery, D. & Peck, E. (1982). *Introduction to linear regression analysis*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Morrison, E., Chen, Y-R., & Salgado, S. (2004). Cultural differences in newcomer feedback seeking: A comparison of the United States and Hong Kong. *Applied Psychology,* 53(1), 1-22.

Nardon, L. & Steers, R. (2008). The new global manager: Learning cultures on the fly. *Organizational Dynamics,* 37(1), 47-59.

Naumann, E. (1992). A conceptual model of expatriate turnover. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 23(3), 499-531.

Ng, K., Van Dyne, L., & Ang, S. (2009a). Developing global leaders: The role of international experience and cultural intelligence. *Advances in Global Leadership*, 5, 225-250.

Ng, K., Van Dyne, L., & Ang, S. (2009b). Beyond international experience: The strategic role of cultural intelligence for executive selection. In Paul R. Sparrow (Ed.), *Handbook of International Human Resource Management* (pp. 97-113). UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Orgambídez-Ramos, A., Borrego-Alés, Y., & Gonçalves, G. (2014). Passionate workers: A Spanish adaptation of the Passion Scale. *Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology,* 30, 43-48.

Pekerti, A. & Thomas, D. (2003). Communication in intercultural interaction: An empirical investigation of idiocentric and sociocentric communication styles. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology,* 34, 139-154.

Petrović, D. (2011). How do teachers perceive their cultural intelligence? *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 11, 276-280.

Podsakoff, P., MacKenzie, S., Lee, J., & Podsakoff, N. (2003). Common method variance in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 879-903.

Polat, S. & Metin, M. (2012). The relationship between the teachers' intercultural competence levels and the strategy of solving conflicts. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences,* 46, 1961-1968.

Ponterotto, J., Rucksdeschel, D., Joseph, A., Tennenbaum, E., & Bruno, A. (2011). Multicultural personality dispositions and trait emotional intelligence: An exploratory study. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 151, 556-576.

Posthuma, R., Joplin, J., & Maertz, C. (2005). Comparing the validity of turnover predictors in the U.S. and Mexico. *International Journal of Cross-Cultural Management,* 5(2), 165-180.

Railevna, B. (2017). Multiculturalism in education: Barriers of communicative creativity in the case of nonresident and foreign students in group training tasks solving. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences,* 237, 299-304.

Ralston, D., Holt, D., Terpstra, R., & Kai-Cheng, Y., (1997). The impact of natural culture and economic ideology on managerial work values: A study of the United States, Russia, Japan, and China. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 28, 177-207.

Ramalu, S., Wei, C., & Rose, R. (2011). The effects of cultural intelligence on cross-cultural adjustment and job performance amongst expatriates in Malasya. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(9), 59-71. Acceded in 8th of November 2018, in: http://ijbssnet.com/journals/Vol._2_No._9_[Special_Issue_-_May_2011]/9.pdf

Rego, A. & Cunha, M. (2009). *Manual de gestão transcultural de recursos humanos [Manual of transcultural management of human resources]*. Lisboa: Editora RH.

Ritzer, G. (2011). *Globalization: The essentials*. United Kingdom, UK: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Rodríguez-Muñoz, A. & Sanz-Vergel, A. (2013). Happiness and well-being at work: A special issue introduction. *Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 29, 95-97.

Rokeach, M. (1973). *The nature of human values*. New York: Free Press.

Rousseau, D. & Schalk, R. (2000). *Psychological contracts in employment: Cross-national perspectives*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Ruben, B. & Kealey, D. (1979). Behavioral assessment of communication competency and the prediction of cross-cultural adaptation. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations,* 3, 15-17.

Sánchez-Sánchez, L., Salaberri, S., & Sánchez-Pérez, M. (2017). Multiculturalism and internationalization in Spanish universities: ¿North-south socio-cultural differences? *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 237, 1125-1130.

Santos, J. & Gonçalves, G. (2010). Contribuição para a adaptação portuguesa da escala de Bem-estar no Trabalho de Warr (1990). *[Contribution to the Portuguese adaptation of Warr's (1990) Work Well-Being Scale]. Psicologia, Educação e Cultura [Psychology, Education, and Culture*], XIV(2), 285-300. Acceded in 18th of November 2018, in: http://www.cic.pt/pec/default.asp?link=_Volume%20XIV,%20N%BA%202%20-%20Dezembro%202010&Num=607&Vol=27

Santos, J., Gonçalves, G., & Gomes, A. (2013). Organizational culture and subjective and work well-being: The case of employees of Portuguese universities. *Journal of Spatial and Organizational Dynamics*, 1(3), 153-161.

Schaufeli, W. & Bakker, A. (2010). Defining and measuring work engagement: Bringing clarity to the concept. In A. Bakker & M. Leiter (Eds.), *Work engagement: A handbook of essential theory and re- search* (pp. 10-24). New York: Psychology Press.

Schimmack, U., Radhakrishnan, P., Oishi, S., Dzokoto, V., & Ahadi, S. (2002). Culture, personality, and subjective well-being: integrating process models of life satisfaction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 82(4), 582-593.

Schwartz, S. (1992). Universals in the content and structure of values: Theory and empirical tests in 20 countries. In M. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 25, pp. 1-65). New York: Academic Press.

Seligman, M. (2002). *Authentic happiness: using the new positive psychology to realize your potential for lasting fulfillment*. New York: Free Press/Simon and Schuster.

Seligman, M. & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2000). Positive psychology: An introduction. *American Psychologist,* 55(1), 5-14.

Shu, F., McAbee, S., & Ayman, R. (2017). The HEXACO personality traits, cultural intelligence, and international student adjustment. *Personality and Individual Differences,* 106, 21-25.

Soltani, B. & Keyvanara, M. (2013). Cultural intelligence and social adaptability: A comparison between Iranian and non-Iranian dormitory students of Isfahan University of Medical Sciences. *Materia Socio Medica,* 25(1), 40-43.

Sousa, C., Gonçalves, G., & Cunha, M. (2015). Cultural values as a support to the development of intercultural competences. *Spatial and Organizational Dynamics - Discussion Papers*, 14, 7-22.

Sousa, C., Gonçalves, G., Orgambídez-Ramos, A., & Santos, J. (2015). Escala de Personalidade Multicultural: Características métricas da adaptação para a população Portuguesa e correlatos com a inteligência cultural [Multicultural Personality Scale: Metric characteristics of the adaptation for Portuguese population and correlates with cultural intelligence]. *Revista Portuguesa de Psicologia*, 43, 31-47. Acceded in 24th of January 2018, in: https://drive.google.com/file/d/0B1_RKDDDXfXBX0NENmdWTTZocFU/view

Sousa, C., Gonçalves, G., Reis, M., & Santos, J. (2015). Evidências métricas da Escala de Inteligência Cultural numa amostra Portuguesa. [Metric evidence of the adaptation of the Cultural Intelligence Scale among a Portuguese sample]. *Psicologia: Reflexão e Crítica [Psychology: Reflextion and Critics],* 28(2), 213-222.

Spreitzer, G., McCall, M., & Mahoney, J. (1997). Early identification of international executive potential. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 82(1), 6-29.

Steel, P., Joseph, S., & Shultz, J. (2008). Refining the relationship between personality and subjective well-being. *Psychological Bulletin,* 134(1), 138-161.

Sternberg, R. (2000). *Handbook of Intelligence*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Suanet, I. & Van de Vijer, F. (2009). Perceived cultural distance and acculturation among exchange students in Russia. *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology,* 19, 182-197.

Taras, V., Steel, P., & Kirkman, B. (2012). Improving national cultural indices using a longitudinal meta-analysis of Hofstede's dimensions. *Journal of World Business,* 47, 329-341.

Thomas, D., Elron, E., Stahl, G., Ekelund, B., Ravlin, E., Cerdin, J., & Lazarova, M. (2008). Cultural intelligence: Domain and assessment. *International Journal of Cross-Cultural Management,* 8(2), 123-143.

Tov, W. & Diener, E. (2007). Culture and subjective well-being. In S. Kitayama & D. Cohen (Eds.), *Handbook of cultural psychology* (pp. 691-713). New York: Guilford.

Trompenaars, F. & Hampden-Turner, C. (1997). *Riding the waves of culture: Understanding diversity in global business.* New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Tsaur, S.H. & Tu, J.H. (2019). Cultural competence for tour leaders: Scale development and validation. *Tourism Management*, 71, 9-17.

Ullman, J. (2006). Structural equation modeling: Reviewing the basics and moving forward. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 87(1), 35-50.

Vallerand, R. & Houlfort, N. (2003). Passion at work: Toward a new conceptualization. In W. Gilliland, D. Steiner & D. Skarlicki (Eds.), *Emerging perspectives on values in organiza*tions (pp. 175-204). CT, Greenwich Village: Information Age publishing.

Vallerand, R., Rousseau, F., Grouzet, F., Dumais, A., Grenier, S., & Blanchard, C. (2006). Passion in sport: A look at determinants and affective experiences. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology,* 28, 454-478.

Van der Zee, K. & Van Oudenhoven, J. (2000). The Multicultural Personality Questionnaire: A multidimensional instrument of multicultural effectiveness. *European Journal of Personality,* 14, 291-309.

Van der Zee, K. & Van Oudenhoven, J. (2001). The Multicultural Personality Questionnaire: Reliability and validity of self and other ratings of multicultural effectiveness. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 35, 278-288.

Van der Zee, K., Van Oudenhoven, J., & Bakker, W. (2002). Individual differences in adaptation and well-being. In D. Gorter & K. Van der Zee (Eds.), *Frisians abroad* (pp. 57-69). Leeuwarden: FryskeAkademy Press.

Van der Zee, K., Van Oudenhoven, J., & Grijs, E. (2004a). Personality, threat and cognitive and emotional reactions to stressful intercultural situations. *Journal of Personality,* 72(2), 1069-1096.

Van der Zee, K., Van Oudenhoven, J., Ponterotto, J., & Fietzer, A. (2013). Multicultural Personality Questionnaire: Development of a short form. *Journal of Personality Assessment,* 95(1), 118-124.

Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., & Koh, C. (2008). Development and validation of the CQS. In S. Ang & L. Dyne (Org.). *Handbook of cultural intelligence: Theory, measurement and applications* (pp. 16-38). New York: Sharpe.

Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., & Livermore, D. (2010). Cultural intelligence: A pathway for leading in a rapidly globalizing world. In K. Hannum, B. B. McFeeters & L. Booysen (Org.). *Leading across differences* (pp. 131-138). San Francisco: Pfeiffer.

Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., & Nielsen, T. (2007). Cultural intelligence. In S. Clegg & J. Bailey (Org.), *International encyclopedia of organization studies* (Vol.1, pp. 345-350). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., Ng, K., Rockstuhl, T., Tan, M., & Koh, C. (2012). Sub-dimensions of the Four Factor Model of cultural intelligence: Expanding the conceptualization and measurement of cultural intelligence. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass,* 6(4), 295-313.

Van Oudenhoven, J., Mol, S., & Van der Zee, K. (2003). Study of the adjustment of Western expatriates in Taiwan ROC with the Multicultural Personality Questionnaire. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology,* 6, 159-170. Acceded in 24th of January 2018, in: http://hdl.handle.net/1765/1000

Warr, P. (1990). The measurement of well-being and other aspects of mental health. *Journal of Occupational Psychology,* 63, 193-210.

Warr, P. (2007). *Work, happiness and unhappiness*. Mahway, NJ: Earlbaum.

Woerkom, M. & Reuver, R. (2009). Predicting excellent management performance in an intercultural context: A study of the influence of multicultural personality on transformational leadership and performance. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management,* 20(10), 2013-2029.

Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A., & Ilies, R. (2012). Everyday working life: Explaining within-person fluctuations in employee well-being. *Human Relations,* 65, 1051-1069.

Zhao, X., & Namasivayam, K. (2009). Posttraining self-efficacy, job involvement, and training effectiveness in the hospitality industry. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality and Tourism*, 8(2), 137-152.

Zigarmi, D., Nimon, K., Houston, D., Witt, D., & Diehl, J. (2009). Beyond engagement: Toward a framework and operational definition for employee work passion. *Human Resource Development Review*, 8(3), 300-326.

THE INFLUENCE OF AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP ON PUBLIC EMPLOYEES ANALYZED THROUGH SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY: A CASE STUDY IN REPUBLIC OF MOLDOVA

Irina Bordei[1]
Joana Vieira dos Santos[2]
Gabriela Gonçalves[3]
Cátia Sousa[4]

ABSTRACT

This study examines the influence of authentic leadership on employees from public organizations analyzed through self-determination theory. Over the years, researchers analyzed different particularities of authentic leadership and its importance in nowadays' society. However, fewer researchers were interested in analyzing the influence of authentic leadership on employees through self-determination theory, especially in the perception of public ethical behavior. The theoretical model of this study proposes that authentic leadership is negatively correlated with public employees' positive attitude toward unethical behavior, namely corrupt acts. Also, authentic leadership and job satisfaction are positively related with public employees' work motivation. This positive relationship contributes to the decrease level of public employees' positive attitude toward corruption acts. The study was realized in different public organizations from Republic of Moldova. The total sample is composed by 98 participants. The hypotheses were tested through Multiple Hierarchical Regression. The study results showed that authentic leadership has a positive impact on work motivation. However, job satisfaction does not have any influence on public employees' perception of corruption acts. By contrast, authentic leadership behavior does have a positive impact on public employees' perception of corruption acts, but only when they perceive these acts as less serious.

Keywords: Authentic Leadership, Work Motivation, Job Satisfaction, Perception of Unethical Behavior, Public Manager, Public Employees.

JEL Classification: M12

1. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, the main goal of every Government is to ensure that its citizens are satisfied with their policies. Public organizations represent the link between Government and its citizens. Consequently, the quality degree of their public services influences the level of citizen's trust in their Government. If the employees from public organizations will provide high quality of public services, citizens will be satisfied with their Government. Therefore, the level of citizens' trust in their Government will increase. On the other hand, the Government must

[1] Martin Luther University Halle-Wittenberg, Halle an der Saale, Germany (irinabordei3@gmail.com)
[2] University of Algarve, Research Center in Psychology, Faro, Portugal (jcsantos@ualg.pt)
[3] University of Algarve, Research Center in Psychology, Faro, Portugal (ggoncalves@ualg.pt)
[4] University of Algarve, Research Center in Psychology, Faro, Portugal (cavsousa@ualg.pt)

ensure that its employees are satisfied with their job in order to have good job performance and to maintain citizens' loyalty.

Every private and public manager is focused on the promotion of suitable motivation tools in order to ensure an increasing of job satisfaction and work well-being (e.g., Santos, Gonçalves & Gomes, 2013; Mader, Santos & Gonçalves, 2018) and consequently increase performance and work ethical behavior of his employees. However, this human resource strategy does not always work. Often, the results of using motivation tools can be negative. Hence, it is important for every employee to have a worthy person that will be an example to follow. In opposite, unethical and incivility behavior of leader (supervisors, co-workers, clients, etc.) is associated with stress and burnout (Nitzsche, Ribeiro & Laneiro, 2018). As a result, a large number of managers adapt an authentic leadership behavior with the main goal to increase employees' intrinsic motivation level (Rego, Sousa, Marques & Pina e Cunha, 2011). Authentic leader was identified as an individual who is self-aware of his own improvements and activities, promoting high moral values and standards in his organization, contributing to the construction of these social values (see also Whitehead, 2009; Alilyyani, Wong & Cummings, 2018). This definition contains three main elements of an authentic leader: self-awareness; trustworthiness and commitment to organizational success. Thus, authentic leadership behavior creates an ethical working environment that generates and increase level of employees' self-awareness. Different researchers analyzed theoretical framework of authentic leadership. Over the last decades, they were mostly involved in analyzing empirical particularities of authentic leadership. Some researchers realized an investigation with the main goal to identify the influence of authentic leadership on employee's work activities (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004; Ilies, Morgeson & Nahrgang, 2005; Alok & Israel, 2012; see also Zhu, Song, Zhu & Johnson, 2019). Other topics of authentic leadership research were: the impact of authentic leadership and behavioral integrity on employees (see also Leroy, Palanski & Simons, 2011; Alilyyani *et al.*, 2018); the relationship between authentic leadership and job satisfaction and job performance (Wong & Laschinger, 2012); the influence of authentic leadership on team potency and its mediators (Rego, Vitória, Magalhães, Ribeiro & Pina e Cunha, 2013; see also Zhu *et al.*, 2019). In order to fulfill the research of authentic leadership behavior, it was also analyzed the particularities of authentic leadership dimensions and its importance (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing & Peterson, 2008; Leroy *et al.*, 2011; Peterson, Walumbwa, Avolio & Hannah, 2012; Weischer, Weibler & Petersen, 2013). Authentic leadership behavior is especially important in public organizations, in a high moral organizational culture, employees are more likely to adapt an ethical behavior and to avoid the violation of legal rules.

Self-determination theory is focused on explaining the particularities of human needs as motivation stimulus (Deci & Ryan, 2000; for a revision Ryan & Deci, 2019). According to this theory, the basic human needs are: competence, relatedness and autonomy which create an explanation of individual's behavior (Deci, 1972; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Arvanitis, 2017; see also Ryan & Deci, 2019). Those authors considered the motivation has a continuous from amotivation, extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation (Vallerand, Blais, Briére & Pelletier, 1989; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Vansteenkiste, Neyrinck, Niemiec, Soenens, Witte & Van den Broeck, 2007). Therefore, this theory explains the individual's behavior according to its main needs. Considering a deep research in authentic leadership theory and self-determination theory, it can be established that both theories mention the human inclination to ensure their psychological growth (Novicevic, Harvey, Buckley, Brown & Evans, 2006). Authentic leadership increases not just followers' intrinsic motivation, but also their trust in organization, their organizational commitment and overall job satisfaction level (Miniotaite & Buciuniene, 2013). Subsequently, authentic leadership behavior is positively related to the organizational development. Moreover, genuine leaders are more likely to be intrinsically motivated rather than other type of leaders (Miniotaite & Buciuniene, 2013). The high level of intrinsic motivation of authentic leader has a significant positive impact on their followers whose behavior is influenced by their leader. As a result, their activities become lead by high moral standards, which can be fostered through themselves. This leads to the idea that authentic leadership behavior generates positive outcomes from the people. It can be argued that authentic leadership behavior has a positive influence on employees' work motivation level. Moreover, job satisfaction is also positively related to public employees' work motivation. Job satisfaction is linked with high satisfaction level of their own activities and performance which generate a growth of their high moral and ethical behavior. Subsequently, their behavior does imply a negative attitude toward unethical activities.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Authentic leadership

Authentic leadership represents various ethical actions and knowingly reflective acts, which are skillfully executed (Begley, 2001). The self-knowledge is an important element of authentic leadership behavior, which suggests that a leader acts according to his beliefs and values. Through authentic leadership, the leader inspires his followers trust and high social values, which contribute to the maintenance of a high degree of self-awareness in themselves.

Authentic leadership behavior can be identified through its four dimensions: (1) self-awareness, (2) balanced processing, (3) internalized moral perspective and (4) relational transparency (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2008).

Self-awareness represents awareness of one's own knowledge, values, beliefs, motives and experiences (Ilies *et al.*, 2005). Therefore, it is essential for a leader to know his own potential, to control his own emotions, to act according to his values and to take decisions according to his experience. Self-awareness also relates how often a leader acknowledges his influence on other people (Peterson *et al.*, 2012). Therefore, self-awareness ensures that a leader takes full responsibility for his own actions and he is aware of his impact on people around him. The second dimension of authentic leadership, namely balanced processing was defined as the fact that every leader equitably analyzes all relevant data before making a decision (Peus, Wesche, Streicher, Braun & Frey, 2011). According to this dimension, leaders are interested in encouraging different points of view of their followers (Leroy *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, balanced processing can have a positive influence on authentic leader's activities. In order to have a decision, it is important to analyze all the circumstances and the factors which influence this decision. It should be also considered the alternative decisions and their influence in external environment. Balanced processing secures authentic leaders the capacity of developing themselves through their own decisions. The third dimension of the concept, internalized moral perspective, is a self-regulation process, identified in decisions and behaviors of that leader who is conducted by his moral standards and values (Leroy *et al.*, 2011; Peterson *et al.*, 2012). In a difficult situation, a leader with high moral values will act in a more pro-social and ethical manner (Walumbwa, Christensen & Hailey, 2011). Therefore, his decisions will be done according to his moral values which generate an ethical behavior. The last dimension of authentic leadership is relational transparency. Relational transparency represents a leader's ability to present himself, with his own expressions of beliefs and feelings to his followers, fostering trust and sharing information with them, encouraging them to express their ideas, challenges and opinions (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2008; Leroy *et al.*, 2011; Rego *et al.*, 2011; Peterson *et al.*, 2012). Taking into consideration the moral and honest behavior of the leader, relational transparency contributes to the reinforcement of follower's trust and loyalty in his leader. Therefore, it can be argued that this transparent relationship between authentic leader and his followers will contribute to strengthen the follower's positive outcomes.

Over the years, a large number of researchers have analyzed different aspects of authentic leadership and its influence on organizational activities. Some researchers have found that genuine leadership behavior is positively associated to employees' work engagement (Penger & Černe, 2014). Also, this relationship can be mediated by positive psychological environment which is secured by an authentic leadership behavior (Alok & Israel, 2012). Therefore, authentic leadership has a positive impact on employee's work engagement which subsequently increases their level of organizational commitment (Alok & Israel, 2012). As a result, authentic leadership generates high level of employees' work performance which contributes to the development of a productive working environment.

Other researchers have found that authentic leadership is positively related to group activities (Rego *et al.*, 2013; López, Alonso, Morales & León, 2015). Thus, authentic leadership is positively correlated with group cohesion and identification (López *et al.*, 2015). Also, authentic leadership has a positive impact on team potency. The main mediator in this process is team virtuousness, which increases team potency through the role of team affective commitment (Rego *et al.*, 2013). Thus, authentic leadership has a positive influence on its follower's team activities which increase positive output level of the organization. Authentic leadership has an essential impact in predicting employee's creativity (Rego *et al.*, 2011). This impact can be established directly or through the hope which is identified as an intermediary element in this process (Rego, Sousa, Marques & Pina e Cunha, 2014). So, the positive effect of authentic leadership would be showned on employee's hope, thus, creativity. Job satisfaction and job performance are influenced by authentic leadership behavior through empowerment dimension (Wong & Laschinger, 2012). Consequently, if an employee is authorized to realize new responsible task, the job satisfaction and job performance will increase. Therefore, it can be established that authentic leadership behavior has an important influence on employee's job performance.

2.2 Self-determination theory

Self-determination theory is a general theory of motivation that try to systematically explain the dynamics of human needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2019). Nowadays, self-determination theory can be identified as one of the most empirically supported motivation theories (Farah-Jarjoura, 2014). According to this theory, it can be established that every individual has its own personal needs which he is willing to fulfill them. Therefore, if public manager will adapt adequate motivation tools for his employees according to their needs then public employees will be satisfied and their job performance level will increase.

Self-determination theory argues that there are three main psychological needs for an individual, namely competence, relatedness and autonomy.

Competence supposes that a person should be involved in varied challenges and should experience all aspects from physical and social worlds (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The need of competence is achieved when individuals perceive that they are capable and productive during the fulfillment of their actions (Sheldon, Elliot, Kim & Kasser, 2001). Therefore, every individual must feel competent, because this strengthens his own personality and confidence in himself. As a result, the individual become self-assured and he can try to accomplish challenging tasks. Under an environment where employee will feel competent, he will be more motivated to perform the objectives at high levels.

The second psychological need, namely relatedness, was identified as a wish to be part of a social group, to be connected with its members, to care for others and to understand that they also care for you (Lin, 2016). Therefore, relatedness refers to individual's need to socialize and to be connected with other individuals. Their communications needs are very important, because the feeling of belongingness to a group reinforces the individual's confidence in himself. Moreover, he becomes more open-minded and sociable. Relatedness is very important for organizations, especially for the public ones, because those employees have direct connections with beneficiaries of public services. Thus, the process of providing public services becomes more improved. A large number of public organizations promote their organizational culture in their work environment in order to consolidate the employee's feeling of security and belongingness.

The last psychological need of self-determination theory is autonomy. Autonomy implies the capacity of an individual to self-organize and regulate his own behavior in the process of achieving his goals based on his regulatory demands (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2019). Therefore, the need of autonomy is the need of a person to be individual, to act according to his interests and values and to achieve his objectives in his own manner. Subsequently, this behavior becomes individualistic. Employees demonstrate self-control of their behavior that generates a bureaucratic working environment.

2.3 The authentic leadership and the motivation of public organization workers

In public organizations, their managers guarantee the motivation policies. If the public manager adapts an authentic behavior, he is more likely to implement appropriate motivation strategies which affect work motivation of his employees. Job satisfaction, which is positively related to work motivation, can generate a decrease level of public employees' potential to act unethically. Thus, public manager must secure an adequate working environment and he should strengthen organizational culture of his organization in a suitable manner. According to self-determination theory, there are three types of motivation: intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation.

According to the first type of motivation, namely intrinsic motivation, public employees can be affected by internal factors. Intrinsically motivated public employees want to be involved in challenging tasks and to accomplish actions that increase their self-assurance. Subsequently, it is important that every public employee to be intrinsically motivated. This motivation can be generated by an authentic leadership behavior. Every public manager acts according to his values and beliefs. If the manager adapts an authentic behavior, which supposes promotion of trust, confidence and resilience through its employees, it can be considered that public manager will positively influence the intrinsic motivation of these public employees. According to the second type of motivation, namely extrinsic motivation, individuals can be affected by different external factors. According to these factors, the individual adapts corresponding behavior. Consequently, public employee can be involved in the implementation process of different public projects in order to achieve prestige, status or high income. Authentic public manager will successfully implement suitable motivation strategies in his organization. It can be identified 2 types of external rewards: verbal reinforcement (positive feedback) and pecuniary rewards (Deci, 1972). Consequently, if public manager uses a verbal reinforcement, the level of intrinsic motivation of his employees will increase. By contrast, if public manager will use pecuniary rewards, his employees will perceive that their behavior is controlled. Thus, their level of intrinsic motivation will decrease. As a result, in order to maintain a high level of intrinsic motivation, the authentic public manager will reward his employees with rather verbal reinforcement than with monetary rewards. Amotivation is an individual state without motivation (for a review Ryan & Deci, 2019). Amotivation is identified in the situation where employee is not interested in controlling his desired results. In this case, the authentic public manager must adapt a suitable behavior (e.g., offering a financial reward or acknowledgement of his employee's past achievements) in order to increase employee's motivation level.

Taking into consideration the influence of authentic leadership behavior on public employees, the following hypothesis can be formulated:

Hypothesis 1: The authentic leadership behavior in public organizations has a positive influence on employees' work motivation level.

A large number of public managers consider that the most appropriate motivation strategies should involve the increase of extrinsic motivation rather than intrinsic motivation level of their employees. However, some researchers found that private employees are more externally motivated than public employees (Rashid & Rashid, 2012). Thus, financial rewards or career development opportunities will produce more effect on private rather than public employees. Authentic leader creates positive psychological environment by promoting self-awareness and transparency within his followers (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2008). Consequently, authentic public manager will encourage their employees toward high performance through his beliefs and integrity, rather than external rewards. The creation of honest and reliable working atmosphere causes a raised level of employee's intrinsic motivation.

If leaders will adopt an authentic leadership behavior, then their level of intrinsic motivation will increase (Ilies *et al.*, 2005). Subsequently, authentic leaders' attitude and attachment toward work has a positive impact on employees' intrinsic motivation. Moreover, authentic leaders encourage the followers' self-determination. Taking into consideration that authentic public manager is interested in supporting intrinsic motivation of his employees, he will not just have a positive impact on employee's mood (Hsiung, 2011), but also, he will ensure an increased level of employee's creativity (Rego *et al.*, 2011). Consequently, public employees' job performance and job satisfaction will increase. Taking into consideration the impact of authentic leadership behavior on public employees' work motivation level, it can be formulated the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: The increase work motivation level of public employees is positively related to their job satisfaction.

One of the major problems in public organizations is unethical behavior of public employees. The most important element of unethical behavior is corruption acts. Corruption can be defined as a specific behavior of an individual, through which he makes abuse of his work position in favor of another person or institution (Rabl, 2011). Corruption can be identified through different forms, such as bribery, theft, fraud, favoritism, nepotism and others. However, in public organizations more often can be established the phenomena such as bribery, favoritism, gift-giving, nepotism and clienteles. One of the most important consequences of corruption in organizations is the discredit of the working environment and of the organization's reputation (Santos, Guevara, Amorim & Ferraz-Neto, 2012). Acts of corruption encourage the public employee's unethical behavior and promote low moral standards. It is important for every public manager to identify suitable motivation tools in order to avoid corruption acts in public organizations. Also, he must encourage ethical behavior in order to ensure that his employees will adapt a negative attitude toward corruption acts.

Some researchers (e.g., Van Rijckeghem & Weder, 2001) found that higher public employee's salaries (relative to manufacturing wages) are associated with less corruption. By contrast, others (e.g., Barr, Lindelow & Serneels, 2009) established strong arguments that service providers do not realize their job better when they have higher wages. Authentic leadership behavior contributes to the increased level of employee's intrinsic motivation. Subsequently, public employees will be reserved from acting in a corrupt manner and they will adapt a negative attitude toward it. The corruption in public organizations can be consolidated by unsatisfied public employees. The factors which can contribute to a high level of public employees' job dissatisfaction are: low level of job security, bad working environment and low level of socialization in the public organization. These elements consolidate the growth of employees' acts of corruption. Therefore, the higher is job satisfaction of public employees the lower is their positive perception of corruption. As a result, it can be formulated the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: The increase level of public employees' job satisfaction increase their negative attitude toward corruption acts from public organizations.

3. METHOD

3.1 Sample

The sample was collected from seven public organizations from Republic of Moldova. All its participants are actively involved in different domains (educational field, health field and administrative field). Only completed correctly questionnaires were considered. The sample is comprised of 98 participants, were 19,4% are male (N = 19) and 80,6% are female (N = 79). Taking into consideration that the age range of participants is between 22 and 61 years (Mean (M) = 37.12, Standard Deviation (SD) = 12.47), it can be determined that the vast majority of respondents are middle aged public employees. In terms of work experience, it can be established that the majority of participants are involved in their job between 2 and 15 years (M = 12.22, SD = 12.63). With reference to the marital status, it can be identified that most of participants are married (74,5 %), followed by those who are single (19,4 %), divorced/widowed (6,1%).

