

## Chapter 5

### Assessment and Development of Human Resources Practice in Business Organization

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#### **Nature and Concept of Human Resource Development**

The effective and efficient use of limited resources calls for a skilled and competent workforce, among others. If an organization is to have a skilled and competent workforce, it must have effective Human Resource Development (HRD) programs (Mathis et al., 2014; Noe et al., 2015; Blanchard & Thacker, 2013; Werner and DeSimone, 2011). According to Casio and Aguinis (2011), the quality of a nation's workforce is a crucial determinant of its ability to successfully compete in a global market. Human Resource Management (HRM) underscores a belief that people truly make a significant difference; only people among other resources have the capacity to generate value. Human resources can be sources for sustained competition. Mathis et al. (2014) further contend that "Human assets are the "glue" that holds all the other assets together and guides their use to achieve results. Human resource (HR) practices are the direct investments on employees' human capital through which firms achieve competitive advantage and employees enhance their human capital (Birasnav & Rangnekar, 2009).

According to Barney (1991), human resources can be sources for sustained competition as long as they meet three basic requirements: they add positive economic benefits to the process of producing goods and services; the skills of the workforce are distinguishable from those of competitors (e.g., through education and workplace training); and such skills are not easily duplicated. Stone (1998) further remarked that "HRM is either part of the problem or part of the solution in gaining the productive contribution of people". In other words, an HR system (the set of interrelated process designed to attract, develop, and maintain human resources) can either enhance or destroy this potential competitive advantage (Lado and Wilson, 1994 quoted in Casio and Aguinis, 2011).

Successful organizations attribute their past successes partly to the way they deal with their people. This is especially true within the service sector such as public organizations. Because they are mainly labor intensive, they are judged on the basis of the performance of their human resources. Well trained and motivated workforces are the lifeblood of an effective state (World Bank, 1997). This study argues that the most important question for human resource development (HRD) professionals is not how many employees are trained/developed, but how they are trained/developed, retained, and utilized. Further, hiring the right person (both person/job and person/organization match) is necessary (Heneman, Judge, & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2015), but not sufficient. Presupposing effective utilization of HRM initiatives is an important aspect of HRM, no discussion of HRD would be complete without considering the role of HR utilization. This suggests that HR development and utilization are important aspects of HRM. That is, employees' competence (ability to do), motivation (willingness to work), conducive working condition (transfer of learning), and retention (willingness to stay) are crucial if organizations are to retain the maximum contribution from their employees and create organizational excellence.

#### **Elements of Human Resource Development**

**1. Continuity of Training Needs Assessment (TNA):** If HRD is to be responsive to the real needs of organizations through improving the relevance of the training programs, conducting proper and continuous training needs assessment is a vital issue. Training needs assessment is the first step in the

## Sustainable Management Practice - Interdisciplinary Perspective

training cycle. It is critical as it provides the information on which training is based and the latter can be no better than the quality of the analysis permits. The identification of training needs should start with an assessment of the organization or national goals, objectives and priorities (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Thomas & Theresa, 1995). Following national planning and goal setting, and after organizational and individual training needs assessments, the appropriate training programs can be chosen to support national programs, organizational improvement, and individual development.

Presence of written and acceptable trainee-selection procedures: If HRD is to have an impact, organizations should select trainees who are suitably qualified and motivated/willing to undertake a particular training program (Blanchard & Thacker, 2013; Guerrero & Sire, 2001). There must be some criteria for the same or similar basis of which candidates should be selected such as age, educational level, position level, type of career and responsibilities, past experiences, performance records, etc. so that the entire group will consist of suitably qualified candidates to participate in the same training program (Tessema et al., 2005).

Linkage of HRD programs to organizational objectives and strategy: Another key ingredient in effective HRD is a proper linkage of HRD programs to organizational objectives and strategy (Kerrigan & Luke, 1987; ILO, 1998; Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2006). HRD then becomes relevant to the achievement of organizational objectives. The quality of HRD programs in the public sector can be improved only if HRD efforts are integrated with manpower planning of the public sector, which, in turn, has to be integrated with the changing development objectives and strategies of a country.

