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PRIORITISING PEOPLE

— EXPLORING APPROACHES TO
ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR —

Editors

**Sharmini Abdullah
Umami Naiemah Sarah
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Sharifah Anis Zarith Syed Dziauddin**

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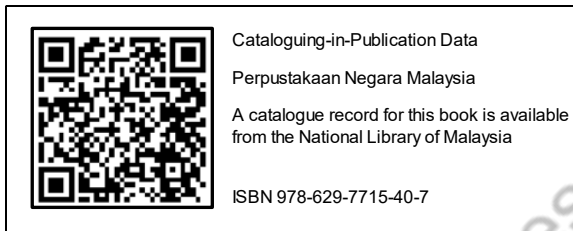
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PREFACE

In today's dynamic business landscape, organisations must continually adapt to technological innovations and evolving societal expectations. The emergence of Industry 4.0 and Society 5.0 marks a transformative era reshaping how businesses operate, connect and compete. Amidst these shifts, one enduring principle remains clear: the importance of prioritising people.

Prioritising People: Exploring Approaches to Organisational Behaviour responds to the growing need for a deeper understanding of human behaviour within organisational contexts. This volume brings together a wide range of perspectives from empirical studies and theoretical discussions to practical case analyses to explore what drives behaviour in contemporary workplaces. Key themes include employee engagement, leadership, organisational dynamics, motivation and well-being.

Each chapter presents unique insights into the complex realities of organisational life, highlighting strategies that foster positive work cultures and sustainable performance. The content is relevant not only to academic readers but also to business leaders, human resource professionals and policy practitioners.

We hope this book will serve as a valuable reference or supplementary text not only for undergraduate and postgraduate students completing their final-year projects but also for professionals, supervisors and leaders working in the private sector within this field. It offers both academic depth and practical application, making it suitable for coursework, capstone projects and organisational development initiatives.

We hope the insights shared in this book inspire and guide readers in navigating the complexities of human behaviour in modern organisations.

Editors

Sharmini Abdullah

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INTRODUCTION

This book comprises eight self-contained chapters, each of which can be read independently based on the reader's interests. Authored by various academicians, researchers and experts from the private sector who are actively engaged in this field, the chapters highlight the complexities of human behaviour in organisational settings. The chapters are organised into three main categories, each exploring key themes in organisational behaviour research and offering insights into the dynamics of modern workplaces. The main objective of this book is to present a comprehensive understanding of how human behaviour influences and is influenced by organisational contexts. This book explores key themes in organisational behaviour research, offering insights into the dynamics of modern workplaces. Divided into three main categories, it examines the intersection of employee behaviour, organisational dynamics and employee well-being and engagement.

Chapter 1 explores the integration of Innovative Work Behaviour (IWB) into performance measurement frameworks in response to the demands of the Industrial Revolution 4.0 and Society 5.0. A systematic review employing PRISMA methodology highlights the significance of IWB as a key performance indicator. The findings advocate for the inclusion of IWB in performance measurement to foster an innovative culture and enhance organisational adaptability.

Chapter 2 focuses on the impact of job insecurity on Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB), investigating the mediating role of organisational identification. While job insecurity correlates with CWB, organisational identification did not mediate this relationship. The research provides insights into managing CWB amid the challenges of job insecurity during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Chapter 3 presents a study conducted in an accounting firm and examines the effect of gratitude on Service-Oriented Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (SOCB). A quantitative correlational approach reveals a significant positive effect of gratitude on SOCB, emphasising the importance of fostering a culture of gratitude in organisations to enhance service quality.

Chapter 4 examines organisational restructuring and increased job demands due to the COVID-19 pandemic. This study investigates the moderating role of self-efficacy on the relationship between job demands and

work engagement. While job demands negatively impact work engagement, self-efficacy did not significantly moderate this relationship, suggesting implications for future research on work engagement and personal resources.

Chapter 5 analyses Fast-Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) employees, examining the impact of Work-Life Balance (WLB) on their intention to leave. The study identifies three dimensions of WLB and their effects on employees' intention to leave, emphasising the importance of fostering WLB to enhance employee retention in the FMCG sector.

Chapter 6 delves into the challenges faced by the tourism industry amid the COVID-19 pandemic. This study explores the effect of Person–Environment Fit (P–E Fit) on Work Engagement (WE). The findings reveal a notable positive correlation between P–E Fit and WE, with Person–Group Fit demonstrating the most significant influence. This study highlights the crucial role of P–E Fit in fostering employee engagement within the tourism sector.

Chapter 7 provides a descriptive analysis of Work Engagement (WE) among desk-bound employees, examining its dimensions and correlates. Findings reveal high levels of overall WE, with married and contract employees exhibiting significantly higher WE. The study offers insights for management to enhance WE among desk-bound employees, which is crucial for organisational success.

Chapter 8 discusses women's political communication strategies in Indonesia. This study examines the case of Khofifah Indar Parawansa's successful gubernatorial election campaign in East Java Province. Through qualitative analysis, it highlights the role of recruiting charismatic clerics from the Islamic mass organisation Nahdlatul Ulama (NU) in her victory and offers recommendations for empowering women in politics.

We hope this book will serve as a valuable reference or supplementary text for undergraduate and postgraduate students, aiding them in completing their final-year projects. Additionally, it caters to business professionals, practitioners and industries, providing readers with valuable insights and research findings crucial for fostering effective and dynamic organisational practices. We sincerely hope you enjoy this book as much as we enjoyed putting it together.

1

INTEGRATING INNOVATIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR INTO PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT

Adohari , P. Tommy. Y. S. Suyasa and Fausta Ari Barata

Facing the Industrial Revolution 4.0 and Society 5.0, the industrial organizations are required to be able to keep up with technological developments and innovate to survive and compete. Scott and Bruce (1994) refer to the term innovation at the individual level as individual innovative behaviour, which is further translated as Innovative Work Behaviour (IWB). IWB is a work behaviour that aims to generate, introduce and implement new things that are useful for the company (De Jong & Kemp, 2003). Companies that are skilled at innovating and successfully exploiting new ideas will gain a competitive advantage in a changing world market and those who are not skilled will be left behind. Innovative organisations will also more easily respond to environmental challenges faster and better than less innovative organisations (Damanpour & Gopalakrishnan, 1998). Innovation makes organisations able to respond to challenges and survive so that it is easier to thrive (Carmeli *et al.*, 2006). Therefore, many organisations are starting to consider innovation as one of the visions and missions to be achieved or competencies that their employees must fulfil.

Currently, IWB has not been included as one of the dimensions of performance measurement. In several studies (Koopmans *et al.*, 2014; Ramos-Villagrasa *et al.*, 2019), performance measurement uses the Individual Work Performance (IWP) Measurement Tool (Koopmans *et al.*, 2013). The IWP Measuring Tool consists of three dimensions, namely task performance, contextual performance and Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB). Task performance (key skill) is employee behaviour shown by completing work according to the plan, on time and optimally. Contextual performance (supporting ability) is positive behaviour that can support the work climate in the organisational environment. Meanwhile, CWB (things that hinder performance) are intentional or unintentional actions by employees that harm the organisation or shareholders (Koopmans *et al.*, 2013). Perhaps, in the IWP measurement tool (Koopmans *et al.*, 2013), IWB has not been included because there is still a lack of reviews of studies linking performance with IWB.

Innovative job performance relates to the generation, promotion and realisation of new ideas in work roles, workgroups or organisations to facilitate core tasks (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004). Innovative employees tend to seek and use the information to develop new ideas regarding tasks. Innovativeness is needed when the organisational world faces the era of the Industrial Revolution 4.0 and Society 5.0 in order to survive and compete competitively. Therefore, the authors propose that IWB is used as an aspect of performance appraisal in addition to task performance (main skill), contextual performance (supporting ability) and CWB (things that hinder performance). To strengthen the proposed proposal, the author conducted a literature study using the systematic review method. Koopmans (2011) uses this method to compile the dimensions of performance measurement (task performance, contextual performance and CWB).

Thus, the proposal that IWB can be included as one of the dimensions of performance measurement has theoretical support. This research is expected to contribute to developing performance measurement theory in Industrial/Organisational (I/O) Psychology.

1.1 EXPANDING THE PERFORMANCE IN THE ERA OF INNOVATION

Koopmans defines job performance as a series of behaviours and actions exhibited by employees that align with organizational goals, with emphasis on the behaviours themselves rather than their outcomes. These behaviours are generally within the individual's control, though they can be influenced

by external factors (Koopmans *et al.*, 2014). According to Koopmans, job performance comprises three key dimensions: task performance, contextual performance and Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB). Task performance refers to an employee's ability to effectively and efficiently complete assigned tasks, such as adhering to deadlines and achieving expected outcomes. Contextual performance, by contrast, involves voluntary actions that support the social, organizational and psychological climate, including teamwork, responsibility, creativity, communication, and mentoring new employees. CWB encompasses behaviours that undermine organizational interests, including theft, sabotage, interpersonal conflict, work delays and spreading misinformation (Koopmans *et al.*, 2014).

Innovative Work Behaviour (IWB) is defined as the generation, promotion and implementation of new and valuable ideas, processes, or solutions at the individual, team, or organizational level (Janssen, 2000). Koopmans initially proposed a fourth performance dimension adaptive performance but later incorporated it into contextual performance, arguing that adaptive behaviour reflects a reactive response, while contextual performance tends to be more proactive in nature (Koopmans *et al.*, 2011, 2014). Both contribute to what is termed Extra-Role Behaviour (ERB) actions that support the broader functioning of the organization without being part of formal job descriptions. Recent research suggests a shift in how performance is perceived: behaviours previously categorized as contextual (e.g., responsibility, communication, collaboration) are now often considered integral to task performance, reflecting the evolving demands of modern work environments (Koopmans *et al.*, 2014).

In such dynamic settings, IWB plays an increasingly critical role. Fay *et al.* (2019) assert that IWB is frequently triggered by high job demands, as employees adopt innovative responses to cope with stressors. Similarly, Dorner (2012) found a significant positive relationship between IWB and employee performance. Creativity and innovation have also been recognized as key components of job performance (Cummings & Oldham, 1996; Tierney & Farmer, 2002) and as vital to the long-term success of organizations (Eisenhardt & Tabrizi, 1995; Geroski *et al.*, 1993; Gong *et al.*, 2013; Vila *et al.*, 2014). Consequently, IWB should be recognized not just as a desirable trait but as a crucial dimension of employee performance in an era defined by continuous innovation and change.

1.2 SYSTEMATIC REVIEW OF WORK PERFORMANCE AND INNOVATION

The database to be used is APA PsycINFO. APA PsycINFO is a database established by the American Psychological Association (APA) as a database of scientific journals representing studies in the field of psychology. The study selection process consisted of three stages: identification, screening and inclusion. The study selection process uses the PRISMA Flow Diagram (Page *et al.*, 2020). The author uses the Rayyan application along with Microsoft Excel 2010 version for the identification stage to screening. Then, the author will assess the feasibility of the study manually using Microsoft Excel. The articles used in this study were searched through the APA PsycINFO database with the keywords “Work Performance” in the “Title” category accompanied by the boolean “AND” for the words “Creativity”; “Creative”; “Innovative”; “Innovation,” in the “Keywords” category. ”; and choose the category of “Quantitative” method. The specified inclusion criteria are: (a) using Independent and Dependent Variable Work Performance or Job Performance; (b) use Independent and Dependent Variable Creativity or Creative or Innovative or Innovation; (c) using quantitative methods; (d) there is information r between performance and four variables, namely creativity, creative, innovative or innovation; (e) carried out at the individual level; (f) published in English.

1.3 CORRELATING IWB WITH JOB PERFORMANCE

Based on the search results, five articles match the inclusion criteria. The following is a description of the research process using the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) Flow Diagram. See Figure 1.1.

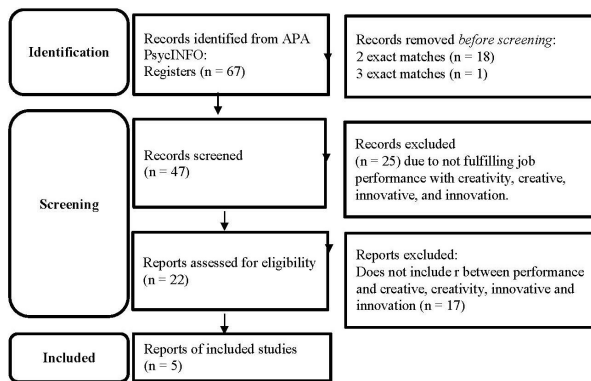


Figure 1.1. Research process using the PRISMA Flow Diagram.

As illustrated in Figure 1.1, a total of five articles were ultimately included in this systematic review. The literature search was conducted using the APA PsycINFO database, yielding 67 initial results based on combinations of the following keywords: *work performance* paired with *creative*, *creativity*, *innovative* and *innovation*. These four search combinations produced 14, 24, 21, and 8 articles respectively. After accounting for duplicate entries specifically, 18 articles that appeared in multiple keyword searches (two keywords), and one article that appeared under three keyword sets the final pool was narrowed to 47 unique articles. From this list, 25 articles were excluded after reviewing their titles and abstracts, as they did not align with the inclusion criteria. A full-text assessment of the remaining 22 articles was then conducted. Of these, 17 were excluded due to methodological limitations or lack of relevance, leaving five studies that met the defined criteria. The five selected studies (Feng *et al.*, 2019; Hao *et al.*, 2017; Pace & Brannick, 2010; Safavi & Karatepe, 2018; Zhang & Huai, 2016) were evaluated in terms of their methodological quality.

However, due to inconsistencies and limitations in research design and measurement tools across the studies, the review did not proceed to a meta-analysis stage and instead remained at the level of a qualitative systematic review. Table 1.1 presents a synthesis of findings from five empirical studies, each highlighting the positive association between Innovative Work Behaviour (IWB) and job performance. A closer examination, however, reveals both shared patterns and nuanced distinctions in how IWB is linked to various dimensions of performance. For instance, Feng *et al.* (2019) report that employees who actively generate new ideas to improve workplace practices tend to fulfil their job responsibilities more effectively. While this finding reinforces the functional value of creativity in task completion, the study relies heavily on self-reported measures, raising concerns about response bias and the objectivity of performance evaluation. Hao *et al.* (2017) suggest that individuals who offer creative solutions are more confident in meeting deadlines and managing their tasks, implying a psychological boost that accompanies innovative thinking.

Yet, the extent to which this perceived confidence translates into measurable performance outcomes remains open to further investigation. Similarly, Pace and Brannick (2010) identify a broad correlation between creative behaviours and overall job performance, but their findings give limited attention to contextual factors such as organisational structure or team dynamics, which may shape or constrain innovative expression. In a more differentiated perspective, Safavi and Karatepe (2018) examine how innovation in routine tasks aligns with extra-role behaviours, such as going

beyond formal duties to satisfy customer needs. This suggests that IWB not only contributes to task performance but also extends to behaviours that enhance the broader organisational climate. Meanwhile, Zhang and Huai (2016) argue that employees who frequently explore novel approaches tend to improve both the quantity and quality of their work output. However, their study stops short of evaluating the long-term sustainability of such gains or how these behaviours vary across different job types. Overall, while the selected studies affirm the relevance of IWB as a predictor of job performance, they also point to important gaps in the literature, particularly concerning methodological consistency, the influence of contextual variables, and the durability of innovation-related outcomes. These observations underscore the need for more comprehensive and longitudinal research to deepen our understanding of the mechanisms that link innovation with performance across diverse organisational settings.

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Table 1.1 Summary of the Five Key Studies on Innovative Work Behaviour (IWB) and Job Performance

No.	Author(s)	Title	Independent Variable (IV)	Moderator	Mediator	Dependent Variable (DV)	Dimension of Performance	Measure Tools	Participants	Industry Type
1	Feng <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Workplace ostracism and job performance: Meaning at work and family support as moderators	Workplace ostracism	Meaning at work, family support	-	Job performance	Quantity and quality of work	Self-report scale	385	Mixed industries
2	Hao <i>et al.</i> (2017)	Why and when empowering leadership has different effects on employee work performance	Empowering leadership	Passion for work, role breadth self-efficacy	-	Work performance	Task performance	Work performance scale developed by authors	324	Manufacturing
3	Pace & Brannick (2010)	Improving prediction of work performance through frame-of-reference consistency: Empirical evidence using openness to experience	Openness to experience	Frame-of-reference consistency	-	Work performance	Overall job performance	Frame-of-reference-based scale	264	Education
4	Safavi & Karatepe (2018)	High-performance work practices and hotel employee outcomes: The mediating role of career adaptability	High-performance work practices	-	Career adaptability	Job outcomes	Creative performance and extra-role performance	Questionnaire from supervisor	313	Four- and Five-Star Hotels
5	Zhang & Huai (2016)	Diverse work groups and employee performance: The role of communication ties	Informational and social category diversity	-	Number of communication ties	Individual performance	Task performance and creative performance	Task performance: 11-item scale (Tsui <i>et al.</i> , 1997); Creative performance: 4-item scale (Tierney <i>et al.</i> , 1999)	327	Technology company

As reflected in Table 1.1, the findings across the five reviewed studies demonstrate a recurring pattern in which Innovative Work Behaviour (IWB) positively influences different aspects of employee performance. The studies collectively support the conclusion that employees who engage in idea generation, problem-solving and novel contributions are more likely to demonstrate both in-role (e.g., task completion, meeting quality standards) and extra-role performance (e.g., going beyond job requirements, contributing to customer satisfaction). These findings provide a compelling justification for considering IWB as an essential predictor and component of employee performance across various organisational contexts. Despite differing in mediators and measurement tools, the studies exhibit a unifying trend the more employees engage in IWB, the higher their performance outcomes. This includes performance metrics such as timeliness, creativity, task execution, customer service and willingness to go the extra mile. The use of standardised scales across diverse industries (e.g., hospitality, technology) enhances the validity of these claims. A summary of the results systematically can be seen in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2 Summary of Innovative Behaviour and Associated Performance Indicators

No.	Author	Innovative Behaviour (IWB) Indicator	Performance Indicator
1	Feng <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Creates new ideas for improvement at work	Completes assigned tasks effectively
2	Hao <i>et al.</i> (2017)	Provides creative solutions and shows confidence to complete tasks	Finishes assignments on time
3	Pace & Brannick (2010)	Shows creativity at work; demonstrates overall performance	Shows overall job performance
4	Safavi & Karatepe (2018)	Completes routine tasks using resourceful/new ideas	Engages in extra-role performance such as customer satisfaction
5	Zhang & Huai (2016)	Seeks new ideas and problem-solving methods at work	Achieves high quantity and quality of work

1.4 TOWARDS A FOURTH DIMENSION OF WORK PERFORMANCE

Table 1.2 presents five empirical studies (Feng *et al.*, 2019; Hao *et al.*, 2017; Pace & Brannick, 2010; Safavi & Karatepe, 2018; Zhang & Huai, 2016) that demonstrate a consistent positive correlation between innovative or creative behaviour and employee job performance. Collectively, these studies

suggest that higher levels of innovative work behaviour (IWB) or creativity are associated with enhanced task performance. Notably, only Feng *et al.* (2019) explicitly treated innovation as a formal performance dimension, while the remaining studies adopted creativity as the key construct. While closely related, creativity generally refers to idea generation, whereas innovation includes both idea generation and implementation (Anderson *et al.*, 2014; Hulsheger *et al.*, 2009). This emerging evidence prompts a critical re-evaluation of existing performance frameworks especially those proposed by Koopmans *et al.* (2011, 2013). While Koopmans' systematic review identified four core dimensions of individual work performance (task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance and counter productive work behaviour), innovation was not distinctly conceptualised as a performance category.