3.2 Measures

Instruments used for data collection were: Authentic Leadership Inventory questionnaire, Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic motivation scale, Global Job Satisfaction scale and one questionnaire realized by Haberfeld, Kutnjak Ivkovich, Klockars and Pagon (2000) in order to establish the public employees' attitude toward corruption. All these questionnaires were translated into Romanian language.

Authentic Leadership Inventory. Measure developed by Neider and Schriesheim (2011) used to measure the degree of manager's authenticity during the accomplishment of their work. This is a 16-item questionnaire comprising the measurement of four dimensions of authentic leadership: self-awareness; relational transparency; internalized moral perspective and balanced processing. The Cronbach alpha for this scale is .918.

Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (short version, 18 items). Originally developed by Blais, Brière, Lachance, Riddle and Vallerand (1993) but adopted by Tremblay, Blanchard, Taylor, Pelletier and Villeneuve (2009) in English version. This instrument was used to measure the degree of employees' work motivation level. This 18-item tool is a multidimensional measure that includes six factors of motivation: intrinsic motivation; integrated regulation; identified regulation; introjected regulation; external regulation and amotivation. The Cronbach alpha for Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (18-items) is .871.

Global Job Satisfaction. Warr, Cook and Wall (1979) realized this instrument. Includes 15 items used for the measurement of job satisfaction level. The Cronbach's alpha for Global Job Satisfaction scale (15-items) is .885.

Attitude of public employees toward unethical behavior. This instrument, realized by Haberfeld *et al.* (2000) was used to identify the attitude of public employees toward unethical behavior, namely their position toward corruption. This instrument contains 10 situational questions for the establishment of individual's attitude toward acts of corruption. The scale Perception of Corruption (10-items) has a Cronbach's alpha of .836.

All the questionnaires were rated according to a Likert-type scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree), except the Perception of Corruption survey, which was rated on a 5-points Likert-type scale, with alternative ranging from 1 (Totally disagree) to 5 (Totally agree).

3.3. Procedure

The data collection was carried out in seven public organizations, from Republic of Moldova, during a period of three months.

All participants were asked to answer a complex questionnaire, composed by four parts (authentic leadership inventory; work intrinsic and extrinsic motivation scale; global job satisfaction scale and establishment of public employees' corruption attitude through 10 situational questions). The tools used for the data collection were the interview and individual fulfillment of the questionnaire. The interview and the fulfillment of the questionnaire for each person were realized between 20 and 35 minutes. In order to respect the ethical criteria, the questionnaires were voluntary and anonymous.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Mean and standard deviations

The mean scores and standard deviations for all the variables under study are displayed on Table 1.

According to this table, the overall mean score for authentic leadership is 5.42, with the internal moral perspective dimension having the highest mean (M = 5.51, SD = .847) and relational transparency dimension presenting the lowest mean (M = 5.28, SD = 953). Regarding work motivation, mean score range from the lowest score 3.65 (SD = 1.39) for amotivation to the highest score of 6.06 (SD = .808) for intrinsic motivation. The overall mean score for work motivation is 5.40 (SD = .748). The mean score for global job satisfaction is 5.36 (SD = .788) while for perception of corruption is 2.24 (SD = .672).

Table 1. Mean and Standard Deviation for authentic leadership's dimensions, work motivation factors, job satisfaction and perception of corruption

	Mean	SD	
Authentic leadership inventory			
Self-awareness	5.47	.990	**Mean** = 5.42 **SD** = .844
Relational transparency	5.28	.953	
Internalized moral perspective	5.51	.847	
Balanced processing	5.42	.966	
Work extrinsic and intrinsic motivation scale			
Intrinsic Motivation	6.06	.808	**Mean** = 5.40 **SD** = .748
Extrinsic motivation	5.67	.884	
- External regulation	5.20	1.35	
- Introjected regulation	6.03	.768	
- Identified regulation	5,78	1.05	
- Integrated regulation	5.68	1.17	
Amotivation	3.65	1.39	
Global job satisfaction scale	5.36	.788	
Corruption Perception			
- Perception of corruption more serious	1.68	.666	**Mean** = 2.24 **SD** = .672
- Perception of corruption less serious	3.08	.965	

Source: Own Elaboration

Table 2. Mean and Standard Deviation for measurement of corruption perception according to the respondents' conception of seriousness of corruption acts

	Mean	SD	
Perception of corruption more serious			**Mean**= 1.68 **SD**=.666
Incidents of bribery	1.97	1.08	
Theft 1	1.50	.87	
- Violating organizational rules 1	1.83	1.08	
Theft 2	1.45	.72	
- Violating organizational rules 2	1.46	.73	
- Readiness to report an offender	1.89	.87	
Perception of corruption less serious			**Mean**=3.08 **SD**=.965
Conflict of interest	3.70	.99	
Small gifts receiving	3.22	1.32	
Holidays gifts receiving	2.52	1.24	
Receipt of kickback	2.90	1.39	

Source: Own Elaboration

However, according to the Table 2, it can be established that the lower level of seriousness perception of corruption has the conflict interest, small and holiday gifts receipt and kickback receipt (M = 3.08, SD = .965). By contrast, the level of corruption seriousness' perception become higher in bribery and theft acts, readiness to report an offender and violation of organizational rules (Mean = 1.68, SD = .666).

4.2 Regression and comparative analysis

In order to find a model predictive of authentic leadership behavior and job satisfaction, a multiple linear regression was performed. Various models were carried out to determine the influence of these variables on the dependent variables (work motivation level and perception of corruption).

4.2.1 Work intrinsic/extrinsic motivation level Measurement – Regression

The predictive effect of authentic leadership and its dimensions on work motivation is presented in Table 3.

According to this table, it can be determined that authentic leadership has a significant contribution to work motivation (β = .287, p = .004), especially through balanced processing dimension (β = .306, p = .002). This means that the higher is authenticity of a behavior, the higher is the work motivation of an individual. However, analyzing the predictive effect of authentic leadership behavior and its dimensions on each factor of work motivation, it can be determined the following facts. Authentic leadership behavior has a significant contribution to extrinsic motivation (β = .341, p = .001) and its external regulation (β = .323, p = .001) and identified regulation (β = .342, p = .001) factors. By contrast, this significance decreases for the rest of work motivation factors (e.g., for intrinsic motivation, β = .266, p = .008; for integrated regulation, β = .257, p = .011; for introjected regulation, β = 142, p =.062), especially for amotivation, where authentic leadership behavior contributes negatively to it (β = -.095, p = 353).

Table 3. Hierarchical regression for the prediction of work motivation and its six factors

	Work motivation			Intrinsic motivation			Extrinsic motivation		
	β	t	*p*	β	t	*p*	β	t	*p*
Authentic leadership Inventory	.287	2.93	**.004**	.266	2.70	**.008**	.341	3.55	**.001**
Self-awareness dimension	.283	2.89	.005	.261	2.65	.009	.350	3.66	**.000**
Relational transparency dimension	.279	2.84	.005	.224	2.24	.027	.292	2.98	.004
Internalized moral perspective dimension	.149	1.48	.142	.152	1.50	.136	.202	2.01	.046
Balanced processing dimension	.306	3.15	**.002**	.309	3.18	**.002**	.367	3.87	**.000**
Job satisfaction	.532	6.15	**.000**	.468	5.18	**.000**	.624	7.82	.000
	External Regulation			**Introjected Regulation**			**Identified Regulation**		
	β	t	*p*	β	t	*p*	β	t	*p*
Authentic leadership inventory	.323	3.34	**.001**	.142	1.41	**.062**	.342	3.56	**.001**
Self-awareness	.351	3.67	**.000**	.147	1.45	.150	.332	3.45	**.001**
Relational transparency	.190	1.89	.061	.199	1.99	.049	.322	3.33	**.001**
Internalized moral perspective	.222	2.22	.028	.055	.536	.593	.229	2.30	.024
Balanced processing	.387	4.11	**.000**	.103	1.01	.313	.336	3.49	**.001**
Job satisfaction	.534	6.18	**.000**	.381	4.03	**.000**	.589	7.14	**.000**

	Integrated Regulation				Amotivation		
	β	t	*p*		β	t	*p*
Authentic leadership inventory	.257	2.60	**.011**		-.095	-.934	**.353**
Self-awareness	.258	2.61	.010		-.128	-1.26	.208
Relational transparency	.243	2.45	.016		.028	.275	.784
Internalized moral perspective	.112	1.10	.270		-.118	-1.16	.246
Balanced processing	.295	3.02	**.003**		-.124	-1.22	.223
Job satisfaction	.492	5.54	**.000**		-.142	-1.40	**.163**

Source: Own Elaboration

Regarding the authentic leadership dimensions, it can be determined a significant influence of self-awareness and balanced processing dimensions on extrinsic work motivation (β = .350, p = .000, β = .367, p = .000) and on its external regulation factor (β = 351, p = .000; β = 387, p = .000). Similar to extrinsic motivation factor, self-awareness, relational transparency and balanced processing dimensions of authentic leadership have a significant contribution to identified regulation factor (β = .332, p = .001; β = 322, p = .001; β = .336, p = .001). Balanced processing dimension of authentic leadership has a significant influence on intrinsic motivation (β = .309, p = .002) and on integrated regulation (β = .295, p = .003) factors.

Job satisfaction is positively related to work motivation (β = .532, p = .000) and its three dimensions, except amotivation, where job satisfaction negatively associated to it (β = -.142, p = .163). Separately, authentic leadership behavior explains about 8% of work motivation (R^2 = .082, p = .004) while job satisfaction shows about 28% explanation of work motivation (R^2 = .283, p = .000).

4.2.2 Perception of corruption level Measurement – Regression

The predictive effect on corruption perception is presented on Table 4. There are few dimensions with significant contributions.

Authentic leadership behavior and its dimensions have no predictive effect on perception of corruption, except only in the case when perception of corruption' seriousness is low. Subsequently, in this case, authentic leadership behavior has a significant contribution on it (β = .332, p = .001). Its two dimensions, namely self-awareness and balanced processing have also a significant contribution to low seriousness of corruption perception (β = .394, p = .000, β = .230, p = .004). Job satisfaction has no predictive effect on perception of corruption.

Table 4. Hierarchical regression for the prediction of corruption perception and its two levels

	Corruption Perception			Perception of corruption more serious			Perception of corruption less serious		
	β	t	*p*	β	t	*p*	β	t	*p*
Authentic leadership inventory	.247	2.49	.014	.094	.925	.357	.332	3.44	**.001**
Self-awareness	.265	2.69	.008	.066	.650	.517	.394	4.19	**.000**
Relational transparency	.182	1.81	.072	.092	.903	.369	.222	2.23	.028
Internalized moral perspective	.243	2.45	.016	.136	1.35	.180	.281	2.87	.005
Balanced processing	.197	1.96	.052	.050	.495	.622	.290	2.96	**.004**
Job satisfaction	.057	.562	.575	-.125	-1.23	.218	.230	2.31	.023

Source: Own Elaboration

5. CONCLUSION

Authentic leadership behavior was studied by a large number of researchers (e.g., Avolio *et al.*, 2004; Gardner *et al.*, 2011). Its empirical aspects underline its importance in nowadays society (e.g., Azanza, Moriano & Molero, 2013; Hinojosa, Davis McCauley, Randolph-Seng & Gardner, 2014). However, fewer researchers analyzed the relationship between self-determination theory and authentic leadership behavior (Miniotaite & Buciuniene, 2013). The purpose of this study was to determine to what extend authentic leadership behavior influence employees' work motivation and what kind of relationship there is between work motivation and job satisfaction. Also, one of the main goals was to identify if there is a relationship between job satisfaction and employees' willingness to act unethically during their work performance and what is the role of authentic leadership behavior in this process.

In order to guarantee a detailed analysis, it was examined the differences between the variable's dimensions. The regression analysis showed that authentic leadership behavior has a strong influence on public employees' work motivation, especially through its balanced processing dimension. Therefore, it can be mentioned that the first hypothesis of this research was supported. Authentic leadership behavior creates a supportive working environment, where employees' self-determination is encouraged (Ilies *et al.*, 2005). Thus, they are motivated, especially when their manager (under a fair decision-making process) takes suitable decisions for his public organization. A fair decision-making process increases public employees' work motivation and loyalty in their manager. Moreover, authentic managers, through their own behavior example, motivate their followers to achieve high performance (Toor & Ofori, 2008). Therefore, employees become more motivated in performing their job at a high level, increasing their group performance and collective efficacy (Xiong & Fang, 2014).

According to the research results of this study, it can be established that genuine behavior has a strong impact on extrinsic motivation, especially through self-awareness and balanced processing dimensions. Taking into consideration these results, it can be argued that public employees are motivated by their public manager's behavior in acknowledging his strengths and weaknesses, especially during decision-making process. Consequently, public manager's decisions which generate changes in organization are accordingly to his employees' expectations. Thus, public employees' extrinsic motivation is moderately increased. External regulation which represents a subtype of controlled motivation (Broeck, Lens, Witte & Coillie, 2013) is positively influenced by authentic leadership behavior. Public employees' behavior, being externally regulated, is lead by the desire to obtain benefits or to avoid punishments. Authentic leadership behavior has an important impact on public employees' identified regulation, the third factor of extrinsic motivation, through all its dimensions (except internalized moral perspective dimension). In comparison with external regulation, identified regulation is an autonomous type of motivation (Vandercammen, Hofmans & Theuns, 2014). Thus, public employee is performing his tasks according to his values, because he has internalized his work value. Individuals with a raised level of identified regulation are motivated to fulfill a task because it is important and valuable for them (Li, Tan & Teo, 2012). Authentic managers promote individual identification between their employees, in order to influence their values (Avolio *et al.*, 2004). Therefore, authentic leadership behavior maintains a strong relationship with identified regulation factor of public employees, as the research results of this study have shown.

Authentic leadership behavior does not have a strong impact on public employees' intrinsic motivation, except through its balanced processing dimension. Intrinsically motivated individuals, based on their desire to receive enjoyment or to meet an obligation (such as his ethic values), perform an activity in order to obtain satisfaction, without being influenced by external factors (Li *et al.*, 2012). Subsequently, the influence of authentic leadership in this case is low. According to the research results of this study, it can be argued that authentic leadership behavior has a stronger influence on public employees' extrinsic motivation than on intrinsic one. These results can be explained by the fact that extrinsic factors, used by authentic managers during their leadership, affect the public employees' accomplishments during their job performance. Thus, financial rewards and recognitions of public employees' successes create a supportive environment for employees which become extrinsically motivated. Public employees' intrinsic motivation is increasing because of individual factors, such as pleasure for fulfillment of tasks, desire to achieve success and personal respect.

Job satisfaction is positively related to employees' work motivation and all its factors (except amotivation factor). This leads to the idea that an increased level of job satisfaction generates a raising level of public employees' work motivation. Hence, the second hypothesis of this research was supported. Previous studies confirm the research results of this study (e.g., Pool, 1997; Fanimehin & Popoola, 2013). However, extrinsic factors (which affect extrinsic motivation) have also a positive relationship with job satisfaction (Shah, Musawwir-Ur-Rehman, Akhtar, Zafar & Riaz, 2012; Mafini & Dlodlo, 2014). Consequently, when work motivation increases, job satisfaction's level raises as well. By contrast, when work motivation decreases, job satisfaction's level drops off (Singh & Tiwari, 2011).

Authentic leadership behavior does not have any influence on public employees' corruption perception, except the case when they perceive the corruption less serious. For example, public employees from Republic of Moldova consider that the conflict of interest, small and holiday gifts and kickback receipt are accepted behaviors as a part of their activities. In this case, it can be determined that authentic leadership behavior is positively correlated with employees' acceptance of small bribe and conflict of interest or kickback if situation requires. This can be argued through existentialist theory, which mentions that the concept of authenticity does not mandatory contain ethical notions (Guignon & Pereboom, 1995; Algera & Lips-Wiersma, 2012). Therefore, authentic leadership behavior can positively influence some aspects of corruption through its individualistic characteristics. This behavior does not mandatory include ethical values and it can be positively associated with corruption. By contrast, authentic leadership behavior does not have any influence on employees' perception of corruption when they perceive the corruption more serious. Employees from Moldavian public organizations do not accept bribery, theft acts and violation of organizational rules as general behaviors at their workplaces. Also, they agree with the idea of necessity in reporting an offender if the situation requires. However, it is acknowledged the fact that it is more likely that employees will take unethical decisions if they will be tempted to take these decisions (Cianci *et al*, 2014). Thus, it is important for public manager to take all necessary measures for eliminating unethical behavior's opportunities of public employees. However, previous studies have shown that high moral leadership behavior is positively correlated with employees' ethical behavior. For instance, a raised level of authenticity in a manager's behavior can generate a decrease level of employees' intentions to act immorally during their job activities (Tang & Liu, 2011). Hence, public employees under an authentic leadership will maintain an ethical behavior and they will create a high moral working environment.

Job satisfaction does not have any influence on public employees' perception of corruption. Authentic leadership behavior has an essential impact on employees' job satisfaction. Therefore, genuine management creates a supportive working environment which increases the level of public employees' job satisfaction (Peus *et al.*, 2011; Wong & Laschinger, 2012; Men & Stacks, 2014). This strong relationship can be explained by the positive characteristics of authentic leadership (such as promotion of high moral values, encouragement of organizational culture and participative working environment) which are fostered through public organization. As a result, public employees are satisfied with their working conditions which lead them to perform better their job and to improve their outcomes.

5.1 Practical Implications and Contributions

Authentic leadership behavior has an essential role in every public organization. Its positive aspects increase the level of employee's job satisfaction which is positively related to employee's work motivation. The main objective of every organization is to decrease their employees' unethical behavior (e.g., corruption acts) which can be influenced by a genuine leadership behavior. In order to achieve this goal, public organizations increase their attention toward leadership style of their manager. As a result, a large number of public organizations promote authenticity in their leader's activities which results in high organizational outcomes.

Self-determination theory argues that every individual has three main psychological needs: competence, relatedness and autonomy. According to the first need, every individual should be implicated in various challenges in order to experience all elements from social worlds (Deci & Ryan, 2000). One of the main characteristics of authentic manager is the empowerment of his employees and the support of their ideas (Rego *et al.*, 2011). As a result, he contributes to the encouragement of his employees' competence. This encouragement generates an increased level of employees' organizational commitment and performance (Leroy *et al.*, 2011). Another psychological need of employees is relatedness. According to this psychological need, every individual wants to be part of a team and to interact with his members (e.g., Lin, 2016). Previous studies have shown that authentic manager is positively correlated with group cohesion and identification (López *et al.*, 2015) which has a positive impact on group potency (Rego *et al.*, 2015). Thus, authentic manager creates supportive working environment for his employees. Authentic managers encourage his employees to act autonomously and assist them in implementation process of their ideas. According to the authentic manager' support for his employees, it can be sustained that authentic leadership positively benefits his employees' self-determination. Thus, employees became more motivated in working process and they try to achieve excellence (Hinjosa *et al.*, 2014). The research results of this study have shown that authentic leadership behavior has a positive influence on public employees' work motivation, especially on extrinsic motivation. Thus, genuine behavior creates all conditions for a productive working environment that generates opportunity for organizational development.

Authentic leadership behavior has a positive influence on employees' work engagement (e.g., Alok & Israel, 2012; Penger & Černe, 2014; Abidin, 2017) and on job satisfaction (Peus *et al.*, 2011; Wong & Laschinger, 2012; Men & Stacks, 2014). Job satisfaction significantly influences the quality of public services (e.g., Budiyanto & Oetomo, 2011). Organizations under a genuine leadership behavior assure an active and efficient working environment for its employees. These organizational conditions generate a growth level of public employees' work motivation level. Taking into consideration the research results of this study, it can be argued that job satisfaction is positively related with work motivation. Subsequently, the higher is employee's job satisfaction level, the higher is his work motivation (e.g., Pool, 1997).

According to the three types of work motivation provided by self-determination theory, it can be argued that every authentic manager must promote suitable human resources strategies in order to increase motivation level of his employees (except amotivation level). The results of this research study pointed out that job satisfaction has a significant impact on employees' work motivation level. The studies of other researchers also have shown that job satisfaction has a positive influence on employees' work motivation level, namely on extrinsic motivation (Mafini & Dlodlo, 2014) and on intrinsic motivation (Shah *et al.*, 2012). Also, according to the research results of this study, it can be established that public employees are more intrinsically than extrinsically motivated. Therefore, public employees are less influenced by extrinsic factors than intrinsic ones (e.g., monetary rewards) (Abdullah, Ahsan & Alam, 2009; Rashid & Rashid, 2012). By contrast, other researchers argued that public employees are influenced by external factors, because they are willing to have good working conditions, friendly co-workers, task rotation or monetary rewards (e.g., Wright, 2001). Taking into consideration that authentic manager encourages a productive working environment, it can be sustained that employees will be both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated with their job.

Neither authentic leadership nor job satisfaction have any influence on employees' attitude toward unethical behavior, namely corruption acts, when they perceive these acts as more serious. However, the research results of this study have shown that public employees have a significant negative attitude toward corruption acts especially thefts, bribery and violation of organization' rules. Individuals with high moral values do not commit themselves in unethical behavior, including corruption acts. Also, public employees are willing to report an offender if situation requires, especially when public managers encourage this behavior (Zipparo, 1999). Subsequently, it can be argued that public employees are engaged in their job mostly because they are intrinsically motivated in performing their job.

Authentic leadership behavior is positively correlated with unethical behavior, namely corruption acts, but only when public employees perceive these acts as less serious. Subsequently, small and holiday gifts, receipt of kickback and conflict of interest are accepted behaviors by public employees. Taking into consideration the existentialist theory (Guignon & Pereboom, 1995), it can be mentioned that genuine behavior can negatively influence public employees' perception of ethical behavior. Unethical behavior of public employees negatively influences the process of providing public services (Dorasamy, 2010). Thus, corruption jeopardizes the activities of public organizations. Overall, authentic leadership is moderately correlated with corruption acts. Consequently, the roots of corruption acts can be found in public employees' themselves and partially, in their manager's activities.

Despite the efforts to increase rigor, this research has several limitations. The sample used for this study is quite small. Also, the sample is composed by majority female participants. Therefore, it is important to exercise caution in the process of generalizing the findings of the present study to other context. For this research it was used convenience sampling. Also, this study is applicable only on public organizations from Republic of Moldova and it was limited only in three districts from Republic of Moldova. This can be an inherent disadvantage for representativeness of this study.

In order to realize an extended study, it can be proposed to take into consideration the following suggestions. Firstly, it is important to be taken into account the demographic consideration. Hence, future studies should enlarge its sample and use a large number of public organizations from different districts of Republic of Moldova. Secondly, future research should use a longitudinal design in order to strengthen the causal relationships examined between variables. Using longitudinal design will ensure a better understanding of trends between the relationships examined which will refine the research results. Thirdly, the studies may be carried for public institutions and public authorities separately. The same research can be realized individually for central public administration and local public administration. Finally, it can be conducted a comparative study for public organizations from Republic of Moldova (as a country with the main goal to integrate in European Union) and other European countries.

Authentic leadership behavior has a positive influence on employees' work motivation. Job satisfaction, which is positively correlated with authentic leadership and work motivation, contributes to the maintenance of an effective working environment. As a result, authentic leadership behavior ensures development of organizational culture that secures the progress of the organization itself.

REFERENCES

Abdullah, Z., Ahsan, N., & Alam, S.S. (2009). The effect of human resource management practices on business performance among private companies in Malaysia. *International Journal of Business and Management,* 4(6), 35-41.

Abidin, S.N.S.Z. (2017). The effect of perceived authentic leadership on employee engagement. *Journal of Tourism, Hospitality and Environment Management*, 2(4), 29-47.

Alilyyani, B., Wong, C.A., & Cummings, G. (2018). Antecedents, mediators, and outcomes of authentic leadership in healthcare: A systematic review. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 83, 34-64.

Alok, K. & Israel, D. (2012). Authentic leadership and work engagement. *The Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, 47(3), 498-510.

Algera, P.M. & Lips-Wiersma, M., (2012). Radical authentic leadership: Co-creating the conditions under which all members of the organization can be authentic. *The Leadership Quarterly,* 23(1), 118-131.

Arvanitis, A. (2017). Autonomy and morality: A self-determination theory discussion of Ethics. *New Ideas in Psychology*, 47, 57-61.

Avolio, B.J., Gardner, W.L., Walumbwa, F.O., Luthans, F., & May, D.R. (2004). Unlocking the mask: A look at the process by which authentic leaders impact follower attitudes and behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(6), 801-823.

Azanza, G., Moriano, J.A., & Molero, F. (2013). Authentic leadership and organizational culture as drivers of employees' job satisfaction. *Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology,* 29(2), 45-50.

Barr, A., Lindelow, M., & Serneels, P. (2009). Corruption in public service delivery: An experimental analysis. *Journal of Economic Behavior and Organization,* 72(1), 225-239.

Begley, P.T. (2001). In pursuit of authentic school leadership practices. *International Journal of Leadership in Education,* 4(4), 353-365.

Broeck, A.V., Lens, W., Witte, H., & Coillie, H. (2013). Unraveling the importance of the quantity and the quality of workers' motivation for well-being: A person-centered perspective. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* 82(1), 9-78.

Budiyanto & Oetomo, H.W. (2011). The effect of job motivation, work environment and leadership on organizational citizenship behavior, job satisfaction and public service quality in Magetan, east Java, Indonesia. *World Academy of Science, Engineering and Technology*, 5(3), 3-28.

Cianci, A.M, Hannah, S.T, Roberts, R.P., & Tsakumis, G.T., (2014). The effects of authentic leadership on followers' ethical decision-making in the face of temptation: An experimental study. *The Leadership Quarterly,* 25(3), 581-594.

Deci, E.L. (1972). Intrinsic motivation, extrinsic reinforcement and inequity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 22(1), 113-120.

Deci, E.L. & Ryan, R.M. (2000). The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry,* 11(4), 227-268.

Dorasamy, N. (2010). Enhancing an ethical culture through purpose - directed leadership for improved public service delivery: A case for South Africa. *African Journal of Business Management,* 4(1), 56-64.

Farah-Jarjoura, B. (2014). Learning motivation: A self-determination theory. *Studia Universitatis Moldaviae*, 5(75), 97-101.

Fanimehin, A.O & Popoola, S.O. (2013). Effects of career progression, work motivation and leadership styles on job satisfaction of library personnel in the Federal Civil Service of Nigeria. *International Journal of Library and Information Science,* 5(5), 147-159.

Gardner, W.L., Cogliser, C.C., Davis, K.M., & Dickens, M.P. (2011). Authentic leadership: A review of the literature and research agenda. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(6), 1120-1145.

Guignon, C. B. & Pereboom, D. (1995) *Existentialism: Basic writings.* Indianapolis: Hackett.

Hinojosa, A., Davis McCauley, K., Randolph-Seng, B., & Gardner, W. (2014). Leader and follower attachment styles: Implications for authentic leader–follower relationships. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25(3), 595-610.

Hsiung, H.-H. (2011). Authentic leadership and employee voice behavior: A multi-level psychological process. *Journal of Business Ethics,* 107(3), 349-361.

Ilies, R., Morgeson, F.P., & Nahrgang, J.D. (2005). Authentic leadership and eudaemonic well-being: Understanding leader–follower outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly,* 16(3), 373-394.

Lau, C.M., Scully, G., & Lee, A. (2018). The efects of organizational politics on employee motivations to participate in target setting and employee budgetary participation. *Journal of Business Research*, 90, 247-259.

Leroy, H., Palanski, M.E., & Simons, T. (2011). Authentic leadership and behavioral integrity as drivers of follower commitment and performance. *Journal of Business Ethics,* 107(3), 255-264.

Li, Y., Tan, C.-H., & Teo, H.-H. (2012). Leadership characteristics and developers' motivation in open source software development. *Information and Management*. 49(5), 257-267.

Lin, J.-H. (2016). Need for relatedness: A self-determination approach to examining attachment styles, Facebook use, and psychological well-being. *Asian Journal of Communication.* 26(2), 153-173.

López, C.G.-G., Alonso, F.M., Morales, M.M. & León, J.A.M. (2015). Authentic leadership, group cohesion and group identification in security and emergency teams. *Psicothema,* 27(1), 59-64.

Mader, X., Santos, J., & Gonçalves, G. (2018). Job satisfaction in a tourist resort in Portugal. *Journal of Spatial and Organizational Dynamics: Marketing and Tourism*, VI(3), 314-325.

Mafini, C. & Dlodlo, N. (2014). The relationship between extrinsic motivation, job satisfaction and life satisfaction amongst employees in a public organization. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 40(1), 1-13.

Men, L.R. & Stacks, S. (2014). The effects of authentic leadership on strategic internal communication and employee-organization relationships. *Journal of Public Relations Research,* 26(4), 301-324.

Miniotaite, A. & Buciuniene, I. (2013). Explaining authentic leadership work outcomes from the perspective of self-determination theory. *Academic Journal Management of Organizations: Systematic Research*, 63, 63-75.

Nitzsche, M., Ribeiro, L., & Laneiro, T. (2018). Workplace incivility among Portuguese hotel employees: Is lack of respect burning them out? *Journal of Spatial and Organizational Dynamics: Human Factors in Safety and Health in the Workplace*, VI(1), 52-71.

Novicevic, M.M., Harvey, M.G., Buckley, M.R., Brown, J.A., & Evans, R. (2006). Authentic leadership: A historical perspective. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies,* 13(1), 64-76.

Penger, S. & Černe, M. (2014). Authentic leadership, employees' job satisfaction, and work engagement: A hierarchical linear modelling approach. *Economic Research / Ekonomska Istraživanja*, 27(1), 508-526.

Peterson, S.J., Walumbwa, F.O., Avolio, B.J., & Hannah S.T. (2012). The relationship between authentic leadership and follower job performance: The mediating role of follower positivity in extreme contexts. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23(3), 502-516.

Peus, C., Wesche, J.S., Streicher, B., Braun, S., & Frey, D. (2011). Authentic leadership: An empirical test of its antecedents, consequences, and mediating mechanisms. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 107(3), 331-348.

Pool, S.W. (1997). The relationship of job satisfaction with substitutes of leadership, leadership behavior and work motivation. *The Journal of Psychology: Interdisciplinary and Applied*, 131(3), 271-283.