Linkages of HRD programs to other HR programs and policies: Linkage of HRD to other HR programs (placement, promotions, salary, other incentives, etc.) also plays a decisive role in the effectiveness of HRD (e.g., Berman et al., 2012; ILO, 1998; Tessema et al., 2012). This is because the above linkages greatly affect the motivation of trainees, which subsequently influences the impact of the HRD programs. The ILO (1998: 9) also underscores that before any investment in HRD can be made, there must be an assumption that career structures have been designed on the basis of reliable, objective and established criteria.

Capacity of a government to finance HRD programs: The adequacy and reliability of financial resources is one of the key factors for success of HRD (Blanchard & Thacker, 2013; Pfeffer, 1994). An important factor influencing HRD is its financing and funding. There are varying practices and the proportion of funds allocated by government for training purposes differs widely.

Commitment of policy makers and senior public servants to HRD: There is no doubt that, like all national development programs and projects, the success of HRD initiatives is contingent on the active support of both policy makers and senior public servants (ILO, 1998; Kiggundu, 1989; Stephen, 2004, Tessema et al., 2012). A commitment on the part of both political and bureaucratic leadership is an important requirement of successful implementation of HRD programs. Policy makers and senior public servants should themselves be convinced of the utility of HRD.

Conduciveness of the working condition (transfer of training to work place): If HRD is to have an impact, there should be a conducive working condition where trainees are able to apply what they have learned (Berman et al., 2012; Grindle, 1997; Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2006). Senior managers have to encourage trainees to practice what they have learned by creating a favourable work environment. If senior managers do not provide opportunities for the trainees to apply newly acquired knowledge and skills, the benefits from an effective HRD program will be quickly lost. Sharma (1994) argued that one of the important shortcomings in many training programs is a lack of incorporation of the training results in actual work operation. This is an important deficiency that should not be overlooked.

Continuity of monitoring and evaluation of HRD programs: It is believed that if there is no effort to monitor and evaluate the effectiveness of an HRD program, the function may in reality mean wastage of time and money. HRD may, then, do greater harm to an organization. The supposed panacea may turn out to be a scapegoat. It is, therefore, essential to see that an HRD ensures its continuity by providing the returns that are greater than the costs incurred in its operation (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2006). Unless responsibility is allocated to monitoring and it is clear what is to be monitored, problems may go undetected and the effectiveness of the activities and programs will be diminished. Hence, an HRD plans at all levels (individual, institutional, and national) should include at the outset information about how monitoring and evaluation will take place (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Blanchard & Thacker, 2013).

# Sustainable Management Practice - Interdisciplinary Perspective

## 2. Performance Management

Performance management can be described as a process by which organizations set goals, determine standards, assign and evaluate work, and distribute rewards (Varma et al., 2008). In effect, it is used to improve organizational, team and individual performance and development, including activities designed to ensure that goals are consistently being met in an effective and efficient manner] is an on-going activity relating to all scenarios where people meet for the purpose of attaining objectives. Whether it is your favourite sports team, a 'blue chip' corporation, a community\voluntary\religious association or a Government-funded operation, the management of performance, whether formally or informally, is both on-going and essential to the attainment of their goals.

Performance management, for our purposes, involving the assessment and development of people at work, has emerged as one of the most important features of today's effective organizations. In an increasingly competitive work environment, organizations need to get the best out of their human resources if they are to survive and prosper. The failure of so many organizations to do just that raises serious and sensitive questions about general management competence and the absence, or faulty operation, of performance management and appraisal type systems. Accordingly, students of HRM should be fully aware of the practice, potential, pitfalls and prescriptions in respect of performance management and appraisal type systems.

The term 'performance management', like many HRM innovations, is a U.S. import that has been a major driver in the increased use of performance appraisal and management type practices across Europe (I.D.S., 2007). The available data indicates that 90 per cent of U.K. organizations formally assess managers via a performance management system, compared with 88 per cent in Greece and Sweden, 84 per cent in Ireland and 81 per cent in Germany (Brewster et al., 2007; McMahan, 2009). Indeed it has been established that – as with many other H.R. measures, across Europe performance management very much follows the example of U.S. companies (Barzantny & Festing, 2008). The origins of strategic performance management can be traced to the concept and practice of management-by-objectives: A management system in which the objectives of the organization are explicitly stated, so that management and employees understand their overall or ultimate purpose and the specific implications for their role in the organization, whereby an employee's objectives are derived or cascaded down from the organization's overarching goals (Raia, 1974; Price, 2004). In effect then, a key feature of 'performance management' is its integration of the organization via a system of work targets for individual employees, with objective setting and formal appraisal at the heart of the process (Redman and Wilkinson, 2009). Accordingly, we may conclude that performance management is a relatively new term for an established managerial activity (i.e. management-by-objectives and performance appraisal).

