

Management and Industrial Engineering

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Organizational Management in Post Pandemic Crisis

 Springer

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Organizational Management in Post Pandemic Crisis

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Preface

Since ever the world has been observing countless pandemics. The 1918–1919 influenza, Spanish flu, H5N1 pandemic crisis, HIV/AIDS crisis, tsunami 2004, the collapse of the financial markets in 2008, among others, are only some examples of the pandemic that have infected and affected millions of people worldwide. More recently, we faced the coronavirus pandemic, which not only caused a severe health and humanitarian crisis, but also brought with it, numerous implications for economic and business life. Indeed, in a post-pandemic crisis economic and business sectors around the world are facing deep business changes and challenges, such as economic and business recession, unemployment, increased market uncertainty, more demanding suppliers and customer orders, production interruptions, internal organizational and structural demands, among others. As a result of this reality organizations cannot be quiet, needing to react as quickly as possible. Managers need to understand and establish adequate and efficient policies and strategies to enable the organization to overcome this difficult phase that they are going through and contribute to its smooth and normal functioning.

If, on the one hand, there are organizations that see this crisis as an opportunity to deepen and improve their activity, since these are business areas that work with products and/or services that assumed particular prominence at the time we are going through, as is the case with areas of health, information and communication technologies, industrial engineering, among others, there are other areas that face enormous constraints. Actually, companies in the area of events, entertainment, tourism, catering, hospitality, travel, among others, question how their activities will be during and after the pandemic crisis. These organizations live uncertain times reason why it is necessary to plan, effectively, why, what, and how to implement the necessary changes that will allow the organization to overpass, survive, and be successful in a post-pandemic crisis.

But, how to do it? What kind of procedures should be implemented by these organizations? Which practices, policies, and strategies need to be defined, established, and implemented by these organizations during these difficult times?

Concerned with the need for quick and effective responses, this book, seeking contributions from the most diverse experts in the field of management, seeks to

provide the most relevant and critical contributions that allow organizations to answer to the challenges currently faced.

Conscious of the relevance of these issues in nowadays organizations, with the present book we look to analyze, discuss, and suggest about the tools, policies, strategies necessary to undertake during a crisis period, and more than that, that allows these organizations to successfully develop their future activities. Deeply involved in the different activities and responsibilities assumed by these organizations, managers and engineers assume a role of great relevance by assuming themselves as key actors in the processes of survival, overcoming and success of these organizations in a post-pandemic period.

In other words, critical to these organizations' success, the present book entitled *Organizational Management in Post Pandemic Crisis* looks to communicate the latest developments and thinking, on the management and engineering field, during and after post-pandemic crisis subjects worldwide.

Organizational Management in Post-Pandemic Crisis discusses “The effects of the Covid-19 ‘lockdown’ on teaching and engagement in UK Business Schools,” covers “Management conception challenges in the Post-Covid-19 era and the Stra.Tech.Man analysis,” focuses on “Re-inventing the workplace: The adoption of telework in post-Covid times,” deals with “Emotional Intelligence and the Impact of the Covid-19 Pandemic on Pharmaceutical Professionals—An Exploratory Study,” focuses on the “The impact of Covid-19 on the onboarding of SIE: the human resources professional and the new employee vision,” speaks about “Post pandemic: A proposed theoretical model for realistic expectations of leadership and management,” covers “Green human resource management: A new model of human resource management in the aftermath of the pandemic,” analyzes “Human resource management reconfiguration Post-Covid crisis,” and finally discusses “Impacts of the Covid-19 pandemic on human resources management: A comparative study of Brazil and Portugal.”

Oriented to managers and engineers, this book can also be used by academics, researchers, and other professionals that are interested in develop their abilities and knowledge in this work field. It is designed to increase the knowledge and effectiveness of all those involved in these areas whether in the profit or non-profit sectors, or in the public or private sectors.

The Editors acknowledge their gratitude to Springer for this opportunity and for their professional support. Finally, we would like to thank to all chapter authors for their interest and availability to work on this project.

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The Effects of the COVID-19 'Lockdown' on Teaching and Engagement in UK Business Schools



James T. Walker, Rita Fontinha, Washika Haak-Saheem,
and Chris Brewster

Abstract The global outbreak of COVID-19 led to a rapid shift to Working from Home (WFH). In universities and other parts of the education sector, on-line teaching and assessment become mandatory. We use research from a representative large-scale ($n = 2,287$) survey of business, management and economics academics in the UK to examine how prior on-line experience, learning during the 'lockdown', and work engagement, impacted their perceptions of on-line education. Results show that: (1) experience of on-line activity *prior* to the lockdown was substantially positively related to perceptions of working virtually, though perceptions differed by seniority; (2) experience of working on-line *during* lockdown did not enhance academic's views of on-line delivery or any bias against on-line delivery, but it did increase positive attitudes towards on-line marking; (3) those able to maintain mental resilience and energy are considerably more likely to perceive on-line activity positively; but being more 'dedicated' or more 'ensconced in work' did not play a role. We explore the implications of these findings for the future of on-line work.

Keywords COVID-19 · Lockdown · Teaching · Engagement · UK business schools

1 Introduction

One effect of the COVID-19 pandemic that hit most of the world in 2020 was the 'lockdown' of businesses and a rapid, sometimes overnight, shift of work from the 'office' to 'home'. For many people, of course, working from home (WFH) is not possible—houses cannot be built, roads cannot be maintained, care home residents cannot be looked after, people cannot have medical operations, and waste cannot be cleared by people working at home. But for most office workers, and for many other people, WFH has been a technological possibility for decades. The fact that it had

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not been taken up reflects to some degree the fact that work is a social activity (some work is done better in groups; and people enjoy meeting colleagues, customers and others), but probably mainly reflects the view of many managers that they need to be able to see or to visit their workers if they are to control them. The pandemic accelerated WFH hugely.

One area of work, with important implications for societies, businesses and individuals, is education and, our particular focus here, university education. Our example is taken from the UK. In the UK, at the societal level, higher education employs almost half a million people, generating annual revenues of over £47.0 billion (HESA, 2020), educating future leaders and housing important research, including laboratories that created the vaccines needed to overcome COVID-19. At the business level, universities provide the skilled and knowledgeable workers needed by businesses and provide work for many organisations that interact with the university. At the individual level, universities directly influence the life chances and futures of around half the UK population.

Although on-line education has been widely available for decades and has many purported advantages, it has not been diffused as much as some scholars had anticipated (de Menezes & Kelliher, 2011; Felstead & Henseke, 2017). The pandemic led to an immediate change for educators across the globe. Even in locations where the pandemic did not take hold immediately, academics were often required to be prepared for on-line delivery given uncertainties about when the pandemic would lead policy makers to enact lockdowns or other restrictive measures.

While the advantages of working from home (WFH) can translate into large productivity gains (Laker & Roulet, 2019), some academics did partially work from home before, often on research, although most teaching and administration was done *in loco*. Pandemic containment measures created a context where WFH became mandatory almost instantaneously with little or no planning. Although many UK university academics had experience of implementing on-line or blended learning programmes (Times Higher Education, 2020b), for the majority it is still a novel form of delivery. Greenberg and Hibbert (2020) argue that the initial shock has the potential to result in professional and personal trauma.

A growing literature has examined the role of instructors in on-line teaching and learning (Marshall, 2018; Watermeyer et al., 2021; Williamson, 2020). Indeed, there is a substantial literature highlighting the efficacy of on-line provision (see Castro & Tumibay, 2021) leading some scholars to argue that there is a bias against on-line learning (Redpath, 2012). However, there are several plausible rationales in the literature to explain why academics may be less disposed towards on-line teaching and assessment. For example, it has been argued that on-line delivery may be problematic, compared to face-to-face delivery, since there are fewer visual clues and less immediacy of responses to questions, creating difficulties for the students (Ahmed, 2010). We know that developing on-line material is more time-consuming than more traditional methods (McKinney, 2018; Yang & Cornelius, 2005). In general, individuals seek to obtain, retain and protect resources and stress occurs when resources are lost, or are threatened with loss, or when individuals fail to gain resources after substantive resource investment (Hobfall, 2002).

Given the impact of the pandemic, and the uncertainty, the global health crisis disrupted academics' work, careers and identities as never before (Greenberg & Hibbert, 2020). While the literature provides some useful guidance as to how academics perceive on-line work prior to the pandemic, it is less clear that prior work which examines individuals who have opted into on-line work can be relied upon in the context of coping with a pandemic where WFM became suddenly mandatory. While the literature suggests well-designed on-line provision course can reach learning objectives (Castro & Tumibay, 2021), careful design and implementation of on-line programmes is a time-consuming process and not covered in the situation created by the sudden need to migrate to on-line delivery. So, in the context of the pandemic and its relation to WFH, the way that different academics experience on-line provision is an open question.

We address these issues using social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986). We argue that the intersection between remote teaching, social cognitive theory and self-efficacy advances our understanding of possible antecedents of academics' perceptions in response to the move on-line and working from home. Self-efficacy beliefs shape individuals' functioning through cognitive, motivational, affective and decisional processes (Benight & Bandura, 2004). We argue that people's past experiences affect whether they think in self-enhancing or self-debilitating ways; how well they motivate themselves and persevere in the face of difficulties and radical changes such as those caused by the pandemic—particularly in the context of on-line activities, given the majority had no experience of on-line delivery (Bandura, 1997).

Further, we explore how the shift to WFH, and on-line delivery has affected academics' work engagement, a critical factor impacting upon the productivity and well-being of staff in the short term. The immediate reliance on virtual delivery and assessment, and its potential relevance in the longer term, makes the issue of engagement particularly relevant. There is a substantial literature on engagement and quality of working life in higher education (Barkhuizen et al., 2014; Fontinha et al., 2018), as well as some research into its opposite: burnout and exhaustion in the context of teaching (Watts & Robertson, 2011). Recent literature (Kniffin et al., 2020) suggests that the pandemic may have worsened working conditions for many employees, with greater risk of exhaustion and burnout, including permanent feelings of disengagement. Changes in working conditions have been associated with resource depletion, such as job loss or underemployment. Individuals navigate traumatic events such as disasters (Freedy et al., 1994) or workplace burnout (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Lee & Ashforth, 1996) by seeking to maintain status quo. To date, there is little work on academic engagement, burnout and overall occupational health in the context of on-line delivery and assessment (an exception is McCann & Holt, 2009).

This raises questions such as: *Given the dramatic nature of the 2020 pandemic lockdown, does **prior** experience of on-line working determine academics' coping choices? How is the experience of on-line teaching **during** the crisis related to perceptions of on-line teaching and assessment? To what extent does the ability to remain engaged in work influence how on-line activities are viewed? and do potentially important contextual issues, like job insecurity, impact upon views of on-line teaching and assessment?*

To answer these questions, we developed and implemented a survey instrument capturing the perceptions of a large representative sample of academics employed in UK business schools and economics departments during the lockdown. While there is extensive ongoing research on the implications of remote work and teaching, most of these studies target individuals indiscriminately, often via snowball sampling. The fact that we had a previously constructed sampling frame allowed us to target all business, management and economics' academics in the UK and ultimately retrieve a sample representative of different types of individuals, institutions and disciplines.

We make two significant contributions. First, using social cognitive theory, we explore how prior experience conditioned how individuals were able to cope, and how they perceived the mandatory shift to on-line delivery. We show that, in stark contrast to those who has had prior experience of on-line delivery, the vast majority who were 'new' to on-line delivery perceived the experience significantly less favourably, suggesting that the experience of on-line delivery during the pandemic is unlikely to have broken down barriers with staff who are not positively inclined towards on-line delivery (Marshall, 2018; Redpath, 2012; Watermeyer et al., 2021; Williamson, 2020).

Second, we show that not all conceptions of engagement are equally relevant. In particular, we show that while 'mental resilience and energy' played a significant role in influencing individual's perceptions other elements of engagement such as the degree individuals were 'dedicated' to their work, or their ability to remain 'ensconced in their work'.

2 Theoretical Background and Hypotheses Development

2.1 Experience and Perceptions of On-line Teaching and Marking

For the vast majority of academics in the UK, the lockdown meant going 'overnight' from teaching face-to-face in the classroom to grappling with unfamiliar technology and teaching platforms. Advocates of on-line teaching and assessment see virtual delivery as 'the future' for higher education, arguing that it enhances levels of thinking and problem-solving skills (Henderson et al., 2017; Politis & Politis, 2016) or improves learning and communication (Alavi & Gallupe, 2003). However, Sohn and Romal (2015) conducted a meta-analysis of existing studies to compare student performance between on-line and traditional classroom environments among undergraduate economics courses in the USA and showed that students initially performed better in face-to-face settings. Academics' satisfaction with on-line teaching is largely influenced by job-related features and the institutional support they receive (Marasi et al., 2020).

Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) examines how a person's past experiences impact the way they acquire and maintain behaviour: individuals' expectations, beliefs, emotional preferences and cognitive competencies are developed and modified by social influences that convey information and activate emotional reactions through modelling, instruction and social persuasion. This ultimately affects their perceived self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986) which, in turn, affects their approach to potential threats and how they are perceived and cognitively processed (Benight & Bandura, 2004). Academics who have in the past experienced on-line or blended learning, and engaged in on-line social interactions, might be better able to develop coping strategies that alleviate the strain associated with remote teaching and learning. By extension, social cognitive theory suggests that the relative degree of complexity, and stressful social interactions, will differ between different forms of on-line activity. In particular, on-line delivery has a greater degree of potential interaction with students in what was a novel, disorienting setting. In contrast, on-line marking does not have the same degree of social interaction and a change to marking on-line can be more easily assimilated and coped with.

As experience of these forms of learning progressively increases throughout the lockdown, academics' views are likely to become more positive. Hence:

Hypothesis 1a Experience of on-line activity **prior** to the lockdown will have a positive impact on academics' attitudes towards on-line work.

Hypothesis 1b Experience of on-line activity **during** the lockdown will have a positive impact on academics' attitudes towards on-line work and this will differ by on-line activity.

2.2 *The Role of Work Engagement*

Work engagement is defined as 'a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption' (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 74). It consists of *Vigour*, capturing the amount of energy and mental resilience that is maintained whilst working; *Dedication*, reflecting the degree of enthusiasm, pride and significance that individuals feel about their work; and *Absorption*, or the extent that an individual is able to remain ensconced in their work. Work engagement has been linked to performance, creativity and health (Bakker, 2008).

Engagement has also been associated with the way individuals perceive job demands. When demands are appraised as hindrances they tend to be negatively related to engagement, but when they are perceived as challenges this relationship is positive (Crawford et al., 2010). Demands associated with on-line delivery during the lockdown are likely to be perceived as hindrances. We make this assumption based on previous research on remote working demonstrating that it is associated with higher organisational commitment, job satisfaction and job-related well-being, but that these benefits come at the cost of work intensification and a greater inability

to switch-off (Crawford et al., 2011; Felstead & Henseke, 2017). With the COVID-19 lockdown in the UK, remote work in academia became mandatory and may have, for some, been accompanied by increased caring responsibilities at home, and/or health concerns, which are likely to make academics perceive remote work as a hindrance.

While engagement is often perceived as an outcome of working practices, there is evidence of reversed causation in which engagement positively influences the way employees perceive work (de Lange et al., 2008). Similarly, we expect that higher levels of engagement among academics are likely to influence their perceptions about the new demands associated with on-line teaching and marking. Hence:

Hypothesis 2 Individuals who are either:

- (a) more ‘dedicated’ to their work, or,
- (b) who are able maintain the levels of ‘mental resilience and energy’ or,
- (c) able to remain ‘ensconced in their work’ during the lockdown are more likely to perceive on-line activity positively.

3 Methods

3.1 Data and Sample

Our study is based on a comprehensive survey of academic business, management and economics’ scholars. The choice of sample reflects the fact that UK business schools, where economics remains the largest sub-discipline, have traditionally engaged extensively with post-experience students, and have been developing on-line delivery methods for decades (Times Higher Education, 2020b) although on-line delivery is increasingly common across the sector. Our research approach combines information from (1) university websites, (2) data on university and business school/economics departments and (3) a large-scale survey. The initial stage of the data collection involved capturing data from universities’ websites, including gender and academic rank. Our database contains two overlapping sets of scholars: all those working in business schools in the UK, including economists, and also economists working outside business schools in stand-alone economics departments or in other departments (education, agriculture, etc.).

The development of the survey took an iterative approach, with the initial survey being piloted on two occasions with eight scholars each time. The on-line questionnaire was launched less than a month after the first national lockdown and the immediate switch to WFH and on-line teaching. Recipients were sent an email in April explaining the purpose of the study, inviting them to participate and including a link to the survey. The survey was sent out in two batches so we could examine whether there were any changes over the course of the data collection period. The first wave of the survey was concluded after three weeks; the second wave ran from then for another three weeks.

We linked the survey data with public information from websites, following a multi-stage protocol to ensure the de-identification of the data, explained to respondents on the project website. We ensured that survey data and other personal information used for analysis contained no personal identifying information.

The total population of this sector of universities in the UK was 13,048. We received 2660 responses, for an overall response rate of more than 20%. Of that response, 2287 (17% of the total) provided usable responses. From this sample, we omitted those who were on research-intensive contracts, and those who were on teaching and research contracts who indicated that they were not teaching that year (due to extended maternity leave or being on sabbatical).

To check the representativeness of our response pool, we undertook tests of the respondent population, looking for sources of bias in our final sample. We compared the academic hierarchy titles (e.g. ranks such as 'lecturer' and 'professor') of those completing the survey against those in the overall sample and we checked whether our sample matched the distribution of type of institution, distinguishing between more research focused institutions and others: in both cases the sample was consistent with the original population.

3.2 *Measures*

3.2.1 **Dependent Variables**

A central concern of the study is to examine how individual academics viewed on-line activities relating to teaching and assessment. Discussions with faculty, both experienced and inexperienced in on-line delivery, highlighted distinct perspectives influencing academics' views and experiences of on-line delivery. Developing on-line material is often cited as involving more time. Where courses are taught on multiple occasions using similar materials or recordings, then the sunk cost of preparing on-line material may be more easily spread. A potential flip-side of the time devoted to preparing on-line material is that it may require a more structured discussion of the topic: it 'enables me to plan my delivery more carefully and provide a better teaching experience' (Benson et al., 2011). It is also possible that, without the advantages associated with face-to-face teaching, such as being able to react to student's visual clues and responses, 'over planning' of on-line teaching leads to a more restricted experience. Therefore, we asked whether participants consider on-line development 'more time-consuming to prepare' (Yang & Cornelius, 2005; Redpath, 2012).

We take an analogous approach to assessment where we examine three distinct arguments. The first relates to whether faculty consider that marking on-line is more time-consuming than marking hard copy and feeds into an established debate in the literature (Redpath, 2012). Second, we examined whether on-line marking on screens is more tiring (McKinney, 2018, pp. 236). Finally, we investigated whether on-line assessment 'enables (faculty) to provide better and more considered feedback' (Evans, 2013; Nicol, 2010).

Table 1 Perceptions of on-line teaching and assessment (proportion of responses on a five-point scale)

	Disagree/Strongly disagree	Sometimes	Agree/Strongly agree
Teaching			
* Enables me to plan my delivery more carefully and provide a better teaching experience	54.9	24.5	20.6
* Makes it difficult to understand whether the students understand what is being taught	11.4	10.6	78.0
* is a lot more time consuming to prepare	10.6	13.9	75.5
Marking			
* Is more time consuming than marking hard copy	38.7	22.2	39.1
* Is more tiring	28.7	20.1	51.1
* Enables me to provide better and more considered feedback	26.2	39.1	34.8

Note Five-point scale has been simplified into three groups for expositional purposes

In Table 1, the top panel shows participants' perceptions of on-line teaching while the lower one details perception of marking. 78% of respondents agree that teaching on-line 'makes it difficult to know whether the students understand what is being taught'. Table 1 shows more individuals agreeing than disagreeing that it was 'more tiring', and a similar proportion of participants agreeing rather than disagreeing that marking on-line is more 'time consuming'. A third of respondents think that on-line marking enhances the quality of their feedback.

3.2.2 Key Independent Variables

Experience of on-line delivery was measured by responses to the questions 'Do you typically teach on-line or remotely?' and 'Do you typically mark on-line or remotely?'. The impact of the lockdown on delivery was measured by responses to the questions 'Have you been involved in on-line delivery because of the Covid-19 lockdown?' and 'Have you been involved in on-line marking because of the Covid-19 lockdown?'. To measure engagement, we used the nine-item Utrecht work engagement scale (Schaufeli et al., 2006), structured in a seven-point Likert scale. We captured perceptions of job insecurity through two variables measured on five-point Likert scales asking the extent to which participants agreed with the following statements: 'I feel insecure about the future of my job' and 'I feel that if I lose this job,

I would easily find a better job'. Based on information gathered from the websites, we created a dummy variable to capture academic rank, distinguishing between the three most common ranks of: Professors/Chairs; Associate Professor/Reader/ Senior Lecturer/Principal Lecturer; and Lecturer/Assistant Professor. We also included options for Research Fellow; Senior Research Fellow; Teaching Fellow; Senior Teaching Fellow; and 'Other' titles, used by 13% of the respondents. We aggregated the research-intensive Research Fellow and Senior Research Fellow roles and teaching-intensive Teaching Fellow and Senior Teaching Fellow roles.

We also included other additional variables. Based on information gathered from websites, we created a dummy variable to capture gender (53% of the sample are men: Appendix Table 1). We derived five further variables that capture different activities that compete for the time available for academics to devote to teaching and assessment. We captured childcare commitments through two variables: whether the individual had children under 5 or not, and change in proportion of time devoted to childcare, calculated as 'hours you spend on childcare during the Covid-19 lockdown each week' divided by 'hours you typically spent on childcare per week (prior to the Covid-19 lockdown)' multiplied by 100. To capture the amount of time devoted to research we used information on the proportion of time allocated to research over the lockdown period as a percentage of total activity. Finally, we asked about involvement in administrative activities, 'how would you characterise your administrative workload since measures were taken in response to the Covid-19 Lockdown' on a five-point scale ('decreased significantly', 'decreased', 'did not increase nor decrease', 'increased', 'increased significantly').

3.2.3 Control Variables

There is considerable variety among universities in the UK. We distinguished between 'pre-1992' universities that tend to have a strong orientation towards research (e.g. Oxford and Cambridge), and the post-1992 ones, that are generally more teaching- or industry-orientated (e.g. Sheffield Hallam and Gloucester). What has been clear, even prior to the lockdown (*Guardian*, 2020), is that the UK government policy of leaving the European Union meant that UK universities' exposure to the international student market is likely to be adversely affected and to impact finances significantly (*Guardian*, 2020). The extent to which different institutions were able to potentially absorb the effect of reduced numbers is conditioned by their financial status and the extent to which they are exposed to the post-graduate market. To capture these effects, we include a variable depicting the number of post-graduate students; the surplus/deficit of (each) institution and its total income levels (all in 2018/19 terms. Source: Higher Education Statistics Agency [HESA]).¹

We included field dummies to consider any field-specific heterogeneity. This information was based on a question asking respondents to indicate their primary area of expertise using the subject classifications in the *Academic Journal Guide 2018*

¹ HESA data was taken from <https://www.hesa.ac.uk/data-and-analysis>.

which is widely used in the UK (Walker et al., 2019) and includes 22 disciplinary areas. We also controlled for whether economists in the sample worked in business schools, in economics departments, or in other parts of their institutions. Finally, we controlled for which wave of the survey individuals were located in, and which week each individual completed the survey—this allows the verification of potential different patterns of response as activities such as marking may have been more intensive at later stages of the survey being on-line.

4 Results

4.1 Descriptive Findings

Table 2 provides summary statistics and shows that 18% of participants had had prior experience of teaching on-line but 77% had had prior experience of on-line marking. Table 2 also shows that of the three components of engagement *vigour* was

Table 2 Summary statistics for key independent variables

		Mean	Std. Dev	Min	Max
Teaching and marking prior to or during the pandemic	Experience in on-line delivery	0.18	0.38	0	1
	Teaching on-line due to pandemic	0.76	0.22	0	1
	Experience in on-line marking	0.77	0.42	0	1
	Marking on-line due to pandemic	0.73	0.33	0	1
Engagement	Dedication	5.04	1.15	1	7
	Vigour	4.10	1.16	1	7
	Absorption	4.98	1.06	1	7
Job insecurity	Job insecurity	3.21	1.18	1	5
	Confident about outside work options	2.29	0.97	1	5
Academic Rank	Professor	0.20	0.40	0	1
	Associate Professor	0.36	0.48	0	1
	Lecturer	0.31	0.46	0	1
	Research fellow/Senior research fellow	0.03	0.16	0	1
	Teaching intensive role	0.09	0.28	0	1
	Other	0.02	0.14	0	1

Notes Text describes the variables

substantially lower than *dedication* and *absorption*. A significant proportion of the sample was concerned about their jobs. While the negative impacts of low levels of perceived job security can be buffered by high employability levels (Silla et al., 2009), that has not likely the case here, given the context of the lockdown, with 43.9% feeling insecure. Few (8.6%) feel trading up to another position is possible.

As an initial look at the relationship between teaching and marking and experience and learning, Table 3 summarises the mean impact across the key independent variables, cross-tabulated against positive and negative views. The variable is a five-point scale: thus, Table 3 suggests that seasoned on-line teachers (Column 2) are likely to be more positive than colleagues for whom such activities are novel in both teaching and marking. The majority of experienced teachers consider that preparation time for teaching on-line was higher than for face-to-face delivery (mean of 3.8 in Column 2), and they also considered that teaching on-line is likely to reduce student understanding (3.6). Differences in teaching between academics who had taught on-line (Column 3) and those who did not teach on-line (Column 1) were small. However, it seems that those who had been suddenly forced to mark on-line, while not as positive as those who had marked on-line previously, were considerably more positive than those who did not mark on-line, suggesting that experience reduced the perceived amount of work associated with marking.

Table 3 Difference in mean responses of individuals who marked prior, and those that marked during, the COVID lockdown

	Experience		
	Do not normally teach/mark online	Normally teach/mark online	Teach/mark online due to pandemic
Teaching			
* Enables me to plan my delivery more carefully and provide a better teaching experience	2.4	2.9	2.4
* Makes it difficult to understand whether the students understand what is being taught	4.1	3.6	4.0
* is a lot more time consuming to prepare	4.1	3.8	4.1
Marking			
* Is more time consuming than marking hard copy	4.1	2.8	3.2
* Is more tiring	4.2	3.2	3.5
* Enables me to provide better and more considered feedback	2.4	3.2	3.0

4.2 Analysis

These descriptive tables highlight the differences in academics' experiences in relation to their teaching, as opposed to marking. Given these differences, we examined each survey question as a dependent variable in a series of separate estimations. We present results in Table 4. To ease interpretation, odds ratios (ORs) are calculated and reported throughout. Coefficients bigger than 1 indicate a positive relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable, while coefficients less than 1 indicate a negative relationship.

While there are some differences across variables, the findings are consistent for many of the key hypotheses. We find that experience of on-line activity had a strong positive impact on coping choices, supporting Hypothesis 1a. Those who have had on-line teaching experience prior to the lockdown were 0.53 times less likely to consider that on-line teaching is perceived to reduce understanding compared to those who have not. Experienced on-line teachers are more than twice as likely to consider that working on-line enhances their planning, with respondents experienced on-line teaching being about 1.30 times more likely to consider that preparation time is greater. This enhanced requirement for preparation will plausibly be beneficial to learning, but at the cost of greater demands on instructors' time. We found no indication that experience of on-line activity during the lockdown is positively related to perceptions of working virtually (i.e. Hypothesis 1b was not supported with respect to teaching).

The findings are even stronger for marking, with experienced on-line markers being 1.77 times more likely to consider on-line marking to be more time-consuming compared to those who had no experience. However, experienced on-line markers were around three times more likely to consider the quality of feedback to be beneficial. These findings provide strong support for Hypothesis 1a. While responses to the questions directed towards virtual teaching did not indicate any learning effects, the results support the hypothesis that experience of on-line activity during the lockdown is positively related to perceptions of marking virtually (hence Hypothesis 1b was supported with respect to marking). It is noteworthy that the learning-by-doing associated with experience in marking is 'incomplete', in the sense that the difference between those with previous experience and those who obtained that experience during it were much greater than the differentials between those who got their experience during the pandemic and those who had no such experience (a differential of 1.78).

We then examine Hypotheses 2a–2c. We find strong evidence that when academics are struggling to maintain their resilience and energy levels (*vigour*), this is negatively associated with their views of on-line teaching and assessment and marking (supporting Hypothesis 2b). However, we found little evidence to support a relationship between the other two facets of engagement: *dedication* or *absorption*

Table 4 Ordered logit estimates (odds ratios reported)—dependent variables: views of on-line teaching and assessment

	Reduces understanding		Enhances planning		Increases preparation time		More time consuming		Can lead to more considered feedback		Is more tiring	
	Coeff	z-stat	Coeff	z-stat	Coeff	z-stat	Coeff	z-stat	Coeff	z-stat	Coeff	z-stat
Teaching and marking experience	0.462***	(5.80)	2.144***	(5.80)	0.684***	(2.83)						
Experience in on-line marking							0.223***	(10.21)	3.053***	(7.76)	0.295***	(8.29)
Activity on-line due to pandemic	0.750	(1.27)	1.342	(1.26)	0.738	(1.34)	0.798**	(2.15)	1.265***	(2.18)	0.766***	(2.53)
Work engagement	1.066	(0.76)	1.145*	(1.69)	0.991	(0.10)	0.935	(0.85)	1.069	(0.84)	0.916	(1.10)
	0.661***	(6.32)	1.345***	(4.69)	0.839**	(2.75)	0.873**	(2.21)	1.076	(1.17)	0.807**	(3.46)
	1.068	(0.78)	1.032	(0.39)	1.036	(0.42)	1.079	(0.96)	1.011	(0.14)	1.160*	(1.84)
Job insecurity	1.185***	(3.77)	0.906**	(2.27)	1.152***	(3.17)	1.169***	(3.55)	0.925*	(1.78)	1.222***	(4.61)
	0.945	(1.05)	1.122*	(2.20)	0.965	(0.65)	0.980	(0.40)	0.953	(0.92)	0.978	(0.43)
Confident about outside work options												
Academic Rank (Ref. Teaching/Intensive roles)	0.598**	(2.31)	0.617*	(2.23)	1.052	(0.22)	1.464*	(1.77)	0.659*	(1.90)	1.565**	(2.07)

(continued)

Table 4 (continued)

	Reduces understanding		Enhances planning		Increases preparation time		More time consuming		Can lead to more considered feedback		Is more tiring	
	Coeff	z-stat	Coeff	z-stat	Coeff	z-stat	Coeff	z-stat	Coeff	z-stat	Coeff	z-stat
Associate Professor	0.690*	(1.84)	0.737	(1.57)	0.910	(0.46)	1.277	(1.27)	0.590**	(2.68)	1.395*	(1.72)
Lecturer	1.003	(0.02)	0.816	(1.06)	1.013	(0.06)	1.228	(1.07)	0.652**	(2.18)	1.261	(1.20)
Research Fellow/ Senior Research Fellow	0.560*	(1.68)	0.669	(1.24)	0.877	(0.37)	1.222	(0.60)	0.581	(1.58)	0.980	(0.06)
Other	0.786	(0.60)	0.463*	(1.92)	0.636	(1.13)	1.032	(0.08)	0.358**	(2.38)	1.248	(0.58)
Gender	1.217**	(2.28)	0.947	(0.64)	0.925	(0.85)	1.009	(0.10)	0.942	(0.71)	0.895	(1.33)
Child under the age of 4	1.090	(0.62)	0.835	(1.43)	0.808	(1.57)	0.837	(1.38)	0.972	(0.23)	0.801*	(1.73)
Non-teaching administrative activities	0.865**	(2.51)	1.127**	(2.14)	0.682***	(6.66)	0.802**	(4.07)	1.024	(0.43)	0.726***	(5.84)
Proportion of time devoted to research (%)	1.004	(1.53)	0.998	(0.97)	0.992***	(3.37)	0.997	(1.37)	1.003	(1.32)	0.998	(0.83)

(continued)

Table 4 (continued)

	Reduces understanding		Enhances planning		Increases preparation time		More time consuming		Can lead to more considered feedback		Is more tiring	
	Coeff	z-stat	Coeff	z-stat	Coeff	z-stat	Coeff	z-stat	Coeff	z-stat	Coeff	z-stat
Change in the prop of time devoted to child care (%)	1.004	(1.19)	0.996	(1.28)	1.006*	(1.76)	1.000	(0.09)	1.004	(1.12)	1.002	(0.64)
Surplus of deficit of institution (% of total income)	1.271	(1.53)	0.866	(0.96)	1.126	(0.77)	0.880	(0.84)	1.280	(1.61)	0.918	(0.56)
No. post-graduate students (000s)	1.011*	(1.88)	1.003	(0.61)	1.000	(0.05)	0.992	(1.42)	0.996	(0.79)	0.992	(1.37)
Total income (£000s)	1.000	(1.48)	1.000	(0.00)	1.000	(0.20)	1.052**	(196)	-0.952*	(1.78)	1.053**	(2.00)
Total income	1.000	(1.54)	1.000	(0.46)	1.000	(0.77)	1.000	(1.12)	1.000	(0.20)	1.000	(1.21)

(continued)

Table 4 (continued)

	Reduces understanding		Enhances planning		Increases preparation time		More time consuming		Can lead to more considered feedback		Is more tiring	
	Coeff	z-stat	Coeff	z-stat	Coeff	z-stat	Coeff	z-stat	Coeff	z-stat	Coeff	z-stat
Teaching excellent framework (TEF)	0.919	(0.47)	1.243	(1.25)	1.183	(0.92)	0.934	(0.39)	1.288	(1.42)	1.060	(0.33)
Non-participant in TEF	1.142	(1.20)	0.885	(1.15)	1.066	(0.58)	0.941	(0.58)	1.082	(0.75)	0.914	(0.85)
Week effects (Ref: Week 1)	YES		YES		YES		YES		YES		YES	
Wave (Ref: Wave 1)	YES		YES		YES		YES		YES		YES	
Field fixed effects	YES		YES		YES		YES		YES		YES	
N	1537		1537		1537		1542		1542		1542	
Log likelihood	-1855.1		-2142.9		-1913.6		-2324.7		-2183.2		-2301.5	

Notes z-statistics in parentheses *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$. Odds ratios reported

(Hypotheses 2a and 2b are not supported).² Academics with higher levels of dedication and those who are able to remain ensconced in their work were no more nor less likely to have a preference for on-line delivery.

A number of the additional variables are also determinants of perceptions of WFH. Job insecurity plays a significant role in how faculty view the on-line experience, being a robust determinant across teaching and marking. Of the variables that relate to academic's time, we find that administration is the most robust determinant.

The only institutional variable that was significant in relation to assessment is the number of post-graduate students. Of the control variables, we found that nine of the 132 field variables were significant at the 5% level and there are no discernible patterns across any particular field. We did not find any significant difference between economists working inside or outside business schools. Nor did we find that the second-wave or week effects had a significant impact, perhaps implying that there are no short-run learning effects, beyond those identified directly in relation to marking, which partially refutes Hypothesis 1b.

We also examined whether the different academic groupings made a difference, finding that relative to the reference group of teaching-intensive ranks, all other groups have fewer positive perceptions of on-line delivery. Lecturers and professors are more enthusiastic than associate professors: for example, professors have 0.41 lower likelihood of perceiving that on-line teaching reduces understanding while lecturers have a 0.61 lower likelihood than associate professors. Experienced professors are 2.30 times more likely than their peers to consider teaching on-line enhances planning, lecturers are 2.11 times more likely than associate professors to consider teaching on-line and enhanced planning, while associate professors were 1.88 times more likely than their peers to consider teaching on-line enhanced planning (Table 5).

For time invested, there are no differences between hierarchical positions with respect to teaching, but this was not the case for marking, with professors with experience of on-line marking have a 68% lower likelihood of perceiving on-line marking to be more time-consuming than those with without experience, while lectures had an even lower likelihood (83% lower). This suggests that even with more experience in the short run, marking on-line may have a more negative effect on junior faculty time than it does on professors.

Some groups, such as parents with young children, are disproportionately affected, reflecting increased difficulty in balancing teaching and childcare commitments. This becomes particularly difficult when synchronous teaching assignments conflict with feeding or caring times of babies and young children. Women respondents reported higher workloads associated with household chores and childcare.

² As noted, when defining the independent variables, the engagement variables were the only ones that exhibited higher levels of collinearity, most particular between the dedication and absorption variables at (0.8). We tested whether multicollinearity was driving the 'non-results', omitting each of these variables in turn, and found that the coefficients were still not well determined (below the conventional 5% level of statistical significance).