Rabl, T. (2011). The impact of situational influences on corruption in organizations. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 100(1), 85-101.

Rashid, S. & Rashid, U. (2012). Work motivation differences between public and private sector. *American International Journal of Social Science*, 1(2), 24-33.

Rego, A., Sousa, F., Marques, C., & Pina e Cunha, M. (2011). Authentic leadership promoting employees' psychological capital and creativity. *Journal of Business Research*, 65(3), 429-437.

Rego, A., Vitória, A., Magalhães, A., Ribeiro, N., & Pina e Cunha, M. (2013). Are authentic leaders associated with more virtuous, committed and potent teams?. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24(1), 61-79.

Rego, A., Sousa, F., Marques, C., & Pina e Cunha, M. (2014). Hope and positive affect mediating the authentic leadership and creativity relationship. *Journal of Business Research,* 67(2), 200-210.

Ryan, R.M. & Deci, E.L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology,* 25(1), 54-67.

Ryan, R.M. & Deci, E.L. (2019). Brick by brick: The origins, development, and future of self-determination theory (4th chapter). *Advances in Motivation Science,* 6, 111-156.

Santos, J., Gonçalves, G., & Gomes, A. (2013). Organizational culture and subjective and work well-being: The case of employees of Portuguese universities. *Journal of Spatial and Organizational Dynamics: Well-being in Contexts and Organizations,* I(3), 153-161.

Santos, R.A., Guevara, A.J. de H., Amorim, M.C.S., & Ferraz-Neto, B.-H. (2012). Compliance and leadership: The susceptibility of leaders to the risk of corruption in organizations [Compliance e liderança: a suscetibilidade dos líderes ao risco de corrupção nas organizações]. *Einstein Journal*. 10(1), 1-10.

Sheldon, K.M., Elliot, A.J., Kim, Y., & Kasser, T. (2001). What is satisfying about satisfying events? Testing 10 candidate psychological needs. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 80(2), 325-339.

Shah, M.J., Musawwir-Ur-Rehman, Akhtar, G., Zafar, H., & Riaz, A. (2012). Job satisfaction and motivation of teachers of public educational institutions. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 3(8), 271-281.

Singh, S.K. & Tiwari, V. (2011). Relationship between motivation and job satisfaction of the white collar employees: A case study. *Management Insight Journal,* 7(2), 31-39.

Tang, T.L.-P. & Liu, H. (2011). Love of money and unethical behavior intention: Does an authentic supervisor's personal integrity and character (ASPIRE) make a difference?. *Journal of Business Ethics,* 107(3), 295-312.

Toor, S.-ur-R. & Ofori, G. (2008). Leadership for future construction industry: Agenda for authentic leadership. *International Journal of Project Management,* 26(6), 620-630.

Van Rijckeghem, C. & Weder, B. (2001). Bureaucratic corruption and the rate of temptation: do wages in the civil service affect corruption, and by how much?. *Journal of Development Economics*, 65(2), 307-331.

Vandercammen, L., Hofmans, J., & Theuns, P. (2014). The mediating role of affect in the relationship between need satisfaction and autonomous motivation. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 87(1), 62-79.

Vansteenkiste, M., Neyrinck, B., Niemiec, N.P., Soenens, B., Witte, H., & Van den Broeck A. (2007). On the relations among work value orientations, psychological need satisfaction and job outcomes: A self-determination theory approach. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 80(2), 251-277.

Walumbwa, F.O., Avolio, B.J., Gardner, W.L., Wernsing, T.S., & Peterson, S.J., (2008). Authentic leadership: Development and validation of a theory-based measure. *Journal of Management*, 34(1), 89-126.

Walumbwa, F.O., Christensen, A.L., & Hailey, F. (2011). Authentic leadership and the knowledge economy: Sustaining motivation and trust among knowledge workers. *Journal of Organizational Dynamics*, 40(2), 110-118.

Weischer, A.E., Weibler, J., & Petersen, M., (2013). "To thine own self be true": The effect of enactment and life storytelling on perceived leader authenticity. *The Leadership Quarterly,* 24(4), 477-495.

Whitehead, G. (2009). Adolescent leadership development: Building a case for an authenticity framework. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, 37(6), 847-872.

Wong, C.A. & Laschinger, H.K.S. (2012). Authentic leadership, performance, and job satisfaction: the mediating role of empowerment. *Journal of Advanced Nursing,* 69(4), 947-959.

Wright, B.E., (2001). Public-sector work motivation: a review of the current literature and a revised conceptual model. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory,* 11(4), 559-586.

Xiong, H.-B. & Fang P. (2014). Authentic leadership, collective efficacy and group performance: an empirical study in China. *Social Behavior and Personality,* 42(6), 921-932.

Zhu, J., Song, L.J., Zhu, L., & Johnson, R.E. (2019). Visualizing the landscape and evolution of leadership research. *The Leadership Quarterly,* 30, 215-232.

Zipparo, L. (1999). Encouraging public sector employees to report workplace corruption. *Australian Journal of Public Administration.* 58(2), 83-93.

TRANSFORMING A COMPANY'S STAFFING PROCESS: IMPLEMENTING E-RECRUITMENT

Ileana P. Monteiro[1]
Marisol B. Correia[2]
Cidália B. R. Gonçalves[3]

ABSTRACT

This project discusses the importance of evaluating a company's staffing methods, in order to improve and optimize people recruitment, selection, as well as integration and socialization in the organization. The particular focus is the implementation of Social Media (SM) and e-recruitment in a private sector company, reveling the importance of these digital media to recruit candidates with the desired profile and to support the new collaborators' integration and socialization. A business project is presented, following a scientific-technical approach, in the analysis of functions and in the profiles definitions and on information obtained through semi-structured interviews with human resources specialists who are responsible for recruitment and selection as well as interviews with newly hired workers in the company, demonstrating the effectiveness of these means for jobseekers. At the same time, a project study for the implementation of new digital tools in the company is prepared. This study shows that the development of a new website articulated with SM, for which business pages have been built, in addition to the use of e-recruitment portals, is a real benefit for the organization because they facilitate and increase the performance of the recruitment and selection process at the same time promoting the company's image.

Keywords: E-recruitment, Social Media, Integration, Socialization.

JEL Classification: M55

1. INTRODUCTION

The strategies of today organizations need a strong support of Human Resources Management in order to align employees' interests with the company's objectives and thus foster productivity and competitiveness. As they operate in a changing environment, the organizations must create a consistent internal system adapted to their strategy. Therefore, they have to develop performance standards, indicators and goals able to measure the business evolution as well as the organizational climate, keeping focus on their continuous improvement process and relevant technologies.

This article describes a project developed in an agricultural company (here designated as HV), part of a larger group, operating in the Algarve (southern Portugal), whose objective was to improve and optimize the staffing process, namely recruitment, searching for more adequate means to attract qualified coworkers.

[1] School of Management, Hospitality and Tourism, University of Algarve, CIEO - Research Centre for Spatial and Organizational Dynamics, Faro, Portugal (imontei@ualg.pt)
[2] School of Management, Hospitality and Tourism, University of Algarve, CiTUR - Centre for Tourism Research, Development and Innovation, CEG-IST, Instituto Superior Técnico, Universidade de Lisboa, Portugal (mcorreia@ualg.pt)
[3] School of Management, Hospitality and Tourism, University of Algarve, Faro, Portugal (cidalia@hubel.pt)

The number of e-recruitment portals in the world to assist job searchers is growing constantly. Some examples are Indeed.com, CareerBuilder.com and Monster.com.

According to Del Castillo (2016), recruiters are promptly adopting SM to recruit, with 92% using LinkedIn, 54% using Facebook, and 24% using Google+. On the other hand, approximately 25% of job seekers use SM as their primary job search tool and 70% of 18–34-year-olds found their last job through SM.

Recognizing that the social environment has changed, and young people do not use more traditional channels (such as newspapers) as a job search strategy, but basically online recruitment sources, such as e-recruitment portals, the companies' websites and SM, this project was designed to improve HV's recruitment practices and implement digital techniques.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Staffing

Staffing is a critical function for organizations, as they often struggle to attract and retain talents. Staffing is a three step process: firstly, recruiting, described as the activities to attract an adequate number of candidates, advertising the company's needs then selecting, meaning the process of choosing among the recruited candidates, those whose personal characteristics present the best fit with the job profile and thus should work in the organization; and finally, integration, that should be considered as part of the staffing process, as it refers to the activities planned to help the newcomers learn the organizational norms, values and desired behaviors.

The organizations' environment has become extremely competitive due to globalization and the expansion of technology, compelling them to struggle for survival. In this context, companies develop aggressive strategies to attract talents considered essential to foster differentiation, creativity and innovation, thus assuring organizational sustainability (Laimer & Giachini, 2015).

Staffing should be carefully prepared and planned as a strategic means of the company's communication strategy, since the way HR communicates has been found critical in influencing the employees' perceptions (Gomes, Coelho, Correia & Cunha, 2010), thus playing an important role in the way coworkers make sense of their environment. The staffing process includes different activities that should carefully be addressed in order to clarify each step and thus help all potential candidates create a positive image of the company they may wish to apply to.

It begins with the identification of one or more vacancies or new job creation. Peretti (2011) that recommends carrying out a job analysis (or validating existing one) to determine the candidate's profile and help elaborate the recruitment advertising. This is an important step as it will determine the ideal professional's profile for the vacancy (Pires & Guimarães, 2016). Defining inappropriate competencies to select new coworkers wastes valuable time, or even worse, may result in selecting unqualified employees.

The recruitment and selection processes are used to attract candidates and select those who best suit the pre-established ideal profile and organizational culture (Almeri, Martins & Paula, 2013). However, this process involves a reciprocal choice, since the candidates also select the organizations that they wish to work for. The millennium generation has technological and digital skills high above previous generations. They use the internet and other technologies as a part of their daily routines at work and in their personal lives. Therefore, companies need to adapt and change their staffing processes by using online devices to find and attract skilled and qualified workers (Joss, 2008; Belo, Fernandes & Castela, 2014).

2.2 E-recruitment

E-recruitment is the most current recruiting method and reflects the constant dynamics and changes resulting from new technologies used in human resource management (Costa, 2003; Almeida, 2012). The internet has revolutionized the organizational practices, including recruitment and selection practices, which are among the most widely used worldwide. A lack of investment in this trend means a competitive disadvantage for any organization (Ivancevich, 2008).

E-recruitment generally encompasses all types of recruitment conducted on the internet. Nowadays, there is a wide variety of e-recruitment methods, such as e-mail; specific forms on the websites of employers' organizations; commercial job boards, in other words, the employment platforms where companies place online ads, whose candidates are automatically notified when they fit the required profile; Social Media (SM), such as LinkedIn, Facebook or Twitter, among other methods (Cardoso, 2010; Almeida, 2012; Kalambi, 2015; Alexander, Mader & Mader, 2019).

E-recruitment allows the introduction of filters that enable the screening of applications by, for e.g. age and qualifications, skill assessment tests in foreign languages, computer skills and behavioral skills, among others, thus approaching e-selection (Sousa, Duarte, Sanches & Gomes, 2006; Cardoso, 2010).

Since new methodologies and refinements emerge every day, it is important for organizations and people to keep up-to-date on the latest e-recruitment techniques. From the companies' point of view, this method is quite inexpensive, reduces hiring time, reaches a greater number and diversity of candidates, discloses the company's brand and image, uses sophisticated management tools and maintains confidentiality. As Palos-Sanchez, Saura and Debasa (2018) found, the use of social networks reveals a positive influence on the company promotion and recruitment actions. The human resources manager gains proactive control of the process and effectiveness in finding qualified candidates, while, from the candidates' perspective, the internet is a wide source for job searching (Ivancevich, 2008; Kalambi, 2015).

SM has come to stay, since more and more companies use it to obtain information on potential candidates. However, beyond its growing importance in the staffing process, it has also revealed itself to be an essential tool for human resource practices (Roth, Bobko, Van Iddekinge & Thatcher, 2016). Table 1 presents some of the advantages and disadvantages of the e-recruitment.

Table 1. Advantages and disadvantages of the e-recruitment

Advantages	Disadvantages
For Organization	
▪ Allows to convey information promptly, namely the dissemination of ads / offers; ▪ Increased flexibility: release information at any time and from anywhere; ▪ Reaching a more qualified target audience; ▪ Access to a greater number of candidates; ▪ Higher speed in the recruitment process: o Automatic filter of applications, based on the predefined profile; o Automated responses to candidates. ▪ Low cost (elimination of administrative costs); ▪ Promotes the company's innovative image; ▪ Method best suited to functions requiring higher qualification; ▪ Spare time	▪ Inadequate selection of the means of dissemination can hinder or make the recruitment process unfeasible (excessive applications or inappropriate applications); ▪ Requires constant information updating in order to guarantee the reliability of the information and the good image of the company; ▪ May lead to legal proceedings for negligent exclusion in the recruitment process.
For Candidate	
▪ Immediate access to the job offer; ▪ Receives feedback online very quickly; ▪ Spare time; ▪ Avoids or decreases travelling.	▪ Use of information available on personal SM as a factor of exclusion; ▪ Exclusion for not having access to the internet, being automatically excluded.

Source: Gonçalves (2018)

2.3 Recruitment via Social Media

According to Turban, Outland, King, Lee, Liang and Turban (2018: 17), "the term social media has several definitions. A popular definition is that social media involves user-generated online text, image, audio, and video content that are delivered via Web 2.0 platforms and tools. This media is used primarily for social interactions and conversations such as sharing opinions, experiences, insights, and perceptions and for online collaboration.". The same authors used the designation "Social Networking Services (SNSs)" as the services that provide and host a web space for communities of people to build their homepages for free. However, the most common terminology is SM instead of SNS, which is the terminology used in this study.

The use of SM has reached organizations and their use for the purpose of recruitment is a fact already proven by several authors (Costa & Caregnatto, 2013; Belo, Fernandes & Castela, 2014). The need to look for the candidate's profile that best suits the needs of companies and organizations has motivated the development of online platforms which enhance the match between job opportunities and candidates, using tools, such as serious games, to evaluate competencies (Ferreira, 2016; Aggerholm & Andersen, 2018).

The human resource professional, who has an increasingly critical role as an organizational change agent, must master the use of SM to observe and evaluate thoroughly the candidates' behaviour, searching for the best fit with the desired profile, thus using the same resources as the candidates (Laimer *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, the human resource professional should actively seek information online about the candidates or potential candidates. This search for information on SM by the companies is also known as cybervetting and occurs several times during the recruitment and selection process (Almeri *et al.*, 2013; Broughton, Foley, Ledermaier & Cox, 2013; Machado, 2016).

Although cybervetting has been seen to have a negative influence (Machado, 2016), other studies (Gibbs, MacDonald & MacKay, 2015; Din, Anuar, Omar, Omar & Dahlan, 2015) show a strong use of SM. It was also interesting to note the fact that most companies use LinkedIn, Facebook and Twitter to attract candidates and promote the organization but not for hiring decisions. Furthermost, human resource managers consider this practice a valuable asset to the organization in search for the ideal candidate, given the profusion of information existing today in the different social profiles created by potential candidates, where, among other aspects, the person's personality traits can be identified (Birrer, Ferreira, Real, Salbego & Noro, 2011; Machado, 2016). Table 2 presents some of the advantages and disadvantages of the e-recruitment using SM.

Table 2. Advantages and disadvantages of the e-recruitment using SM

Advantages	Disadvantages
For Organization	
▪ Allows to convey the information immediately, namely the dissemination of announcements / job offers; ▪ Increases the visibility of the company or brand and promotes a modern and innovative image of the company; ▪ Allows expansion via other SM; ▪ Reaches a broad target audience – access to a larger number of candidates; ▪ Quick access to candidates' personal and professional information; ▪ Spare time – Information available quickly; ▪ Low cost.	▪ Difficulty in conceiving strategy and positioning – it covers very different audiences; ▪ Consequently, it is difficult to direct information to the desired profile; ▪ The message is not fully controlled by the company (allows comments that may be malicious); ▪ Requires a reinforced caution in its use; (not invading the personal space of the members that interact with the company); ▪ Absence in SM.
For Candidate	
▪ Increases the visibility of the candidate who turns available his professional and personal profile; ▪ Promotes information and opinion sharing through online chat rooms and forums; ▪ Receives feedback online very quickly; ▪ Spare time; ▪ Avoids or decreases travelling.	▪ Use of information available on personal social networks as a factor of exclusion, by employers; ▪ The information available in SM can be used with malicious intent; ▪ Exclusion for not having access to the internet.

Source: Gonçalves (2018)

According to the literature, SM and web job portals have dramatically changed the way people find jobs and the way employers look for new recruits. In the fourth quarter of 2016, 67% of unemployed and 61% of employed internet users between the ages of 16 and 24 had visited a job or recruitment website in the past month (Statista, 2019).

Many organizations are experimenting with the use of SM, such as Facebook, Twitter, and LinkedIn, to recruit applicants. One of the primary goals of these organizations is to engage and connect with members of the Millennial or Net generation and others who spend a considerable amount of time using SM websites. The potential payoff to organizations is to attract the best candidates from the potentially largest applicant pools in the world (Ivancevich & Konopaske, 2012).

According to human resources professionals, LinkedIn is currently the most frequently used SM website for recruiting, making it the platform with the highest successful hiring rate, more than Facebook or Twitter. A 2016 study conducted by LinkedIn, showed the use of big data to be one of the top trends in recruiting for professional roles worldwide (Statista, 2019).

A study on the role of SM during the online recruitment process was conducted by Melanthiou, Pavlou and Constatinou (2015) in Cyprus where 117 companies were used. The conclusions were that most of them (73.5%) maintained SM accounts with the most popular answers being Facebook (65.0%), LinkedIn (40.2%), and Twitter (20.1%). A number of companies (10.3%) reported their involvement in other SM like Instagram, Pinterest, and Google+. Finally, 86.0% of the companies stated that they consider it legal and ethically correct to use SM to investigate and evaluate candidates, as long as there is no violation of the candidates' privacy rights. It is important to remember that on May 4th, 2016, the new General Regulation on Data Protection (GRDP) - Regulation (EU) 2016/67 - applicable in all Member States of the European Union, was published by the European Union, giving the companies, and those responsible for the processing of personal data, the responsibility to apply the regulations until May 25, 2018.

In Brazil, another study was carried out by Almeri *et al.* (2013) that aimed to know the opinion of fifteen employment agencies on the use of SM in the process of candidate selection. It was found that most employment agencies (86.67%) started to use SM as a support tool in the recruitment and selection processes during the years 2011 and 2012. Table 3 shows some examples of representative SM in performing different activities and allowing suppliers to make available applications.

Table 3. Services available by SM

• **Facebook.com**	The most visited SM;
• **LinkedIn.com**	The major enterprise-oriented SM;
• **Flickr.com**	Users share and comment on photos;
• **Google + (plus.google.com)**	A business-oriented social network;
• **Habbo.com**	Entertaining country-specific sites for kids and adults;
• **Instagram.com**	Provides a platform for sharing photos and videos;
• **MySpace.com**	Facilitates socialization and entertainment for people of all ages;
• **Pinterest.com**	Provides a platform for organizing and sharing images;
• **YouTube.com**	Users can upload and view video clips.

Source: Adapted from Turban, Outland, King, Lee, Liang and Turban (2018)

Therefore, even though SM is people-oriented, it is increasingly being used for business purposes. Today, organizations have a strong interest in the business aspects of SM, highlighting the examples of LinkedIn that is most used for recruitment, while Facebook is more directed to advertising.

Facebook is undoubtedly the most referenced SM in the domain of recruitment, using the numerous options this social network allows. Creating a page enables you to choose categories that fit the business and business purpose. It also permits to configure differentiated profile features for better interaction and audience experience.

In a more targeted perspective for recruitment and selection, Facebook has created *Workplace by Facebook* (https://www.facebook.com/workplace), which is based on the Facebook SM and allows immediate connection to all employees of an organization.

LinkedIn (https://www.linkedin.com), considered the world's largest professional network, has more than 500 million users in 200 countries and its main goal is to connect professionals at the global level, making them more productive and successful. The platform was launched in 2003 and the company's management is comprised of executives from the world's largest computer companies. It is a public company where revenues are provided not only from the users, but also from publicity and talent solutions. It was acquired by Microsoft in 2016.

LinkedIn can be used by professionals through the creation of a profile presenting their academic training, skills and professional experience, helping them to get access to job opportunities. The profile can be improved by other complementary information, since the more complete the profile, the greater the possibility of arousing the interest of the employers.

It can also be used by organizations for their own promotion and dissemination, using the so-called company pages. Information can be published about the company itself, its brand, products, services and employment opportunities. It allows companies to search by keyword, to post jobs, send private messages to users about job openings, and manage profiles of job prospects (Ivancevich & Konopaske, 2012).

LinkedIn is governed by a number of guidelines suggested to the platform's users or visitors, namely honesty, professionalism, kindness and respect. Since its mission is to connect professionals globally, making them more productive and successful, it relies on the transparency of personal data. For Facebook, according to Marques (2016), if for an individual it is important to create a profile, for a company it is advisable to have a page and not a profile. Companies must create pages and subpages (Showcase) for products and services. This practice grants the access to statistics providing more adequate information to users.

According to Tavares (2017), Portuguese Y generation use SM publications (particularly information about personal life, hobbies and other interests) can influence the perception of recruiters, allowing them to select people more effectively.

SM stands out as having very positive factors in the selection of a candidate. Based on the information available, such as a good image and communicational characteristics, helping to create a favorable first impression, as well as a well-defined professional profile, are factors that influence the decision positively. On the other hand, bad communication skills, false information about professional qualifications, sharing confidential information of the company to which they had previously worked, and the publication of negative comments about a previous employer, lead to immediate candidate rejection (Tomaél, Alcará & Chiara, 2005; Birrer *et al.*, 2011; Pinho, 2015; Sameen & Cornelius, 2013).

Nowadays, the optimization of the computer media is central to a company's success, namely with the use of an ERP (Enterprise Resource Planning), which allows the efficient use and management of information in a human resources department. Therefore, it is important to articulate all the computer resources used in an organization/company, in which the ideal solution involves the interaction and connection between them: ERP or other type of management software, the company website, employee portal and SM, without neglecting the protection of personal data.

2.4 Integration and socialization

Once the candidate is selected and the hiring decision have been made, it is fundamental to organize the integration process to guarantee the newcomer feels welcomed. The integration process is a key process for the future relationship (company-new employee) success (Almeida, 2012).

An adequate integration process design helps the new coworker's socialization, as he or she will acknowledge the company's values, norms and beliefs facilitating his or her adaptation to the organizational culture (Florea, 2014), and assume the expected behaviors

(Van Maanen, 1978). As he or she learns the assigned roles, he or she learns to relate with the organizational members. The socialization process has three distinct phases.

The first phase, with two distinct periods, sequential or not, initiates when a company creates an impact on the individual who develops an image about that organization (Porter, Lawler & Hackman, 1975). The second period, during the recruitment and selection phase, the candidates receives information regarding the organization, the role, the working conditions and career development (Cunha, Rego, Cunha & Cabral-Cardoso, 2007; Almeida, 2012; Mosquera, 2012). This is an expectation creation phase and the company should be careful not to induce unrealistic expectations that could lead to feelings of dissatisfaction, distrust and violation of the psychological contract (Mosquera, 2012).

The second phase begins when the new employee enters the company and usually ends with the trial period conclusion. This phase involves the first contacts with managers, colleagues and clients and may be helped by a formal program alongside with the informal processes occurring as the individual adapts to the organization, the department and the job. The first contact should be carefully planned (Almeida, 2012; Mosquera, 2012).

The third phase – knowledge and adaptability – represents the previous phases result, as the organization considers the new employee as an effective member. Formal procedures may include a ceremony, change of status or category, among other possible situations (Cunha *et al.*, 2007; Almeida, 2012). When this phase is finally completed, the new member's behavior and attitudes align with the organization's objectives (Cunha *et al.*, 2007; Almeida, 2012).

Furthermore, the whole socialization process assumes a great importance for the new organization's member. It was found to be an antecedent variable of job satisfaction, as Borralha, Jesus, Pinto and Viseu (2016) discovered in their metanalysis and plays an important role on job adaptation (Judge & Hullin, 1991) and on organizational financial results (Borralha *et al.*, 2016).

The newcomer's first day is an anxious moment which may be supported by the organization with a formal welcoming program with a formal welcoming program where an employee handbook is provided. The organization has to plan the experimental period, promoting training, orientation sessions or designating a mentor (according to the company's need).

The experimental period ends with the employee's performance appraisal and the decision to hire. Simultaneously, the integration program's effectiveness will be evaluated in a formal interview.

3. METHOD

The purpose of this study was to improve the staffing procedures in the company, namely the need to adapt the recruitment practices to the millennium generation choosing the more relevant SM and portals for the organization's sector. The interview appeared as a suitable method to gather information in areas where previous knowledge and experience is scarce. Through dialogue, it is easier to clarify the questions and grant a common ground so that the access to the interviewees' attitudes and opinions can be easily accessed and verified.

Five face-to-face semi structured interviews were conducted with managers assuming recruitment responsibilities in organizations working in the same agricultural and commercial sectors. The interviews focused on the advantages/disadvantages of e-recruitment in terms of results, costs and time consuming and the most popular websites for the company's activity sector.

The interviews were subjected to a thematic content analysis (Bardin, 1977). The software Wordle was used to create a word cloud.

The second goal was to analyze and understand how to improve the integration process for the newcomers. Six employees, having joined the company less than six months ago, were interviewed in order to understand their perceptions, attitudes and opinions about their integration procedure. The interview aimed at understanding how these employees have been integrated and socialized, the knowledge they have about the organization, the department and the job, the relationships they developed with their peers, teams and managers, and the work conditions they found in terms of resources (means and tools).

The interviews were conducted as follow meetings to promote the reflection of the company's integration process and help to improve its procedures.

4. RESULTS

Having transcribed the five interviews conducted with experts and managers assuming recruitment and selection in companies, the text was prepared for content analysis, following the method proposed by Bardin (1977), which allows the transformation of the interviewees' discourse into eight categories considered relevant for this project and presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Content analysis summary showing categories and its frequencies

Categories	Frequency
Disclosure	17
Image	11
Time	10
Cost	10
E-recruitment vs traditional recruitment	16
Recruitment agencies	9
Precautions to address with e-recruitment	9
Problems with e-recruitment	6

Source: Own Elaboration

The interviews showed that managers and experts in recruitment and selection have very positive opinions regarding the vacancy disclosure, the company's image, and the time and cost reduction allowed by e-recruitment. They also express their preferences for e-recruitment, vis-à-vis the traditional method, although manifesting some reluctance and doubts about some operational aspects.

The category *Disclosure* was largely addressed by all the interviews in both positive and negative senses and will be illustrated as follows:

> "Excellent way of dissemination; It reaches a greater number of candidates "(interviewee 1);
> "Allows to convey information immediately" (interviewee 2);
> "The use of these digital media is the most current and practical way to convey information" (interviewee 4).

However, not everything is positive:

> "The target audience, candidates with a given profile, may not have access to the internet; or, on the other hand, too big a number of people having access to the job advertising "(interviewee 2).
> "It is important to emphasize the role of Eures portal, working in a close partnership with the National Employment Agency (IEFP). It promotes professional mobility through job offers throughout Europe, helping candidates with relevant information to those who are preparing for living and working in the destination countries"(interviewee 2).

All interviewees considered SM and e-recruitment portals an important means to promote the company's job offer, increasing its visibility and at the same time presenting an innovative image of the organization. However, participants also expressed some difficulties in choosing an advertising strategy, given the target audience's wide scope, and the problem of focusing the information in the desired profiles.

To understand SM and e-recruitment portals used by the interviewees, a large consensus was found with all participants using Facebook and only three also placing job vacancies in LinkedIn. Twitter and Instagram are not used at all.

Similar results were also found concerning e-recruitment portals with Net-Empregos, used by all interviewees, and three also advertising in Netemprego/IEFP. One also chooses to place the call in Universities websites and another one places the offers in other advertising websites.

The interviews' text was also submitted to Wordle software to illustrate how participants made sense of the subject by a word cloud (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Word cloud built from the interviews

Source: Own Elaboration

The results showed that the companies working in the same domain tend to adopt similar recruitment procedures, as they are increasingly evolving towards the use of digital tools such as SM and e-recruitment portals. However, selection tends to maintain the traditional approach, namely conducting face-to-face selection interviews.

The interviews conducted with HV newcomer coworkers showed the candidates' perceptions about recruitment. They all knew about the job vacancy on the internet, some of them in HV website, other in e-recruitment portals, such as Net-Empregos, and some on

Facebook. None of them used more traditional sources to search for a job and they all agree that job vacancies should all be advertised via SM or e-recruitment portals.

As a practical result of this project, the company HV decided to launch a new website, including a recruitment area that allows spontaneous online applications as well as the answer to job advertising. The website includes a complete form where the items identified for the function which helps the candidate select the items valued by the function are listed. In order to support the initial assumption of connecting HV website with SM, instead of publishing mere job profiles, business pages were created on Facebook and LinkedIn. The use of online advertising and the statistical data provided by its analytics revealed the dissemination range by job advertising or according to defined criteria placed in the publication.

As for the integration procedures, it was decided to improve the welcome manual and the new employees' first day formal program following Almeida's (2012) and Mosquera's (2012) advice, helping individual's adaptation to the organization, the department and the job.

5. CONCLUSION

This study was developed in HV, an agricultural company that is part of a private sector larger group operating in the Algarve. HV aims at executing new strategies to develop human resources management, implementing an integrated recruitment, selection and reception process and improving existing procedures. The focus was on the staffing process optimization using digital recruitment approaches, specifically SM and e-recruitment portals to help recruitment and selection. A carefully planned integration, reception and socialization of future coworkers was also considered, acknowledging these features as playing an important role on job adaptation, job satisfaction and organizational results (Judge & Hullin, 1991; Borralha, *et al.*, 2016).

In order to articulate the entire recruitment and selection process using digital media, with a particular focus on the company's website, the SM and e-recruitment portals most appropriate for the activity sector were studied. In this sequence, following Marques (2016), business pages were created, in LinkedIn and Facebook. This decision was supported by a literature review where it was found that the authors are unanimous in defending the use of SM as an essential tool for recruitment, particularly in attracting candidates (Melanthiou *et al.*, 2015), and as a positive tool to share information and publicize vacancies (Almeri *et al.*, 2013; Belo, Fernandes & Castela, 2014).