Though the terms 'performance management' and 'performance appraisal' are frequently used interchangeably, it can be argued that 'performance management' is more expansive than simply 'performance appraisal'. That is, the former tends to be associated with developments in areas such as coaching, 360 degree feedback, competency-based appraisal, performance pay and (more recently) employee engagement (Mone & London, 2009). Performance management also emphasizes the ongoing nature of the staff management process. Related to this Torrington et al. (2008) point out that 'performance management' is increasingly seen as the way to manage employee performance, and has incorporated the appraisal\review process.

On this theme Armstrong (2009:9) suggests that performance management is a 'systematic process' for improving organizational performance, via the development of the performance of individuals and teams. That is, within an agreed framework of planned goals, standards and competency requirements it is a means of getting better results, as one manages performance in a manner which focuses on future performance planning and improvement. This process entails the provision of feedback and the assessment of an employee's progress and achievements, so that action plans can be prepared.

## 3. Career Development

Upton et al. (2003) examined 30 different definitions of career development that covered 48 dependent variables. These variables ranged from individual outcomes, e.g. achieved career objectives and development of a self-concept to organizational and societal outcomes, e.g. increased organizational performance and aligned organizational talent with individual career needs. One of the definitions of

## Sustainable Management Practice - Interdisciplinary Perspective

career development listed by Upton et al. (2003) is the definition by Boudreaux (2001). She described career development in terms of fit between organizational and individual goals, noting that “Career development focuses on the alignment of individual subjective career aspects and the more objective career aspects of the organization in order to achieve the best fit between individual and organizational needs as well as personal characteristics and career roles”. This definition of career development will be used in this article because the focus of this definition is on both the individual and the organization. Many of the definitions described by Upton et al. (2003) were more geared to the self-development of an individual, but missed the organizational perspective. Since performance improvement on both the organizational and individual level is central to HRD, Boudreaux’s (2001) definition seemed an appropriate definition for career development within the context of HRD.

Super (1957) defined career development as a lifelong, continuous process of developing and implementing a self concept, testing it against reality, with satisfaction to self and benefit to society. Peterson (1984) defined career development intervention as a learning process in which generic competency skills are mastered and applied to making career decisions, executing them, and achieving satisfaction with jobs and life in general (Egan et al., 2006). In the late 1980s, many of the ideas introduced by the career development pioneers were incorporated into the National Career Development Guidelines, and define career development as a lifelong process of learning about ourselves in relation to the world of work which reflects professional consensus in three main areas: (1) Student and adult competencies and indicators for individual growth and self-knowledge, educational and occupational exploration, and career planning. (2) Organizational capabilities to support competency-based career development programs: and (3) Personnel with the knowledge and skills necessary to deliver these programs effectively (National Career Development Association).

Simonsen (1994) defined Career development as an ongoing process of planning, action toward personal work and life goals, development means; growth, continuous acquisition and application of one’s skills, it is the outcome of the individual’s career planning and the organization’s provision of support and opportunities, ideally a collaborative process. Cummings & Worley (2005) emphasized that career development helps individuals achieve their career objectives, mainly consists of the person's career planning and organizational practices that help employees implement those plans. The practices include; skill training, performance feedback and coaching, planned job rotation, mentoring and continuous education (Egan et al., 2006). As a collaborative effort, career development is process, reinforcing its dual nature from both individuals and organizations to create a partnership that enhances employees’ knowledge, skills, competencies, and attitudes required for their current and future job assignments. It is a quintessential development activity because enhanced individual performance contributes to the success of the organization (Gilley et al., 2002, McDonald & Hite, 2005).