Later refinements in 2013 even merged adaptive performance with contextual performance, recognising both as extra-role behaviours that support the organisational environment. However, these classifications increasingly struggle to account for the evolving nature of work in innovation-driven economies. The blurring of boundaries between task and contextual performance acknowledged by Koopmans *et al.* (2013) further reinforces the need for a more precise categorisation. Several behaviours once regarded as contextual (e.g., communication, collaboration and responsibility) are now recognised as central to task execution. Yet, IWB occupies a unique intersection that is inadequately captured by existing dimensions. It is both in-role and extra-role, contributing directly to task outcomes while simultaneously enhancing organisational adaptability and competitiveness. There are at least two key reasons why IWB should be considered a separate dimension of work performance. First, in today's fast-paced and innovation-centric work environments, organisations increasingly rely on employees' capacity for innovation as a strategic asset. IWB fosters competitive advantage by promoting continuous improvement, problem-solving, and adaptability.

Second, IWB represents a distinct behavioural domain with its own antecedents, mechanisms, and outcomes. It encompasses actions that both fulfil immediate job requirements and go beyond them, such as championing new initiatives or facilitating knowledge transfer functions not adequately addressed by task or contextual performance alone. Despite its growing importance, IWB remains underrepresented in mainstream performance frameworks. Most existing research continues to use creativity rather than innovation as a proxy and the measurement of IWB is often inconsistent across studies. Furthermore, this review was limited to the APA PsycINFO database, potentially omitting valuable insights from interdisciplinary

literature. Nonetheless, the systematic review findings underscore the need to revisit and refine performance measurement models. To advance this agenda, it is proposed that IWB be recognised as a fourth dimension of individual work performance. This would not only reflect current workplace realities but also enable more accurate assessment and development of employee contributions.

Proposed indicators for IWB may include: (a) generating novel solutions to complex problems, (b) seeking and applying new methods or tools, (c) promoting enthusiasm for innovation among colleagues and (d) systematically introducing innovative practices into the work environment. These indicators should be validated through construct development methods such as confirmatory factor analysis or qualitative techniques like focus groups and expert interviews. Incorporating IWB as a distinct performance dimension would complement existing models (Koopmans *et al.*, 2013) and provide a more holistic understanding of employee effectiveness in innovation-driven workplaces.

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2

EXAMINING THE MEDIATION EFFECT OF ORGANISATIONAL IDENTIFICATION ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB INSECURITY AND COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR

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The COVID-19 pandemic has caused the government to impose Large-Scale Social Restrictions starting from March 2020. The imposition of these large-scale social restrictions impacts the decline in the economic condition. The decline in economic conditions experienced by companies led to the occurrence of Termination of Employment in various companies. The Ministry of Manpower said that until July 31, 2020, the number of laid-off workers had reached more than 3.5 million (Setiawan, 2020). The Central Bureau of Statistics noted that the COVID-19 pandemic had a tremendous impact on 29.12 million working-age people. In a virtual press conference, the Head of Central Bureau of Statistics said that there were 2.56 million people who became unemployed (Hendartyo, 2021). The occurrence of layoffs caused employees who were still working to feel the uncertainty of the continuity of the work they currently have. This uncertainty raises concerns regarding the sustainability of job ownership in the future. This concern regarding the continuity of future job ownership is known as job insecurity.

Job insecurity is the level of uncertainty employees feel regarding the continuity of a person's current job position (De Witte *et al.*, 2015). Employees who experience job insecurity feel there is a possibility that they will lose their jobs shortly. They also tend to feel that their skills or even themselves are no longer needed by the company. On the other hand, employees who experience job insecurity will also tend to experience a decrease in work efficiency (Van den Broeck *et al.*, 2014). Job insecurity can affect the employee's performance. This can be seen from the research conducted by (Piccoli *et al.*, 2017; Callea *et al.*, 2017). Piccoli *et al.* (2017) explained that organisational identification positively relates to task performance and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). Regarding the mediating effect, it is known that organisational identification can partially mediate the relation between job insecurity and task performance. In contrast, organisational identification fully mediates the relation between job insecurity and OCB (Piccoli *et al.*, 2017).

Research conducted by Callea *et al.* (2017) also shows similar results, where qualitative job insecurity is negatively related to OCB, job performance and organisational identification. Regarding the mediation effect, it is known that organisational identification fully mediates the relationship between qualitative job insecurity with OCB and job performance. Given the literature, both research conducted by (Callea *et al.*, 2017; Piccoli *et al.*, 2017) is sufficient to explain the correlation between job insecurity on performance, especially the task performance and contextual performance or OCB. Callea *et al.* (2017) and Piccoli *et al.* (2017) also explain the role of organisational identification as a mediator between job insecurity with task performance and contextual performance.

Unfortunately, these authors (Callea *et al.*, 2017; Piccoli *et al.*, 2017) have not explained the relationship between job insecurity and the third dimension of job performance, which is CWB. As stated by Koopmans *et al.* (2011), individual performance consists of three aspects: task performance, contextual performance and CWB. CWB is a contrasting form of behaviour relevant to achieving organisational goals or behaviour detrimental to the organisation (Ramos-Villagrasa, *et al.*, 2019). The example of CWB is not showing up for work, being late, making mistakes intentionally, abusing rights and gossiping about co-workers (Ramos-Villagrasa, *et al.*, 2019). Further, research conducted by Karatepe *et al.* (2020) stated that, job insecurity has a positive correlation with absenteeism at work and the intention to arrive late and leave early. Xiao *et al.* (2018) in his research on quantitative and qualitative job insecurity with deviant behaviour at work, shows that, quantitative job insecurity is negatively related to deviant behaviour directed to the organisation or CWB-O.

While quantitative job insecurity is positively related to deviant behaviour directed to others or interpersonal deviance (CWB-I). On the other hand, qualitative job insecurity has a positive correlation with CWB-O and CWB-I. In addition to several previous studies discussing the relation between job insecurity and CWB (CWB-O, CWB-I) and the existence of CWB as part of job performance, it makes CWB become an important concept that needs further research because of the negative impact it can have on the organisation. Piccoli *et al.* (2017) stated that CWB can potentially cause economic and psychological losses for companies. Thus, Piccoli *et al.* (2017) suggested that further research can consider aspects of CWB to enhance the current concept of performance.

Therefore, in this study, researchers are interested in exploring the relation between job insecurity and CWB. Previous research conducted by Callea *et al.* (2017) and Piccoli *et al.* (2017) has proved that organisational identification has a mediating effect on the relation between job insecurity with task performance and contextual performance or OCB. Given that, the researchers decided to use organisational identification as a mediator between job insecurity and the other dimension of performance, which is CWB.

2.1 FROM THREAT TO RESPONSE: THEORETICAL EXPLORATIONS OF INSECURITY AND DEVIANCE AT WORK

2.1.1 Job Insecurity and Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB)

Job insecurity is defined as the threat of losing one's current job (De Witte, in Vander *et al.*, 2014). Job insecurity is a work stressor that has an impact on employee welfare. This can be seen from the occurrence of feelings of anxiety, depression and burnout that are felt by employees (Vander *et al.*, 2014). Based on the Conservation of Resource Theory or COR, work is a resource owned by individuals. According to COR theory, resources can be defined as 'objects, personal characteristics, conditions or energies that are valued by individuals or that serve as tools for attaining those objects, personal characteristics, conditions or energies' (Hobfoll, 1989). Individuals will try to acquire and maintain their limited resources.

Thus, job insecurity or the possibility of job loss felt by employees can be categorised as resource loss. When a person loses his resources, he tends to become defensive and makes efforts to defend and protect himself which is

often aggressive and even irrational, an example of self-defence behaviour is withdrawal behaviour (Hobfoll *et al.*, 2018). Withdrawal behaviour in work is known as an example of CWB. CWB is a form of behaviour that is detrimental and can even threaten the sustainability of the organisation and individuals within the organisation. The emergence of CWB carried out by employees, this behaviour is suspected as a response to resource loss. Therefore, the first hypothesis in this study is:

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant positive correlation between job insecurity and CWB.

2.1.2 Job Insecurity and Organisational Identification

Jobs are not only a place to fulfil financial needs but also have the role for individuals in companies or organisations to form self-concept or social identification in organisations (Picolli *et al.*, 2017). Henri Tajfel was the first theorist who explained the Social Identity Theory. He explained that social identity is a person's feeling about who he is based on the membership in a group. Being part of a group gives a person a sense of social identity and belonging to the social world. In accordance with that, organisational identification is formed when employees perceive unity with the organisation and feel that they are part of it. The process of input self-perception as a member of the organisation into the general definition of a person refers to the perspective of social identity (Riketta in Picolli *et al.*, 2017). The more an employee identifies himself as part of the organisation, the readier they are to dedicate their efforts to and engage in, the organisation (Baruch & Cohen, in Picolli *et al.*, 2017). Previous research has shown that a good perception of the work environment can increase employee organisational identification and its positive consequences (van Dick *et al.*, in Picolli *et al.*, 2017).

On the other hand, unfavourable perceptions, such as unclear working conditions felt by employees, can lead to low organisational identification. One form of unfavourable perception of working conditions is anxiety about the continuity of job ownership, which is known as job insecurity. Job insecurity is known as a negative contextual factor experienced by employees. When individuals perceive job insecurity, there is a possibility that individuals will perceive themselves as out-groups from the organisation. So, when the continuity of a person's membership in the organisation is threatened, his identification as part of the organisation will also decrease. Therefore, the second hypothesis in this study is:

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant negative correlation between job insecurity and organisational identification.

2.1.3 Organisational Identification and Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB)

Piccoli *et al.* (2017) stated that, the decline in the sense of identification of the organisation can result in decreased performance, especially task performance. Employees who identify themselves as part of the organisation, will be ready to dedicate their efforts and are willing to be involved in the organisation (Baruch & Cohen, in Callea *et al.*, 2017). On the other hand, when a person feels that his or her membership in a group is threatened, the sense of belonging to the group will also decrease. It makes a possibility of the occurrence of withdrawal behaviour from the jobs that they have, this also causes a decrease in performance and emergence of CWB. Social Identity Theory states that, group members who identify as part of the group will internalise group goals, follow applicable organisational norms and standards and treat other employees more positively (Piccoli *et al.*, 2017). But when the opposite happens, where the individual does not identify himself as a member of the group, in this case he identifies himself as being expelled from the organisation, there will be high possibility that the employee will perform behaviours that are contrary to the goals of the organisation and even harm the organisation or other individuals within the organisation. Therefore, the researcher formulates the third hypothesis as follows:

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant negative correlation between organisational identification and CWB.

2.1.4 Organisational Identification as a Mediator

Thus, the lower the organisational identification, the higher the CWB. Based on Social Identity Theory and the results of previous research on the effects of organisational identification, it is known that job insecurity is negatively related to performance through organisational identification (Piccoli *et al.*, 2017). Based on some literature on job insecurity, it is known that job insecurity is negatively related to performance (De Witte, 2016) and the Social Identity Theory states that organisational identification is the main thing that underlies the relationship between work behaviour and other performance (He & Brown, in Piccoli *et al.*, 2017). So, we can conclude that job insecurity can reduce the sense of identification within the organisation, which leads to decreased performance and extra behaviours related to performance (Piccoli *et al.*, 2017). Employees who experience job insecurity are likely to feel that their need for belonging and recognition is not being met, therefore they become less motivated to work hard or to achieve the organisational goals (Piccoli *et al.*, 2017). Low organisational identification of employees

who experience job insecurity can lead to withdrawal behaviours (Piccoli *et al.*, 2017) and other behaviours that do not support the organisation in achieving its goals. These behaviours are a form of CWB. Therefore, the fourth hypothesis of this study is:

Hypothesis 4: Organisational identification mediates the relation between job insecurity and CWB.

Therefore, this research aims to find out how CWB, job insecurity and organisational identification describe employees who are still working for companies affected by the pandemic. As well as knowing whether organisational identification could mediate the relation between job insecurity and CWB.

2.2 FROM THREAT TO RESPONSE: THEORETICAL EXPLORATIONS OF INSECURITY AND DEVIANCE AT WORK

2.2.1 Participant

Participants in this study were 204 employees who work in the Jabodetabek area for companies affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. There are 129 women (63%), 181 participants working in the Jakarta area (88%), 156 participants have permanent positions (76%), 137 participants are at staff level (67%), with a working period between three (3) months and more than five (5) years.

2.2.2 Procedure

Data collection was performed using Google Forms from March 29 to April 30, 2021. The research team shared the survey link through their networks, social media, instant messenger applications and other means of communication. The first part of the online questionnaire contains informed consent that must be filled out by participants. Only participants who agree with the informed consent will continue to work on the online questionnaire.

2.2.3 Measurement

CWB was measured with the Workplace Deviance Measurement Scale from Bennett dan Robinson, which has been adapted by Suyasa (2018). There are 17 items used to measure CWB, the internal consistency of the 17-item

CWB measure was good ($\alpha = 0.89$). Examples were “I never say anything that might offend my boss/co-worker”, “I never consciously procrastinate on a task that should be done.”. The fit model for counterproductive work behaviour measurement scales was acceptable (GFI = 0.920; CFI = 0.971; TLI = 0.961; NFI = 0.915; RMSEA = 0.048). Job insecurity was measured with eight items composed from two scales: (a) Hellgren et al. (1999) (b) Chirumbolo and Areni (2010/2005); The internal consistency of this measurement scale was 0.89. Examples of the items were “I’m not sure that I will still be needed/employed by this company.”, “I don’t think the company will be able to give me an interesting job assignment anytime soon.”. The fit model for this measurement scale was considered acceptable (GFI = 0.970; CFI = 0.989; TLI=0.984; NFI = 0.956; RMSEA = 0.039).

Organisational identification was measured with six items from Mael and Ashforth (1992), the internal consistency of this measurement scale was 0.76. Examples of the items were “If someone criticises the company I work for, I feel offended” and “I am very interested in various information/news related to the company where I work”. The fit model for this measurement scale was considered acceptable (GFI = 0.991; CFI = 0.995; TLI=0.982; NFI = 0.983; RMSEA = 0.042). Data processing is carried out using SPSS and AMOS.

2.3 CHAPTER INSIGHTS: EXPLORING THE FINDINGS

2.3.1 Understanding the Research Variables

Table 2.1 shows that, participants in this study had an average score for the CWB variable of 1.71 (SD = 0.89), this score indicates that the participants tend to have low levels of CWB, which means the participants in this study tend to never take actions that are contrary to the goal of the organisation that is carried out intentionally to cause loss for the organization or individual within the organisation. The average score for the job insecurity variable that the participants had was 2.51 (SD = 0.74); this score was categorized as low level, which means the participants in the study tend to not worry about losing their job or job features such as career development in the place where they currently work. The average score for the organisational identification variable was 3.71 (SD = 0.75); this score was categorised as high level, which means participants in this study have a good perception of unity with the organisation and have a high level of self-identification as part of the organisation.

2.3.2 Examining Variable Relationships

As shown in Table 2.1, job insecurity is positively correlated with CWB ($r = 0.211, p < .01$), suggesting that employees experiencing job insecurity are more likely to engage in counterproductive behaviours. In contrast, job insecurity is negatively correlated with organisational identification ($r = -0.448, p < .01$), indicating that those who feel secure in their jobs are more likely to identify with their organisation. Similarly, organisational identification shows a negative correlation with CWB ($r = -0.193, p < .01$), implying that employees who strongly identify with their organisations are less likely to act in ways that harm them. These findings collectively support Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3.

Table 2.1 Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations among Study Variables

Variable	M	SD	α	1	2	3
1. CWB	1.71	0.89	.89	1.000		
2. OID	3.71	0.75	.76	-.193**	1.000	
3. JIS	2.51	0.74	.79	.211**	-.448**	1.000

Note:

CWB = Counterproductive Work Behaviour

OID = Organisational Identification

JIS = Job Insecurity

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

2.3.3 Mediating Effect of Organisational Identification

To examine the mediating role of Organisational Identification (OID) in the relationship between job insecurity (JIS) and Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB), a Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) analysis was conducted using AMOS. The overall model fit indices indicated an acceptable fit to the data (GFI = 0.854; CFI = 0.937; TLI = 0.927; RMSEA = 0.045), suggesting that the proposed mediation model was appropriate.

The regression results revealed that the direct effect of job insecurity on counterproductive work behaviour was not significant ($\beta = 0.051, p = 0.933$). The indirect effect, where OID mediates the relationship between JIS and CWB, was also not significant ($\beta = 0.141, p = 0.472$). However, job insecurity was found to have a significant negative effect on organisational identification ($\beta = -0.750, p = 0.015$), indicating that higher levels of job insecurity are associated with lower organisational identification. Despite this,

organisational identification did not significantly predict counterproductive work behaviour ($\beta = -0.188, p = 0.373$). Therefore, the mediating role of organisational identification in the relationship between job insecurity and counterproductive work behaviour was not supported by the data. The findings are summarised in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Mediation Analysis Using SEM

Path	Standardised Coefficient (β)	p-value	Significance
JIS \rightarrow CWB (Direct Effect)	0.051	0.933	Not Significant
JIS \rightarrow OID (Mediator Path)	-0.750	0.015	Significant
OID \rightarrow CWB (Indirect Path)	-0.188	0.373	Not Significant
JIS \rightarrow OID \rightarrow CWB (Indirect Effect)	0.141	0.472	Not Significant

Model Fit Indices

- GFI = 0.854
- CFI = 0.937
- TLI = 0.927
- RMSEA = 0.045

Note:

JIS = Job Insecurity

OID = Organisational Identification

CWB = Counterproductive Work Behaviour

SEM = Structural Equation Modeling

Based on the SEM and regression tests, we can conclude that organisational identification has no mediating effect on the relation between job insecurity and CWB. This mediation test model can be seen in Figure 2.1.