Table 5 Ordered Logit Estimates (odds ratios reported)—dependent variables: views of on-line teaching and assessment—rank differences

	Reduces understanding	Enhances planning	Increases preparation time	More time consuming	Can lead to more considered feedback	Is more tiring
Teaching and marking experience						
Experience in on-line activity (Professor)	0.589** (1.91)	2.297*** (2.85)	0.864 (0.49)	0.325*** (4.23)	3.854*** (4.98)	0.354*** (3.77)
Experience in on-line activity (Associate Professor)	0.392*** (4.07)	1.883*** (2.84)	0.616** (2.08)	0.244*** (5.83)	2.637*** (4.19)	0.338*** (4.53)
Experience in on-line activity (Lecturer)	0.499*** (3.17)	2.105*** (3.42)	0.771 (1.21)	0.164*** (7.25)	4.608*** (6.44)	0.260*** (5.48)
Experience in on-line activity (Other)	0.386*** (2.97)	2.691*** (3.23)	0.479*** (2.28)	0.177*** (4.50)	0.994 (0.02)	0.200*** (4.07)
On-line due to pandemic	0.747 (1.28)	1.315 (1.17)	0.749 (1.26)	0.794*** (2.20)	1.261** (2.15)	0.764*** (2.55)
Work engagement						
Dedication	1.067 (0.77)	1.142 (1.65)	0.993 (0.08)	0.933 (0.88)	1.062 (0.76)	0.916 (1.11)
Vigour	0.658*** (6.36)	1.349*** (4.72)	0.836** (2.82)	0.868** (2.28)	1.073 (1.13)	0.805** (3.50)
Absorption	1.069 (0.79)	1.035 (0.43)	1.035 (0.41)	1.081 (0.98)	1.013 (0.16)	1.161* (1.86)
Job insecurity	1.183*** (3.73)	0.905*** (2.30)	1.152*** (3.16)	*** 8 6 (3.53)	0.923* (1.82)	1.222*** (4.61)

(continued)

Table 5 (continued)

	Reduces understanding	Enhances planning	Increases preparation time	More time consuming	Can lead to more considered feedback	Is more tiring
Confident about outside work options	0.945 (1.05)	1.119** (2.15)	0.966 (0.64)	0.973 (0.53)	0.949 (0.99)	0.974 (0.49)
Academic rank (Ref. teaching/intensive roles)	0.547** (2.49)	0.643* (1.90)	0.931 (0.29)	0.894 (0.25)	0.213**** (3.54)	0.968 (0.07)
Associate Professor	0.654* (1.94)	0.780 (1.19)	0.819 (0.89)	0.969 (0.07)	0.257** (3.22)	0.887 (0.27)
Lecturer	0.994 (0.03)	0.882 (0.60)	0.948 (0.24)	1.311 (0.63)	0.179** (4.11)	1.007 (0.02)
Research fellow/ Senior research fellow	0.563 (1.66)	0.671 (1.23)	0.887 (0.34)	1.231 (0.62)	0.597 (1.50)	0.992 (0.02)
Other	0.782 (0.61)	0.466* (1.91)	0.620 (1.18)	1.038 (0.10)	0.379* (2.25)	1.265 (0.61)
Demographic	1.223** (2.33)	0.949 (0.61)	0.925 (0.85)	1.015 (0.16)	0.942 (0.70)	0.898 (1.29)
Child under the age of 4	1.091 (0.62)	0.835 (1.43)	0.806 (1.59)	0.833 (1.42)	0.976 (0.19)	0.800* (1.75)
Non-teaching activities	0.867** (2.47)	1.127** (2.14)	0.683*** (6.63)	0.805** (4.01)	1.017 (0.30)	0.726*** (5.83)

(continued)

Table 5 (continued)

	Reduces understanding	Enhances planning	Increases preparation time	More time consuming	Can lead to more considered feedback	Is more tiring
Proportion of time devoted to research (%)	1.004 (1.50)	0.998 (0.98)	0.991** (3.39)	0.997 (1.29)	1.003 (1.42)	0.998 (0.77)
Change in the prop of time devoted to child care (%)	1.004 (1.11)	0.996 (1.30)	1.005* (1.69)	1.000 (0.05)	1.003 (0.97)	1.002 (0.74)
Institutional environment	1.279 (1.58)	0.866 (0.96)	1.135 (0.82)	0.874 (0.89)	1.272 (1.56)	0.915 (0.58)
Surplus of deficit of institution (% of total income)	1.011* (1.81)	1.003 (0.57)	1.000 (0.05)	0.992 (1.40)	0.996 (0.70)	0.993 (1.34)
No. post-graduate students (000s)	1.000 (1.45)	1.000 (0.03)	1.000 (0.23)	1.000* (1.90)	1.000* (1.75)	1.000* (1.95)
Total income (£000s)	1.000 (1.57)	1.000 (0.47)	1.000 (0.81)	1.000 (1.02)	1.000 (0.22)	1.000 (1.17)
Teaching excellent framework (TEF)	0.913 (0.50)	1.251 (1.28)	1.168 (0.85)	0.938 (0.36)	1.295 (1.45)	1.058 (0.32)
Non-participant in TEF	1.139 (1.18)	0.886 (1.14)	1.063 (0.55)	0.947 (0.52)	1.074 (0.68)	0.919 (0.81)

(continued)

Table 5 (continued)

	Reduces understanding	Enhances planning	Increases preparation time	More time consuming	Can lead to more considered feedback	Is more tiring
Week effects (Ref. week 1)	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES
Wave (Ref. wave 1)	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES
Field fixed effects	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES
N	1537	1537	1537	1542	1542	1542
Log likelihood	-1866.6	-2142.9	-1913.6	-2324.7	-2187.3	-2301.5

Notes z-statistics in parentheses **** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$. Odds ratios reported

5 Concluding Discussion

We plan future research to assess whether the pandemic and the associated lockdown in the UK—and similar policies across the world—accelerated the use of WFH and how far working patterns will revert to the status quo ante. In the higher education sector, there is an expectation among business school and economic academics that the lockdown has increased the likelihood of universities moving towards ‘blended learning’ and extensions of on-line assessment. This will have significant implications for the roles that universities can play in society, for students and the student experience and, as explored here, for academics.

On-line delivery in HE has been touted as a potential panacea which can enable scaled delivery (Davis et al., 2019). In this respect, evidence that the vast majority of those involved agree that on-line teaching is ‘a lot more time-consuming to prepare’ is sobering, particularly given that on-line courses would normally be developed over longer time horizons, not in the space of weeks. Our results imply that a profound sense of self-efficacy is necessary to effectively manage remote teaching and learning. It requires time and space to build a resilient sense of efficacy (Benight & Bandura, 2004) and to manage effectively a new form of working and teaching. Academics can draw strength from their experiences during the lockdown. The overnight move to on-line teaching and marking provided an opportunity to gain new skills and competencies (Greenberg & Hibbert, 2020).

The fact that the amount of work involved in on-line teaching and marking is being perceived as being underestimated raises concerns for academics, many of whom are already under pressure at home, and also have research and administrative responsibilities. It should also concern universities, who are facing reduced income at a time when there is going to be, for most, more on-line work (Redpath, 2012) and an increase in distance learning.

Unlike teaching, marking is a less contested and less developed space that may provide clues for how learning may occur in the future. Indeed, a majority of academics in UK business schools find on-line marking requires at least as much time as, and is more tiring than, marking physical copy, consistent with McKinney (2018, p. 236). However, positive views of such marking increase with experience, and experienced markers feel able to provide higher quality feedback on-line, suggesting potential for productivity gains as faculty continue to adapt to the on-line world.

Overall, the findings suggest that most academics continue to prefer face-to-face delivery but appreciate the benefits of enhanced planning of course material required by on-line work. This leaves open the possibility that there may be benefits in ‘cherry-picking’ on-line and face-to-face elements via blended learning. Certainly, but partly by necessity, some institutions have shown a preference for blended learning (Time Higher Education, 2020a), particularly in business schools where many of them have gained wisdom from decades of experience of offering distance and digital learning to students (Times Higher Education, 2020b). Our finding that only a minority of business school academics had previous on-line teaching experience, in the UK’s

highly internationally focused market, suggests that there is scope for further diffusion of on-line activities. However, unlike in the marking domain, experience did not enhance academic's perceptions of the value of on-line delivery. A plausible reason for this is that considerable time and training is necessary to become proficient and confident in the on-line arena. Additionally, the short onset period of the lockdown led to faculty having to move on-line in a very constricted time period. This view is consistent with the finding that on-line marking was embraced, suggesting that 'learning-by-doing' leads to faculty becoming more comfortable and better able to appreciate the pedagogical benefits of on-line work, and less negative about it (Redpath, 2012).

There is a large literature that argues the same learning outcomes can be achieved via on-line delivery but teaching outcomes are not the only factors that drive the endogenous preferences to be taught on-line or in situ, indeed the underwhelming take up of MOOCs (Reich & Ruipérez-Valiente, 2019) elsewhere suggests that other factors are at play for students as well as instructors and is reflected in a significant minority arguing for refunds of their fees, which they obviously expected to include much more than just teaching (*Guardian*, 2021).

This is despite there being potentially more 'good will' towards on-line delivery due it being a necessity over the pandemic. The larger question then arises what is a university for? If networking, social interaction, signalling quality and other elements of the student experiences cannot be replicated on-line, or at least not in ways that are aligned to preferences, it suggests there may be a substantial over-investment in on-line development. Indeed, at the other extreme, given the widespread shift to on-line and blended teaching, it may be that institutions who invest more in instructors and quality face-to-face delivery will actually have an advantage over their digital driven competitors. Not providing students with what they want, nor instructor's formats that align to their capabilities or preferences through 'one fits all' blended learning package, may backfire on those institutions who do not have the capability to compete head-to-head in the on-line arena. It is worth noting that the doyen of on-line delivery in the UK, the Open University, faced financial issues prior to the pandemic (Times Higher Education, 2018).

In UK business schools, faculty who were unable to maintain their energy levels were less likely to focus on the positive elements of the on-line experience, confirming previous evidence that lower levels of engagement negatively affect individual's perceptions of job demands (de Lange et al., 2008). However, we found that other elements of engagement—being more 'dedicated' or more 'ensconced in work'—did not play a role in influencing the views of scholars, which is good news for scholars and managers in and of itself, but also because while raising levels of dedication and the degree to which individuals are involved in their work are difficult elements to adjust, it may be more feasible to provide guidance to help faculty maintain energy levels.

Like most recent literature (Kniffin et al., 2020), our study supports the notion that organisational support for academics' professional development and personal well-being during the crisis will lead to sustainable and fruitful working environments. Gender and family status have a considerable impact on how the pandemic affected

individual's life and work, with the overlapping categories of women and people with young children being significantly more negatively affected (Kniffin et al., 2020). Consequently, the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on academics also advances our understanding of gender equality. For example, women were almost equally affected by WFH as men, but their career progression might be more significantly affected than their male counterparts as women had to accommodate greater childcare responsibilities.

Labour market uncertainty is another potentially significant hindrance to on-line teaching and assessment. Although we did not find those with good alternative external options were any less positive about on-line delivery or assessment, insecure staff will see little point in developing on-line materials for the university they currently work for. There are fewer outside options available to staff in a recession (Peiró et al., 2012) and job insecurity is higher among non-white academics. Hence, HE institutions should consider providing differential resources and opportunities to create more inclusive working environments and to minimise discrimination towards minorities (Bapuji et al., 2020). While organisations do contribute to increasing inequalities in society, the COVID-19 pandemic creates a new momentum to reduce these very same inequalities. Organisations in general and HE institutions in particular should intensify their efforts to address equality-related concerns, by for example, improving pay and working conditions for ethnic minorities.

Furthermore, job insecurity is positively related to productivity, but negatively related to creativity (Probst et al., 2007), which should be a key concern in the higher education sector. Job insecurity has detrimental consequences for employees (Schumacher, et al., 2016); and the opposite, being confident about the outside options available, makes individuals more positively disposed towards the view that on-line teaching leads to enhanced planning (Silla et al., 2009). Overall, the findings suggest that the effects of job insecurity have a more pronounced and well-defined impact on perceptions than ability to benefit from outside options, a plausible finding in a context of high job insecurity (Peiró et al., 2012).

Line managers, and their institutions, will need to be sensitive to staff needs, supporting them in developing necessary skills and keeping them from falling into mere presenteeism, since the quality of on-line learning may be a determinant for the survival of many UK HE institutions in an environment where satisfaction with on-line provision has fallen compared to before the pandemic lockdown (Times Higher Education, 2020b). Thus, the expansion of management support for all workers would be a very welcome step in the right direction in tackling some of the inequalities caused by the pandemic. Expanding flexible working arrangements for all workers can also reduce some of the existing stigma against flexible working, and the career drawbacks associated with it (van der Lippe & Lippényi, 2020). Post-pandemic, organisational support (e.g. providing time and space) is critical to ensure continued professional and personal growth (Greenberg & Hibbert, 2020).

There are some limitations, and hence further research opportunities, to our research approach. First, our study is based on a survey of business, management and economics' academics in a single country, which limits the generalisability of our findings. We did not find that there was a difference between economists working

in economics departments and economist in other departments suggesting that our finding may be generalised within the social sciences. Further research in this sector in other countries and further research into working at home in other sectors would help to set this study in context.

Second, while we focus on the significant group of academics in terms of teaching and learning, it would be useful to match their views and experience with those of students. We suspect that doing so would be particularly valuable in better understanding which elements of virtual and face-to-face teaching could best be blended to obtain the best possible learning outcomes. It would be useful to take a more rounded view by also looking at components relating to learning development and the social and networking elements of education.

Third, our survey studies academics over a short time horizon. Having a solid representative database of all academics in business schools enabled us to act quickly and to carry out research much closer to real time than is normal in the scholarly field. We can credibly compare the effect of events prior to and during the lockdown—and we are able to test whether views changed over the six-week period when the study ran. However, such research does not allow us to comment on whether the learning effects we observed will translate into future teaching, nor whether academics will wish to move to on-line delivery more extensively following the lockdown. Addressing this issue is an important issue for future research.

Finally, there is scope for further work on engagement of higher education faculty in the new situation. Although our cross-sectional data does not allow us to test causality, our findings suggest that low levels of vigour are associated with more negative perceptions of job demands due to on-line learning. These could potentially then have negative implications for individual performance (Bakker, 2008). Such low levels of vigour may also be due to contextual factors, such as living with others, having limited space to work and, most of all, parenting responsibilities towards young children (particularly for mothers).

Our findings relating to the negative effects of engagement and associations with on-line delivery suggest that while there is a potential that learning-by-doing associated with enforced on-line delivery may help to break down instructor bias, this is contingent on environmental factors. Individuals and managers will need to find means and interventions to be able to sustain their engagement, which can include personal and practical resource building, job resource building, leadership training and health promotion activities (Knight et al., 2017). While there is research evidence that on-line learning is just as effective as classroom learning, a bias towards face-to-face delivery exists (Marshall, 2018; Redpath, 2012; Watermeyer et al., 2021; Williamson, 2020). The lockdown experience may have the potential to enhance the shift to on-line delivery. Our findings do not suggest that academics were enamoured with the experience, which may lead to greater resistance to on-line delivery in the absence of investment and adequate resourcing institutions could lead to lower quality outcomes, undermining the confidence of students and academics.

There is much in this research then, that not only informs understanding of the views of university faculty in coping with the immediate changes wrought by the

pandemic but has practical implications for university policy and university management. We suggest that many of these lessons are likely to be extendable to other educational sectors and, indeed, possibly to other sectors where there is a similar mix of highly qualified human resource and skill dependency and maybe beyond into other sectors where working from home became a necessity. We look forward to further research on the sustainability of working from home and the effects of the pandemic on patterns of work more generally.

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Management Conception Challenges in the Post-COVID-19 Era and the Stra.Tech.Man Analysis



Charis Vlados and Dimos Chatzinikolaou

Abstract The management of organisations is a continuously evolving and transforming science, which first emerged as a theoretical instrument and method to improve efficiency and effectiveness. This chapter explores the conceptual evolution of management theory from an elliptical and critical perspective. It examines the relevant scholarly management literature and is oriented towards understanding and synthesising different conceptual trends in change management. This conceptual paper concludes that a refocused theoretical framework oriented towards change management in ‘Stra.Tech.Man’ terms (strategy-technology-management synthesis) is necessary for organisational innovation and effective adaptation to the newly emerging conditions.

Keywords Management evolution · Change management · Stra.Tech.Man approach · Post-COVID-19 era · Innovation · Evolutionary management

1 Introduction

Nowadays, global capitalism seems to be entering a new phase, creating a significantly differentiated field of action for all socioeconomic organisations. This emerging phase of the global economy—characterised by the crisis and restructuring of globalisation and the fourth industrial revolution in the post-COVID-19 era—appears to accelerate pre-existing trends (Bragazzi, 2020; Schwab, 2016;

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Vlahos et al., 2018). According to a neo-Schumpeterian interpretation (Freeman, 2009; Schumpeter, 1939), in today's subversive circumstances, it is expected that various ageing industries will be driven at an accelerated rate to decay and extinction. New, more dynamic, and more effective organisational systems (firms and sectors of economic activity) will take their place. This innovation stream, which forms the incubation basis for 'creative destruction' (in the Schumpeterian approach), increasingly seems to be the result of the gradual 'coupling' of cyber-physical systems, where the distinction between physical and digital dimensions becomes progressively indistinguishable (Frazzon et al., 2013; Schlick, 2012). In this context, digital transformation and innovation (through a refocused change management framework) become urgent—simultaneously at the individual, firm, local, regional, national, and global level (Clegg et al., 2021; Hanelt et al., 2020).

What does management mean, and what must managers do in today's circumstances? A thorough understanding requires examining the variety and synthesis of different approaches rooted in the foundations of management. H. Fayol's (1916) classical definition of management seems to be still relevant and appropriate in its clarity. It is argued that all managers perform specific activities that concern forecasting and planning, organising, commanding, coordinating, and controlling. This fundamental definition of management is still valid even after approximately one hundred years of scientific evolution in the field (Baran et al., 2019; Palomino et al., 2011). It is argued that these dimensions will be significantly restructured in the emerging altering global conditions (Anker, 2021; Gould et al., 2017; Van Hoek et al., 2020).

A wide variety of comprehensive definitions of the systematic management process is available nowadays, dating back to the second half of the twentieth century, where management texts began to proliferate. From an introductory and all-inclusive definition, it could be said that managing means doing things through other people, being the coordinated way of achieving individual and organisational objectives. According to Koontz and O'Donnell (1955, p. 64), '*Since enterprise management is concerned with achieving an objective or objectives through the coordinated effort of a group of persons, it is clear that groups must be led and that it is the manager who must lead.*' Similarly, Brech (1975, p. 19) has argued that '*Management is a social process entailing responsibility for the effective and economical planning and regulation of the operations of an enterprise, in fulfilment of given purposes or tasks.*' Therefore, in the context of the relevant scientific literature, it has been clear that, in turbulent conditions, responsiveness to customers, constant innovation, organisation-wide partnership, and proactive, change-oriented leadership are necessary (Kim & Mauborgne, 2015; Laudicina & Peterson, 2016).

However, to what extent do current management approaches need to be refocused and re-enriched in the light of the new and profoundly subversive global developments caused by COVID-19? This question drives us to explore how the science of management has been conceptually evolving. This chapter investigates crucial historical configurations of management from a critical and elliptical perspective, concluding on a new change management approach and points for further enrichment. For this framework of understanding, a critical examination of the management

literature is attempted, oriented towards studying conceptual trends to build a new and restructured approach (Snyder, 2019; Wee & Banister, 2016).

The following section explores some aspects of the fundamental schools of management, observed from the perspective of change and evolution. It first analyses the early 'classical management' developments from the late nineteenth and early twentieth century and second the late twentieth century's Japanese management philosophy and practice. The subsequent section focuses on various recalibrations set forth within the dynamics of contemporary and flexible management approaches. Finally, the concluding section suggests a restructured theoretical scheme, emphasising how organisations can innovate by effectively synthesising the spheres of strategy, technology, and management (the Stra.Tech. Man approach), creating the necessary and corresponding change management mechanisms in today's turbulent times.

2 The Central 'conceptual Traditions' in Management and the Underlying Problematics of Change

Various scholars keep posing the following question: 'What is management? Art or science?' (Bruch & Ghoshal, 2004; Meisiek & Barry, 2014). It could be said that it is primarily a practice that aims to make social organisations more effective in achieving their goals. However, from the 'art' perspective, managers look to find the solution directly against a problem, based on their practical experience and 'intuition.' Then, they proceed to the next issue since the old problem has no 'direct' connection with the new one. From one crisis to another, they feel that their intuition sharpens and makes their managerial instinct more reliable. For them, usually, management is just a matter of talent, inspiration, and nature, and, according to this rationale, the ability to manage cannot be taught. In a similar vein, for the 'practitioners of management,' there is only management's daily practice. However, they are not right. Today, in the day-to-day operational practice, mostly the opposite seems to happen (Aucoin, 2018; Custovic & Insaurralde, 2015).

For others, management is only a sum of unchangeable, abstract, and ultimately inapplicable 'theoretical' principles (Cole, 2004; Tripathi & Reddy, 2012). For them, management is a 'fossilised' and dogmatic area, tending to believe that what was learned several years ago in student life will always remain valid and effective in operational practice. The proponents of this 'pseudo-scientific' approach, deliberately or not, indirectly justify the older and 'practically experienced' managers since old management theories never turn obsolete (Barr & Ben Shaḥar, 2019; Gat-Tilman et al., 2007).

From a synthesising perspective, the scientific approach to management can never be cut off from the ever-transforming empirical reality since it always begins with observed facts. It has to synthesise at the theory level, predict, and control its predictions' accuracy by returning to experienced observations. This fact is valid in the methodological cycle of all empirical sciences (Fig. 1).

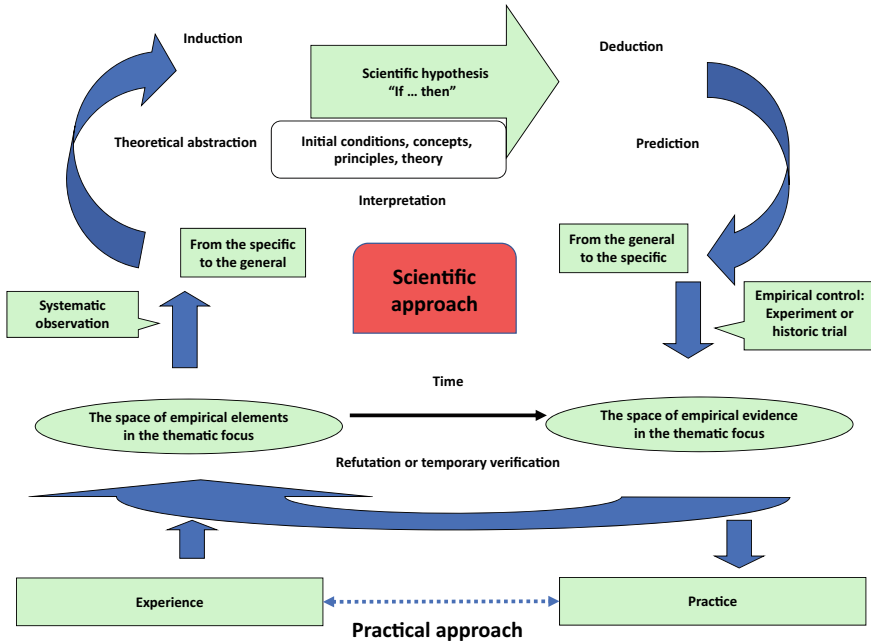


Fig. 1 The fundamental methodological cycle of empirical sciences in a Popperian orientation (Vlahos, 2020)

The practical approach arising from empirical reality must be different from the scientific process (Losee, 1972; Popper, 1934, 1963, 1966; Schick, 2000). The scientific method begins with experienced findings classified in the various thematic fields. This scientific approach suggests a theoretical abstraction from the ‘specific’ to the ‘general’ (induction) and builds an ‘if-then’ hypothesis articulated in derived concepts, principles, and theories. In the deduction step, the successful methodological cycle means accurate predictions by returning to the ‘specific.’ The researcher must empirically control the interpretation and forecasts at this stage. Finally, the theoretical hypothesis is confirmed or not by the facts, being subject to ‘rejection’ by a new scientific synthesis after being used in practical application.

Therefore, each methodological cycle follows an interaction between theory and experience-based practice and, thus, the purpose of theory is to embrace the practice itself as entirely as possible. Experience can only be the source, the cradle of each theoretical proposition, and at the same time, the necessary field of control. Experienced observations can only be the fundamental starting point and, at the same time, the theory’s conclusion. In the end, science is not realised through ‘big words’ or appeals to some ‘authorities.’ Implementing this continuous cyclical relationship

of ‘practice-theory–practice’ creates science (Derrida, 2019; Kuhn, 1962; Lakatos, 1968).

Enlightening towards this direction are Drucker’s (2002) notes on management’s basic assumptions, arguing that this is a social science, predominantly expressed as handling business activity in a relatively optimal organisational structure and way to manage people. Drucker also stresses that technologies, markets, and end-uses are usually statically considered since management is only internally focused.

Overall, could the science of management ever stop evolving? Management is not a static field of expertise, but on the contrary, it attracts attention from multiple and interdisciplinary theoretical domains (Cezarino et al., 2016; Hacklin & Wallin, 2013). Management and organising open the path for new, fertile scientific directions, theoretical and applied simultaneously, heading towards profound renewal and rapid methodological developments. In this sense, a multi-collective and open management approach based on the different perspectives seems imperative for gaining valuable insights on this field (Cummings & Bridgman, 2019; Witzel, 2017).

2.1 Classical Foundations of Management and Their Limitations

Management as an empirical science has been developing for over one hundred years. With the advent of the eighteenth century’s industrial revolution, the first studies on the science of management began to take shape. The first authors, such as Babbage (1835), realised the need for systematically studying work management and standardising business operations. With the appearance of mass production, this need became more intense. H. Towne (1886) formulated the first such scientific approach by presenting the work entitled ‘The engineer as an economist’ at the American Society of Mechanical Engineers. Towne brought forward the need for engineers to study management scientifically.

Taylor and other engineers across the USA and Europe began to produce relevant management questions and perspectives. They implicitly or explicitly suggested that the organisation resembles a ‘machine’ and the worker is the replaceable cogwheel (Emiliani, 2018; Jürgens et al., 1993). The first scholars of this origin suggested strict ways to handle organisational activities, usually applying inflexible hierarchical methods and an authoritarian style of corporate governance (Mahmood et al., 2012). Later, H. Fayol (1916) incorporated the seminal elements of management skills that can be learned and acquired through training, based on the fundamental functions of planning, organising, commanding, and controlling.

M. Weber’s bureaucratic model is also a significant development, arguing that bureaucracy is the most effective way to manage large organisations and preserve order, optimise efficacy, and eradicate favouritism (Weber, 1947, 1949).¹ However,

¹ Weber wrote all his books in German. Original titles published after his death (1920) are compilations of unfinished works.

this bureaucracy also can threaten individual freedom, trapping individuals in an impersonal 'iron cage' of rule-based, rational control. Weber also observed at least six points to constitute this formal and bureaucratic structure in the organisation. The division of labour favours specialisation, with jobs broken down into simple routines and well-defined tasks. The bureaucracy should also have an authority hierarchy, meaning a hierarchically organised and transparent chain of command. Formal selection is another attribute, referring to people chosen for jobs based on their specific technical qualifications. Official rules and regulations are predetermined written rules and standard operating processes. Impersonality is also promoted since a uniform application of protocols and controls occurs, not according to specific personalities. Weber suggested career orientation as the last attribute since managers are career professionals and not owners of the units they manage.

Taylor is the founder of scientific management in the USA, based on the following triple functions and research: study of work, division of this work into smaller parts, and defining the most efficient way to execute them (Taylor, 1911). Taylor's approach to understanding work and improving the employee's efficiency is known as the search for the scientifically defined 'one best way.' From this perspective, scientific management is defined as a systematic method of determining the best way to do a job and specifying the skills needed to perform it (Khurana, 2009). This work's originality consisted of the fact that when tradition and inspiration ruled, Taylor managed to apply the analytical method of the logical structure of labour, which engineers mainly perform.

In terms of principles, at least four are identified. First, any work's scientific study must be done by a team of experts and not by the production staff. Timing and scientific observation (based on 'narrow' quantitative measurement) introduced a 'one best way' to get the job done, strictly defining the functional procedures and the amount of work an employee has to provide per post. Second, any worker must be selected, trained, and developed according to the science of management. The third principle (and combination of the previous two) makes science applicable to the workers, although the expert is still responsible for scientific observation and conception while the worker executes. At this point, Taylor argues, many practical managers fail since they do not want to change their methods in the light of scientific information. Fourth, there is an almost equal division of labour and responsibility between managers and workers. Managers are responsible for the tasks that can do better than workers.

Therefore, within the mass corporation, Taylorism promotes the progressive deepening of labour division, the intensive mechanisation of the production process, the multi-level administrative hierarchy, and the complete separation between the conception (design) and execution of projects (D. Nelson, 1992). Gilbreths are also pioneers in using time and motion studies to improve employee efficiency. F. Gilbreth (1912) invented a system of sorting fifteen movements in work and analysing the workers' actions, called work simplification. Taylor's associate, H. Gantt (1901), dealt more specifically with and investigated the use of time-scheduling methods,

creating a chart that depicts a work's timetable and proposing a worker's productivity task and bonus system. At approximately the same period, H. Ford promoted three fundamental innovations in the homonymous automobile factory that later led to a whole new management conception—Fordism (Raushenbush, 1937). First, work analysis is required to achieve the highest possible efficiency. Second, installing easy-to-use machinery is imperative since most workers, who used to be farmers, have no knowledge or training or education. Third, Ford introduced the assembly line, one of the most significant innovations in manufacturing.

Overall, the classical tradition in management is fully integrated into the dominant conception of Taylor. All administrative phenomena are mechanistically conceptualised in the different socioeconomic organisations that embrace the classical management rationale. The division of labour, the multi-layered and strict formality, the absolute centralisation in decision-making, and the 'bottom's sterilisation' against any initiative and participation have worked sufficiently well and effectively in the Western industrial world—and in the USSR experiment in the corresponding form of Stakhanovism (Bedeian & Phillips, 1990; Peaucelle, 2000). In conditions of relative stability and little uncertainty, it is a fact that this integrated classical management logic has various virtues—systematic cost reduction, increasing scale economies, effective use of poorly trained human resources. However, what happens when external conditions cease to be smooth, easily prescribed and linearly evolving? This is where classical management's practical problems appear (Belasco, 1991; Spender, 1996).

2.2 The Foundations of the Critique Towards the Classical Management Perspective

The behavioural school suggests that organisations must not deny the human and social dimensions in work (Sorge & Warner, 1997). More specifically, E. Mayo (1930, 1933) was the founder of the human relations movement in management, arguing that experts trying to increase employee efficiency should also consider the human factor. The Hawthorne experiments conducted by Mayo also revealed that work productivity is related to social and psychological traits, as much as to work itself (Institute of Management Foundation, 1998). Mayo and his colleagues turned the managers' attention to employees' feelings for improving productivity. In this context, an effective manager needs to understand management techniques and consider all those factors that improve human relationships within a business unit.

From a similar research orientation, M. Follett (1941) suggested the cooperation method to solve problems at work, arguing that there should not be over-supervision of the regular workers. The principle of 'integration' was advocated, meaning a non-coercive power-sharing based on 'power with' instead of 'power over.' Also, Ch. Barnard (1948, 1949) introduced the theory of authority, in which it is postulated that employees understand whether a superior's order is legal and acceptable and

when it is not. Personal goals and interests determine the acceptance and execution of commands, while management's effectiveness depends on the employee's welcoming of legality. Therefore, Barnard tried to prove that only orders considered acceptable are most likely to be executed based on the light of the workers' goals and personal interests. In the same behavioural stream of thought, D. McGregor's (1966) work is also significant. McGregor showed how employees become motivated by authoritative direction and control or integration and self-control, called theory X and theory Y, respectively. McGregor broke down earlier management styles, establishing the Y theory as a humane management approach. This approach would lead to the introduction of work plans that could spur employees' interest, promote individual development, improve the working environment, and increase productivity (Sorensen & Minahan, 2011).

In this conceptual evolution of management, another theoretical tradition was born and further investigated under the title 'operational research,' in which performance measurement is the primary method (Beer, 1968). H. Simon (1947, 1955), known for researching decision-making and information processes, found that business executives have no direct access to perfect information and can never take such flawless decisions to improve their results. Business administration can act based only on the first information on the problem. This decision rationale seeks the 'satisficing solution' instead of anything optimal. Simon replaced the rigid 'homo economicus' model with the 'bounded rationality' decision-making framework (Kalantari, 2010).

The contingency approach also critiques the mainstream management theory (Ghofar, 2016; Itzkowitz, 1996). This theoretical framework suggests that the practical solution to managerial problems depends on the unique and specific conditions of the issue at hand, observed from an eclectic rather than a dogmatic perspective. According to the contingency approach, no general solution to a management problem exists, but on the contrary, specific needs depending on the situation must be considered. Contingency theorists argue that management problem-solving requires the synthesis of different perspectives, initiating from situation analysis and ending up with the formulation, evaluation, and suggestion of possible solutions (Battilana & Casciaro, 2012; Hanisch & Wald, 2012).

Most significantly, an approach that functioned as a comprehensive theoretical repositioning was total quality management (TQM)—or 'Japanese management' from a broader perspective. In this management orientation, the motto is 'quality first' and 'understand the customer,' both internal and external, systematically participate, improve, and continuously innovate (Deming, 1986; Juran, 1964). Total quality is achieved with all the active commitment and involvement since it is a continuous process focused on quality dimensions. Based on TQM's theory and practice, scholars have suggested various ways to simplify the implementation (Doney, 2019; Sharma, 2018).

An approach based on Japanese management principles is 'Theory Z'—a counterproposal to McGregor's X and Y theory. This management stream suggests that teams rather than individual managers take the most effective decisions (Ouchi, 1981). Theory Z supports consensual decision-making since the group has access and can filter more data, thus leading to better decisions. In this management direction,

quality in working life is the primary concern, advocating and supporting life-long employment and participative management as a ‘downward power’: the employees’ opinions are considered in decision-making. Overall, the basic principles of Japanese management philosophy, which were significantly different from Western forms of planning and organising during the early days of globalisation (the 1980s), were based on various participative principles (Jackson & Tomioka, 2004; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Stewart, 1996).

In sum, this critique on the classical management principles—that has been developing at least since the second half of the twentieth century—has highlighted entirely new central dimensions in management theory. These new management conceptualisations are pivotal for the contemporary management of all kinds and sizes of flexible organisations (Nandakumar et al., 2014; Vecchiato, 2015). From this critical perspective, against classical management, the emphasis is attributed to workers’ human side, who have specific wants and continuously develop their personality and intellect to improve organisational performance. Significance is attached to group decision-making and participation at all hierarchical levels, systematic enrichment of jobs, and constant reinforcement of people. This focus on continually improving how people and groups adapt to fast-paced and transforming environments offers high-quality standards and undiminished commitment to innovativeness and flexibility (Anning-Dorson & Nyamekye, 2020; Bianchi & Labory, 2012; Dibrell et al., 2014).

3 Towards the Post-COVID-19 Management Era

This section focuses on understanding the current challenges and prospects for management methods and definitions. Contemporary management refers to how individuals’ achievements and goals can be achieved as constituents of the organisational goals (Certo & Certo, 2019; Spender, 2015). In this respect, today’s management conceives each socioeconomic organisation as dialectically co-determined with its external environment, exceeding any narrow specialisation of the day-to-day experience. This knowledge-aligned management approach also strives to adapt to the rapidly transforming and restructured global environment (Owen, 2011).

Therefore, there can never be a static definition for the science of management, especially in today’s conditions emerging in the post-COVID-19 era. However, there is not (and there will never be) a single and ‘right’ definition of management, accepted by all field experts since everything moves forward and evolves. Looking for a unique and ‘proper’ management definition (as well as a definition of any other scientific subject) can be anti-scientific (Holton, 1997; Levins, 1996). This would mean that the science of management is doomed to permanent ‘sterility’ and cognitive rigidity.

It should be mentioned that, towards offering a synthesising and evolutionary definition of management, all alternative definitions are mostly convergent in their procedural focus. Most contemporary managerial perspectives conceptualise management as a process that allows organisations to define and achieve objectives through comprehensible planning, effective organising, reliable staffing, and aptly controlling their available resources—in this process, coordinating acts as the force that binds together the other four functions (Andrikopoulos, 2009; Bateman et al., 2016; Williams, 2017). Concerning staffing, particular interest is placed in offering a framework for employees' strong commitment by motivating them. However, less research is underway on how management relates as an internal organisational process with the external global environment.

In this research direction, the significance is attributed to how management theory can cross the boundaries of 'mechanics' towards an organic conception of socio-economic dynamics. Modern management theorists differentiate themselves from the analytical foundations of Taylorism, conceptualising the firm as an evolving and adaptive 'organism' instead of a passive 'machine' (Farjoun, 2002; Kessler et al., 2017). The 'living organisation' concept finds explanatory interest in perspectives calling for a clear theoretical transition from engineering to 'business biology' (Geus, 2002; Vlahos, 2019c; Wagner, 2007). According to Battram (1999), in the new biological paradigm for business, the organisation should be treated as a 'garden' instead of a 'factory' while staff development resembles 'plant treatment' instead of 'annual maintenance.' In this context, the organisation does not need occasional oversight but continuous interaction among all organisational components because it is a complex and adaptive system, open to external influences, which can either grow or decline—never stays the same. In this 'ecosystemic' approach, improvement comes from shared values instead of extensively detailed procedures (Iansiti & Levien, 2004; Moore, 2015). More comprehensively, these 'biological' analyses of the economy show the gradual transition from a mechanistic to an evolutionary perspective (Fig. 2).

This 'organic' analysis helps us realise that socioeconomic dynamics must be treated from a unifying perspective, focused on the continuous imbalances exerted upon all systems instead of static equilibria. Moreover, any over-concentration to quantitative accumulations and variances must be replaced by the profound qualitative transformations occurring under the surface. This new organic perspective also influences all contemporary trends in the evolutionary conception of management.

More specifically, evolutionary management suggests the always-temporary organisational structure and procedures. According to Endres (2018), no general principles or specific details of evolutionary management exist because it only refers to a framework that dictates how the structure, relationships, or systems schematise themselves. Therefore, evolutionary management concerns finding the proper behaviours and organisational routines for flexibility and adaptability; these two factors also are critical abilities for strengthening organisational resilience, innovation, and entrepreneurship in the post-COVID-19 era (Portuguez Castro & Gómez Zermeño, 2020).