Career development has impressive impact and mutual benefit for both the individual and the organization; in the changing work environment, for organization survival it is relying on its human capital and it strives to better use and development of talent, hence investing in their career development. The outcomes of this are; improved efficiency, profitability, corporate growth, and maybe even survival. Employees involved in significant career development programs are likely to show increased job satisfaction and company loyalty, which translates to reduced employee turnover for firms. Accordingly, it is translated to increased customer satisfaction and firm productivity (Selmer, 1999; Jackson and Sirianni, 2009). It has been found that in financial services organizations like banks and investment entities; high employee turnover subconsciously causes customers to doubt if their investment are safe when new people are constantly change, every new face behind the teller line is a new face for customers to get to know and trust (Brox, 2007, Jackson and Sirianni, 2009).

Employers no longer able to guarantee lifelong continuity of employment or upward career progression increasingly look to employee development initiatives to retain and motivate staff. Less explicit mention is now made of career development; more is made of personal development, often with the aim of increasing employee achievement and commitment to the business goals. The advantages to the individual are obvious – a greater sense of fulfillment, often, and increased job satisfaction but, in addition, a higher degree of “marketability” both within the organization and the external labour market (Ball, 1998). For the individual employee, career planning and development provides insight and

## Sustainable Management Practice - Interdisciplinary Perspective

direction and constitutes a means for handling ambiguous role requirements and organizational demands, identifying career opportunities, lessening stress in connection with career adjustment and the empowerment opportunities including coaching and training enables the employees to handle the stress and responsibilities, while also improving their job performance. Further development builds a confidence of the ability to perform a wide range of tasks and empower the employees through shifting decision-making authority down through the organizational hierarchy, allowing lower level employees the opportunity to gain additional responsibilities in order to perform their jobs more effectively and solve work and customers problems and handling service failures (Selmer 1999; Jackson Jr. & Sirianni, 2009). Through career management, self-satisfaction towards work and make work more meaningful and life nicer and be more orientated towards the future. Once the physical requests of the employees in the power enterprises are met, the career management then can satisfy their growing spiritual demands to improve their satisfaction towards work and life (Ma & Ma, 2006).

Career development interventions effectively ease occupational choice and enhance work adjustment by helping individuals to gain self-knowledge about where they can be satisfactory and satisfied. As today's economy requires the flexibility to move repeatedly into newly configured jobs, the interventions help job changers to learn which jobs are easiest for them to move into and the specific skills needed to acquire in order to ease smooth job transitions.

### Approaches in Career Development

#### a. Organizational Approach

The Traditional notion of a career In the past clear differences were made between manual workers and shop-floor workers who were perceived to have a job but not a career; and management and professional trainees, often graduates, who had access to specialist career-related training and fast-track progression routes. Much of career development was linked to processes designed to secure promotion for a select few through managerial grades. It was assumed that so long as the selected elite wanted to stay, there would be a career for them. Walton (1999) mentioned that traditionally, many organizations had well-established career progression routes for those seen as having potential, predicted on continuing lifelong service within the organization. Much of the traditional approach to career planning also seems to be predicated on the assumption that one works in a large organization. It is that context that one can identify predetermined career routes or career paths. It also seems predicated on the notion that there are job hierarchies and categories which allow for skill progression and development opportunities. A number of distinctive features have been associated with the traditional approach to career development (Walton, 1999).

Super (1957) initiated the traditional career concept in which the career progress is a linear and upward across one or two firms with a focus on extrinsic rewards and organizational career management. Age, organizational or workforce service time are often used as a proxy for career stage, in addition to the psychological measures of career stages, such as Super's copyrighted career concerns inventory or career scenarios describing different career stages, however, nowadays traditional careerists typically exhibit more mobility between organizations. The individuals following traditional career paths had infrequent job or firm changes and most had worked for their organization for 10 or more years. The organization had some policies that supported a traditional career path, including mechanisms for rewarding long tenure (e.g., 3 months of paid leave after 10 years of continuous service) (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009).

The traditional view of organizational career development was grounded in the mindset of making a career within an organization and of predictable, stable jobs. Career planning and management typically meant plotting a course within an organizational system that would yield promotions or increases in responsibility as expertise grew and following that course. The mechanisms to accomplish career goals were often regularly scheduled training programs, job rotation, and perhaps some form of informal mentoring (McDonald & Hite, 2005).