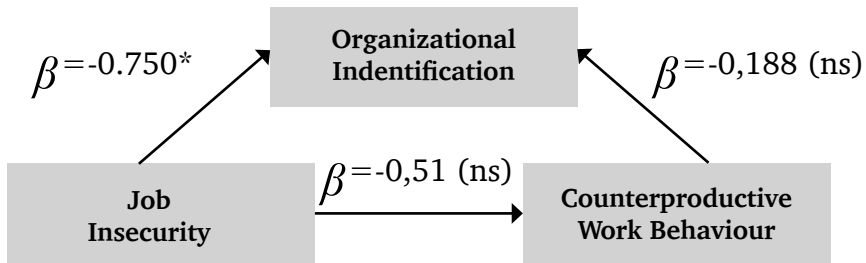


Figure 2.1. Path Model Illustrating Organizational Identification as a Mediator in the Relationship between Job Insecurity and CWB.

2.4 REVISITING THE ROLE OF ORGANISATIONAL IDENTIFICATION IN JOB INSECURITY AND CWB: INSIGHTS, CONSTRAINTS AND DIRECTIONS

This research aims to find out how CWB, job insecurity and organisational identification describe employees who are still working for companies affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. As well as knowing whether organisational identification could mediate the relation between job insecurity and CWB. Based on the results of this study, it is known that participants tend to have low CWB scores. Besides, participants also have low job insecurity scores and high organisational identification scores. The intercorrelation test shows that job insecurity has a significant negative correlation with organisational identification $r = -0.45$ (see Table 2.1). This study's results align with research conducted by Piccoli *et al.* (2017) $r = -0.26$. Organisational identification is formed when employees perceive unity with the organisation and feel they are part of it. Job insecurity as a negative contextual factor that threatens the existence of employees as part of the organisation will impact decreasing one's organisational identification. The existence of job insecurity makes employees feel that their identity as employees of an organisation is threatened to decrease or even disappear.

Job insecurity has a significant positive correlation with CWB $r = 0.21$. These results align with the results of research conducted by Chirumbolo (2014) where CWB is positively related to job insecurity $r = 0.21$. CWB is usually understood in part as a manifestation of psychological strain in response to work stress (Spector & Fox, 2002). In this case, job insecurity is perceived as stress at work, therefore, individuals who experience high job insecurity tend to report higher CWB, such as uncooperative behaviour, absenteeism, tardiness, avoidance of tasks and so on (Chirumbolo & Areni,

2005; Lim, 1997; Reisel *et al.*, 2010). In general, there are similarities between the research conducted by Callea *et al.* (2017) and Piccoli *et al.* (2017) with this study, which examines the role of organisational identification in mediating relation between job insecurity and performance. The difference is, research conducted by Callea *et al.* (2017) and Piccoli *et al.* (2017) focuses on the positive behavioural dimensions of performance, which are task performance and OCB, while this study focuses on the negative behavioural dimensions of performance, which is CWB.

Mediation conducted by Callea *et al.* (2019) and Piccoli *et al.* (2017) shows that organisational identification could mediate the relation between job insecurity with task performance and contextual performance or OCB. In contrast to the research results found by Callea *et al.* (2017) and Piccoli *et al.* (2017), the results of this study indicate that organisational identification is not proven to mediate the relation between job insecurity and CWB. Therefore, the results of this study could complement the results of research conducted by Callea *et al.* (2017) and Piccoli *et al.* (2017) regarding the role of organisational identification in mediating the relationship between job insecurity and performance which consists of task performance, contextual performance or OCB and CWB. Another thing that needs to be discussed in this study is the limitations of the study. This study uses a self-report questionnaire. The weakness of using self-report questionnaires is the tendency of participants to give answers that are not in accordance with the real situation experienced by the participants. In the self-report questionnaire, there is a possibility that participants will do faking good or faking bad.

Another aspect that becomes a limitation in this study is the criteria for participants who are quite broad, both in terms of the industry where the participants work and the occupation that the participants have. Therefore, the results in this study do not apply specifically to certain occupations or industries. Another limitation that can also be identified from this research is related to personal communication which is carried out before data collection begins. For further research, it is highly recommended to find out more about the role of organisational identification on job insecurity and CWB. It is important to be done because based on the intercorrelation test, we know that organisational identification significantly correlates with job insecurity and CWB, but the SEM test shows that organisational identification does not mediate the relations between job insecurity and CWB. Based on the data analysis that has been done, it can be concluded that in terms of the correlation between variables, it is known that job insecurity is proven to have a significant positive correlation with CWB, thus H_1 is supported. Organisational identification has been proven to have no mediating effect

on the relationship between job insecurity and CWB; therefore, H_4 has been rejected. Moreover, a further study is needed regarding the role of organisational identification on job insecurity and CWB experienced by employees, especially during a pandemic situation.

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3

THE ROLE OF GRATITUDE ON SERVICE-ORIENTED ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR AMONG EMPLOYEES IN THE ACCOUNTING FIRM

Priskila Putri Nesya Huwae, Rostiana and P. Tommy Y. S. Suyasa

According to data from the Ministry of Finance of the Republic of Indonesia, the number of Accounting Service Offices and Public Accounting Firms in Indonesia has increased quite rapidly in the last three years. In 2018, the number of Accounting Service Offices in Indonesia was 489, while in 2021, the number increased to 893. In 2018, the number of Public Accounting Firms in Indonesia was 467, while in 2021, it increased to 473. The data shows that the accounting service sector is growing, where, in the end, competition between one Accounting Service Office and another Public Accounting Firm is unavoidable. The Accounting Service Office and the Public Accounting Firms are companies engaged in services where quality service to clients is the main thing. Service quality is the main vehicle used to increase competitiveness and plays a key role in sustainable operations in the service industry (Lee, Peng & Fan, 2016).

An important challenge for the Accounting Services Office and the Public Accounting Firms is to encourage their employees to carry out their roles as the best service providers and minimize complaints from clients. This can be achieved if it is supported by the behaviour of employees

who are able to be oriented to client needs. This behaviour can also be called Service-oriented Organisational Citizenship Behaviour or SOCB. In contrast to general Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB), SOCB refers to discretionary behaviour that is 'above and beyond' employee-defined duties and responsibilities that contributes to outstanding customer service (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). As stated by Restubog, Garcia and Wang (2016), SOCB contains not only core OCB characteristics that reflect employees' awareness of performance (van Dyne, Graham & Dienesch, 1994) but also includes adaptive behaviours that can help organisations to deal with situations that require contact with clients (Bettencourt, Gwinner & Meuter, 2001). SOCB also applies when employees anticipate and act to meet client needs and wants, even before clients identify those needs (Lu *et al.*, 2016).

It is important to study SOCB because it can play a role in determining customer satisfaction and the success of organisations engaged in services (Chou & Lopez-Rodriguez, 2013). Service organisations are also advised to do their best to encourage employees to demonstrate SOCB to provide services effectively and gain a competitive advantage. Employees involved in SOCB can benefit clients and the organisation, because they are able to influence clients' perceptions of service quality (Liu & Lin, 2019). This study looks at the role of Social Exchange Theory (SET) in its influence on SOCB. SET states that "people should help those who have helped them, and people should not hurt those who have helped them" (Gouldner, 1960). Based on the social psychology literature, emotions guide individual decisions about social exchange (Bartlett & DeSteno, 2006). Researchers consider gratitude as an independent antecedent of reciprocal behavior (Goei & Boster, 2005). Gratitude refers to "the positive emotion one feels when another person intentionally gives, or seeks to give, something of value" (Bartlett & DeSteno, 2006). It is defined as an affective state, which stems from recognizing the actions of others that trigger reciprocal behaviour (Bock *et al.*, 2016). These emotions have been considered fundamental to building and maintaining social relationships by encouraging reciprocal and prosocial behaviour between benefactors and recipients (Bartlett & DeSteno, 2006). Rostiana (2020) found that gratitude is influenced by aspects of spirituality in Indonesian society. People with high religiosity will have a high sense of gratitude so that they are encouraged to do good and be sincere according to the teachings of their religion. These results further emphasise the vital role of gratitude in causing SOCB, especially in Indonesian society where this research was conducted.

Based on SET (Blau, 1964), social exchange at work, especially positive interactions, tends to evoke positive emotions, including pleasure, gratitude and pride from employees (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Because of these positive feelings, employees tend to reciprocate positive behaviour back to the source of positive emotions (Scott, 2007). More specifically, beneficiaries who feel grateful to benefactors may be motivated to behave in ways that contribute to the welfare of benefactors (McCullough *et al.*, 2001). Previous research presents a significant relationship between gratitude and prosocial behaviour (Tsang & Martin, 2019). Previous research, for example, provides experimental evidence of the causal power of gratitude in shaping prosocial helping behaviour (Bartlett & DeSteno, 2006). Based on the explanation above, this study hypothesizes that if employees feel grateful to the company, this positive emotion will encourage them to display prosocial behaviour, namely SOCB.

3.1 GRATITUDE AND SERVICE-ORIENTED CITIZENSHIP IN THE WORKPLACE

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) refers to discretionary behaviours performed by employees that are not formally required but contribute positively to organisational functioning. These behaviours fall outside formal job descriptions and are often unrecognized by traditional reward systems. Within service environments, Service-Oriented Citizenship Behaviour (SOCB) is a specific form of OCB where employees go beyond their defined roles to ensure high-quality service and customer satisfaction (Hogan, 1984; Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). SOCB includes actions such as courteous service delivery, proactive participation, and advocacy for the organisation. Bettencourt, Gwinner and Meuter (2001) identified three primary dimensions of SOCB: loyalty, participation and service delivery each reflecting unique aspects of how employees contribute to service excellence. Loyalty refers to employees promoting the organisation's image and offerings to outsiders. Participation includes personal initiative in improving service delivery, both individually and collectively. Service delivery involves the conscientious and enthusiastic provision of customer service. These dimensions collectively define how SOCB manifests in daily workplace interactions (Bettencourt *et al.*, 2001; Liu & Lin, 2019). Gratitude, rooted in the Latin word *gratia*, denotes thankfulness and appreciation. Lazarus (1991) describes it as an empathic emotion, dependent on recognizing the goodwill of others.

In the realm of positive psychology, gratitude represents a deliberate appreciation for the positive elements in life and work (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Lin (2017) highlighted that higher-order gratitude encompassing appreciation of others, faith, resilience and mindfulness has a strong link to mental well-being and psychological resilience. In organisational contexts, gratitude functions as a prosocial emotion (Madrigal, 2020), promoting perceptions of benevolence from others and encouraging reciprocation through positive behaviour. Fredrickson (2004) frames it as a response to actions perceived to enhance one's well-being. At work, gratitude can take the form of recognising supportive colleagues, meaningful roles, or workplace culture (Cains et al., 2018). Emmons (2003) and Di Fabio et al. (2017) emphasise that gratitude can boost individual and organisational well-being, foster loyalty and reduce counterproductive emotions such as resentment or envy. By synthesizing these perspectives, this chapter examines how gratitude influences SOCB; exploring how feeling thankful, particularly for meaningful work and a supportive environment, may drive employees to act beyond formal expectations in service roles.

3.2 LAYING THE GROUNDWORK

This inferential study uses a non-experimental quantitative design with a correlational approach. The correlational approach aims to measure the relationship between two or more variables in several participants (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012). The variables to be tested are SOCB (dependent variable) and gratitude (independent variable). The measurement tools used were first translated into the Indonesian Language by a sworn translator and then compiled as an online questionnaire. The researcher then pilot-tested the questionnaire to 25 people to try out and found no problems when filling it out. The collected research data was processed using SPSS 25. The sample criteria in this study were professional employees (consultants) of Accounting Firm X who had worked for at least three months. Thus, the participants had passed their probationary period and were in contract or permanent status. Samples were taken from Accounting Firm X in the Jakarta, Bandung and Surabaya areas. The samples are spread across six business units owned by Accounting Firm X. The total number of participants in this study was 117 people. The number of participants is a sample of Accounting Firm X's employee population, totalling 767 people.

A total of 117 was taken based on G Power calculations with an α error of 0.05 and an effect size r of 0.30 for a medium effect, the results obtained were 115 total samples. Measurement of SOCB uses a measurement tool created by

Bettencourt *et al.* (2011). The number of items in this measuring instrument is 16 items, with a scale of 1 to 7 (1 = Completely not my character, up to 7 = Completely matches my character). The SOCB measurement tool contains 3 dimensions, namely loyalty, service delivery and participant. The loyalty dimension consists of 5 items; an example of an item in this dimension is “Telling outsiders that this company is a good place to work.” The researcher conducted a reliability analysis of the loyalty dimension items by calculating the item-total correlation in the SPSS software. The item-total correlation value for all items is above 0.2, and Cronbach’s alpha value is .89. The service delivery dimension consists of 6 items; an example of an item in this dimension is “Following up on client requests and problems in a timely manner”. The researcher conducted a reliability analysis of the service delivery dimension items by calculating the item-total correlation in the SPSS software. The item-total correlation value for all items is above 0.2, and Cronbach’s alpha value is .90.

The participant dimension consists of 5 items; an example of an item in this dimension is “Motivating colleagues to provide ideas and suggestions for improving service”. The researcher conducted a reliability analysis of participant dimension items by calculating the item-total correlation in the SPSS software. The item-total correlation value for all items is above 0.2, and Cronbach’s alpha value is .85. Gratitude measurement uses the Gratitude at Work Scale (GAWS) developed by Cain *et al.* (2018). The measuring instrument consists of 10 items with a scale of 1 to 5 (1 = Never, up to 5 = Almost always). This measuring instrument has 2 subscales, namely: (a) gratitude for a supportive work environment in items 2, 4, 6, 8, 9, 10 and (b) gratitude for meaningful work in items 1, 3, 5, 7. An example of an item in the gratitude measurement tool is “How often do you feel grateful for the salary and benefits you receive?”. The researcher also conducted a reliability analysis of the gratitude measurement items by calculating the item-total correlation in the SPSS software. The item-total correlation value for all items above is 0.2 and Cronbach’s alpha value is .86.

3.3 GRATITUDE AND SOCB: DISSECTING THE RELATIONSHIP THROUGH DATA

This section analyses statistical data from correlation and regression tests to examine the association between gratitude and Socially Oriented Citizenship Behaviour (SOCB). The data reveal how gratitude; both as a general construct and through its subdimensions positively influences SOCB and its key

components, namely loyalty, service delivery, and participant engagement. By examining patterns across various dimensions and subscales, the analysis sheds light on the predictive strength of gratitude in shaping pro-social workplace behaviours. The following tables summarise the results and highlight how different expressions of gratitude contribute to meaningful behavioural outcomes at work. Based on Table 3.1, it is known that the sig. (2-tailed) between gratitude and SOCB and each dimension of SOCB is $0.001 < 0.05$, which means there is a significant correlation between these variables. It is known that the calculated r value for the relationship between gratitude and SOCB is 0.46; it can be concluded that there is a correlation between these variables. The r count in this analysis is positive; this means that the relationship between gratitude and SOCB is positive; in other words, as gratitude increases, SOCB also increases

Table 3.1 Correlation between Variables

	1	2	3	4	5
Gratitude	-	0.42**	0.45**	0.42**	0.46**
SOCB – <i>Loyalty</i>			0.80**	0.78**	0.93**
SOCB – <i>Service Delivery</i>				0.78**	0.93**
SOCB – <i>Participant</i>					0.91**
SOCB					-

** Significant correlation at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

As indicated in Table 3.2, the analysis was carried out to prove the hypothesis that gratitude plays a role in SOCB, the higher the gratitude, the higher the SOCB.

Table 3.2 Regression Analysis

Predictor	B	SE B	β (Beta)	p-value
Gratitude	0.45	0.08	0.42	< .001
Self-Compassion	0.33	0.10	0.29	.002
Constant	2.10	0.50	—	.001

The results of the regression analysis indicated that gratitude had a significant positive effect on SOCB, with a **t-value of 5.698** and a **p-value of < .001**, confirming that the relationship is statistically significant. The coefficient of determination (**R² = 0.22**) suggests that 22% of the variance in SOCB can be explained by the gratitude variable, while the remaining 78% is likely due to other external factors not included in this model. The standardized regression coefficient ($\beta = 0.42$) indicates a moderate positive relationship, meaning that higher levels of gratitude are associated with higher levels of SOCB. Based on these findings, the hypothesis is supported.

Table 3.3 The Role of Gratitude on the SOCB Dimension

Dimension	t	Sig.	R Square
Loyalty	5.04	.001	.18
Service Delivery	5.54	.001	.21
Participant	4.96	.001	.17

As can be seen in Table 3.3, the results of the gratitude regression analysis for each SOCB dimension show that the service delivery dimension is most affected, with a t value of 5.54 and sig. = 0.001 (0.05). The coefficient of determination (R square) of 0.21 indicates that the magnitude of the influence of the grateful variable on the SOCB service delivery dimension is 21%.

Table 3.4 The Role of Grateful Subscale on SOCB

Subscale	t	Sig.	R Square
Gratitude for a supportive work environment	4.90	.001	.17
Gratitude for meaningful work	5.55	.001	.21

In the measuring tool, gratitude is divided into 2 subscales: gratitude for a supportive work environment and gratitude for meaningful work. As indicated in Table 3.4, the results of the regression analysis of the gratitude subscale for SOCB show that gratitude for meaningful work has the greatest influence on SOCB, with a t value of 5.55 and sig. = 0.001 (0.05). The coefficient of determination (R square) of 0.21 indicates that the magnitude of the effect of the gratitude for meaningful work subscale on SOCB is 21%.

Table 3.5 The Role of Supportive Work Environment on the SOCB Dimension

Dimension	T	Sig.	R Square
Loyalty	4.47	.001	.14
Service Delivery	4.90	.001	.17
Participant	4.05	.001	.12

After conducting a more detailed regression analysis, the gratitude subscale for a supportive work environment has the most significant influence on the service delivery dimension ($t = 4.90$, $sig. = 0.001$), with a coefficient of determination (R square) of 0.17 or 17%. See Table 3.5.

Table 3.6 The Role of Meaningful Work on SOCB Dimension

Dimension	t	Sig.	R Square
Loyalty	4.76	.001	.16
Service Delivery	5.20	.001	.19
Participant	5.22	.001	.19

Likewise, the gratitude for meaningful work subscale has the most significant influence on the service delivery dimension ($t = 5.20$, $sig. = 0.001$), with a coefficient of determination (R square) of 0.19 or 19%.

The results in this study are in line with previous studies. The correlation between gratitude and OCB underlines that gratitude leads people to have altruistic behavior because it has a function of moral incentive (Spence *et al.*, 2013). The function of gratitude as a moral incentive is explained by SET, through which OCB is understood (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). From this perspective, individuals carry out OCB because they feel obliged to repay the positive treatment bestowed by the leaders and by the organisation overall; otherwise, they would not realize such behaviours (Spence *et al.*, 2013).

3.4 REFLECTIONS, LIMITATIONS AND PATHWAYS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

In this study it was found that gratitude proved to have a significant positive effect on SOCB. Additional analysis shows that the SOCB dimension that gets the most influence from being grateful is the service delivery dimension. This is reinforced by the regression analysis of each grateful subscale for each

SOCB dimension, which also shows the highest coefficient of determination (R square) in the service delivery dimension. This shows that the higher the gratitude of employees, the higher the provision of services provided to clients. In addition, additional analysis also shows that the gratitude subscale that has the highest influence on SOCB is the gratitude for meaningful work subscale. This means that the higher the feeling of gratitude for the meaning of the work of employees, the higher the SOCB. As previous research has presented (Tsang & Martin, 2019), employees tend to engage in prosocial behaviour that benefits someone they are grateful for.