Likewise, the empirical study conducted through interviews with human resource specialists demonstrated the relevance of new technologies in human resource management. The results showed that the companies analyzed tend to have similar behaviors in the recruitment and selection approach. All of them evolved to a more accentuated use of digital tools, such as SM and e-recruitment portals, although the more traditional practices still continue, particularly in the final phases of the process. Respondents considered SM and e-recruitment portals to be an important mean of advertising the company. Facebook, LinkedIn, Net-Empregos and Netemprego/IEFP were indicated as the most used.

Regarding SM, Facebook was considered the SM with the greatest impact worldwide, benefiting from the general knowledge of users, thus excluding the need for training. Results showed it is mostly used to share information in the organization, such as profiles and business solution pages completely independent of the social solution. On the other hand, LinkedIn was considered adequate for the job market by promoting the dissemination of opportunities, careers, both by people and organizations. Professionals seek mainly their skills dissemination in order to find companies interested in hiring. Organizations have different needs, such as searching for potential employees, developing talent campaigns to boost recruitment and turn it faster and more effective, alongside with other strategic disclosure needs.

People integration in the company was addressed in order to observe how newcomers have become involved in the organization and the team. The interviews carried out with the new employees made it possible to conclude that the use of SM and e-recruitment portals is increasingly present, since they increase the visibility of the offer and, consequently, company by promoting an innovative image of it.

As a complement to this project, it may be enriching for the company to develop a quantitative study by inquiring a greater number of entities, even from other sectors of activity, in order to obtain information, statistical data and more comprehensive conclusions regarding the use of SM and e-recruitment portals by organizations.

The main conclusions drawn in this paper have some limitations, since they were drawn on a single company case, which limits the contribution on the use of social media in staff recruitment. Although the project has already been implemented in HV company, more time is needed to assess its results and prove its consequences on the company communication management.

REFERENCES

Alexander, E.C., Mader, D.R.D., & Mader, F.H. (2019). Using social media during the hiring process: A comparison between recruiters and job seekers. *Journal of Global Scholars of Marketing Science*, 29(1), 78-87.

Almeida, H. (2012). *Manual de gestão de recursos humanos - da Estratégia à Prática*. Faro: Sílabas & Desafios.

Almeri, T., Martins, K., & Paula, D. (2013). O uso das redes sociais virtuais nos processos de recrutamento e seleção. *Eccom,* 4(8), 77-94.

Aggerholm, H.K. & Andersen, S.E. (2018). Social media recruitment 3.0: Towards a new paradigm of strategic recruitment communication. *Journal of Communication Management,* 22(2), 122-137.

Bardin, L. (1977). *Análise de conteúdo.* São Paulo: Livraria Martins Fontes.

Belo, A., Fernandes, S., & Castela, G. (2014). Social networks' users: Profiles and motivations. *Journal of Spatial and Organizational Dynamics: Human-Technology Interactions, Roles and Challenges,* II(3), 217-228.

Birrer, A., Ferreira, L., Real, M., Salbego, M. & Noro, G. (2011). A influência das redes sociais no processo de recrutamento e seleção. *Santa Maria*, 1-10.

Borralha, S., Jesus, S.N., Pinto, P., & Viseu, J. (2016). Job satisfaction in hotel employees: a systematic review of literature. *Journal of Spatial and Organizational Dynamics*, IV(1), 4-20.

Broughton, A., Foley, B., Ledermaier, S., & Cox, A. (2013). *The use of social media in the recruitment process*. Brighton - UK: Institute for Employment Studies.

Cardoso, A. (2010). *Recrutamento e seleção de pessoal* (7ª ed.). Lisboa: Edições Lidel.

Costa, A. & Caregnatto, M.I. (2013). A influência das redes sociais na captação e seleção de talentos: um estudo realizado nas agências de emprego de Caxias do Sul/RS. *Revista Global Manager Acadêmica*, 2(2), 42-61.

Costa, R.F. (2003). *Persona: Manual prático de gestão de pessoas*. Lisboa: Edições Chiado.

Cunha, M.P., Rego, A., Cunha, R.C., & Cabral-Cardoso, C. (2007). *Manual de comportamento organizacional e gestão.* Lisboa: Editora RH.

Del Castillo, C. (2016). *2016 social recruitment trends forecast*. Acceded in 5th of February 2018, in: https://resources.workable.com/blog/2016-social-recruitment-trends-forecast.

Din, S.Z., Anuar, R.A., Omar, N., Omar, H., & Dahlan, J.M. (2015). Discovering the use of online recruitment via social media of student internship. *Procedia Economics and Finance,* 31, 856-860.

Ferreira, O.L. (2016). *Plataforma de e-recruitment: Novas estratégias para recrutamento online*. Porto: Universidade do Porto.

Florea, N.V. (2014). Good practices of integration for new people in Romanian organizations. *Buletin Stiintific*, 13-23.

Gonçalves, C. (2018). *Implementação de um processo integrado de recrutamento, seleção e acolhimento na Hubel* (Master Dissertation in Human Resources). University of Algarve.

Gibbs, C., MacDonald, F., & MacKay, K. (2015). Social media usage in hotel human resources: Recruitment, hiring and communication. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 27(2), 170-184.

Gomes, J., Coelho, J., Correia, A., & Cunha, R. (2010). Development and validation of an instrument measuring the strength of the human resources management system. *Discussion Papers nº 5: Spatial and Organizational Dynamics*, 5, 24-41.

Ivancevich, J.M. (2008). *Gestão de Recursos Humanos*. Marília-SP: Cultura Brasil.

Ivancevich, J. & Konopaske, R. (2012). Human resource management. *Business and Economics*, (12th Ed.).

Joss, J.G. (2008). Social media: New frontiers in hiring and recruiting. *Employment Relations,* 35(1), 51-59.

Judge, A.T. & Hullin, C. (1991). *Job satisfaction and subjective well-being as determinants of job adaptation.* (CAHRS Working Paper #91-30). Ithaca, NY: Cornell University, School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Center for Advanced Human Resource Studies. Acceded in 5th of February 2018, in: http://digitalcommons.ilr.cornell.edu/cahrswp/361.

Kalambi, M. (2015). Boon or bane: E-recruitment's impact undeniable. *Abhinav National Monthly Refereed Journal of Research in Commerce & Management*, 4(3), 53-61.

Laimer, V. R. & Giachini, V. (2015). Utilização das redes sociais no processo de recrutamento e seleção nas empresas. *Revista de Administração e Comércio Exterior,* 1(1), 22-36.

Machado, L.M. (2016). A influência da informação publicada nas "redes sociais" no processo de seleção e recrutamento: Um estudo exploratório na literatura. *AtoZ Novas Práticas em Informação e Conhecimento,* 5(1), 10-20.

Marques, V. (2016). *Redes Sociais 360 como comunicar online*. Coimbra: Conjuntura Atual.

Melanthiou, Y., Pavlou, F., & Constatinou, E. (2015). The use of social network sites as an e-recruitment tool. *Journal of Transnacional Management*, 20(1), 31-49.

Mosquera, P. (2012). Socialização organizacional. In A.L. Neves & R.F. Costa, *Gestão de recursos humanos de A a Z* (pp. 583-586). Lisboa: Editora RH.

Palos-Sanchez, P.R., Saura J.R., & Debasa, F. (2018). The influence of social networks on the development of recruitment actions that favor user interface design and conversion in mobile applications powered by linked data. *Hindawi Mobile Information Systems*. Acceded in 2nd of March 2019, in: https://www.hindawi.com/journals/misy/2018/5047017/ref/.

Peretti, J.M. (2011). *Gestão e administração de pessoal* (3th Ed.). Lisboa: Edições Sílabo.

Pinho, F. (2015). Redes sociais no recrutamento de imigrantes: Fundamentos teóricos de uma proposta de explicação. *Sociologia: Revista da Faculdade de Letras da Universidade do Porto*, 29, 81-103.

Pires, A.A. & Guimarães, V. (2016). Análise da estrutura e das políticas da área de gestão de pessoas em organizações da Região Sul Fluminense. *Recape Revista de Carreiras e Pessoas,* 6(1), 70-85.

Porter, L.W., Lawler, E.E., & Hackman, J.R. (1975). *Behavior in organizations*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Regulation (EU) 2016/679. Acceded in 1st of December 2018, in: https://www.cncs.gov.pt/content/files/regulamento_ue_2016-679_-_protecao_de_dados.pdf

Roth, P.L., Bobko, P., Van Iddekinge, C.H., & Thatcher, J.B. (2016). Social media in employee-selection-related decisions: A research agenda for uncharted territory. *Journal of Management*, 42(1), 269-298.

Sameen, S. & Cornelius, S. (2013). Social networking sites and hiring: How social media profiles influence hiring decisions. *Journal of Business Studies Quarterly,* 7(1), 27-35.

Sousa, M.J., Duarte, T., Sanches, P.G., & Gomes, J. (2006). *Gestão de recursos humanos: Métodos e Práticas* (7th Ed.). Lisboa-Porto: Edições Lidel.

Statista - The Statistics Portal (2019). *Online and social media recruiting - Statistics & facts*. Acceded in 4 of February 2019, in: https://www.statista.com/topics/2727/online-recruiting/

Tavares, M.C. (2017). *E-recruitment: A perceção da geração Y sobre comportamentos no facebook e no linkedIn*. Lisboa: Universidade Europeia.

Tomaél, M., Alcará, A., & Chiara, I. (2005). Das redes sociais à inovação. *Ciência da Informação*, 34(2), 93-104.

Turban, E., Outland, J., King, D., Lee. J., Liang, & Turban, D. (2018). *Electronic commerce 2018: A managerial and social networks perspective* (9th Ed.). Cham: Springer.

Van Maanen, J. (1978). People processing: Strategies of organizational socialization. *Organizational Dynamics*, 7(1), 19-36.

CAPACITOR RECRUITMENT FUSION METHODOLOGY: A CASE STUDY

Susana Cabrita[1]
José Ferreira da Costa[2]
Gabriela Gonçalves[3]
Cátia Sousa[4]

ABSTRACT

The Project entitled Methodology for Recruitment Capacitor: a case study (Fusion Resourcing - A case study) emerged from a need of the firm Innovagency SA that operates in the technological field and in the digital communication field. This need is associated with the difficulty of recruiting programmers with specific technical knowledge and skills related to the most sophisticated technology platforms, currently used on the web. It presents the design and implementation of a synergetic fusion, recruitment, selection, and training and integration solution supported by a "Trainee Academy" called "i9.station". Based on the results obtained, the interest and potential of this fusion approach it is approve. Both in terms of recruitment effectiveness and the effectiveness of the selection process associated with training, as well as in the speed and strength of both competency acquisition and process of socio-professional and technical integration in the firm and in the work teams, proving, above all, an investment capable of generating generous positive returns.

Keywords: Training, Employability, Recruitment, Selection, Integration, «Trainee».

JEL Classification: M55

1. INTRODUCTION

One of the central functions of Human Resource Management (HRM) is the recruitment, selection and integration. Experts and managers have long been concerned with the study of performance predictors that best support the selection process. Despite the various methods and techniques of recruitment and selection that have emerged in recent years, such as assessment centers, e-recruitment, corporate websites, certification, among others (Ribeiro, 1996; 2007; Van Esch & Mente, 2018; Farashah, Thomas & Blomquist, 2019) the individual perspective and the support in the metric qualities of the instruments are still dominant (Ribeiro, 2007). The limitations associated with recruitment, selection and integration methods are bridged in the development of skills throughout the career. Therefore, training can be understood as a complement to recruitment, selection and integration in the adjustment of the employee to the function and the continuous improvement of his/her performance. In this sense, it is our proposal a recruitment and selection model, based on a formative process in stages as a selection method.

[1] Organizações e Construções Turísticas do Algarve SA., Faro, Portugal (susanitaneto@gmail.com)
[2] Oporto Catholic University, Porto, Portugal (ferreira.da.costa@globalconsulting.pt)
[3] Faculty of Human and Socials Sciences, University of Algarve, CIP - Research Center in Psychology, Faro, Portugal (ggoncalves@ualg.pt)
[4] Faculty of Human and Socials Sciences, University of Algarve, CIP - Research Center in Psychology, Faro, Portugal (cavsousa@ualg.pt)

The study presented here is an exploratory research-action case study that combines quantitative and qualitative methods and emerged as a response to a need manifested by the company Innovagency SA. It is exploratory because it is a real case study that was put into practice, on the other hand, descriptive because the different stages of the course of the creation and implementation of the project are reported. It was also considered instrumental since it provided a self-observation about the fusion of human resource practices, enabling knowledge to understand the phenomenon (Stake, 1995).

The objective of this project was to merge the practices associated with the demand and acquisition by the Companies of the critical skills necessary for their respective businesses. As competencies are mandatory and only for individuals, this project focused on the practices involved in recruiting, selecting, developing competencies and integrating employees that imply the acquisition of skills and converting them into professional outputs with value for companies. We speak of Human Resources Management (HRM) practices that we have called Recruitment, Selection, Training and Integration.

The aim of this project was to validate the added value and potential of the synergistic merger of such practices, in a unified process aimed at acquiring and profiting competences, adapting them to specific technical and technological contexts and also to specific socioprofessional and cultural frameworks. This strategy implies that such practices should be not only managed sequentially but combined in their purposes and articulated in their methodological implementation in order to enhance the results, both in the quality and quantity of the results obtained and in the speed with which they are obtained.

This research-action was developed in the company Innovagency, S. A. that develops its activity in the area of digital communication, dedicating itself to the consulting and the development of solutions and technical-technological applications. That is, it helps its Clients to "live" and thrive in the "digital world". Lately it lives with the difficulty of hiring collaborators who have specific programming skills necessary for the development of critical projects in the portfolio.

Aware that the solution lies in proactivity and innovation, the Human Resources Direction of Innovagency SA, in collaboration with the productive and operational areas of the company, has created a strategy to meet the labor needs with specialized programming competence web platform computing, through the creation of a structured program based on the synergetic fusion of the practices of recruitment and selection of young people with adequate basic training. Trained afterwards by intensive and specialized training in specific technologies followed by internship and integration training in the real environment of the work teams.

2. STATE OF ART

According to Rocha and Santos (2016), during almost all the decades of century XX, the HRM in the organizations exerted its fundamental activities of disaggregated form. Troni (2015) argues that the disaggregated practice results from the absence of a central aggregator paradigm that is sufficiently robust to link the various practices through a solid conceptual loop that could confer systemic consistency to HMR. This situation has changed with the emergence of competences (André & Rodrigues, 2013), which very quickly occupied the missing unifying central place, thus becoming the new central paradigm of management in general and of HRM in particular. In this paradigmatic role, "competence" has succeeded to the concept of "function" (Carbone, 2006), around which at least most HRM approaches, methodologies and techniques have been organized over the past century, if not all. The emergence of a robust central paradigm, which naturally and almost immediately linked the various HRM practices at a systemic frontier, contributed to a new approach to the synergetic potentiation and methodological interpenetration of the various practices.

It is in this problem that we situate the present project, characterizing it as a modest but valid attempt to contribute to the scientific consolidation of the synergetic fusion of practices. The bibliographical research made believe that there are no specific references on the fusion of HRM practices, so we will present them individually and sequentially, making references to the authors who are dedicated to their study.

Recruitment brings together the set of people-seeking activities that are efficient for a given function, conditioning the number and profiles of the people applying (e.g., Rego, Cunha, Gomes, Cunha, Cabral-Cardoso & Marques, 2015; Acikgoz, 2019) to integrate the "workforce" and meeting the business needs of modernization (Plumbley, 1995). Recruitment is a set of actions defined by the organization to attract people with specific skills in order to fill a job (Sekiou *et al.*, 2009). The quality of recruitment will influence the candidates who will be attracted by this process, so the wrong choice can lead to losses and sometimes-irreversible deficits (Bártolo-Ribeiro, 2007; Ekwoaba, Ikeije & Ufoma, 2015). Public and private organizations are interested that this human capital becomes more competent and engages as much as possible across time and different situations (Bártolo-Ribeiro & Andrade, 2015).

Peretti (1997) proposes the following stages of recruitment: 1) recruitment needs, 2) analysis, 3) function definition, 4) internal prospecting, 5) external prospecting, 6) sorting of applications, 7) questionnaires, 8) interview, 9) tests and 10) decision. Not very different from the proposal of Sekiou *et al.* (2009) which state that recruitment presupposes actions prior to the recruitment phase, so that the techniques for analyzing candidates' profiles must be improved in order for the candidate qualified to fill the vacancy.

The functional descriptive is one of the tasks that must be fulfilled because, on the one hand, the company helps to identify the set of tasks that the employee expects to perform, on the other, it helps the employee to understand what the organization expects of him/her and should therefore be drawn up before the recruitment phase (Klinvex, 2002). Allied to the functional description is the psychoprofessional profile of the function that according to Almeida "is the set of requirements - professional competences, personal and motivational characteristics - associated with it" (2014: 124). For the accomplishment of this step, Klinvex (2002) mentions the different methods, notably job observation, interviews with contract staff, meetings on critical episodes or meetings on future competences. From this construction, a set of competences are gathered that will be required of the candidate and will contribute to the success profile of the job.

The methods of recruitment must take into account the functions of the workplace, the target public and the market situation and can be said at the end of the procedure whether or not they were appropriate. There are a number of traditional methods of recruitment (i.e. sources of recruitment), namely, advertisements in newspapers and magazines, employment agencies, referrals of members of the organization or family and friends, job fairs (Rego *et al.*, 2015; Acikgoz, 2018) among others. In recent years, in addition to traditional sources, have emerged e-recruitment, corporate websites, specialized chat rooms and the use of internet job shops, etc. (e.g., Van Esch & Mente, 2018; Rego *et al.*, 2015; Acikgoz & Bergman, 2016). In addition to these, the emergence of social and work networks (online) have broadened the dissemination of the information flow (e.g., Jobvite, 2016; Acikgoz & Bergman, 2016; Belo, Fernandes & Castela, 2014). HRM came to have access to a broad network of candidates and a reduction in the bureaucracy associated with the recruitment process. As a result, for HRM, there was enrichment and increased speed and impartiality in talent selection and, for the company, a reduction in time and costs (Bhangu *et al.*, 2015).

The recruitment process based on electronic resources via the Internet, via e-mail or through an advanced communication system, along with a set of tools that authorize the sending and receipt of applications, allows the online screening of candidates, and is the process most used by companies around the world (Maurer & Liu, 2007). However, if the company opts for e-recruiting, it will have to consider the drawbacks of this process, namely receiving mismatched resumes to job advertisement requirements (Armstrong, 2006). In turn, e-recruitment may be suitable for candidates who have a set of personality and age-specific characteristics, as well as computer literacy and academic training. However, it may be inadequate for candidates with poor qualifications and computer literacy. Different researchers based on their studies consider this method more famous than the traditional methods, reason why it gives a greater number of candidates (Salgado *et al.*, 2006, cit. in Rego *et al.*, 2015).

While recruiting is the process of identifying and attracting potential candidates inside and outside an organization for a future job, selection is the procedure that organizations follow to select from among the right candidates for a given specific function (Rego *et al.*, 2015).

There are several selection techniques that can be used, some refer to the evaluation of other knowledge to the psychological forum in order to assess intellectual potential, behavioral and personality characteristics and social skills. Each technique presents its restrictions and validity, thus complementing each other and helping to make a more valid decision. Candidates can be tested on the one hand to identify the strengths and weaknesses, on the other hand to survey the attitudes that allow them to fit the desired profile to the available position. Peretti (1997) classifies the tests into three categories: aptitude tests (visual, motor, intellectuals - intelligence and knowledge, ...) that allow to collect accurate data and that have an informative value in relation to the considered activity; personality tests, usually referred to as questionnaires or inventories aimed at perceiving the personality, consist of a voluminous list of closed questions; finally, evidence of situation that identifies elements of function and personality, simulates a real situation of the future position to occupy. The job interview is one of the most used techniques in the organizational world (Macan, 2009), although it has a low predictive power (Bártolo-Ribeiro, 2007; Highhouse, Brooks, Nesnidol & Sim, 2017) associated with the subjectivity of the interviewers in the perception of attitudes, personality, motivations, tactics of self-presentation and possible dissimulations, etc. (e.g., Culbertson, Weyhrauch & Waples, 2016; Woolley & Fishbach, 2018) of the candidates. There are several types of interview, namely, the conventional interview consisting of questions on motivation, family history and professional. Compared with these, structured interviews have relatively high levels of predictive validity on work performance (e.g., Conway, Jako & Goodman, 1995; Highhouse, *et al.*, 2017; cf., Macan, 2009), in particular situational interviews (cf., Ingold *et al.*, 2015; Oostrom, Melchers, Ingold & Kleinmann, 2016; Culbertson, Weyhrauch & Huffcutt, 2017). There is no "type" script to be used in the interviews, however, Bártolo-Ribeiro (2007) proposes that the script be composed of the following themes: 1) biographical data, 2) school and technical education, 3) 4) personal factors of satisfaction, 5) family situation, 6) activities outside of work and 7) qualities required for the job. It is also important to mention that the interview should be prepared according to the objectives and methods to be achieved, the physical environment should be comfortable for the climate to be pleasant and the candidate feel relaxed and calm (Neves, Garrido & Simões, 2015). The structured interview was created by Campion, Pursell and Brown (2006) with the objective of reducing the subjectivity that the interview usually entails (e.g., Woolley & Fishbach, 2018). Thus, the authors proposed an interview script composed of questions related to the knowledge, abilities and experiences of the candidates; the formulation of the questions must be made from the analysis of the function because this analysis allows to identify the knowledge and behaviors desirable to the position; questions should be scored with a scale anchored in pre-defined behaviors (good - 5 to weak - 1) and there should be more than one interviewer. At the end of the interview, the information is compiled, and the results averaged.

According to Robertson and Smith (2001), curricular analysis is the second most used method in selection processes. There are two types of curricula experience curricula and curriculum vitae. The latter are the most used and preferred by the organizations, since they structure all the information of the candidate in chronological order and they enunciate the competences of the candidates. While the experience curricula are composed of professional experiences that may not mention the organization, so the candidate can hide information and emphasize illicit data. The curriculum vitae is, therefore, a brochure that summarizes the candidate's academic and professional background. This document, according to Machado and Portugal (2013: 73) "has become, in the present times, an instrument of work and evaluation of professional and personal value ...", the companies consider it one of the most important and relevant documents for the selection process, since it presents the candidate in an organized way, allows the candidate to analyze the professional and personal level, defines the profile of the candidate and verifies his/her suitability for the function. On the other hand, it performs the function of first contact between candidate and organization and, therefore, conditions the formation of impressions. That is why candidates and recruiters should seek out strategies and tools that make the curriculum and its analysis, as effective as possible. By way of example, a cover letter or CV with graphic errors significantly contributes to a poor impression on the evaluator (Martin-Lacroux, 2017).

In the curriculum evaluation, there are several aspects that the human resources manager must take into account, so, according to Klinvex (2002), a checklist must be developed "of what is being sought", as well as six elements namely, general appearance, internal organization, experience, academic background and diplomas, relevant affiliations or activities, and references. Curricula should be thoroughly analyzed (Hindle, 1998) to select the best candidates according to the defined profile.

After obtaining as much information as possible, the information will be evaluated in a responsible and fair manner. The decision and choice process goes through the confrontation phase of results and opinions where the last decision is analyzed and pondered. The prime factor that distinguishes the candidates is not what they know to do, but rather their motivations and capacity for learning and achievement (e.g., Almeida, 2014; Woolley & Fishbach, 2018).

In the last decade, in Portugal, the selection method called *assessment centers* (Bártolo-Ribeiro, 2007), developed at the time of World War II when the allied countries began to study the methods that the Germans used to select their spies (Plumbley, 1995), began to have greater relevance. Considered a method that combines the central information elements encoded according to guidelines (International Task Force, 2008). From various techniques such as tests, questionnaires and simulations subject to a behavioral category observation register, the evaluators have the possibility to analyze the profile of the candidates in a more objective way (Thornton & Gibbons, 2009). The method was applied by the *British Civil Service Commission*, in the year of 1945, in the qualification tests for places in the public administration (Bártolo-Ribeiro, 2007). It was the first time the method left the battlefields. The method is recognized by significant predictive validity, criterion, among others, compared to other selection methods (e.g., Thornton & Gibbons, 2009). However, it is a method that is subject to several dysfunctions, conditioning the criteria of validity (Dewberry & Duncan, 2016). Therefore, it is necessary to invest time and money in the preparation of the assessors and in the development and implementation of the protocol. Reason why it has not been a widely used method (Bártolo-Ribeiro, 2007).

Bártolo-Ribeiro (2007) states that the primary goal of this method "is to create the opportunity to develop weaker skills through additional training." While Plumbley (1995) states that it satisfies the need to assess personal characteristics, the ability of a subject to influence and lead others, and to create new ideas in real situations. There is no standardized and universal form for its implementation, however, the organization entails very concrete rules of organization and implementation, the author Bártolo-Ribeiro (2007) mentions a "generic" list with the most common phases of its development. It is important to carry out the analysis of the specific characteristics of the function and the identification of the goals of the assessment center. Several authors (e.g., Wood & Payne, 1998; Bowler & Woehr, 2006) consider that the method is effective because the evaluation is more objective and task-focused.

The process of reception and integration begins even before the admission of the new candidate by the organization, assuming a notable importance during the recruitment and selection phase (Rego *et al.*, 2015; Acikgoz, 2018). At this stage, there is a sharing of information between the candidate and the organization's representative. The candidate seeks to present his/her potentialities, competences and values for the performance of the function to which he/she is applying and the company representative evidences the characteristics of the organization and the particularities related to the function (Almeida, 2014).

The exchange of information that is established during the selection process is considered important, but it is not enough for the new employee to know the organization and to adjust quickly and effectively to the organization (Sousa, Duarte, Sanches & Gomes, 2006). At this stage, social aspects of work such as relations with colleagues are very important, as they influence the quality of socialization, as well as reception procedures, document delivery, initial information, introduction to space, formal courses and formal and informal training (Armstrong, 2006). It is necessary that the organization pay attention to the employees' perception about the new colleague, since the latter can be viewed with an attitude of distrust and induce some instability, jeopardizing the effectiveness of the process of reception and integration and consequent socialization (Burcharth & Fosfuri, 2015). On the other hand, it is through the process of interaction between the various elements, particularly the position of the new collaborator vis-à-vis colleagues and managers, that establishes how the relationship will proceed (Sousa *et al.*, 2006). Thus, during the process of preparing the reception and integration of the new employee and the whole team, which will work directly with him/her, it is considered relevant to clarify previously all the role of the new employee, to hold an (informal) team meeting and be introduced to the predecessor (if he/she remains in the organization).

In the course of the process is underpinning the construction of a psychological contract between the organization and the new employee (e.g., Manuti, Spinelli & Giancaspro, 2016; cf. Rousseau, Hansen & Tomprou, 2018). The new employee carries with him/her technical competences and professional aptitudes, but also values, expectations and motivations that were generated in the course of interactions during the recruitment and selection process and through information obtained about the organization during the process and by other means (Armstrong, 2006). On the one hand, the company also possesses a certain organizational culture and values and, on the other hand, develops expectations about the candidate during the recruitment and selection process. Hence, an adjustment is necessary between the two, the expectations of both parties and the real (Almeida, 2014), resulting in a commitment of trust in which both parties commit to do their best.

The initial orientation period may take place over several months and should not be confused with socialization, since it is only a small part of the same (Peretti, 2001). According to Sousa *et al.* (2006), there are companies that are dedicated to a very specific activity that need to give technical training to the employees who are part of the company. This activity may support some risks such as, no return on investment or employee leaving the company. However, it can be a positive factor for contributing to attracting better employees.

Training does not come in isolation. It is an ongoing process that is related to the daily life of the employee, through which new knowledge, attitudes and behaviors are acquired that help both the moments of challenge that require quick response capability and the accomplishment of daily tasks. It is understood that its purpose is to contribute to an improvement in the performance of employees, which in turn will have consequences on the company's results.

Regardless of talent understood from an innate or learned perspective, training must be approached and implemented in accordance with the assumption that all workers can and should be able to increase their skills aligned with technological developments and organizational changes (e.g., Antoniolia & Torre, 2016; cf. Dries, Cotton, Bagdadli & de Oliveira, 2014). Only then will the organization have available competent, flexible and easily adaptable employees, so it is important to focus on training. In addition to the development of skills and abilities, training positively affects professional satisfaction, engagement and organizational identity, increased productivity, absenteeism, among other outputs of individuals (e.g., Rego *et al.*, 2015; Amissah, Gamor, Deri & Amissah, 2016; Lee & Bugler, 2017), contributing to the satisfaction of organizational performance needs (cf., Berger & Berger, 2017).

Brinkerhoff and Dressler (2002) argue that companies need employees who not only learn fast, but who learn instantly, who convey individual knowledge to the team and increase organizational performance. Thus, in the professional environment managers and Companies prepare more professional and personal development plans that increase trust in the professional relationship. Training is a process composed of different phases that must be defined, structured and planned in order to induce changes in the abilities, knowledge, attitudes and behaviors of employees at work (Cabrera, 2006, cit. in Rego *et al.*, 2015), according to a prior diagnosis of needs. The diagnosis is fundamental for the success of the intervention, because its quality will depend on the efficiency and effectiveness of the training (Brinkerhoff, 2001) and the return on investment (e.g., Bashrum, 2012; Roca-Puig, Bou-Llusar, Beltrán-Martín & García-Juan, 2018).

During the training period, there are factors that must be fulfilled in order to ensure that quality and effectiveness are not compromised: a) the chosen/elaborated program must be adequate to the needs of the company, so that training has utility and investment makes sense; b) the material used must be of quality and appropriate to the group and c) the trainer must have technical skills in the area in which he/she is going to teach, technical training skills and possessing psychosocial characteristics (Rego *et al.*, 2015; Tews & Noe, 2017). Three types of training assessment can be carried out, namely short-term, medium-term and long-term evaluation. The latter is about the strategic coherence of the company, the impact on the culture of the organization, the prevention of maladaptation due to evolution, the attention given to the most sensitive categories, qualified or not (Peretti, 1997).