#### (b). Tournament notion of a career

Rosenbaum (1984) points out that a number of organizations seem to practice a 'tournament' model of career development for people who seek management progression as their career anchors, in which early success in the tournament is seen as a predictor of later progress. In effect, an employee needs to

## Sustainable Management Practice - Interdisciplinary Perspective

win in the early stages in order to remain in the game. There follows a number of years of training, job rotation and general socialization until individuals reach their early thirties. Then, those individuals deemed to have high potential are promoted more quickly than the rest of their peers, who may be encouraged to leave (Walton, 1999).

The notion of a tournament is a powerful metaphor even if it is not associated with such a specifically defined approach. Where promotion opportunities are few as for example in delayed and downsized organizations-competition can become intense as people jockey for position. This assumes, of course, that vertical progression and hierarchical position are still seen as goals to be aimed for, an assumption embedded in the traditional notion of a career (Walton, 1999).

### **c. Individual approach -Contemporary career**

Beginning in the mid-1990s, an increasing focus was placed on careers outside of organizations (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). As things changed; as companies downsized, right sized, and reconfigured, employees that once had pinned their career plans on advancement within a particular organization began to realize the future of their careers depended on their own initiative, and career planning took on a new dimension. Accordingly a new career lexicon appeared, redefining well-used terms like career and employment to encompass a broad-based view (McDonald & Hite 2005). So career became not just a way to define “hierarchical progression” but a reference to all work experiences, and employment expanded to include not just one’s place and type of occupation but also a person’s employability over time (Arthur & Rousseau 1996, McDonald & Hite, 2005).

During this time, the nature of work has changed as well, there are three major shifts in the transition from organization-based to boundaryless careers; one addresses rewards, noting the change from interest in high salaries and job status to goals defined by personal interests and work-life balance, the second notes a transition from development of organization-specific skills to acquiring transferable skills that can move with the individual as she or he transitions from one system to another, and the third tracks a change from loyalty to one’s organization to increased professional commitment that yields the potential for a broad based portable network (Forret & Sullivan, 2002, McDonald & Hite, 2005).

### **Dimensions Career Development**

#### **Protean Career**

Halls (1996b) developed protean career theory which emphasizes that career development is the responsibility of individual. Based on the metaphor of the Greek god Proteus, who could change his shape at will, the protean careerist is able to rearrange and repack his or her knowledge, skills, and abilities to meet the demands of a changing workplace as well as his or her need for self-fulfillment. The individual, not the organization, is in control of his or her career management and development (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). The protean career is an orientation on career development in which the individual takes control regarding his career management, development and decisions rather than the employer. In a protean career the core values for determining success are high level of freedom, autonomy and growth, and the main success criteria are subjective which is psychological success, versus objective that includes both; position and salary (Lopes, 2006).

Protean career captured the individual nature of career progress, driven by the person and evolutionary in nature; rather than fostered by and bound to an organization (Hall’s 1996, McDonald & Hite, 2005).It focuses on the subjective perspective of the individual career actor and it envisages that the individual will drive his or her career and will define goals that encompass the whole life space (Carbery & Garavan, 2007). Individuals who hold protean career attitudes are intent upon using their own values (versus organizational values for example) to guide their career (“values-driven”) and take an independent role in managing their vocational behavior (self-directed). An individual who did not hold protean attitudes would be more likely to “borrow” external standards, as opposed to internally developed ones, and be more likely to seek external direction and assistance in behavioral career management as opposed to being more proactive and independent. While most protean individuals might in fact exhibit more mobility and a learning orientation, mobility and learning may be correlated of a protean career, but not necessary components of it (Briscoe et al., 2005). Briscoe and Hall (2006) reconceptualized the protean career concept by defining its two dimensions: (1) values driven in the

## Sustainable Management Practice - Interdisciplinary Perspective

sense that the person's internal values provide the guidance and measure of success for the individual's career; and (2) self-directed in personal career management having the ability to be adaptive in terms of performance and learning demands. Based on different combinations of these two dimensions, they suggested four primary career categories: dependent (low values driven, low self-direction), rigid (high values driven, low self-direction), reactive (low values driven, high self-direction), and protean or transformational (high values driven, high self-direction) (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009).