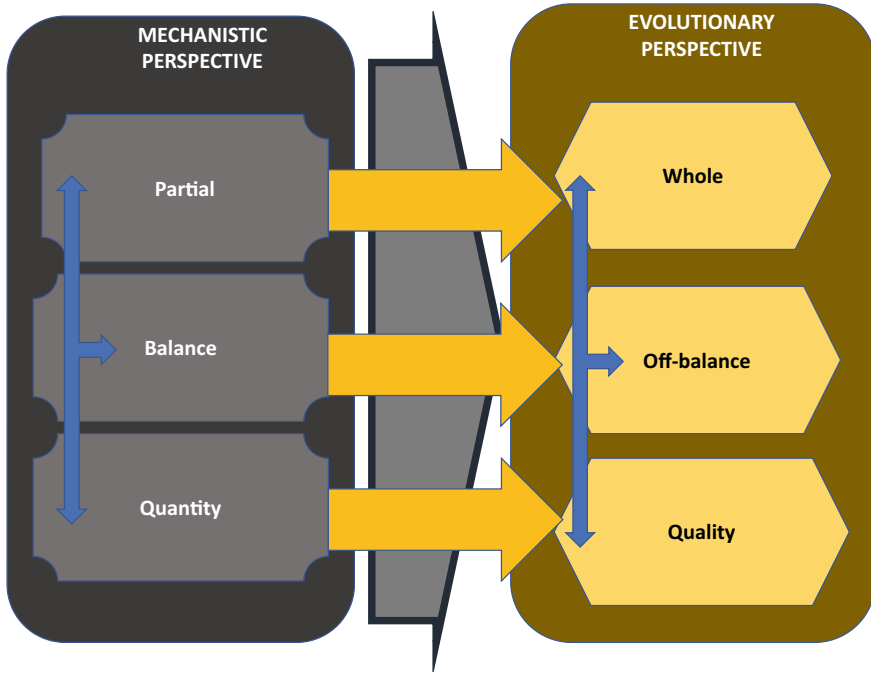


Fig. 2 From a mechanistic to an organic and evolutionary perspective (Vlados et al., 2018)

In a similar vein, Donaires and Martinelli (2019) suggest that evolutionary management concerns the adaptability factor, which is something insignificant until an enduring and stable economic condition ceases to exist. The earlier one-sided specialisation developed in times of stability by offering efficiency becomes a problem that can threaten future progress. Only then, adaptability turns out to be the significant attribute that can reinforce organisational survival and development (Ulrich & Probst, 1984). In this conceptual direction, evolutionary management is primarily a paradigm instead of a specific model or method, and, therefore, there is no one best way to perform this in practice. In this context, Donaires and Martinelli (2019, pp. 82–83) offer four specific operating principles of evolution to be considered in the analysis of evolutionary management:

- (I) In complex organisational systems, evolution is not a punctual, one-shot process, but it is an overall and continuous process.*
- (II) Evolution is essentially an improvement process.*
- (III) Evolution happens in self-organising and adaptive systems, through a process of self-organisation and adaptation, and should result in systems with enhanced self-organising and adaptive capabilities.*
- (IV) In the case of social systems, evolution must be oriented to higher-level aspects of improvement, including moral and ethical improvement.*

Concerning literature that deals, either implicitly or explicitly, with ‘the post-COVID-19 management era,’ various scholars embrace similar research orientations. Liguori and Pittz (2020), who analyse new strategies for small businesses to

survive and thrive in this new era, argue that managing today's disruption needs cost-efficient and aggressive business moves. Verma and Gustafsson (2020) investigate recent emerging research trends in business and management and turn their attention to the need for companies to modify their existing supply chain measures to ensure business continuity while dealing with the COVID-19 crisis. Dessouky and Al-Ghareeb (2020) also observe that resilient organisations can better support their human resources and cope with this newly altered work environment. Finally, in a recent article by Nonaka and Takeuchi (2021), humane business strategy and knowledge management elements are suggested. The authors argue that capitalism as a global socioeconomic system must evolve into a new form of 'wide capitalism' based on *phronesis*. This '*phronesis*' refers to the sought 'new normal,' which means living in harmony with society and nature, pursuing the common good as a way of life and, therefore, in terms of business.

Therefore, it seems that various theoretical approaches exist that can be useful for refocusing today's management theory and practice (Akpan et al., 2020; Carnevale & Hatak, 2020). Contemporary management approaches must increasingly pay interest and attention to co-adjustment with new strategic and technological issues that arise these days, facilitating the processes of rapid and proactive innovation and setting up effective change management mechanisms to deal with the 'ubiquitous' crisis (Kalina, 2020; Motzer et al., 2020). The upcoming concluding section deals with innovation and the corresponding change management mechanisms needed for effective organisational adaptation and survival, counter-proposing the idiosyncratic synthesis of strategy, technology, and management (the *Stra.Tech.Man* approach).

4 Counterproposal: Change Management and Innovation in 'Stra.Tech.Man' Terms (Strategy-Technology-Management Synthesis)

This chapter highlighted the complexity that is increasingly diffused within the theoretical evolution of management. An emphasis was placed on the conceptual foundations laid by classical management scholars, on the first counter-proposed theories of the behavioural approach or human relations, and on the later Japanese philosophy focused on total quality. The current global crisis and restructuring seem to be creating the need for a profoundly renovated management paradigm. By analysing various definitions in this context and focusing on the evolutionary management conception in the post-COVID-19 era, we concluded that today's critical issue is adaptability (via an integrated change management framework) and survival (via a continuous flow of innovation creation and diffusion at all levels). This concluding section suggests a refocused change management and adaptation concept for all organisational levels. This is an issue of increasing significance, attracting interest from strategic management and innovation and development theorists (Abu El-Ella et al., 2015; Bogers et al., 2019).

Since every organisation uniquely implements management functions, any linear, mechanistic, and self-centric internal process is theoretically shallow and misplaced (Burns & Stalker, 2011; McNamara, 2009). It could be said that effective management means synthesising various elements from an idiosyncratically evolutionary way; therefore, it is far from being an ‘endoscopic routine,’ applied everywhere and always with the same content and rationale (Pfeffer, 1995). Effective management is never based on easy recipes and is not subject to vague generalisations and one-sided perspectives (Graupp et al., 2020; Kotter, 1977). It emerges as an organic, delicate, and evolutionary process of human, technical, social, and economic dimensions within social entities (private enterprises or other socioeconomic organisations). Effective management is like a ‘business medicine,’ meaning that every ‘patient’ business has its physiological specificity, and, therefore, its treatment should be of a corresponding unique character, examining the ‘patient’ in an integrated way (Vlados & Chatzinikolaou, 2019; Zeleny, 2010).

In this respect, effective management entails complex decision-making, far from any simple mechanistic process of imposing ‘identical orders,’ regardless of the type of organisation and its specific, dynamically evolving external environment. Effective management must overcome individual differences and contrasts, constantly synthesising towards a higher quality level. Effective management is a process of continuous and dialectic synthesis and re-synthesis within all socioeconomic organisations, aiming to adapt effectively to their environment’s constant changes (Langley & Sloan, 2011; Vlados et al., 2019). Therefore, it is noted that contemporary management conceives (or ought to conceive) how organisations coordinate the management functions in their internal environment to innovate as effectively as possible. Exploiting an evolutionary perspective is critical in this context for organisations to understand how the coevolving internal and external organisational environments interact, adapt, and re-adapt in the globalised innovation dynamics.

Management is primarily an internal, reflective, and adaptational business environment process, which, depending on whether it is sophisticated and integrated, can lead to the creation and diffusion of innovation. Innovation is the ultimate goal in every organisation, and, according to a Schumpeterian and neo-Schumpeterian perspective, should be conceptualised as leading to revolutionary changes in all participating socioeconomic systems, at all levels—individual, local, national, and international (R. Nelson et al., 2018; Schumpeter, 1942). Contemporary management theory understands the coevolution between the internal and external business environment, based on this system of the five fundamental functions of planning, organising, staffing, control, and coordinating, and the interrelationship between this integrated management with strategy and technology (Fig. 3).

The integrated managerial potential first refers to job designing and building a corresponding organisation chart based on specific planning mechanisms. Second, it is about creating a workable structure in terms of organising. Third, it raises the issue of leading, motivating, and developing human resources. Fourth, it corresponds to measuring, evaluating, and comparing performance inside the controlling structures the organisation activates. Fifth, it is about undertaking the right actions to coordinate the entire process. In this evolutionary scheme, innovation creation requires

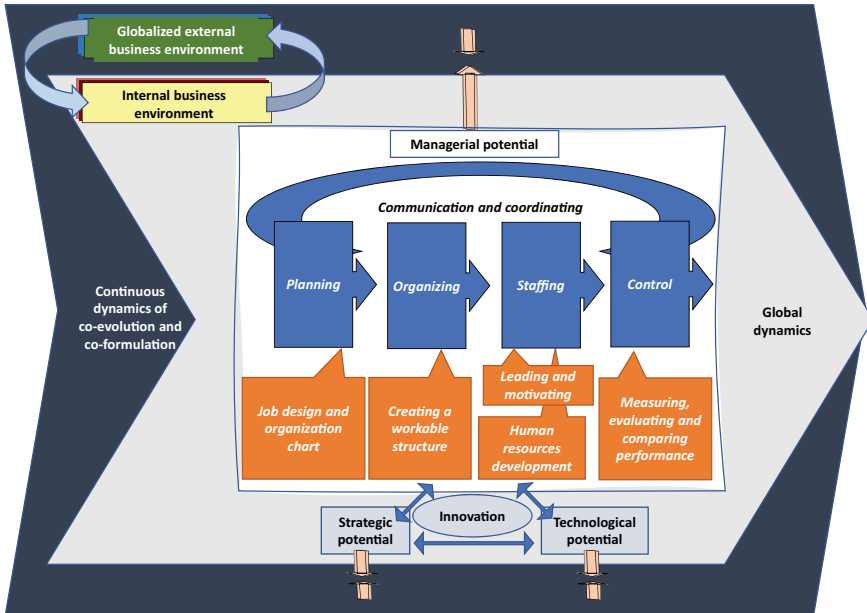


Fig. 3 Fundamental functions of contemporary management and the external global environment

a synthesis of the managerial potential with the related strategic and technological potential because innovation dictates how adaptable an organisation is to the external global dynamics.

However, innovation brings forth explicit or implicit changes inevitably. The question arising from this new integrated strategy-technology-management conceptualisation is how to manage change in an increasingly fluid and uncertain environment like the one that emerges nowadays in the post-COVID-19 era. The handling of change, already from the first relevant approaches (Bennis, 1966), results from preparing the organisational climate, clarifying the need for change, and drawing up and implementing concrete projects. Change management refers to any organisational transformation by using specific methods to redefine the available resources and capabilities (By et al., 2011). Organisational change management understands the organisation in unity and, to this end, analyses and composes the different deliberate changes (Burnes, 2009).

In the 'Stra.Tech.Man' approach, change means transforming a socioeconomic organisation's behaviour to its organic structure and 'physiology.' In this sense, the organisation's 'homeostasis' changes the way it composes the dimensions of strategy, technology, and management. As suggested by Vlados (2019a, 2019b, 2021), the 'Stra.Tech.Man' theoretical scheme is mostly a business consulting tool aimed at diagnosing the firm's 'physiology,' in the sense that each socioeconomic organisation has specific environmental boundaries, determined by the idiosyncratic ways it effectively synthesises (or not) the coevolving spheres of its strategy, technology,

and management. There are three sets of questions that correspond to the combined interpretive perspective of the Stra.Tech.Man approach to innovation:

1. Strategy: Where is the organisation? Where does it desire to go? How does it go there? Why?
2. Technology: How does the organisation draw, create, compose, diffuse, and reproduce its expertise and knowledge? Why?
3. Management: How does the organisation use its available resources? Why?

From the 'Stra.Tech.Man' perspective, the firm's physiological evolution and 'mutation' is the analytical epicentre of the entire innovation and development process; this is the motor of continuous transformation for both the firm and the surrounding socioeconomic environment. However, innovation requires change management mechanisms to be adequately diffused in socioeconomic organisations and systems. Specific phases of change management have been distinguished in the 'Stra.Tech.Man approach,' considered critical to innovation since they constitute a generalisation of the firm's principles. Stra.Tech.Man change management consists of five distinct and successive phases, each with eight steps, defining a continuously elevating and ongoing process for the firm. In this conceptual scheme that can be used for business consulting in today's organisations, the steps and suggestion for the process of managing organisational change are as follows:

- Strategic mutation (Hill & Jones, 2004; Yaeger & Sorensen, 2009): First, clarify and deepen the vision and mission developed by the firm. Second, doubt about any strategic certainties and inform all stakeholders. Third, build mechanisms to understand how the external environment changes as early and comprehensively as possible. Fourth, develop an understanding of the firm's internal environment. Fifth, build a correlative and evolutionary SWOT analysis. Sixth, carefully build any alternatives and evaluate them. Seventh, choose the best-suited (both ambitious and realistic) strategy. Eighth, comprehensively and cohesively analyse the organisation's tactics and politics.
- Technological mutation (Abbott, 2013; Abdelnour-Nocera, 2013): First, profoundly understand the technological rationale implemented in the organisation. Second, gain a comparative picture of the organisation's technological capabilities. Third, develop technology learning processes, and fourth, stimulate the organisation's mechanisms for creating technological knowledge. Fifth, reinforce the processes for technology diffusion. Sixth, practically support the implementation of modern technology. Seventh, do not be afraid of experimentation if it leads to 'substantial lessons.' Eighth, control, evaluate, and, if possible, reward the successful implementation of contemporary technology.
- Management mutation (Carmichael, 2011; Senge, 1990; Tobin & Pettingell, 2008): First, experiment with new planning methods. Second, make the organisation chart lighter. Third, build a meritocratic way of placing the right person at the right time in the right place. Fourth, give the organisation's people the leaders who suit them and inspire them. Fifth, make the organisation a 'learning organisation.' Sixth, give better, specialised, and rewarding motivation. Seventh, measure

and evaluate in a comparative and fair spirit. Eighth, open new communication channels and build new ways to coordinate action.

- Innovative synthesis (Fonseca, 2002; Szirmai et al., 2011): First, clarify the achieved transformations in strategy, technology and management and cautiously prepare the new Stra.Tech.Man synthesis. Second, attribute weight, balance, and adjust the Stra.Tech.Man triangle of innovation. Third, spread the ‘revolution’ message and build a dynamic leadership team. Fourth, remove obstacles, commission roles, and encourage. Fifth, maintain balance in implementing the ‘intervention.’ Sixth, try getting ‘easy’ wins and not over-celebrate them. Seventh, set up control and evaluation points for the entire effort. Eighth, in the end, do not forget to reward those who fought for this change.
- Assimilation of change (Hayes, 2018; Raina, 2018): First, preserve the acts that brought results and unify them. Second, do not punish those who experimented honestly but failed but those who did not fight at all. Third, refresh the hierarchy, bringing in new people. Fourth, avoid conservatism by making ‘yesterday’s success’ a goal to overcome. Fifth, bring ‘foreigners’ into the organisation and withstand their criticisms. Sixth, build an organisation that can be ‘loved.’ Seventh, do not rest on the laurels of earlier success. Eighth, always start all over again (Fig. 4).

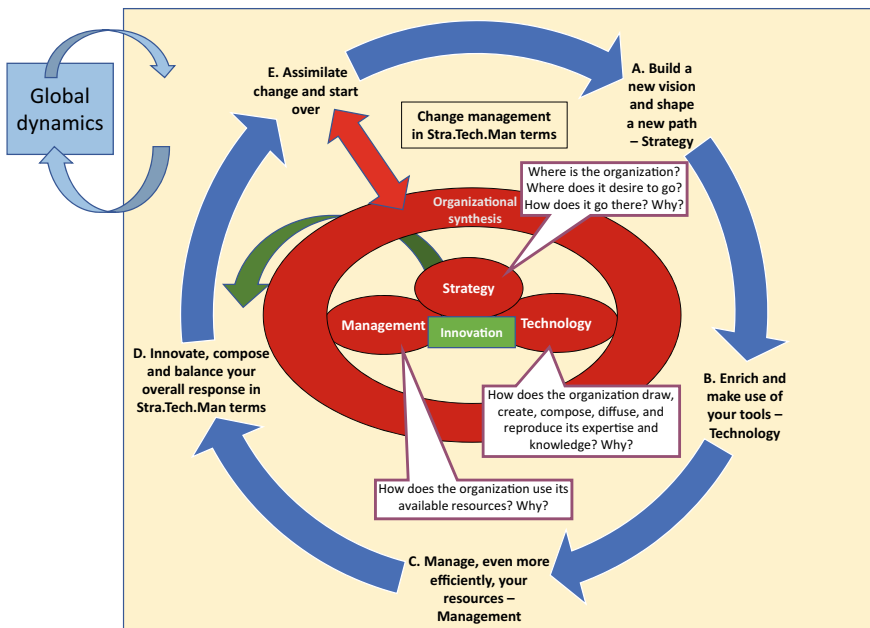


Fig. 4 The Stra.Tech.Man change management. Based on Vlahos (2019c)

These steps are suggested as instruments for effective change management within any organisation called upon to adapt to global dynamics, exploiting the specific survival potential (innovation) that the organisational synthesis of strategy, technology, and management can offer. This methodology could be applied and exploited within different organisational mechanisms, possibly of different sizes and sectoral focus. This Stra.Tech.Man application for managing change and innovation within various organisations could be an avenue for future research via action research methodologies or related self-evaluation or external evaluation business research techniques (Antwi & Hamza, 2015; Krivokapic-Skoko & O'Neill, 2011).

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Reinventing the Workplace: The Adoption of Telework in Post-COVID Times



Maria José Chambel, Vânia Sofia Carvalho, and Afonso Carvalho

Abstract Many employees experienced a high degree of satisfaction with the forced telework situation adopted as a result of COVID-19. Additionally, many companies also concluded the efficiency of this employment arrangement. However, since this specific employment arrangement implies a change in beliefs (e.g., what constitutes an effective worker) and values (e.g., replacing work time and location with goal accomplishment), it should be conducted in the post-Covid period as a process that includes a set of strategies and actions to prevent and overcome resistances and in which the conditions for their implementation may be developed. Firstly, a context of trust needs to be created so that employees and companies alike may perceive and evaluate this employment arrangement as being the most beneficial for all. Secondly, telework implies the acquisition of new skills by both employees and their supervisors, thus suggesting the need for actions to enable the development of these skills. Finally, since this arrangement promotes flexibility, each team should be able to reflect, experiment and assess the extent to which telework is best suited to their reality.

Keywords Reinvent · Workplace · Telework · Post-COVID times

1 Introduction

In practically every country around the world, many companies were forced to adopt full-time telework as a preventative measure to contain the spread of Covid-19. The implementation of this employment arrangement was rapid and unexpected, leaving no time for preparation (Sinclair et al., 2020). This imposed change may be viewed as a learning opportunity to facilitate this employment arrangement in the future and contribute to improving working conditions and correcting some of the negative features of employees' daily lives. However, neither are organizational changes automatic nor is their success inevitable since both require planning and

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cautious implementation. In this chapter, we aim to reflect on the characteristics of this employment arrangement by highlighting its advantages and requirements, in order to contribute to a better understanding of the possibility of its adoption. Additionally, these considerations may serve as a guide to help organizations implement this type of work in the post-COVID period.

1.1 Creation of an Organizational Context That Fosters Telework

It has become clear that employees around the globe would like telework to be part of their reality in the post-Covid period. For example, in Europe, three quarters of employees have reported wishing to maintain telework, at least to some extent, in the post-crisis period (Eurofound, 2020); in the USA, three out of five employees who adopted telework during the Covid-19 pandemic would like to maintain this employment arrangement (Brenan, 2020); in Australia, two-thirds of employees would like to have this opportunity after Covid-19 has been controlled (Lunn, 2020). Thus, it may be concluded that this employment arrangement, experienced by many for the first time during this pandemic, has been deemed a positive experience.

The autonomy promoted by telework has also contributed to its positive evaluation by employees, since working from home, away from their superiors, increases the possibility of making decisions about how to organize their work, namely when and how the various tasks should be done (Sardeshmukh et al., 2012). In fact, in one of our previous studies with a sample of four hundred and thirty-five bank employees, in which a group of employees who had shifted to telework as a result of the Covid-19 pandemic ($n = 222$) was compared with another group who continued to work on the bank's premises ($n = 213$), the promotion of autonomy by telework was confirmed. Data was collected immediately prior to the first lockdown, imposed as a measure to contain the virus (January–February 2019), and again approximately 9 months later. A significant increase in autonomy for the group that had shifted to telework was observed, which was not the case for the group that continued to work on the company's premises.

This employment arrangement fosters autonomy as teleworkers are able to organize their professional activity in a more flexible manner such as, for example, beginning the day with the tasks that require greater concentration, as this is when they feel more *alert*, and/or making up for work interruptions (e.g., preparing lunch or going out to make a last-minute purchase), and extending their working hours at the end of the day or working during the weekend (Borpujari et al., 2020).

On the other hand, and as previously mentioned, the advantage of telework is that it gives employees the possibility of balancing their various roles, namely in their professional and family (personal) spheres. The flexibility provided by this employment arrangement with which teleworkers are able to manage their professional activity enables them to regulate and coordinate the demands of these different areas

of their life, thus favoring their balance (Kossek et al., 2006). Being able to meet the (personal) needs of the family during working hours facilitates the performance of this role and reduces work-family conflict (Allen et al., 2013; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). This occurs not only due to the fact that the performance of their work role does not prevent teleworkers from having time to perform their family (personal) role, but also since the development of tension is prevented as these two domains become more compatible.

However, employees' enthusiasm for telework, due to the autonomy it affords and the possibility of establishing a work-family balance, does not guarantee its effective adoption in the post-Covid period. It should be borne in mind that this employment arrangement has been available for over fifty years in many organizations across the world, while only having been adopted sporadically in most situations until the onset of this pandemic (Eurofound, 2020). In order to maintain this employment arrangement in the post-Covid period, many resistances need to be overcome. Indeed, some employees lack confidence when opting for telework, concerned that the organization and, in particular, their managers/supervisors will regard them as being less engaged with their professional activity and, consequently, will consider themselves to have fewer opportunities to receive positive feedback on their performance, or to be chosen for more challenging projects or career development (Kossek et al., 2015). In fact, a manager's interpretation of the reasons behind an employee's choice to adopt telework has an effect on how his/her engagement is evaluated and, consequently, his/her career progression opportunities: when managers believe that employees have chosen telework to balance their work and family (personal) life, they more easily conclude that they are less engaged workers and, as a result, will offer fewer opportunities for their promotion; when managers consider that employees have opted for telework for performance-related reasons, they deem them to be highly engaged and, consequently, the likelihood of rewarding them with an opportunity for progression will be higher (Leslie, 2012).

Since in the pre-Covid period telework was already available as a *family-friendly practice*, it was seen as a means of helping employees balance their professional activity with their family responsibilities. Thus, managers/supervisors tended to look upon this employment arrangement as being of little benefit to the company, especially as it allows for employees to be physically absent from the company's premises, making it difficult to control and evaluate them (Bailey & Kurland, 2002).

With the learning provided by the experience of telework in the context of this pandemic, in the future, organizations will be able to implement this employment arrangement as a new way of working, which may lead not only to improved work-family balance, but also to the achievement of work goals and better performance. Indeed, several characteristics of telework make it possible to foresee a mutually beneficial situation for employees and companies. Firstly, as previously mentioned, this employment arrangement fosters autonomy in the accomplishment of work tasks, a characteristic that promotes not only the employee's well-being, but also their favorable attitudes and behavior. As assumed by the Job Demand-Control model (JDC, Karasek, 1979), job control (i.e., autonomy with the possibility of making decisions) is a job characteristic that not only reduces stress at work (e.g., strain, burnout), but

also makes it possible to deal with situations of high demands, thus contributing to the attainment of high well-being (e.g., motivation, satisfaction and engagement) (Gameiro et al., 2020). On the other hand, according to the Self-Determination Theory (SDT, Deci et al., 2017), autonomy in the work context provides employees with the possibility of experiencing multiple challenges that foster their learning and promote their personal growth, the latter being a basic human need, which when satisfied ensures their motivation and well-being. As employees' well-being and the absence of stress are crucial to ensure their performance, through the promotion of autonomy not only is well-being increased, but also the employees' performance (Taris & Schaufeli, 2016).

Secondly, telework protects the employee from the frequent interruptions (e.g., phone calls, requests from managers/superiors or co-workers) that characterize office work, ensuring more opportunities for concentration (Kulik, 2021). In fact, one of the main reasons that led employees to opt for telework in the pre-Covid period was to avoid interruptions and ensure periods of silence to carry out tasks that require reflection and high concentration (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). Thus, this employment arrangement may be the most suitable for performing professional tasks that involve problem-solving and decision-making, which require high concentration on the part of the employee.

Finally, it should be noted that even though telework may be deemed as a practice that prevents workers from experiencing work-family conflict situations, it does not only foster positive outcomes for the employee. The work-family relationship (personal life) plays a fundamental role in explaining the well-being of employees, as situations of strain and burnout occur when the performance of professional duties impedes the performance of the family (personal) role (i.e., work conflicts with family) (Amstad et al., 2011; Nohe et al., 2015). As teleworkers have more resources (e.g., they have greater flexibility to adjust the demands of their professional activity to the demands of their [personal] family life and waste less time commuting to work) that help them to balance the different areas of their life, work-family conflict (personal life) is less likely to occur and, consequently, the teleworker is less likely to experience stress, namely strain and burnout (Golden, 2006). As previously mentioned, employees' well-being is a prerequisite for their performance and therefore, when an organization promotes its employees' work-family balance through telework, it will also reap the rewards of its outcomes.

Therefore, implementing telework in the post-Covid period is more than ensuring a practice that favors the employee's life beyond work, albeit in a condescending and paternalistic manner, but rather an opportunity to create a new job context characterized by a culture of mutual trust. It is based on this trust that managers/supervisors believe that employees give the best of themselves in the performance of their professional activity, regardless of their place of work and without needing to be under their direct surveillance. By the same token, employees trust that the organization and their managers/supervisors will support and value their choice to work from home, without this entailing any negative consequences (OECD, 2020).

1.2 Making the Situation Comfortable for Everyone

Studies on this employment arrangement have shown that it is not only characterized by advantages, as several disadvantages have also been highlighted. Work overload has been acknowledged as a negative consequence of this employment arrangement since teleworkers find it harder to *distance themselves* from their work (Kelliher & Anderson, 2010) and feel a greater need to meet their manager/supervisor's expectations that they are always available (Grant et al., 2013). The absence of physical boundaries that characterizes working from home fosters the absence of temporal and psychological boundaries which, in turn, leads the teleworker to be always thinking about work or performing professional tasks beyond the actual work schedule (Grant et al., 2013).

To further aggravate the absence of boundaries in a telework situation, it should be borne in mind that this employment arrangement involves the use of technologies to carry out the professional activity. Hence, the teleworker is more likely to fall into the temptation of working beyond his/her work schedule and, for example, to check and reply to emails during mealtimes or to be virtually connected even on weekends (Eddleston & Mulki, 2017).

In fact, in this imposed employment situation resulting from the pandemic, most European employees reported having insufficient time to carry out their work on a constant or highly frequent basis (Eurofound, 2020). Indeed, in the context of the pandemic, their work may have been intensified by adherence to the common dedication trend in telework situations, and additionally due to the fact that since this period was a situation of crisis, which increased employees' perception of job insecurity and concern about the financial situation, they felt obliged to meet the company's needs and to be available beyond their work schedule (Hodder, 2020; Kniffin et al., 2021).

On the other hand, there are also reports of some employees highlighting having received more emails and calls to meetings from their superiors, many of which unnecessary, which forced them to work overtime (Gray et al., 2020). It should be noted that this was an imposed employment arrangement and many managers/supervisors have always mistrusted its effectiveness since it does not allow for direct surveillance of their subordinates. Sending emails and calling meetings may be seen as an attempt to overcome this limitation and monitor (i.e., control) the teleworkers (Kulik, 2021). However, these requests transmit a lack of trust to teleworkers, which may lead them to respond with counterproductive behaviors (e.g., long breaks and slow performance of tasks), consequently confirming the fears of their superiors that telework and its inherent flexibility is a detrimental employment arrangement to the achievement of organizational goals (Jensen et al., 2014).

Indeed, the absence of physical boundaries to delineate professional activity and family (personal) life, which characterizes this employment arrangement, creates greater incompatibility between the two domains (e.g., work-family conflict) as not only do teleworkers spend a considerable part of their time working, leaving less time for the performance of their family (personal) role, but also the stress caused by

carrying out their work tasks compromises the fulfillment of their family responsibilities (personal). Furthermore, this absence of physical boundaries implies greater permeability between the domains leading to more distractions, interruptions and violations of one domain on the other, thus compromising their balance (Jostell & Hemlin, 2018). For example, teleworkers can easily interrupt their work either to respond to a child's request to help with schoolwork, or interrupt lunch to take a phone call from a manager/superior.

In one of our previous studies (Carvalho et al., 2021) with four hundred and fifty-six employees from different service companies during the first lockdown of this pandemic (March–April 2019), the teleworkers who experienced the most violations between work and family (i.e., either their family life interrupted their work, or their work interrupted their family life) were those who reported the greatest difficulties in establishing boundaries or achieving a balance between these two domains.

Finally, it has also been highlighted that the absence of physical contact and the dependence on technologies to establish contact from a distance (e.g., telephone, email, videoconferences) with co-workers and managers/supervisors compromise social support in the job context, thus promoting a feeling of isolation (Bentley et al., 2016). Distance working leads to less interaction with others, effecting the possibility of learning from them, sharing solutions and receiving feedback and help when necessary.

According to a study conducted in Denmark during the first lockdown, some of these telework difficulties were experienced even more intensely by managers who reported excess work, spending more time on the computer, and greater difficulties in establishing a work and family balance (Kirchner et al., 2021). Moreover, these professionals referred to the organization of work, communication with their team members and the exercise of leadership as salient challenges for their job performance during lockdown.

Given the disadvantages that this employment arrangement may entail, organizations need to adopt preventive measures to increase the effectiveness of its implementation in the post-Covid period. Examples of such actions might include the establishment of practices and regulations by the organization to support the successful implementation of telework, or a set of actions to develop employees and managers/supervisors' skills in order to enhance their adaptation to this employment arrangement. For instance, about the former group: avoiding an overload of work and communication, the organization prohibiting emails being sent outside working hours, establishing specific days for meetings, developing other forms of communication (e.g., collaborative platforms) to replace meetings.

As far as managers/supervisors are concerned, in order to help them lead their teams in this employment arrangement, actions might include: adjusting their evaluation criteria to results and not to processes; being able to be close and available despite the physical distance; adapting their performance to the individual needs of each member of the team (Poulsen & Ipsen, 2017). As already noted, the importance of a work-personal life balance is fundamental for telework to be successful. To this end, managers/supervisors need to be trained for effective action in the work-life balance of employees. The work of Hammer et al. (2009) was developed to

identify specific domains that could be worked on, namely emotional support, that is, showing employees that their feelings are being taken into account (e.g., the manager/supervisor should understand the personal commitments of employees); instrumental support, that is, adopting reactive behavior whenever necessary to expedite ways of promoting work-personal/family life management (e.g., providing flexible schedules for employees and teams); creative work-life balance management, that is, adopting proactive behavior in order to expedite measures conducive to such balance that are favorable to employees, the team and the organization and, finally, the manager/supervisor's adoption of exemplary behavior with regard to work-personal life/family balance, acting as a model for employees in this regard. In order to develop these skills, training is essential. Research has shown that they are necessary regardless of organizations' family-friendly practices and even employees' general perceptions regarding the family support offered by their organizations (e.g., Allen, 2001).

However, in relation to employees, it is important that they are able to act in such a way as to segment their work and personal/family time in order to prevent the harmful effects of the absence of physical, temporal and psychological boundaries. Some tactics are presented by Kreiner and colleagues (2009) that may be adopted by employees. Behavioral tactics refer to a set of actions that can be taken to foster segmentation, for example, in the case of using technology, not overlapping personal and professional matters and vice versa, ascertaining what is more/less urgent and/or more/less important, for effective time management, defining what should be a permeable or impermeable issue (for example, defining the issues for which they can be interrupted in each domain with the partner/ the children/ co-workers/ the team). Temporal tactics also help to establish boundaries, for example, defining periods of time to work on each task beforehand, thus avoiding distractions. Hence, employees benefit from specific time management training. Physical space should also be managed and, whenever possible, employees should have a physical space at home for work which is not the same as their leisure space, and adopt communication tactics, making their work and leisure periods and their allowed /not allowed interruptions clear, as already mentioned.

1.3 Adapting to Each Specific Situation with the Development of a Mixed Model

Everything points to the office of the future increasingly becoming the most suitable location to observe human moments, face-to-face moments that will allow us to transmit empathy, emotions and connectivity so that we will not be limited to the coldness of distance and technology. No matter how much technology develops and becomes a facilitator of work models, nothing can replace human contact, so the office will tend to be transformed into a location in which collaboration, interaction, creativity and social exchanges are maximized and characterized by any formal or

informal moment in which human interactions, well-being and consequently individual and collective productivity are enhanced. Thus, it is crucially important that each company designs a work ecosystem that functions in a balanced manner and that symbiotically aligns the expectations of all the involved parties, thus leading to rewarding experiences and high levels of employee satisfaction.

A mixed telework model—some days a week at the office and the remaining days at home—has been advanced as an ideal arrangement by some researchers since it would allow each employee to enjoy the benefits of working from home (e.g., flexibility to balance their professional and family [personal] life, the possibility of having high concentration for demanding tasks) and the benefits of working in the office (e.g., greater collaboration among co-workers and less likelihood of feeling isolated and deprived of social support) (Felstead & Henseke, 2017). It would be interesting to design this telework model collectively, that is, with the involvement of all the team members. The experience gained during this pandemic can help each team to find the best model, that is, the one that is most effective both on the days employees are working from home and on the days they are working in the office (Bernstein et al., 2020). Additionally, team planning, giving everyone the opportunity to adopt this mixed model, will prevent a feeling of injustice, as team members are less likely to perceive they are at a disadvantage and/or that their co-workers are being favored (Golden, 2007).

If leaders really wish to make a successful transition from a conventional work model to a mixed model, they will need to invest in something novel, namely in designing a work model where people and human concerns are as much of a priority as institutional matters (Gratton, 2021). More specifically, location and time will need to be considered, but above all the function and tasks to be performed, the employee's preferences, projects and workflows, and finally inclusion, justice and equity should also be considered.

The ideal situation would probably be the adoption of a model developed by all the employees in each company and in each team, taken as an experiment which would then be evaluated by everyone and reformulated according to this feedback (Kulik, 2021).

2 Conclusions

Telework is an employment arrangement appreciated by employees not only for its greater flexibility in the management of their professional and family (personal) roles, thus ensuring more balance, but also since it promotes their autonomy in the organization and performance of their work and greater concentration in the performance of tasks, as it protects them from the interruptions and requests that characterize office life. Thus, telework should not be regarded by managers solely as a family-friendly practice, used by employees occasionally and sporadically, but rather as a new teamwork arrangement that promotes motivation, well-being and better outcomes.

On the other hand, and since it is more difficult to establish boundaries between domains in this employment arrangement, employees may spend too much time working or thinking about work and find it more difficult to prevent the interference of work in the family (personal life) domain. Thus, it is essential that employees are able to develop strategies that ensure segmentation between the domains, and that organizations and supervisors adopt a management style that prevents the occurrence of such difficulties.

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Emotional Intelligence and the Impact of the Covid-19 Pandemic on Pharmaceutical Professionals—An Exploratory Study



Catarina Brás Rodrigues, João Leite Ribeiro, and Delfina Gomes

Abstract The world is facing a situation that is new for practically every generation: a virus, called SARS-CoV-2, which gave rise to the COVID-19 pandemic and came to condition freedom, depriving proximity, in addition to the enormous health tragedy it constitutes. Circumstances such as these demand a lot in terms of physical and psychological resistance and emotional energy, especially in a professional context, where daily experiences and concerns are immense. This chapter focuses on the impact the Covid-19 pandemic had on pharmaceutical professionals in the context of community pharmacies. It seeks to understand the importance of the forms and systems of communication and leadership assumed in the definition of strategies developed by these professionals to face this reality. Pharmacists have been in contact with people since the beginning of the Covid-19 pandemic, ending up facing different situations that may trigger different behavioral reactions, self-experiencing diverse physical, psychological and mental states. This study highlights that the pharmaceutical professionals interviewed possess an adaptive diagnostic capacity, given the evolution of the pandemic situation, in a context of advances and setbacks and of uncertainties and insecurities. Emotional strength, teamwork, the ability to plan, organize human resources, monitor and assess the situation, in its different interfaces, were extremely crucial for these professionals.

Keywords Covid-19 · Emotional Intelligence · Communication · Leadership · Trust · Pharmaceutical Professionals

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1 Introduction

For human beings, everything is questionable, everything is relative and everything is subject to change. However, this is what makes the human being a distinct, special and constantly evolving entity, not only in physical level, but, above all, in cognitive, mental, psychological, emotional and cultural aspects. According to Cunha et al., (2016, p. 76), “Immanent to human nature, emotions are swarming in organizational life – they germinate as a result of situations experienced in organizations, they act on people’s well-being and on personal interactions”. However, it is important to emphasize that the rational side is also very important, because it is through it that we are able to distinguish the appropriate behaviors, systematically relating the objectives and their consequences (Cunha et al., 2016).

Some studies demonstrate this relationship between emotions and behavior, namely that of the Portuguese scientist António Damásio, who refers in his book “Descartes’ Error” to the importance of emotions in explaining human behavior and actions (Damásio, 1994). Currently, this is extremely essential because more than focusing on their own interests, each person must think about the other, as well as putting themselves in their place.

We are going through a situation at a global level that is new for practically every generation: a virus, called SARS-CoV-2, which gave rise to the COVID-19 pandemic and came to condition freedom, depriving proximity, in addition to the enormous health tragedy it constitutes. Circumstances such as these demand a lot in terms of physical and psychological resistance and emotional energy, especially in a professional context, where daily experiences and concerns are immense.

This chapter focuses on the impact the Covid-19 pandemic had on pharmaceutical professionals in the context of community pharmacies. It seeks to understand the importance of the forms and systems of communication and leadership assumed in the definition of strategies developed by these professionals to face this reality. Pharmacists, the target population of this study, have been in contact with people since the beginning of the Covid-19 pandemic, ending up facing different situations that may trigger different behavioral reactions—rational and emotional—self-experiencing diverse physical, psychological and mental states.