In short, the training process begins with the survey of training needs, followed by the organization of the activities and the subsequent conceptualization of the same and, finally, the evaluation of the whole process (Rego *et al.*, 2015). Training programs effectively help individuals to find work and to maintain themselves, as evidenced in Fleissig's (2014) study. Training is a strategic variable that contributes in the long term to the organization's success. (Roca-Puig *et al.*, 2018).

3. METHODOLOGY

The main objective of this project was to verify and prove the added value of the merger of practices, either with respect to the results and quality of the process itself, or for the company, innovating in the methods and techniques through its merger. The following hypotheses have been advanced:

a. The fusion of recruitment, selection and training methodologies allows accelerating the effective acquisition of specific competences and thus the technical integration in the function;
b. The fusion of recruitment, selection and training methodologies allows to accelerate the process of socio-professional integration in the company;
c. A qualifying recruiting merger approach provides a positive financial return for the company and thus offsets the necessary investment.

The methodological strategy of the merger went through 3 points:

1. Recruitment for training, with integration in view;
2. Select during the formative process;
3. Integrate throughout the process.

3.1 Population and sample

The recruitment phase attracted 34 applications, which were reduced to 21 after the first stages of interaction and clarification. After the selection, 11 applications were cleared to start the training, but two participants gave up at the beginning of the training.

After the recruitment and selection phase, 9 trainees received in-room training on Microsoft's web platform for the Academy - i9.station. As the company bets on its employees, it invited an internal programmer to participate in the training, reason why they counted 10 trainees in the Academy that focused on the technology SharePoint.

At the end of the first week, the group was reduced to five members who were trained in the company, together with the working groups. At the end of the 3 weeks, all members of the group were invited to join the company as a trainee, as they were able to show the transfer of theoretical contents in practical work situations. Only three of the five accepted the proposal, for reasons related to the compatibility of their personal and professional projects or the conditions offered.

Two analysis groups were also set up:

a. A control group made up of Innovagency's current employees recruited in the last two years (8 elements). This temporal delimitation of seniority was adopted so that the respondents could still keep a reliable memory on the respective integration process and to guarantee less interference of eventual organizational and cultural changes that the company has registered;
b. Naturally, the second group consisted of the selected subjects, trained and integrated through the methodology of merging practices, and that, due to the circumstances, only three remained in the company.

3.2 Procedure and instruments

In point 1, the recruitment phase sought to attract candidacies from people with a profile and knowledge appropriate to the integration into the project and thus comply with the "robot portrait" established for this purpose. During the recruitment period the candidates who met the technical requirements were invited to participate in a Presentation Session and clarification of doubts based on the presentation of the i9.station website and a PowerPoint prepared for this purpose.

The purpose of the session was to promote i9.station by ensuring that all interested parties were in possession of all relevant information, to confirm the effective holding of the required technical knowledge, and the candidates' interest in continuing the selection process. These objectives were ensured through the interaction subsequent to the presentation and also from the filling in of the Manifestation Form of Interest in which the candidate assumed the commitment of interest in participation in the i9.station and the continuity in the selection process. The members were sent some links with self-study materials to prepare for the technical interview.

In point 2, the selection phase, the trainer used a formative evaluation grid composed of several items related to the behavioral and technical situation. This instrument is often used after performing activities leading to the acquisition of a technique. In order to evaluate the posture and commitment of the trainees during the training, the following criteria were taken into account: assiduity and punctuality, motivation and attitude and oral participation. In order to evaluate the graduates in terms of technical-scientific competences we have taken into account the information obtained through the criteria: technical domain and practical delivery.

Based on the collected data, it was verified that the selected trainees (five) always presented results of commitment equal or superior to the trainees who were not selected, as well as, superior technical competences. Point 3, the integration of potential new collaborators, has been a concern since the beginning of the process. Thus, a questionnaire was elaborated to evaluate the satisfaction of the trainees regarding the training given in class. The structure adopted in the construction of the instrument was by categories, each consisting of a number of statements, namely, organization and logistics (5 statements), the trainer (6 statements), the overall assessment (3 statements), and finally, the self-evaluation of the trainee (3 statements). The trainees responded according to their degree of agreement with the statements (1 - disagree, 2 - agree, 3 - strongly agree); only in the self-evaluation category there was a frequency scale of 1 to 5 (1-never, 2-rarely, 3-sometimes, 4- often, 5-almost always).

The questionnaire was applied, in paper format, on the last day of classroom training to the ten graduates who participated in the Academy.

Regarding Satisfaction, the elements that participated in the Academy strongly agreed with the organization of the action, as well as the implicit logistical conditions even though they considered the duration of the training somewhat inadequate. Thus, with regard to the organization and logistics of the action, we can conclude that all the elements that participated in the Academy were very satisfied presenting an average satisfaction index of 2.63 on a 3-point scale, that is, an index of 87.7%. The overall assessment of the training action reached a rate of 90%, which concludes that the trainees made a very positive evaluation of it.

Regarding the self-assessment, with an average breakdown by factors, the trainees translated, in their answers, an appreciative index of 79.33% which we consider a good average result, consistent with the evaluation made by the trainer.

Developing the original idea, it was established that the Program, after a first phase of Recruitment and Selection, would merge the Selection and Formation phases, that is, that the selective character would extend progressively throughout the various phases of Formation.

Thus, the training program was conceptualized in three parts; a first part consisting of a week of intensive classroom training, succeeded by a second two-week phase in the real project environment and then by a nine-month stage.

At the end of each of these first phases the trainees would be submitted to an evaluation of eliminatory character, reason why the group followed a selective process of bottleneck. After the third week, the trainees underwent a written evaluation test and a technical interview, which allowed the group to subsequently be identified in a stage of 3 + 6 months, at the end of which, in the event of success in the final positive evaluation, they would be contracted to Innovagency as regular collaborators.

A survey was also carried out based on a structured questionnaire, aiming to evaluate the speed and pace of integration of employees through the perceptions of the same integration by respondents.

The survey was presented to the company in the case of a routine investigation of control and monitoring of the integration process in the company, not making any distinctive reference to the i9.station group. The survey, anonymous, was inserted into an online platform and applied to the control group. The same survey was also applied to the i9.station group consisting of 3 elements.

The distinction of the groups was made only through the use of differentiated access links, in order to avoid that the experimental group was aware of the experimental character of the approach, and that this perception could somehow interfere in the results through an expectation effect, which would have been so, if not completely annulled, at least mitigated in its impact.

All were surveyed for the first three months of integration, although the most recent elements (from i9.station) could only relate to the first two months they had at the time of the survey since their entry.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The present study is a real case study focused on a research plan based on a scientific methodology. Regarding the credibility of the study, we verified that the external validity is compromised by the reduced sample of trainees who participated in the study. However, a case study does not represent statistical value sampling, it does try to broaden the theories (Yin, 2018).

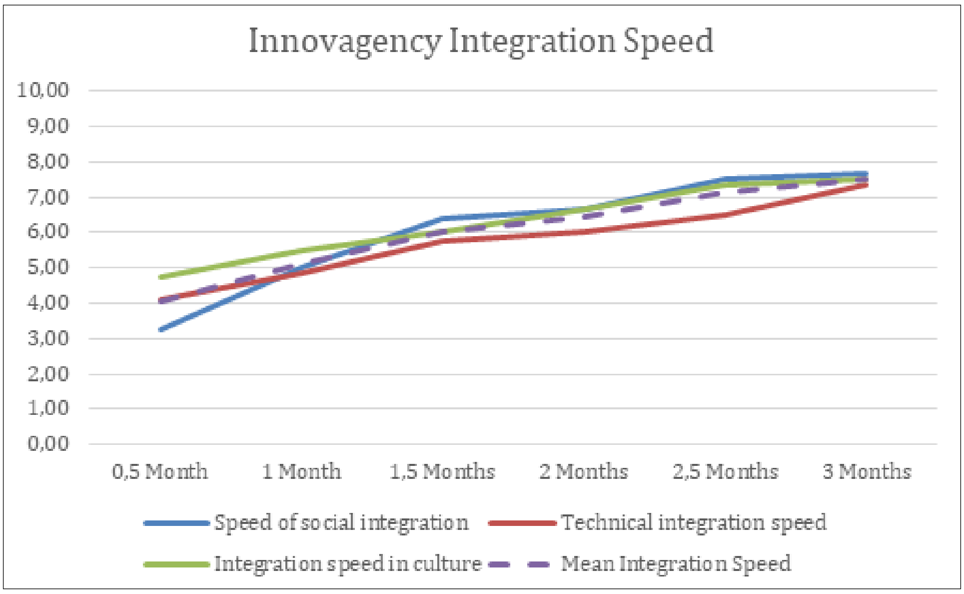
Reliability is thus not compromised since all data has been collected in a transparent and scientific way. The overall evaluation of the project will be done through the discussion of the 3 hypotheses put in the beginning.

We believe that the option to validate the project through the verification of the hypotheses serves simultaneously the business perspective, allowing evidence of the value of interest to the organization and to the business, as well as the academic perspective, since it allows to confer the necessary factual legitimacy required by the scientific rigor and validate the interest of deepening the study and the conceptual and methodological sophistication of the fusion of practices in the HRM.

Regarding the questionnaire, it was structured in two parts, the first referring to individual and contractual questions (age, function, seniority, type of contract), the second referring to the integration itself in terms of social, technical and in company culture over predefined periods, namely: 0.5 month, 1 month, 1.5 month, 2 months, 2.5 months and 3 months.

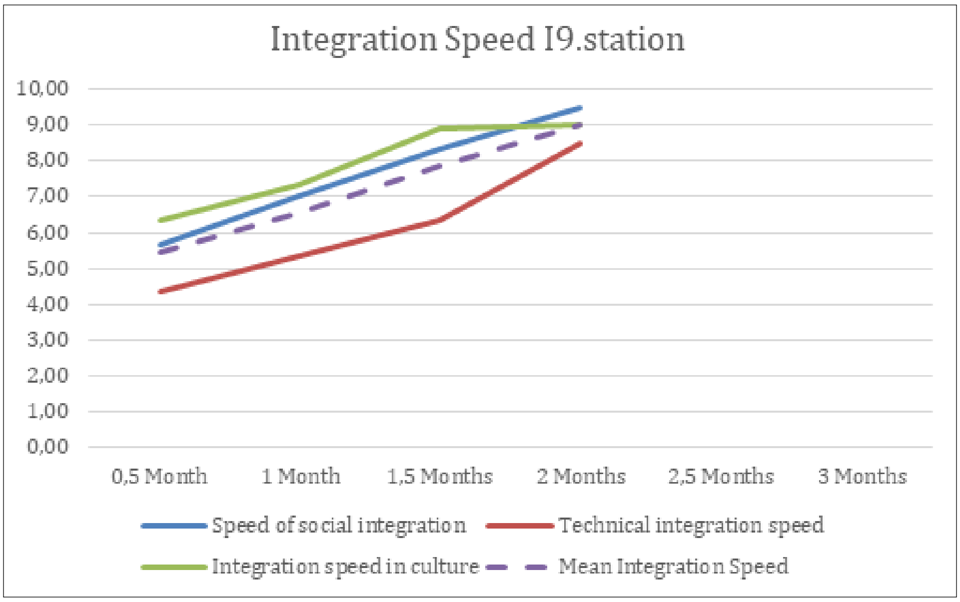
The responses of both groups were collected and treated, and the means obtained in the three dimensions of integration considered in the two groups are presented in figures 1 and 2, which also show in dashes the means integration velocities obtained.

Figure 1. Integration speed - Control group



Source: Own Elaboration

Figure 2. Integration speed - Experimental group



Source: Own Elaboration

From the simple observation of the two figures, they point out some conclusions. The order of relative positioning of the three curves tends to be identical, except for the evolution of social integration in the control group that starts below the remaining. We see this similarity of relative positioning in both groups as a signal of reliability of the analysis, since it encourages to consider that if the same pattern is observed in both groups it will have some objective foundation and the extraction of conclusions is probably legitimate although the "distance" from assessment to occurrence may have interfered with the perception and respective emotional resonance of the experience.

There is also a difference in both the beginning and the slope values, which leads to a perception of higher integration velocity in the experimental group.

Finally, the progressivity of the curves suggests greater procedural consistency in the i9.station group, although this conclusion may be, we acknowledge, insufficiently substantiated.

Let us now proceed to discuss the hypotheses in the light of the evidence.

Hypothesis A: Regarding the results that are relevant for the verification of hypothesis A, it is observed that the line of the mean speed of technical integration, if projected, suggests that full technical integration will have occurred after six months in the control group, while based on the full integration takes place in the i9.station group in half the time, i.e., at the end of three months or less. It is concluded that although the rhythms of technical integration are similar during the initial phase of theoretical and practical training, it "triggers" in speed after this period in the experimental group, and from there the speed of technical integration is more accelerated. This evidence suggests the potential of the merger of practices as a potentiator of learning and acquisition of skills, and thus of the practical application and profitability of the knowledge and skills acquired by training.

Hypothesis B: Through the results of the above-mentioned survey approach, socio-professional integration was broken down into two dimensions: social integration, i.e., integration into teams and informal groups, and integration into the company culture, i.e., identification with the values and norms adopted (acculturation).

From the comparative treatment of the responses in the two groups, it was possible to construct the comparative figures. We can conclude that the results suggest a clearly faster and more progressive socioprofessional integration in the i9.station group than in the control group. This difference is particularly noticeable in terms of social integration, which in the control group shows itself to be "timid" at the start (first fortnight) and continues gradually over the first quarter.

On the contrary, the rapid and progressive evolution of social integration in the experimental group seems to confirm the added value of the controlled and continuously supported immersion process that characterized the i9.station process, returning to a better integration through a better and faster reception of the new elements.

In fact, in interviews and informal conversations throughout the integration evaluation process, the collaborators of the control group were verbalized several times, the discomfort resulting from a cold reception by the teams in which they were integrated, and how the slowness of acceptance contributed to if they felt "outside the team and not integrated for a long time".

If we compose the three integrations considered in a single line representing the aggregate integration process (average integration velocity) and design the trend lines obtained with the two groups, we can draw the following conclusions:

a. The full integration of the control group seems to occur about six months after entry;
b. Evidence confirms an apparent faster integration of the i9.station group, with full integration achieved after the first three months.

Thus, to recapitulate, the integration of i9.station trainees appears to be twice as fast as that of the control group. The technical integration has an initial velocity similar to that of the control group up to the initial month and half but then registers a marked acceleration. If we consider that 1.5 months of the i9.station group corresponds to the end of the formative period, it is concluded that this training model greatly accelerates the productive integration of employees in the work teams. Both social integration and integration into the company's culture are notoriously faster, with social integration more progressive and homogeneous, and integration into the culture is also faster to the point of full integration. In general, the full integration (or close) that the control group indicated to operate after 6 months seems to be achieved in half the time (3 months) with the fused i9.station model.

The study by Filippin *et al.* (2012) states that integration is already in the recruitment phase, as all means of disclosure support the values of the organization. In addition, the final stage of formation is indispensable for the integration process, providing immersion of the candidates in an "induction" process. Given the evidence, it is confirmed that the speed of integration of employees who integrate into the company through i9.station is better and faster by the Academy process than in the normal process.

Despite the small size of the samples and the short time elapsed, especially in the i9.station experimental group, the results clearly point to both hypothesis A and hypothesis B, and it is concluded that the evidence indicates a real potential of the integration of recruitment, selection and training in the acceleration of the integration process, particularly at the cultural, socio-professional and technical levels.

Hypothesis C: Confirming the interest and potential of the merger of methodologies from the perspective of integration, it remains to show that it is worthwhile, also from an economic perspective, that the company makes the necessary investment and that it has a positive return.

Thus, to confirm the hypothesis C, the project's return on investment (ROI) was calculated. This indicator is used in the financial area, allowing to calculate the ratio between the amount of money earned or lost as a result of an investment relative to the amount of money invested.

It is, therefore, an accurate, credible and viable tool for obtaining the financial results of several projects and has been used in recent years in HRM projects and activities, particularly in relation to training investments.

In the present case, in order to test and prove the return of the necessary investment to a project of fusion of practices such as i9.station, we began by conducting an exhaustive and rigorous survey of all the costs involved in the assembly and implementation of the i9 project. (i.e., website creation, branding, signature) to "amortize" over the 10 academies expected to be realized during the first five years of the project, as well as the costs associated with the first Sharepoint Academy.

But to calculate the ROI, it becomes necessary in addition to the costs to consider the "profits" of the project. As there was not yet a direct profitability derived from the resources formed, it was decided to calculate the "income" of the project by the differential between the costs actually incurred and those in which the Company would incur to solve its labor needs that the resources resulting from the first academy are effectively ensuring.

If with these "profits" the project shows a positive return, then the return on future investments will be assured, when a commercial practice of monetization of the resources formed is installed and streamlined, namely through the provision of specialized services to client companies and not merely integration in ongoing projects.

In fact, they were considered two potential "profits" and not just one. Thus, Profit 1 refers to the differential of the i9.station solution in relation to the use of three specialized resources contracted to outsourcing companies, and Profit 2 refers to the same differential, but in the case of alternative hiring of programmers at the beginning of their careers or little experienced, which would have to be given some training, whose value was also considered.

Having thus two different hypotheses of costs and corresponding profit, two ROIs were consequently calculated.

ROI expresses the percentage of the margin obtained between costs and benefits, after deduction of the investment made, in proportion to the same investment [(Total profit - (Total costs - Investment made)) / Investment made] x 100)].

With the calculation of ROI 1 and ROI 2 it is proven that the return on investment is, in any case, positive and very expressive, returning at least seven times the investment.

Based on the costs calculated and the calculations made, the ROI was calculated per person, which evidences a return on the investment between one and a half and three and a half times approximately.

It is therefore concluded by the undeniable interest of this solution, even in a purely economic-financial perspective of the company that invests in it, although we believe that this value will tend to be greater as a result of the productivity boost brought about by the accelerated technical and socio-professional integration of the new employees thus recruited.

As reported in Bashrum's (2012) study, ROI is a simple, though rich, calculation related to training programs and their organizational impact. It's an important calculation because it aligns training with business goals and objectives.

The importance of the pilot project in the company is above all to learn from what has been done and to draw conclusions and lessons from the process (Canales, 2015) to improve the following issues.

5. CONCLUSION

In recent years, the Internet has been at apogee of numerous changes in several prominent areas in the business environment and in the way of managing and doing business. The easy access to the Internet has allowed the creation of the "I digital" which, in turn, has stimulated the development of networks of contacts, giving rise to a new perception and way of interacting with the world.

This change has also transformed human behavior itself at the affective, family, social, individual and work levels. The latter is highlighted, as many jobs have been replaced due to technological advances and other technological allies have emerged. The digital world is present and has come to be affected by different factors, namely by the breakdown of communication barriers, infinite access to information, speed and agility of task execution and security.

It is also worth mentioning that between 1980 and 2000 the "millennium generation" was also known as "generation Y" or "the Internet", a generation that emerged at a time of great technological advances and information exposure. This generation is characterized by having a technological profile, not being subject to any kind of work, that exchanges jobs easily in search of more challenging opportunities and with professional growth, which demands feedback in relation to work and performance. It is a challenge for the business world to attract and retain these workers, however, if they are challenged by training or development, retention can happen.

The present study came about because Innovagency experienced difficulties in capturing human capital with specific knowledge in certain technologies. Thus, on the one hand, the objectives of the company were to reduce the risk of difficulty in recruiting and provide training to internal employees, on the other hand, intended to boost the business of placing professionals in the areas of competence of Innovagency.

With the completion of this case study, it was found that i9.station has responded to the initial problem, proving that the merger of recruitment and selection, training and integration practices contribute to a more rapid and effective integration and to a technical evolution of future collaborators. From a business point of view, it has also been proven that the investment in this type of integrated solution returns positively to the Company, and that is also compensatory also in a business perspective.

Although the limitations are recognized by the number of subjects involved, it is concluded that the three hypotheses are confirmed. From this experience are also drawn some conclusions that will contribute to the development of the second edition of i9.station and improvement of the process in general. At present, Innovagency sees training as an investment and not as a cost, because it is confident that this investment will have a return both financially and functionally, and in the development of employees.

Lastly and in the way of clues for future investigations in this line, it would be interesting to compare the media channels that are used in the recruitment as Facebook, Twitter, ad in websites and to realize which is the most effective channel for the technological target audience. Also, it is important to integrate, in future studies, personality attributes such as creativity and entrepreneurship, given the growing importance for organizations of these attributes in their workers (Imaginário, Cristo, Jesus & Morais, 2016). In addition, apply the method of merging the practices into a company of different branch to prove the added value for both the organization and the employee, also in different realities and contexts.

Assuming with scientific humility the dimension and impact of a "case study" such as the one presented here, we want to believe in the virtues of this contribution to draw attention to a reality that is worth studying and deepening (the synergistic fusion of practices in HRM), and that this line of study can contribute to strengthen the consistency and solidity of HRM as a science.

REFERENCES

Acikgoz, Y. & Bergman, S.M. (2016). Social media and employee recruitment: Chasing the run away bandwagon. In R.N. Landers, G.B. Schmidt, R.N. Landers & G.B. Schmidt (Eds.). *Social media in employee selection and recruitment: Theory, practice, and current challenges* (pp. 175-195). Cham, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.

Acikgoz, Y. (2019). Employee recruitment and job search: Towards a multi-level integration. *Human Resource Management Review*, 29(1), 1-13.

Sekiou, L., Blondin, L., Fabi, B., Peretti, J.-M., Bayad, M., Alis, D., & Chevalier, F. (2009). *Gestão dos recursos humanos* (4th Ed.). Lisboa: Instituto Piaget.

Almeida, H. (2014). *Manual de gest*ão de recursos humanos: Da estratégia à prática (2nd Ed.). Faro: Sílabas & Desafios.

Amissah, E.F., Gamor, E., Deri, M.N., & Amissah, A. (2016). Factors influencing employee job satisfaction in Ghana's hotel industry. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism,* 15(2), 166-183.

André, A.R.D. & Rodrigues, A.C. (2013). *Emergência e Desenvolvimento do Conceito de Competência. IV Conferência Investigação e Intervenção em Recursos Humanos: Os Novos Contextos da Gestão dos Recursos Humanos*. Escola Superior de Ciências Empresariais do Instituto Politécnico de Setúbal. Acceded in 28th of August 2017, in: http://recipp.ipp.pt/bitstream/10400.22/7553/1/COM_NIDRH_2013_1.pdf.

Antoniolia, D. & Torre, E.D. (2016). Innovation adoption and training activities in SMEs. The *International Journal of Human Resource Management,* 27(3), 311-337.

Armstrong, M. (2006). *Handbook of Human Resource Management Practise*. (10th Ed.) London: Kogan Page.

Bártolo-Ribeiro, R. (1996). Seleção de pessoal: Métodos e aplicações. In C.A. Marques & M.P. Cunha (Coords.), *Comportamento organizacional e gestão de empresas* (pp. 93-115). Lisboa: Publicações D. Quixote.

Bártolo-Ribeiro, R. (2007). Recrutamento e seleção. In A. Caetano & J. Vala (Org.), *Gestão de recursos humanos: Contextos, processos e técnicas* (3rd Ed., pp. 263-300). Lisboa: RH Editora.

Bártolo-Ribeiro, R. & Andrade, L.J. (2015). Expatriates selection: An essay of model analysis. *Journal of Spatial and Organizational Dynamics: Multiculturality in Organizational and Social Space, New Challenges*, III(1), 47-57.

Bashrum, M. (2012). Keep your training program funded: 10 steps to training ROI: It is easy to focus on the quality of training rather than the impact of the learning. To prove value, shift thinking from a quality mindset to an impact and results mindset. *The Public Manager,* 41(4), 5-20.

Belo, A., Fernandes, S., & Castela, G. (2014). Social networks' users: Profiles and motivations. *Journal of Spatial and Organizational Dynamics: Human-Technology Interactions, Roles and Challenges*, II(3), 217-228.

Berger, L.A. & Berger, D. (2017). Using talent management to build a high-performance workforce. In L.A. Berger & D. Berger (Eds.), The talent management handbook: *Making culture a competitive advantage by acquiring, identifying, developing, and promoting the best people* (3th Ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Education.

Brinkerhoff, R.O.O. & Apking. A.M. (2001). *High impact learning: Strategies for leveraging business results from training*. Cambridge, MA: Perseus Publishing.

Brinkerhoff, R.O. & Dressler, D. (2002). Using evaluation to build organizational performance and learning capability: A strategy and a method. *Performance Improvement,* 41(6), 14-21.

Burcharth, A.L.A. & Fosfuri, A. (2015). *Not invented here: How institutionalized socialization practices affect the formation of negative attitudes toward external knowledge. Industrial and Corporate Change*, 24(2), 281-305.

Campion, M.A., Pursell, E.D., & Brown, B.K. (1988). *Structured interviewing: Raising the psychometric properties of the employment interview. Personnel Psychology*, 41(1), 25-42.

Carbone, J.G. (2006). *Gestão por competências*. Acceded in 25th of October 2017, in: https://www.passeidireto.com/arquivo/974141/gestao-por-competencias/2

Conway, J.M., Jako, R.A., & Goodman, D.F. (1995). A meta-analysis of interrater and internal consistency reliability of selection interviews. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 80(5), 565-579.

Culbertson, S.S., Weyhrauch, W.S., & Waples, C.J. (2016). Behavioral cues as indicators of deception in structured employment interviews. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 24(2), 119-131.

Culbertson, S.S., Weyhrauch, W.S., & Huffcutt, A.I. (2017). A tale of two formats: Direct comparison of matching situational and behavior description interview questions. *Human Resource Management Review*, 27, 167-177.

Dewberry, C. & Jackson, D. J. R. (2016*).* The perceived nature and incidence of dysfunctional assessment center features and processes. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment,* 24(2), 189-196.

Dries, N., Cotton, R.D., Bagdadli, S., & de Oliveira, M.Z. (2014). HR Directors' understanding of 'talent': A cross-cultural study. In A.A. Ariss (Ed.). *Global talent management: Challenges, strategies, and opportunities*. Switzerland: Springer International Publishing Switzerland.

Sousa, M.J., Duarte, T., Sanches P.G., & Gomes, J. (2006). *Gestão de recursos humanos: Métodos e práticas*. Lisboa: Lidel.

Ekwoaba, J.O., Ikeije, U.U., & Ufoma, N. (2015). The impact of recruitment and selection criteria on organizational performance. *Global Journal of Human Resource Management,* 3(2), 22-33.

Farashah, A.D., Thomas, J., & Blomquist, T. (2019). Exploring the value of project management certification in selection and recruiting. *International Journal of Project Management*, 37(1), 14-26.

Fleissig, A.R. (2014). Return on investment from training programs and intensive services. *Atlantic Economic Journal*, 42(1), 13-39.

Highhouse, S., Brooks, M.E., Nesnidol, S., & Sim, S. (2017). Is a .51 validity coefficient good? Value sensitivity for interview validity. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment,* 25, 383-389.

Hindle, T. (1998). *Como fazer entrevistas*. Lisboa: Civilização Editora.

Imaginário, S., Cristo, E., Jesus, S.N., & Morais, F. (2016). Entrepreneurship education: Economic analysis of an entrepreneurial training program based on pupil enterprises in Portugal. *Journal of Spatial and Organizational Dynamics: Human Behaviors in Spaces and Organizations*, IV(1), 102-114.

Ingold, P.V., Kleinmann, M., König, C.J., Melchers, K.G., & Iddekinge, C.H.V. (2015). Why do situational interviews predict job performance? The Role of Interviewees' Ability to Identify Criteria. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 30, 387-398.

International Task Force on Assessment Center Guidelines (2008). *Guidelines and ethical considerations for assessment center operations*. Acceded in 7th of January 2018, in: www.assessmentcenters.org

Jobvite (2016). *Jobvite recruiter nation report 2016: The annual social recruiting survey.* Acceded in 25th August 2017, in: https://www.jobvite.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/09/RecruiterNation2016.pdf.

Khatri, C., Chapman, S.J., Glasbey, J., Kelly, M., Nepogodiev, D., Bhangu, A., & Fitzgerald, J.E. (2015). Social media and internet driven study recruitment: Evaluating a new model for promoting collaborator engagement and participation. *PLoS ONE*, 10(3), 1-11.

Klinvex, K., O'Connel, M., & Klinvex, C. (2002). *Contratar bons profissionais.* New York: Mc Graw Hill.

Lee, P.C. & Bugler, M.R. (2017). Training practices in the Hong Kong hotel industry: Managerial and executive perspectives. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism,* 16(1), 88-107.

Macan, T. (2009). The employment interview: A review of current studies and directions for future research. *Human Resource Management Review*, 19, 203-218.

Machado, A.R. & Portugal, M.N. (2013). *Seleção e recrutamento de pessoas: A regeneração das organizações.* Lisboa: Editora Escolar.

Manuti, M., Spinelli, C., & Giancaspro, M.L. (2016). Organizational socialization and psychological contract: The vulnerability of temporary newcomers. A case study from an Italian Call Center. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 28(4), 225-245.

Maurer, D.S. & Liu, Y. (2007). *Developing effective e-recruiting websites: Insights for managers from marketers*. *Business Horizons*, 50(4), 305-314.

Martin-Lacroux, C. (2017). "Without the spelling errors I would have shortlisted her.": The impact of spelling errors on recruiters' choice during the personnel selection process. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 25, 276-283.

Neves, G.J., Garrido, M.V., & Simões, E. (2015). *Manual de competências pessoais, interpessoais e instrumentais: Teoria e prática*. Lisboa: Edições Sílabo.

Oostrom, J.K., Melchers, K.G., Ingold, P.V., & Kleinmann, M. (2016). Why do situational interviews predict performance? Is it saying how you would behave or knowing how you should behave? *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 31, 279-291.

Peretti, J.M. (1997). *Recursos humanos*. Lisboa: Edições Sílabo.

Plumbley, P.R. (1995). *Selecção e recrutamento*. Lisboa: Clássica Editora.

Rego, A., Cunha, M.P., Gomes, J., Cunha, R.C., Cabral-Cardoso, C., & Marques, C.A. (2015). *Manual de gestão de pessoas e do capital humano* (3rd Ed). Lisboa: Edições Sílabo.

Robertson, I.T. & Smith, M. (2001). Personnel selection. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 74(4), 441-472.

Roca-Puig, V., Bou-Llusar, J.-C., Beltrán-Martín, I., & García-Juan, B. (2018). The virtuous circle of human resource investments: A precrisis and postcrisis analysis. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 1-18.