### **Boundaryless Career**

Boundaryless career is defined as career opportunities beyond the boundary of a single employer; an individual is independent rather than dependent on a traditional organizational career arrangement. Arthur and Rousseau (1996) offered six different meanings, discussing boundaryless careers like: (a) the stereotypical Silicon Valley career, in which individuals move across the boundaries of separate employers; (b) those of academics or carpenters, that draw validation and marketability from outside the present employer; (c) those of real estate agents, sustained by external networks or information; (d) those that break traditional organizational assumptions about hierarchy and career advancement; (e) those in which the individual rejects existing career opportunities for personal or family reasons; and (f) those based on the interpretation of the career actor, who may perceive a boundaryless future regardless of structural constraints (Sullivan & Baruch 2009).

Like the protean career, the principal framework of the boundaryless career requires individuals to shed the idea that the employer is solely responsible for career development (Lopes, 2006). The boundaryless career envisages autonomy in a psychological sense to move across boundaries and between jobs, functions, and skill sets, the concept places particular emphasis on the perception of the capacity to make successful transitions (Carbery & Garavan, 2007). Whereas the traditional career was defined as professional advancement within one or two firms, a boundaryless career is defined as a sequence of job opportunities that go beyond the boundaries of a single employment setting (DeFillippi & Aruthur, 1996, Sullivan, 1999).

The strategic global alliance requires adopting the concept of boundaryless organizations which consequently need the move to more fluid organizational structures; this has supported the move toward boundaryless careers as well. Schein (1996) has made a distinction between internal versus external careers; internal is where one is going in one's work life, whereas external refers to vertical mobility within the organizational hierarchy (Tung, 2002). Sullivan and Arthur (2006) suggested a definition of a boundaryless career as one that involves characterized by varying levels physical and/or psychological career mobility. They presented boundaryless careers by the model with physical mobility along the horizontal continuum and psychological mobility along the vertical continuum. According to the model, having a boundaryless career is not an either or proposition, rather, a boundaryless career can be characterized by the degree of mobility exhibited by the career actor along both the physical and psychological continua. Both physical and psychological mobility, and the interdependence between them, can thereby be recognized and subsequently measured.

The model focus on four pure types of careers; careers exhibit low levels of both physical and psychological mobility, careers have high levels of physical mobility but low levels of psychological mobility, careers have low levels of physical mobility but high levels of psychological mobility, and careers in this quadrant exhibit both psychological and physical mobility. While a boundaryless career attitude is primarily psychological, Arthur and Rosseau's (1996) emphasis upon careers which unfold beyond a single employment setting has frequently been interpreted as involving interfirm, physical employment mobility (Briscoe, Hall & DeMuth, 2005). Related to the notion of psychological boundarylessness, career actors will vary in the attitude that they hold toward initiating and pursuing work-related relationships across organizational boundaries. This does not necessarily imply physical, nor employment mobility. Thus a person with a decidedly high boundaryless attitude toward working relationships across organizational boundaries is comfortable, even enthusiastic about creating and sustaining active relationships beyond organizational boundaries. As such, a second important boundaryless career attitude is the inclination toward physically crossing organizational boundaries in employment mobility. Someone high in such an organizational mobility attitude would be comfortable with, or even prefer a career that played out across several employers (Briscoe, Hall & DeMuth, 2005).

# Sustainable Management Practice - Interdisciplinary Perspective

## **Post Corporate Career**

Peiperl and Baruch (1997) offered the Post corporate career concept as a means of integrating ideas from the protean and boundaryless concepts, Postcorporate career is the one that takes place outside large organizations, whereby individuals enact a multitude of alternative career options, including employment with smaller, more agile firms; self-employment; working in small project teams; or other ad hoc arrangements. Post corporate careerists are self-directed, take responsibility for their own career management, perceive a variety of career options, and are willing to cross multiple boundaries to fulfill their needs for intrinsic job satisfaction as well as financial rewards. Post corporate careerists have a permanent career rather than a permanent job as they voluntarily or involuntarily leave large organizations, because they are unable or unwilling to pursue corporate careers due to the uncertainty that is inherent in them. They work in a variety of alternative employment arrangements, including working as independent contractors and temporary workers, or working for a small firm that provides professional services to large organizations (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009).