Thus, the main research questions established for the present work and that guided the empirical study are as follows: (1) How have community pharmacies sought to streamline their way of functioning, since the beginning of the Covid-19 pandemic situation, to better adjust and manage change?; (2) How can communication be an influencing determinant of trust and how does leadership help this process, in the context of pharmacies?; and, (3) In what way and which skills of Emotional Intelligence are preponderant, from the point of view of pharmacists, when confronted with an atypical reality, such as the current one?

Given the objective, research questions and the empirical context, it was considered that the interpretative methodological approach would be more appropriate, as it seeks to understand how the interviewees experienced the situation under analysis, that is, their opinions, perceptions and valuable judgments. Therefore, the data

collection method was based on semi-structured interviews and for data analysis, content analysis was used.

The remainder of this chapter is structured as follows. The next section presents a review of the literature about emotional intelligence, emotional intelligence and its relevance in an organizational context, leadership and communication for trust in an organizational environment, as well as human resource management and the pandemic reality, and community pharmacies versus Covid-19. The methodology of the study and a description of the participants are presented in the subsequent section. Next, the impact Covid-19 pandemic had on pharmaceutical professionals is analyzed, based on the perceptions of the interviewees. These perceptions and opinions are presented in three main dimensions: community pharmacies and their way of functioning in the Covid-19 pandemic; community pharmacies: communication, trust and leadership; and, community pharmacies, emotional intelligence and Covid-19 pandemic. The final section offers a conclusion.

2 Literature Review

2.1 *Emotional Intelligence*

The concept of intelligence went through a whole set of definitions and was the object of reflections in different areas of knowledge. It was, however, in the 80s of the twentieth century that it witnessed a considerable development with the studies of psychologist Howard Gardner (1983), regarding human intelligence, which he called Theory of Multiple Intelligences. The author defined *intelligence* as the potential to solve problems or design prestigious products within one or several cultural settings (Gardner, 2000). Among the seven multiple intelligences described by Gardner (2000), there are intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences. Intrapersonal intelligence addresses the relationship that the individual has with himself, while interpersonal intelligence is associated with the relationship that the individual has with others. These two intelligences underlie what is more commonly referred to as emotional intelligence today.

Several authors have studied the concept of emotional intelligence over the years, as presented below. This type of intelligence is seen as something increasingly important, namely in an organizational context. According to Gonzaga and Rodrigues (2018), since the 1980s, with the progress of investigations in neuroscience, it began to be perceived that individual consciousness is not totally dominated by one's own will. In addition to the thoughts themselves, there are beliefs and views about the world, values and principles, perceptions and value judgments, attitudes and behavioral repertoires, as well as emotions themselves.

However, it was not until the 1990s that the concept of emotional intelligence emerged, as a result of the international popularity achieved by the book "Emotional Intelligence", by Daniel Goleman (1995). For this author, emotional intelligence is

seen as the “ability of a person to motivate himself and persist despite frustrations; of controlling simple impulses and deferring the reward; to regulate his own state of mind and prevent discouragement from overpowering the faculty of thinking; to feel empathy and to have hope” (Goleman, 2000, p. 54).

Despite the perspective of Goleman (2000) being the one that had the greatest impact in the literature, there are others that are quite equivalent. Among them is that of Mayer et al. (2004), who define emotional intelligence as the ability to access, perceive and generate emotions that enable better thinking, to regulate and understand emotions. In turn, Bar-On (2006) exposes the notion of emotional-social intelligence, which, in addition to the aspects mentioned by Mayer et al. (2004), involves skills, which give rise to self-motivation and beneficial effects.

Emotional intelligence is, in many cases, confused with social intelligence, but it should be noted that they are different intelligences. Emotional intelligence is a broader concept as it comprises emotions. Thus, Mayer and Salovey (1997, p. 10) define emotional intelligence in four distinct dimensions:

1. Accurately perceive, assess and express emotions;
2. Access and/or generate feelings, when they facilitate thinking;
3. Understand emotions and emotional knowledge;
4. Regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

Next, Goleman et al. (2012)¹ highlight as the main competences of emotional intelligence the personal competences (which include self-awareness and self-management) and the social competences (determinants of relationship management, and that comprise social conscience and relationship management).

Next, the relevance of emotional intelligence is analyzed in the organizational context.

2.2 Emotional Intelligence and Its Relevance in an Organizational Context

Moving to the organizational context, Cobêro et al. (2006), claim that emotional intelligence can be viewed as a type of intelligence that contributes to understanding and adapting to the organizational environment. In this context, some advantages of emotional intelligence are indicated, with regard to leadership and teamwork, as well as for the management of workers’ performance (Ashkanasky et al., 2002). Emotional intelligence goes beyond the individual level, playing a relevant role in the functioning of the group as a whole. That said, trust must manifest itself among the elements of the group, so that there is a sense of identity and group effectiveness (Druskat & Wolff, 2001).

¹ English version: Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A (2002). Primal leadership: Realizing the power of emotional intelligence. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

According to research carried out by Sy et al. (2006), organizational actors who present an adequate level of emotional intelligence are better able to recognize and control their emotions, allowing them to be more aware of the factors that contribute to experiencing negative and positive emotions. In addition to this, emotional intelligence is also crucial when it comes to a leader's professional career success (Reis, 2020). In this author's view, "emotions are a source of personal domain, acquiring greater value than the inherent power of a position in the organization" (p. 157). The author also adds that "feelings are an inspiring source of knowledge acquisition, which provide us with essential information so that we can grow inwardly" (Reis, 2020, p. 157).

Therefore, it is possible to conclude that both the rational and the emotional dimensions are extremely important in the organizational sphere. It is essential that there is a balance between the two aspects, so that one can understand and manage emotions, in order to be able to understand the organizational environment and, therefore, be able to make the most appropriate decisions in light of different contextual circumstances. In the perspective of Reis (2020), an organization that is concerned with constantly enhancing the emotional skills of its organizational actors will be considered, on a large scale, as being emotionally intelligent. This is because "emotion makes thinking more intelligent, and intelligence allows you to think and use emotions more accurately" (Cunha et al., 2016, p. 91).

Considering this, organizations today increasingly require that the leader, beyond being emotionally intelligent, be "an advisor, coach, counselor, ally, friend and always focused on the interests of the company and the people around him" (Reis, 2020, p. 157). Goleman (2012) supports this point of view, stating that leadership operates better if implemented by emotionally intelligent leaders.

Next, the importance of leadership and communication for trust in an organizational environment is analyzed.

2.3 The Importance of Leadership and Communication for Trust in an Organizational Environment

Peppers and Rogers (2012) state that when the organization is interested in developing parameters such as collaboration and commitment, the organization and its workers must be able to relinquish control practices. What is needed is that managers and subordinates trust and collaborate with each other, as well as with their peers.

It is in these situations that leadership is extremely important, as, for Moreira (2017), the participation of leadership in managing emotions becomes increasingly important in an organizational environment. This importance is associated with the fact that individuals are the main resources within a productive system, as they reflect, act and monitor their behaviors and attitudes, taking into account the environment in which they are inserted (Moreira, 2017).

In turn, Reis (2020) argues that leadership is increasingly essential for the management of a team and/or an organization and, “considering the possibility of the concrete use of emotional skills, it is a mechanism for reducing disabilities in the control of emotions, by people in their work groups” (p. 126). In addition, the author adds that leadership must be transformative and dynamic, and the maturity level of workers must be frequently analyzed, as well as their organizational, personal and group experiences (Reis, 2020).

Goleman et al. (2013) state that a leader may not generate trust, but must be able to conceive of circumstances for trust to emerge. Leadership is critical to fostering openness, even in situations where leaders are most vulnerable and have to take responsibility for the consequences of negative outcomes. The same authors emphasize that only an inspiring leadership is able to stimulate self-esteem, autonomy and positive relationships within an organization (Goleman et al., 2013). A leader must be authentic, in the sense of being able to foster organizational learning and act in an inspiring way. If the opposite happens, he will not be able to convey confidence. Furthermore, Reis (2020, p. 159) describes empathy as “an essential competence, so that resonance can be verified, and of extreme importance in the effectiveness of the leader in the relationship with his or her followers, therefore, framed as a positive emotion”.

An inspiring and, consequently, positive leadership is one that leads to “healthy, ethical, harmonious environments, with encouragement to apply individual potential, well-being, quality of life, self-motivation and space for creativity and collaboration” (Zolet & Marques, 2021, p. 8). For them, “to humanize is to become benevolent, more sociable, accessible and treatable” (Zolet & Marques, 2021, p. 9). Thus, humanization is seen as the foundation of healthy leadership and the leader who assumes it normally has an open mind for change, if circumstances so require, precisely because the well-being of all involved is the priority of the leader (Zolet & Marques, 2021).

Also according to Zolet and Marques (2021, p. 9), “the humanized leader can bring people together, contribute to the development of more leaders, without fear that these leaders become better than themselves”. This is because the leader is aware that, when acting together and in a collaborative way, the achievement of positive results is greater than if they operated in isolation. Therefore, the humanized leader “contributes to a more favorable, productive, harmonious and lighter environment” (Zolet & Marques, 2021, p. 10).

Goleman (2012) emphasizes that relational leadership has very positive effects on the emotional environment of the team, as well as on the motivation of its members, especially in times of conflict and/or stress. In this way, a leader who has skills such as empathy and good communication, ends up, at the same time, holding emotional intelligence skills, which is considered essential for a team to be interconnected.

According to Reis (2020, p. 159), “Communication is carried out in a climate of assertiveness, without ambiguity, enabling the involvement of group elements”, making the leader focus on the functions. In this way, distortions and noise in communication can be avoided and ensure transparent communication. For this reason, communication also assumes an essential role, since, according to Kotsou (2012 p. 191), “when we communicate, we use not only words, but also the body”, through

voice, gestures and the senses. But “the distance between people and the environment in which they interact also influence communication, being an integral part of it” (Kotsou, 2012, p. 191). Hall (1971), on the other hand, shows that the physical distance between the participants in the conversation is also a factor that intervenes in communication.

The same author in his work “The Hidden Dimension”, Portuguese version *A Dimensão Oculta* (Hall, 1971), portrays the physical distance considered by the subjects, depending on the culture. Whenever this distance is not respected, whatever the context, it can trigger moments of stress in individuals. Even a quieter and more reserved individual is able to communicate, through their posture, due to their discomfort in speaking. This is why the non-verbal dimension is so important. It also favors a better perception, helping to regulate relationships.

As argued by Reis (2020, p. 247) “Communication enables organizations to encode and decode messages, keeping them as open systems, in constant interrelation with other systems”. In addition, it is through communication that managers are able to assume influencing roles in the organization, by establishing contact networks and allowing information, knowledge and ideas to flow naturally (Reis, 2020).

The importance of communication in organizations derives from the fact that it enables dialogue between organizational actors, with a view to improving the organizational climate. This is why feedback is so important, as it aims to ensure that there is open communication between interlocutors; it conveys the idea of recognition and, finally, it helps to understand whether or not the communication was effective, namely, when analyzing the results obtained. Communication is understood as effective, when it does not lose its meaning, regardless of the message being conveyed in words or gestures (Reis, 2020).

According to Reis (2020, p. 258) “communication helps the interaction between employees and their integration in the organization, when they receive, understand and interpret the message”. Communication comprises the necessary instruments, so that workers are kept informed about what happens in the organization, whether at the level of vision, mission, values, strategic plans and tactical interventions (Reis, 2020).

Transposing to the current pandemic situation, “internal communication that demonstrates genuine interest in the physical and emotional well-being of employees will also disclose suggestions on how to work effectively in telework” (Porto, 2021, p. 2). Therefore, it is concluded that the communication process is essential to create an integrated cycle, given that when properly implemented, it seeks to involve all areas of the organization, so that everyone aligns their efforts in pursuit of the same goals (Reis, 2020). However, for this to happen, it is necessary that the relationship management incorporates relevant factors, such as truthfulness, that is, having the ability to be upfront and honest, leading to trust in the team. Accordingly, aspects such as conflict management, persuasion, availability and full willingness to change will emerge more easily (Reis, 2020).

When relating to the domain of emotional intelligence, a leader who identifies himself as an emotional being (facilitating the knowledge of others) and who has high

self-confidence, while trusting others, demonstrates empathy and makes harmony between him and his work team (Lourenço & Ilharco, 2009; Reis, 2020). Therefore, it is possible to affirm that trust is an extremely important aspect in organizations, as it indicates the existence of transparency and integrity between managers and workers and, consequently, leads to the smooth functioning of organizations. This happens when there is good communication in the organization. Furthermore, “accepting and appreciating different opinions and feelings are at the origin of the conception of trust” (Gonzaga & Rodrigues, 2018, p. 27).

Accordingly, Goleman (2012) states that trust is transmitted through the result of the set of behaviors and actions focused on the leader, more precisely, when the leaders are true, consistent, open and predictable people in their attitudes toward other members of the team. According to Reis (2020, p. 161), “leaders who have a consistent and true speech, allow the group members to have the guarantee that the rules are not changed”, which gives them security and encourages them to make extra efforts and relate to the truth. When there is trust, it is assumed that communication is good and open. This type of attitude demonstrates respect for organizational actors and, by including them in the basic information circle, is contributing to scenarios where transparency and trust are constant (Reis, 2020).

However, Goleman (2012) made a point of emphasizing that this confidence-inspiring behavior is only verifiable if the leader is a correct, honest, humble person, who demonstrates the truth and is faithful to what he believes, having knowledge of himself. This presupposes, from the outset, that the leader has a balanced emotional component, also presenting high levels of reasonableness.

Next human resources management in the context of Covid-19 pandemic is analyzed.

2.4 Human Resource Management and the Pandemic Reality

If it had been transmitted to us some time ago that we were going to be experiencing a worldwide epidemic, most likely, we would not believe it. The truth is that, in a few months, the world we used to know has changed in a drastic way, forcing us to adopt new ways in order to adapt to this new reality (Ata, 2020). In addition to the human being, the world of work also had to adapt to new circumstances.

The Covid-19 pandemic and the consequent mandatory confinement accelerated “the long-foreseen transformation, forcing companies and entrepreneurs to reorganize and reinvent themselves, with regard to the adoption of new practices, tools and working methods that were previously unsuitable for frequent use in organizational and corporate daily life” (Spulveda, 2020, p. 36). Human resource management, taking into account the times we are going through, ended up becoming a key function of any organization, whether large, medium or small (Ata, 2020). The mission of human resource management professionals, due to the pandemic, is even more significant, namely in two areas: “to promote the physical and emotional well-being

of all employees and contribute to the survival of the company, in order to guarantee the maximum preservation of jobs and less loss of income” (Porto, 2021, p. 1).

From the perspective of Ata (2020), one of the most impacting repercussions of Covid-19 is the high levels of stress and the consequent burnout felt by workers, due to the high number of overtime work hours to which they are subjected during all days of the week. Thus, and in the view of Ata (2020), human resource management professionals have an important function, as they can enable and should reinforce a balanced and positive work structure, ensuring that workers have a healthy mind to work and an appropriate commitment to the organization. For this to happen, Porto (2021, p. 1) argues that those responsible for human resource management must meet the top management and, together with the heads of other departments of the organization, “define the best strategy to adapt to this new reality and reinvent themselves, overcoming this crisis and growing in efficiency and productivity”.

Associated with stress and excessive working hours, remote work or teleworking, which has become quite common, “can lead to increased anxiety, fear and a feeling of loneliness” (Porto, 2021, p. 1). The fact that people are worried about getting infected, that there is the possibility of not surviving, of losing their jobs and/or decreasing income, also contributes to this situation (Porto, 2021). In this way, human resource management professionals have the responsibility to “contribute to the transformation of an environment of fear into a resilient environment” (Porto, 2021, p. 1). An environment in which each worker has the notion that it will not be possible to avoid the current circumstances, having to face them, but that by overcoming them, they have the opportunity to grow emotionally, to focus on what is truly important and, therefore, become a happier person and a better human being (Porto, 2021).

The same author reinforces this idea, stating that “a resilient environment implies the promotion of an optimistic view, which transmits security and confidence, in a bidirectional way” (Porto, 2021, p. 2). In other words, organizational leaders must trust their teams and their abilities to overcome difficulties, as well as each organizational actor must have confidence in the leaders and in the measures, they consider essential to implement. However, it is essential that the information continue to be transmitted in a direct, rigorous and transparent way (Porto, 2021).

Following this line of thought, Spulveda (2020, p. 37) recognizes that “the reinforcement of group initiatives will be imperative, with the HR management having the responsibility to ensure the company’s mission, culture and values”. At the same time, human resource management must motivate its workers through activities that lead teams to return to the organization, or to spaces that are destined for these same group activities.

Porto (2021) also highlights the importance of human resources managers to ensure that organizational actors are aware of how the pandemic is harming the company. Information must be provided regarding the health status of the teams, social isolation measures and how they affect the activity of the organization, actions that the company is implementing for its survival and preservation of jobs, and, finally, inform about the use, or not, of the set of measures to support companies provided by the Government.

Human resources management professionals also have the possibility of “contributing to overcoming the current challenges facing companies, through the monitoring they can provide to their leaders” (Porto, 2021, p. 2). By doing this, they will encourage leaders to promote frequent contact with their teams, providing a period of time, at each meeting, to share emotions, experiences, concerns and challenges that arise (Porto, 2021).

In short, it is important to bear in mind that, without a shadow of a doubt, the end of the pandemic, as well as its very duration, will trigger a very different workforce. Decisions made at this time will have a lasting impact on organizations in a post-Covid-19 world. However, together with top management, those responsible for human resources management will be able to ensure that organizations remain “on top of the situation” (Ata, 2020, p. 3).

Next, the relevance of community pharmacies is analyzed in the context of Covid-19 pandemic, as the object of this study are the professionals in community pharmacies.

2.5 Community Pharmacies Versus Covid-19

Studies demonstrate that the acute and severe respiratory syndrome of coronavirus 2, or SARS-CoV-2 causes Covid-19 (Zachary & Charmane, 2020). As this virus is highly contagious and, in many cases, fatal, it is extremely important to establish preventive measures against the contagion and, at the same time, enable the population to have access to the necessary health care and protection. It is here that pharmacies play a key role, as, from the perspective of Zachary and Charmane (2020, p. 846), they combine four fundamental phases for the management of catastrophic situations: “(1) prevention, (2) preparedness, (3) response, and (4) recovery”. Accordingly, pharmacies end up becoming the first point of contact, which individuals turn to, precisely because “community pharmacies are a mix of primary health-care service” and, at the same time, help and advise patients who present symptoms similar to those of Covid-19 to go to testing centers, for the sake of prevention and screening (Zachary & Charmane, 2020, p. 1847).

Austin and Gregory (2020) conducted a study on the resilience of pharmacists during the pandemic and concluded that these professionals have strong capacity to adapt to the new technology, and that employers themselves were concerned with providing individual protection equipment and support to work teams. In turn, Koster et al. (2020) argue that patient-centered pharmaceutical services, due to the pandemic, were massively impacted, leading technical leaders/directors to opt for the telepharmacy method in a changing world, introducing the home medication delivery system. In addition, Dawoud et al. (2021) state that Covid-19 brought numerous challenges, and, at the same time, allowed pharmacists to contribute so that its impact was not as significant. The same authors add that “the services provided by pharmacists ranged from essential and extended services, services developed to ensure continuity of care,

and supply of essential medicines as well as the responsibilities in emergency care” (Dawoud et al., 2021, p. 1905).

However, despite all the effort and dedication shown by pharmaceutical professionals throughout this pandemic, the truth is that, according to Elbeddini et al. (2020), these professionals were affected by mental health problems, due to the excessive working hours they were and are subject to throughout this pandemic situation. For this reason and in agreement with WHO Europe, Fernandes (2020) argues that pharmacies should choose to put teams to work in shifts, not only to try to reduce the fatigue that professionals feel, but to ensure that the pharmacy continues in operation, even if an employee catches the virus.

Focusing now to the Portuguese case, the *Direção Geral de Saúde* (DGS) [General Directorate of Health] also considered it prudent to adopt measures to guarantee the safety and well-being of pharmaceutical professionals. This is because, in addition to being directly linked to the health area, they are professionals who deal with various people on a daily basis, although in somewhat different scenarios. And, in many cases, they treat the health and well-being of others as a priority.

Fernandes (2020) argues that, by being in constant contact with the population, community pharmacies have a duty to effectively combat misinformation, precisely because the professionals themselves are means of transmitting information. More than that, Fernandes (2020, p. 1) states that community pharmacies are considered by many users as “the first place of support in health care”, assuming, from the outset, a relationship of trust and, therefore, “they should provide regular counseling to the community”, especially regarding issues about isolation, social distancing, as well as concerns to have in a quarantine situation. Zachary and Charmane (2020, p. 1850) argue that “community pharmacists are given a huge responsibility of accurately informing their local community about ways to reduce community spread of the SARS-CoV-2 virus”.

3 Research Method

Empirical research was based on the interpretive paradigm as being the most adequate for the intended purposes, as this study aims to understand certain behaviors, perceptions, points of view of pharmaceutical professionals to better understand the importance of forms and systems of communication and leadership assumed in the definition of strategies developed by these professionals to face Covid-19 pandemic.

The sample consists of pharmacy professionals belonging to four community pharmacies in the district and municipality of Braga (Portugal) with 15 respondents from four pharmacies, as presented in Table 1. This is a convenience sample, in which the highest incidence of participants belongs to pharmacies A and C, with one participant in pharmacies B and D. This sampling model, according to Oliveira (2001), is widely used and considered quite timely when used for the development of ideas in exploratory research (see also, Levy & Lemeshow, 1980; Lwanga & Lemeshow, 1991).

Table 1 The general characterization of the sample

Interviewee	Age	Gender	Academic qualifications	Professional category	Seniority in Pharmacy	Pharmacy coding
1	45	Male	Degree in Pharmaceutical Sciences	Pharmacy Technical Director	21 years	A
2	40	Female	Masters in Pharmaceutical Sciences and Molecular Biology	Pharmacist	3 months	A
3	50	Male	Student of the Degree in Political Science	Pharmacy Technician	33 years	A
4	35	Male	High school	Pharmacy Technician	19 years	A
5	29	Female	Masters in Pharmaceutical Sciences	Pharmacist	7 years	A
7	39	Female	High school	Pharmacy Technical Assistant	17 years	C
8	28	Male	Masters in Pharmaceutical Sciences	Pharmacist	6 years	D
9	42	Male	9th grade	Pharmacy Technician	24 years	A
10	54	Female	Degree in Pharmaceutical Sciences	Pharmacy Technical Director	24 years	C
11	61	Male	High school	Pharmacy Technical Assistant	37 years	C
12	33	Female	Masters in Pharmaceutical Sciences	Pharmacist	6 years	C
13	49	Female	High School	Pharmacy Technical Assistant	28 years	C
14	58	Male	Degree in Pharmaceutical Sciences	Assistant Pharmacist	17 years	C
15	46	Female	Degree in Pharmaceutical Sciences	Assistant Pharmacist	21 years	B

Thus, the present investigation will then be based on a type of exploratory research, since the data to be collected come from the daily experience of a small number of pharmacists, who maintained contact with the public during the confinement period. The data collection method was a semi-structured interview, based on a script, whose questions are related to the literature review carried out. Content analysis will be the method to treat and analyze the data collected through interviews carried out with pharmacist professionals.

The interview script is divided into four parts: (1) biographical and organizational topics; (2) relationship between the pandemic and the personal and professional lives of pharmacists; (3) issues related to trust, communication and leadership; (4) the perspectives of pharmacists regarding users, as well as questions about emotional intelligence, to conclude the interview.

Prior to the beginning of each of the interviews, all interviewees were given a presentation of the study. Participants were also asked to record the interview in audio format, which was consented, after ensuring anonymity in the process. Subsequently, the interviews were transcribed. With regard to the duration of the interviews, the average was approximately 45 min.

4 The impact the Covid-19 Pandemic Had on Pharmaceutical Professionals

4.1 Community Pharmacies and Their Way of Functioning in the Covid-19 Pandemic

To help answering the first research question “How have community pharmacies sought to streamline their way of functioning, since the beginning of the Covid-19 pandemic situation, to better adjust and manage change?”, the following aspects are highlighted from the interviews, focusing on the personal experiences of the interviewees.

Bearing in mind that the Covid-19 pandemic is something totally new to humanity, it is essential, according to Dawoud et al. (2021), to provide pharmacy professionals and healthcare providers with reliable and truthful information and evidence on the level of care for the user, the practices to be implemented in pharmacies and the policy change that occurred, due to the circumstances. Although information was somewhat scarce at an early stage, as reported by Interviewee 8, due to the novelty of this virus, most respondents claimed that the first impact, in terms of adaptation and change management, was somewhat complicated, as they demanded the reorganization of practices, raised many doubts and brought out feelings such as fear and anxiety.

In this line of argument, Interviewee 4 stated:

Like any other organization that has to be open, there was obviously a restructuring of our services and it was very difficult to initially understand how we should act. Obviously we were waiting for some higher guidelines from the National Association of Pharmacies and

INFARMED (Autoridade Nacional do Medicamento e Produtos de Saúde, I.P.) - National Authority of Medicines and Health Products, I.P.), to understand how we should act with the public and even between the team, because we are a team of 7 to 8 elements and how we should manage our work team, because if one is infected, we can infect others. [...]it was a difficult phase because, like everyone else worldwide, we had to reorganize ourselves and [...] the state of pandemic [...] It is a strong situation that we had never been through and so, before a public health service, you have to being open, oh, it was difficult, restructuring was difficult, having to close the door and having to answer through the hatch, splitting the teams into two and taking shifts; to sanitize the material we pick up several times daily, yes, it was a difficult restructuring.

In turn, interviewee 6 emphasized that he was immediately worried:

[...] what was a remote possibility, which was, was out there, was in China, everyone said it was not coming here. Slowly, we began to realize that, after all, it was our problem, too, and, more and more everything was more complicated. It was complicated, because [...] we knew we were not able to respond to people, because there were no masks, no alcohol gel, there was not a series of things. People were not aware of the scale of the problem and that was a little scary.

Interviewee 2, on the other hand, states the first moment was more difficult at the level of customers: “The people at the counter get too close to us and we really could not. It is very difficult to tell the person ‘Stand back, keep the distance’, because the person in the conversation... and wants to show the medications, and wants to show a prescription, and wants to, is it not? And approaches us physically”.

Unlike previous interviewees, Interviewee 8 considered that:

The first impact [...] was that it was something that was very far away, that is, there was no great impact. On a second impact, it was, ah, explosive, so to speak, so suddenly everything changed [...]. The entity of pharmacies seeking medication, for almost a year, afraid that things would run out, then we had people very worried and people not worried at all, oh, it was more difficult in terms of human resources and in terms of work.

Confronting these views, Dawoud et al. (2021) highlight that although Covid-19 gave rise to numerous challenges, it allowed, at the same time, pharmacists to contribute so that its impact was not as significant. That said, interviewee 10 mentioned that, at first, the most important thing was to “continue to serve the user and ensure safety when visiting our facilities and also the safety of [...] all my colleagues, because the customer does not return if feel that it is an unsafe place. Therefore, each procedure that I do, or each of my colleagues does, has to provide [...] security to the user”.

This security also involves pharmacists joining forces in order to remain highly informed and updated (Fernandes, 2020). As mentioned before, and as highlighted by Zachary and Charmane (2020, p. 6), pharmacists have a great responsibility to accurately inform the community about ways to reduce the spread of the virus.

In turn, Austin and Gregory (2020) came to the conclusion that employers were concerned with safeguarding personal protective equipment and providing support to work teams. Esta situação é corroborada pelos entrevistados, em que a entrevistada 13 pôs em evidência que:

... the employer gave us everything that was necessary for [...] employees to protect themselves, from the masks, [...] it was a little difficult to work like this, but we managed. Everything [...] that was available, we had everything... The material we needed to protect ourselves. Without a doubt, it was [...] defined like this: first to protect ourselves and then to be able to deal with the user in the best possible way, yes, yes. Even because we, here, never had any case [...].

Ekman (2011) argues that emotions evolve and, consequently, prepare the human being to face all the challenges that arise. Furthermore, different emotions have their own durations and intensities, depending on the circumstances, the strength of the stimulus and our intervention in the action that gave rise to it. Thus, when asked about how they tried to deal with the obstacles that emerged, the interviewees generally adopted an open and positive mindset. Interviewee 1 reinforced that:

... I try not to take the problems of work home so that they do not reflect on the family. Sometimes it is not easy! But I think I have a little bit of this ability to abstract myself a little when leaving here [...]. [...] On days when I don't work I always try to find something to relieve stress, I like nature a lot and that's it, so to speak, but I really try to deal with the problems of work at work and not take them home.

Moving now to the pharmacy, Interviewee 1 highlighted the weaknesses associated with elderly people, which was considered dramatic and that, to get around this situation, they established the delivery of medication at home, previously suggested by the DGS (2020). The same happened with pharmacy C, as mentioned by its collaborators. Interviewee 5, in turn, testified that it was not always easy to deal with the obstacles that occurred, as follows:

A person always ended up feeling a little low, but I think the important thing was not to focus only on that. When we are working here, I think it is more difficult, a person lives this a lot, it is our day to day [...]. Dealing with this, talking about this with people, trying to see the standards, we were constantly thinking about that. I think at home it was more trying to turn this part off, which was not always easy, is not it?

However, the ability to be resilient and to face things as they are, always bearing in mind the due care, is an effective way to face the setbacks that this pandemic generated, according to interviewee 12.

More than dealing with this situation at a professional level, the pharmacist professionals also had to orient themselves with regard to the personal dimension, namely with their families. To ensure the safety of everyone in the family environment, most respondents reported that disinfection, when entering the house (e.g., removing shoes at the entrance, as well as clothing and performing personal hygiene, before having any type of contact with the family), was of great relevance. This was, above all, how they tried to overcome this condition, on a personal level. However, other perspectives were also denoted. Interviewee 12 stated that:

I went two or three months without going to my parents or without seeing my brothers, my sister, because I simply did not want to. On the other hand, if I saw them, I saw them from a distance. Did not want to contact; or my grandparents, I did not want to infect them with

anything I brought from the pharmacy. However, later, when we started to have acrylics and masks, then I would visit them. We were already approaching, but always protected. I was not with them without a mask, nor did I eat with them.

In turn, Interviewee 14 highlighted that the fear of contaminating the family is a pressure that still exists, despite having been a little worse at an initial stage:

I mean, I was going to get home, [...] be with my family. I mean, that is all right, I mean, I don't know, right? I do not know if everything is fine, because we do not have any symptoms and can be sick [...] and contaminate others. Therefore, even at home, this fear existed [...]. My biggest concern, even more than contaminating myself, is to contaminate others.

In turn, Interviewee 1 mentioned that the impact at the personal level was where there were significant repercussions, because:

I continued to work. Of course, the fact that the children do not go to school... We had to find an option... I have children, a daughter. [...] usually the grandmother takes care of her, but we could not be exposing her [...] as the most vulnerable are the elderly [...] to a risk of contagion. So my wife, on a professional level, had to change and stay at home for a few days, at least until things stabilized.

According to the views and perceptions of the interviewees, it is noteworthy, according to Zachary and Charmane (2020), that community pharmacies and pharmacists, given the situation we are going through, had to adapt to the circumstances, rethinking new ideas, with a view to safeguarding both the community and the profession.

4.2 Community Pharmacies: Communication, Trust and Leadership

Another objective of the present study was to try to understand how communication influences the trust of these professionals, as well as to understand the role of leadership, with regard to the position adopted by pharmacists, regarding the measures taken by technical directors and/or employers. The aim is thus to answer the second question: How can communication be an influencing determinant of trust and how does leadership help this process, in the context of pharmacies?

In the perspective of Reis (2020), it is through communication that managers are able to assume roles of influence in the organization, by establishing contact networks and allowing information, knowledge and ideas to flow naturally. The way of communicating, the consistency and clarity of the content and the adoption of adequate processes and communication systems that favor feedback are of key importance in interpersonal relationships and contribute to better efficiency and effectiveness of organizational processes. The communication systems and processes adopted, developed and implemented by organizations can have an impact on trust, as a very relevant factor for organizational life. Trust indicates the existence of transparency and integrity between managers and workers and, consequently, enhances the proper functioning of the company (Gonzaga & Rodrigues, 2018).

For the interviewees, communication and trust play key roles in any type of profession, as they consider these variables to be the basic pillars of organizations. Interviewee 6 presented his perspective by stating that:

If we have effective communication between us, if we have opinions and if in these meetings there is the opportunity... And if things are decided in a democratic way between us [...] all the problems that arise, resulting from these decisions, which, many times, they may not be the most correct, they are everyone's problem. If not, they are problems of one person or whoever is on the side of that division. Then it's going to polarize things in here, it's going to create groups. [...] And this generates a lot of discomfort and, often, this is difficult to overcome [...].

On the other hand, Interviewee 5 claims that “communication is essential [...] in any entity, in any company, communication is important and must always be as transparent as possible”. Interviewee 4, in turn, highlights the area of human resources management as being increasingly fundamental, that is, in his view, “[...] the way you talk to employees is very important. I think that whoever has the gift to manage human resources in the best way possible does a fundamental job in any area of work, in any company [...]]. It is a very important area to be able to always take things in the best way possible”. In fact, Ata (2020) reinforces this idea, by declaring that human resources professionals have a very important role, as they can enable and should strengthen a balanced and positive work structure.

All respondents gave a completely positive response when asked whether trust allows them to feel more integrated in the workplace and, consequently, to give their best. They consider “trust” a term that is difficult to define, as it can be viewed in multiple ways, depending on the context, which is in line with what is mentioned in the literature (Gonzaga & Rodrigues, 2018). As an example, the following quotes are presented:

Trust has a lot of parameters, you know? [...] I think that trust is built up [...] Trust has a lot to do with [...] the fact that a person believes in what others tell us [...] and also transmitting to them a truth, that is, a person has to be honest... There it is, trust is something that has to be built permanently, I think, because from one moment to the next it can also fall apart [...]. (Interviewee 14);

I think that trust, trust is, above all, being sure of what we do, what we say and what we are [...]. The knowledge we acquire will make us more confident in all aspects. (Interviewee 4)

Moving on to the issue of leadership, Boyatzis (2007) defines it as the ability to motivate and advise others. In this study, leadership rests on the measures taken by technical directors and/or employers and how the pharmacist professionals interpreted them and tried to follow. In general, all respondents were satisfied with the measures implemented and, in a way, felt involved in decision-making. In this line, Goleman (2012) emphasizes that the use of emotional skills is increasingly essential for the performance of teams. This is because most of the work that is carried out in organizations are developed by the teams that work in those organizations, what contributes to develop cooperation, joint learning, the ability to act more efficiently and, above all, harmony between team members. According to Silva et al. (2014,

p. 3), “the more aware the leader is about his own emotions and this represents self-knowledge, the easier it will be for him to identify and understand the feelings of others”. Interviewee 3 highlights teamwork when he mentions:

This is essentially trying to work the same way we worked before the pandemic. Obviously, it was a very complicated situation: working with the door open is not the same as working with the door closed [...] but we did it. Between all of us, we agreed on how to do it, [...] there was a certain turnover of who was going to attend to the hatch, who was doing the sales at the terminal and who was handling the entry of orders and tidying up orders. We alternated people so that everything worked out and it worked.

On the other hand, Interviewee 15 stated that at her pharmacy it was “a little difficult [...]. We have two technical directors, one was on maternity leave, and the other rarely came here and we feel a little abandoned sometimes, yes [...]. It was our own will, our way of being, of always being ready, always having a professional attitude and of helping the client, but we really feel a little abandoned to ourselves. Even with all the setbacks, the team always helped each other”.

Interviewee 12 considers that:

... the measurements were a little bit of us groping and trying to understand how things evolved and she (the director) was trying to follow what the National Association of Pharmacies was telling us to do, and she also took her own measurements that worked well on the protection part, but it was always a discovery. We were trying. If that method failed, we tried to organize it in another way and we kept doing so successively. But it was well organized, I think within what was possible to do.

These excerpts reflect the importance of the leader and his/her way of acting (or not). On the one hand, it reflects the need for those who lead to adjust their leadership style to the real context, which in the circumstances of the pandemic situation changed on the same day. And, on the other hand, the relevance of the teams to equally adjust their behavior and expectations to the leader’s challenges. Goleman (2012) argues that relational leadership carries very positive effects on the team’s emotional environment, as well as on the motivation of its members, especially in times of conflict and/or stress. Regarding the characteristics that the pharmacist professionals mentioned most often, they are: resilience; patient and understanding; enjoy working with the public; optimistic; self-knowledge; emotionally intelligent and knowing how to deal with stress and interpersonal relationships; and, above all, empathetic towards others and their situation.

4.3 Community Pharmacies, Emotional Intelligence and Covid-19 Pandemic

The last question in the analysis of the results concerns Emotional Intelligence, more precisely, the importance that this type of intelligence has in atypical and exceptional situations like the one we are going through. This allows us to answer the third and last question: (3) In what way and which skills of Emotional Intelligence are preponderant, from the point of view of pharmacists, when confronted with an atypical reality, such as the current one?

As mentioned previously, Goleman (2000, p. 54) defined emotional intelligence as the “ability of a person to motivate himself and persist despite frustrations [...] to feel empathy and to have hope”. All interviewees, in general, consider emotional intelligence to be an extremely important competence, which all human beings, on a small or large scale, must possess/develop. Although they always face emotional intelligence as something essential, nowadays, due to all the stress, anxiety and restlessness that the circumstances imply, they denote, much more, the relevance of its development. Emphasizing that emotional intelligence is important even for them to be able to establish a balance between the emotional side and the rational side and keep a healthy mind, namely, in a work context. Thus, some of the points of view of pharmacist professionals will be enunciated, the ones considered most impactful at this level.

Interviewee 4 highlights that emotional intelligence is very important:

It is really important [...] it is the most important part of our being, as a person and as a health professional, that is, I think that anyone who is emotionally balanced can show good things to others. I have always thought that everyone who is emotionally balanced can have interpersonal relationships with others in the best way [...]. When it comes to health and physical care to the public, I think it is crucial for things to run as smoothly as possible and for the user to feel the necessary confidence in health care [...]. The emotional part, the psychic part of employees, I think is little explored in our country. I do not know if this is general, at European level or at world level, but I think almost every company in these big chains should have a psychologist or a mental coach, [...] because I think it is a very important area for companies, because it is increasingly demanding to work, in whatever area and I really think, [...] all companies will be successful if they have more productive people.