Rocha, N. & Santos, A. (2016). *A gestão de pessoas e os desafios de um novo século*. Acceded in 15th May 2018, in: http://titledone.co/pdf/teorias-das-migra-es-internacionais.html.

Rousseau, D.M., Hansen, S.D., & Tomprou, M. (2018). *A dynamic phase model of psychological contract processes*. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 1-18. (advance online publication, April).

Stake, R. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Tews, M.J. & Noe, R.A. (2017). Does training have to be fun? A review and conceptual model of the role of fun in workplace training. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1-13. (advance online publication, November).

Thornton, G.C. III & Gibbons, A.M. (2009). Validity of assessment centers for personnel selection. *Human Resource Management Review*, 19(3), 169-187.

Troni, N. (2015, October). *Como atrair e manter a geração "Millennial" nas empresas?* Acceded in 5th 2017, in: https://www.randstad.pt/tendencias360/arquivo/como-atrair-e-manter-a-geracao-millennial-nas-empresas-entrevista-a-nuno-troni_191/

Van Esch, P. & Mente, M. (2018). Marketing video-enabled social media as part of your e-recruitment strategy: Stop trying to be trendy. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services,* 44, 266-273.

Wood, R. & Paine, T. (1998). *Competency-based recruitment & selection: A practical guide*. West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons.

Woolley, K. & Fishbach, A. (2018). Underestimating the importance of expressing intrinsic motivation in job interviews. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes,* 148, 1-11.

Yin, R.K. (2018). C*ase study research and applications: Design and methods* (6th Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

LACK OF HUMAN RESOURCES IN THE MOLD INDUSTRY: STRATEGIC AREAS TO ACT ON

Daniela Sousa[1]
Liliana Vitorino[2]

ABSTRACT

In recent years, the mold industry has increased and nowadays it is considered an important export industry for Portugal. However, despite its new technology and modernization, the employers complain of a lack of human resources in this sector. Some CEO's believe that many young students are not aware of the opportunities in this industry. This research analyses the main reasons for proximity and distance between students' awareness and the reality of the industry and suggests some of the strategic areas on which we can act on in order to solve the problem. These areas are the unawareness of reality and the industry opportunities; the insufficiency of a practical component in teaching; the expected salary of the students leaving the higher education maladjusted to reality; the long and uncertain working hours; and the unawareness of the job profiles and career plans in the industry This research also tries to achieve some guidelines which can be used for future procedures in mold enterprises, schools or eventually other industries with the same problem.

Keywords: Human Resources, Mold Industry, Good Job, Strategic Areas.

JEL Classification: 013

1. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the mold industry has grown significantly. The companies' investment in new technology, facilities' modernization and equipment has originated innovative products and processes that combine with a level of quality which is already internationally recognized. The Portuguese mold industry is a structuring sector that leverages de economy and so it must be used by governments to attract foreign investment. In Portugal, important clients can find several services that are useful for the industrialization of their products (Peralta, 2018).

Despite the growth of these companies and the development of production units that offer employees a better workplace combined with equipment that stimulates learning and progress, entrepreneurs in this sector face a great scarcity of human resources. Thus, this research seeks to understand what is driving away human resources (especially young people) from this industry and seeks to identify the strategic axes on which we could act on in order to reverse the current situation of the sector.

In this scenario, the following study can contribute to the research on this field at different levels. First, it contributes to the available literature, deepening the knowledge about the main motivations of students when choosing a course and the expectations they have about their future good job. These conclusions will help to understand the main factors that generate motivation and satisfaction with a certain job and organization, which could

[1] Journalist, Portugal (danielasousa.jl@gmail.com)
[2] School of Technology and Management of Polytechnic Institute of Leiria, Leiria, Portugal (liliana.vitorino@ipleiria.pt)

become clues for companies about how to retain human resources. From a practical point view, the reasons that explain the gap between the students and the mold industry will be evidenced and it is expected that the higher schools will understand their need to adjust their curricular plans and/or create another training offer not only capable of satisfying the needs and practical problems of the mold industry, but also capable of answering to the lack of knowledge of academics and students who, when out of higher education, will integrate the teams of employees in the mold industry. On the other hand, as it's demonstrated, this industry has an important weight in the Portuguese economy, so it is expected that government entities and entrepreneurs become aware of the reasons why that happens and formulate measures to attract and retain their human resources.

Therefore, first, we will analyze the proximity and remoteness factors of young people from the industry, contributing with inputs that could help to solve an eminent sectorial problem. In theoretical terms, this research intends to reach conclusions that serve as a guideline for future procedures, both for educational institutions and the mold industry, in order to guarantee the retention of qualified human resources.

2. PORTUGUESE MOLD INDUSTRY

2.1 Characterization

The Portuguese mold industry was started in Marinha Grande in the 1930s by Aníbal Abrantes, a man who also propelled this industry worldwide (Neto, 2014). Aníbal Abrantes innovated the industry by replacing the existing artisans in the industrialized countries for skilled workers and created a division of labor in his company, which was unknown in the sector (Neto, 2014). At the time, there was no skilled staff available in the market and therefore Aníbal was forced to seek specialized workers from other industries such as cement or ironmongery factories.

Thirty years later, the industry had evolved in such a way that CEO's were already familiar with the international market. According to Neto (2014: 72) "the sector no longer depends on the periodic visits of international buyers and has started to act more aggressively, and it is closer of the customers. In fact, this is still an aspect in which today the Portuguese mold industry wins all its international competition".

Nowadays, in Portugal, the mold sector is made up of approximately 450 companies, with the size of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs), which are dedicated to the design, development and production of molds and special tools, and employing around eight thousand workers distributed through a bipolar geographical area located between the regions of Marinha Grande and Oliveira de Azeméis (Cefamol, 2015). The total production value estimated was more than 668 million euros in 2017, which represents a growth of 5,7% compared to the year before (Sousa, 2018). For Cefamol - National Association of Mold Industry - this represents "a high capacity to adapt to the needs of its customers and the evolution of markets and technologies" for Portugal (Cefamol, 2015: 2). The exports in 2014 were destined for 89 different countries, mainly Spain (23%), Germany (22%), France (15%), Czech Republic (7%) and the United Kingdom (4%), profiting around 560 million euros, which reflects the international and global dimension of this industry (Cefamol, 2015).

According to Cefamol, the main reasons for the growth of the national molds in the international market are the increase of the productive capacities offered to the clients, the based cutting-edge technologies and the qualified human resources capable of responding to demanding customers such as the automotive and packaging industry. The automotive industry has a significant impact in the sector (the relative weight increased from 14% in

1994 to 74% in 2014) and the packaging industry represents 10% of the national mold production (Cefamol, 2015).

2.2 Lack of skilled human resources in the mold industry

Despite all the efforts, the scarcity of human resources is one of the biggest weaknesses that the mold industry now faces. António Gameiro, manager of Moldata (a mold company located in Vieira de Leiria) defends that "although nowadays the industry is easier, many young people are 'frightened' with their entrance in the job world. Some of them work some time, we give them training and they end up giving up. In general, the school does not prepare anyone for the industry. Even at the undergraduate level, there are young people who come to work with expectations that do not correspond to reality" (Sousa, 2015: 22). Furthermore, the businessman also says that "the young are showing up, both from the Polytechnic Institute of Leiria and Cenfim, to be trained (training which did not always exist) and this is a sign that molds are becoming a trend again", emphasizing that "today the image of the industry has improved, and we have more young people taking an interest". However, he regrets that despite their theoretical preparation, they do not have great technical preparation (Sousa, 2015). The manager also reinforces the effort made by his company to attract human resources: "I highlight that we do not provide an internship just to provide it, and when we admit someone, we provide stability". He also emphasizes that "we invest on the young and carry out internal training" (Sousa, 2015: 22).

Regarding the kind of professionals that this industry needs, António Gameiro says that mold designers and mold assemblers play essential roles but they lack because they are the most difficult jobs to train for and it takes many years to learn how to perform their tasks perfectly. According to António, this reality "requires that companies invest on employees, who themselves should be persistent, even when in the early years there are no visible results" (Sousa, 2015: 22).

The ex-managers Jorge Castanho, Nuno Oliveira and Abel Oliveira (from the Rapidtool mold company in Marinha Grande), also admit that attracting young people has been one of the difficulties of the sector (Sousa, 2015b). The entrepreneurs explained that "there is a gap in know-how". That is, they observe that "there are many people with years and years of experience working in the mold industry but passing this know-how is not always easy. On the one hand, it is always more difficult for a person who has many years of experience to transmit his knowledge. On the other hand, it is always difficult for those who know little to learn quickly. There is knowledge that can't be acquired by being alone in front of the computer" (Sousa, 2015b: 24). In order to solve this situation, entrepreneurs consider that, "fortunately, this problem has been debated with the interaction of Cefamol with schools". They also noted a greater proactivity of people in wanting to learn and go back to their origins. These managers affirm that "if we do not go back to their origins, in ten to fifteen years, professionals who have 30 or 40 years of experience are going to leave and create a serious problem for the industry" (Sousa, 2015b: 24).

Likewise, Fernando Conde (manager-partner of FozMoldes Group - Marinha Grande), also referrers to the difficulties of hiring human resources in the mold industry and also suggests a way to overcome the problem. For him, "the lack of coordination between educational offers and the needs of companies is the main constraint of our activity. There are several courses that schools offer, among other professional outlets, including the mold industry, but why not create a Mold Engineering course? We are providing our training in the company, but it would be easier if it existed a course focused to the mold industry" (Sousa, 2014). According to Carlos Silva, director of the Nucleus of the Center for Professional Training of the Metal and Metallurgical Industry (Cenfim) in Marinha Grande, one of the great challenges facing the future of the mold industry is "the ability that the sector will have to capture, hire and motivate new professionals. Mainly becoming an attractive sector for young people (...), a work that has to be carried out in articulation with and with the commitment of all" (Barata, 2014: 45-46). In this sense, it is necessary to "endow the workers with the technical knowledge necessary for an adequate insertion in the companies, and Cenfim - concretely the Nucleus of Marinha Grande – has been focused on doing this since 1985. And it will continue to be focused" (Barata, 2014: 45-46).

Given this reality, the president of the city-hall of Leiria, Raul Castro, is developing, together with Ministry of Labour and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and in partnership with the Leiria Business Association (NERLEI) and the Polytechnic Institute of Leiria, a pilot project in order to capture foreign human resources (Sousa, 2018). In fact, some local companies like Socem have made partnerships with China to overcome the low demography in Portugal and the lack of human resources in its' mold industry. The manager of Socem believes that China is a market that will become a leader in the production of electric cars in the next few years (Sousa, 2019).

3. THE *STUDENT* AS A FUTURE HUMAN RESOURCE

3.1 Factors for choosing a course

The choice and decision-making related to higher education have gained more and more importance because it has become very competitive and market-oriented (Sabir, Ahmad, Ashraf & Ahmad, 2013). Therefore, the choice is influenced by different factors that can have a significant impact on decision making.

The study of Robinson and Bornholt (2007) concludes that choosing a university is directly related to the student's family background, university policies and values, institution standards and assessments, and university staff expertise. Beekhoven, De Jong and Van Hout (2002) argue that the social and financial background of students also determine the choice of both the course and the university. Hanssen and Mathisen (2018) also confirmed some of the factors mentioned by those authors and they added some other aspects taken into account when choosing a university: the distance between the students' home and the university, the possibility to engage in outdoor activities where the university is located, and, finally, the quality of the studies offered by the institution.

Regarding the context of choosing a course Foskett, Roberts and Maringe (2006) also mention the reputation of the course, the rate of employability, the satisfaction of graduates, the quality of teaching, and the teaching approach. Similarly, the tuition price may also lead to a change in course selection (Durkin, McKenna & Cummins, 2012), as well as the requirements for enrolling the course, its' teaching method, the staff and the opinion of students who are already enrolled in it (Robinson & Bornholt, 2007).

In addition to these factors, the choice of the course may also be influenced by personal characteristics of the students such as goals, interests, values and needs, academic, social and physical characteristics of the institution's environment (Ford, Joseph & Joseph, 1999). Sometimes, the choice also depends on the attitudes of parents and other unexpected social factors such as inability to meet the course requirements, attain better grades or other work alternatives. In the study developed by Sabir *et al.* (2013) the variables considered to analyze the factors that influence the choice of course were: the student's interest in the subjects, the university's reputation, the course's reputation, the employment perspective, their teachers' and parents' advice, the professional orientation given by a psychologist, how easy the course is and if they have friends enrolling (or already enrolled) in it. Freitas, Sousa and Júnior (2012) also emphasize that the process of professional choice in adolescence may be influenced by aspects such as: labor market, family, aptitude, but also by trends in fashion, the media and advertising.

3.2 The "Good Job"

The must-have characteristics of a good job have become important in the sense that they can lead to higher motivation and consequent employee retention. For Herzberg, F., Mausner and Snyderman (1959), job satisfaction is related to motivational factors (such as goal achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, promotion and growth) and hygiene factors (such as salary, company policy and good relationship with colleagues and bosses). Contrary to motivational factors that increase job satisfaction (but do not decrease dissatisfaction), the lack of hygienic factors will cause job dissatisfaction.

In their systematic review, Borralha, Jesus, Pinto and Viseu (2016) indicate that the factors which contribute to greater satisfaction are: greater autonomy and independence, greater power of decision making, flexible schedules, and better working and training conditions. Contributing to dissatisfaction there are factors such as wages and reduced benefits. Hackman and Oldham (1976) also identify five key features of a job that will lead to high levels of satisfaction. These are the identity of the task and its significance, the variety of skills, autonomy and feedback. Also, Warr (2007) concludes that some characteristics of a job will contribute to the satisfaction of the employers, such as: the opportunity for personal control (autonomy, self-determination), the opportunity to use their competences (job search, workload, work-family conflict situation), variety (of work content and location), clarity of the surrounding environment (i.e., in relation to the future and the behaviors required), the contact with others (quantity and quality of interactions), level of income, physical security (absence of danger, good working conditions), valued social position (the status in society and the importance of the task), leadership support (support management), career prospects (job security, opportunity for promotion) and equity (fairness in their working relationships and the morality of the employer with society). Recently, Dalkrani and Dimitriadis (2018: 21) also add that "job characteristics such as objectives, instructions, etc., are the most important factor in employee satisfaction, followed by work conditions and social aspects of the job". In addition, Santos, Gonçalves and Gomes (2009: 53) refer "the importance of organizations implementing a culture of support, particularly in ensuring the well-being of its employees" and Dalkrani and Dimitriadis (2018: 21) confirm the "positive relationship of 'Job Characteristics', 'Work Environment' and 'Social Aspects of job' with the 'organizational commitment' ".

3.3 Personal Values and Organization

Personal values are stable beliefs that influence individual behavior (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998;Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004). Thus, in the work context, values translate as beliefs about how work should be done and how to deal with different situations (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2010). Groddeck (2011) suggests that values can improve organizational control and guidance throughout more ethical decision-making. Also, Kelly, Kocourek and Samuelson (2005) point out the importance of considering personal values because their study states that the company's reputation and the relationship between employees and the retention rate are strongly influenced by them. In the same way, Sullivan, Sullivan and Buffton (2001) emphasize that organizational values can help to create "win-win" outcomes, improve employee engagement, enhance management changes and achieve organizational goals.

The most expressed organizational values in the literature are customer focus, quality, creativity, innovation, integrity, respect, justice, ethical responsibility, return on assets, technology use and global citizenship. Regarding the identification of personal values, Schwartz (1994) proposed the Human Value Core Theory in which values are classified in terms of the motivational goals. Those are: power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity and security. These items are altered by gender and age, therefore reflecting systematic changes in the perceived meaning of the values (Borg, 2019).

4. METHODOLOGY

According to a few of the previous references, we identified a common problem in the mold industry: the scarcity of skilled human resources. After framing the problem, we proceeded to a more in-depth reading of the related literature. The research conducted allowed us to find literature about several centers of knowledge on the topic they answer the needs of this industry, allowed us to enumerate the points of proximity and distance between schools and mold companies, the factors that determine the choice of the course and what is valued in a job.

In order to better understand the expectations and attitudes towards the labor market in the mold industry, surveys were applied to young students who enrolled in courses related to the area but study at different levels of education (level IV, V and VI). The selected sample was of convenience. The last stage of the investigation consisted on the analysis and treatment of data gathered by the questionnaire and the drawing of conclusions.

5. MAIN FINDINGS

5.1 Sample

A total of 66 trainees from the Nucleus of Marinha Grande of Cenfim answered the survey (from the 1st and 2nd year of the course of Design and Mechanical Constructions (19), Industrial Maintenance (15), CNC Machining and Programming (32)). They were between 15 and 24 years old. Most of the respondents came from Leiria (40) and Marinha Grande was the second municipality most pointed by the trainees (10). However, there are some students from more distant municipalities, such as Alcobaça, Batalha, Pombal, Bombarral, Coimbra and even Lisbon. It is also verified that some students were born abroad (France, Switzerland, Ukraine).

From the School of Technology and Management of the Polytechnic Institute of Leiria, 22 students from the Higher Technical and Professional Students (TESP) of Mold Design (11) and Automatic Fabrication (11) courses were interviewed, and all of them were between 18 and 34 years of age. Most students reported having permanent residence in Leiria (10). There are also several students from other municipalities closest to the school (which also matches the most dynamic zone of the mold industry). However, it has also been found that some of them come from distant localities, such as Ferreira do Zêzere, Sertã, Marvão and Mêda, regions that do not have a traditional connection to this industry. Furthermore, the survey reveals the attractiveness of students from different socio-economic realities.

Finally, 53 students of the Mechanical Engineering degree of the Higher School of Technology and Management of the Polytechnic Institute of Leiria were surveyed, of which 30 were enrolled in the 1st year of the course, one in the 2nd year and 21 in the 3rd year. This group of students was mostly male (86.8%) and aged between 18 and 39 years. Regarding the municipality of permanent residence, we verified that 26 students were from the municipality of Leiria. The other students resided in the circumferential counties of

Leiria, which match the zones of greater dynamics of the mold industry. However, there were students from Lourinhã (1) and Madeira island (1).

5.2 Proximit and remoteness factors

5.2.1 Cenfim Students

At Cenfim, the courses related to molds have a capacity to mainly attract male students, although some females are already attending it. They are young people who come from families that do not have, in the overwhelming majority, qualifications at the higher level - and those who have completed secondary education are even fewer – and whose members are employed and who carry out operational professions. Among their families, there is an expressive number of parents who, at some point in their life, have worked in the mold industry.

When they arrive at Cenfim, most of the students have already failed some school years, so when they enter the course related to the mold industry it is already their first option and they know exactly what they want. For those who have turned to this course as a second option, what led them to choose mold-related studies was their high employability, the fact that they consist on a quick way to obtain equivalence to secondary education, the fact that the school is close to where they live or because it was a recommendation made by their family.

At this stage, family was the way through which the students came to know about this course, particularly through parents who work/have worked on molds and recommend the course to their children. It can also be a quick way of entering the labor market, without great expenses or even without any amount of investment taken from the family budget.

Once attending the course, the trainees prefer the practical courses and are also happy about the fact that they have internships in companies. The internship experience is almost always good, precisely because it is practical and because trainees perform tasks as if they were real employees of the company. "The dream companies" pointed out by the trainees are often located in their region, close to their homes and in which they recognize good working conditions. In many cases, these "dream companies" are those in which they have carried out their internships and from where they have good memories of work and integration.

Most trainees will certainly want to work in the industry after school. They intend to perform tasks as a CNC machining and programming technician, stand apprentice, or mold designer, and few seek to be engineers. The security provided by stable well-paid employment and the predictability of the tasks to be performed are more often idealized by these young adults than the features that involve challenge.

5.2.2 Higher Technical and Professional Students

At the level of the Higher Technical and Professional Course related to molds, it is verified, as it happened in the case of Cenfim, that there is a much greater capacity of attraction of male than female students. The families of these students still lack higher education, with most of the parents only finishing the 3rd cycle of basic education and performing operational jobs nowadays. In comparison with the students interviewed at Cenfim, it is noticed that the percentage of TESP students from the Polytechnic of Leiria whose parents are connected to the mold industry is much smaller. Unlike what happened with Cenfim students, most TESP students never failed before choosing this course, which was otherwise their first choice.

These students hear about the course mainly through the Internet, not because they have a mother or father working in the industry and that influences them in this decision-making process. The most common motivations for choosing the course are the greater guarantee of employment provided by the program and also the possibility it gives them to continue to the higher education or Mechanical Engineering course. The internship seems to be one of the weaknesses of this course. In March 2016, when the surveys were carried out, only about half of the respondents reported that they visited one mold company after starting the course, and the other half had never even been in a mold company. Only two students said they had experience in the industry.

At this stage only half of the students have already decided that when, they finish their studies, they want to work in the mold industry. Among those who have already decided what they want to do in the mold industry, mechanical/automotive engineering is one of the most mentioned jobs. Good remuneration is the most valued factor by these students, followed by the guarantee of employment. The stability of routines and work schedules is also more valued than the challenging tasks faced every day. On the other hand, for these students, leading and projecting is more valued than performing, which points out the fact that they want to achieve leadership positions and work less in practical areas. None of the students mentioned wealth as the most identifiable value, and security was the most mentioned among them, which emphasizes their desire for stability in employment. Most of these students do not indicate any "dream company" and the one who points out a concrete name of a company demonstrates total ignorance about its activity. As for future prospects, half of these students wants to pursue studies, but there is a large number who does not know if they will do so.

5.2.3 Undergraduate Students

In the mechanical engineering degree course, the majority of students continue to be male, having very diversified ages between 18 and 39 years. The majority of their parents have the 3rd cycle of basic education and practice professions of a more practical/operational nature, not being, in most cases, in the mold industry.

Good wage and safe employment are the most valued factors for these students, followed by the challenge of facing different tasks every day. The possibility of traveling and designing are also important for these students, who are less interested in performing. Knowledge and versatility are the values that the students most identify with at this level of education. The average remuneration that these students believe they will receive in their first job is around 880 euros, for a daily workday of around eight hours. These expectations of income for a relatively short period of work - in the face of the portrayal of the profession reported by employers - may be a factor of estrangement from the sector, which, as some entrepreneurs have pointed out, do not reward the novices who do not show great experience at an early stage

6. DISCUSSION

Having started with the problem initially evidenced (the difficulty in capturing and retaining human resources in the mold industry), analyzing the facts evidenced by the entrepreneurs and analyzing the results that convey the expectations of students and trainees in relation to the mold industry, it is possible to suggest the following main strategic axes to act on: 1) the unawareness of reality and the industry opportunities; 2) the insufficiency of a practical component in teaching; 3) the expected salary of the students leaving the higher education maladjusted to reality; 4) the long and uncertain working hours; and 5) the unawareness of the job profiles and career plans in the industry.

Thus, in axis 1 - ignorance about the reality and industry opportunities -, it is suggested that we work on two areas: primary and secondary students and students of higher education. In basic and secondary school education we suggest: a) meetings with secondary school teachers and psychologists; b) lectures given to the parents associations on industry opportunities; c) playful events about mold technology in a school context, involving students and families, and implementation of entrepreneurship educational training projects that also promote creativity and entrepreneurship as Imaginário, Cristo, Jesus and Morais (2016) refer, d) creation of communication spots for the industry's dissemination in social networks through student associations. For the case of higher education students, we suggest: a) creation of short-term internships in the companies integrated throughout the TESP and undergraduate courses (Mechanics and EGI); b) intensification of study visits and, c) intensification of the participation of managers and industry entrepreneurs in classes given during the courses.

In axis 2 - insufficiency of a practical component in education – it is recommended: a) to create short-term internships in the integrated companies throughout the TESP and undergraduate courses (Mechanics and EGI); b) intensification of study visits; c) intensification of the participation of cadres and industry entrepreneurs in classes given during the courses and d) creation of cases studies based on the reality of the industry and insertion of those cases in the learning methodologies of the curricular units of the courses (case-based learning).

In Axis 3 - student salary expectation - we suggest: a) the study and proposal of incentive models that promote motivation (a possible topic of a future dissertation/project, work with HR Departments) and b) the promotion of a good practices sharing session between entrepreneurs and on specific benefits.

In Axis 4 - long and uncertain working hours - it is advised to: a) develop studies that allow us to deepen the causes behind the peaks of work in the industry (possible topic of a future dissertation/project); b) propose measures of improvement to minimize the existence of these peaks and, c) study and propose incentive models that promote motivation (possible subject of a future dissertation/project, work with HR Departments).

Finally, in Axis 5 - concerning the lack of knowledge on job profiles and career plans in the industry - it is advisable to develop studies that may result in the definition of job profiles with associated qualifications and career paths in this industry.

7. CONCLUSION

The mold industry is currently one of the leading export industries, having a remarkable growth mark year after year. Despite the various interactions between the companies and the academy in order to create a skilled workforce for this sector, the truth is that the scarcity of human resources is strongly felt in this industry. In order to understand the points of distance and proximity between the various types of students and the industry, this research allow us to uncover the main axes that require action in order to overcome the problem of scarcity.

We conclude that there are differences between the various types of students. Students with professional education are looking for courses related to the sector with a view to ensuring employability and, simultaneously, equivalence to the 12th grade. Many of these students have relatives that, in some stage of their lives, have already had contact with the sector and we believe that they advise and influence the choice of school and professional destination of these students. The students enrolled in higher education in the TESP course need to lack knowledge about the sector, once they had not yet had contact with companies in the sector while attending the course. This type of student values employability and a good remuneration in their professional future, and also enhances the stability of routines and work schedules, more than the challenging tasks faced every day. The students of this degree point out the security and the well-paying job as the factors that most value a day in their profession. The possibility of traveling and designing are also important. From the data collected it was verified that none of these students had graduated from a mold company and only 14 had visited a company (n = 53).

Thus, given the information collected and settling the points that keep young people away from the industry, it is imperative to work on five axes that deserve special attention: 1) ignorance of the reality and the industry opportunities; 2) insufficiency of the practical component in teaching; 3) maladjusted salary expectation of the students leaving the higher education; 4) long and uncertain working hours; and 5) unawareness of the job profiles available in the industry's career plan.

REFERENCES

Barata, A. (2014). *Como vê o futuro da indústria de moldes? História Da Indústria de Moldes Na Região de Leiria*, pp. 45-46.

Beekhoven, S., De Jong, U. & Van Hout, H. (2002). Explaining academic progress via combining concepts of integration theory and rational choice theory. *Research in Higher Education*, 43(5), 577-600.

Borg, I. (2019). Age and gender-related differences in the structure and the meaning of personal values. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 138, 336-343.

Borralha, S., Jesus, S.N., Pinto, P. & Viseu, J. (2016). Job Satisfaction in hotel employees: A systematic review of the literature. *Journal of Spatial and Organizational Dynamics,* 4(1), 4-20.

Buchanan, D.A. & Huczynski, A.A. (2010). *Organizational Behavior*. (7th Ed.). Financial Times Prentice Hall. Rotolito Lombarda.

Cefamol (2015). *A Indústria Portuguesa de Moldes*. Acceded in 28 of April, 2016, on the Web site of: Cefamol: www.cefamol.pt/cefamol/pt/Cefamol_IndustriaMoldes/Situacao_Actual/Ficheiros/ipm jan15

Dalkrani, M. & Dimitriadis, E. (2018). The Effect of Job Satisfaction on Employee Commitment. *International Journal of Business and Economic Sciences*, 11(2), 16-23.

Durkin, M., McKenna, S., & Cummins, D. (2012). Emotional connections in higher education marketing. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 26(2), 153-161.

Ford, J.B., Joseph, M., & Joseph, B. (1999). Importance-performance analysis as a strategic tool for service marketers: The case of service quality perceptions of business students in New Zealand and the USA. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 13(2), 171-186.

Foskett, N., Roberts, D., & Maringe, F. (2006). *Changing fee regimes and their impact on student attitudes to higher education*. University of Southampton.

Freitas, A.C.L. de, Sousa, R.R. de, & Júnior, C.R. (2012). *A influência da família na escolha profissional do sujeito adolescente.* Acceded in 19th of March 2016, on the Web site of Academia: http://www.coped-nm.com.br/quarto/images/anais_4/formacao_de_professores_e_praticas_pedagogicas/A_INFLUENCIA_DA_FAMILIA_NA_ESCOLHA_PROFISSIONAL_DO_SUJEITO_ADOLESCENTE.pdf

Groddeck, V. von. (2011). The case of value based communication: Epistemological and methodological reflections from a system theoretical perspective. *Historical Social Research,* 36(19), 66-86.

Hackman, J., & Oldham, G. (1976). Motivation through the design of work: Test of a theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 16, 250-279.

Hanssen, T.E.S. & Mathisen, T.A. (2018). Exploring the attractiveness of a norwegian rural higher education institution using importance-performance analysis. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 62(1), 68-87.

Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B.B. (1959). *The motivation to work*. London: Wiley.

Hitlin, S. & Piliavin, J.A. (2004). Values: Reviving a dormant concept. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 30(1), 359-393.

Imaginário, S., Cristo, E., Jesus, S.N., & Morais, F. (2016). Entrepreneuship education: Economic analysis of an entrepreneurial training program based on pupil enterprises in Portugal. *Journal of Spatial and Organizational Dynamics*, 4(1), 102-114.

Kelly, C., Kocourek, P., & Samuelson, J. (2005). *Deriving value from corporate values*. The Aspen Institute and Booz Allen Hamilton Inc.

Leiriaeconómica. (2016). *Exportações da indústria de moldes crescem 80% nos últimos 5 anos*. Acceded in 29th of April 2016, on the Web site of Leiriaeconómica: www.leiriaeconomica.com/item9155.htm

Meglino, B.M. & Ravlin, E.C. (1998). Individual values in organizations: Concepts, controversies, and research. *Journal of Management*, 24(3), 351-389.

Neto, H. (2014). *Um olhar sobre a indústria de moldes*. Lisboa: Gradiva.

Peralta, H.C. (2018). *A indústria de moldes é uma indústria que alavanca a economia*. Acceded in 19th of March 2019, on the Web site of: Dinheiro Vivo: https://www.dinheirovivo.pt/iniciativas/rui-tocha-a-industria-de-moldes-e-uma-industria-que-alavanca-a-economia/

Robinson, R.A. & Bornholt, L.J. (2007). Pathways theory of progression through higher education. *Australian Journal of Educational and Developmental Psychology*, 7, 49-62.