## **The Balanced Approach**

A more appropriate and balanced perspective would focus on the relationship between the individual and the organization in managing careers, organizations look for the human capital that will provide them with competitive advantage (Baruch, 2006). Herriot and Pemberton's (1996) model focuses on matching individual and organizational needs and contributions for career management. According to Wanous' (1992) matching model, people choose organizations that match how they see their own career needs fulfilled, which is confirmed by Sullivan et.al (1998) where people build their career relating to their values. The basic underlying level of values—the principles, morals, culture—forms the roots from which the other levels emerge. The second level—approaches and assumptions—translates those values into the third level, that of action: behavior and practice. The values convey the aspiration (for individuals) and strategy (for organizations) into the attitudes (for individuals) and policies (for organizations). The final outcome is action, behavior for people, and managerial practices for organizations. This is an active system, always in a perpetual motion, since it needs to respond to both external pressures from the environment, and internal requirements of the organization and its people (Baruch, 2006).

At the organizational level, the values of the organization may indicate whether the firm takes a traditional or contemporary approach to careers. For example, when the organization holds a traditional career developmental mentality, they may apply certain practices (e.g. traditional career paths and traditional career development activities) while if holding contemporary career developmental mentality, the organization would aim to gain employability for employees, introduce outsourcing, secondments, etc.,. The change in career systems does not mean that organizations need to abandon their role in managing careers. Instead, the organization has a new significant role being supportive, enabler, and developer of its human assets. Organizations need to move away from the traditional 'command and control' approach, and become 'supportive and developmental'. The organization is the enabler of successful career, not the commander who moves the chess pieces across the board) (Baruch, 2006). If employees need to engage in self-directed career development on an ongoing or continual basis to prevent obsolescence and remain attractive to employers then a good understanding of the motivation process involved in this development would help organizations encourage it (Fossumet al 1986, cited in Garofano & Salas, 2005).

The interdependence of employers and employees in the career development process have been restated, noting that individual careers are influenced by organizational structures and that employer success depends in part on linking organizational goals with individual aspirations. Human resources can best reenter the field by relinquishing the outdated focus on controlling what career development is and how it is provided and adopting a broader perspective. This means venturing into uncertain territory, becoming more flexible while maintaining a balance between the needs of the organization and those of the individual employee (Doyle, 2000, cited in McDonald & Hite, 2005).

Historically, career development practice stems from vocational guidance. The shift from an agricultural economy to an industrial system increased the need for people to identify and access emerging jobs. Career development in that time focused on helping the individual choose their profession. It was not until the Twentieth-century that career development also started to include the

## Sustainable Management Practice - Interdisciplinary Perspective

effectiveness of career development interventions across a wide range of organizational settings and populations (Herr, 2001). Therefore, the term career development has come to describe two sets of theories, or conceptual domains. The first set of theories focuses on the development of career behavior across the life span and concentrates on matching individuals to jobs and providing occupational information. This approach is also called career counseling or career planning. The second set of theories, sometimes called organizational career development or career management, explains how career behavior is changed by certain (organizational) interventions. Career management is an organizational level approach that addresses human resource needs of the organization and connects these with individual career plans and development needs (ACES, 2000; Boudreaux, 2001; Gutteridge et al., 1993; Hall, 1996; Herr, 2001). Career development, as used in this article, will focus on organizational career development. Career planning theories focusing on choosing a first career for high school or college students are not as relevant to HRD since this target group traditionally falls outside the boundaries of HRD. On the other hand, theories with regard to adult development are especially relevant to HRD because these give scholars and practitioners insight in the different career stages through which adults progress (Swanson & Holton, 2001). Organizational career development theories should focus the interaction between individual and organization, and can also be regarded as change theories on an individual level, which make them central to HRD (Swanson & Holton, 2001).

### **Work Environment and Conditions**

Green HRM integrates environment-friendly HR initiatives and practices for sustainable use of resources that ensuing in more efficiency, reduced amount of wastage, enhanced job allied attitude (Margaretha & Saragih, 2013). Marhatta and Adhikari (2013) and Zoogah (2011) defined green HRM is the exercise of HRM policies and practices for sustainable utilisation of resources within business organizations and usually promotes the source of environmentalism. According to Opatha and Arulrajah (2014), green HRM is defined as the process of making green employee with the use of green human resource policy and practices, and this is for the benefit of individual, society, community, and for the whole planet. The HRM function acts as driver of sustainability by insertion or implicating its green HRM policies and practices with the objective of EPF (Cherian & Jacob, 2012; Mandip, 2012). Now, the concept of green HRM is promoting greater concern among corporate, private sector/public sector, which attempt lightens role of green HRM activities in strengthening and possibly driving EPF. Such a green practices commitment will help to reduce the environmental degradation activities and procure the environment for our existing and future generation (Jackson et al., 2011). To promote the effective green HRM in an organization, green training and development (GTD), energy efficient workspace (EEW) and rewards and recognition are considered to be the most important factors (Govindarajulu & Daily, 2004). In this study, these three factors represent green HRM as whole and further we check the impact of green HRM on EPF through employee work-life.