In turn, Interviewee 6 states that “emotional intelligence is fundamental for us to be able to [...] resolve all the collateral damage that society ended up suffering, [...] due to this type of misfortune”. He adds that just the fact of exercising this profession already requires the individual to be emotionally intelligent. A cool posture is necessary in many situations, not to mention the courage required, not only to deal with the public, but to take and make decisions and manage the added stress and anxiety. Above all, the essential is to manage the human component and all that it encompasses well. This interviewee also emphasizes that “it is necessary to try to have emotional intelligence, to manage stress and manage interpersonal relationships with colleagues [...]. It is good that in these times of stress there is as much emotional intelligence and respect for colleagues as possible and that, if there is any setback,

take a deep breath, not reacting right away, because it is very difficult to manage this stress”.

These statements by the respondent are in line with Mayer and Salovey (1997), who state that one of the components of emotional intelligence is to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. In addition, many of the professionals interviewed highlight one of the dimensions of emotional intelligence, which Goleman (2012) called social skills, which encompass social awareness and relationship management.

For Interviewee 10, emotional intelligence, more than dealing and managing emotions well, requires knowing how to deal with frustrations. She highlights that:

... I was not always able to deal well with my emotions [...]. It is something that you train, I was already sure, and that is how I think more and more [...] we have to reinforce physical communication. It must be physical communication, verbal communication, because it is not in a message, it is not in an email that you can understand how it is [...] the other side. And the impact, everything you write, your SMS, what impact will it have on the other person? I fundamentally insist on communication [...]. It may not be physical, but there are, for now, other means of communication.

Interviewee 14 argues that:

... when you do not act emotionally, I think everything is wrong. Therefore, I think the important thing is for the person to act humanely. I think that what society lacks is humanism [...]. People have to act in order to realize that others are important, in the humanitarian aspect, yes. Smart, yes [...] Intelligence is not defined [...] and, contrary to what many people think, I think it is not quantified. I think that intelligence is something that has to do with people's experience and, perhaps, over time, people become more intelligent, because they also learn [...]. Being intelligent is being aware of what is around us.

Finally, Interviewee 5 highlights the importance of being emotionally intelligent in order to deal with many situations at once. Interviewee 5 adds that it is essential “not to give too much value to unimportant things and knowing how to deal both with people and with our own emotional part, as we end up managing the emotions of others, our own emotions and this is not always easy”.

According to the analysis of the data obtained supported by the literature review, it can be concluded that emotional intelligence is essential for pharmaceutical professionals to be able to establish and/or maintain balance, at all levels. Emotional intelligence is particularly relevant to help improve not only professional performance, but also the way to be in front of others and in different contexts, particularly in more unstable, ambiguous, uncertain and complex contexts such as the one we are experiencing in this pandemic crisis. Likewise, communication plays an important role in building the trust of these professionals, based on leadership that, in the pharmacy as a whole, puts workers and their well-being first.

5 Conclusion

The objective of the study that led to the preparation of this chapter was not just to obtain results, but to understand the “how”, the “why” of decisions and the evolution of management in a new situation worldwide—Covid-19 pandemic. Therefore, this chapter focused on the impact the Covid-19 pandemic had on pharmaceutical professionals in the context of community pharmacies. Through the perceptions and the words of the interviewees, this study aimed at understanding the importance of the forms and systems of communication and leadership assumed in the definition of strategies developed by these professionals to face this reality. Pharmacists were the target population of this study, since they have been in contact with the population in general since the beginning of the Covid-19 pandemic. This reality forced them to face different situations that triggered different behavioral reactions—rational and emotional—self-experiencing diverse physical, psychological and mental states.

It sought to understand the mechanisms and processes of change management and the implication of emotional intelligence in health professionals who, since the beginning of the Covid-19 pandemic, have always been active and dealing with an audience that was equally scared, insecure, anxious and, above all, nervous. The data resulting from the interviews carried out reveal, on the part of pharmaceutical professionals, an adaptive diagnostic capacity, given the evolution of the pandemic situation, in a context of advances and setbacks and of uncertainties and insecurities. Emotional strength, teamwork, the ability to plan, organize human resources, monitor and assess the situation, in its different interfaces, were extremely crucial.

We sought to understand the role of communication and trust, together with leadership, as fundamental pillars to keep organizations, in this case community pharmacies, functioning internally and in contact with the outside world. Participants in the study revealed, in a very consistent way, the importance of communication systems, the ability to manage and adapt mechanisms, as well as communication forms and contents, which allow to increase the levels of trust and security.

The most difficult thing to achieve was the concept of trust in theoretical terms, although the data from the interviews point to a “belief” between individuals and work teams, in a sharing of visions and values, almost in complicity and solidarity, either at the individual or at the group level. The leadership exercised by the technical directors and employers was a decisive help in managing the entire process, as a way to systematize and cement many of the initiatives and steps that were gradually implemented.

Emotional intelligence skills were and are preponderant, from the point of view of the pharmaceutical professionals participating in this study, when confronted with this atypical reality. Respondents emphasized the ability to integrate and manage emotions, deal with uncertainty and frustration, maintain performance levels and work under permanent stress, without giving up providing an essential public service and, even in situations of tension, insecurity, maintaining emotional control and resilience to come back the next day. Also because in their normal day-to-day life,

community pharmacies are the ones who help with essential tasks and are at the forefront in solving many health problems, for those who do not have many possibilities and resources. And this situation of the Covid-19 pandemic also showed the existing social inequalities and their consequences.

Finally and despite being an exploratory study, with a small sample and general conclusions, this study can serve as a basis and incentive for future investigations, related to the context of the Covid-19 pandemic, or to establish comparisons with other contexts also of uncertainty and fear in society, as well as comparing with other professionals who play a key role in society in such situations.

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The Impact of Covid-19 on the Onboarding of SIE: The Human Resources Professional and the New Employee Vision



Alice Gomes Coelho and Carolina Machado

Abstract Two years ago, we were far from imagining a scenario where the need to welcome and integrate a foreign professional from a distance was foreseen. The Covid-19 pandemic supported the emergence of the use of online mechanisms to answer to the profound changes that have been experienced in the world of work. Since the onboarding is a preponderant moment for the retention and adaptation of foreign professional to the new company, the main objective of this chapter is to understand the impact of Covid-19 pandemic on the onboarding of foreign professionals. In view of the above, a quantitative study was carried out and a questionnaire administered to human resources professionals and foreign professionals to make known two versions of the same story and to understand if they are colluding. The main results of the present study are the changes to work regime and consequent ways of onboard foreign employees, favoring the use of online tools. These changes have consequences in terms of socialization, acculturation and organizational adjustment of the Self-Initiated Expatriate (SIE). One of the main conclusions of this study is that online means allow the realization of the onboarding process but that this new way is deficit in relation to face-to-face and can compromise the retention of the SIE. Furthermore, in companies where employees don't know each other and there is greater impersonality, the onboarding process is more complex. Such facts have consequences, both for the foreign professional and for the company that welcomes him.

Keywords Self-initiated expatriates · Onboarding · Covid-19 pandemic · Human resources

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1 Introduction

The number of self-initiated expatriates (SIE) has been growing worldwide in recent years. In Portugal, phenomena derived from globalization, and agreements between Portugal and other countries such as Brazil and Venezuela allowed this to happen. The controversy based on the reality of working in another country has brought about changes, both for individuals and for companies.

The way in which companies embrace internationalization, observe the dynamics associated with the phenomenon of voluntary expatriation and the vision of the SIE in what concerns his integration in companies are the object of this study, which aims to broaden the reader's view of this phenomenon, considering the current situation (Covid-19 pandemic).

Having said that, at first, starting from the literature review, a brief theoretical framework on the subject of voluntary expatriation is unveiled.

In the "methodology" section, the methodological options are glimpsed. It should be noted that surveys were conducted through a questionnaire with the aim of exploring the theme of voluntary expatriation, under the lens of the human resources manager, and the SIE professional.

In the fourth section, the analysis of the obtained results is carried out, in which an in-depth quantitative description of the obtained data is proposed. Afterwards, a discussion of the results is carried out and the hypotheses posed are validated.

Finally, after analyzing and processing the data, the main conclusions of this investigation are drawn, as well as some limitations and future recommendations are denoted.

2 Theoretical Framework

2.1 *Self-Initiated Expatriation (SIE)*

The concept of SIE is far from unanimous. It is assumed, in fact, as a multidimensional and multifaceted concept, in the light of research in international human resources management.

First, the distinction between the concepts of expatriation, migration and SIE is relevant. Andresen et al. (2013) explain SIE as a phenomenon related to the career of individuals who seek relocation and work abroad, on their own initiative. This concept differs from that of migration, which is defined by anyone who leaves their usual place of residence, whether within a country or across an international border, temporarily, or permanently and for various reasons (IOM, 2019). On the one hand, qualified immigrants and SIE have in common the fact that they decide to work abroad on their own initiative, and for a long or temporary period (Inkson et al., 1997). On the other hand, they are mainly distinguished by their motivational character, given

that whether the migrant's motivation is professional or not, the initiative is taken to leave their place of residence.

Inkson et al. (1997) determine that the "traditional expatriate" (TE) process is initiated and financed by the company that expects the achievement of business goals, and for a limited period. In this sense, the main distinction between the TE and the SIE is the initiative for change, which comes from the SIE and not from the employer (Richardson & Mallon, 2005). Furthermore, the temporal sense is different, as the SIE may not have a deadline to return to its country. Thus, SIE differs from other forms of international mobility, in terms of initiative, financial nature, motivation of the individual and the period of stay in the country.

That said, the SIE process is characterized by self-direction, and by making individuals responsible for their actions and results. The fact that the employee seeks another country without organizational support reveals a strong motivation on the part of the employee (Dickmann et al., 2008). This type of collaborator was called a self-initiated expatriate.

SIEs are strategic and valuable resources for the corporatism of international companies (Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010) as the need for workers in many countries continues to increase and the number of SIEs has increased considerably in recent years (Maïke et al., 2020). Hiring a SIE can be economically advantageous for the company because its hiring involves reduced costs, as the expatriation is voluntary and self-financed, and the SIE may demand less compensation due to the economic conditions of its country. Furthermore, it can be a way for companies to increase the number of female expatriate workers (Andresen et al., 2015). Thus, understanding how to attract, manage and retain these workers is critical to HRM.

3 SIE Onboarding

If, on the one hand, welcoming foreign professionals presents benefits for the company, on the other hand, it is a great challenge. Al Ariss (n.d.) states that SIEs face a series of barriers and obstacles that limit their opportunities for integration in the organizations and societies where they are hosted. For example, the immigration policies of the states, especially with regard to visas and work permits, the recognition, or not, of qualifications and professional experience, language barriers, xenophobia and discrimination. In this sense, before accepting internationalization, the company must take these assumptions into account, and guide organizational practices so that professionals feel welcomed, integrated and adjusted to the organization.

That said, the organizational adjustment of the SIE, which occurs when there is an adaptation of the individual to the organization, is essential. Caligiuri (2000), states that this adjustment can occur at the level of psychological and sociocultural adaptation. In this sense, the psychological or affective adjustment has to do with the way the employee is dealing with work and the environment, with well-being, mood, psychological comfort, but also if the employee feels depressed, fatigued or tired. Ward and Kennedy (1999) refer to sociocultural (behavioral) adjustment as the

employee's ability to adjust to the environment and culture, in their daily lives. In this sense, the present study aims to understand whether or not there is an organizational adjustment of the SIEs, considering the way in which they were welcomed and integrated. The perception of adjustment depends on the individual, for the individual and it is therefore essential, at an early stage, to understand their motivations for working abroad. Shaffer et al. (2006) underpin the adjustment process, along with three basic human needs: (1) the need for predictability and order (finding a general meaning), (2) the need to be accepted and appreciated (following interactions) and (3) the need for status and power (achieving job goals).

In the current context, where a set of measures to combat the Covid-19 pandemic were enacted, there are more barriers to individual onboarding. That said, the following research hypotheses are put forward,

H1 There is a greater degree of impersonality in the onboarding processes, resulting from the measures adopted to combat the Covid-19 Pandemic and this has a negative impact on the employee.

H2 The measures adopted during the Covid-19 pandemic directly impacted the organizational socialization process of the foreign employee.

H3 Organizational adjustment is a complex process, which due to the current situation sees its role difficult. And because of that, it is more difficult for a SIE to integrate and socialize.

Another issue to bear in mind is the motivation of SIEs to look for work abroad. Howe-Walsh and Schyns (2010) report that the motivations that lead a SIE to decide to live and work abroad can vary considerably. While some expatriates go abroad to start a new job and perhaps improve their career, others may have been recruited by expatriate organizations, which cannot find a specific skill locally. Considering the multidimensionality of reasons for expatriation, one of the HRM challenges will be to understand the motivations of SIEs, to guide effective onboarding practices. Furthermore, Dickmann et al. (2008) denote a relationship between the factors that influence the decision of SIE, and the motivational impulse, which will influence the expectations that the professional has about success. Thus, depending on the reason for expatriation, expectations change from individual to individual. That said, it can be concluded that this singular vision that the individual has about success is related to the adaptation that he/she will have in the organization.

Doherty et al. (2011), report that one of the main reasons for SIEs to go abroad is to be successful in their careers. In this sense, Andresen et al. (2015) state that the challenge of managing SIEs with great personal initiative will be retention. After all, these workers are not limited by national borders and tend to continually look for new opportunities. Al Ariss (n.d.) states that one of the answers involves considering the specific needs of SIEs. It is necessary that there is a special attention for this type of collaborators. In this sense, Mendenhall et al. (2002) suggest the appointment of a mentor for expatriates. This mentor may be someone who has worked in the host country and is familiar with expatriate work, which can reduce uncertainty, provide

useful information and introduce expatriates to host country colleagues. On the one hand, the mentor keeps the expatriate informed about changes related to the family and is the contact person on issues related to the parent company. On the other hand, the fact that the mentor already knows the organization means that the expatriate's needs are considered in the different decisions (Black et al., 1999). The mentor will help integrate the SIE, help make their expectations come true and their uncertainties lessened.

H4 Foreign employees are more satisfied in companies where a tutor is identified for their reception and integration.

Given the above, there must be some work by the parent company in order to retain these employees, who have special characteristics. Furthermore, it is essential to know their motivations, which lead an SIE to decide to move to another country.

Thus, the study of the onboarding of SIEs in organizations is also an essential practice to retain this type of collaborator.

4 Methodology

Finished the theoretical review regarding SIE, the methodological options involved in the study are presented. In this research, of an exploratory nature, it is intended to address the study questions, the data collection tool, as well as characterize the target audience.

4.1 Study Questions

Based on a critical look at the available literature on SIE, this study seeks, following a qualitative approach, to focus on the onboarding of SIE professionals. Its objective is to gather opinions from SIEs and human resources managers about their process of reception, integration and socialization in companies.

In this sense, the key questions that provided the study were:

1. Did the Covid-19 pandemic change the way of onboarding a foreign employee? If so, what impact does it have on the employee?
2. What is the impact of the work regime (home-office and mixed) on the reception, integration and socialization of foreign employees?
3. What is the impact of a greater degree of impersonality in the onboarding process of the foreign employee?
4. What are the main changes adopted by managers in the way of receiving and integrating foreign employees?

That said, throughout this study it is intended to answer the above-mentioned questions, comparing some of the answers given in the two surveys implemented.

4.2 Data Collection Tool

The selected data collection tool was the questionnaire survey. The questionnaire survey consists of asking a group of respondents a series of questions about the issues that are intended to be researched. Furthermore, with the application of the questionnaire survey, there is “the possibility of quantifying a multiplicity of data and carrying out correlation analyses” (Quivy & Campenhoundt, 1998, pp. 188–189).

In order to carry out the study, two surveys were elaborated using a questionnaire: survey A, which was applied to human resources managers, and survey B, which was administered to SIEs.

The planning of the surveys was carried out during the month of November 2020 and subsequently displayed online, on the Google Forms platform, on the first day of December. The platforms used to process the data obtained were Ms Excel and SPSS Statistics v.27.

4.3 Characterization of the Population and Selected Sample

The criteria used to select the target population in survey A were: having the profession of human resources manager, working in an international environment and carrying out processes of onboarding of foreign professionals. Considering survey B, all SIE professionals employed, preferably for less than one year, in Portugal (date of the start of the Covid-19 pandemic) matched the research criteria.

Overall, the questionnaire surveys were answered by 122 participants, of which 101 responses were considered valid, and 21 were null for being incomplete or not corresponding to the target population.

Of the 101 valid responses, 69 are from human resources professionals, and 32 are from SIE professionals.

4.4 Structure of the Questionnaire Survey

The structure and division of the survey will guide the presentation and discussion of the obtained results. In this sense, inquiry A was divided into five parts. At first, it is intended to characterize the participants and their work company, considering its size. Next, the objective is to understand the reasons for hiring foreign professionals. In a third phase, questions are asked about the work regime, the process of onboarding of foreign professionals and finally on the impacts of Covid-19 on the processes of reception, integration and socialization of the employee.

Survey B follows a similar structure. Thus, at first, it is intended to characterize the respondent, as well as the size of their work company. In a second moment, it seeks to understand the reasons that refer the SIE to Portugal. In a third part, reveal the

SIE's opinion on its adaptation, considering the impacts of the Covid-19 pandemic, in the reception, integration and socialization processes.

Following, the obtained results are presented and discussed.

5 Results Analysis

5.1 Survey A—Administered to Human Resources Professionals

Survey A was given to human resources professionals. At first, we intend to characterize the collected sample (Table 1).

5.1.1 Sample Characterization

As for the sample characterization, 53.6% of the participants correspond to the female gender, while 46.4% belong to the male gender. The age of respondents is more concentrated in the range between 21 and 35 years old with 52.2%, and between 36 and 45 years old with 39.1% of the answers. 97.1% of them are employed, with the remaining 2.8% shared equally between self-employed and independent worker.

Regarding the size of the work company 58% of respondents work in a large company, and 26.1% in a medium company. 2.9% of the respondents do not know, or prefer not to answer.

Table 1 Sample characterization (Survey A)

Indicator	Answer possibilities	Percentage
Gender	Male	32 (46.4%)
	Female	37 (53.6%)
Age	21–35 years	36 (52.2%)
	36–45 years	27 (39.1%)
	46–59 years	5 (7.2%)
	+60 years	1 (1.4%)
Situation with regard to work	Employee	67 (97.1%)
	Self-employed	1 (1.4%)
	Independent worker	1 (1.4%)
	Other. Which?	–
Organization dimension	Micro enterprise	2 (2.9%)
	Small enterprise	7 (10.1%)
	Medium enterprise	18 (26.1%)
	Big enterprise	40 (58%)
	I don't know/I'd rather not answer	2 (2.9%)

5.1.2 Hiring Foreign Professionals

First, it was intended to understand the reasons that lead companies to embrace internationalization, and which are the preferred countries for hiring foreign professionals.

1. Complete question: “Does your company employ foreign professionals mostly from which country, or group of countries?”
2. Moldova, Ukraine, Kosovo, etc.
3. Austria, Belgium, Luxembourg, etc.

In what concerns the question “your company employ foreign professionals mostly from which country, or group of countries?”, we can observe that most participants indicate Brazil as the preferred country, which is in line with the fact that the Brazilian population occupy the first place in the ranking of immigrants in Portugal (GEE, 2018). After Brazil, both Cape Verde and Venezuela are preferred contracting countries and correspond to the option “Other. Which?” shown in the table.

Table 2 seeks to relate the questions “Your company employ foreign professionals mostly from which country, or group of countries” and “What is the main reason that allows your company to integrate foreign professionals”, in order to understand if depending on the country of origin of the foreign professional there is an underlying reason for hiring. Following the obtained results, it appears that the country of origin

Table 2 Reasons to embrace internationalization vs the employees’ origin

		What is the main reason that allows your company to integrate foreign professionals?					Total
		Cultural enrichment	The company is not Portuguese	Cheap work force	Labor shortage in Portugal	Know-how	
Origin of employees (1)	Brasil	8	0	0	25	8	41
	Eastern European countries (2)	1	0	0	2	0	3
	Western European countries (3)	0	3	0	1	3	7
	Other. Which?	8	1	1	7	0	17
Total		17	4	1	35	11	68

(1) Complete question: “Does your company employ foreign professionals mostly from which country, or group of countries?”

(2) Moldova, Ukraine, Kosovo, etc.

(3) Austria, Belgium, Luxembourg, etc.

is related to the reason for hiring. Companies that hire foreign professionals from Brazil, Cape Verde and Venezuela selected the shortage of labor in Portugal as the primary reason for hiring and cultural enrichment as the secondary reason. Brazil also stands out for the reason for hiring Know-How. The demand for employees from Western European countries such as Austria, Belgium Luxemburg is related to linguistic and know-how issues, as labor is more expensive than in other countries (Eurostat, 2020).

5.1.3 Work Regime

The measures adopted as a result of the Covid-19 pandemic led to changes in the work regime, and in Portugal, teleworking is now mandatory, with exceptions provided for in Decree-Law no. 94-A/2020 (DRE, 2020).

Table 3 shows the changes in the work regime resulting from the Covid-19 pandemic. Before the start of the Covid-19 pandemic, 79.7% of the companies operated exclusively in-person, at the same time that only 1.4% used teleworking. Due to the restrictions imposed by the Covid-19 pandemic, in-person work has seen a clear reduction, to 13%, having a notable increase in the adoption of the mixed regime, which increased to 53.3% and telework (33.3%).

During the Covid-19 pandemic, there was an increase in the number of companies that adopted remote onboarding procedures for new SIE professionals. Before the Covid-19 pandemic, 92.8% of companies adopted only in-person reception practices while during Covid-19 only 49.3% from these companies selected in-person reception as preferential. The decrease observed in the adoption of in-person onboarding practices led to the adoption of remote ones, even going beyond the in-person onboarding (50.7%) (Table 4).

When asked whether “the work regime changed from in-person to telework” during the Covid-19 pandemic, 75% answered in the affirmative.

Considering the relationship between the questions “The work regime changed from in-person to telework during the Covid-19 Pandemic” and “Considers that this change has an impact on the new employee”, it is possible to observe that 29.4%

Table 3 Work regime before and during Covid-19 pandemic

Work regime	Before Covid-19 Pandemic		During Covid-19 Pandemic	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
In-person	55	79.7	9	13
Mixed	13	18.8	37	53.6
Teleworking/home-office	1	1.4	23	33.3
Currently, the reception of new foreign professionals is carried out:				
In-person	61	92.8	34	49.3
Remotely	5	7.2	35	50.7

Table 4 Change in the work regime versus impact on the employee

		Considers that this change has an impact on the new employee?				Total (%)
		No impact on the employee	Positive impact on the employee (%)	Negative impact on the employee (%)	Positive and negative impacts (%)	
In-person to telework (1)	Yes	15.7	25.5	33.3	25.5	75
	No	70.6	29.4	0	0	25
Total		29.4	26.5	25	19.1	100

(1) Complete question: “The work regime changed from in-person to telework during the Covid-19 Pandemic?”

believe that the change from in-person to teleworking has no impact on the employee. The remaining 70.1% are of the opinion that this change had an impact on workers, either positive (26.5%) or negative (25%). From 19.1% of the respondents, this change has both positive and negative impacts.

It should be noted that from the participants who selected that the work regime has not changed in their company (25%), a great majority (70.6%) consider that a change from the in-person regime to telework has no impact on the new employee. On the other hand, from those who answered that their work regime changed from in-person to telework (75%), mostly believe that these changes have a negative impact on the employee (33.3%). It follows that, once the respondent has not experienced changes in the work regime influences the way he answers the question about how the change of work regime affects the new employee.

5.1.4 The Onboarding of Professionals During the Covid-19 pandemic

The onboarding of foreign professionals is a complex process that has consequences for both the company and the foreign employee (SIE). At this point, it is intended to understand the way in which the onboarding is carried out in companies and the way in which the current pandemic situation impacts the management of these processes.

1. Complete question: “Due to the Covid-19 Pandemic, your company adopted changes in the onboarding of new employees?”

Table 5 appears in order to understand if the “size of the company where the SIE works” is related to the implementation of “changes in the onboarding of new employees”. In view of the above, it should be noted that, according to our respondents, 64.7% of the companies adopted new ways of onboarding new employees.

There is a tendency for large companies to implement changes related to the onboarding of employees during the Covid-19 pandemic, with 65.9% having implemented changes. Medium-sized companies (26.1%), in proportion, were those that

Table 5 Company size versus changes in the onboarding

		What is the size of the company you work for?					Total (%)
		Micro (%)	Small (%)	Medium (%)	Large (%)	Don't answer (%)	
Changes in the onboarding (1)	Yes	2.3	9.1	18.2	65.9	4.5	64.7
	No	4.2	12.5	37.5	45.8	0	35.3
Total		2.9	10.1	26.1	58	2.9	100

(1) Complete question: "Due to the Covid-19 Pandemic, your company adopted changes in the onboarding of new employees?"

Table 6 Lack of knowledge of colleagues affects integration

		The lack of knowledge of colleagues affects integration		Total
		Yes	No	
This situation occurs in your company?	Yes	19 (95%)	1 (5%)	20 (29.4%)
	No	31 (64.6%)	17 (35.4%)	48 (70.6%)
Total		50 (73.5%)	18 (26.5%)	68 (100%)

implemented fewer changes in the onboarding, given that 37.5% did not implement changes in the way of welcoming new employees.

When asked about the changes adopted, the most frequent answers were "remote onboarding", "digital training", "adaptation of physical space", "team building online" and "online meetings", being highlighted that sometimes onboarding takes longer time, due to a total re-adaptation of contents and the fact that the entire process is now carried out online, avoiding physical contact. Having said that, it should be noted that there is an increase in online media for hosting and integrating processes. This new way of being, distanced, can generate a greater degree of impersonality in the way of onboarding new professionals (Table 6).

When asked about the possibility that an SIE does not personally know their colleagues may affect its integration, 73.5% of the respondents answered in the affirmative, against 26.5% who give a negative answer. Furthermore, 29.4% reveal that this situation is verified in their company while 70.6% reveal that it is not. It should be noted that 50% of the respondents in which this situation occurs in their company (the employees do not know their co-workers), believe that the change from in-person to telework has negative impacts for the new employee. Finally, 95% (19) of those who answered "yes, that this situation occurs in their company", believe that the fact that employees do not know their co-workers personally can affect their integration in the company. Only 5% (1 person) believe that it is not.

Finally, it was intended to understand the HR professional's vision about "what is the impact of a greater degree of impersonality in the onboarding process". Regarding this question, most respondents mention "a lack/absence of a sense of belonging",

Table 7 Sample characterization (Survey B)

Indicator	Answer possibilities	Percentage
Gender	Male	20 (62,5%)
	Female	12 (37,5%)
Age	21–35 years	9 (28,1%)
	36–45 years	17 (28,1%)
	46–59 years	6 (18,8%)
	+60 years	–
Situation with regard to work	Employee	24 (75%)
	Self-employed	5 (15.6%)
	Independent worker	1 (3.1%)
	Other. Which?	2 (6.3%)
Organization dimension	Micro enterprise	1 (3.1%)
	Small enterprise	7 (21.9%)
	Medium enterprise	9 (28.1%)
	Big enterprise	12 (37.5%)
	I don't know/I'd rather not answer	3 (9.4%)

as well as “greater difficulty in onboarding and acculturating”. It is mentioned that “remote onboarding brings more impersonality than in-person processes”, at the same time they observe a “greater difficulty in adapting to the language by the foreign employee”, “little integration and proximity to the company” and even a “less connection with team peers”. It is also exposed that professionals tend to “take longer to complete tasks”, evidencing “low engagement and motivation”.

5.2 Survey B—Conducted to Foreign Professionals (SIEs)

Survey B was administered to SIEs professionals. This way, the present section begins with the characterization of the collected sample (Table 7).

5.2.1 Sample Characterization

Based on the characterization of the target audience of survey B, it should be noted that the majority of the respondents is male (62.5%).

The age of respondents is more concentrated in the range of 36 and 45 years with a percentage of 53.1, followed by 28.1% of respondents between 21 and 35 years.

In what concerns the situation regarding work, 75% are employees (the vast majority of respondents), being 15.6% self-employed. It should be noted that some of the responding SIEs are also employers.

Considering the size of the company, large and medium-sized companies were the ones that garnered the most responses, respectively 37.5% and 28.1%.

As for the nationality of the respondents, it should be noted that 96.9% of the respondents are of Brazilian nationality, and 3.1% of Spanish nationality, which coincides with the fact that companies recruit more employees of Brazilian nationality.

It is also interesting to highlight that 84.4% of respondents have resided in Portugal for more than a year, while 15.6% have resided in Portugal for less than a year, having arrived in Portugal during the Covid-19 pandemic.

According to the survey, the reason that motivates the coming of SIEs to Portugal is mostly professional reasons (46.9%). It should be noted that 31.3% selected the security option, 12.5% for family reasons and 9.4% for other reasons, such as studying, or low cost of living.

5.2.2 SIE Onboarding

Regarding the onboarding, the intention was to address issues regarding the work regime, the way the onboarding was carried out, but also whether or not a person responsible for the onboarding of the SIE was identified and the degree of satisfaction of the employee given its onboarding process.

Concerning the question “what is your current work regime”, 75% of the participants indicate a telework regime (home-office) while 25% refer that they work in-person, which coincides with the fact that most companies have changed their regime during the Covid-19 pandemic (Inquiry A).

Table 8, the onboarding process varies between in-person (65.6%), online (18.8%) and a mixed regime (15.6%), which at first impact seems to contradict the answers obtained in Survey A. However, when related to the questions “How long have you lived in Portugal” and “Has your onboarding process at the company been carried out...”, it should be noted that 60% of respondents who arrived in Portugal after (during) the Covid-19 pandemic were welcomed in mixed regime, or online, which corroborates what is said by the heads of companies.

In what concerns the question “Do you consider that onboarding affects your level of satisfaction”, it should be noted that the majority, 84.4% refer that it does, while 15.6% gave a negative answer. Thus, the importance of studying the onboarding of foreign professionals is noteworthy, as it directly affects their level of satisfaction with the company.

Table 8 SIEs onboarding

	Your onboarding process at the company was ...	
	N	%
In-person	21	65.6
Online	6	18.8
Mixed (online and In-person)	5	15.6
Total	32	100

Table 9 Employee satisfaction with the onboarding process

Select the option that most resembles your reality...	Percentage
I'm more satisfied at work because my onboarding process was positive	25
I'm not satisfied at work because my onboarding process was poorly conducted	15.6
I'm satisfied at work, however my onboarding process in the company was poorly conducted	12.5
I am dissatisfied at work however my onboarding process was well conducted	21.9
None of the situations are verified	25
Total	100

The question “Select the option that most resembles your reality” (Table 9) seeks to understand whether the respondents are more or less satisfied at work due to the way their onboarding process was conducted. It should be noted that 25% respondents assumed that none of the given options was true, 25% say they are more satisfied at work because their onboarding was positive, 21.9% say they are dissatisfied at work, despite their onboarding process is well conducted, 15.6% indicates that they are not satisfied at work because their onboarding process was poorly conducted and 12.5% reveals that they are satisfied at work, however their onboarding was poorly conducted.

In what concerns the question “a tutor/person responsible for the company’s onboarding process was identified”, 62.5% gave an affirmative answer, highlighting that this tutor is a colleague of its team. The human resource manager as an onboarding tutor was pointed out by 6.3% respondents. It is also relevant to refer that for the remaining 31.3% respondents, nobody in the organization assumes the tutor role in onboarding.

When related to the questions “Was a tutor/responsible for onboarding identified” and “Select the option that most resembles your reality” (Table 10), it should be noted that the level of satisfaction tends to be higher when a tutor is identified for the onboarding process. On the other hand, when a person responsible for onboarding was not identified, the participants reveal that none of the situations is verified in terms of job satisfaction. It should be noted that only one participant indicates that he is satisfied with the work despite the fact that the onboarding process is poorly conducted.

5.2.3 Covid-19’s Impact on SIEs Onboarding

It is still not possible to understand the real impacts of the Covid-19 pandemic on the onboarding of foreign professionals. From the perspective of respondents, it is intended to identify some generic traits about the impacts of the situation currently experienced, in the onboarding of SIEs in companies.

In what concerns this issue, we started by asking “Do you consider that the situation currently experienced (Covid-19 pandemic) has somehow affected your

Table 10 Onboarding process with a tutor/supervisor

	Select the option that most resembles your reality					Total
	Satisfied/Positive onboarding	Dissatisfied/onboarding poorly conducted	Satisfied/onboarding poorly conducted	Dissatisfied /onboarding poorly conducted	None of the situations are verified	
Onboarding with a tutor/supervisor	Yes/HRM	0	0	1	0	2
	Yes/colleague	4	3	4	2	20
	No/Nobody	1	1	2	6	10
Total	8	5	4	7	8	32

Table 11 Covid-19 pandemic affect onboarding

		Pandemic affected onboarding		Total
		Yes	No	
Meet your co-workers personally	Yes	5	15	20
	Some/few	3	1	4
	No	7	1	8
Total		15	17	32

onboarding in the company”. Result of this question, 46.9% respondents answered “yes”, while 53.1% expressed a negative position.

Participants who considered that the current situation affected their integration in the company were asked “How the Covid-19 Pandemic affected their integration”. It should be noted that due to this situation, 3 of the participants stated that they were “fired”, 4 that they present “greater difficulty in establishing contacts, greater difficulty in adapting and personal development”. The same number states that “it has not yet been possible to meet other colleagues”. Some participants note a “reduction in work and greater difficulty in integrating” effectively within the organization.

When asked whether they personally know their co-workers, with whom they work daily, 62.5% say they do, 12.5% know only few and 25% do not know their co-workers (Table 11).

As can be seen in Table 11, employees who don’t know their co-workers (7) tend to consider that Covid-19 pandemic somehow affected their onboarding in the company. Thus, foreign workers who know their co-workers feel more integrated into the company (15), on the other hand, employees who do not know their co-workers, or know few colleagues, considered that the current situation affected their integration into the company.

Considering the question “Do you feel that having arrived in this context (Covid-19) affected your onboarding process at the company” (Table 12), 15.6% answered “yes”, which corresponds to all respondents who arrived in Portugal during the Covid-19 pandemic. The remaining 84.4% said “no”, correspond to those that arrived in Portugal before the Covid-19 pandemic started.

Table 12 SIEs onboarding process

	Pandemic affected the onboarding process at the company	
	N	%
Yes	5	15.6
No	27	84.4
Total	32	100

Table 13 SIEs onboarding process (with colleagues)

	Pandemic affected the onboarding process (with colleagues)	
	N	%
Yes, interfere	22	68.8
No, don't have impact	10	31.3
Total	32	100

5.2.4 Covid-19’s Impact on the SIEs Organizational Adjustment

Organizational socialization is an important way to the employee’s adaptation to the work environment.

When asked if they consider whether the “Situation currently experienced (Covid 19 pandemic) somehow affects their onboarding process”, 68.8% of the participants answered affirmatively (Table 13).

After analyzing and processing the data, it was inferred that depending on the participant’s “work situation”, there is a tendency for them to position themselves toward “the impact of Covid-19 on their onboarding process”. Both employees and independent workers tend to position themselves as “yes, it interferes”, while self-employed workers tend to consider that the Covid-19 pandemic does not interfere in the onboarding process.

Those who answered “yes”, that the Covid-19 pandemic affects their onboarding process, were asked “in what way”. The most frequent answers are related to “difficulty in linguistic understanding during online processes”, for example meetings, “no socializing”, “not knowing their colleagues”, “difficulties in communication and difficulty in create bonds at work, as conversations end up being shorter and more objective”. Thus, it is imperative that measures can be taken to minimize the distance created between co-workers.

6 Discussion of the Results Obtained

Considering the literature review carried out, Al Ariss (n/d) indicates that SIEs face barriers and obstacles when integrating a new country and employment, such as adapting to a new language and acculturation. Shaffer et al. (2006) refer that for the SIE to feel effectively integrated and adjusted to the new social and organizational reality, it is necessary for him to feel accepted and appreciated. Social interaction is a preponderant factor in the onboarding of SIEs and the measures adopted to combat the Covid-19 pandemic limited social contact. There is a greater impersonality in these processes, which from the perspective of HR professionals (Inquiry A) has a negative impact on the SIE, in terms of integration, acculturation, engagement, etc. In Table 11, it can be seen that employees who do not know their co-workers

tend to consider that the Covid-19 pandemic somehow affected their integration into the company, which corroborates H1 from the perspective of HR professionals and SIEs **“there is a greater degree of impersonality in the processes of reception and integration, derived from the measures adopted to combat the Covid-19 Pandemic and this has a negative impact on the employee”**.

As we have seen in the literature review, Caligiuri (2000) defines organizational adjustment as the employee’s adaptation to the organization that can occur at the level of psychological and sociocultural adaptation. Ward and Kennedy (1999) refer to sociocultural (behavioral) adjustment as the employee’s ability to adjust to the environment and culture, in their daily lives. In survey A, the majority of HR Managers (72.5%) considered that the fact that the employee does not know their colleagues affects their reception and integration process. In survey B, Table 12, it should be noted that all respondents who arrived in Portugal during the Covid-19 pandemic felt that this contextualization affected their onboarding into the company. Respondents revealed greater difficulty in adapting and organizational integration and in establishing contacts, and in some cases “it was not possible to meet other colleagues”. In view of the above, H3 is confirmed, **“organizational adjustment is a complex process, which, due to the current situation, sees its role difficult. And because of that, it is more difficult for a SIE to integrate and socialize”** from the perspective of the HR professionals and the SIEs surveyed.