Sabir, R.I., Ahmad, W., Ashraf, R.U., & Ahmad, N. (2013). Factors affecting university and course choice: A comparison of undergraduate engineering and business students in central Punjab, Pakistan. *Journal of Basic and Applied Scientific Research*, 3(10), 298-305.

Santos, J., Gonçalves, G., & Gomes, A. (2009). Organizational Culture and subjective and work well-being. The case of employees of Portuguese universities. *Journal of Spatial and Organizational Dynamics*, 1(3), 153-161.

Schwartz, S.H. (1994). Are there universal aspects in the structure and contents of human values? *Journal of Social Issues*, 50(4), 19-45.

Silva, R.S. (2018). *Exportações portuguesas de moldes cresceram perto de 6% em 2017*. Acceded in 19th of March 2019, on the Web site of: Jornal de Leiria. https://www.jornaldeleiria.pt/noticia/exportacoes-portuguesas-de-moldes-cresceram-perto-de-6-em-20-9288

Sousa, D.F. (2014). *FozMoldes investe quatro milhões de euros em tecnologia.* Acceded in 29th of April 2016, on the Web site of: Jornal de Leiria:https://www.jornaldeleiria.pt/noticia/fozmoldes-celebra-20-anos-com-nova-unidade-produtiva-3000

Sousa, D. F. (2015). Moldata investe três milhões em infra-estruturas e equipamentos. *Jornal de Leiria*. **1596**: 22.

Sousa, D.F. (2015b). Fabricante de moldes Rapidtool reforça aposta na internacionalização. *Jornal de Leiria*, 1608, 24.

Sousa, D.F. (2018). *Leiria lança projecto-piloto para atrair mão-de-obra internacional.* Accessed in 18th of March 2019, on the Web site of: Journal de Leiria: https://www.jornaldeleiria.pt/noticia/leiria-lanca-projecto-piloto-para-atrair-mao-de-obra-interna-9286

Sousa, D.F. (2019). Não vemos os chineses como o papão. *Journal de Leiria*, 1810, 24.

Sullivan, W., Sullivan, R., & Buffton, B. (2001). Aligning individual and organizational values to support change. *Journal of Change Management*, 2(3), 247-254.

Warr, P. (2007). *Work, happiness, and unhappiness*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publisher.

SELF-EFFICACY MODEL FOR BETTER JOB OUTCOMES: AN APPROACH TO PROMOTE FEMALE EMPLOYMENT IN TURKISH HOTEL CONTEXT

Mustafa Daskin[1]

ABSTRACT

The aim of this research is to develop and try a conceptual model that examines the impacts of work self-efficacy (SEFF) on female frontline employees' (FLEs) work-family conflict and perceived politics and at the same time a potential moderating role of tenure in a hospitality context in Turkey. In this research, a total number of 151 utilizable questionnaires were individually collected from a sample of full-time female FLEs in the survey premises. The proposed hypotheses were tested applying PLS-SEM. Findings, according to the hierarchical regression tests, reveal that SEFF made a significant negative influence on both work-family conflict and perceived politics. Findings also show that tenure buffers the effect of SEFF on these outcomes. This research procures implications for hotel organizations in terms of mitigating female FLEs' work-family conflict and politics perceptions. In addition, this research ensures effective guidelines to apply potential management practices and improve job results within a hotel job context. Theoretically, this study by exploring the untested effects and relationships such as the influence of work self-efficacy on female FLEs' work-family conflict and politics perceptions lends further contribution to the tourism and hospitality management literature. Also, the current study carried the Conservation of Resources theory to one step further.

Keywords: Work-Self Efficacy, Organizational Politics, Work-Family Conflict, Hotels, Female Employees, Structural Equation Modeling.

JEL Classification: M13, O10, D20

1. INTRODUCTION

The demanding service encounters of hotel jobs call for employees work at frontline areas to engage in more than one task simultaneously. Actually this is the expectation from frontline employees (FLEs) because they play a significant role to reflect the first impression while welcoming guests and also they are expected to manage guest demands and service problems just in time and provide unique service quality (Karatepe & Kilic, 2007). In hotel working environments, FLEs should be prepared to encounter unexpected service accessions such as complaining customers, service failures, private requests, and along with this professional service efforts (Bitner, Booms & Tetreault, 1990; Daskin & Kasim, 2016). Multitasking in a given timespan is a typical characteristic of hotel jobs that make working climate more demanding and complex. Thus this situation require hotel organizations to recognize the importance of generating a pool of FLEs who possess potential personality characteristic, beyond the job skills, to cope with challenges and display meticulous efforts (Cetinel, Yolal & Emeksiz, 2009). Specifically, this may be more challenging for female employees/managers

[1] Sinop University, School of Tourism, Sinop, Turkey (daskinmus@hotmail.com)

who work in a hospitality work setting where they commonly face intentional obstacles that are proclaimed in gendered vertical and horizontal discrimination (Ramos, Rey-Maqueira & Tugores, 2002; Clevenger & Singh, 2013; Costa, Carvalho, Caçador & Breda, 2017; Mooney, Ryan & Harris, 2017). Mooney *et al.* (2017) and Wang (2013) state that a career opportunities in the hotel industry seem concomitant to diligent people regardless of their demographic features such as ethnicity and are seen as mere demographic descriptors in hotel career studies. Ng and Pine (2003) reported that the role and performance expectations both from male and female are consistent regardless of their rank in the company. Both male and female employees are expected by hotel management to exhibit similar capabilities. If they have the required skills and exhibit quality service performance, then they should be successfull in the organization without exception. Yet, in western countries, female employees are face to face segregation in terms of having less pay and job security, limited career development, and poor working conditions in the hospiatlity jobs (Skalpe, 2007; Santero-Sanchez, Segovia-Pérez, Castro-Nuñez, Figueroa-Domecq & Talón-Ballestero, 2015). An empirical study conducted by Costa, Carvalho, Caçador and Breda (2012) reported that though the number of female graduates is much in in Portugal tourism industry, the male workers are paid better and hold higher positions in the industry. Similarly, Thrane (2008) reported that male workers are paid better at around %20 in Norway; %12 in Spain (Munoz-Bullon, 2009); and %18 in Turkey (Uguz & Topbas, 2016). Female employee's promotion to higher level of managerial position gets harder due to the pervasive "traditional role" assumptions (Schaap, Stedham, & Yamamura, 2008). Furthermore, past surveys studied in the USA show that, even in America, unequal numbers of women executives hold managerial positions in the industry (e.g., Li & Leung, 2001; Clevenger & Singh, 2013). These circumstances, along with fear of interference with female employees' work and family lives, make them to stop their professional career in the hospitality and tourism sectors around the world (Kim, Murrmann & Lee, 2009; Okumus, Sariisik & Naipaul, 2010; Costa *et al.*, 2017). Kensbock, Jennings, Bailey and Patiar (2013) found that housekeeping department employees were exposed to pressure and subjugation in in their work environment in the form of less respect from other employees and authorized by supervisor power. The results of this study depicted that room attendants were gendered and segregated in a hotel application and slightly acknowledged as cohort of employees with knowledge. They were significantly ignored of being advised as an organizational member. Similarly, an empirical study conducted in a developing country by Okumus *et al.* (2010) reported that female employees having family interferences due to heavy work loads and irregular working hours and at the same time they are paid low wages and have difficulties in getting a promotion.

With this realization, due to FLEs' critical role in hotel firms, the current study aimed to add an essential personality feature (self-efficacy) of frontline employees in its research model. Employees with high self-efficacy (SEFF) beliefs are likely to be high performers in the workplace and they are likely to find their jobs more enjoyable (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Wang, 2007). Self-efficacious workers are more prone to engage in challenging work conditions (Bandura, 1994; Raghuram, Wiesenfeld & Garud, 2003). Perceived SEFF refers to "belief in one's capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to meet given situational demands" (Wood & Bandura, 1989: 408). This belief pushes individuals to start a specific behaviour and also affective response when facing challenges and clash (Bandura, 1994). Specifically, Kim *et al*. (2009) found that role stress (conflict) have more negative impact on female workers when compared to male counterparts. In this regard, those women with higher SEFF are expected to be able to exhibit more effort coping with role stress (conflict).

However, there is still paucity of empirical study regarding the female FLEs' characteristics in the hospitality management literature. Taking into account, more empirical studies needed to examine the characteristics of female FLEs and their relationships with job outcomes and antecedents because of their unique role in the hotel organizations.

Against this backdrop, the present research purposes to explore the effect of SEFF on female FLEs' job outcomes such as work-family conflict and perceived organizational politics and the moderating role of tenure on these relationships in a hotel work setting in Turkey. The logic for choosing female frontline staff is their dual-work (work and home) responsibilities and position requires high and face to face interaction with visitors, which place them in an important frontline area to increase guest service quality and satisfaction, customer commitment and build a good image for the organization (Kusluvan, 2003). So this situation may require female FLEs to have internal resources such as work self-efficacy in order to strive with difficulties and overcome demanding situations. Furthermore, the present survey by being studied on female FLEs in a Turkish context seeks to extend the COR theory (Hobfoll, 2001) to one step further.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

2.1 The role of women in the tourism industry and research context

Presence of women in travel and tourism labour force is promising, such that, the tourism and hotel industry is the main employer of female workers in European Union (EU) countries. The accommodation sector accounts for 2.4 million jobs in the EU; travel agencies and tour operators account for nearly half a million. In EU, nearly 3.3 million people are employed in tourism industries such as accommodation, travel agencies/tour operators, and air transport; the accommodation industry accounts for the biggest rates – where female employment stands at 60 % (EUROSTAT, 2015).

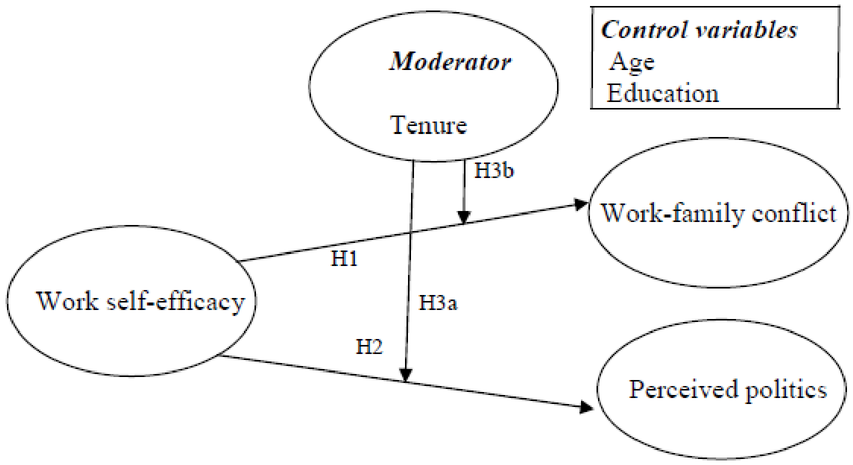
Based on the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2013) Economic Impact Report, Australia has one of the highest proportions of women working in travel and tourism (66%), which is over 10% points over the ratio for the workforce in the aggregate. On the other hand, a comparable difference was found in female employment rates in Turkey, such that this rate was highly low around 27.3% for Turkish females in travel and tourism jobs. According to this report and the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), and UN Women report, it is relevant to keep in mind that females are not where they deserve in the travel and tourism. Thus, they should be more represented in the different sectors of travel and tourism. Given the crucial presence of females in workforce and challenges they encounter in the industry, it stays critical to examine the personality elements (potentials) for their success, particularly using a gendered perspective.

Travel and tourism industry is a rapidly developing industry with huge potential opportunities for nations such as Turkey which recently take place among the popular tourism destinations in the world. Nevertheless, the tourism surveys conducted in Turkey have shown the availability of some challenges such as the lack of union rights, organizational politics, role stressors, over work-loads, and job security, and also high turnover ratio (Karatepe & Sokmen, 2006; Burke, Koyuncu & Fiksenbaum, 2008a; Kusluvan, Kusluvan, Ilhan & Buyruk, 2010; Bute, 2011; Karatepe, Babakus & Yavas, 2011; Kaya, Bezirganb & Alamur, 2015; Aksu, Bahtiyar, Deveci & Koç, 2016). Although this, in the last decade, the rise was explored in involvement of females in the Turkish work force (Aycan & Eskin, 2004). The hospitality industry is a locomotive sector which employs 500,000 employees (Bengisu & Balta, 2010). While the female employment rate in tourism industry was over 50% across the globe in 2013, this rate in Turkey was 27.3% (WTTC, 2013); 29.0% (EUROSTAT, 2014). An empirical research conducted in Turkey by Uguz and Topbas (2016) reported that female employees' proportion is nearly 25 percent of the total employees who registered in the tourism sector and this explains that women who are at a low rate of 25% in the study are not given equal employment opportunities. However, in Turkey, the employement rate of females in the workforce is rising quicker when compared to other nations. Representation of female staff is growing rapidly in the industry and estimated to raise by 9.2% to 36.5% in 2023. This is a good indicator indeed that the Turkish travel and tourism industry will compete that of the other nations suveyed with a better rate of females compared to the rest of their economy (WTTC, 2013).

In developing countries, including Turkey, female workers are actually less authorized to compete with male workers because of many obstacles such as segregation, stereotyping, marriage, childcaring and etc. These problems are expected to multiply since the hotel industry jobs call for employees to show multitasking effort (Pinar, McCuddy, Birkan & Kozak, 2011; Uguz & Topbas, 2016). Elmas (2007) has proven that, in Cappadocia, the housekeeping and restaurant service jobs are seen as an extension of women's housework and although there are a large number of female employees in these departments, only a few women are employed at the managerial positions. While female employees account for 30% of workforce in the travel and tourism, on the other hand, their career plans may be interrupted by a number of family and homemaking duties (cf. Aytac, 1999; Tucker, 2007; Pinar *et al*., 2011). This expectation in Turkish culture may cause female to have clash among family and job role and as a result lose concentration or quit work. According to Cave and Kilic (2010), success, teamworking, risk taking, and aspiration nedeed in the industry without gender segregation. Kattara (2005) studies female employees in the Egyptian hotel industry and found some factors such as age, work experience, and work–family conflict that have potential preventing female employees to get higher level of managerial positions. Along with the work–family conflict as an internal factor in Turkey, the work–stereotype conflict as an external factor that means the social contempt of females' high placement in the industry was highlighted by Cave and Kilic (2010).

Specially, the above-mentioned challenges of the hotel sectors make the selection and employment of self-efficacious female frontline staff a more reasonable human resource strategy and also increasing sources of SEFF will lead to enhanced capabilities of female employees and will have a major impact on their organizational success. Because they are more expected to cope with these challenges and stay longer with an organization. Therefore, this study develops and tests a model that sheds light on the impact of SEFF as personality antecedent of work-family conflict and perceived organizational politics and the moderating role of tenure between these relationships (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Conceptual model



Source: Own Elaboration

2.2 SEFF and work-family conflict relationship

Work-family conflict means a type of inter-role clash caused by the demands of job interfere with performing family-related responsibilities (Netemeyer, Boles & McMurrian, 1996; Willis, O'Conner & Smith, 2008; Ferri, Pedrini & Riva, 2018). According to Boles, Howard and Donofrio (2001), work-family conflict "primarily derives from an individual's attempts to perform an overabundance of demands emanating from the work domain in which the individual functions". Boles, Johnston, and Hair (1997) reported that energetic nature of the job life has potentially caused for clash between family and social work interferences.

Allen, Herst, Bruck, and Sutton (2000) have reported that employed parents voiced conflict between their work requirements and their wish to spend more time with their family members. Work-family conflict has significant negative impact on psychological wellbeing and satisfaction (Martins, Eddleston & Veiga, 2002; Sousa, Chambel & Carvalho, 2018). According to Frone (2002), a female's degree of SEFF related her work-family liabilities may decrease the role ambiguity and work overload perceptions she may incur. Therefore, the more a female employee believes in herself, the less the anticipation of the conflict between work and family domains exists. In addition, Cinamon's (2006) research found that self-efficacy was negatively correlated and related with anticipated work-family conflict for a sample of university students who stayed with their employed parents and 60 percent of them held work and study jobs but no remarkable differences occurred related the survey findings among employed and non-employed students. Heuven, Bakker, Schaufeli, and Huisman (2006) indicated that SEFF moderates the relationship between job requirements and the emotional dissonance experienced by employees.

Kim *et al*. (2009) stated that female employees are more prone to have dissatisfaction in their works than male counterparts unless job demands are specifically explained. However, female employees were found to be more interactive with others in the work environment. Also, the rate of overcoming stress is different between females and males. For instance, past research demonstrated that females reported lower levels of role stress and role conflict (Kim *et al*., 2009) and they prone to spend more effort than males to cope with challanges (Fielden & Davidson, 2001). These empirical evidences show that females who exhibit higher SEFF are more likely to cope with work-family conflict.

Furthermore, previous researches have also depicted that people with less SEFF possess higher level of anxiety regarding work stressors (e.g. Semmer, 2003). According to Moura, Orgambídez-Ramos, and Neves de Jesus (2015), the absence of specific resources (e.g., SEFF) leading to negative results such as job dissatisfaction, job rotation, absenteeism, and so on. High SEFF may, therefore, alleviate the negative impacts of work-family conflict by adjusting employees' confidence and coping behaviours (Jex & Gudanowski, 1992; Schaubroeck & Merritt, 1997). Based on the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), "there are four types of resources, which are objects, personal characteristics, conditions, and energies". The possession of higher individual resources may preserve employees from tense conditions and strains in the work environment. An empirical study conducted by Raghuram *et al*. (2003) depicts that SEFF is probably to excite employees to achieve positive job results and organizational efficiency. SEFF is an excellent indicator of an individual's behaviour which is attained through employees' effort. On the other hand, the employees with low SEFF tend to have difficulty to engage in the working environment and to charge colleagues in case of failure (Luthans & Peterson, 2002). To the author's best knowledge, there is lack of empirical studies in the service management literature have examined the correlation between SEFF and work-family conflict using a sample of frontline employees. Based on the discussion above, the following hypothesis is therefore proposed;

Hypothesis 1: SEFF is negatively related to female FLEs' work-family conflict.

2.3 SEFF and perceived politics relationship

According to Mintzberg (1983: 172), "organizational politics is informal, parochial, typically divisive and illegitimate behaviour that is aimed at displacing legitimate power in different ways". Poon (2004) defines it as: "those actions not officially approved by an organization taken to influence others to meet one's personal goals". While these types of behaviours are not welcomed by the management, they are commonly not definitely banned (Ferris, Adams, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter & Ammeter, 2002). A politically dominated workplace may be a descriptive example. When an organizational environment is politically charged, staff may perceive that their positions, earnings, and job security levels are lower than they really deserve in comparison to the others. Also, staff cannot be sure about their performance evaluations or secure that they will not be segregated due to the political behaviours of co-workers (e.g. the anxiety of losing an advancement opportunity). Thus, this kind of unfair and ambiguous workplace context may specifically raise the level of job strain such as work-family conflict in female frontline personnel who have dual-work responsibilities.

According to Eisenhardt and Bourgeois (1988), organizational politics results in lack of harmony, waste of time, coordination blocks, and so on. In addition, it can create unwelcome influences on employees. As such, previous researchers have suggested that perceptions of organizational politics cause job dissatisfaction (Arasli & Karadal, 2009) and higher levels of job stress, and burnout (Kacmar, Bozeman, Carlson & Anthony, 1999; Ferris *et al*., 2002). These kinds of job outcomes are expected to be prevalent in complex and unsettled organizational workplaces, where unfair practices are prevalent (Lubbers, Loughlin & Zweig, 2005; Daskin & Tezer, 2012). So, self-efficacious female frontline employees are expected to cope with these types of organizational challenges. However, there is lack of empirical study regarding the effect of SEFF on perceived politics in the related literature. Thus, more research needed to fortify the availability of this relationship and the above-mentioned discussion generates a foundation to introduce the following hypotheses;

Hypothesis 2: There is a negative relationship between SEFF and perceived politics.

2.4 Moderating role of tenure

The related theoretical background does not present a potential foundation to propose hypotheses regarding the moderating role of tenure on relationship between work-family conflict and perceived politics. However, the COR theory (Hobfoll, 2001) presents useful guidelines to develop relevant hypotheses. The theory states, '... people must invest resources in order to protect against resource loss, recover from losses, and gain resources' (Hobfoll, 2001: 349). This theory asserts that organizational tenure is an experimental resource which may be used as a potential to overcome the negative impacts of stress and strains.

In the current research, organizational tenure is described as the amount of service time passed in an organization. According to Hobfoll **(**1989), tenure might be an effective individual source to handle challenges in the job environment. Particularly, staff with more level of work experiences knows much how to overcome stress and strain derived from demanding job conditions (Daskin, 2013). Similarly, Norris and Niebuhr (1982) revealed that tenure plays an essential role on employees' attitudes and performance outcomes such as job satisfaction. Employees with longer level of tenure spent better effort at concerning with controversy at work (Schwenk & Valacich, 1994).

Moreover, Jehn (1997) and Jehn, Northcraft, and Neale (1999) reported that workers in the same work environment exhibited changing efforts for task and relationship conflict, intragroup competition, workgroup performance, intention to stay, and attachment to the team due to their various job experiences and because of differences in their working experience or specialization. In other words, the differences among employees in work experience play a key role in job performance and achievement, and tenure according to the difference in experience has significant effects on burnout, both being extremely personal, and subjective matters. An empirical study conducted by Karatepe (2009) shows that the moderator role of organizational tenure mitigates family-work conflict and turnover intentions. Similarly, Karatepe and Karatepe (2010) found that burnout of workers with longer tenure was probably to have less impact on turnover intention, because they were affordable of struggling with challenges associated to burnout and, as a result, tenure played a moderator role in the relationship between burnout and turnover intention.

The presence of more resources may save FLEs from organizational strain in the working environment (Hobfoll, 2001; Zellars, Perrewe, Hochwarter & Anderson, 2006). So, tenure can mitigate perceived politics and work-family conflict in the organization. Concordant with the COR theory, the current research contends that the interaction of tenure might support female FLEs to overcome challenges derive from organizational politics and work-family conflict domains. Consequently, the following hypotheses are presented;

Hypothesis 3a: Organizational tenure will moderate the effect of SEFF on perceived politics such that the negative effect of SEFF on perceived politics will be stronger among experienced female frontline employees.

Hypothesis 3b: Organizational tenure will moderate the effect of SEFF on work-family conflict such that the negative effect of SEFF on work-family conflict will be stronger among experienced female frontline employees.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Sample and data collection

The recent statistical records exhibit that there are 23 hotels in İzmir city centre, counting five 3-, thirteen 4-, and five 5-star hotels (Hotel Guide Turkey, 2016). In the current study, female FLEs were selected as the sampling (e.g., reception staff, room attendants, food and beverage service staff, and concierges) in 4-, and 5-star hotels in İzmir/Turkey. Before starting to gather data, the research team contacted the executive of each hotel organization in order to pilot-test the survey questionnaire with 20 employees. Based on this test, the research team did not find any problem regarding its content and format and decided to use the original questionnaire. An informing letter regarding the purpose the research was sent to executives of all the 18 hotels. Subsequently, the research team visited the executives at their premises in order take permission to conduct the survey with their personnel. As a result, two hotel organizations could not take part in the current research study because of maintenance and other organizational reasons. The current study procured an overall 89% sampling ratio among 4-, and 5-star hotel establishments. Throughout the visit, the research team clarified the executives about the survey process and confidentiality assurance.

The research team received the number of full-time female FLEs (including supervisors) from the hotel organizations that totalled to 405 employees. The research team handed out survey questionnaires individually to 284 women FLEs who appeared willing to take part. The survey questionnaires were distributed together with notification about the respondents' confidentiality and anonymity that would be under guarantee during the survey period. The research team requested the respondents to fill-out the questionnaires and leave in the drop-boxes left by the research team. This procedure assured the employees that the hotel administration could not have any accessibility to the survey questionnaires. In the following month, the all sealed-enveloped survey forms were gathered from the drop-boxes. In the current research, it was figured out that 152 questionnaires were collected in total but one was omitted for further step due to the high level of missing information. As a result, the utilizable questionnaire was 151 and the percentage was calculated as 53.2.

3.2 Instrument development and measures

For the current research, various kind of theoretical background were reviewed and utilized in designing the survey questionnaire. The survey item scales were organized in English at the beginning and after that interpreted into Turkish applying the back-translation technique (McGorry, 2000). The research questionnaire applied in the present study was consisted of two sections. The beginning section composed of 14 items that related to SEFF, POP, and W-CON. For the current study constructs, the existing scales were adopted from the comprehensive theoretical background review.

A four-item scale, developed by Daskin and Yilmaz (2015) was used to measure work SEFF. This scale provided highly satisfactory coefficient alphas of 0.88. Sample item from this scale is "I feel secure about my ability when unexpected problems occur in my job". Higher scores demonstrated higher SEFF.

Six items, developed by Kacmar and Carlson (1997), were chosen to measure politics perceptions. Prior research studies demonstrated that this item scale has satisfactory psychometric properties (Arasli & Karadal, 2009; Daskin & Tezer, 2012). Sample item from this measure is "There has always been an influential group of staff in this hotel that no one ever crosses''. Higher scores demonstrated higher politics perceptions.

Work-family conflict was measured using five items derived from Netemeyer *et al*. (1996) and Boles *et al*. (2001). There is empirical evidence from the hotel industry that this scale had high Cronbach's alpha (0.93) (Namasivayam & Mount, 2004). Sample item from this scale is "The demands of my work interfere with home, family and social life". Higher scores demonstrated higher work family conflict.

All measurements used a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranged from '5' = 'strongly agree' to '1' = 'strongly disagree'. The second part of the survey was composed of four demographic questions: age, gender, education, and organizational tenure. Age, education, and tenure were measured using a 5-point scale.

3.3 Data analysis

The measures were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis using Partial Least Squares Path Modeling (PLS-SEM) (Chin, 1998) to provide support for the issues of dimensionality, convergent and discriminant validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). It works well with structural equation models that contain latent variables and a series of cause-and-effect relationships (Gustafsson & Johnson, 2004).The measures were also subjected to Cronbach alpha and Pearson product-moment correlation analyses through SPSS version 21 to provide support for the issues of internal consistency and discriminant validity. Once the measure was validated, PLS path modeling was used to test the validity of the proposed model and hypotheses.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Descriptive statistics of sample

As shown in table 1, only female FLEs were included in this study. More than half of the respondents (56%) tended to be reasonably young, under 34 years old. Education levels of the respondents were 54% primary/secondary school graduates, 45% vocational school/undergraduate graduates, and 1% master degree holders. Three quarters of the respondents (76%) had more than 4 years of organizational tenure. All the employees indicated that they spent the majority of their working time directly interacting with customers. In other words, all respondents would be described as frontline staff.

Table 1. Profile of the sample (*n* = 151)

Characteristics	n	Percentage
Gender		
Female	151	100
Age		
18-25	35	23
26-33 years	49	33
34-41 years	30	20
42-49 years	26	17
Over 50	11	7
Education		
Primary School	24	16
Secondary School	57	38
Vocational School	35	23
University degree	34	22
Masters degree	1	1
Tenure		
1-3 years	36	24
4-7 years	46	30
8-11 years	35	23
12-15 years	20	14
15+	14	9

Source: Own Elaboration

4.2 Psychometric properties of the measures

The adequacy of the measurement model was evaluated based on reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. As shown in table 2, the composite reliability measures for the components were above the cut-off point of .70, which indicates that items are free from random error and internal consistency was adequate (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Table 2 portrayed factor loadings for each variable, which were calculated using confirmatory factor analysis. As shown in table 2, all items loaded on respective the constructs. Factor loadings were greater than .60, which suggests satisfactory convergent validity. Additionally, average variances extracted (AVE) for all study variables were above the minimum threshold of .50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Chin, 1998).

Table 2. Scale items, reliabilities, and confirmatory factor analysis results

Scale items	Standardized loadings	Alpha	AVE
Work self-efficacy		**0.82**	**0.71**
SEFF1 I feel secure about my ability when unexpected problems occur in my job.	0.77		
SEFF2 When I face unpleasant situations contrary to organizational harmony, I can handle them well.	0.81		
SEFF3 When trying to achieve an organizational goal, I never give up if I am not initially successful.	0.79		
SEFF4 I do not avoid facing difficulties in my job.	0.72		

Politics perceptions		**0.78**	**0.66**
POP5 There has always been an influential group of staff in this hotel that no one ever crosses.	0.73		
POP6 Management put their self-interest into the allocation of resources and uses my hotel's resources for their own purposes.	0.75		
POP7 Some groups in this hotel attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down.	0.62		
POP8 Since I have worked in this hotel, I have never seen the pay and promotion policies applied politically. (R)	0.64		
POP9 Management monopolizes the ideas, practices, activities and success of the staff performance in some instances.	0.73		
Work-family conflict		**0.85**	**0.67**
W-CON10 The demands of my work interfere with home, family and social life.	0.70		
W-CON11 Because of my job, I can't involve myself as much as I would like in maintaining close relations with my family, spouse, or friends.	0.67		
W-CON12 Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.	0.76		
W-CON13 I often have to miss important family and social activities because of my Job.	0.73		
W-CON14 There is not a conflict between my job and the commitments and responsibilities I have to my family, spouse, or friends. (R)	0.72		

Notes: All items are measured on five-point Likert scales ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

All loadings are significant at the 0.01 level or better. All internal reliability estimates are above the .070 cut off value.

Source: Own Elaboration

Method variance is described as a potential matter because of the self-reporting characteristic of research studies. In this regard, the present study has taken precautions as such the frontline supervisors were also involved in the present research. According to Spector (1987), acquiescence bias was the most encountered sources of method variance. In order to eliminate the single-source method bias, the research questionnaire in the current study was segmented into different parts by separating the independent and dependent variables (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). Placing negatively and positively keyed items in the questionnaire was another way handling acquiescence. Therefore, the present study included the reversed-keyed items in the survey questionnaire.

Moreover, concordant with the empirical study of Brockman and Morgan (2006), method bias was examined applying confirmatory factor analysis as a statistical remedy approach to Harman's single-factor test. According to Podsakoff *et al*. (2003), when a single construct accounts for more than 50% of total variance of the scales, the method bias may come into view as a critical matter. Yet the findings of the present study did not exhibit such a case and as a result the common method bias was not a potential threat for the proposed hypotheses.