Initially, the main purpose of training is to educate employees about regulatory and technical standards, and develop new skill to meet such standards. As green training becomes more popular among the firms, firms are probable to adopt different training approaches, fabricate set of circumstances for research that appraise the summons and success of variety of approaches. The study by Daily et al. (2008) examined that to manage the effective EPF, it is crucial to promote green training in an organization, as training is to educate and increase awareness among the employees about various issues related to the environment and develops new skill to meet such issues. It is clearly identified that effective green training mediates the effective EPF (Sarkis et al., 2010). Jabbour et al. (2010) identify the role of HRM in promoting the green practices in an organization. They identify the important human dimensions such as training and employee motivation, which play a vital role in the implementation of green practices by the employee.

Fernandez et al. (2003) recognized that effective green practices implementation requires environmental awareness and knowledge of process among the individual employee and this will be done by integrating green practices with training and development. They identify the positive relation between the level of employee green training and EPF. Examples of green training are as follows: In Germany, Siemens provide green training once in a day during working hour to all of their employees to specially focus on those who involve in hazardous and dangerous substance. Such training is a part of an in-house training program and had result in 5,000 suggestions from the firm employee on novel initiative (North

## Sustainable Management Practice - Interdisciplinary Perspective

& Daig, 1996). Imperial Chemical Industries UK organised, integrated pollution control training session for all of their operators along with one day introductory green training with firm managers and supervisors. Rolls-Royce, Albion Group and Bristol-Myers Squibb provide environmental training to their new or existing employees, another example of firm training, including a Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD)/Klynveld Peat Marwick Goerdeler (KPMG) survey report, 42% of UK companies is providing green training to their employees to improve EPF and to decrease the cause of environmental degradation (Phillips, 2007). So, we identified that green training is one of the most important factors of green HRM which is further responsible to improve the EPF.

Very few studies are focused on the benefits of a green workplace to individual EPF, individual health and satisfaction (Rashid & Zimring, 2008; Kamaruzzaman et al., 2011; Zhang & Altan, 2011 & Rashid et al., 2012; Elsarrag et al., 2016). In other relevant study, it is observed how occupiers, whether it is management or employees, recognize and appraise the function of green workplace environments, and consequently evaluate the efficacy of a green workplace environment (Gou et al., 2013; Hui et al., 2015). Green workplace offers better psychological profit, better health and better job satisfaction (Kato et al., 2009; Kuziemko, 2015; Forsythe and Wilkinson, 2015; Gou, 2016). Such initiatives might engross emergent of new power resources to fulfil the need of society, developing new innovative ideas and strategies that will help in EPF. Other researchers such as Green Building Council Australia (GBCA) (2013), Gou et al. (2013) and Newsham et al. (2013) concluded that the employee was more satisfied with workplace design (Byrd & Rasheed, 2016). The green workplace design creates a high level of satisfaction, positive attitude and desire in the occupants towards the environment (Monfared & Sharples, 2011; Deuble & John, 2012; Daniel et al., 2014; Wu, 2015).

Green workplace may be the most noticeable and positive feature of an organization, green workplace may also drive a message of brand excellence, strength, authority, energy and pleasure to all including employees. A number of studies show that employees gave better results, outcomes and productivity who are satisfied with their workplace (Leather et al., 2003; Lee and Brand, 2005; Frontczak et al., 2012; Kim & de Dear, 2013; Schiavon & Altomonte, 2014; Byrd & Rasheed, 2016; Gou, 2016). Carlopio (1996) identified that employee workplace satisfaction is positively related to the employee job satisfaction and indirectly related to organisation EPF. Therefore, we consider green workplace as an important factor of green HRM, and there is a requirement to recognize the connection between the energy efficient workplace and EPF.

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