Organizational socialization is the “process through which individuals acquire the knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviors” necessary for their adaptation at work (Wanberg, 2012, p. 17). Measures imposed to combat the Covid-19 pandemic, such as social distancing and distance work, promoted that some of the new foreign employees did not know their co-workers. It should be noted that 95% of HR managers in companies where employees do not know their colleagues personally consider that this factor affects the integration of the SIE (Table 6). Furthermore, when asked “whether they consider whether the situation currently experienced (Co-vid-19 Pandemic) somehow affects their socialization process”, 68.8% of the participants answered “yes, it interferes”, and 31.3% replied that “no, it does not interfere”. In view of the provisions both from the perspective of human resources managers and SIEs, **“the measures adopted as a result of the Covid-19 pandemic had a direct impact on the organizational socialization process of the foreign employee”**, confirming H2.

To facilitate the onboarding of SIEs Mendenhall et al. (2002) suggest the appointment of a mentor for expatriates. Survey B, Table 10, revealed that the level of satisfaction is higher when a tutor/person responsible for onboarding workers is identified, thus proving that **foreign employees are more satisfied in companies where an onboarding tutor is identified** (H4), from the perspective of the inquired SIEs.

7 Main Conclusions, Recommendations and Limitations to the Study

Sel-initiated expatriation is a phenomenon that appreciates an evolutionary trend on a global scale. Although SIEs represent an important source of talent, which adds value to the organizations, due to the lack of specialized labor, the know-how they transfer and the need for cultural enrichment of Portuguese companies, it is still a theme little studied, and on which opinions differ.

Considering the current situation (Covid-19 pandemic), there is a growing difficulty in the effective integration of foreign employees in companies, which favors the adoption of new human resources practices. In this sense, firstly, the fact that the organizational adjustment of the SIEs is an imperative need for the retention and development of these employees is highlighted.

Despite the set of measures and practices adopted, mainly online, to minimize the distance between employees, this contextualization is affecting the organizational adjustment. Thus, there is widespread recognition, especially by managers of large companies that the Covid-19 pandemic has made the onboarding processes of SIEs more complex, just as SIEs recognize that their adaptation has been hampered. In this sense, it is worth noting that all respondents (Inquiry B) who arrived in Portugal during the Covid-19 pandemic felt that the current situation affected their adaptation, but also that the main difficulties revealed after their arrival, have to do with adapting to the language and creating bonds with colleagues.

In relation to the work regime, it is worth noting an exponential growth of teleworking in companies, but also of remote onboarding practices. Opinions are divided on the impacts of the telework regime on the adaptation of foreign employees, however, a small majority believes that this change has no impact on the employee. Companies that practice telework, or have changed from in-person to telework during the Covid-19 pandemic, tend to consider that this change has negative impacts on the new employee, considering that it is therefore necessary to take measures to minimize distancing and promote organizational adaptation. In these companies, there is also a tendency toward less receptiveness to hiring foreign professionals.

Regarding organizational socialization, in the light of this study, it was shown that employees who do not know their co-workers tend to consider that the Covid-19 pandemic affected their onboarding process in the company. Furthermore, both human resources professionals and SIEs refer to other problems associated with a greater degree of impersonality, such as a lack of a sense of belonging and adaptation to the organizational culture and colleagues, which directly impacts the productivity of these employees.

Having said that, preparing for tomorrow will involve, in the first place, a greater awareness of this issue. With regard to this research, in addition to hiring countries, one of the answers will be an in-depth study of the culture of the country from which one intends to recruit, which will at the same time facilitate the adoption of specific measures aimed at the target audience.

Bearing in mind that the main change adopted by companies has to do with the development of online practices, it is necessary to leverage these practices so that they effectively result. Likewise, the need for a balance between online and in-person practices should be highlighted, given that foreign employees who know their co-workers claim to feel more integrated in the company, and tend to consider that Covid-19 pandemic did not affect his adaptation to the company. One of the solutions would be the appointment of a tutor/responsible for the onboarding of the SIE in the organization, which would facilitate the effective integration of the professional.

This study has some limitations. On the one hand, the temporal limitation demarcated the number of responses to the survey by questionnaire and, on the other hand, the scope of the survey, which sought to cover different themes, did not go into some relevant themes. In this sense, it would be important to continue and deepen the topics covered. That said, the topicality of the theme and the impossibility of understanding the real consequences of the Covid-19 pandemic in the adaptation of SIEs, but also the problems associated with this reality, such as turnover, or lack of productivity and its impacts on companies, are themes that would be important to address in the future.

In conclusion, there is no successful formula for attracting and retaining these talents, but rather a set of practices, which may or may not make sense, depending on the environment. At the present time, repeatedly resorting to online mechanisms seems to be the best solution. However, based on the data presented, allow us to put the following question: “Aren’t we falling into a paradox!/? Will presenting online media as the best solution lead to the retention and integration of the foreign employee, or will he precisely follow the opposite path?”

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Post Pandemic: A Proposed Theoretical Model for Realistic Expectations of Leadership and Management



Nick Chandler

Abstract The pandemic has had not only economic, social and environmental implications, but also appeared to put our leaders, whether of companies or countries, in a new light. People questioned why and how decisions were made, why some countries reacted differently to others in the pandemic. The resulting outcome was a mixture of failed expectations, uncertainty and ambiguity, regardless of whether in business, politics or other areas of life. This chapter reviews the idealistic nature of leadership/management styles and considers the overlooked complexities of human nature from both a Jungian and cultural perspective, that may account for the disappointments and failed expectations in leadership that have emerged after the pandemic. Through a comprehensive review, a new leadership conceptual framework is developed with the term 'realistic leadership'. It is put forward that through the acceptance of the shadow nature of leaders, expectations will be realistic and rather than live up to an idealistic persona, both employees and staff will take on a new authenticity that stretches beyond current leadership styles. The chapter is concluded with the tools or competencies that a leader of this new type may require, along with practical and research implications of the review.

Keywords Leadership · Shadow · Persona · Jung · Culture · Group · Emotional triggers · Realistic

1 Introduction

Many people believe that the only things we need for success are talent, energy, and personality. But history has taught us that, over the long haul, who we are is more important than who we appear to be. —Stephen R. Covey

The pandemic has had not only economic, social and environmental implications, but also appeared to put our leaders, whether of companies or countries, in a new

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light. People questioned why and how decisions were made, why some countries reacted differently to others in the pandemic. The resulting outcome was a mixture of failed expectations, uncertainty and ambiguity.

One of the key reasons for the failed expectations could be that these expectations were unrealistic to begin with. When students are presented with leadership models and styles, they may be offered the pros and cons of each style but is there more to it than that? Do leaders fit neatly into a particular style or approach, or have we overlooked complexities that should be considered fully before judging the decisions and actions of our leaders?

In this chapter, I present the literature that considers the complexities of how a leader makes decisions from a psychological and social perspective. These elements are often overlooked and rarely combined to create an all-encompassing model of how our leaders think and behave in situations with their subordinates or colleagues. This chapter will cover areas referred to as 'shadow literature' as they cover the darker side of leadership, as well as group dynamics and cultural influences.

With this integrative review, the chapter is divided into a number of theoretical sections which will then be combined to create a model which is aimed to provide future research directions as well as a new perspective and understanding of leadership for practitioners.

2 Theoretical Background

Bolden (2004) cites Gemmill and Oakley (1992) in suggesting that leadership could be 'an alienating social myth' which may in fact deskills employees and place excessive dependency on the 'leader'. According to Bolden (2004), leadership is dysfunctional as it demands the repression of uncomfortable needs, emotions, and wishes when in the working environment. Through placing the leader on a pedestal, followers fix their hopes on the leader to take over and manage everything for them. In doing so, they limit or neglect their own critical thinking, visions, inspirations, and emotions (p. 279). This may be worsened by the need for leaders to be recognized, gain power and promote themselves (Maccoby, 2000), thereby placing themselves on the pedestal and building an empire around themselves, as the 'go-to person' if followers need direction.

With this alternative view of leadership and leadership styles in mind, the following sections look at some examples of leadership theory, both old and new, with a particular focus on how these theories may well promote unrealistic expectations from employees, society and even the leaders themselves.

2.1 *Great Man Leadership*

One of the earliest leadership theories is ‘great man leadership’. The historian Thomas Carlyle stated, ‘The history of the world is but the biography of great men’. From the Pharaohs and Roman Emperors to Napoleon and Nelson, he saw leaders as the ‘gifted few’ who had the suitable combination of characteristics to be successful leaders. Needless to say, from a historical standpoint, people of lesser social status also had the obstacles of poorer education, lesser social status and not having the birthright to enable them to be considered as leaders in the first place.

This concert may seem antiquated, and yet nowadays as well leaders are seen as possessing ‘the right qualities’ for the position or as a great man/‘hero’ coming to save the day. The problem here is not that there are certain qualities to become a leader, but two other sticking points. Firstly, the theory assumes that leaders are born rather than made, i.e. the characteristics making a successful leader cannot be taught. Secondly, and most importantly for this review, the expectation of a leader taking responsibility for being able to turn a company around seems an unrealistic one when we consider how Yahoo, searching for a saviour, changed the CEO five times in five years, each time firing them when they failed to live up to expectations.

Needless to say, there are other issues with great man theory, as leadership is a complex subject, when we consider that not only the leader but the followers, the resources available, company culture and many other situational factors also dictate the success or failure of a leader (Yukl, 2012).

2.2 *Authentic Leadership*

Authentic leadership emerged due to two drivers. The first was a decrease in ethical leadership as seen in events such as the scandals at Enron and Worldcom and, coupled with this, a corresponding increase in societal challenges such as downturns in the economy and global terrorism (Cooper et al., 2005). As a ‘created construct’, there is a push by scholars for this training of leaders so that they will conduct business in an ethical, socially responsible manner. Within authentic leadership, there is also a push towards ‘positive organizational scholarship’ based on the two areas of challenges mentioned earlier and, as such, these ‘leaders of the future’ are also encouraged to nurture positive organizational environments. It is this latter that presents the toughest challenge of all—whilst facing all of these challenges, the leader is expected to be a source of and encourage positivity across the organization, regardless of circumstance. This is one of the stumbling blocks of authentic leadership (Alvesson & Einola, 2019) that a person must ‘be genuine—a true reflection of their own core beliefs and values and not a replica of someone else’s leadership persona’ (George, 2003), whilst maintaining a positivist approach. In this way, there is also a danger of ‘oversharing’ as the leader divulges all thoughts in an attempt to be real and true to themselves and others. Some authors indicate that authenticity requires leaders to

keep negative emotions to themselves such as annoyance, upset or anger in everyday working life.¹ So, it seems there is a cap on how much authenticity is acceptable in a business environment.

Even though authentic leadership seems to be driven by the need for a positivist approach to how business is conducted, there is an expectation of the leader to remain positivist no matter what, which arguably pushes authentic leadership beyond the bounds of realism and authenticity, demands unrealistic expectations of the leader, regardless of the training they have received. Moreover, Einola and Alvesson (2021) argue that authentic leadership theory may in fact not only be wrong, but hazardous in the effects of scholars trying to encourage practitioners (e.g. managers and leaders) to live up to the expectations demanded of an authentic leader.

In summary, the theory of authentic leader is driven by scholars with the best of intentions at facing current issues in business and society, but it is not without its criticisms. The expectations and responsibilities placed upon the shoulders of the leader seem at times unrealistic and overlook the harder times that managers and leaders go through and how they should cope on these ‘bad days’. Often, in this and other leadership styles, there is an apparent desire to overlook or hide the darker side of leadership and management.

3 The Hidden Side of the Leader

Despite the positivist approaches referred to in the previous sections, the track record of leadership is not seen in such a positive light. Employees selected for leadership positions have been found to be toxic, abusive and causing harm (see e.g. Padilla et al., 2007), and having other negative effects on their followers (Kiliç & Günsel, 2019). Whilst the argument may be that from a sample of leaders, there will always be some bad apples, leadership failure rates are high (Aasland et al., 2010) and inequalities in those selected for leadership positions remain (Bebbington & Özbilgin, 2013). Bearing in mind the impetus for authentic leadership began around 2005, and how so many of these studies have found the same negative effects of leadership 5–10 years later begs the question as to whether something is being overlooked or the nature of leadership needs a comprehensive reassessment. In this section, the alternative side of the positivist coin is considered.

Jung’s (1938) concepts of ego, persona and shadow form the basis for a potential lack of realistic expectations of our leaders. What we often see is the persona, where the leader wants to show only their best sides. However, the shadow is the reverse side of the coin. Although not conscious, Jung (1938) asserts that everyone has a shadow and the more it is repressed and rejected, ‘the blacker and denser it is’ (Jung, 1938, p. 76). The shadow has the subconscious aggressive counter-reactions (Ketola, 2008, pp. 200–202) and encompasses, according to Bértholo (2013), all the hidden, rejected and repressed parts of our personalities, i.e. ‘the thing a person has no wish

¹ <https://commsmasters.com/2019/02/the-dark-side-of-authentic-leadership/>.

to be' (Jung, 1938). In reality, the shadow appears as so unpleasant and unbearable that a person disassociates that side of themselves with them. According to Klein (1952), this disassociation can cause those aspects of the shadow to be 'projected' onto others or onto the external environment.

The shadow also contains the psychic wounding or past trauma that we have experienced (Jung, 1953, p. 65). With its repression and disassociation, the shadow forms a 'mysterious and troublesome unwanted self'. However, Ketola (2008) highlights that the shadow is not all bad news for the leader when referring to 'the golden shadow' as it contains original and innovative thoughts that have been repressed but may actually be a drive towards growth, creativity and being authentic (Jung, 1976; Ladkin et al., 2018), which is particularly relevant in the quest for a realistic expectation of leadership.

Over time, the Shadow stores these rejected parts of ourselves and becomes a source of untapped potential, rich in raw emotions and primal drives, and undervalued contents. These aspects further reinforce that the shadow should not be seen as a negative or bad presence but rather that which has been disowned.

Most importantly, Bértholo (2013) suggests that whatever the reason, some people may have repressed their leadership skills during some experience which required them to do so. She also points out that we all have a number of shadows rather than just one element of ourselves that we have rejected or repressed, and that these shadows 'mutate and evolve according to context and time'.

The concept that the shadow contains aggressive counter-reactions will be considered in more depth in the following section, concerning the topic of how the shadow can be triggered out of repression and become what we see as the person.

4 Emotional Triggers

When a leader (or anyone) is 'triggered', the shadow emerges and the leader presents an entirely different sides to that experienced by employees with the persona. However, this doesn't happen to everybody. For those that have a control over their emotions or 'emotionally competent' they keep an awareness of the emergence of the shadow and in this way can continue to repress it. For those that are not able to do this, it may seem to employees that the leader has a 'bad day' as their usual nice self is replaced by a more nasty or 'bad' personality. This highlights the need for self-awareness in leaders and its role in emotional intelligence as a regulator of the emergence of the shadow (Goleman, 1995; Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

According to Hede (2007), there are six main triggers for emotional reactions that may result in the emergence of the shadow: **projection, association, threat, verbal abuse, frustration and guilt**. Further from what was discussed earlier, projection is not only the outcome of disassociation but is also a trigger when the leader sees one or more characteristics of their shadow in, for example, a subordinate. Although this characteristic is part of the leader, they have rejected and repressed it, but are now faced with being reminded of it by the subordinate or. Association is also related

to the aspect of disassociation of the shadow as a subordinate's personality may remind the leader of someone who was responsible for an unpleasant or even traumatic episode in their past. Likewise, the shadow may emerge when the leader feels threatened, such as when their decisions are challenged, or they experience resistant to change from employees. It is understandable that a leader becomes frustrated or angry in situations where they are verbally abused by their superiors or their ideas are blocked or sabotaged by other leaders in a meeting, leading to frustration. Likewise, leaders may experience guilt when they are torn between two difficult options and have to make a decision. These scenarios are just examples, and they could just as easily arise between subordinates, in work groups or other situations in the working environment. However, the findings of Hede (2007) highlight how politics in the life of a leader can lead to the emergence of the leader's shadow or other familiar situations such as resistance to change and handling critical thinking from subordinates or other leaders.

5 Managing Groups

If we integrate what we have learnt so far into the cultural perspective then we see how the shadow fits the working of a group made up of a leader and subordinates. According to Schein (1999), a work group is built on a 'pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration'. Internal integration is likely to be tarnished in groups led by a leader with low self-awareness and little emotional control. The external pressures may not only make the leader feel frustration or anger, but may also cause group members to challenge change initiatives and resist change, which in turn will trigger the shadow of the leader.

If we extend our perspective beyond the leader to the rest of the work group, then it seems feasible that external elements may also trigger the shadow in them, such as through uncertainty and ambiguity, a leader severely limiting behaviour such as we find in the alienated followers of Kelley, or political behaviours at this level. The question arises as to whether the emergence of the shadow in subordinates, then increases the likelihood of triggering the shadow in the leader, and so on, which may lead to a 'snowball effect', with the emergence of the shadow in other members of the work group, until all members are identified as shadow, and perceived as part of a 'toxic culture'. Hede (2007) also highlights how task conflict can lead to triggering the shadow. In this way, the cultural perspective means bringing shadow literature to the group level (Ketola, 2008), to consider the collective and cultural elements. Moving from the group to the organizational level, the organizational shadow is seen as '*facts which organizations wish to deny about themselves, due to the threat posed to self-image and self-understanding and, more generally, the need to be viewed in a favorable light by others*' (Bowles, 1991). For this chapter, however, we will keep our focus on the leader, as part of work groups, i.e. on the group level.

Organizational culture is expressed in artefacts, behaviours and values by employees and as the shadow is a part of or potential behaviour that, as we have seen, may be triggered by the behaviour of others, and may be based on values relating to past experiences, we can see that culture and the shadow are inextricably linked, despite the literature being rather limited in combining these aspects, and even less so in the context of leadership in organizations.

Much of the theory so far has focussed on the work of Jung's psychological approach, and yet Jung distinguishes three levels of unconscious: personal, cultural and collective. Jung focussed on the personal and collective unconscious rather than the cultural unconscious (Singer & Kimbles, 2004a). However, some researchers have investigated the cultural unconscious (e.g. Singer & Kimbles, 2004b), which examines groups in a social setting and from the leader's perspective, it could involve topics such as the departmental, unit and organizational unconscious.

The cultural unconscious is shared by a group but varies from one culture to another (Ketola, 2008). In the same way that large complex organizations experience the emergence of heterogenous subcultures, different kinds of group identities develop (Nkomo & Cox, 1996; Polzer et al., 2003) with their own cultural unconscious. Moreover, the preconscious persona of an organization has its roots in the organizational culture (cf. Schein, 1992; Whetten, 2006).

According to Miller (1999), despite being repressed and rejected, our shadow is observable to others and, as such, highlights the need for analysis of the group aspect and the leader's place in it. Hede (2007) presents a model of a 'self-in-group' where we can see the difference between the 'overt self' and the 'shadow self'. The overt self is the side of ourselves which we show to others, define ourselves by and interact with others, i.e. the persona. On the other hand, our 'shadow self' is seen as the opposite, rather than repressed side of ourselves. As found in other literature, this side of ourselves contains the qualities which we do not accept, and, in doing so, tend to project onto others. One additional, and important, aspect of Hede's mode is that we have an 'inner observer' which monitors the shadow and overt selves. Within this model, there is an overarching assumption of a person's awareness of these selves, without which observance would not be possible. The inner observer thus acts as a mediator of the shadow, which Hede (2007) claims is achieved through emotional competencies.

As there is a general desire to be seen by others in a positive light as a means towards social acceptance in a cultural context, the persona is also seen as positive. In this way, from a cultural perspective, being positive is seen as a norm and associated with the persona. As Feldman (1984) and Pech (2001) put forward, the persona encourages a group norm that people 'try to be nice' or at least try to appear nice to others so that they are not seen as 'problematic' to the rest of the work group resulting in alienation from the group or weakened group cohesion. In the same way, the impetus falls upon the leader to also ascribe to these norms of 'positivity' and 'niceness' as a means towards being accepted in the work group. However, there are examples of leaders such as Steve Jobs, that did not follow this as a cultural norm and in turn leads us to question if this was due to a lack of concern for the persona or difficulty in repressing the shadow.

If we consider the role of the shadow on a group/subcultural level, such as between subordinates and managers then the interplay between the leader and the group can be seen in how the shadow of group members may emerge during interactions. Hede (2007) presented a model for how work groups move into the shadows. Starting with the presumption that a group is initially made up of overt members interacting and 'fully functional', an overt member, for whatever reason, switched to the shadow, leading to a change in the group dynamic, which in turn leads to other members switching to the shadow, which then progresses until the overt group becomes a shadow group and thereby dysfunctional. As the group progresses with an increasing number of shadow group members, interpersonal relationship conflict also increases. In this context, there is no perceived benefit in turning to the shadows, the overt self is seen as the fully functional employee, despite the positive aspects of the shadow covered by other authors, and the problems that emerge due to the repression of the qualities deemed part of the shadow.

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, there is potential for the leader to be triggered into allowing the shadow to emerge over the persona and, in doing so, may become 'nasty' or 'bad', which in turn may act as a trigger for other members, such as subordinates, of the work group to allow the shadow to emerge. The group may become fully dysfunctional as a shadow group due to the emergence of the shadow in one individual. Each step results in changes in group interaction and, applying this model to the leadership context, we can see the potential impact of the leader upon the group, if lacking the emotional competencies to keep the shadow at bay.

However, this gives rise to another question concerning the role of the leader in work groups that has not been discussed by practitioners not researchers: Is the one of the tasks of leaders to bring work group members back from the shadows? If so, what sort of competencies are needed? Issues such as resolving conflict and interpersonal skills are often listed as required for a leader. However, bringing someone back from the shadows would potentially require more than 'try to be nice' or 'smile, it might never happen'. Further research in this area would aid practitioners too in understanding the role of the leader in this context and how work groups can be encouraged to be more self-aware, have the suitable emotional competences to deal with triggers of the shadow, and perhaps even an awareness of shadows as a means of coping when the leader or other work group members are triggered into the shadow self, such as training on becoming 'inner observers'.

For the leader of the workgroup, training would also help in understanding the triggers of the shadow. The Hogan Development Survey, for example, identifies 11 behavioural tendencies that could trigger 'leader derailment' but could arguably be considered as potential triggers of the shadow in the leader as well. In relation to the shadow, many leaders are aware of what constitutes acceptable and unacceptable behaviour, both according to societal and organizational norms. Interestingly, Dotlich and Cairo (2003) argue that effective executives regularly commit 10 'unnatural acts' as a way of mitigating against derailment, such as surrounding yourself with people who create some discomfort, trust first—ask questions later, giving up some control and coach and teach rather than inspire and lead. These ideas may also be of use to leaders in trying to learn to cope with repressing the shadow.

In a study by Shaw of the elements that trigger shadows, it was found that a range of areas could cause triggers such as tasks, processes, policies and procedures, management practices, leadership, formal structures, missions and strategies, climate, culture, resources, environment and so on. In this study, the ‘open system approach’ is considered as it is suggested that there is a need for congruence or alignment between different aspects of the system, between different systems and between an organization and its environment.

6 Theoretical Model

This chapter has focussed upon the need for a realistic perceptive of managers or leaders. In this respect, a model is proposed that combined the theory and empirical research to construct a model of the nature of a realistic manager, as shown in the Fig. 1.

These functions are not to be considered as an exhaustive list of the functions of a manager, in a realistic context. Rather, these are the functions that distinguish a realistic manager from other types as well as the basic areas where a manager will need to focus, if they wish to develop more realistic expectations of themselves as

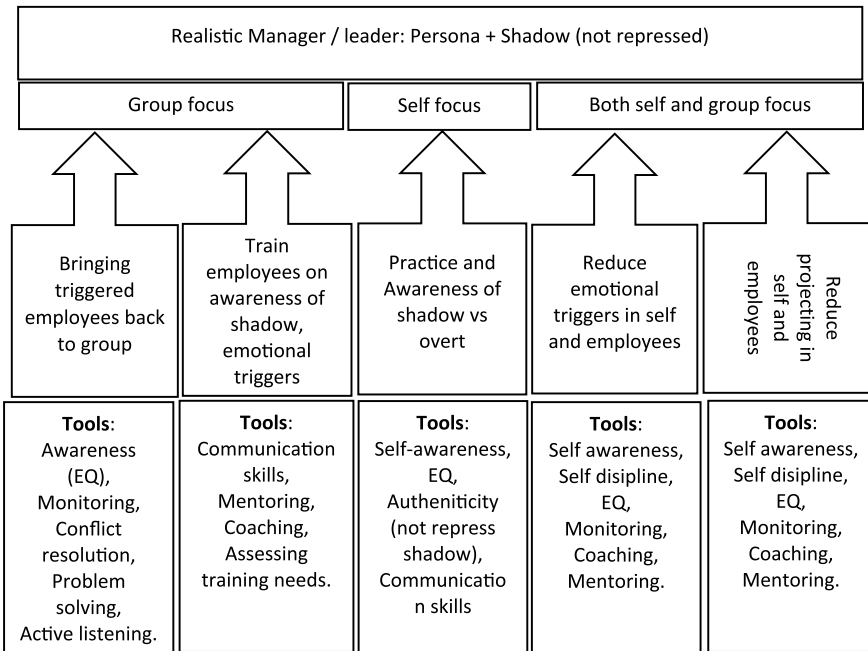


Fig. 1 The functions of a realistic manager

a managers and others' expectations (e.g. employees) of them as managers. This proposed model can be added to as research progresses in this area.

For the manager to function in this way, they will need to be equipped with a combination of personal and firm resources. Firm resources may take the form of training for employees, such as on the dangers of emotional triggers for a team, or training for the manager to develop and improve the personal resources required to fulfil these functions. Based on findings in the literature, the personal resources that would aid a manager in adopting a more realistic approach to leadership and management and thereby ensure more realistic expectations of them have been added to each function in the model.

It can be seen in the theoretical model that certain aspects are seen in other management models, such as the Mintzberg's 10 management roles. However, here the model indicated that these are the necessary abilities rather than roles. Therefore, the manager requires certain skills, for example, to resolve conflicts, such as tact, awareness of others' sentiments (EQ) and tolerance. In this way, there is some overlap between the tools listed. However, tolerance and EQ have a prominent role in empirical studies of dealing with the shadow and as such have been highlighted in this figure. The monitor requires the manager to dedicate time to checking in with subordinates, such as in stand-up meetings, weekly roundups and so on. This will require time management as well as the ability to encourage openness and transparency between subordinates and managers. This openness and transparency are also central to the concept of not hiding the shadow but rather revealing weaker, 'less acceptable' sides of oneself.

Once again, this is not an exhaustive list and other aspects may be at a manager's disposal to manager employees heading into the shadows, such as the use of humour to reduce the impact of emotional triggers or as an enable to cope with the weaker sides of the manager and/or others. Likewise, a manager or leader has more to deal with than purely the shadow aspects, such as monthly targets, budgets, performance benchmarks, reports and so on. However, the aim of this framework is for the encouragement of the shadow, and thereby realistic leadership, to form the basis for how work is done and how employees and managers interact with one another.

7 Conclusions

Jungian concepts have been used to assess the moral character of managers (leaders) (Rozuel, 2010) or to distinguish between good and bad leaders (Allio, 2007). However, if a leader is associated with positive attributes such as being honest, visionary, inspirational, creative and intuitive (de Haan, 2016; Eckhaus, 2017; Figler & Hanlon, 2008; Mason, 2006), from the perspective of this chapter we are describing the persona only and not the whole person. Negative traits of the leader such as narcissism, Machiavellianism and hubris (Harms et al., 2011) are thus associated with the shadow, even though we have seen in the literature that there is a positive side to the shadow.

The central problem here exists that this idea of a positive set of attributes appears to perpetuate great man and trait theory, rather than delve into (and accept) the complexities of what humans are: a mixture of good and bad (Jones, 2007).

In contrast, some authors consider the darker traits as needed for an employee to succeed and get to top management (Kets de Vries, 2004, p. 188). We do however see in these studies of leadership traits signs of the shadow and its triggers such as Pryor et al. (2014) who blame ethical “failures on ‘deviant’ employees” (p. 115), highlighting the link between norms of being acceptable to the work group and the persona. Leaders that are described as ‘toxic’ are also defined as ‘deviants’, even though this toxic behaviour may be a reaction (trigger) and temporary (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). Likewise, Zimbardo (2004) warns that dark behaviour may be a product of the environment, such as structures, to which the leader is subjected. In essence reality is complex, and leaders should not be put into boxes or labelled as one type of other (Judge et al., 2009; Klotz & Neubaum, 2016).

This chapter reviews theoretical literature and considers an alternative to existing, idealistic models of leadership by offering a realistic leadership style, which accepts the leader as he or she is, as a human, imperfect and thereby encourages realistic expectations. However, as many existing studies refer to the need to bring employees back from the shadows, this new theoretical work has a particular dilemma when it comes to subordinates. As seen in this chapter, the leader has a role in ensuring that employees are brought back from the shadows. However, if a leader’s shadow is accepted, then why not the employees? A decision to accept the shadow in all employees, not just the leader, could have far-reaching effect on people management, motivation, performance appraisal (and associated expectations), disciplinary procedures, reward management and even recruitment and selection. At this stage in the theory, a realistic leader is left with the decision of whether to accept a shadow for all or only for the leader.

8 Implications

In this chapter, we have seen that many leadership styles have the potential to cause damage either through the assumptions underlying the theory or the effects of these leadership styles. The leadership shadow is not exception to this. According to Chappell et al. (2019) leaders can do harm by transferring their shadow (projecting) onto others as well as emotionally triggers the shadows of other employees, as already discussed in this chapter.

The positivist approach to leadership leads to distorted expectations of the leader. Through denying the existing of the shadow, the leader also risks distorting their own perceptions of reality and misjudging subordinates (Petriglieri & Stein, 2012). In some cases, subordinates may even be used as scapegoats unconsciously by the leader due to the leaders’ lack of self-awareness (Steinkamp & de Vries, 2014). On the organization level, if the entire leadership has an enforced persona and consequent repression of the shadow, the whole organizational system has the potential to develop

into a toxic organizational culture (Vince & Mazen, 2014), comprised of groups in constant personal conflict and a state of limbo between being forced to bear a persona whilst also being triggered towards shadow groups through projections and emotional triggers of both other group members and the leader.

The shadow is not something that potentially causes detriment to employees across the company, but rather the repression of it. As covered in this chapter, there are also positive aspects to the leader's shadow, known as 'the golden shadow'. These aspects were repressed at some point as they were not seen as useful or practical at that time. In sum, acceptance rather than repression of the shadow has the potential for leaders of getting in touch with their whole psyche and avoid potential conflict and harm to both themselves and others.

From the findings of this review, it seems that there are some key competences that a leader should possess if embracing the shadow is to be encouraged. Firstly, a self-awareness of the leader to know when the shadow is being projected, repressed or affecting their leadership in some other way. Moreover, empathy and understanding (EQ) is an important requirement as leaders will have the task of bringing employees back from the shadows. Further research could consider Goleman's (2001) model in this context as it is concerned with two relevant dimensions: a self-versus-other dimension and an awareness-versus-management. Moreover, the personal skills and, as indicated in the theoretical model as 'tools' could be investigated further, not only to test the model itself but also to add other possibly relevant leader tools for effective realistic leadership such as adaptability, empathy, trustworthiness and initiative.

This form of 'realistic leadership' also implies a crucial nurturing role for HR and leaders in, for example, training subordinates in self-awareness, and building elements of EQ and awareness of other group members will need to be prioritized. In doing so, shadow would become a normal and everyday part of working life, expectations could become fairer and more realistic.

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Green Human Resource Management: A New Model of Human Resource Management in the Aftermath of the Pandemic



S. Gutiérrez-Broncano, J. Opute, P. Jiménez-Estévez, and M. Rubio-Andrés

Summary In recent years, environmental degradation has been increasing and so has awareness of the need to implement measures to improve the environment. More and more companies are developing environmental improvement programmes as part of their business strategies. To do this in the best possible way, the management of their human resources has to be modified from the traditional practices that have been implemented for years. Green HRM offers an unbeatable and rewarding opportunity to improve the environmental performance of companies that implement it. This chapter first discusses the current situation and then defines the concept of environmental capital. This type of capital, so scarce in companies today, is what we need to generate so that companies can effectively implement their environmental improvement programmes. To this end, it is necessary to have human resources tools that are in line with these objectives. It is for this reason that the different human resources practices that companies can implement within an ecological personnel management model are explained.

Objectives of the chapter:

To raise awareness of the situation of our environment and the need for the business world to respond to it.

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To define the functions and objectives that can be implemented from the human resources area to improve the environmental management programmes carried out by companies.

To understand the competitive advantages that the ecological management of human resources can bring to companies.

To reflect on the difficulties that can arise when implementing an ecological human resources management system.

Keywords Green human resource management · Sostenibility · Talent management · Pandemic

1 Introduction

In recent years, we have experienced an excessively high level of environmental degradation with adverse effects, such as deficiencies in air quality, loss of water quality and quantity, decrease in soil quality and increase in the greenhouse effect that put both current and future generations at risk.

Global emissions are reaching unprecedented levels that appear not to have peaked yet. The last four years have been the warmest on record and Arctic winter temperatures have risen by 3 °C since 1990. Sea levels are rising, coral reefs are drying up and we are beginning to see the fatal impact of climate change on health through air pollution, heat waves and food security risks.

The situation is already so worrying that the United Nations created the Climate Change Conference as the supreme decision-making body of the convention, where mainly measures to reduce greenhouse gas emissions are studied and approved.

The impacts of climate change are being felt everywhere and are having very real consequences on people's lives. National economies are being affected by climate change, which is costing us dearly today and will cost us even more in future. But it is beginning to be recognised that there are now affordable and scalable solutions that will allow us to make the leap to cleaner and more resilient economies. More and more companies are introducing environmental requirements into their strategic planning, mainly due to a number of factors that have influenced them in recent years. These include the following:

- The existence of increasingly comprehensive, complete and precise regulations for environmental protection.
- Business risk through loss of image as a result of uncontrolled pollution.
- Pressure from competitors who are aware of the need to protect natural resources.
- New opportunities to enter niche markets that demand environmentally friendly products.
- Possibility to reduce production costs by making better use of natural resources.
- Reduction of fines and penalties for non-compliance with current legislation.

- Improvement of the company's corporate image and credibility in the market for both customers and future employees (brand employer).

Organisations (including companies) must demonstrate socially responsible behaviour, not only in the economic and social sphere, but also in the environmental sphere (Server & Villalonga, 2005). Already, the Green Paper (European Commission, 2001) proposed to promote a European framework for Corporate Social Responsibility with the objective that companies should voluntarily contribute to a better society and a cleaner and more sustainable environment. More and more companies are openly acknowledging their social responsibility and considering the preservation of the environment to be essential. But all this in turn poses new challenges for business management in general and for the management of its human resources in particular.

2 Environmental Capital

The current environmental situation has led to the need for new knowledge and an attitude towards caring for the environment, which is what we call "environmental capital".

The environmental capital (EC) of a company incorporates a whole set of intangible resources that form a key factor for the creation of value, as well as the rest of the existing knowledge. In this case, the EC includes both the knowledge of the employees that form part of the organisation and other knowledge that, independently of the individual, is owned by the organisation. It is understood as part of the overall intellectual capital of the company, which, following the intellect model, divides intellectual capital into three main groups: human capital, structural capital and relational capital.

Human environmental capital includes the knowledge possessed only by the people in the organisation and is therefore individual and tacit. In some cases, this knowledge is shared with small groups of people, a team, etc., that perform similar tasks. Following López and Avilés (2008), we find several types of knowledge.

Firstly, operational knowledge would be knowledge that enables people to handle new situations of environmental adaptation, requiring both knowledge and skills. Knowledge refers to the acquisition of theoretical notions about the environment, legislation, recycling, waste treatment, environmental policy, environmental management, auditing, etc., while skills require practical handling of new machinery, practical waste separation, practical application of environmental procedures, etc.

Secondly, there is the emotional knowledge, which is what allows the person to manifest him/herself as a person in the new situation of environmental adaptation. We can summarise it in the employee's motivation to perform the tasks entrusted to him/her with respect to the environment, leadership of people working on environmental issues, and loyalty and commitment to the company's environmental policy.

Structural environmental capital is a type of intellectual capital that enables the establishment of a new company structure in line with the situation with respect to external environmental requirements. It refers to the collective knowledge that is displayed by the organisation as such and includes both organisational and technological knowledge.

Organisational environmental knowledge incorporates both the corporate culture supported by the implementation of an organisational environmental commitment and the establishment of an environmental policy, as well as the formal organisation, which may have to define new tasks and responsibilities (environmental managers, environmental technicians, etc.) and new specialised departments.

Technological environmental knowledge makes it possible for the company to adapt to the environment through new technologies. It includes the technical experience that the company acquires over time in the environmental field, such as patents, prototypes, machines and any other resource of a technological nature.

Finally, the third type of knowledge is environmental relational capital. It encompasses all those relationships that are established outside the organisation and revolve around the environment. We can distinguish between internal knowledge, which includes all the relationships that the organisation establishes with the personnel involved in the organisation and which must be involved in the established environmental culture, and, in addition, all the external knowledge that incorporates those relationships of an environmental nature that the organisation maintains with third parties and that are of utmost importance. For example, the relationship with customers to satisfy their environmental needs in terms of products and services; with suppliers, as the production chain needs to be clean and non-polluting; or with the administration, to create new relationships with the environmental administrative services. Finally, we have to incorporate market relations in terms of the environment, which will be mainly given by the establishment of new green or ecological brands or by the company's display of its ecological labels and certificates. In this way, it will achieve an image and reputation in line with the new situation.

3 Corporate Experiences and Actions on Environmental Practices

Companies such as Coca-Cola and its bottling partners have been improving water use efficiency by up to 27% in the period 2004–2014, becoming the first Fortune 500 company to publicly declare a goal of balancing the equivalent amount of water used in its global turnover with nature and communities (Business Wire, 2016). Using a global water use assessment endorsed by LimnoTech and Deloitte and conducted in partnership with the Nature Conservancy, Coca-Cola as a whole and its bottlers returned an estimated 191.9 billion litres of water to nature and communities in 2015, through the implementation of 248 community projects in 71 countries aimed at safe access to water, watershed protection and water for productive use. These projects

also include sanitation and education, helping to improve local livelihoods, adapting to climate change, improving biodiversity and water quality, and engaging in policy and awareness raising on water issues. All in all, they manage to match the equivalent of 115% of water used in Coca-Cola beverages last year (Business Wire, 2016).