In addition, once they feel grateful, employees tend to exhibit more liberal service behaviour that goes beyond formal role requirements than expected service behaviour. Broaden-and-build Theory (Fredrickson, 2001) suggests, employees' positive emotions, gratitude, encourage them to meet customer needs by promoting them to find new thoughts or actions. This research has several limitations. First, the research was only conducted at one public accounting firm. Further studies can be carried out in more public accounting firms. Second, other variables that might strengthen the gratitude relationship with SOCB were not examined. Therefore, further researchers can add other variables, especially those from organisations that might contribute to research results, such as Perceived Organisational Support (POS).

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4

THE EFFECT OF SELF-EFFICACY AS A MODERATOR ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB DEMANDS AND WORK ENGAGEMENT

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The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic has resulted in nearly all sectors of the economy experiencing a downturn so that not a few business people have had to close their businesses because they can no longer finance their company's operations. However, some companies survive and adapt to circumstances. Those who survive must transform to be more responsive, flexible and adaptive to achieve high productivity. To survive in the face of a pandemic, changes are needed in terms of organisational design (Setiawati, 2021). One of the changes in organisational elements that has quite an impact is restructuring. Restructuring is a way for organisations to rearrange all resources to achieve effectiveness and efficiency, such as reducing layers, changing leaders, rotating employees, re-evaluating the number of workers and applying multitasking (Kaswan, 2019). With this restructuring, job demands are felt to be higher because they must carry out different functions than before, even multitasking increases workload so that it becomes a source of job demands for employees.

Job demands are characteristics that can generate tension (strain) if they exceed a person's ability to adapt (Bakker *et al.*, 2007). Employees who experience high job demands will experience burnout because they have a lot of work to complete (Xanthopoulou *et al.*, 2007). If job demand occurs continuously, it will have an impact on decreasing the quality of sleep or relaxation (Gillet *et al.*, 2019) and decreasing work engagement because individuals don't have the enthusiasm to work (Pennbrant & Daderman, 2019). Work engagement is very important because it describes the ability of employees to use all their capacities in solving problems in all types of job demands they face (Bakker & Leiter, 2010), including when facing various job demands due to restructuring. For employee engagement to remain high, especially when there is an increase in job demands such as during restructuring conditions, then personal resources (personal resources) are needed in the form of self-efficacy, which functions to anticipate negative consequences arising from job demands (Bakker & van Wingerden, 2021; Sajuthi *et al.*, 2020).

According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy is described as the result of cognitive processes in the form of decisions, beliefs or expectations about the extent to which individuals estimate their ability to carry out tasks (Maddux, 1995). Employees who have high self-efficacy will easily face demanding situations, so they are easy to empower, such as during restructuring (Eliyana *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, we will test whether job demands have a negative effect on work engagement (H_1). Self-efficacy has a positive effect on work engagement (H_2) and self-efficacy acts as a moderator on the relationship between job demands and work engagement (H_3).

4.1 CONCEPTUAL REVIEW: JOB DEMANDS, WORK ENGAGEMENT AND SELF-EFFICACY

4.1.1 Job Demands

The concept of job demands was first introduced by Karasek (1979, as cited in Bakker & Leiter, 2010) through the Demand-Control Model (DCM). According to this model, employees are likely to experience stress when job demands are high and control over their work is low. This imbalance between demands and control can contribute to negative outcomes (Hakanen *et al.*, 2006). Job demands typically refer to quantitative aspects such as

workload or time pressure, while job control refers to autonomy; the degree to which employees can act independently in fulfilling their tasks. Although job demands do not always lead to adverse effects, they can become major sources of work-related stress, particularly when sustained effort is required and they are associated with emotional or psychological costs, such as emotional pressure and work overload.

These pressures can lead to negative responses such as depression, anxiety, fatigue and burnout (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; MacDonald, 2003). At least three primary factors influence job demands: (a) workload (Dwyer & Ganster, 1991), (b) emotional demands (Xanthopoulou *et al.*, 2013) and (c) time pressure (Korunka & Kubicek, 2017). Workload refers to how often individuals feel the need to work at a fast pace or handle a large amount of work. The greater the workload, the higher the perceived job demands, as individuals may feel constantly pressured to complete tasks within limited time. Emotional demands result from interactions with clients or colleagues in which individuals are exposed to negative, rude, or hostile behaviours. Such interactions increase the emotional load and overall job demands. Time pressure is defined as the expectation to complete work quickly and is widely considered a frequent and significant source of workplace stress. As time pressure increases, job demands tend to feel more intense and difficult to manage.

4.1.2 Work Engagement

Work engagement refers to a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind characterised by vigor, dedication and absorption (Bakker *et al.*, 2008). Employees who are engaged in their work typically possess high energy, show deep enthusiasm, and are strongly immersed in their tasks. Work engagement is important because it reflects an employee's capacity to use personal strengths and energy to address challenges in the workplace. Engaged individuals often pursue ambitious goals and aim to succeed even when faced with difficulties (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). According to Schaufeli *et al.* (2002), work engagement consists of three dimensions: vigor, dedication and absorption. Vigor refers to high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, as well as persistence even when difficulties arise. Employees with vigor are enthusiastic and able to face work-related challenges effectively. Dedication reflects an employee's strong involvement in their work, accompanied by a sense of pride, meaning and inspiration. Individuals with high dedication view their work as valuable, meaningful, and motivating. Absorption refers to being fully concentrated and deeply engrossed in one's work.

Employees who exhibit absorption often lose track of time and find it difficult to disengage from their tasks, showing high levels of focus and commitment. Work engagement has three notable impacts: the promotion of innovative behaviour, reduction in turnover intention and improvement in work performance. Schaufeli *et al.* (2020) emphasised that employees with high work engagement are more likely to exhibit innovative behaviours, offering new ideas and solutions to address workplace challenges. These individuals are driven by intrinsic motivation and are more proactive and creative in their approach. Zhang *et al.* (2020) found that higher engagement is associated with lower turnover intention. Engaged employees are less likely to contemplate leaving their jobs and are more committed to their career. Furthermore, van Dorssen-Boog *et al.* (2021) argued that work engagement contributes to better work performance, as employees are more likely to take initiative and exceed expectations. Thus, work engagement plays a critical role in encouraging innovation, reducing staff turnover and boosting performance outcomes.

4.1.3 Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is an individual's ability to regulate the results of cognitive processes in the form of decisions, beliefs or expectations about the extent to which individuals estimate their ability to carry out tasks (Bandura, 1977 in Maddux, 1995). Individuals who have high self-efficacy will try harder to master challenges. Individuals with self-efficacy tend to have expectations to succeed in going through changes in the environment that demand it. Employees with high self-efficacy will also be able to use their efforts to fulfill work goals and even be persistent in facing difficulties (Xanthopoulou *et al.*, 2013). The impact of self-efficacy includes reducing burnout (Contreras *et al.*, 2020) and increasing work engagement (Bakker & vanWingerden, 2021; Sajuthi *et al.*, 2020).

The more individuals have high self-efficacy, the lower the level of burnout. The existence of work conditions that experience demands will reduce employee motivation to complete their tasks, but when individuals have high self-efficacy, they will feel capable of overcoming their environment, achieving organisational goals and succeeding according to what they want (Contreras *et al.*, 2020). The higher a person's self-efficacy, the higher his work engagement. Individuals who believe they can handle any situation they face will have high morale to meet job demands and achieve their goals even in difficult conditions. Individuals who are enthusiastic about working will feel enthusiastic and absorbed in their work to achieve their work goals properly (Bakker & vanWingerden, 2021; Sajuthi *et al.*, 2020).

4.2 STUDY DESIGN AND VARIABLE FRAMEWORK

This study employed a correlational quantitative design within a non-experimental framework, utilizing a non-probability sampling technique. Non-probability sampling refers to a sampling approach where not all members of the population have an equal chance of being selected. In this study, the sample was determined based on the researcher’s discretion and the availability of respondents, rather than through random selection.

The main variables examined in this study include job demands (X), work engagement (Y) and self-efficacy (Z). In this framework, job demands function as the independent variable, work engagement serves as the dependent variable and self-efficacy is positioned as the moderating variable. This structure was chosen to explore the relationships among these variables, particularly how self-efficacy may influence the connection between job demands and work engagement. The design enables the analysis of patterns and strength of associations between variables, rather than causal relationships.

4.2.1 Model and Data

The model in this study is described in the following form:

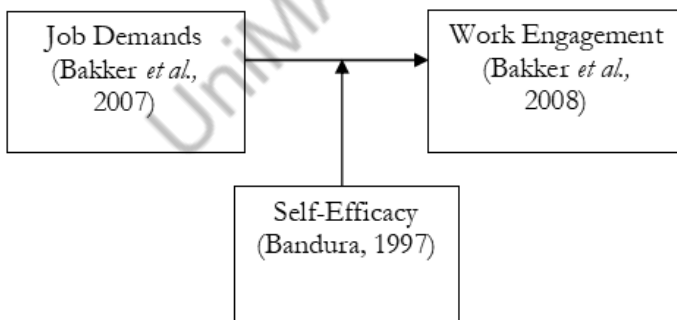


Figure 4.1. Research Model.

The research subjects were 181 private employees in Jakarta who underwent restructuring due to the COVID-19 pandemic situation. The impact of organisational restructuring referred to in this study is a reduction in layers, changes in work processes, rotations and changes in leaders, which result in increased workload, changes in job descriptions, multitasking, and adjustments to new processes or ways of working. A total of 80 (44%) were male and 101 (56%) were female. The educational level was 8 (4%) at the

SMU/K level, 16 (9%) at the D3 level, 142 (78%) at the S1 level, and 15 (8%) at the S2 level. The working period of the participants was 59 (33%) in the 1-2 year range, 51(28%) in the 3-5 year range, 40 (22%) in the 6-10 year range and 31 (17%) over 10 years. At the level of participant positions, there were 68 (38%) at the staff level, 51 (28%) at the supervisor or assistant manager level, 53 (29%) at the manager level and 9 (5%) at the general manager or director level. The employment status of the participants was 38 (21%) contract and 143 (79%) permanent.

4.2.2 Instruments

Job demands are measured in terms of perceptions of workload (cognitive demand) with 4 items (e.g. Does your work require a lot of concentration?), emotional demand with 6 items (e.g. Is your work emotionally demanding?), work pressure with 4 items (e.g. Do you have too much work to do?), role conflict with 4 items (e.g. I receive conflicting requests from two or more people), and job complexity (hassle) with 5 items (e.g. I have to deal with administrative hassles) using the Job Demands-Resources Questionnaire from Bakker (2014) which has been adapted into an Indonesian Language version (Lestari & Zamralita, 2017). There are 21 items that were used because 2 items have corrected item-total correlation scores below 0.2. Cronbach's alpha result of 0.91. The measurement scale will use a Likert ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always). Work engagement was measured using the full version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002). Which contains 3 dimensions, they are vigor (e.g.

At my work, I feel bursting with energy; At my job, I feel strong and vigorous), dedication (e.g. I am enthusiastic about my job; My job inspires me.) and absorption (e.g. When I am working, I forget everything else around me; I am proud on the work that I do). There are 16 items used because 1 item has a corrected item-total correlation score below 0.2. Cronbach's alpha result of 0.94. The measurement scale uses a Likert, which ranges from 1 (never) to 5 (always). Self-efficacy was measured using 10 General Self-efficacy items from Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1995), which contain a single dimension (e.g I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough; No matter what comes my way, I'm usually thinking of something to do). This item is consistently reliable because it has a positive correlation with work engagement. Cronbach's alpha result of 0.82. The scale of measurement will use a Likert ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always).

4.3 INTERPRETATION OF VARIABLE TRENDS

4.3.1 Descriptive Analysis

The descriptive statistical analysis of the three core variables job demands, work engagement and self-efficacy provides an overview of participants' responses based on the scale measurements used. The results indicate that the job demands experienced by respondents are at a moderate level, with a mean score ($\mu = 3.29$) slightly above the scale's median value. This suggests that while job demands are present, they are not excessively high. In contrast, the level of work engagement among respondents is classified as high, demonstrated by a significantly elevated mean score ($\mu = 4.72$) relative to the instrument's midpoint. This implies that participants generally exhibit strong energy, dedication and involvement in their work.

Similarly, self-efficacy is also assessed as relatively high, with a mean score ($\mu = 3.23$) well above the median benchmark of the scale. This result reflects the respondents' confidence in their capacity to manage work-related challenges effectively. These descriptive trends are summarized in Table 4.1, which presents the central tendencies and variability of each variable in the study.

Table 4.1 Descriptive Analysis

Variables	Mean	Median	Std Deviation	Category
Job Demands	3.29	3.00	0.59	Medium
Work Engagement	4.72	3.50	0.78	High
Self-efficacy	3.23	2.50	0.44	High

4.3.2 Hypothesis Testing

The results of the correlation test between variables are presented in Table 4.2. Based on the correlation analysis, it is known that the correlation value of job demands on work engagement is -0.16 with a significance value (sig.) of $0.028 < 0.05$, so it can be concluded that there is a significant negative relationship between job demands and work engagement (H_1 is accepted). Further, the results of the correlation value of self-efficacy on work engagement are 0.50 with a significance value (sig.) of $0.000 < 0.01$, so it can be concluded that there is a significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and work engagement (H_2 is accepted).

Table 4.2 Correlation Analysis between Main Variables

Variables	Job Demands	Work Engagement	Self-Efficacy
Job Demands	-		
Work Engagement	-0.16*	-	
Self-Efficacy	-0.28**	0.50**	-

*p<0.05, **p<0.01

The correlation analysis between work engagement and job demands dimension is presented in Table 4.3. Results of the job demand correlation test for each dimension with work engagement show that the hassle dimension has the highest result, which is -0.28 with a significance value (sig.) of 0.000 <0.01, so it can be concluded that the hassle dimension is related to work complexity play a high role in reducing employee engagement. On the role conflict dimension, it is known that the correlation value for work engagement is -0.19 with a significance value (sig.) of 0.000 <0.01, it can be concluded that the role conflict dimension related to conflicting job demands from two or more people can reduce employee engagement. While on the work pressure dimension, there is a positive relationship to work engagement of 0.22 with a significance value (sig.) of 0.000 <0.01, it can be concluded that high work pressure makes a person more attached to his work.

Table 4.3 Correlation Analysis Between Work Engagement and Job Demands Dimension

No	Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Job Demands	-						
2	Cognitive Demands	0.53**	-					
3	Work Pressure	0.57**	0.44**	-				
4	Emotional Demands	0.87**	0.38**	0.38**	-			
5	Role Conflict	0.80**	0.29**	0.24**	0.64**	-		
6	Hassle	0.83**	0.31**	0.34**	0.62**	0.61**	-	
7	Work Engagement	-0.16*	0.07**	0.22**	-0.18*	-0.1**	-0.28**	-

*p<0.05, **p<0.01

Furthermore, to determine the role of self-efficacy as a moderator, a regression test is used. Before carrying out the regression test, an assumption test is first carried out with the normality test. The normality test was carried out to find out whether the data was normally distributed. The normality test results used the One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. The results of the normality test using the Monte Carlo technique showed that the three variables were normally distributed with a p-value > 0.05. See Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Normality Test

Variable	Monte Carlo	Distribution
Job Demands	0.248	Normal
Work Engagement	0.572	Normal
Self-Efficacy	0.295	Normal

As can be seen in Table 4.5, results from stage 1 of the regression test, namely the relationship between job demands and direct work engagement (without the role of a moderator), a coefficient value of -0.21 ($t = -2.21$) is obtained, a significance value (sig.) of $0.02 < 0.05$. In stage 2, namely including the self-efficacy variable, a coefficient value of 0.88 ($t = 7.48$) is obtained, a significance value (sig.) of $0.00 < 0.01$. In stage 3, by carrying out the results of the interaction between job demands and self-efficacy, a non-significant coefficient value of -0.101 ($t = -0.74$) was obtained, a significance value (sig.) of $0.45 > 0.05$. From the results of the regression test, it can be concluded that self-efficacy does not moderate the relationship formed and only acts as an independent variable (H_3 is rejected). This proves that in individuals with high and low self-efficacy, job demands still have a negative effect on work engagement.

Table 4.5 Moderated Regression Analysis

Variable	β	T	Sig.
Job Demands (JD)	-0.21	-2.21	0.02*
Self-Efficacy (SE)	0.88	7.48	0.00**
Interaction (JD*SE)	-0.101	-0.74	0.45

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, Dependent Variable: Work Engagement

4.4 INTERPRETING THE STUDY OUTCOMES

This study, conducted among 181 employees from various private companies in Jakarta undergoing organisational restructuring, revealed that elevated job demands are associated with a decline in work engagement. In other words, the greater the job demands experienced by individuals, the lower their engagement with their work. This aligns with findings by I-Shuo Chen (2021), who emphasized a negative correlation between job demands and work engagement. As presented in Table 4.3, the correlation analysis shows that the ‘hassle’ dimension has the strongest negative relationship with work engagement ($r = -0.28, p < 0.01$). The ‘hassle’ component refers to complexities and disruptions in work processes such as bureaucracy, administrative burdens, and procedural changes that result in prolonged task completion. These challenges are often linked to shifting organisational structures and evolving internal policies that place strain on employees and hinder optimal performance. The results further demonstrate that self-efficacy plays a significant positive role in enhancing work engagement. As indicated in Table 4.5, self-efficacy positively correlates with work engagement ($\beta = 0.88, t = 7.48, p = 0.00$).

These findings support previous studies by Bakker and van Wingerden (2021) and Sajuthi *et al.* (2020), which showed that individuals with high self-efficacy are more likely to display strong morale, motivation and perseverance in meeting job demands and achieving work goals, even under challenging conditions. However, this study did not find evidence to support the moderating role of self-efficacy in the relationship between job demands and work engagement ($\beta = -0.101, t = -0.74, p = 0.45$). This suggests that the level of self-efficacy does not significantly influence the strength or direction of the relationship between job demands and work engagement. Instead, job demands and self-efficacy each exert a direct influence on work engagement independently. These findings diverge from those of I-Shuo Chen (2021), who identified a significant interaction effect between job demands and self-efficacy, where high self-efficacy buffered the negative impact of job demands on engagement.

Several factors may explain this discrepancy. In Chen’s study, participants primarily held front-line roles, where personal resources such as self-efficacy may be more immediately relevant in coping with direct customer interaction and situational pressure. In contrast, the current sample consists largely of professional employees whose job demands may differ in nature and complexity. Additionally, unlike Chen’s study which assessed a combination of personal resources including organisation-based self-esteem and optimism this

research focused solely on self-efficacy, potentially limiting the moderating effects observed. Another noteworthy distinction lies in the measurement instruments used. Chen employed a shortened 6-item version of the self-efficacy scale developed by Rigotti *et al.* (2008), whereas this study utilized the complete 10-item General Self-Efficacy Scale developed by Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1995). Such differences in scale length and focus may contribute to variations in outcomes across studies.