The correlation analysis results together with the square root of the AVE on the diagonal were presented in table 3. The scale items of each latent variable were summed and averaged to attain a composite score which stands for that latent variable. Because no correlation coefficient was above 0.90, which means that each latent variable were dissimilar that stand for distinct variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In addition, the scales are also evaluated to have appropriate discriminant validity when the square root of the AVE for every latent variable is higher than the correlation among the variable and any other variable in the research model (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Chin, 1998). As Table 3 demonstrates, all diagonal scores were over the inter-construct correlations, so, provided appropriate discriminant validity.

Table 3. Correlations, means, standard deviations, and square roots

Scale	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.Age	**1.00**					
2.Education	0.03	**1.00**				
3.Tenure	-0.14*	0.08	**1.00**			
4.Self-efficacy	0.10	0.11	0.23*	**.74**		
5.Perceived politics	-0.06	0.17*	-0.17*	-0.45**	**.69**	
6.Wok-family conflict	-0.12	0.14*	-0.21*	-0.54**	0.23*	**.71**
Mean	3.10	2.63	2.74	3.88	3.35	3.62
Standard deviation	0.59	0.86	0.79	1.04	1.23	1.15

Notes: n = 151. **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level; *correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. Correlation without any asterisk is insignificant. Square root of AVE in the diagonal.

Source: Own Elaboration

4.3 Model test results

Path modelling was applied for analysing the hypothetical relationships. In order to figure out the path significance and *t*-statistics, a bootstrapping method (with 500 samples) was used (Chin, 1998). Baron and Kenny (1986)'s statistical guidelines was adopted to analyse the moderation effects. As depicted in table 4, SEFF makes a significant negative impact on work-family conflict (= -0.29, $p < 0.01$). Thus, hypothesis 1 is accepted.

Table 4. Path modeling results: Tenure as a moderator of the effects of SEFF on work-family conflict and perceived politics

Dependent variables and standardized regression weights	WFC			Perceived politics		
Independent variables	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
(I) *Control variables*						
Age	-0.04	-0.03	-0.03	-0.05	-0.08	-0.10
Education	0.10	0.10	0.09	0.15*	0.13*	0.13*
(II) *Direct effects*						
SEFF		-0.29**	-0.18*		-0.24**	-0.21*
Tenure		-0.14*	-0.05		-0.12*	-0.11*
(III) *Interactive term*						
SEFF * Tenure			-0.37**			-0.29**
F	12.23*	30.32**	19.11**	6.68*	23.56**	14.65**
R^2 at each step	0.05	0.21	0.25	0.07	0.16	0.20
ΔR^2	-	0.03	0.08	-	0.04	0.06

Notes: Age, education, and tenure were measured using five-point scales. Higher scores indicated older age, more educated, longer tenure. WFC; work-family conflict. The results regarding variance inflation factors did not demonstrate any problems of multicollinearity.

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

Source: Own Elaboration

Table 4 depicts that there is a revealing negative relation among SEFF and perceived politics (= -0.24, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, hypothesis 2 is supported. Only education as a control variable demonstrates significant influence on perceived politics (= 0.13, $p < 0.05$). Specifically, employees with higher education perceive more politics.

In addition, table 4 exhibits the findings of hierarchical moderated regression. Hypothesis 3a demonstrates that tenure plays a moderating role in relationship between SEFF and work-family conflict. The analysis findings shows that the interactive term (SEFF * tenure) made a revealing negative influence on perceived politics (= -0.29, $p < 0.01$). A significant increment in R^2 of the model ($\Delta R^2 = 0.06$, $p < 0.01$) is found. Thus, hypothesis 3a is supported. Hypothesis 3b predicts that tenure moderates the effect of SEFF on work-family conflict. Finally, the table 4 shows that the interaction of SEFF and tenure made a significant negative effect on work-family conflict (= -0.37, $p < 0.01$). A revealing increase in R^2 of the model ($\Delta R^2 = 0.08$, $p < 0.01$) is found. Thus, hypothesis 3b is supported.

5. CONCLUSION

The female workforce is confronted with different problems in socioeconomic life span than men do. Many studies in this area have found that miscellaneous discriminative actions against women in the tourism labour environment are not because of their individual preferences and abstinence, but rather from a sexist perspective in sociocultural frame and organizational challenges they face during vocational work life and even job placement process (e.g., Munoz-Bullon, 2009; Costa, Carvalho & Breda, 2011; Clevenger & Singh, 2013; Kensbock, Jennings, Bailey & Patiar, 2016). Yet the fact that women's labour is brought to economic life and women's economic strength and social fortification also play an important role for the underdeveloped and developing countries to make their economic and social development process successful and rapid. However, the extant literature in the world shows that women are exposed to low-paid jobs with demanding work situations and sexist segregation in recruitment, rewarding and promotion (Schaap *et al*., 2008; Mooney & Ryan, 2009; Kensbock *et al*., 2013; Costa *et al*., 2017). In Turkey, there is limited number of research available in the field, however the previous research depicts that despite the increasing number of female employees in the industry, the similar gender-based discrimination is a problem of all sectors (Tucker, 2007; Burke *et al*., 2008a; Pinar *et al*., 2011; Uguz & Topbas, 2016). Male employees in the industry as the high-status group members may be anticipated to strive to protect their dominant role to the extent that they believe it to be legitimate (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). In addition to this, tourism's multitasking job environments with longer shift hours create serious problems regarding work-life balance among tourism employees. This situation is more accurate for female employees who have both social and work life responsibilities when compared to male counterparts (Haar, Russo, Suñe & Ollier-Malaterre, 2014). On the other hand, the labour-intensive workforce characteristic of the tourism industry plays an active role in creating employment opportunities and is becoming an important one for female employees. Thus, more empirical studies determining the perceptions of employees about their organizations are needed in terms of understanding what mechanisms (e.g., SEFF mechanism) lead to employees' attitudes and behaviours.

Therefore, the current study aimed to investigate the direct effect of SEFF on female FLEs' work-family conflict and perceived politics, and the moderating role of organizational tenure among these relations. Particularly, the present study attempted to include untested relationships into its model that is progressive in terms of being a new addition to travel and tourism literature and at the same time presents valuable implications for the industry practitioners.

The statistical findings of the current research supported each proposed hypothesis. The results regarding the impact of SEFF on female FLEs' work-family conflict was significantly negative and concordant with the proposed hypothesis of the current research and the empirical study by Cinamon (2006) that was applied on a sample of university students. Cinamon examined the working and non-working students' anticipated work-family conflict before they start for professional career. However, there is more need for this type of empirical studies to be conducted in hotel context, because the customer interaction is at the highest level and working conditions are highly challenging. This finding reveals that the female FLEs who have more self-efficacy tend to exhibit less conflict. In an empirical study conducted by Kim *et al.* (2009) though males perceived more role conflict and stress, it was found that females' job satisfaction are much more effected from role stress and role conflict. Okumus *et al.* (2010) found that male workers of the five-star hotel organizations in Turkey tended to be contented with "management conditions" and "using ability in the job" factors, while females tended to be contented with "personal fulfillment" factors. In this regard, improving the resources of SEFF for fermale employees may be seen as an important strategy in order to make them to stay longer with their organizations, because female employees are mostly confronted with the aforementioned problems in the industry.

The findings of regression analysis demonstrated that SEFF had a significant negative influence on FLEs' perceived politics. This result also shows that SEFF is a remarkable driver of perceived politics. This is a new finding in tourism literature and recommends that self-efficacious female FLEs have far fewer organizational politics. In a demanding job climate where the essential position of females cannot be minimized, hotel executives should note organizational politics as a detrimental element that may trigger negative job outcomes.

Moreover, moderated regression results shows that the interaction of tenure and SEFF alleviated FLEs' work-family conflict and perceived politics which means the influence of SEFF on work-family conflict and perceived politics was more significant among employees with longer tenure. This result is concordant with the COR theory (Hobfoll, 2001) and promotes the COR theory's contention that FLEs who possess internal resources in the work environment are more able to deal with challenges emanating from work and family roles. Work stress exists when people are faced with the trouble of losing resources, people start to lack for resources, people spend resources and do not harvest what they have foreseen back (Hobfoll, 2001). Based on the principle of the theory, "people must invest resources in order to protect against resource loss, recover from losses, and gain resources" (Hobfoll, 2001: 349). Santero-Sanchez *et al.* (2015) highlight how one negative characteristic associated with women's lower quality jobs is the difficulty in achieving tenure. Similarly Uguz and Topbas (2016) reported that male employees have more tenure at about %25 compared to female employees and this shows lower level of female employability and higher level of turnover. At the same time they are employed at the lower quality jobs which do not require much skills and education. As a result, long-tenured FLEs with self-efficacy can balance the demands of their work and family lives. These individuals are fewer tend to lose resource and have more ability to gain resource (Hobfoll, 2001; Zellars *et al.*, 2006).

5.1 Managerial implications

The results of the present study bring to mind some valuable suggestions for accommodation firms. In order to increase FLEs' SEFF, hotel organizations should assess contemporary techniques while selecting and placing job applicants whose personality features meet the specification of frontline work position. According to the findings of the current study, they should, for instance, screen applicants through aim and personality tests and apply various types of methods to pinpoint job applicants' SEFF. Likewise, human recourse interviewers may apply scenario-based tests to figure out whether the aims, expectations, experiences, and skills of applicants are concordant with the requirements of job vacancy. Hotel organizations should abstain from positioning those candidates with low SEFF for the frontline positions, as they have less self-reliance and self-determination.

According to Human Capital Theory by Schultz (1975), "human capital involves increase investment in education and training of the individuals. Individual's abilities can be enhanced through education and training that bring about effective change in the performance of jobs". An empirical study conducted by Uguz and Topbas (2016) in Turkey confirms this theory such that education and training were found to be negatively related with female segregation.

So, training programs should be organized to improve employees' service recovery, problem-solving capabilities, emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, and conflict resolution (Borralha, Neves de Jesus, Pinto & Viseu, 2016). These programs, to be organized in hotel organization or externally by agencies, would enable them to enhance their performance and persistence against stressful situations. Concordant with social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997), a training intended at developing personal confidence in one's individual capabilities to exert supervision on work flow in the workplace might results in more fit and preferable satisfaction level. Training, as a part of socialization in the organization, might be provided to both new coming staff and tenured employees. In this regard Kim, Cable and Kim (2005) contend that socialization actions support employees to develop a better person–organization fit at very early stages. The emphasis of training could be on self-management to increase an individual's SEFF in terms of meeting job requirements efficiently and as well as handling social and individual handicaps. Specifically, the initiative could be directed to reinforce the self-regulation skills that underpin one's efficacy credence and that let frontline staff to refrain from strained occasions, overcome interpersonal clashes, deal with troubled circumstances, and get better promptly after an intensive period of time. Moreover, this study shows that tenured female FLEs have less conflict and perceive less politics. Hotel organizations should spend extra effort to retain these employees through administrative engagement to rewarding and training concurrently and adapting clear organizational policies.

Along with these implications, it is essential for the organizations to generate better working conditions for female FLEs who have dual-work (work and home) responsibilities. Hotel organizations should establish a family-supportive job climate that better recognition of this by providing on-site child care, elastic shift hours, and family leave would be more probably to mitigate conflict. The availability of family-friendly benefits in the workplace is also an effective tool for marketing vacant posts to high-performing employees and retaining tenured and self-efficacious employees. Finally another implication could be employing mentors to reinforce FLEs with instant assistance for dealing with clashes in the work-family life intersection.

5.2 Limitations and future research

The results found of the present research should be evaluated in light of a few limitations. The first limitation of the study was cross-sectional design, which generates barrier for researcher to find out causative outcomes. In addition, collecting data from a single source (FLEs) may commonly cause common method bias, though such a problem was not encountered related with the present survey instrument. For the further research studies, applying longitudinal data from various sampling sources could be effective in minimizing these apprehensions. The current study was not able to adopt a qualitative method. Further studies may purpose to apply interviews and observations to better understand about outcomes and antecedents of SEFF. In approving the results of present research and also to extend the scope and make generalizations, more research regarding FLEs in Turkey are needed. The current study used hotels as a context to test its proposed hypotheses. Multiplication of this research in various hospitality context such as restaurants, travel agencies and airlines could be effective in cross-validating the current results. Lastly, including individual resources such as polychronicity and situational resources such as training into the survey for further research endeavours could ensure more insights into the moderators of work-family conflict and perceived politics.

REFERENCES

Aksu, A., Bahtiyar, D., Deveci, I., & Koç, Y. (2016). Calculating the cost of turnover at 5-star hotels in Turkey between 2000 and 2016. *TURIZAM*, 20(4), 168-179.

Allen, T.D. Herst, D.E.L. Bruck, C.S., & Sutton, M. (2000). Consequences associated with work-to-family conflict: a review and agenda for future research. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology,* 5(2), 278-308.

Anderson, J.C. & Gerbing, D.W. (1988). Structural equation modelling in practice: a review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103(3), 411-423.

Arasli, H. & Karadal, H. (2009). Impacts of superior politics on frontline employees' behavioral and psychological outcomes. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 37(2), 175-190.

Aycan, Z. & Eskin, M. (2004). Relative contribution of childcare, spousal, and organizational support in reducing work–family conflict for males and females: The case of Turkey. Paper presented at the *Academy of Management* annual meeting, New Orleans.

Aytac, S. (1999). Calisma yasaminda kadin ve kariyer (Female and career in the work life), Paper presented at the first seminar of the female work force in Turkey, Bursa, Turkey: T*urkiye Isveren Sendikalari Konfederasyonu Yayin*, 192, 27-33.

Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In V.S. Ramachaudran (Ed.), *Encyclopaedia of human behavior* (Vol. 4, pp. 71-81). New York: Academic Press. Reprinted in H. Friedman (Ed.), (1998). *Encyclopaedia of mental health*. San Diego: Academic Press.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control.* New York: Freeman.

Baron, R.M. & Kenny, D.A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 51(6), 1173-1182.

Bengisu, M. & Balta, S. (2010). Employment of the workforce with disabilities in the hospitality industry. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism,* 19(1), 35-57.

Bitner, M.J., Booms, B.H., & Tetreault, M.S. (1990). The service encounter: Diagnosing favorable and unfavorable incidents. *Journal of Marketing,* 54(1), 71-84.

Boles, J.S. Howard, W.G., & Donofrio, H.H. (2001). An investigation into the inter-relationships of work-family conflict, family-work conflict and work satisfaction. *Journal of Managerial Issues,* 13(3), 376-390.

Boles, J.S., Johnston, M.W., & Hair, J.F. Jr. (1997). Role stress, work-family conflict and emotional exhaustion: inter-relationships and effects on some work-related consequences. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management,* 17(1), 17-28.

Borralha, S., Neves de Jesus, S., Pinto, P., & Viseu, J. (2016). Job Satisfaction in Hotel Employees: A Systematic Review of the Literature. *Journal of Spatial and Organizational Dynamics*, 4(1), 4-20.

Brockman, B.K. & Morgan, R.M. (2006). The moderating effect of organizational cohesiveness in knowledge use and new product development. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science,* 34(3), 295-307.

Burke, R., Koyuncu, M., & Fiksenbaum, L. (2008a). Work experiences, satisfactions and psychological well-being of female and male managers in the hospitality sector in Turkey. *Equal Opportunities International,* 27(6), 505-518.

Bute, M. (2011). The mediating role of job stress on nepotism and job satisfaction relationship, Dumlupinar University. *Social Sciences Journal of Dumlupinar University,* 29, 175-184.

Cave, P. & Kilic, S. (2010). The role of women in tourism employment with special reference to Antalya, Turkey. *Journal of Hospitality Management and Marketing,* 19(3), 280-292.

Cetinel, F., Yolal, M., & Emeksiz, M. (2009). Human resources management in small and medium sized hotels in Turkey. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism,* 8, 45-65.

Chin, W. (1998). The partial least squares for structural equation modeling. In Marcoulides, G.A. (Ed.), *Modern methods for business research* (pp. 295-336). Erlbaum, Mahwah, NJ.

Cinamon, R.G. (2006). Anticipated work-family conflict: Effects of gender, self-efficacy, and family background. *The Career Development Quarterly,* 54(3), 202-215.

Clevenger, L. & Singh, N. (2013). Exploring barriers that lead to the glass ceiling effect for women in the U.S. hospitality industry. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism,* 12(4), 376-399.

Costa, C., Carvalho, I., Caçador, S., & Breda, Z. (2012). Future higher education in tourism studies and the labor market: Gender perspectives on expectations and experiences. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism,* 12(1), 70-90.

Costa, C., Bakas, F., Breda, Z., Durão, M., Carvalho, I., & Caçador, S. (2017). Gender, flexibility and the 'ideal tourism worker'. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 64, 64-75.

Costa, C., Carvalho, I., & Breda, Z. (2011). Gender inequalities in tourism employment: The Portuguese case. *Revista Turismo & Desenvolvimento,* 15, 37-52.

Daskin, M. (2013). Favouritism and self-efficacy as antecedents on managers' politics perceptions and job stress. *Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research,* 24(3), 452-467.

Daskin, M. & Kasim, A. (2016). Exploring the impact of service recovery on customer affection, perceived value, and sabotaging behaviour: Does gender make a difference? *International Journal of Services and Operations Management,* 23(4), 467-485.

Daskin, M. & Tezer, M. (2012). Organizational politics and turnover: An empirical research from hospitality industry. *Tourism: An International Interdisciplinary Journal,* 60(3), 273-291.

Daskin, M. & Yilmaz, O.D. (2015). Critical antecedents to service recovery performance: some evidences and implications for service industry. *International Journal of Management Practice,* 8(1), 70-97.

Eisenhardt, K.M. & Bourgeois, L.J. III. (1988). Politics of strategic decision making in high velocity environments: Toward a midrange theory. *Academy of Management Journal,* 31(4), 737-770.

Elmas, S. (2007). Gender and tourism development: A case study of the Cappodoccia region of Turkey. In A. Pritchard, N., Morgan, I. Atelyevic (Eds.), *Tourism and gender: Embodiment, sensuality and experience* (pp. 302-314). CABI Publishing.

Eurostat. (2015). *Tourism industries – employment*. Acceded in 16th of September 2018, in: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Tourism_industries_employment#Tourism_creates_jobs_for_women

Ferri, L.M., Pedrini, M., & Riva, E. (2018). The impact of different supports on work-family conflict. *Employee Relations,* 40(5), 903-920.

Ferris, G.R., Adams, G., Kolodinsky, R.W., Hochwarter, W. A., & Ammeter, A.P. (2002). Perceptions of organizational politics: Theory and research directions. In F. J. Yammarino & F. Dansereau (Eds.), *Research in multi-level issues: The many faces of multi-level issues* (pp. 179-254). Oxford: JAI Press.

Fielden, S.L. & Davidson, M.J. (2001). Stress and gender in unemployed female and male managers. *Applied Psychology,* 50(2), 305-334.

Fornell, C. & Larcker, D.F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research,* 18(1), 39-50.

Frone, M.R. (2003). Work-family balance. In J. C. Quick & L. E. Tetrick (Eds.), *Handbook of occupational health psychology* (pp.143-162). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Gustafsson, A. & Johnson, M.D. (2004). Determining attribute importance in a service satisfaction model. *Journal of Service Research,* 7(2), 124-141.

Haar, J.M., Russo, M., Suñe, A., & Ollier-Malaterre, A. (2014). Outcomes of work–life balance on job satisfaction, life satisfaction and mental health: A study across seven cultures. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour,* 85(3), 361-373.

Hartline, M.D. & Ferrell, O.C. (1996). The management of customer-contact service employees: An empirical investigation. *Journal of Marketing,* 60(4), 52-70.

Heuven, E., Bakker, A.B., Schaufeli, W.B., & Huisman, N. (2006).The role of self-efficacy in performing emotion work. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour,* 69(2), 222-235.

Hobfoll, S.E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist,* 44(3), 513-524.

Hobfoll, S.E. (2001). The influence of culture, community, and the nested-self in the stress process: Advancing conservation of resources theory. *Applied Psychology: An International Review,* 50(3), 337-421.

Hotel Guide Turkey (2016). *İzmir hotels.* Acceded in 15th of May 2016, in http://www.turkeyhotelguide.org.

Jehn, K.A. (1997). A qualitative analysis of conflict type and dimensions in organizational groups. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 42(3), 530-557.

Jehn, K.A., Northcraft, C.B., & Neale, M.A. (1999). Why differences make a difference: A field study of diversity, conflict, and performance in workgroups. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 44(4), 741-763.

Jex, S.M. & Gudanowski, D.M. (1992). Efficacy beliefs and work stress: An exploratory study. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour,* 13, 262-279.

Kacmar, K.M., Bozeman, D.P., Carlson, D.S., & Anthony, W.P. (1999). An examination of the perceptions of organizational politics model: Replication and extension. *Human Relations,* 52(3), 383-416.

Kacmar, K.M. & Carlson, D.S. (1997). Further validation of the Perceptions of Politics Scale (POPS): A multi-sample approach. *Journal of Management,* 23(5), 627-658.

Karatepe, O.M. (2009). An investigation of the joint effects of organizational tenure and supervisor support on work–family conflict and turnover intentions. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management,* 16(1), 73-81.

Karatepe, O.M., Babakus, E., & Yavas, U. (2011). Affectivity and organizational politics as antecedents of burnout among frontline hotel employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 31(1), 66-75.

Karatepe, O.M. & Karatepe, T. (2010). Role stress, emotional exhaustion, and turnover intentions: Does organizational tenure in hotels matter? *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality and Tourism,* 9(1), 1-16.

Karatepe, O.M. & Kilic, H. (2007). Relationships of supervisor support and conflicts in the work–family interface with the selected job outcomes of frontline employees. *Tourism Management,* 28(1), 238-252.

Karatepe, O.M. & Sokmen, A. (2006). The effects of work role and family role variables on psychological and behavioural outcomes of frontline employees. *Tourism Management,* 27(2), 255-268.

Kattara, H. (2005). Career challenges for female managers in Egyptian hotels. International *Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* 17(3), 238-251.

Kaya, I., Bezirganb, M., & Alamur, B. (2015). Minimum turnover analysis in Turkish Tourism Sector. *Procedia: Social and Behavioral Sciences,* 207, 404-413.

Kensbock, S., Jennings, G., Bailey, J., & Patiar, A. (2013). The lowest rung': Women room attendants' perceptions of five star hotels' operational hierarchies. *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 35, 360-368.

Kensbock, S., Jennings, G., Bailey, J., & Patiar, A. (2016). Performing: Hotel room attendants' employment experiences. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 56, 112-127.

Kim, B., Murrmann, S., & Lee, G. (2009). Moderating effects of gender and organizational level between role stress and job satisfaction among hotel employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 28(4), 612-619.

Kim, T., Cable, D.M., & Kim, S. (2005). Socialization tactics, employee proactivity, and person–organization fit. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 90(2), 232-241.

Kusluvan, S. (2003). Employee attitudes and behaviours and their roles for tourism and hospitality business. In S. Kusluvan (Ed.), *Managing employee attitudes and behaviours in the tourism and hospitality* (pp. 25-50). New York: Nova Science Publishers.

Kusluvan, S. Kusluvan, Z., Ilhan, Z., & Buyruk, L. (2010). The human dimension: A review of human resources management issues in the tourism and hospitality industry. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly,* 51(2), 171-214.

Li, L. & Leung, R. (2001). Female managers in Asian hotels: Profile and career challenges. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* 13, 189-196.

Lubbers, R., Loughlin, C., & Zweig, D. (2005). Young workers' job self-efficacy and affect: Pathways to health and performance. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* 6(2), 199-214.

Luthans, F. & Peterson, S.J. (2002). Employee engagement and manager self-efficacy. *Journal of Management Development,* 21(5), 376-387.

Martins, L.L., Eddleston, K.A., & Veiga, J.F. (2002). Moderators of the relationship between work family satisfaction and career satisfaction. *Academy of Management Journal,* 45(2), 399-409.

McGorry, S.Y. (2000). Measurement in a cross-cultural environment: Survey translation issues. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal,* 3(2), 74-81.

Mintzberg, H. (1983). *Power in and around organizations*. Englewood cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Mooney, S., Ryan, I., & Harris, C. (2017). The intersections of gender with age and ethnicity in hotel careers: still the same old privileges? *Gender, Work & Organization,* 24(4), 361-375.

Moura, D., Orgambídez-Ramos. A. & Neves de Jesus, S. (2015). Psychological Empowerment and Work Engagement as predictors of Work Satisfaction: A sample of Hotel Employees. *Journal of Spatial and Organizational Dynamics*, 3(2), 125-134.

Munoz-Bullon, F. (2009). The gap between male and female pay in the Spanish tourism industry. *Tourism Management,* 30(5), 638-649.

Namasivayam, K. & Mount, D.J. (2004). The relationship of work-family conflict and family-work conflict to job satisfaction. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research,* 28(2), 242-250.

Netemeyer, R.G., Boles, J.S., & McMurrian, R. (1996). Development and validation of work-family conflict and family-work conflict scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 81(4), 400-410.

Ng, C. & Pine, R. (2003). Women and men in hotel management in Hong Kong: Perceptions of gender and career development issues. *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 22, 85-102.

Norris, D.R. & Niebuhr, R.E. (1982). The moderating influence of organization on the job satisfaction–job performance relationship. *Proceedings of the Allied Southern Business Association* (pp. 221-223). Annual Meeting, 8-13 November.

Okumus, F., Sariisik, M., & Naipaul, S. (2010). Understanding why women work in five-star hotels in a developing country and their work-related problems. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration,* 11(1), 76-105.

Pinar, M., McCuddy, M., Birkan, I., & Kozak, M. (2011). Gender diversity in the hospitality industry: An empirical study in Turkey. *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 30, 73-81.

Podsakoff, P.M., Mackenzie, S.B., Lee, J., & Podsakoff, N.P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 88(5), 879-903.

Poon, J.M.L. (2004). Effects of performance appraisal politics on job satisfaction and turnover intention. *Personal Review,* 33(3), 322-334.

Raghuram, S., Wiesenfeld, B., & Garud, R. (2003). Technology enabled work: The role of self-efficacy in determining telecommuter adjustment and structuring behaviour. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* 63(2), 180-198.

Ramos, V., Rey-Maqueira, J., & Tugores, M. (2002). Análisis empírico de discriminación por razón de género en una economía especializada en turismo. *Annals of Tourism Research En Español,* 4(1), 239-258.

Santero-Sanchez, R., Segovia-Pérez, M., Castro-Nuñez, B., Figueroa-Domecq, C., & Talón-Ballestero, P. (2015). Gender differences in the hospitality industry: A job quality index. *Tourism Management,* 51, 234-46.

Schaap, J., Stedham, Y., & Yamamura, J. (2008). Casino management: Exploring gender-based differences in perceptions of managerial work. *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 27, 87-97.

Schaubroeck, J. & Merritt, D.E. (1997). Divergent effects of job control on coping with work stressors: The key role of self-efficacy. *The Academy of Management Journal,* 40(3), 738-754.

Schultz, T.W. (1975). The value of the ability to deal with disequilibria. *Journal of Economic Literature,* 13(3), 827-846.

Schwenk, C.J. & Valacich, J.S. (1994). Effects of devil's advocacy and dialectical inquiry on individuals versus groups. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes,* 59(2), 210-222.

Semmer, N.K. (2003). Individual differences, work stress and health. In M. J. Schabracq, J. A. M. Winnubst, & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *Handbook of work and health psychology* (2nd Ed. pp. 83-120). Chichester: John Wiley.

Skalpe, O. (2007). The CEO gender pay gap in the tourism industry: Evidence from Norway. *Tourism Management,* 28(3), 845-853.

Sousa, C., Chambel, M.J. & Carvalho, V.S. (2018). Support in Work Context and Employees' Well-Being: The Mediation Role of the Work- Family Conflict. *Journal of Spatial and Organizational Dynamics*, 6(1), 4-18.

Spector, P.E. (1987). Method variance as an artifact in self-reported affect and perceptions at work: Myth or significant problem? *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 72(3), 438-443.

Tabachnick, B.G. & Fidell, L.S. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics* (5th Ed.). New York: Allyn and Bacon.

Tajfel, H. & Turner, J.C. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W. G. Austin & S. Worchel (Eds.), *The social psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 33-47). Monterey, CA: Brooks-Cole.

Thrane, C. (2008). Earnings differentiation in the tourism industry: Gender, human capital and socio-demographic effects. *Tourism Management,* 29(3), 514-524.

Tucker, H. (2007). Undoing shame: Tourism and women's work in Turkey. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change,* 5(2), 87-105.

Uguz, S.C. & Topbas, F. (2016). Employment of women in tourism and wage discrimination: A comparative analysis. *Anatolia: Turizm Araştırmaları Dergisi,* 27(1), 62-78.

Wang, M. (2007). Profiling retirees in the retirement transition and adjustment process: Examining the longitudinal change patterns of retirees' psychological well-being. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 92(2), 455-474.

Wang, Y.F. (2013). Constructing career competency model of hospitality industry employees for career success. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* 25(7), 994-1016.

Willis, A.T., O'Conner, B.D., & Smith, L. (2008). Investigating effort-reward imbalance and work-family conflict in relation to morningness-eveningness and shift work. *Work & Stress,* 22(2), 125-137.

Wood, R.E. & Bandura, A. (1989). Impact of conceptions of ability on self-regulatory mechanisms and complex decision making. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 56(3), 407-415.

World Travel & Tourism Council. (2013). *Economic Impact Report*. Acceded in 25th of December 2017, in https://www.wttc.org/research/economic-research/economic-impact-analysis/.

Zellars, K.L., Perrewe, P.L., Hochwarter, W.A., & Anderson, K.S. (2006). The interactive effects of positive affect and conscientiousness on strain. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology,* 11(4), 281-289.

ISSN: 2183-1912

Authors

Cátia Sousa
Cidália B. R. Gonçalves
Daniela Sousa
Gabriela Gonçalves
Ileana P. Monteiro
Irina Bordei
Joana Vieira dos Santos
José Ferreira da Costa
Liliana Vitorino
Marisol B. Correia
Mustafa Daskin
Susana Cabrita

UAlg
UNIVERSIDADE DO ALGARVE

CIEO
Centro de Investigação sobre o Espaço e as Organizações

FCT
Fundação para a Ciência e a Tecnologia
MINISTÉRIO DA CIÊNCIA, TECNOLOGIA E ENSINO SUPERIOR