In Spain alone, Coca-Cola, in order to contribute to the 6th UN Sustainable Development Goal (ODS-6: Ensure availability of water, its sustainable management and sanitation for all), is carrying out three actions: reducing the amount of water used in its beverage manufacturing process, purifying and returning the water used in hygiene and plant maintenance operations, and replenishing 100% of the water contained in its beverages in water-stressed areas (Coca-Cola, 2021).

Like Coca-Cola, Unilever is also committed to ODS-6. Unilever is one of the world's leading FMCG companies, manufacturing and selling nearly 400 brands in more than 190 countries. Using the water footprint study, it realises that almost 99% of the water consumed by households is produced when people use its products, specifically when they wash clothes, wash their hair, shower or bathe. For this reason, its research and development teams are focused on developing products that have the same performance but require less water, use less quality water or can be used without water. In addition, they also work together with their suppliers to reduce water use mainly in their crops and in the water consumption of the more than 300 factories around the world (Unilever, 2018). Unilever has a specific water committee that is in charge of the entire water strategy and water use targets. Its key role is to look for smart innovations. During the period 2010–2017, it has managed to reduce its customers' consumption by 2%; it has saved 19.8 million cubic metres of water used in its manufacturing operations and has drawn up a sustainable agriculture code that has served to guide and develop more than 4,000 projects to improve water management with its suppliers (Unilever, 2021).

On the other hand, companies such as Nestlé are also committed to water management, focusing their actions on reducing the amount of water used for each kilo of food and drink they produce. An example of this is the water savings to be achieved by the new water treatment plant at its Tri An factory in Vietnam, which will achieve a reduction of 36,000 cubic metres of water per year, i.e. 30% less. It also carries out activities to ensure that the company respects local water resources, ensures that water is returned to the environment as clean as possible, works in collaboration with its suppliers to promote the conservation of this resource and collaborates with other actors in society to improve conservation and access to water. Among its main achievements, it has designed a new system that has enabled a 53% reduction in the consumption of water for cooling industrial processes, thus reducing total consumption by 23%. In addition, and in line with its corporate social responsibility policy, Nestlé has been consistent in its efforts to reduce its environmental impact, with its indicators of water and energy use per tonne of product produced improving day by day.

A few years ago, Nestlé opened its most water-efficient factory in Mexico, implementing measures that the company intends to replicate at other production sites around the world. The “Zero Water” dairy factory takes fresh cow's milk, which contains 88% water, and then heats it at low pressure. The steam produced is

condensed to a liquid state, treated and used to clean the evaporation machines. Once the machines are washed, the water is collected again, purified and recycled for a second use. This water can then be reused for watering gardens or cleaning. The reuse of milk water in this case eliminates the need to extract water from the ground (Nestlé, 2020).

Nestlé currently has more than 170 water management projects in its factories, saving 3.6 million cubic metres, recycling 6.7 million cubic metres of water for reuse in other operations and reducing water use by 33.3% per tonne of production.

4 The Impact of Environmental Capital on Human Resource Management

Intellectual capital has a major impact on the management of the company and in particular on the management of its human resources. The emergence of a body of environmental knowledge implies the transformation of company structures, the modification of jobs, the emergence of new professional skills, the need for new professionals and the establishment of “ad hoc” training plans.

We cannot forget that human resources are the main agents transforming the environment and that they can have both favourable and unfavourable impacts on the environment. This makes good environmental training essential. Having knowledge about the handling of solid and liquid waste, rules and procedures established in the workplace with respect to environmental issues, the creation of indicators that measure the evaluation of the environmental dimension, etc., will serve to strengthen the environmental management of the company through training.

Not only training, but all human resource management procedures will have to be adjusted to environmental criteria, whether for companies wishing to comply with legal environmental requirements or for those wishing to implement environmental management systems.

Other modifications with respect to traditional human resource management practices (due to the incorporation in companies of the environmental conditioning factors that society demands) will be those related to the analysis of working conditions and production processes, the qualifications required of workers, recruitment and selection systems including new environmental items, extra-salary compensation, the creation of environmental training programmes for both employees and managers, etc. (López & Avilés, 2008).

5 Green Human Resource Management: An Effective Tool

This new dynamic opens the door to new lines of collaboration between the business sphere and the improvement of the environment, thus favouring the results achieved

through CSR actions. However, for practices such as those carried out by Coca-Cola, Unilever or Nestlé to be effective, it is not only necessary to comply with the formal rules established by the company, but also to obtain a commitment from employees to accept these initiatives on a voluntary basis. Companies need to implement management systems that impact on the environmental attitudes of their employees if they are to implement all these activities effectively (Renwick et al., 2013, 2015).

HRM has made great progress in recent years mainly due to the improved utilisation of all the human capital at its disposal. The increased involvement of employees in decision-making has brought significant change and improvement in terms of the development of new skills, knowledge and attitudes (Lengnick-Hall et al., 2009; Singh & El-Kassar, 2019). This increased participation coupled with greater awareness of environmental management and better use of resources (Cavicchi, 2017; Phillips, 2018; Roos & O'Connor, 2015) has meant that human resource management has had to adapt to better contribute to the development of companies' environmental capital.

Green human resource management (GHRM) refers to human resource practices aimed at the environmental and ecological influence of companies and is linked to the company's environmental strategy and employees' green behaviours (Renwick et al., 2015). GHRM is part of the literature on sustainable human resource management and focuses on companies' environmental management practices, where green HRM acts as a platform for company's environmental management activities (Dumont et al., 2017; Masri & Jaaron, 2017). Therefore, GHRM reflects the organisation's strategic orientation towards environmental protection and asks top management to pay attention to the organisation's processes and practices and to encourage people to engage in green work behaviours to reduce environmental pollution in the workplace (Berrone & Gomez-Mejia, 2009; Mishra et al., 2014; Oh et al., 2016). In other words, GHRM encompasses the incorporation of the organisation's green management objectives into HR processes, i.e. recruitment and selection, training and development, performance management and appraisal, rewards and recognition (Muller-Carmem et al., 2010; Renwick et al., 2008).

GHRM has emerged in response to this business and societal demand. These people management practices are seen as essential to the successful implementation of green strategies and environmental management practices (Daily & Huang, 2001; Renwick et al., 2013). Reng et al. (2017) describe GHRM as a phenomenon relevant to understanding the relationship between activities that have an impact on the natural environment and the design, evolution, implementation and influence of HRM systems put in place by companies.

Nowadays, all the programmes, processes and techniques of ecological human resource management that companies manage to implement seek to reduce negative environmental impacts and increase positive impacts. Their ultimate goal is to improve the sustainable environmental performance of the organisation.

To achieve this, they implement certain practices such as green job analysis and design that includes tasks related to environmental protection; green recruitment and selection, attracting and selecting new employees according to environmental criteria; green training and coaching, developing training programmes focusing on

environmentally friendly practices and encouraging employee turnover so that future managers take into account environmental impacts in their decisions; green reward management, introducing rewards for initiatives that improve environmental management; green performance evaluation, incorporating environmental objectives among the challenges to be achieved by work teams, etc. Arulrajah et al. (2015) after analysing different GHRM practices concluded that companies can improve their environmental performance in a more sustainable way than before and suggest that more and more companies implement such practices. These HR practices aim to make employees more environmentally conscious. In the following sections, we can look at the different practices that companies can implement to achieve this.

5.1 Design and Analysis of Green Jobs

- Incorporate tasks, roles and responsibilities in each task to protect the environment.
- Include environmental requirements in job descriptions.
- Use cross-functional teams incorporating people with environmental training.
- Include the environmental dimension as an obligation in job descriptions.
- Include environmental management competencies in specific jobs.
- Design and implement new jobs and positions that focus exclusively on environmental management.

5.2 Green Human Resource Planning

- Forecast the number of employees required for the implementation of environmental management programmes.
- Commit to develop strategies that anticipate the demand for environmental jobs (consultants, energy development experts...).

5.3 Green Recruitment

- Visibilise the environmental results achieved when trying to attract candidates.
- Incorporate environmental criteria in recruitment messages.
- Communicating the organisation's commitment to environmental management in recruitment.
- Reflect environmental policy in recruitment policy.
- Express certain environmental values in the company's vacancy announcement.
- Express the organisation's preference for recruiting candidates with the skills and attitudes to participate in environmental management initiatives.

5.4 Green Selection

- Consider environmental concerns as a selection criterion.
- Ask environmentally related questions in candidate interviews.
- Select candidates who are sufficiently committed to the environment.
- Select candidates who are committed to responsible and ecological consumption in their private life.

5.5 Green Socialisation

- Provide a general environmental induction.
- Provide a job-specific environmental induction.
- Develop new employees' familiarity with environmental issues.
- Develop socialisation programmes that encourage greener employee behaviour.

5.6 Green Performance Evaluation

- Establish an environmental management information system.
- Incorporate environmental management objectives into the company's appraisal system.
- Install environmental performance standards and norms (including task and targets) across the organisation.
- Integrate green criteria into employee appraisals following environmentally related criteria.
- Include an interview to convey progress in achieving environmental performance.
- Provide regular feedback to employees and teams to achieve environmental targets and improve environmental performance.
- Introduce or formally evaluate all positions on their environmental performance (if possible).

5.7 Green Training and Development

- Provide training to learn how to adapt to an environmentally friendly environment through good practices.
- Promote environmental awareness among the workforce.
- Promote training to enable staff to carry out their own environmental analysis.
- Apply job rotation to train future green managers.
- Imparting green knowledge and skills.
- Identify green training needs of employees.

- Conduct serious and systematic environmental management training programmes.
- Provide opportunities for everyone to be trained in environmental management issues.

5.8 Green Rewards Management

- Rewarding environmental performance.
- Rewarding good environmental performance financially.
- Reward good environmental performance in kind.
- Reward excellence of teams with good environmental performance.
- Introduce rewards for innovative environmental improvement initiatives.
- Communicate environmental excellence achieved to the employee.
- Provide incentives for commitment to environmentally friendly activities and behaviours.
- Reward the acquisition of environmental skills.

5.9 Green Health and Safety Management

- Ensure a green workplace for everyone.
- Create environmentally related initiatives to reduce employee stress and occupational illnesses caused by a hazardous work environment.
- Creating and implementing strategies to maintain a conducive environmental environment to prevent employee health and safety issues.

5.10 Ecological Management of Employee Discipline

- Establishing penalties for non-compliance with environmental management objectives.
- Sanctioning or dismissing for environmental management violations to be guided by established disciplinary procedures of the organisation.
- Formulate and publish standards of conduct related to environmental care.
- Develop a progressive disciplinary system to discipline employees who violate environmental rules of conduct.

5.11 Green Labour Relations

- Provide employee opportunities through unions to participate in environmental improvement suggestions.

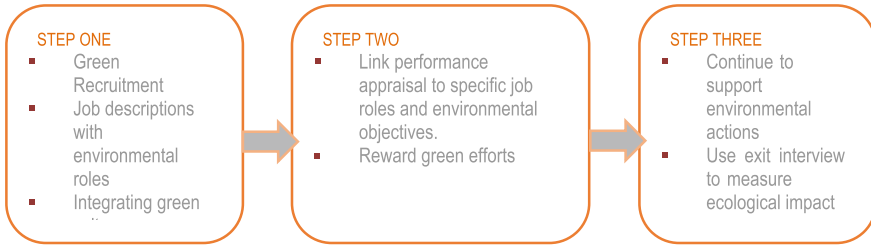


Fig. 1 Process of implementing a green HR management system (Source Adapted from Ang, 2017)

- Provide training for representatives on environmental management.
- Recognise unions (and members of the works council, if applicable) as class players in environmental management.
- Provide unions with opportunities to negotiate with management on green workplace agreements.

As can be seen, there is a whole list of human resource management practices aimed at environmental improvement that companies can incorporate. In many cases, it is up to top management to promote and support these initiatives, but there is still little predisposition on the part of managers to implement practices such as those described in the previous tables. For this to happen, a paradigm shift is needed among managers and in society at large. And this requires a gradual implementation as can be seen in the following graph (Fig. 1).

6 Conclusions

In this chapter, we have demonstrated the great role that companies have in contributing to the creation and development of environmental capital in their organisations and thus responding to a great need of a social nature. The ecological management of human resources is presented as a suitable alternative that favours the increase of the company’s environmental capital. Additionally, this also contributes to the implementation of environmental programmes that help to preserve the environment in a more effective and enduring way and in essence fulfilling the objectives of the chapter. We should be aware that when employees are given the opportunity to participate in environmental issues and are highly motivated as a result of good human resource management oriented towards environmental performance, they are highly willing to voluntarily participate in environmental projects, thus contributing to improving not only environmental aspects, but also the company’s reputation and even financial performance (Pham et al., 2019).

To achieve this, the commitment of top management needs to be strong and forceful. The study by Kim et al. (2019) shows that organisational commitment is a determinant of individual employee behaviour. Employees are more driven to act in

pursuit of their company's environmental goal when it is integrated into their values. GHRM practices are perceived by employees as a positive organisational gesture that reflects a genuine concern for the environment and thus, the employee feels more willing to show a higher level of organisational commitment to the company (Paillé et al., 2014). Mention should also be made of the efforts of some multinational organisations such as Coca-Cola, Unilever and Nestle (earlier referred to) as examples of organisations worth emulating in improving the environment capital.

Finally, it is worth highlighting the key role of the transformational leader as an antecedent of GHRM in promoting eco-innovation and improving the environmental performance of the company (Singh et al., 2020).

7 Self-Assessment Exercises

1. Identify a company that carries out environmental management projects; does it have the human capital to implement such projects; what human resource practices should it use to achieve better results; is the top management involved and committed to these practices; if not, establish a plan to implement green human resource management; if not, establish a plan to implement green human resource management; if not, establish a plan to implement green human resource management. If not, set out a plan for implementing green human resource management.
2. What do you think would be the best arguments to make your staff aware of the need to implement green HRM practices, what barriers would you encounter, how would you manage to reduce these barriers? Justify your answer.
3. At what stage would you involve the unions or works council in any environmental project? Why is their participation and engagement important?
4. Rank from most to least complex in your opinion when it comes to implementing the green HRM practices discussed in this topic.
5. As a human resources manager in a company, what three advantages and three disadvantages do you consider the implementation of a green HRM programme to have?

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Human Resource Management Reconfiguration Post-COVID Crisis



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1 Introduction

The World Health Organisation (WHO) first declared COVID-19 as a global pandemic following the first reported case in December 2019 in the city of Wuhan, China (Hui et al., 2020; Yawson, 2020). The rapid spread of the disease around the world since the WHO declaration has resulted in many measures taken by countries and organisations aimed at restraining the spread of the disease (Yawson, 2020). The impact of the pandemic and the various measures taken across the globe have significant implications for organisational management, human resource practices and research going forward (Yawson, 2020). Organisations require significant changes and adjustments following each global crisis to survive and continue operation. Despite previous experience of crises such as terrorist attacks, ethics violation and natural disasters, not many organisations were adequately prepared for the Covid-19 pandemic, the implications for business operations, organisational adjustments, technological reconfigurations and human resource redeployment. Almost a quarter of all businesses paused trade or closed temporarily due to Covid-19 in the United Kingdom as of April 2020 (Statista, 2020). Sectors with the highest share of closure were those in entertainment, hospitality, recreation and arts. Reportedly, more businesses in the UK and around the world are at serious risk of closure in 2021 (Statista, 2020). Some

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organisations managed to make some HR adjustments to cope with remote working during the pandemic. Accordingly, people's way of life, how work is organised and how technology is deployed are significantly impacted and will continue to shape organisational practices and strategies post-COVID-19 pandemic (Yawson, 2020). Without doubt, there is a need for strategic flexibility to sustain effective practices deployed by these organisations during the crisis as well as reconfigure old practices to facilitate organisational continuity under the "new normal" and to prepare for the next crisis. The uncertainty associated with post-COVID-19 has implications for organisational behaviour and human resource management practices.

Human Resource Management (HRM) is an integral part of organisation reconfiguration effort. To effectively respond to workplace changes during the "new normal" (scenario where organisations maintain a hybrid of on-site and remote work arrangement developed in response to pandemic), adjustment to how we work, and work practices is recommended (Aitken-fox et al., 2021; Gardner et al., 2021; Venkatesh et al., 2021). This requires the human resource function to develop and deploy agile human resource management practices and systems to support organisations and their people during the "new normal" and in preparation for the next crisis (Aitken-fox et al., 2021). Such change will cut across hiring, employment relations, performance review, technology training and mental health and well-being (Aitken-fox et al., 2021) as adequate attention has been given to compensation, alternative work location, working conditions, employment relations, performance management, training, employee assistance programme and layoffs during crisis (Hamouche, 2021; Lockwood, 2005; Mankin & Perry, 2004; Premeaux & Breaux, 2009; Wang et al., 2009). However, absent from the literature is consideration around how organisations can reconfigure their human resource function to support their operations during the "new normal" (Aitken-fox et al., 2021) and beyond. An extensive literature search suggests key areas organisations have struggled in the current work-from-home (WFH) setting, as not all employees were able to manage the work-life conflict, changing expectations and new technology associated with WFH to perform without reporting well-being issues (Venkatesh et al., 2021). Therefore, this chapter seeks to explore ways organisational behaviour and human resource management practices could be reconfigured for the effective management of people during the "new normal" post-COVID-19 and in preparation for the next crisis. The chapter discusses the general impact of the pandemic on business operations and specifically focuses on hiring, technology training, employee well-being, employment relationship and performance review.

This chapter is organised into two sections. The first section explores the impact of the current pandemic on business operations in general. The section that follows provides insight and knowledge around how organisations could flexibly reconfigure human resource management practices including hiring, technology training, employee well-being, employment relationship and performance review practices to effectively respond to the "new normal" post-Covid-19 crisis.

2 Impact of Pandemic on Business Operations

Nearly two years into the formal declaration of the COVID-19 pandemic crises, policymakers, scholars and practitioners alike are yet to have a full grasp of the impact of the pandemic and the short, medium and long-term implications for business organisations. It is however clear that the COVID-19 pandemic has been an unprecedented situation resulting in widespread and significant consequences to people's life and health, the society and world's economy (Alam, 2020; Amankwah-Amoah et al., 2021; Office for National Statistics, 2021). Although, saving life, and people well-being are what matters most (Patton, 2021), and constituted the initial focus soon after the outbreak of COVID-19, the implications of the pandemic for businesses and the global economy is now quite crucial. As vaccinations begin to present some glimpse of relief, compared to early 2020 when there was no effective treatment, various stakeholders are now doubling efforts to avert further economic and social depressions and promote recovery (Cotton, 2021; Patton, 2021), despite the rising cases of different COVID-19 variants. Indeed, the pandemic has created difficult scenarios for businesses in terms of survival. The COVID-19 pandemic is a game-changer for the global business landscape including how organisations work, consumers behave and how to serve them would seldom remain the same (Alam, 2020; Amankwah-Amoah et al., 2021; McKinsey, 2021). Here, our analysis concentrates on the impacts of the pandemic for businesses and organisational changes that have taken place since the beginning of COVID-19. We further discuss how businesses can reconfigure their human resources (HR) and argue that the resource-based view (RBV) of firms and dynamic capabilities deployment remain crucial for organisations in the post-COVID-19 era.

3 Shutdowns, Sales Decline and Bankruptcies

According to a recent report by McKinsey (4 August 2021), the COVID-19 pandemic ushered in an era of shutdowns including travel-ban, revenue decline, hybrid work models and reversals. As Alam (2020) noted, directives by national governments and advise by relevant agencies, e.g., the World Health Organisation (WHO) implies that both private and public sector organisations were required to close (or shutdown) their operations and employees were advised to WFH to promote social distancing and curb further spread of the virus. Although the shutdowns (or lockdowns) were initially intended as a temporary measure for businesses, regrettably, it has since led to bankruptcies, job losses and permanent closure of many businesses (large and small) including well-known retail brands (such as Debenhams), in both developed economies, e.g., UK, and US, and in developing economies (Amankwah-Amoah et al., 2021; Patton, 2021; PWC, 2021). In the UK for instance, *The Guardian* (2021) report that more than 17,500 high street chain store outlets closed their shops for the last time in 2020, revealing how COVID-19 spurred the worst decline of businesses

on record. Cotton (2021) also chronicles that some of the biggest businesses or brands that went burst due to COVID-19 includes The Arcadia group (owners of Topshop, Dorothy Perkins), Mothercare, Harveys Furniture and Oak Furnitureland, to name a few.

Apart from the retail sector, evidence also suggests that the highest share of business closures was in the sectors of tourism (e.g., airlines and package holiday providers), hospitality (including hotels, restaurants, and pubs), entertainment (e.g., Cinemas), recreational services (e.g., gyms) and arts (e.g., museums) (Bank of England, 2020; Statista, 2020). Organisations in these sectors encountered not just restriction but also decline in sales/demands by consumers either due to change in priorities, lifestyle, loss of lives and income sources. Of course, there is no doubt that businesses and the wider global economy are primarily driven by consumer spending (Patton, 2021). Besides, the closures and decline in sales and revenue in these sectors also imply that while businesses of all sizes were affected, the SMEs are the worst hit. For instance, a survey in Q2 2020 indicates that there was about 30% decline in sales across these sectors than would have been (Bank of England, 2020). The effects of these closures and sales declines are also reflective in the statistics released by the HMRC, that some 9.6 million employees (jobs) including small business owners had been furloughed under the UK Coronavirus Job Retention Scheme (CJRS) as of September 2020. Moreover, the UK GDP had fallen by a record 20% as of 2020 Q2 (July), compared to Q4 in 2019 (Bank of England, 2020).

From a comparative standpoint, the impact of the shutdowns in the US seems even worse. A report by the World Economic Forum (World Economic Forum, 2021) indicates that “99.9% of all businesses in the U.S which qualify as small businesses, collectively employing 47.3% of the nation’s private workforce, ...have been the hardest-hit sectors amid the pandemic”, with about 34% of the businesses collapsing as compared to the situation in January 2020. Fairlie (2020) corroborates these findings by revealing that “the loss of 3.3 million active business owners from February to April 2020 was the largest drop on record”. The impact of this is evidenced in the decline of the US GDP by 31.4% as of the second quarter of 2020, and a spike in unemployment to 14.7% in the first quarter of 2021 (Patton, 2021). In Asia and Africa, there are also reports of significant setbacks for the countries’ economies and businesses, although Africa is considered as the region with the least of both COVID-19 infection cases and deaths, compared to Europe, America and Asia (see Amankwah-Amoah et al., 2021; Gondwe, 2020; Ratten & Ratten, 2021). The COVID-19 pandemic has had adverse effect on the global economy and on many businesses in terms of revenue losses, and survival. Nevertheless, the pandemic and its attendant mitigation and reactive policies all over the globe continue to raise concerns regarding the post-pandemic impact on organisational behaviour and future employment (Yawson, 2020). In fact, in countries like the UK, it is expected that the impact of the COVID on businesses can be more revealing after the winding down of the government’s Coronavirus Job Retention Scheme (CJRS) from October 2021 (Bank of England, 2020). It may continue to put pressures on extant businesses in terms of employment, and human resources management amidst change in consumer

demand, future-of-work dynamics, expectations and strategies required for competitive survival over time. Having reflected on the impact of the COVID-19 on global economy and business survival, a more refined consideration on the implication of the pandemic especially on organisations' responses, human resources management and their impact in relation to workplace, work and workforce is presented next (Carnevale & Hatak, 2020; Deloitte, 2020).

4 Workplace Changes: Work/Business Models, and Employees

The impact of COVID-19 on businesses has been particularly evidenced in terms of workplace changes including the organisations' business models, job design and how work is organised. Of the businesses that have not permanently closed, or still surviving, the pandemic forced organisations to reconsider and adapt where and how work or business is organised and designed, which in turn changed the experience of work for majority of employees (Collings et al., 2021). According to Deloitte (2020), the COVID-19 pandemic became a catalyst for changing the ways companies organise, operate, and behave. One notable change or response by organisations is adjustment in the business operations models through adoption of virtualisation of work (Deloitte, 2020), or alternatively, hybridised operation model not only as a temporary measure in compliance with national government directives intended to curtail the spread of the virus but, indeed, the way forward for business survival in the medium to long-term (Alam, 2020). Virtualisation implies that activities that were traditionally performed within the organisation's physical boundaries and employees who spent all or most of their time working in the office were forced to quickly adjust to remote working environment (Carnevale & Hatak, 2020; Deloitte, 2020). Or simply put, working-from-home WFH. The hybrid work model refers to how some organisations' mode of operation changed to include both working on-site (or from the office) where possible and WFH (Deloitte, 2020; McKinsey, 2021). Both virtualisation (WFM) and the hybrid models are facilitated by digital technologies (Ratten & Ratten, 2021), in terms of the way work is being transformed and mediated by digital tools such as Zoom (Foss, 2020) and internet of things, including online sales and service delivery. There have also been discussion and considerations around reversals, that is attempts to return to pre-pandemic configuration or some form of normality in terms of how activities were performed prior to the COVID-19 influenced lockdown, and the virtual/hybrid model of operations (Deloitte, 2020; Foss, 2020; McKinsey, 2021). In other words, it is notable that most organisations are deploying these models for the first time, trying to understand their efficacy and facing the critical question of whether the organisations/businesses should return to the way they operated hitherto, or to continue implementing new and flexible models of operation (Deloitte, 2020).

Although the WFH model existed even before the COVID-19 pandemic, it was different from the recent practices as it merely represented typically home-based businesses and self-employed peoples' working style (Alam, 2020). For most SMEs, WFH were not practices triggered by crises rather by organisations' growth in size and the associated challenge of having to accommodate all activities in one office block/location with appropriate resources such as computers, desks, space, parking and other amenities (Alam, 2020). For bigger organisations, the virtual/hybrid operations model was more about leveraging on opportunities presented by globalisation, lifestyle choices of employees and the advances in technology to accomplish strategic goals (Alam, 2020). However, as opposed to the former, the recent WFH/hybridisation as triggered by the COVID-19 implies that there were little strategic plans for them. Organisations and their employees were rather compelled by government responses to work in isolation from home or remotely, and to do that quite quickly. Therefore, it is quite different compared to normal circumstances in which managers decided on how to manage activities through appropriate job designs (Foss, 2020). Post-pandemic, a "McKinsey survey of 100 executives found that 90 percent of them envision a future with a combination of remote and onsite work, but 68 percent have no detailed plan on how it would work" (McKinsey, 2021). Our consideration is that the implications of the COVID-19 crisis and the WFH, or the hybrid models for organisations' business operations and for the employees are both challenging but present opportunities as well.

The recent situation has been notably challenging for organisations, and managers particularly in relation to defining, allocating and supervising organisational activities and processes, and enhancing employees' experience and well-being (Alam, 2020; Carnevale & Hatak, 2020; Deloitte, 2020). Research has previously documented the importance of a well-defined job design and how work is organised, performance is measured and the consequences of not having these in place (Collings et al., 2021; Deloitte, 2020). However, the implications of COVID-19 are such that employees working together on projects, or at the same sites were suddenly dispersed to various locations, with little or no real time for appropriate definition of job designs, and how work should be performed optimally (Alam, 2020). As organisations are now having to review the efficacy of their initial responses to COVID-19 including WFH and the hybrid model, emerging lessons being highlighted include the difficulty of ensuring smooth workflow with employees not being very sure of how work is shared among colleagues and what they are expected to perform (Alam, 2020). According to Foss (2020), under the COVID-19 it's become more difficult to organise situations including WFH, and hybrid model, reciprocal interdependencies in organisations.

5 Employees: Emotional Well-Being, and Motivation

The COVID-19 crises and organisations' adoption of virtual/hybrid business models also imply that employees' welfare and well-being have become crucial. For instance, the emerging evidence shows that "the proportion between on-site and remote work

employees will likely not bounce back to the former proportions because many employees have discovered the possibility of remote work and have come to like it” (Foss, 2020). Yet, there are also evidence that some employees have struggled with the WFH and would prefer a return to on-site working. A research by AVIVA reported that “40% of employees are concerned about work-related burn-out ...because the boundary between work and home has become increasingly blurred” (BBC, 2021). In other words, some employees have found it challenging to concentrate on their work due to distractions from their home environment (Alam, 2020). This implies that there could be potential for disparity between employee groups. The number of employees WFH, and those who cannot have increased due to the COVID-19 influenced virtual/hybrid working model (Collings et al., 2021), and the need for flexibility should be a key consideration for future of work. Besides, not all employee roles are suitable for WFH (Alam, 2020). In this light, Collings et al. (2021) argues that “the COVID-19 highlights the importance of considering the differential impact of strategic HRM across different employee groups in terms of how and where they work”.

Moreover, emerging observations also suggest that some employees have struggled or have fallen behind in terms of performance. In addition to issues such as those highlighted above, some employees have attributed this to inadequate or little training before the pandemic and subsequent dispersal to work in isolation at different location (Alam, 2020). Thus, post-pandemic, most employees would require retraining and motivation. This is clearly evidenced in a recent report by McKinsey (2021) that “the COVID-19 crises and subsequent move to hybrid working models accelerated the need for new workforce skills, particularly social, emotional, and advanced cognitive abilities”. For business managers, closing the skills gaps should be a higher priority, post-pandemic.

6 Why Dynamic Capabilities Matter?

Based on the emerging experiences, lessons, and findings arising from the COVID-19 crises, it is particularly argued that actions related to dynamic capabilities are crucial. While dynamic capabilities are being adopted since the challenges triggered by COVID-19 (Amankwah-Amoah et al., 2021), we argue that dynamic capability should be continuously prioritised, developed, and deployed in the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic. Both scholars and practitioners have previously acknowledged the key role of dynamic capability in facilitating organisational adaptation, and competitive survival under crises situations, uncertainties, and rapidly evolving environmental conditions (Fainshmidt et al., 2017), as evident by today’s world in which businesses have become not only riskier but also more volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous (VUCA) (Eisenhardt & Martin, 2000; Schoemaker et al., 2018). Dynamic capability refers to an organisation’s ability to integrate, build, and

reconfigure their competencies to address rapidly changing conditions or crises in the external environment (Ahn et al., 2018; Teece, 2014; Teece et al., 1997). The dynamic capability idea builds especially on the resource-based view of firms which argues that competitive advantage of firms depends on possessing resource base that are valuable, rare, inimitable, and non-substitutable (Barney, 1991; Teece et al., 1997).

Previous studies have highlighted that one vital organisation's resource base is their human resources/capital (managers and employees), and organisational processes may allow them to implement value-creating firm's survival strategies (Adner & Helfat, 2003; Barney, 1991; Eisenhardt & Martin, 2000). This is further confirmed under the recent COVID-19 crises with employees and HR managers especially at the epicentre of organisational responses and recovery decisions and action (Carnevale & Hatak, 2020). However, the RBV is limited since it is silent on how such human resources are refreshed to maintain its utility under rapidly changing circumstances (Barney, 1991; Teece et al., 1997) typical of the human crises and experiences of organisations since the COVID-19 pandemic (Carnevale & Hatak, 2020). The dynamic capability view (DCV) extends the RBV by arguing that rather than just possession of resources, advantage over rivals is attained by honing and refreshing the organisations' resources and capabilities continuously as the environment evolves (Teece et al., 1997). Eisenhardt and Martin (2000) further note importance of time and managers by arguing that dynamic capabilities (DCs) can be used to enhance an organisation's resource configuration in pursuit of long-term competitive advantage, mainly by using the DCs "sooner, more astutely or more fortuitously" than rivals in the ecosystem.

Teece et al. (1997) further suggests that dynamic capabilities are underpinned through processes involving managers' commitment towards sensing opportunities or threats, seizing, or mitigating the identified opportunities or threats by reconfiguring the organisations' resource base to match the changes in the business ecosystem. Helfat et al. (2007) further note that the DC also involves the search for resources and capabilities, their selection, investment and deployment, and their consistent reconfiguration to adapt to changing conditions (Helfat & Martin, 2015). Evidence from previous studies suggests that routine human resources practices in organisations can seldom lead to sustainable competitive advantage and success since rivals are likely to imitate (Amankwah-Amoah et al., 2021).

7 HRM Reconfiguration Post-COVID Crisis

HRM is about how organisations employ, manage, and develop people (Hamouche, 2021). However, this process has been generally impacted by the pandemic. As a matter of fact, human resources are undoubtedly one of the main victims of Covid-19 pandemic. The fundamental impact of the pandemic can be seen on employee well-being and performance while continually working from home following government social distancing measure intended to curb the spread of the disease without cure

at the time of writing this chapter. It is therefore imperative for employers through their human resource management function to ensure that employees maintain good mental health and well-being and the technological competencies needed to perform while WFH. More specifically, the HR function is expected to reconsider and reformulate human resource management strategies and practices relevant for attracting and enhancing the well-being and technological competencies of employees with the right attitude to optimise their effectiveness during (Memon et al., 2021) the “new normal” post-crisis (Aitken-fox et al., 2021). The literature on crisis management underpins the critical role that HR function can play during crisis (Nilakent et al., 2013). Farndale et al. (2019) observe that strategic HRM provides organisations with corporate advantage to add value (more than other functions) in times of crises by managing both the flow of talent as well as driving a culture that encourages flexibility and agility. Strategic HRM is used to describe the vertical link between HRM and organisation strategy, at one level, and the horizontal consistency between HRM practices, at another level (Hamouche, 2021). The rest of the chapter draws on a strategic HRM perspective in suggesting how HR function can develop practices that will help organisations create added value through people. The remaining chapter therefore delves into the literature on crisis management briefly before considering individual HR practices reconfiguration for effective deployment post-crisis during the “new normal”.

8 Organisation Crisis Management

Organisation crisis management involves organisations’ wide efforts to mitigate the effects of crisis, in this case the pandemic, on business operations and employees to help resume or sustain normal business operations (Pearson & Clair, 1998; Premeaux & Breaux, 2009). Moreover, despite the variations, crisis in this chapter refers to low possibility but high impact situation that is unexpected and unfamiliar precipitated by organisation structure, people, economies, natural disaster or technology (Rosenthal et al., 2001). By synthesising the literature on crisis management, Sayegh et al. (2004) identify six fundamental characteristics of organisation crisis which include (a) high ambiguity (b) low probability of occurrence (c) unfamiliar and usual (d) need for urgent response (e) threat to organisational survival and stakeholders and (f) need for urgent decision. Effort to manage crisis usually begins before a crisis but continues long after recovery (Premeaux & Breaux, 2009). Therefore, three major stages of crisis management include pre-crisis planning, response to crisis and recovery (Heath, 1998). Pre-crisis, managers develop strategies/plan around how to respond to crisis when they break out (Premeaux & Breaux, 2009). During crisis, managers draw on the plan/strategies in responding to crisis with hope to mitigate the impact (Castillo, 2004). During recovery, managers assess the impact of the crisis and attempt to return the organisation to its pre-crisis status drawing on the plan/strategies (Premeaux & Breaux, 2009). By reconfiguring HRM to respond

to employee needs identified during the pandemic, the HR function will be able to respond to work needs during the “new normal” post-crisis and during the next crisis.

In spite of variations in the antecedents (fire, natural disaster, finance, health) of what qualifies as crisis—all crises possibly create the need for talent, high morale/motivation, support programmes, alternative place of work, enhanced mental health and well-being, greater supervision, technology training and performance review for employees (Gardner et al., 2021; Liou & Lin, 2008; Venkatesh et al., 2021). Since all crises do not impact all organisations and their employees in a similar fashion, strategic reconfiguration of HRM as suggested in this chapter can serve the human resource needs of the “new normal” and the next crisis if applied to suit the individual needs of employees and their respective organisations. Following recent increase and complexity of organisation crisis, there is an increasing need for planned effort to mitigate crisis events on organisations and their employees (Aitkenfox et al., 2021; Memon et al., 2021). Premeaux and Breaux (2009) observe that crisis management is multifunctional, and that the HR function is a major department that can take adequate care of the people aspect of crises management. Without doubt, the HR function can make critical contribution by developing HR practices and strategies for organisations’ human capital (Deming, 2002). In doing this, we argue that more organisations should involve HR function in crisis preparation efforts as previous research by Fegley and Victor (2005) show that 22 percent of HR professionals observed that they have no role in their organisations’ disaster preparation.

Recent efforts in the past on how to manage crisis from a HR perspective has explored how to reconfigure and design pay (and benefits), leadership skills requirement, training and development, performance management, employment relations, employee assistance programme, alternative work location and layoff practices (see Farndale et al., 2019; Dirani et al., 2020; Liou & Lin, 2008; Nilakent et al., 2013; Premeaux & Breaux, 2009; Wang et al., 2016). However, previous studies failed to adequately explore (a) hiring and behavioural attitude required when hiring during crisis (b) technology training (c) well-being (d) employment relations and (e) performance review. Moreover, studies around the impact of the pandemic on employees working from home (see Gardner et al., 2021; Palumbo, 2020; Venkatesh et al., 2021) highlighted these as some of the main issues. To address this gap, then remainder of this chapter depicts how to reconfigure the identified HR practices to facilitate organisational continuity during the “new normal” and in preparation for the next crisis. The chapter now turns to consider the literature on how to reconfigure these HR practices.

9 Hiring

Hiring involves the recruitment and acquisition of skilled and knowledgeable people who can add value to their organisations. Pre-COVID-19, extant recruitment literature notes that organisations target job candidates in the external labour market through creative strategies such as online advertisements, university career fairs,

referral, consultant group, informal network, professional bodies and targeting individual employee profile on LinkedIn and Myspace (Cook, 2016). Following the successful identification of job candidates, organisations deploy several strategies in the selection of the most suitable candidate for the company. Oseghale et al. (2018) observe that these strategies include analysis of application forms, assessment centres, psychometric tests and interview with managers. Interviews are usually conducted face-to-face but following recent advances in technology, some organisations now conduct interviews online. However, the choice of which strategy to deploy is usually dependent on the position to be filled. Sophisticated strategies like assessment centres and psychometric testing are often deployed when filling highly skilled and knowledgeable positions. Most organisations may not consider these strategies while filling less highly skilled roles. Assessment is often targeted at personal skills such as communication skills, flexibility, adaptability, information technology (IT) skills and entrepreneurial skills for knowledgeable workers (Przytulai, 2014). Alternatively, organisations can also hire from internal talent pool based on current performance and/or potential to do the job (Przytulai, 2014). This practice will vary from one organisation context to another, however.