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5

EVALUATING THE EFFECT OF WORK-LIFE BALANCE ON INTENTION TO LEAVE AMONG FAST-MOVING CASH GOODS EMPLOYEES

Jacqueline Putri Timesela, Rita Markus Idulfilastri, Sharmini Abdullah and Umami Naiemah Saraih

In today's life, work has an important role in ensuring daily survival. With income or work wages, an employee can ensure that there is food on the table, wears comfortable clothes, and keeps the lights on in the house. However, in fulfilling these needs, a person is sometimes compelled to work quite hard. The development of technology in the digital era has also resulted in changes in work in the world of work (Nurmillah, 2021). With advances in technology, employees can complete work wherever and whenever, and employees can also discuss with colleagues or superiors using technology from smartphones. When an employee is too connected through technology and social media and has working time that is no longer limited to working hours, the employee sometimes has a blurry boundary between work and personal life (Wedgwood, 2019; Nurmillah, 2021). Nowadays, it is common to find employees who are used to working in front of laptops on weekends or receiving business calls outside of working hours. Even though maintaining boundaries or achieving a Work-Life Balance (WLB) is important for a higher quality of life (health and relationships) and can even increase one's work productivity and performance (Wedgwood, 2019).

In addition, WLB is also one of the top five reasons why the best-performing employees decide to leave work or turn over. In more detail, in Dessler's book (2020), there is a survey which describes the five main reasons for the best-performing employees deciding to leave work, the survey states that WLB is one of the main reasons, so before it turns into turnover, an employee's thoughts of leaving the organisation or turnover intention is a problem in Human Resource Management (HRM). To suppress employee turnover intentions, companies strive to create the right environment in which employees experience WLB (Wood *et al.*, 2020). This is because employees are increasingly aware of the importance of WLB; thus, increasing WLB is a strategy that can be implemented so that employees do not leave work (Thakur & Bhatnagar, 2017).

Therefore, the concept of WLB has become an increasingly popular topic when discussing work and is one of concern to researchers or practitioners to maintain employee's well-being (Jaharuddin & Zainol, 2019; Wood *et al.*, 2020). This research was conducted at Company X, one of the Fast-Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) companies engaged in producing dairy products in Indonesia. Based on field observations, there were employees who worked on holidays and weekends and even had to work overtime, such as sales department employees who continued to work during the Eid holidays to maintain product availability. In 2020, the company reported a turnover rate of 12.5% (15 out of 120 employees); with a voluntary turnover rate of 5%, where several six (6) employees left of their own free will. Whereas in 2021, this company reports a turnover rate of 15% or as many as 23 out of 150 employees.

Then until September 2022, Company X's turnover has reached 10% (15 out of 150 employees), where the voluntary turnover rate has reached 6.4%, so before the desire turns into voluntary turnover, it is necessary to conduct research on the intention to leave work of employees at Company X. Furthermore, the results of joint discussions with four (4) employees of Company X regarding the intention to leave work. The results of interviews with employees who are still working show that one of the reasons if one day leaves or stops working at Company X is WLB; employee A said he would consider quitting if he could not tolerate the imbalance between work and life; employee B added that currently Company X is lacking HRM and she feels she does not have a good balance between work and life; and employee C says that Company X is currently growing and expanding so she starts working outside working hours. This causes an imbalance between work and personal life, so based on the phenomena found in Company X. Given that, this study evaluates the effect of WLB on employee intention to leave.

5.1 WORK-LIFE BALANCE AND EMPLOYEE EXIT INTENTIONS: A REVIEW OF THE EVIDENCE

Intention to leave work or turnover intention is defined as the thoughts that employees have about leaving the organization (Jaharuddin & Zainol, 2019). Akgunduza and Eryilmaz (2018) also define the intention to leave work as an employee's awareness or thoughts about quitting work. Furthermore, Akgunduza and Eryilmaz (2018) describe various factors that influence employee intention to leave work based on previous studies as follows: organisational support, organisational citizenship behaviour, organisational justice, organisational commitment and emotional exhaustion. Halim and Antolis (2021) state that high employee turnover intentions will have an adverse effect on the company, both in terms of costs and in terms of loss of time and opportunity to take advantage of opportunities. Therefore, before becoming a turnover, employee intention to leave has become a serious and ongoing problem in HRM, according to Jaharuddin and Zainol (2019), so it is important to look at the employee's turnover intention in a company.

WLB is defined by Kelliher *et al.* (2018) as the relationship between aspects of work and one's personal life, where in achieving a good balance between life and work, there are limited aspects (usually work) to spend more time on other activities. Fisher-McAuley *et al.* (2003) divided WLB into three (3) dimensions of WLB, namely: Work Interference with Personal Life (WIPL), Personal Life Interference with Work (PLIW), and Work/Personal Life Enhancement (WPLE). Aspects of WLB can be divided into two (2), namely work or work and life or life. Jaharuddin and Zainol (2019) explained the benefits of WLB, namely: it can help achieve emotional, psychological and cognitive stability for employees, where this can even promote organisational effectiveness. Achieving a balance between work and personal life is not only beneficial for employees, but also for the company. This is confirmed by Dessler's survey (2020), which describes the five main reasons for the best-performing employees deciding to leave work, namely salary, promotion opportunities, WLB, career development and health care benefits. In detail, Dessler (2020) found that the five main reasons employees left work were career development (22%), WLB (12%), management behaviour (11%), compensation and benefits (9%) and well-being (9%). Turnover or work leave itself is defined as the rate at which employees leave the company and this level varies greatly between industries (Dessler, 2020).

But before turning into turnover, a thought that employees have of leaving the organization is said to be an intention to leave work or turnover intention (Jaharuddin & Zainol, 2019). Companies need to promote WLB as

a strategy to reduce employee turnover because employees are increasingly aware of the importance of work-life balance issues (Thakur & Bhatnagar, 2017; Wood *et al.*, 2020). Research conducted by Yu (2018) on 1,111 female officers working in federal law enforcement agencies showed that work-family conflict or WLB was reported as a reason for the intention to leave work for female officers (39.6%, $n = 322$). Apart from being found to be the reason, Thakur and Bhatnagar's research (2017) mentioned WLB as an issue that has become an important part of employee retention strategies; this is because employees are increasingly concerned about personal and work-life issues. Furthermore, Halim and Antolis' research (2021) found that one of the factors that influence employee intention to leave work is WLB.

Meanwhile, research conducted by Oktaviani and Budiono (2018) on 169 employees at the Berlian Terminal Jasa Indonesia Company found that WLB had no significant effect on employee turnover intention. Another study conducted by Nurdin and Rohaeni (2020) on employees in companies in the Bandung City area also found that WLB had no significant effect on employee turnover intention. Novitasari and Dessyarti (2022) in their research also found that WLB has no significant effect on employee turnover intention. This means that the high or low WLB owned by employees will not affect the employee's desire to leave work or turnover intention. Given these differences, this study wants to get certainty about how WLB influences employee intention to leave work at Company X. Although there have been many previous studies that raised the topic of WLB and employee turnover intentions, there has not been any research that examines these two variables in one study, especially in the Indonesian context and to employees in the Fast-Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) industry. Therefore, this study aims to evaluate the effect of WLB on permanent employees at Company X intention to leave.

5.2 FRAMING THE EXPERIENCE

This chapter explores insights drawn from a structured inquiry involving employees at Company X. The study used a survey approach, gathering perspectives from 126 participants working in the Fast-Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) industry. These individuals represent a variety of roles, backgrounds, and work experiences, offering a meaningful glimpse into the relationship between Work-Life Balance (WLB) and intentions to leave the organisation. Participants were selected based on key characteristics such as tenure, job position, and employment in a specific industry sector. Data were

gathered from a total workforce of 150 employees, with 126 contributing complete responses. These responses reflect diverse demographics including gender, age, marital status, and work routines which are outlined in Table 5.1 to provide a fuller picture of the workplace environment under study.

Table 5.1 Participant Descriptive Description

Participant's Characteristics		N	Percentage (%)
Gender	Men	94	74.6
	Women	32	25.4
Age	21 – 30 years	43	34.1
	31 – 40 years	71	56.3
	41 – 50 years	11	8.7
	51 – 56 years	1	0.8
Marital Status	Belum Menikah	31	24.6
	Sudah Menikah, Namun Belum Punya Anak	12	9.5
Participant's Characteristics		N	Percentage (%)
Gender	Men	94	74.6
	Women	32	25.4
Age	21 – 30 years	43	34.1
	31 – 40 years	71	56.3
	41 – 50 years	11	8.7
	51 – 56 years	1	0.8
Marital Status	Belum Menikah	31	24.6
	Sudah Menikah, Namun Belum Punya Anak	12	9.5
Living Conditions	Sudah Menikah dan Punya Anak Berpisah	83	65.9
	With family	0	0
	Alone	95	75.4
Position	Head of Department	31	24.6
	Officer	19	15.1
	Supervisor	61	48.4
	Manajer	36	28.5
Length of Work at the Company	Head of Department	10	7.9
	>3 months – 1 year	56	44.4
	1 – 2 years	23	18.3
	2 – 3 years	17	13.5
	3 – 4 years	21	16.7
Length of Work in a Day	>5 years	9	7.1
	8 hours	20	15.9
	9 – 10 hours	62	49.2
	10 – 11 hours	17	13.5
	11 – 12 hours	15	11.9
Length of Work in a Week	>12 hours	12	9.5
	40 – 45 hours	34	27
	45 – 50 hours	45	35.7
	50 – 55 hours	13	10.3
	> 55 hours	34	27

To measure employee intention to leave work, this study uses the Measuring Intention to Leave Work developed by Rosin and Korabik (1991), which was later validated and adapted into the Indonesian Language by

Rifmawati and Suyasa (2016). The measuring instrument is unidimensional with 10 statement items, each of which is assessed using a four (4) point Likert scale, where a scale of one (1) indicates “strongly disagree”, two (2) indicates = “disagree”, three (3) indicates “agree”, and four (4) indicates “strongly agree.” An example of a statement item in this measuring tool is “In the near future, I will resign from this company”. Participants were asked to choose the most appropriate answer for each statement. The results of the analysis show that of the 15 items tested, there is 1 item that has a coefficient below 0.2. Thus, the item is removed, and the reliability coefficient becomes 0.89.

This study used the WLB Questionnaire, a measurement tool developed by Fisher-McAuley et al. (2003) and validated by Hayman (2005). This measuring instrument was adapted to the Indonesian Language by Pangaribuan (2017) from the Faculty of Psychology at Tarumanagara University. This measuring instrument contains 15 statement items, each of which is assessed using a five (5) point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat agree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree). Participants were asked to choose the most appropriate answer for each statement. This WLB Questionnaire is divided into three (3) dimensions, namely: WIPL with 7 statement items, PLIW with 4 statement items, and WPLE with 4 statement items. In this study, the WLB measurement tool measures different attributes, so they cannot be added together. Hence, based on the psychological construct, the WLB in this study is orthogonal. Thus, the reliability of WLB is measured per dimension. The results of the analysis show that of the 15 statements tested, there is 1 item that has a coefficient below 0.2. This item is WIPL 7 with a negative value of -0.59, so that item is removed from the WIPL dimension and obtains a final reliability value of 0.93.

5.3 TRACING THE PATTERNS

This section explores whether the three dimensions of Work-Life Balance (WLB) Work Interference with Personal Life (WIPL), Personal Life Interference with Work (PLIW), and Work/Personal Life Enhancement (WPLE) influence employees' intention to leave Company X. To examine these relationships, simple linear regression was applied. Prior to this, the dataset was assessed using standard assumption tests to ensure the validity of the analysis. The One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test with Monte Carlo simulation was used to evaluate normality. Results indicated that intention to leave, WIPL, and WPLE dimensions were normally distributed ($p > 0.05$). However, the PLIW dimension showed a significant value ($p < 0.05$), suggesting a deviation from normality.

An additional normality test was conducted on the unstandardized residuals, yielding a p-value of 0.200. Since this exceeded the 0.05 threshold, the data was deemed normally distributed and suitable for parametric statistical analysis. Next, linearity was examined between each WLB dimension and turnover intention. All three dimensions of WLB showed linear relationships with the dependent variable, as their Deviation from Linearity values were all above 0.05. Specifically, the relationships between:

- Turnover intention and WIPL yielded a deviation value of 0.883.
- Turnover intention and PLIW showed a deviation value of 0.967.
- Turnover intention and WPLE had a deviation value of 0.506.

These results confirm that the assumptions for linear regression were met, allowing for further analysis into how each WLB dimension might influence an employee’s intention to leave. Table 5.2 presents the descriptive statistics of the regression residuals used to assess heteroscedasticity. The mean of the residuals is approximately zero ($M = 0.003$), and the standard deviation ($SD = 0.875$) falls within an acceptable range. The Kolmogorov–Smirnov test result ($Z = 0.812, p = 0.200$) indicates that the residuals are normally distributed, as the p-value exceeds 0.05. Additionally, the skewness (-0.185) and kurtosis (0.312) values are within acceptable limits, supporting the assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity. These findings confirm the suitability of parametric methods for the regression analysis conducted in this study.

Table 5.2 Residual Analysis for Heteroscedasticity Testing

Statistic	Value
Mean of Residuals	0.003
Standard Deviation of Residuals	0.875
Kolmogorov–Smirnov Z	0.812
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.200
Skewness	-0.185
Kurtosis	0.312

The results of the classical regression assumption tests met the required criteria: the data were normally distributed, linear, and free of heteroscedasticity. Consequently, the dataset is deemed suitable for analysis using simple linear regression. This study aimed to examine whether the dimensions of Work Interference with Personal Life (WIPL), Personal Life Interference with Work (PLIW), and Work/Personal Life Enhancement

(WPLE) influence employees' intention to leave Company X. Based on the significance values (p), the results of the hypothesis tests indicate that the WIPL dimension has a p -value of 0.00 ($p < 0.05$) with a standardized coefficient of 0.42. This demonstrates a significant and positive effect, suggesting that higher WIPL is associated with greater turnover intention. The simple linear regression analysis also yielded an R^2 value of 0.182, indicating that WIPL explains 18.2% of the variance in turnover intention.

Similarly, the PLIW dimension has a p -value of 0.00 ($p < 0.05$) and a standardized coefficient of 0.33, indicating a significant positive influence on turnover intention. The R^2 value for PLIW is 0.11, showing that it contributes 11% to the variance in turnover intention. In contrast, the WPLE dimension also shows a p -value of 0.00 ($p < 0.05$), but with a standardized coefficient of -0.34, indicating a significant negative effect. This suggests that higher levels of WPLE are associated with lower turnover intention. The R^2 value for WPLE is 0.117, meaning it accounts for 11.7% of the variance in turnover intention. These results are summarized in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Summary of Hypothesis Analyses

Dimension	Sig.	Standardized	R2 (%)
Work Interference with Personal Life (WIPL)	0.00	.42	18.2
Personal Life Interference with Work (PLIW)	0.00	.33	11.0
Work/Personal Life Enhancement (WPLE)	0.00	-.34	11.7

In summary, this study found that the WIPL and PLIW dimensions have significant positive effects on employees' intention to leave, while the WPLE dimension has a significant negative effect on turnover intention among employees at Company X.

5.4 EVALUATING IMPACTS AND CHARTING FUTURE DIRECTIONS

This study found that Work-Life Balance (WLB) significantly influences employee turnover intention, with a p -value of 0.00, which is less than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$). This indicates a meaningful relationship between WLB and an employee's decision to remain in or leave a job. These findings support previous research by Halim and Antolis (2021), who similarly identified

WLB as a key factor affecting employees' intention to resign. In particular, the dimensions *Work Interference with Personal Life* (WIPL) and *Personal Life Interference with Work* (PLIW) were found to have a positive effect on turnover intention. While this contrasts with some earlier studies, the difference may be due to varying research designs and variable focuses. For instance, Jaharuddin and Zainol (2019) examined executive employees in Malaysia and introduced work engagement as a mediating variable. Their study concluded that higher WLB increased work engagement and in turn, reduced the likelihood of employees intending to leave their organisation.

This perspective aligns with research conducted by Arshad and Puteh (2015) and Bhalerao (2013), who emphasized that strong WLB and work engagement foster higher employee involvement, which ultimately contributes to lower turnover intention. Additionally, Dousin *et al.* (2020), in their study of nurses in Malaysia, found that WLB enhanced job satisfaction, which then reduced turnover intention highlighting the importance of mediating factors in this relationship. Unlike these previous studies, the current research focused on the direct influence of WLB on turnover intention within a single organization in the FMCG sector. The results showed that both WIPL and PLIW dimensions contributed to a disruption in balance, ultimately leading to increased turnover intention. This is consistent with findings by Prayogi *et al.* (2019), who also observed that WLB had a direct and significant effect on turnover intention, even without mediators such as job satisfaction. The meaning of a 'positive effect' in this context refers to an imbalance in work-life integration where interference between work and personal life leads to employee dissatisfaction, thereby prompting the intention to resign. This relationship is critical in organisational settings where performance pressures and role demand frequently challenge personal well-being.

However, several limitations must be acknowledged. The study was conducted in only one FMCG company, limiting the diversity and generalisability of the results. Time constraints and restricted access further limited the scope. As a result, the findings may not fully capture variations across organizations or sectors. To address these limitations, future research could involve comparative studies across two or three companies within the same industry. This would enable a more comprehensive analysis of organisational characteristics, employee profiles, and sector-specific practices. Exploring different personal and organisational variables as mediators or moderators may also provide a more detailed understanding of how WLB influences turnover intention across diverse employment contexts.

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6

THE IMPACT OF PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT ON WORK ENGAGEMENT AMONG EMPLOYEES IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

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The COVID-19 outbreak has caused a decline in the tourism sector, mainly because the large-scale social restriction policy prohibited tourists from visiting public places in Indonesia. Cited from kemenparekraf.go.id in 2020, the COVID-19 pandemic caused a decrease of national income in the tourism sector of IDR 20.7 billion. Around 12,91 million workers in the tourism sector had their working hours reduced, and 939 thousand workers were temporarily not working. Moreover, 409 thousand workers in the tourism sector lost their jobs because of the COVID-19 pandemic. A report from sehatnegeriku.kemkes.go.id showed that in March 2022, confirmed cases of COVID-19 continued to show a downward trend nationally. Along with this development, the tourism sector in Indonesia has started to rise again, although there are big changes happening in this sector caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. Tour and travel agent companies should be able to adjust their operational ways with the ever-changing government's policy regarding the handling of a pandemic.

Not to mention the existence of new vacation trends that have become popular due to the pandemic, such as staycations. It's safe to say that the workers in the tourism sector, especially in the tour and travel agent

companies, are challenged to ensure the growth of tourism activity by showing work-oriented behavior. Previous research has shown that to increase positive job outcomes, workers should have a high level of work engagement (Lisbona et al., 2018; Schaufeli et al., 2018; Mazzeti *et al.*, 2021). Given that, this study aims to reveal a significant predictor of WE in the context of the Indonesian tourism industry. The job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model included work engagement as a result of the motivational processes triggered by the abundance of job resources (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Job resources could be the internal motivation for employee personal growth and the external motivation to facilitate employees in achieving their work targets (Schaufeli, 2017). The availability of job resources will support the fit between an employee and their work environment, known as Person-Environment Fit or P-E Fit (Edwards *et al.*, 2020).

Previous research by Ugwu and Onyishi (2020) found two dimensions of P-E Fit, which are Person-Job Fit (P-J Fit) and Person-Organization Fit (P-O Fit), have significant and positive relationships with WE ($p < .01$). However, this research only included two out of four dimensions of P-E Fit and they only examine the correlation between P-E Fit and WE. Moreover, there is also a lack of research studying the P-E Fit in the tourism industry, even though this industry has a distinction, which is its capability to adapt to new conditions even after the pandemic. Tourism is a very dynamic and competitive industry, where the workers in this industry are challenged to adapt to the ever-changing needs and desires of its consumers (Sofronov, 2018). Hence, in this study we propose that P-E Fit has a significant impact on WE among employees in the tourism industry. The purpose of this study is to explore the impact of P-E Fit on WE by collecting data from employees working in tour and travel agent companies in Jakarta and Surabaya, Indonesia.

6.1 THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS: P-E FIT AND WORK ENGAGEMENT

Work Engagement (WE) is defined as a positive work-related state of mind characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli, 2018). WE as a concept started to gain its popularity in organisational psychology along with the increase of psychology practitioner interest towards positive psychology. Schaufeli and Bakker (2006) stated that studies intended to measure the positive orientation of human resources strength and their psychological capacity could help increase their performance in the workplace. WE refer to a concept created by applying the positive psychology approach towards burnout as a phenomenon. Contradictory to employees who experienced

burnout, employees with high levels of WE will feel energized when working, and they will have an effective relationship with their work activity.

Based on the JD-R model, WE is enhanced by the availability of resources (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Resources are used to increase energy, enforce diligence and support employees to be more focused in doing more for their job. Resources could be divided into two categories: job resources and personal resources. We can mediate the relationship between job resources, such as performance feedback and task identity, with job outcomes, such as Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) and Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB). Many of the job resources are directly involved in the operation of P-E Fit, such as supervisor support and feedback, sufficient wage, availability of facilities. (Hobfoll, 2001). P-E Fit refers to the consistency, similarity, and compatibility between characteristics of people and their work environment (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). It consists of four dimensions: P-J Fit, P-O Fit, Person-Group Fit (P-G Fit), and Person-Supervisor Fit (P-S Fit) (Kristof, 1996; Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2005; Lim *et al.*, 2019). Meanwhile, according to Kristof-Brown *et al.*, there are three factors that contribute to person-environment fit, which are individual factors, group factors and cultural factors (2013).

Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory is implemented in this study to explain how P-E Fit may have an impact towards WE. This theory was developed by Hobfoll (1989) as a research model that could explain a person's behaviour under high pressure comprehensively. The base premise of this model is a person will try to retain, maintain, and build resources. Therefore, every chance of the loss of those valuable resources will threaten the person involved. According to Hobfoll (2001), humans in their work environment will collect, maintain, and make use of resources available to fulfil the job demands of their company. Individuals capable of organising and using the resources they must combat stress caused by the mismatch between their characteristics and their environment will experience the increase of WE, job satisfaction, work commitment and job performance (Hobfoll, 2013).

6.2 EXPLORING THE RESEARCH LANDSCAPE

A total of 120 tour and travel agent employees in Jakarta and Surabaya, Indonesia, participated in this study. To be eligible for participation, the employees are required to work for at least one (1) year at the time the study

is conducted. They were also required to be at least 21 years old and have an educational background of at least graduated from high school. Online questionnaires were distributed to the participants.

Table 6.1 Participant Overview

Description	Criteria	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	42	35
	Female	78	65
Age	21-25 years old	38	31.7
	26-30 years old	58	48.3
	31-36 years old or more	18	15
Work Duration	1-5 years	77	64.2
	6-10 years	33	27.5
Position	11-15 years	6	5
	16 years or more	4	3.3
	Operator	15	12.5
Position	Staff	78	65
	Supervisor	21	17.5
	Manager	6	5
Total		120	100

P-E Fit was measured using the Perceived Person-Environment Fit Scale (PPEFS) as developed by Chuang et al. (2016). This questionnaire consists of 26 items that measure four dimensions of P-E Fit, which are: P-J Fit, P-O Fit, P-G Fit, and P-S Fit (Cronbach's alpha = 0.93). Meanwhile, WE was measured using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) as developed by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004). There are 3 dimensions measured by UWES, namely vigor, dedication and absorption. This questionnaire consists of 17 items (Cronbach's alpha = 0.88).

6.3 PATTERNS OF FIT AND ENGAGEMENT: INSIGHTS FROM THE DATA

Table 6.2 presents the descriptive statistics for the four dimensions of Person-Environment (P-E) Fit measured in this study: Person-Job Fit (P-J Fit), Person-Organization Fit (P-O Fit), Person-Group Fit (P-G Fit), and Person-Supervisor Fit (P-S Fit). All four dimensions show mean scores above the hypothetical midpoint, indicating a generally high level of perceived fit between participants and their respective environments. Among the dimensions, Person-Group Fit (P-G Fit) recorded the highest mean score

($M = 6.10$, $SD = 0.50$). This suggests that respondents felt the strongest sense of compatibility and cohesion with their immediate workgroup or team members. Such a high score may reflect strong interpersonal relationships, supportive group dynamics and effective team collaboration.

Table 6.2 Descriptive Statistics for Person-Environment Fit Dimensions

Dimension	Minimum	Maximum	Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)
Person–Job Fit (P–J Fit)	4.50	7.00	5.91	0.57
Person–Organization Fit (P–O Fit)	4.43	7.00	5.89	0.55
Person–Group Fit (P–G Fit)	4.60	7.00	6.10	0.50
Person–Supervisor Fit (P–S Fit)	4.40	7.00	5.90	0.58

In contrast, the lowest mean score was found in Person–Organization Fit (P–O Fit) ($M = 5.89$, $SD = 0.55$), although this score still indicates a high degree of fit. This may imply that while employees generally feel aligned with their organisation’s values, culture, and goals, this alignment is not as strong as the fit they feel with their group. It is possible that organizational-level factors, such as policy transparency or leadership communication, are less impactful or more variable than group-level interactions. Person–Job Fit (P–J Fit) and Person–Supervisor Fit (P–S Fit) also demonstrate high mean values ($M = 5.91$ and $M = 5.90$, respectively), indicating that respondents perceive a strong alignment between their abilities and job requirements, as well as a good relational fit with their direct supervisors. Overall, the results confirm a favourable perception of P–E Fit across all dimensions, with particularly strong relationships in the team and supervisory contexts. These findings align with existing literature suggesting that group cohesion and supervisory support are key contributors to workplace satisfaction and engagement (Kristof-Brown *et al.*, 2005; Hoffman & Woehr, 2006).

Table 6.3 Description of Work Engagement

Dimension	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
Vigor	3.00	6	4.8	0.65
Dedication	3.20	6	5.06	0.64
Absorption	3.17	6	5.65	0.69

Based on Table 6.3, the WE score in this study is considered high as the empirical mean is greater than the hypothetical mean. Each dimension of work engagement is considered as high as well. The dimension with the highest score is absorption ($\mu = 5.65$), and the lowest one is vigor ($\mu = 4.8$).

Table 6.4 Hypothesis Test

Person-Environment Fit and Work Engagement	F	Sig.	R ²	Adjusted R ²
	241.167	0.000	0.671	0.669

Based on Table 6.4, the results of a simple linear regression test show that P-E F has a significant impact on WE with an R² value of 0.671. This means that 67.1% of the variance of WE has been explained by P-E Fit, while the remaining 32.9% of the variance in WE has been explained by other factors. Additionally, a regression analysis is performed to look at the greater impact of P-E Fit dimensions on WE. Please refer to Table 6.5.

Table 6.5 Regression test on Dimensions of Person-Environment Fit Towards Work Engagement

Dimension	F	Sig.	R ²	Adjusted R ²
Person-Job Fit	79.583	0.000	0.403	0.398
Person-Organization Fit	130.193	0.000	0.525	0.521
Person-Group Fit	150.472	0.000	0.560	0.557
Person-Supervisor Fit	64.303	0.000	0.353	0.347

Next, regression analysis is performed to reveal the impact of P-E Fit on each of WE dimension. As can be seen in Table 6.6, results show that P-E Fit has the greatest impact on vigor with 59.2%, followed by dedication with 57.5% and absorption with 50.2%.

Table 6.6 Regression test on of Person-Environment Fit Towards Dimensions of Work Engagement

Dimension	F	Sig.	R ²	Adjusted R ²
Vigor	170.933	0.000	0.592	0.588
Dedication	131.257	0.000	0.575	0.523
Absorption	118.875	0.000	0.502	0.498

In sum, the findings from Tables 6.2 to 6.6 indicate that participants reported high levels of Person–Environment (P–E) Fit across all dimensions, with the strongest alignment observed in Person–Group Fit. Similarly, Work Engagement (WE) was found to be high, particularly in the dimension of absorption. Regression analysis revealed that P–E Fit significantly predicts overall Work Engagement ($R^2 = 0.671$), explaining 67.1% of its variance. Further analysis showed that P–E Fit had the greatest influence on vigor, followed by dedication and absorption. These results highlight the central role of P–E Fit in enhancing employee engagement.

6.4 ENHANCING WORK ENGAGEMENT THROUGH PERSON-ENVIRONMENT ALIGNMENT IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

The aim of this study was to test the impact of P-E Fit on WE among employees working in the tourism industry. Based on the results, P-E Fit was found having a significant impact on WE. This result corroborates the findings of previous research by Ugwu and Onyishi (2020), which showed that P-E Fit, specifically P-J Fit and P-O Fit, was significantly and positively related to WE. P-E Fit is an example of a resource, which is defined as all kinds of job or personal aspects that have a role in supporting employees in achieving targets, reducing demands, stimulating growth and controlling their environment (Schaufeli, 2013). This study showed that all four dimensions of P-E Fit were proven to have a significant role in increasing WE among tour and travel agent employees. Employees who view their knowledge, skills and abilities as suitable with their job, organisation, colleagues and supervisors have sufficient resources to retain their energy, durability and focus in completing their tasks.

The results of this study found that the participants of this research have a high level of P-E Fit and WE. Furthermore, this study found that P-G Fit has the highest impact on WE among the other three dimensions of P-E Fit. Finally, vigor was the dimension most affected by P-E Fit as compared to the other two dimensions of WE (dedication, absorption). P-G Fit shows a person's interpersonal fit with their colleagues or team (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2005). A high level of P-G Fit indicates that employees' social needs are fulfilled and eventually, it would lead to higher WE because the individuals are more willing to engage in their jobs (Cai *et al.*, 2018). This statement is based on Self-Determination Theory, which suggests that people can become self-determined when their needs for competence, connection and autonomy

are fulfilled (Deci *et al.*, 2017). Employees who have unique knowledge, skills and abilities, together with their team's demands, may be more engaged in work, which will result in a job well done (Tuckey *et al.* 2012).

The study also found that vigor, as defined by Schaufeli (2017), which involves energy and resilience in the workplace, was particularly influenced by high levels of P–E Fit. This is especially relevant in the context of the tourism industry, which has faced significant challenges due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Resilience, or the ability to maintain functionality despite adversity (Bonanno, 2004), was evident among employees with a strong P–E Fit, highlighting the buffering role of workplace alignment in times of crisis. Despite these promising findings, the study has some limitations. Firstly, the sample was limited to employees from tour and travel agencies, which may not fully represent the broader tourism workforce. Future research could expand the sample to include other stakeholders in the tourism industry, such as tour guides, craft producers and food and beverage vendors.

Secondly, the cross-sectional nature of the data limits the ability to draw causal inferences. Future studies are encouraged to employ longitudinal designs or mixed-method approaches to better understand the direction and dynamics of the relationship between P–E Fit and WE over time. This chapter has demonstrated that Person–Environment Fit plays a critical role in enhancing Work Engagement among tourism employees. The findings confirm that all dimensions of P–E Fit significantly contribute to engagement, with Person–Group Fit and vigor standing out as the most influential. These insights reinforce the importance of fostering supportive work environments to sustain employee motivation, especially in high-pressure industries. While the study offers valuable implications, its scope and methodology present opportunities for broader, more longitudinal future research.

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7

A DESCRIPTIVE STUDY OF WORK ENGAGEMENT AMONG DESK-BOUND EMPLOYEES

Nadya Ganis Angesti, Keumala Nurul Hajjati, Zamralita and Daniel Lie

Organisational success connects to the employees' effectiveness or efficiency in running their tasks. Their abilities are not the only thing needed by the company; they must also have strong bonds and be responsible for the quality of their work (Muslim, 2019). Some researchers argue that employees who are closely related to their offices cognitively and emotionally can improve their job performance positively (Yao *et al.*, 2022). To obtain the expected results, they should have strong motivation and be engaged with their jobs. Therefore, the work quality will increase and this will have a positive impact on earning greater profits for the company (Collier, 2018). Recently, there has been an interesting phenomenon to study. It is the existence of a type of work known as a desk-bound job. It does not involve much physical activity or movement. Meanwhile, most are done intensely in front of a computer screen or behind a desk (Collins, 2022). Employees who do desk-bound jobs sit for six to eight hours a day (Medium, 2020). They work in the information technology sector, such as web development, computer programming and software development or they can be in the administrative field, such as personal assistants, legal secretaries and government offices (Medium, 2020).

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, sedentary and desk-bound jobs must be carried out from home, commonly called Work from Home (WFH) and there is research that finds that employees who undergo WFH have a higher stress level due to the intense workloads (Gifford, 2022). Besides, a survey shows that 70% of employees who do desk-bound work can interfere with their physical and mental health, so these conditions have the potential to cause fatigue and they are prone to stress (Kouchak, 2018). The negative impacts of desk-bound work will affect the employees' Work Engagement (WE). Those having the same interests in their jobs can increase WE and provide optimal performance. However, if their work is not following their interests and supported by their work resources, their job performance and engagement will decrease and trigger bad effects like anxiety, burnout, negative emotions and increased turnover rates (Yao *et al.*, 2022). WE is very vital for employees because if they are less engaged with their duties, it can lower their work involvement and then reduce work productivity and trigger stress symptoms (Cassidy, 2020).

In the psychological world, employees who feel attached to their work are called WE (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002). The researcher wants to study the description of WE, especially for desk-bound workers, because it is undeniable that current conditions require them to WFH. Generally, their activities often involve working behind the scenes. Sometimes, it takes place intensely while sitting. The challenges include a high workload and limitations to moving. They can cause physical and mental disturbances. Meanwhile, any work demands high engagement to make them work optimally, especially with the current coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic. This triggers the employees to increase their work productivity to prevent being fired by the company.

Therefore, they may experience stress and need strong motivation to work harder to keep their position and not be replaced by others who are more competent (Farmania *et al.*, 2022). In dealing with the challenges faced by desk-bound workers, an employee must be engaged with his job to provide optimal performance. The researcher thinks it is vital to know the level of WE among employees who adopt desk bound. It is a type of monotonous work in their daily activities. Besides, the researcher has also viewed some previous studies like Tan *et al.* (2022), which highlighted the WE of employees in the manufacturing industry. There has also been no research on desk-bound work. Meanwhile, it is carried out by many workers in the company, especially during this COVID-19 pandemic. This type of work is mostly done from home. Based on these considerations, the researcher is interested in conducting a study on the description of WE among employees who adhere to desk-bound jobs as the focus.

7.1 FRAMING WORK ENGAGEMENT AMONG DESK-BOUND EMPLOYEES IN THE POST-PANDEMIC ERA

Work Engagement (WE) is widely recognized as a crucial psychological state that influences employee behaviour, well-being, and organisational outcomes. Defined by Schaufeli *et al.* (2002) as a positive, fulfilling, and work-related state of mind, WE is marked by three key dimensions: vigor, dedication and absorption. These components reflect not just the presence of motivation but the quality of employees' involvement with their work. In this framework, vigor refers to sustained energy and mental resilience while working; dedication captures a deep sense of pride, inspiration, and significance attributed to one's job; and absorption represents a state of full concentration, where individuals become so immersed in their tasks that time seems to pass unnoticed (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2006).

The growing body of research on WE highlights its relevance in today's rapidly evolving work environments. Particularly in the post-pandemic era, where remote and desk-bound roles have become more prevalent, understanding how WE manifests in sedentary work settings is increasingly important. Desk-bound employees, whose work often involves long hours of screen-based and cognitively demanding tasks, are uniquely susceptible to disengagement, fatigue, and burnout. Yet paradoxically, these roles also demand high levels of sustained attention and productivity. As such, WE serves not only as an indicator of individual thriving but also as a buffer against the psychological toll of physically inactive and isolating job conditions.

Critically, while WE has been studied across various occupational contexts, there remains a notable gap in the literature concerning its application to desk-bound roles in the wake of COVID-19. The shift to remote work has disrupted traditional workplace structures, blurring the boundaries between personal and professional life, and introducing new stressors such as digital fatigue, isolation and work-life imbalance. These emerging challenges necessitate a closer examination of how desk-bound employees maintain or struggle to maintain engagement with their work. Moreover, organisations increasingly recognize that fostering WE among such workers is not merely beneficial but essential to sustaining morale, performance and retention in a predominantly knowledge-based economy.

This chapter, therefore, aims to frame WE within the specific context of desk-bound employment, considering the unique psychosocial demands of such roles and the broader organisational implications. By critically

exploring the underlying dimensions of WE and their relevance in sedentary work settings, this study contributes to a more nuanced understanding of employee engagement in contemporary post-pandemic workplaces.

7.2 OVERVIEW OF SURVEY APPROACH AND PARTICIPANTS

This study employed a non-experimental quantitative design to explore Work Engagement (WE) among desk-bound employees. Data were collected using a structured questionnaire consisting of 17 items, distributed online via a Google Form. The total population of employees working in the formal sector in Jakarta is 2,924,706 (Shaid, 2021), according to data from the Special Capital Region of Jakarta Province Central Statistics Agency. By the end of the data collection period in October, responses were obtained from 229 private-sector employees. The sampling technique used was snowball sampling, where initial participants helped recruit additional respondents through their networks (Salmaa, 2021). This method was chosen to efficiently reach the target number of participants.

The sample included desk-bound employees, of whom 55% were women, 82.1% held a bachelor's degree, 63.3% were unmarried, and 60.7% were employed on a contractual basis. Participants accessed the survey through a Google Form link, which began with an informed consent statement on the landing page. Only those who agreed to participate proceeded to the next section, which featured the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-17). This instrument consists of 17 items measuring three key dimensions of work engagement: vigor, dedication, and absorption. Sample items include: *"I feel happy when I work intensively"* and *"At work, I am always diligent, even when things are not going well."* Respondents rated each item using a five-point Likert scale: 1 (Never), 2 (Rarely), 3 (Sometimes), 4 (Often), and 5 (Always). Higher scores indicated higher levels of WE. The UWES-17 demonstrated good internal reliability across its dimensions, with Cronbach's alpha values of 0.844 for vigor, 0.810 for dedication, and 0.680 for absorption.

7.3 DESCRIPTIVE FINDINGS ON WORK ENGAGEMENT DIMENSIONS

In this stage of the research, the analysis focused on understanding the levels of Work Engagement (WE) among desk-bound employees based on responses to the UWES-17 instrument. To ensure the data met the assumptions for statistical analysis, a normality test was conducted using the One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. The results indicated that the data were normally

distributed ($p = 0.200$), allowing for further parametric analysis. The WE scores were measured using a five-point Likert scale, where 1 represented “Never” and 5 represented “Always.” The hypothetical mean for each item was set at 3.0, representing a moderate level of engagement. Overall, the findings revealed that the average WE score among desk-bound employees was $M = 3.96$, indicating a high level of engagement with their work. As shown in Table 7.1, dedication emerged as the highest-rated dimension ($\mu = 4.05$), suggesting that participants generally approached their work with pride, enthusiasm, and a strong sense of purpose.

This was followed closely by vigor ($\mu = 3.95$), which reflects the employees’ energy levels and resilience when facing challenges at work. The absorption dimension scored the lowest ($\mu = 3.91$), although it still falls within the high engagement range, indicating that while employees are generally focused and immersed in their tasks, they are slightly less likely to lose track of time due to deep involvement compared to their levels of dedication and vigour.

Table 7.1 Mean Calculation Results of 3 Dimensions of Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

Dimensions	Mean	SD	Interpretation
Vigor	3.95	0.64	High
Dedication	4.05	0.63	High
Absorption	3.91	0.54	High
Work Engagement	3.96	0.54	High

Further analysis explored differences in WE across demographic groups. The results indicated that married employees reported significantly higher WE scores than their unmarried counterparts ($t = 6.48, p = 0.00$). This may suggest that personal life stability and social support contribute positively to work engagement. Similarly, employees working on contractual terms demonstrated significantly higher engagement levels compared to those with permanent employment status ($t = 2.59, p = 0.01$). This may reflect a heightened sense of job insecurity or a stronger motivation to perform well to secure future employment opportunities. These findings provide important insight into the patterns of employee engagement, particularly in the context of desk-bound roles that are increasingly common in the post-pandemic workplace. They also highlight the influence of personal and employment-related factors on how deeply individuals are connected to their work.

7.4 KEY OBSERVATIONS AND RESEARCH REFLECTIONS

This research aims to describe the employees' attachment to their work, which has a desk-bound type of work. The researcher concludes that the participants in this study have the highest WE on the dedication dimension ($\mu = 4.05$). The findings show the highest dimension is dedication ($\mu = 4.05$). This means that when the employees are working, they have a feeling to spend their energy on their jobs and that what they are doing is part of their lives (Tan *et al.*, 2022). The second highest dimension is vigor ($\mu = 3.95$). The employees feel there is energy that makes them want to continue their work even though there are problems (Tan *et al.*, 2022). Finally, the lowest one is absorption ($\mu = 3.91$). This means that the employees feel very focused and thorough in carrying out their duties, so the time seems to pass quickly (Pri & Zamralita, 2017). Next, there is an interesting finding in the different demographic test section. Married employees perform a high level of WE compared to single ones. This result supports that a worker can be more productive if he has been married because there is support from his partner. Also, married people have a great responsibility compared to unmarried ones (Hamadneh, 2017). Therefore, there should be a support system for individual development and a coping strategy (Pierce *et al.*, 1996). Likewise, the level of WE for employees with contract status is higher than for permanent ones. This is because an organisation can fire contract employees if they do not act optimally or do not follow the agreement (Indeed, 2022).

In this research, the researcher has described WE, especially for current desk-bound workers. In their daily activities, they carried out their tasks behind the scenes. However, this research still has some limitations. First, it uses an online questionnaire where the questions are closed (closed questions) so that the researcher cannot understand what participants feel and interpret their emotional reactions. It is due to a lack of the opportunity to explore deeper by interacting directly with each participant to support additional data (Cornell, 2022). Secondly, the use of quantitative questionnaires can provide social desirability bias when the participant does not answer what he thinks but prefers to give answers according to what other people want to hear (Nikolopoulou, 2022). Therefore, he can be accepted by the people around him. The data measurement may also be less valid because other aspects should not be included in the measured phenomenon (Zaenab, 2020).

Future research should involve more respondents so that the findings can be more accurate. Also, further research should explore WE to obtain more information about any aspects that can affect WE, such as social

support, which is a driving aspect of increasing WE among employees. These aspects are included in the resources to support the success of an individual job (Bakker *et al.*, 2011). The results of this research can be a reference for organisations to maintain or increase employee WE to positively impact organisational progress. Considering that WE is very vital for the growth rate of the organization and the increasingly competitive work environment, it is also expected that companies need to promote WE for their employees and one of which is by providing mindfulness training (Chen *et al.*, 2022). The training aims to help individuals stay focused on their emotions and circumstances in the surrounding environment so that they can understand certain conditions with an open mind (Adrian, 2021). Mindfulness training can help employees to reduce the effects of stress, increase their productivity, provide solutions to overcome work problems and increase employee engagement within the organisation (Chen *et al.*, 2022).

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8

POLITICAL COMMUNICATION MODEL FOR INDONESIAN WOMEN IN WINNING REGIONAL ELECTIONS AGAINST MALE LEADERSHIP DOMINATION

Puji Santoso and Nurhasanah Nasution Diran

Politicians are often portrayed as distant individuals. Or considered elitist and socially distant. Traditional media typically capture politicians in situations that are often unique, rumoured and sometimes controversial. As such, it does not gain insight into how politicians become day-to-day workers and may have the same work habits as society. Thus, social media or other mass media allow politicians to bridge these gaps by showing the public that politics is an everyday occupation and that what politicians do is perceived to be relevant to social needs. Political stories are often told through a live image of the politician's public image campaign (Mohamed, 2019; Santoso, 2021). Building a civil society means striving to create a public space that includes all citizens, men and women, without exception. So far, in our political system, these policies only apply to discriminating against women as other people (Mudrika & Yusri, 2019).

The lack of women's participation in political institutions has led to the fact that the interests of various women are not adequately considered in some political decisions, which are often negative. Masculine and less gender-influenced, while most political decisions always target women (Diana, M.Si,

2012). One of the hallmarks of the success of the women's movement is women's high political attention and participation (Allen *et al.*, 2019; Ross, 2016). Gender gaps in public and political life remain a major concern. Challenges continue to be faced today as the extent of women's participation in every public and political activity remains unresolved (Haugsgjerd *et al.* 2021). On a broader scale, the issue is also about women's leadership. It must be recognised that throughout civilization, the realm of politics and leadership is a public, and often a human, realm. Although there have been female leaders in the history of world civilization, they are also numerous (Witriani & Kusuma, 2019).

Since the first Women's Congress in Yogyakarta in 1928, women's political awareness based on Indonesian history has grown. In the 1955 elections, women also had the right to participate and exercise their political rights, vote and be elected (Susanto, 2013). Equal recognition of men's and women's rights has been firmly recognized in Indonesia's national and national life. This recognition is established through various legal instruments and ratification of various conventions guaranteeing women's political rights (Mukarom, 2008). The presence of women as district leaders is one of the strategies for establishing more gender-equitable policies. Female district leaders gain votes from voters in a variety of ways. Despite their similarities, the communication modes used are varied (El Adawiyah *et al.*, 2019). The lack of female leadership in state formation in some parts of the world from ancient times to the present is an interesting question to examine (Freelon & Wells, 2020; Perloff, 2017). Is this because of the unpopularity of female leaders or because of the political influence of identity and sexuality (gender)? This may be due to women's lack of political communication skills when they hold top government positions (Masruri *et al.*, 2019).

There are already many governors and mayors at the prefecture/city level, but the percentage is still very low compared to the number of male leaders (Masruri *et al.*, 2019). As a state with the principles of democracy, Indonesian people reflect their democratic position through general elections. In the general election, the public is represented through its representatives, or the parties of the early elections of 1955, or through the representatives of the People's Assembly, the parliamentary elections known as parliamentary elections or the presidential elections or PilPres that began in 2004. Direct elections are held by one of the president's direct elections known as (Famelasari & Prastiwi, 2021). 171 General Elections Indonesia was held simultaneously by the General Election Commission (GEM) or *Komisi Pemilihan Umum (KPU)* in 2018, detailing 17 districts, 115 districts and 39 cities. Being a leader in Indonesia's Governor and state and local governments can be very costly.

These charges are known in Indonesia as ‘political costs or ‘dowry’. Indonesia’s national television news station tvOne has admitted that La Nyala Matateli, a candidate for Governor of East Java, has been asked for up to Rs. 40 billion to get support from the Gerrinda party. La Nyala’s confession, which once shocked the public with an impressive nominal dowry, is accompanied by the confession of several other presidential candidates in the region. The Democratic Party of Partai Golkar has been jointly nominated by East Java Governor, Khofifah Indar Parawansa and his deputy Emil Elestianto Dardak. As is well known, in the People’s Republic of the Congo in East Java, the Golkar Party has 11 seats and the Democratic Party has 13 seats. Of course, with so many seats, these two parties have made very important political achievements in nominating the candidates they carry (Wahyudi, 2018). In Indonesia, the role and lack of representation of women in politics have become a major issue. According to data from the GEM, 1,145 candidates were registered for the 2018 simultaneous elections of the regional presidents.

However, the number of female candidates is only 101, which is very small, accounting for only 0.9% of all registered candidates (GEM, 2020). Therefore, in the 2017 district mayor’s simultaneous elections, there were only 46 female candidates out of a total of 662 candidates. This percentage is 14% higher than the 2018 simultaneous local elections. The phenomenon of few female political representatives is seen in governments and parliament (Putra, 2019). The growing exclusion of women from politics is a sad phenomenon, as it is considered a violation of the rule of law. The direction of local democracy. The presence of women as regional headquarters is one of the strategies for creating more gender-equal politics (Sazzali & Best, 2020). Women’s efforts to demonstrate political leadership in the region are not easy. Many factors influence women in achieving community leadership (El Adawiyah *et al.*, 2019). Khofifah’s persistence in seizing the East Java Province seat is interesting to observe. In addition to his tireless and relentless efforts to participate in the fight three times, the purpose of this study is to find out Khofifah’s political communication model in winning the East Java gubernatorial election contest, where the government in East Java Province has been dominated by men.

8.1 THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS AND DIMENSIONS OF POLITICAL COMMUNICATION

Political communication is communication that involves political messages and political actors or something related to power, government and government policies (Freelon & Wells, 2020; Neumann, 2002; Perloff, 2017).

In simple terms, political communication is translated as communication between ‘ruling’ and ‘ruled’ (Pureklolon, 2016). However, it is interpreted that communication in the message process can be understood as a study of political communication in the development of communication to various developing situations (Bracciale & Martella, 2017). In the theory of political communication, Laswell (1990) refers ‘Who; Says What; In Which Channel; To Whom; With What Effects; as a way that is considered appropriate to describe the act of political communication a note that modified the formula from linear to circulation (to whom to with whom). The view of political communication includes several aspects that need to be considered in both a practical and theoretical setting and its study. The aspects of political communication, among others, are: (1) political institutions with their communication aspects; (2) media institutions with aspects of political communication; (3) audience orientation towards political communication; (4) aspects of communication that are relevant to political culture; (5) political communicators who carry political messages to audiences as communicants and (6) views of political audiences as recipients of messages in society (Swanson & Nimmo, 1990).

Nina W. Syam (2002) defines political communication as not enough just to combine two definitions, “communication” and “politics”. It has its own concept, although it is simply a combination of the two concepts. Communication and politics in the discourse of human science are two areas of search, each of which can be said to be relatively independent. However, both have something in common because they have the same material object, namely humans (Syam, 2002). According to Bungin (2018), communication is the most important part of all social systems in human society. This includes the political system. In political communication, social facts are always associated with the events and times in which the social facts occur. Momentum is a social construction that occurs through engineering as a reality that is constructed to create an imagined condition to give a certain impression to the audience or political opponents. Of the two, the most important is a description of the meaningful socio-political reality that can be conveyed to the public.

The problem then becomes wider because the descriptive text, when it goes through the publicity process, becomes something that is detached from its context (Bungin, 2018). Political communication always emphasizes that we influence others’ perceptions, whether we want to or not (Littlejohn & A. Foss, 2014). According to Subiakto and Ida (2014), political communication as a field of study originally came from several studies such as rhetoric studies, propaganda analysis, studies on attitude change, studies on public opinion,

studies on voter behaviour, as well as studies on government relations with the media and campaign engineering studies. The study of political communication becomes a scientific study, as well as can be applied to practical studies related to strategies to influence opinion to voting behaviour (Sikumbang *et al.*, 2021). As a relatively new study, political communication borrows a lot from other disciplines, both theory and methodology.

For example, anthropology and sociology are used to understand linguistics and symbolism in politics, including semiotic and discourse studies, as well as cultural studies (Rawnsley & Gong, 2016). Likewise, psychology and social psychology are used to understand aspects of communication in individuals, such as changes in attitudes, the effects of political messages through the media, and political sociology. Political science is used to understand political systems and their implications for communication systems (Adhani *et al.*, 2022). One of the most important topics in political communication is persuasive communication. At the core of political communication is persuasion; human efforts are made to influence other people to conform to what political will is (Subiakto & Ida, 2014). According to Hendry and Ida (2014), the notion of political communication is largely determined by the purpose of delivering a political message, namely, to make the recipient of the message behave in a certain way.

Experts and scholars provide boundaries regarding political communication as a communication activity that has political consequences or consequences on the functioning of the political system (Subiakto & Ida, 2014). Brian McNair (2016) conducted a study of political communication and led us to the relationship of three elements in the process of realizing and understanding political action. The three elements are political organizations, political parties and public organizations (McNair, 2016). The effect of political communication on behaviour and attitudes is to consider its impact on the democratic process itself. There is something qualitatively different about a political system in which mass media is the main means of communication (Freelon & Wells, 2020). Politicians will be more sensitive to public opinion conveyed through the mass media, as measured in opinion polls. Politicians inevitably turn into captives of public opinion. The government and those who want to be in power allow these principles to be undermined by market researchers (survey institutions). Ideology and value systems are left at the altar of popularity (Ayish, 2002; Hayes, 2012; Scheufele, 2014; Schlesinger, 1999).

Political persuasion (self-image) activities are a cynical response to any poll results conducted by survey institutions. Not only policies but leaders are also elected and removed based on public opinion, although that is regardless

of their intellectual quality. The image of the leader or potential leader is said to be far more important than his abilities (McNair, 2016). Clever use of the media must also be considered by political actors when carrying out their communication. According to McNair (2016), political actors must use the media to convey their messages to the audiences they want. Political programs, political statements, appeals to vote, pressure group campaigns and acts of terrorism all have a political existence (and potential for effective communication) only at the level where they are reported and accepted as messages by the media audience. Therefore, all political communicators must gain access to the media by any means, be it legislative, as in the rules of political balance and impartiality.

Discussing political communication is not as easy as talking about political movements. The difficulty arises because two concepts carry this discipline, namely the concept of 'communication' and the concept of 'politics'. It is a battle area and is enlivened by competing theories, approaches, agendas, and concepts in building their identity (image). Because of that, communication that talks about politics is sometimes claimed to be a study of aspects of election campaigns (election campaign). Because it includes persuasion of voters, debates between candidates, and the use of mass media as a campaign tool (Cangara, 2011), the popularity of the study of political communication cannot be separated from the emergence of analysts, experts and consultants engaged in political communication in the arena of general elections and regional head elections. In addition, the space for print media and broadcast media has increased in discussing and providing the latest developments in the field of political communication (Ahmad, 2012).

8.2 INTERPRETING LIVED EXPERIENCES THROUGH QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

This study adopts a qualitative analytical approach grounded in a constructivist paradigm, emphasizing the interpretation of lived experiences within a specific social and cultural context. The primary objective is to develop a deep, comprehensive understanding of the research problem through an inductive, exploratory process. As Bungin (2014) explains, qualitative research is rooted in phenomenology, which is well-suited for investigating dynamic human experiences marked by subjectivity and emotional variability. This approach allows the researcher to uncover layers of meaning that might not emerge through quantitative techniques. Meanwhile, in line with Creswell (2014), qualitative research generally aims to include information about the

main phenomena explored in research, research participation, and research locations. The purpose of qualitative research can also state the research designs selected. This objective is written in 'technical' research terms that are derived from the language of qualitative research.

According to Moleong (2011), the approach taken is qualitative. This means that the data collected is not in the form of numbers but comes from interview scripts, field notes, personal documents, notes, memos, and other official documents. The purpose of this qualitative research is to describe the empirical reality behind the phenomenon in depth, in detail, and thoroughly. Therefore, the use of a qualitative approach in this study is to match the empirical reality with the applicable theory by using a descriptive method (Moleong, 2011). Qualitative analysis strategies are generally not used as a means of finding data in terms of frequency but are used to analyse ongoing social processes and give meaning to the facts that appear on the surface.

Thus, qualitative analysis is used to understand processes and facts and not just to explain these facts (Bungin, 2014). The data were collected either through observation, in-depth interviews, and documents. Then, the data are classified into certain categories. This classification or categorization considers validity (validity), considering the competence of the research subject. Furthermore, triangulation, namely interviewing relevant informants selected by researchers. According to Kriyantono (2014), this meaning is the basic principle of qualitative research. In carrying out the meaning or interpretation, researchers are required to theorize, explain, and argue. Theorizing is considered important to help researchers defend their arguments (blocking interpretation) (Kriyantono, 2014). The data of this study consisted of primary data and secondary data. Primary data was collected from informants, while secondary data was obtained through a document study. Determination of informants as primary data sources is determined purposefully (chosen deliberately) based on the objectives and problems that the researcher wants to study (Iskandar, 2009).

8.3 DISSECTING ELECTORAL DYNAMICS: A CLOSER LOOK AT THE 2018 EAST JAVA REGIONAL ELECTION

This chapter presents a comprehensive analysis of the 2018 East Java Regional Election (Pilkada), focusing on voting outcomes, party alignments and regional support patterns. The electoral contest featured two prominent candidate pairs: Khofifah Indar Parawansa and Emil Dardak, and Syaifullah

Yusuf and Puti Guntur Soekarno Putri. The results reveal significant insights into voter behaviour, political party influence, and regional political leanings across East Java. According to data released by the East Java General Election Commission (GEM), Khofifah and Emil secured a majority with 10,465,218 votes (53.55%), surpassing their rivals who obtained 9,076,014 votes (46.45%). This victory was geographically broad-based, with Khofifah-Emil winning in most districts and cities across the province, signalling widespread public support across both urban and rural constituencies.

In terms of party representation, the National Awakening Party (PKB) emerged as the dominant force in the 2014 legislative elections in East Java, securing 20 seats in the DPRD, followed closely by PDI-P (19 seats) and Gerindra and Democrats (13 seats each). These figures reflect the shifting party dynamics and the strategic coalitions that influenced the 2018 gubernatorial race. This chapter further breaks down voter turnout, the distribution of valid and invalid ballots, and the geographic strongholds of each candidate pair. By exploring these statistical trends alongside the political narratives and alliances underpinning them, the analysis provides a clearer understanding of East Java’s evolving political landscape and the broader implications for regional governance.



Figure 8.1. The Results of The Vote for Mrs Khofifah against Mr Syaifullah Yusuf in 2018 East Java Gubernatorial Election.

(Source: 2018 General Election Commission website - GEM, 2020).

Only two pairs of candidates will compete for the leadership seat of the Governor of East Java Province. They are Khofifah Indar Parawansa and her partner Emil Dardak, respectively, and her opponent is Syaifullah Yusuf and his partner Puti Guntur Soekarno Putri. In the 2018 East Java Regional

Election, the East Java GEM announced the number of votes obtained by each contestant. The number of votes obtained by the pair Khofifah Indar Parawansa and Emil Dardak was 10,465,218 votes or about 53.55 per cent. Meanwhile, Syaifullah Yusuf received 9,076,014 votes or 46.45 percent.

In the plenary meeting of the determination of the East Java GEM, it was confirmed that the National Awakening Party, frequently abbreviated to *PKB*, was the winning political party in the 2014 Pileg in East Java, with 20 seats, followed by PDI-P with 19 seats and Gerindra and Democrats, each with 13 seats, followed by the Golkar Party with 11 seats. The sixth place was the National Mandate Party (PAN) with seven seats, while the Prosperous Justice Party (PKS) got six seats, the United Development Party (PPP) got five seats, Nasdem got four seats and Hanura got only two seats. See Table 8.1.

Table 8.1 Number of Political Party Seats in East Java DPRD 2018

Number	Party Name	Number of Representatives in Parliament
1	Partai Kebangkitan Bangsa	20
2	Partai Demokrasi Indonesia Perjuangan	19
3	Partai Demokrat	13
4	Partai Gerindra	13
5	Partai Golkar	11
6	Partai Amanat Nasional (PAN)	7
7	Partai Keadilan Sejahtera (PKS)	6
8	Partai Persatuan Pemangunan (PPP)	5
9	Partai Nasional Demokrat (NasDem)	4
10	Partai Hati Nurani Rakyat (Hanura)	2

As illustrated in Table 8.1, the political landscape of East Java during the 2018 regional elections was marked by the dominance of a few key parties, notably PKB, PDI-P and Gerindra. These party seat distributions offer critical insight into the political alignment and grassroots influence within the region. The success of Khofifah Indar Parawansa and Emil Dardak in securing over half of the total votes cast can be partially attributed to strategic support from dominant parties and their substantial outreach across major districts. The following section delves into a detailed analysis of the voting patterns and electoral outcomes, highlighting how these results reflected broader regional political sentiments and the extent of candidate influence across East Java's diverse constituencies.

8.4 REFLECTIONS ON POLITICAL COMMUNICATION, CHALLENGES AND FUTURE PATHWAYS

The political communication process carried out by Khofifah's informants to win the seat of Governor of East Java for the 2018-2023 period is quite tough. The difficulty of the political communication process was due to the tug of war to get the support of the Nahdlatul Ulama (NU), who was considered quite influential among the people of East Java Province. The problem is that the two contestants or candidates competing for leadership seats in East Java are both NU's best cadres, namely Khofifah Indar Parawansa and Syaifullah Yusuf. For Khofifah herself, this 2018 regional election is the third election she has participated in; after the two East Java regional elections, Khofifah lost and failed to become the Governor of East Java. Khofifah lost twice in a row against the same pair: Soekarwo and Syaifullah Yusuf. Khofifah's failure twice in a row did not stop her from taking part in the 2018 Regional Head Election for the third time. For Khofifah's informant, there is no term to stop fighting in the East Java Pilkada if she feels sure that she is trying as much as possible. The motivation of Gus Dur (the late KH Abdurrahman Wahid) became the capital of Khofifah's informant for the third time participating in the 2018 East Java Pilkada contest.

"The final decision is in the 'hand' of Allah. I remember Gus Dur's words (former General Chairman of PB NU, the late KH Abdurrahman Wahid) that fighting does require sacrifice, and every sacrifice has great rewards. Gus Dur always reminded him that. So, the task of man is endeavor, struggle and the decision are in the hands of Allah. Yes, if we see it like that, if we have tried our best, God will determine what is best for us".

(Informant Khofifah Indar Parawansa)

From the beginning, the informant Khofifah realized that there were parties who had not approved of her participation in the East Java Pilkada contest since the period she first participated in. However, the request of the NU clerics, who are considered charismatic and influential in East Java, is what causes him to keep trying to win the contest. Apart from Gus Dur or the late KH Abdurrahman Wahid, there were at least 16 NU who requested and encouraged him to become one of the contestants for the 2018 East Java Pilkada.

"I have been a member of the DPR RI four times. Suddenly, in 2008, Kyai Hasyim Muzadi (late) and Kyai Wahid As'ad Syamsul Arifin called me. "Khofifah, please 'run' for governor of East Java?" And I answered: "Why should I? But if I have accepted the assignment, I have to go all out. Likewise, for the second period, and the same for the third period. Then I said: "Kyai if I 'run' (then) I have to resign from the post of social minister. I said if I don't back down how can I control the court? It's a long process. But in the end, I said yes, if this is what Kyai-Kyais think is a field of service that is mandated by me, then I will make an effort. And let's make an effort 'together' (together with NU Kyai)".

(Informant Khofifah Indar Parawansa)

The total loyalty of Khofifah's informants to the old NU made the Kyai have deep sympathy for Khofifah. This attitude of glorifying the NU by Khofifah's informant seemed to force him to keep moving forward even if he took a step, even though he lost twice and felt cheated in the two previous East Java Pilkada periods. Her determination and enthusiasm to 'fight' with male regional head candidates further showed that Khofifah's informant was a female figure who did not give up easily and was easily defeated by any strong man. Informant KH Salahuddin Wahid (Gus Solah) admired Khofifah's persistence and patience in seizing political leadership in East Java Province after years of being dominated by male figures. Among NU's senior ulema and Kyai, the name Khofifah is the main capital to gain the support and voice of the members of the NU organization or Nahdliyin in East Java. In the 1997 NU ulema deliberation, NU was no longer a problem if there were women who were able to appear in the arena of national and local leadership.

"First of all, I find it strange that nowadays there are still people who forbid it (women's leadership). The 1997 NU Ulama National Conference allowed female leaders. And that's not a problem anymore. It's the people who don't allow it that's weird. In today's context, there is no need to question why we allow women to lead in Indonesia, starting with the village head, then the sub-district head, regent or mayor, governor, minister, president, and vice president. So, there's no problem".

(Informant KH Solahuddin Wahid, senior NU figure)

With various valid arguments and references, the decision of the NU ulema's congress essentially allowed women to become leaders. Based on the results of the 1997 NU Ulama National Conference, encouraged NU clerics to enthusiastically invite NU Muslimat such as Khofifah to become leaders of the people who are predominantly Muslim in East Java. The NU ulema's decision due to the NU ulema's National Conference may still cause

controversy among NU scholars. One of the controversies is that the decision resulting from the congress is not binding on all scholars and Muslims in Indonesia. One of the proofs is that the ulama or Dayans in Aceh still hold tightly to Allah's commands in Surah An-Nisa' verse 34. That women should not be the leaders of men. That is why Eliza Sa'auddin Jamal failed to be elected Mayor of Banda Aceh, because of the Acehnese clerics refusing women to become leaders in the majority Muslim area. Aceh is different from East Java. In the province of East Java to date, there are at least 10 women who have become regents or mayors.

Meanwhile, in Aceh Province, there are no women who become regional heads in districts or cities in the Aceh region. Informant Illiza Sa'auddin Jamal felt that he had failed to become the Mayor of Banda Aceh, one of which was due to propaganda and open campaigns from the ulama or Tengku in Aceh, which he considered had cornered him as a woman. In open campaigns or not, the Tengku and religious leaders in Aceh always convey the Qur'an in Surah AnNisa verse 34 for practical political purposes to thwart women's leadership in Aceh, especially in Banda Aceh. In Aceh's history, it is not once a regional head was led by a woman as happened in East Java Province. The Islamic tradition in Aceh has made it impossible for women to become regional heads. Although there may be female figures who are always ready to occupy the district police or mayor, even the governor. The tradition of Islamic teachings that are firmly adhered to by the ulama and the people of Aceh and surrounding areas has prevented women from obtaining positions in local government leadership. Informant Illiza Sa'auddin Jamal had been the Mayor of Banda Aceh because of the 'forced' factor. The regulation (law number 23 of 2014) gives Eliza a political advantage so that she automatically replaces the top leadership when the leadership is permanently absent (died).

In a study conducted by Shahibul Izar from the Faculty of Social and Political Sciences, Syiah Kuala University, Banda Aceh, in 2018, it was stated that in the 2017 local elections in Banda Aceh, Illiza Saaduddin Jamal, who was paired with Farid Nyak Umar, lost by the percentage of 33.23% compared to the victory of Aminullah Usman's pair which reached 66.27%. This study concludes that Illiza Saaduddin Jamal's failure was caused because Illiza Sa'auddin Jamal was considered unable to provide satisfaction and comfort for the people of Banda Aceh in the provision of infrastructure and policies regarding gender issues. Women should not be leaders in Muslim-majority areas (Izar, 2018). Informant Illiza Sa'auddin Jamal realized that he was not wanted by several ulama figures to lead Banda Aceh because of gender reasons. The informant acknowledged that there were attempts to prevent him from becoming the Mayor of Banda Aceh for the 2017-2022 period.

In the process of participating in the democratic series in the Banda Aceh Pilkada, the informant admitted that he had surrendered. Informants only expect help and blessing from Allah SWT.

Even though the informant feels that he is a victim of a black campaign carried out by parties who do not want him to come forward and lead a government area where the mass base is a Muslim community who is obedient to the ulama or Tengku. If you compare the case of the Pilkada in East Java and the case of the Pilkada in Banda Aceh, which puts forward identity politics, the case of gender responsiveness is still relatively louder than putting forward work programs. The emergence of identity politics will then trigger the emergence of a black campaign that is considered detrimental to some contestants and benefits other contestants. If you have seen the similarities between the two Pilkada East Java and Banda Aceh in terms of gender responsiveness, the researcher sees the difference between Khofifah Indar Parawansa and Illiza Sa'auddin Jamal in terms of making political communication strategies, especially political communication carried out against religious leaders (Islam). To simplify the explanation, the following matrix can be described as follows:

Table 8.2 Comparison of Khofifah Indar Parawansa's Political Communication in East Java and Illiza Sa'auddin Jamal in Aceh, Indonesia

No.	Name	Differences in Political Communication of Two Female Regional Head Candidates
1	Khofifah Indar Parawansa (female/58 years old)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Has a strong social capital because he has a background as a minister twice, a member of the DPR RI for 4 terms from the PKB Faction and has been the General Chair of Muslimah NU since 2000-present. 2. Encouraged by ulama and NU Kiai to become candidates for Governor of East Java from 2008 to 2018. 3. Optimism can be accepted by the people of East Java, who are predominantly Muslim, and are considered to understand the concept of women's leadership as the concept of women's leadership exemplified by Queen Balqis during the time of Prophet Sulaiman 'Alaissalaam, as illustrated in the Qur'an surah An Naml: 20-44 and surah Al Baqarah: verse 228) 4. The Kiai and NU clerics gave the 1997 National Conference decision that women could be political leaders.

Table 8.2 Continue...

No.	Name	Differences in Political Communication of Two Female Regional Head Candidates
		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Carrying out a political communication strategy by maximizing the role of Kiai and NU clerics to the general chairmen of political parties in Jakarta. 6. Successfully became the first female governor in East Java because of the 2018 Regional Head Elections
2	Eliza Sa'auddin Jamal (female/50 years old)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Has a background in being a member of the DPR RI from the PPP faction. 2. The ulama (Tengku) of Aceh was prevented from becoming the Mayor of Banda Aceh because Islam did not teach women to be leaders for men. 3. The ulama (Tengku) in Aceh forbid women to be leaders for men, as mandated by the Qur'an Surah An-Nisa' verse: 34. 4. Failed to become the first female regional head in Aceh, after losing the Pilkada in Banda Aceh in 2017. 5. Based on the research, the level of dissatisfaction of the citizens of Banda Aceh was very low during Illiza Sa'auddin Jamal as mayor. 6. There are <i>swing voters</i> as much as 68% and turn to support their political opponents.

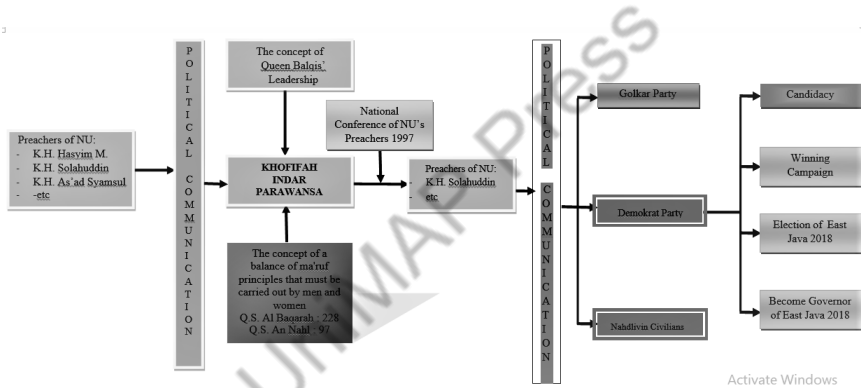
The researcher compares it with political participation in other countries, such as Malaysia. In a study by Victor, Othman and Nazariah (2021), the country's government guaranteed women's political participation in Malaysia. Even the Malaysian government has also guaranteed in their laws. This is done to avoid discrimination or marginalization of women in Malaysia in pursuing political life in the country. The results of the study indicate an upward movement or increase in the number of Malaysian women occupying prominent political positions such as Deputy Prime Ministers, Members of Parliament, Cabinet Members, Anti-Corruption Chairmen, Ministers, and Deputy Ministers after the 2018 general election (Okpe *et al.*, 2021). According to Faiz Manshur (2015), Khofifah Indar Parawansa is a persistent female figure, focused, patient and never gives up.

At least that's the most appropriate expression the researcher attaches to Khofifah Indar Parawansa in the 2018 East Java gubernatorial election. In a foreword to the publisher of the book that published Khofifah's book, editor Faiz Mansur wrote that Khofifah Indar Pawansa is one of the rare female figures in this country. He came forward as a public figure not because he had benefited from the political momentum but then skyrocketed. He is

also not a narcissistic figure who has stage fright because he happens to get a space because of the vacancy of women’s leadership. Khofifah is a leader born from the process and matured through experience. From organizational experience to experience as a state official, the many professions he has carried out have made him a distinctive character (Manshur, 2015).

The people of East Java, who are generally members and sympathizers of NU, listen more to the appeals or invitations of their Kiai or clerics rather than obeying the government’s advice. That is why the regional development in various sectors in remote East Java carried out by the government generally informally includes the Kiai or NU clerics. This is done to make the development process in the region run smoothly as expected.

Figure 8.2. Khofifah’s Political Communication Model in Winning the 2018 East Java Governor Election.



Khofifah Indar Parawansa’s victory in the 2018 East Java gubernatorial election, the only factor that caused her victory was God’s destiny, which He gave through the role of NU Kiai and scholars. It was as if the NU Kiai and clerics had “ignored” Allah’s command in the Qur’an Surah Annisa’ verse 34 that this man is the female leader and not the other way around. But the accusation of “ignoring” the Qur’an has, of course, been denied by the NU Kyai and clerics. In a national meeting (Munas) of NU ulama in 1997, the concept of male and female leadership was thoroughly discussed and decided. With various valid arguments and references, the decision of the NU ulema’s congress essentially allowed women to become leaders. Based on the results of the 1997 NU Ulama National Conference encouraged NU clerics to enthusiastically invite NU Muslimat, such as Khofifah, to become leaders of the people who are predominantly Muslim in East Java. The decision of the NU ulama because of the NU ulema’s National Conference may still cause controversy among NU scholars.

This research still has limitations, especially in confirming the informant Syaifullah Yusuf, as Khofifah Indar Parawansa's main rival. Several technical problems made it difficult for us to interview Syaifullah Yusuf and his deputy candidates. Khofifah Indar Parawansa's politeness, patience, focus, and persistence are considered one of the factors that became the main attraction for the senior NU so that they consciously and openly supported Khofifah Indar Parawansa to become the first female governor in East Java, regardless of the factors involved. gender. Another factor is the assessment of senior NU against Khofifah, who is considered to have succeeded in leading various state institutions and leading mass organizations successfully.

Through political communication with the ulama and NU, Khofifah succeeded in becoming the first female leader in a Muslim-majority area in East Java Province, defeating a male leader candidate. This study recommends the necessity of education in political communication for women and ulama when they have to compete for power and governance at the local and national levels.

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PRIORITISING PEOPLE

— EXPLORING APPROACHES TO
ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR —

In *PRIORITISING PEOPLE: Exploring Approaches to Organisational Behaviour*, delve into an in-depth exploration of the modern workplace, shedding light on the critical interplay between employee behaviour, organizational dynamics and well-being, particularly relevant in the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic. As nations globally strive towards post-pandemic economic recovery and seek to enhance global competitiveness, this book chapter underscores the urgency of integrating Innovative Work Behaviour (IWB) into performance metrics, emphasizing the need for fostering innovation in an era shaped by Industrial Revolution 4.0 and Society 5.0. Examine the various factors impacting employee behaviour, incorporating the consequences of job insecurity on Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB) and the significance of gratitude in fostering Service-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (SOCB). Uncover strategies to enhance employee well-being and engagement by examining factors such as self-efficacy, work-life balance and person-environment alignment; all deemed indispensable components for nurturing resilient and adaptable workforces in the wake of the pandemic. Concluding with practical insights, this book chapter highlights the crucial role of the workforce in driving organizational innovation, productivity and satisfaction, providing valuable guidance for business leaders striving to cultivate positive workplace cultures amidst the ongoing economic challenges heightened by the pandemic.



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