During crisis, such as the current pandemic, it is business as usual for some organisations even though others may decide to put hiring on hold. The reason is that some organisations have the need to hire new hands to fill key positions during crisis while operating from home. There is therefore the need to re-evaluate the pre-crisis practices while complying with safety and legal regulations around testing and WFH (Grensling-Pophal, 2020). For example, institutional regulations may not allow organisations to request job candidates to test for health-related disease during crisis or to decide not to hire a candidate who is not keen about working remotely. Organisations through their HR functions should create opportunities for all hiring activities (including assessment centre screening) to be conducted online (as well as on-site) to support work during the “new normal” or the next crisis where work on-site or WFH/alternate or both will be encouraged. Of course, technological platforms such as Skype, MS Teams, Google hangout will serve as very useful platforms for interviews and assessment centre exercises (Grensling-Pophal, 2020). By adding such online facilities to their hiring arsenal, HR function will be able to thrive in the “new normal”.

At another level, while organisations should continue to focus on communication, flexibility, adaptability, IT and technical skills (together with soft competencies), personal characteristics such as conscientiousness and pro-active personality should be made important during the “new normal” when hiring (Chen et al., 2021; Gardner et al., 2021). While soft and technical competencies are important for the job itself, personal characteristics such as conscientiousness is required to complete work to standard and perform with less supervision under stressful condition while WFH. In a recent WFH study, Palumbo et al. (2020) found that work-life conflict is one of the big issues associated with WFH during the pandemic. Thus, conscientious behaviour is needed to mitigate work-life conflict. Gardner et al. (2021) found that personal characteristics such as conscientious behaviour enables employees to manage work-life conflict associated with WFH. Chen et al. (2021) add that such proactive personality

is associated with several positive outcomes at work. Employees high in proactive personality possess higher perceived strength use which is useful for mediating the relationship between proactive personality, well-being and performance (Chen et al., 2021). As a result, conscientious personality characteristics will be relevant in the “new normal” as conscientious employees are the most strategic and performing (Venkatesh et al., 2021). IT skills should also be emphasised as technology has made it possible for organisations and their employees to keep working from home during the crisis (Dirani et al., 2020). At managerial and supervisory levels, organisations and their HR functions should emphasise inter and intra-personal, stress management, social awareness skills and the technological skills required to conduct hiring activities online. Dirani et al. (2020) found that these skills were key for organisations that effectively managed employees working from home during the pandemic. Supervisors with high level of compassion and empathy emerged to be the most effective during the crisis (Nilakent et al., 2013). It is hard to generalise these for all organisations; thus, organisations should personalise suggested recruitment efforts.

10 Technology Training

Recent Covid-19 study by Dirani et al. (2020) found that HRD plays an important role during and post-crisis through efforts to develop relevant competencies. Training and HRD activities involve organisational efforts to equip new employees with organisation specific skills as well as upscale the skills level of long-standing employees for current and future job needs (Oseghale et al., 2018) and performance both at individual and firm levels. Pre-Covid-19, organisations develop a range of competencies such as managerial, technical, soft and cross-cultural competencies among their employees through various on-and-off-the-job strategies depending on their skills’ needs (Crossman & Clarke, 2010). Training sessions were mostly conducted on-site but with recent technological advances, e-learning has also become a useful platform for many employers (Oseghale et al., 2018).

During the “new normal”, of course, organisations through their HR functions can modify the focus of training and training medium to reflect recent changes. HR reconfiguration in this respect should focus, first, on IT skills as much as other core competencies required to do the job. Pre-Covid-19, most organisations without remote work arrangement only focused on the core competencies required to do the job. Arguably, nearly all organisations should develop skills required to do the job as well as skills required to do the job through relevant technological platforms such as Zoom and MS Teams during the “new normal”. During the pandemic, through the support of advanced technology (Dirani et al., 2020), Dwivedi et al. (2020) found that most employees including academics were required to do their jobs remotely. Dirani et al. (2020) observe that some of these employees were not having the technological competencies required to do the job remotely. WFH while trying to develop these competencies led to stress, well-being and performance issues on the part of some employees (Butler & Jaffe, 2021; Venkatesh et al., 2021). Moreover, training

programmes should be designed to help employees develop conscientious characteristics relevant for WFH under stress (Venkatesh et al., 2021). Notably, efforts required to develop the compulsory IT skills and proactive behaviour needed to work from alternate source (home) during crisis will not only help during the next crisis but also during the “new normal”.

Second, some organisations did not adopt any form of electronic training platform before the pandemic. Without doubt, the present pandemic has highlighted the need for e-learning platforms in many organisations (Dirani et al., 2020). In a diary study of Engineers WFH during Covid-19, Butler and Jaffe (2021) found that Engineers WFH at Microsoft experienced stress and mental health issues following increase in working hours. Drawing on another Covid-19 study, Venkatesh et al. (2021) found that some employees WFH had issues with maintaining performance levels. Of course, this experience projects the need for an e-learning platform to support well-being and wellness training programme and competencies training online to support well-being and performance level of employees working from home during crisis and beyond during the “new normal”.

11 Well-being Management

At work, employers are responsible for the health and safety of their employees (Hamouche, 2021). As a result, they must ensure that the workplace (on-site or any alternative workplace) is free from all physical and psychological hazards that can result in well-being issues (Hamouche, 2021). The concept of well-being represents an ongoing process of psychological wellness. Thus, Ryu (2016) defines well-being as an individual’s perceived overall quality of psychological wellness and healthiness. Within work environment, the Chartered Institute of Personnel Development (CIPD, 2016) defines employee well-being as effort by employer to create a work domain that promotes serenity and contentment to allow employees flourish and accomplish their optimum potential to benefit both the firm and their employees. Of course, the well-being of employees depends on the quality of their working life supported by their employers through effective policies and initiatives geared towards employee benefits with the potential to enhance and sustain employee well-being.

There are two main dimensions of well-being according to Peccei et al. (2013). They include individual subjective experiences at work, otherwise called happiness well-being (Grant et al., 2007) and the physiological and psychological aspects of employee health at work which includes job-related anxiety and burnout. Both dimensions can be driven by the job itself in terms of how it is designed including the office environment and facilities (Szulc et al., 2021). Well-being can also be impacted by the relationship between employees and between employees and their managers (Salas-Vallina et al., 2021; Uddin et al., 2021). A poorly managed relationship will adversely impact well-being. Work-life balance is equally important as poor management of both domains may lead to adverse personal life and thus negative well-being (Hjálmsdóttir & Bjarnadóttir, 2021). Of course, ineffective management of work

life will lead to stress which is another determinant of adverse employee well-being (Chambel et al., 2015). Finally, employee compensation is another source of well-being problem as poor pay may lead to negative well-being experience and vice versa (Rony et al., 2017). Together, these factors impact employees' personal life, welfare, physical and psychological health and thus their well-being (Amanda & Sadida, 2018).

Recent Covid-19 studies suggest that challenges associated with the job, relationship between employees, and employees and their managers, work-life balance and the associated stress have all increased during the current WFH, leading to well-being issues for many employees during the pandemic (Palumbo, 2020; Palumbo et al., 2020). For example, as stated earlier, WFH requires employees to work in a new environment with new technology unprepared which is leading to a lot of stress. At the same time, WFH blurs the boundary between work and life as employees WFH during Covid-19 will have to work with their family members around at home. Failure to manage both domains very well will lead to poor work-life balance and thus stress. Even worse, the interaction and support offered by colleagues and managers is now very little which further compounds the problem.

To enhance well-being in the "new normal", Szulc et al. (2021) made the case for strategic reorganisation of work while taking current realities into consideration. Organisations need to develop family-friendly policies which will provide reasonable degree of flexibility. There is a need to review the way jobs are designed to ensure that employee well-being is at the heart of job design. For example, job demands should not be excessive to the point where they negatively affect employees' work-life balance which may lead to burnout and adverse well-being. This should be flanked with clear expectations with constant check-ins to see how employees are coping. Again, policies that forbid employees from working weekends and long hours should be developed and enforced (Gardner et al., 2021; Venkatesh et al., 2021). Organisations should also make effort to ensure that various well-being programmes are made available online or on-site. This will provide relevant support for employees WFH and those working remotely.

12 Employment Relations

Recent increase in the term "employee relations" can be traced to the disintegration of industrial relations system and the quest to recast the field more broadly not least to cover the formal and informal aspects of people management at work (Blyton & Turnbull, 2004). However, the term employment relations might be a better label according to Edward (2003). Employment relations refer to the distinctive characteristics of overall employment relationships both collective and individual between employers and their employees (Debrah & Mmieh, 2009; Hamouche, 2021). To understand employment relations, it must be located within wider legal, political and

social-economic structures (Debrah & Mmieh, 2009). Good employment relationship between employees and their employers drive the kind of participation, satisfaction, motivation and innovation relevant for organisation performance (Debrah et al., 2018).

Challenges associated with Covid-19 have transformed the traditional relationships (both collective and individual) between employees and their employers (Hamouche, 2021). The current WFH has made it difficult, at a collective level, for employee representatives to bargain employee needs (Sagan & Schüller, 2020) with employers. At an individual level, participation through suggestion schemes and other participation schemes to enhance creativity, motivation and performance has been made almost impossible (Hamouche, 2021). Some organisations have resorted to the use of virtual platforms for all employee representatives and management discussions since the pandemic. At the individual level, organisations are providing opportunities for employees to identify and suggest solutions to challenges associated with remote working. In preparation for the “new normal” and the next pandemic, the HR function should help their organisations develop both virtual and on-site platforms for employees to continue to relate with employers at both individual and collective levels.

Notably, governments that previously acted as regulators on employment relations matters have now taken the centre stage. They are now fully involved in planning the employment relations process (Sachs, 2020). New employment laws have been developed in different countries in response to the novelty of the pandemic (Hamouche, 2021). For example, in France, remote working cannot be imposed by employers as it is voluntary (Sachs, 2020). Going forward, HR function should identify ways to help organisations comply with laws developed during the crisis that may endure beyond the pandemic.

13 Performance Review

Organisations review the performance of their employees at intervals (quarterly, bi-annually and annually) (Lopes et al., 2014) in normal times to sustain organisation performance. Without doubt, a positive review outcome attracts reward in the form of promotion or an increase in salary/pay and benefits. Of course, negative review result usually calls for relevant organisation support in the form of training (Oseghale et al., 2018). However, where institutional regulation allows, the employment of the employee in question may be terminated after several training sessions (Stumpf, 2007) if progress is not made. Ideally, joint objective setting between line managers and employees precede performance review process and performance is evaluated against expected measures periodically (Oseghale et al., 2018).

Despite the recent pandemic, employees are expected to maintain performance standard (Hamouche, 2021). However, as employees around the world are working

remotely during the current pandemic, managers unaccustomed to conducting performance review remotely face challenges reviewing and providing feedback for subordinates (O'Connell, 2020). In fact, some analysts are asking whether performance review should continue during the pandemic. O'Connell (2020) found that some organisations decided to halt their performance review practice. Arguably, suspension of performance review practice during crisis is not recommended as the performance and well-being of many employees suffered during remote working as reported by several Covid-19 studies (Venkatesh et al., 2021). Rather, this experience highlights the need for supervisors and line managers to break down the artificial distance with employees working remotely during the crisis by getting in touch virtually continuously (Dirani et al., 2020). Another reason for encouraging constant check-ins is that performance and expectations around effort is not always clear during WFH in time of crisis (Venkatesh et al., 2021). O'Connell (2020) found that some supervisors did not wait till the end of the quarter, mid-year or annually to review performance to provide feedback for employees. Clearly, waiting too long may be too late. Some organisations developed automated performance system to review employee performance by the day, week, month and year (2020). This is good practice and the HR function should ensure that this sort of automated system to review performance on daily, weekly, monthly and yearly basis should be put in place during the "new normal" and in preparation for the next crisis where possible. However, this must be supervised carefully by the HR function in order not to violate the privacy of employees. Relevant and timely feedback and support in the form of competencies and/or well-being, training should be provided simultaneously where needed.

Additionally, WFH during crisis will pose some challenges for employees in terms of separating work and family life. Palumbo (2020) found that remote working during the current Covid-19 pandemic blurred work and family life boundaries. It will therefore be good for HR function to promote weekly remote engagement through line supervisors to help employees set clear goals as well as celebrate achievements post-pandemic and in preparation for the next crisis (Hamouche, 2021; Wang et al., 2016). Moreover, HR should promote policies limiting or prohibiting response to emails and conference calls outside work hours (Gardner et al., 2021; Venkatesh et al., 2021).

14 Conclusion

This chapter discusses the three implications of the COVID-19 pandemic on organisation's operational capabilities, business models and human resource management issues during and post-pandemic period. Drawing on both the resource-based view and the strategic HRM perspective, the chapter articulates how organisations could flexibly reconfigure human resource management practices including hiring, technology training, employee well-being, employment relationship and performance review practices to effectively respond to the "new normal" post-Covid-19 crisis. The need for new ways to manage both the organisations and their employees has been

more crucial since the emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020. As earlier noted, many business organisations across industry sectors, different geographical regions and countries have been forced to change the way they operate including their normal rules of engagement with clients/customers, suppliers and human resources. In particular, the responses from organisations suggest that they have had to quickly reorganise, restructure and reconfigure their organisations' workforce and business models to embrace especially, virtual operations model (VOM) including working from home (WFH), a hybrid approach of fully working on-sites, offices/stores where it is particularly necessary. Although the crisis presented significant challenges, we argue that it also presents opportunities for organisations that may dare to develop and deploy strong dynamic capabilities (Fainshmidt et al., 2017; Helfat et al., 2007; Teece et al., 1997) and ongoing human resources reconfigurations to not only facilitate their survival and recovery from the impact of the COVID-19, but also stay ahead of rivals in the post-pandemic era. The pandemic has had a fundamental impact in very significant ways on how organisations operate, deploy technology and use human resource, thereby creating some level of uncertainty post-pandemic (Yawson, 2020). These create new challenges and opportunities for both organisation behaviour and human resource development research, theory and practice post-pandemic.

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Impacts of the Covid-19 Pandemic on Human Resources Management: A Comparative Study of Brazil and Portugal



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Abstract The year 2020 was marked as the year in which the Covid-19 pandemic broke out. A pandemic of health origin of great proportion worldwide and that generated impacts in all segments, be they health, economic, social and organizational. The Human Resources Management (HRM) Department of the companies was called upon to act strongly in the elaboration of strategies of the human resources processes to mitigate the impacts of the pandemic on the preservation of workers' health, identification of the possibilities of adjustments in processes and activities of people management, and for the continuity of work activities. This study aims to identify how the organizations' human resources department was impacted by the Covid-19 pandemic for the continuity of carrying out people management processes, with a comparison between HRM practices in Brazil and Portugal. The interpretative paradigm was the methodological assumption used, with a qualitative methodology. Interviews were conducted with HRM professionals from Brazilian and Portuguese companies. This study confirms that the HRM of the interviewed companies in Brazil and Portugal was strongly impacted by the restrictions caused by the pandemic in people's management. These impacts were many and of different orders. They range from systems and processes to mental illness. To deal with the new situations that arise from this scenario, HRM must rely on the resilience, wisdom and humanization that some interviewees referred to as lessons to be learned from the pandemic.

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1 Introduction

Covid-19 was declared a world pandemic by the WHO on March 11, 2020 (WHO, 2020). It is a transversal, global and universal problem that had consequences at all levels, namely at the health level, in which it generated a high number of deaths and possible health consequences, at the psychological and emotional level. It brought, beyond health issues, consequences at the political, economic, social, cultural level, among others, and varied impacts on people's lifestyles. Focusing on the labor impact, this chapter intends to contribute to the identification of the changes and adaptations that the Human Resources Management (HRM) developed in companies in Brazil and Portugal.

The differences between Brazil and Portugal in the treatment of issues related to the Covid-19 pandemic and the political and economic decisions that were adopted at each stage during the evolution of the pandemic, had an immediate impact on the decisions that companies in each country took in safeguarding workers' health, in business strategy and in maintaining productivity. These decisions by the companies were also influenced by "long and successive confinements [which] caused constraints in operations, forcing them to look for alternative ways to maintain their activity, either by reinventing their business models or redesigning their processes, but also investing in new technologies to support their business processes, collaboration and telework" (Samartinho & Barradas, 2020, p. 3). On the other hand, within this organizational context, the Human Resources Management department of the organizations was strongly asked to participate in these decisions. This study aims to identify how the organizations' human resources department was impacted by the Covid-19 pandemic for the continuity of carrying out people management processes, with a comparison between HRM practices in Brazil and Portugal. In particular, it is intended to analyze changes in recruitment and selection processes, in training systems, in the way work is organized, namely with the use of telework, and the impacts on organizational culture that may be related to the Covid-19 pandemic. It also aims to analyze the changes that have taken place in the routine of companies because they have proved to be an asset for companies, workers or both parties (Samartinho & Barradas, 2020).

With the pandemic situation and seeking to guarantee the health and safety of all organizational actors, there was a rethink in relation to the maintenance of jobs, the business strategy and the continuity of operations by the companies. Thus, every effort had an effect because "effectively, in a few days or weeks, organizations were able to adapt at various levels, from the way they manage their business, to the way they manage their facilities and human resources" (Samartinho & Barradas, 2020, p. 3).

There are three research questions, which relate to the general objective of this chapter:

1. How have the effects of the Covid-19 pandemic altered some HRM practices in companies in Portugal and Brazil?
2. What are the main facilitators and hindrances in terms of HRM adaptation in dealing with the effects of the pandemic at the labor level?
3. What lessons can HRM learn from the crisis generated by Covid-19?

The research carried out is based on the interpretative paradigm, with the use of semi-structured interviews with managers of the HRM departments and a content analysis was carried out.

The remainder of this chapter is structured as follows. The next section presents a review of the literature about the evolution of HRM, the Covid-19 pandemic and crisis management in organizations, as well as reactions in crisis situations. The methodology of the study and a description of the participants are presented in the subsequent section. Next, the impacts of the Covid-19 pandemic on HRM is analyzed, based on the perceptions of the interviewees. These perceptions and opinions are presented in three main dimensions, following the research questions of the study: how have the effects of the Covid-19 pandemic altered some HRM practices in companies in Portugal and Brazil; what are the main facilitators and hindrances in terms of HRM adaptation in dealing with the effects of the pandemic at the labor level; and, what lessons can HRM learn from the crisis generated by Covid-19. The final section offers a conclusion.

2 Literature Review

2.1 *The Evolution of HRM: Some Theoretical Considerations*

The current human resources management function has undergone changes over time, the first period being called Personnel Administration (around 1900–1960) characterized by the absence of any connection to the business and strategic decisions of organizations (Armstrong, 2008; Brandão & Parente, 1998).

The next phase of evolution (around 1960–1980) called Personal Function, began “to have humanist concerns allied to the enhancement of workers’ motivation in carrying out activities” (Serrano, 2010, p. 10). Thus, it initiates the change in the paradigm of the worker as a cost in favor of the conception of the worker as an investment, in order to achieve the organizations’ goals, “in other words, the idea that people can contribute to improve the organization of work and the functioning of the organization begins to prevail” (Serrano, 2010, p. 11).

From the 80s of the twentieth century, with the advent of market globalization, new information technologies and greater freedom of transit for products have developed. HRM is now based on the contingency perspective, which defends the idea that,

in order to be effective, an organization's HRM policies must be consistent with each other and with the policies and practices of other areas of the organization's management (Armstrong, 2008; Baird & Meshoulam, 1988). Thus, HRM is considered strategic insofar as it adjusts to the organization's circumstances and contributes to the definition and implementation of its strategy. In this way, the objectives of the HRM are to ensure the alignment between people's behavior and the organizational strategy, in addition to programming policies and practices that promote it (Armstrong, 2008; Baird & Meshoulam, 1988). The contingency theory argues that "... in complex, threatening and competitive environments, companies' internal structures become organic, communicative, participatory and based on informal relationships" (Serrano, 2010, p. 5).

Given the evolution of HRM and the theories that have developed along this historical path, it is important to identify how the effects of the pandemic have altered HRM practices in companies, in the context of Portugal and Brazil.

2.2 The Covid-19 Pandemic and Crisis Management in Organizations

Regarding the magnitude of the impact of the SARS-CoV-2 virus, Sobral (2020, p. 269) said that "the fact that the virus does not spare anyone led to characterizing the epidemic as democratic, as it made no social distinctions". However, there is no consensus, with those who defend that there is no significant difference between the victims of the pandemic and, on the other hand, those who defend that the difference existed, and that the pandemic particularly affected the poorest (Sobral, 2020).

The pandemic has cities as its backdrop, as the virus transmission seems to occur more strongly in urban environments. Cities have become communication hubs, being the arrival and departure point of people from different cities, becoming a context for contagious diseases to spread at a high rate of speed (Buckeridge & Philippi, 2020, p. 141). The globalized behavior that humanity has adopted, without borders and limits for circulation, may also have favored the rapid contagion and the spread of the virus. According to Sobral (2020, p. 266), "It is not the virus that causes the epidemic, but the human being. The virus is sedentary; it has no means of locomotion. In order to move, the virus has to pass from body to body. The word epidemic comes from the medieval Latin word 'epidemic', which, in turn, would be rooted in the Greek 'epidemos', with 'epi' being what circulates in the 'demos' (people)".

There are some indicators that make it possible to measure the quality of a city's response to extreme events such as a pandemic. They are, according to Buckeridge and Philippi (2020, p. 141): (1) care with contacts (social isolation); (2) the use of scientific knowledge to guide actions; (3) the design of public policies to control the spread of the disease; and (4) the provision of services that enable the care of the sick and prevent deaths. In fact, "the better the local performance in cities, the

lower the number of deaths and the lower the subsequent socio-economic impacts” (Buckeridge & Philippi, 2020, p. 141).

What is surprising is to think that even with all the evolution and technological apparatus in which the world finds itself, a means of control was not identified that would immediately limit or reduce the spread, the level of contamination and the lethality of the virus, ending up causing widespread panic (Morgado et al., 2020). Despite all this technological and research evolution, what can reduce and prevent the contamination by the virus is physical distance and social isolation. According to Morgado et al., (2020, p. 4), “we were quickly led to a new paradigm that is neither immunological nor neuronal, whose contours still to be defined generate a growing anxiety that ends up reflecting in different areas of our life”.

Furthermore, a crisis situation as complex as the one that the Covid-19 pandemic brought to the world, affected all organizations regardless of their segment and size. Every type of crisis brings a context of uncertainty and insecurity and organizational crises impact the lives and routines of workers. In addition to the concern of companies regarding reduced productivity, the effects on workers’ mental health, as a result of prolonged exposure to anxiety and tension, cannot be neglected (Ruão, 2020).

Gama (2000, p. 536) states that “managing a crisis involves elaborating a series of questions such as, for example, what is a crisis, when did it occur, why did it occur, which publics are involved, what are the harmful effects provoked, what measures to implement and what lessons to draw for the future”. The more troubled an environment, the more important is the existence of adequate communication systems so that information is clear and accurate, and top management must pay great attention and importance to this aspect. The effectiveness of communication in times of crisis makes it easier for people to better understand the insecurities generated and their impacts, helping them to deal with what happens, in addition to bringing greater confidence in the performance of the leadership (Ruão, 2020).

In preparing a crisis plan, beyond the relevance given to communication systems, it is also important to monitor and consider the “factors that may be at the origin of the crisis, organizational elements (technical and human) likely to trigger a crisis situation, not neglecting signs that might reveal a hypothetical crisis situation, highlighting the target audiences that may affect the crisis (favorably or unfavorably) or that may be affected by it” (Gama, 2000, p. 538). The more timely risks are mapped, the faster it will become to generate a risk mitigation plan so that decision-making is well-directed, avoiding the improvisation of responses to the crisis (Velin & Flacher, 2020).

2.3 Reactions in Crisis Situations

The emergence of the new coronavirus brought significant changes to the current context of society. These changes that impacted on the notions and practices of health, presented new ways for the safety of social coexistence, and, of course, aspects that influenced the way of conceiving and carrying out work. The organizational

world already demanded from the worker a greater adaptation and resilience to the innovations and transformations that work and its practices were having. However, the pandemic created unprecedented and, at the same time, indispensable conditions for the continuity of work tasks (Losekann & Mourão, 2020).

Overnight, practically everything changed. People had to stay confined at home for as long as possible, most workers started working remotely from home, and many of their daily habits changed. Psychological responses have also undergone changes since the pandemic began, and include: “the fear of contracting the virus, the fear of having affected family members, the sadness caused by the isolation and change of important plans, the uncertainty regarding the end of the confinement, the anxiety caused by the physical distance from family members, the mourning for the loss of family members and /or friends, apprehension in relation to the social and economic impacts of the crisis and fear of the increase in family violence” (Morgado, 2020, p. 10). These fears have led many people to have experienced symptoms of stress, anxiety or fear.

When considering the behavioral reactions that workers can present in times of crisis, Losekann and Mourão (2020) list some of the reactions, which can range from eating disorders, such as lack of appetite, sleep disorders, mood swings that can generate interpersonal conflicts, to psychological disorders, such as anxiety and panic attacks or stress. For example, “a major challenge in managing people in a teleworking regime is the perception, at a distance, of the mental health of workers. The establishment of good communication and interaction practices between team members is essential for managing people in this context” (Losekann & Mourão, 2020, p. 74). Given that teleworking was one of the alternatives that organizations used during the pandemic and that it will probably last in the post-pandemic, HRM must assess the positive and negative points of this initiative, taking into account aspects such as worker’s health, practices communication, integration between the teams and the maintenance of the employees’ commitment.

It is important to realize the relevance that work has for people in this crisis scenario. For some, work can be a resource that avoids imbalance, being a counterpoint to other situations that bring insecurity. For others, work can assume a support function, guaranteeing maintenance, even with adaptations, of a set of routines in the worker’s life. For another group of people, the fact of working reduces the feeling of abrupt stop that the confinement caused and can be a catalyst for the worker to come up with creative or less usual solutions for this new reality (Giust-Desprairies, 2020). HRM and organizational leaders must devote attention and greater support to workers who experience feelings of uncertainty and permanent anxiety as a reflection of this external crisis (Giust-Desprairies, 2020). Another type of behavior, according to Giust-Desprairies (2020), that should be monitored is related to workers who invest heavily in work, which in this case can represent an escape from feelings of anguish and concern. These professionals demonstrate hyperactivity, an exaggeration in the actions they perform and request from the people around them a similar behavior, which can disturb the evolution of teamwork.

The pandemic brought, in addition to public health issues, great challenges for the global economy and the world of work. Workers all over the world are going

through a great test, whether due to the loss of their jobs and monetary rewards, the growing use of remote work or because they find themselves in situations where carrying out work activities leaves them exposed to possible contamination. HRM has an additional task to all process management and support to teams and strategies to obtain results, which is to identify solutions and create alternatives together with organizations and various stakeholders to overcome or reduce the serious impacts that are already taking place in the job market.

3 Methodology and Research Method

The methodological position followed is the interpretative one, aiming to analyze qualitative data that help to understand people's perception and feelings, their points of view and perspectives on the studied reality (Bogdan & Biklen, 1994). This study used interviews with 17 participants, HRM managers who continued to develop their functions with the beginning of the Covid-19 pandemic period. The interviews were carried out remotely via the Zoom platform. This is a convenience sample, although there was a concern to have companies from different sectors, sizes and areas of activity.

The interview guide consisted of questions about the organization represented by the interviewee, namely, which business segment, the number of employees, the location of the headquarters, the structure and number of persons in the HRM department. Regarding the interviewees, the questions were about their role in the HRM of that organization, their specific educational background and seniority in the company, followed by specific questions referring to the impact of the pandemic on the HRM processes.

Content analysis was the method adopted for data analysis (Bardin, 1977; Quivy & Campenhoudt, 2005). The analysis of the information collected through the interviews carried out was based on the criterion of categorization. As mentioned by Bardin (1977, p. 117), "categorization is an operation of classification of constituent elements of a set, by differentiation and, subsequently, by regrouping according to gender (analogy), with defined criteria". The creation of categories was based on the literature review, together with the research questions and objectives of this investigation.

The step of creating the categories represents the identification of what the elements identified in the interviews have in common with each other, which connects them and can be grouped. To obtain the categories, according to Bardin (1977, p. 118), two steps are necessary: "the inventory to isolate the elements and the classification, which divides the elements and, therefore, seeks or imposes a certain organization to the messages". From the categorization, the raw data are obtained in a simplified version. In this study, categorization considered the process in which the categories were defined and the elements were grouped as they were identified in the content analysis.

Tables 1 and 2 show, by interviewee and organization, the information regarding the sample. To facilitate identification at the time of data analysis and, at the same time, guarantee the preservation of the anonymity of respondents, the abbreviation COV was defined as the nomenclature for Brazilian companies, followed by letters in alphabetical order, ending with BR, resulting in COV-A-BR, COV-B-BR and sequentially for all 10 Brazilian companies. For Portuguese companies, the acronym VIR was designated, also followed by letters in alphabetical order and ending with PORT, such as VIR-A-PORT and so on, until completing the 7 Portuguese companies (Table 3).

Table 1 Profile of interviewees

Interviewee	Gender	Academic qualifications	Professional category	Seniority in the company	Duration of Interview
COV - A - BR	Female	Degree in Psychology	Manager	0–5 years	52 min
COV - B - BR	Female	Master in Administration	Manager	0–5 years	1h20m
COV - C - BR	Female	Master in Administration	Director	0–5 years	1 h
COV - D - BR	Female	Master in Administration	Manager	0–5 years	1h17m
COV - E - BR	Female	Degree in Psychopedagogy	Director	0–5 years	1 h
COV - F - BR	Female	Degree in Psychology	Manager	6–10 years	1 h
COV - G - BR	Female	Degree in Sociology	Coordinator	0–5 years	1h15m
COV - H - BR	Female	Degree in Psychology	Coordinator	0–5 years	40 min
COV - I - BR	Female	Degree in Psychology	Coordinator	0–5 years	1h20m
COV - J - BR	Female	Degree in Pedagogy	Manager	+ 20 years	55 min
VIR - A - PORT	Female	Degree in Administration	Coordinator	6–10 years	41 min
VIR - B - PORT	Female	Degree in Human Resource Management	Coordinator	0–5 years	1h05m
VIR - C - PORT	Female	Degree in Administration	Manager	11–20 years	40 min
VIR - D - PORT	Female	Degree in Administration	Manager	+ 20 years	38 min
VIR - E - PORT	Female	Degree in Biology	Coordinator	6–10 years	37 min
VIR - F - PORT	Female	Degree in Human Resource Management	Coordinator	0–5 years	32 min
VIR - G - PORT	Male	Master in Business Management	Manager	+ 20 years	46 min

Table 2 Characterization of companies

Interviewee	Country	Business sector*	Area of activity	Number of workers	HRM team
COV - A - BR	Brazil	Harbor	International	501–1000	11–20
COV - B - BR	Brazil	Industry	International	+ 5000	Over 40
COV - C - BR	Brazil	Technology	National	101–500	Up to 10
COV - D - BR	Brazil	Services	National	101–500	Up to 10
COV - E - BR	Brazil	Industry	National	1001–5000	Over 40
COV - F - BR	Brazil	Logistical transport	National	+ 5000	Over 40
COV - G - BR	Brazil	Finance	National	501–1000	21–40
COV - H - BR	Brazil	Technology	National	0–100	Up to 10
COV - I - BR	Brazil	Commerce	National	501–1000	11–20
COV - J - BR	Brazil	Industry	International	+ 5000	Over 40
VIR - A - PORT	Portugal	Services	International	0–100	Up to 10
VIR - B - PORT	Portugal	Services	International	101–500	Up to 10
VIR - C - PORT	Portugal	Health	National	101–500	Up to 10
VIR - D - PORT	Portugal	Commerce	National	101–500	Up to 10
VIR - E - PORT	Portugal	Industry	International	501–1000	Up to 10
VIR - F - PORT	Portugal	Services	National	101–500	Up to 10
VIR - G - PORT	Portugal	Services	International	0–100	Up to 10

Note The business sector was identified according to the classification in force in each country and as informed by the interviewees

Table 3 System of categories and subcategories

Research questions	Categories	Subcategories
1. How have the effects of the Covid-19 pandemic altered some HRM practices in companies in Portugal and Brazil?	• Most impactful processes	• Administrative Technical area Hygiene, Health and Safety • Training
	• Recruitment and selection changes	• Recruitment and selection almost entirely online
	• Reception of new workers	• Remote hosting experiences
	• Work Model Management	• Telework and the presence of technology before and after the pandemic
	• Organizational culture	• Rites, Rituals and Celebrations
2. What are the main facilitators and hindrances in terms of HRM adaptation in dealing with the effects of the pandemic at the labor level?	• Productivity during the pandemic period	• Participation in meetings and technical training
	• Confinement effects	• Impacts on Mental Health
	• Debureaucratization	• Process Simplification
3. What lessons can HRM learn from the crisis generated by Covid-19?	• Learnings	• More contemporary performance • Promoter of changes • Humanized HRM • Resilience capacity

To develop a system of coding categories according to Bogdan and Biklen (1994), some steps were taken: data reading to identify patterns and regularities, define words or phrases that represent these patterns and these words will be the coding categories. These categories are a way to classify the collected data to separate them from each other for later use in data analysis. A brief summary of the starting questions and the categorization developed are presented in Table 3.

4 Impacts of the Covid-19 Pandemic on Human Resources Management

In this section, the results achieved through the seventeen interviews carried out with HRM professionals from Brazil and Portugal will be presented and analyzed.

4.1 *How have the Effects of the Covid-19 Pandemic Altered Some HRM Practices in Companies in Portugal and Brazil?*

The answer to this question soon appears in the literature with Samartinho and Barradas (2020) when they refer to organizations' relatively quick adaptability in terms of structure, systems and processes, and forms of work. By comparing the authors' statement with the data obtained, it was possible to confirm that this adaptation to the new context was part of the reality of all organizations participating in this study. According to the interviewees, the processes of technical-administrative management, hygiene, safety and health at work, training, recruitment and selection, reception and integration, management of the work model and systems for maintaining the organizational culture, were the ones that suffered the most impacts and transformations with the pandemic.

4.1.1 Most Impactful Processes

Regarding questions in the **administrative technical area**, the interviewee from the company COV-G-BR states: "(...) what happened when the pandemic came was the maintenance of 100% of people at home. (...) and the impact on HR management processes was greater in personnel administration and in recruitment and selection". According to the interviewee VIR-D-PORT:

... when everything started, we closed the factory and the stores and we were closed for as long as they forced us to stay and this had an impact on invoicing, it had a huge impact and also on the part of our human resources. Our employees felt quite insecure when they

were working. [...] Recruitment and selection and training were the two processes that really changed the most during this period of the pandemic.

Another aspect mentioned mainly by Brazilian respondents was the strong digitization and simplification of the processes in HRM departments. In the words of interviewee COV-H-BR: “the personnel department has changed, to be honest it has even gotten better in some things. We had, for example, the personal signature process that had to be in person, now everything follows the digital platform and the matter is resolved”. Even when hiring young apprentices, which is part of the legal quota system of Brazilian companies, the digitization carried out by the personnel department has simplified processes, as reported by COV-I-BR “(...) I hired 15 young apprentices with a contract that was signed remotely”.

As a counterpoint, Portuguese respondents reported that the processes of the HRM department are still being digitized, which gained strength with the pandemic. Interviewee VIR-C-PORT says “(...) but this I think came before the pandemic, now everything will go through the computer system (...), in other words, the objective is to avoid everything that is paper. Of course, we often know that this is not the case (...), but I think the pandemic has shown that this effectively has to be the way forward”.

Regarding issues in the area of **hygiene, health and safety** at work, in the interviewee's company VIR-E-PORT, as it is an industry, the interviewee immediately realized the need for joint action by the team in this area with the other areas of the department of HRM. In the words of the interviewee:

Since the pandemic started, one of the things that has actually increased is the activity in the human resources department, due to all the legislation, all the declarations that were necessary, all the controls and everything what we know in terms of social security procedures, but mainly discharges, medical examinations and the issue of implementing our Covid contingency plan which was promptly developed and implemented by the Hygiene, Health and Safety at Work technician.

Another important aspect is that even in the companies that have the structure of Hygiene, Health and Safety at Work independent of the HRM department, there was a joint action, having carried out many actions in relation to the health aspect, as shown in the interviews. Interviewee VIR-E-PORT mentioned:

The company already had a contingency plan, but it was a much more superficial thing compared to what we had to do now with Covid-19 and the requirement of procedures associated with our contingency plan. [...] as it is a multinational company, the protocols that were created in other countries were already required by the company and depending on the number of cases we had in the country, we had to implement more demanding procedures, according to the risk levels.

This way of functioning described in the previous citations is in line with the study by Serrano (2010), that is, the external environment has a great influence on the organization and is reflected in the strategy and performance of HRM. An example can be seen in the questions put to the interviewee's company VIR-E-PORT by the workers, which resulted in the implementation of anticipated changes to the Portuguese government's determinations, as transcribed below:

... when at the beginning of the pandemic, the use of masks which at the time in Portugal was not yet mandatory and the World Health Organization (WHO) still said that when used it could even be worse... we had some problems when asked if the WHO does not recommend why are you making us use this? And that's it, there was also a struggle here against these ideas, as we were at the forefront of legislation that would impose such a requirement later on. (VIR-E-PORT)

For companies that have a large proportion of workers in operational activities, the changes that the pandemic brought in the aspects of Hygiene, Health and Safety at Work were diverse, as in the report of the interviewee COV-F-BR:

Another very strong impact was the question of the number of people that we removed. Together with the medical field, we mapped all the people who were at-risk groups over 60 years of age. Those over 60 years of age and those other people who, regardless of age, were considered by the WHO as a risk group, we excluded 100%. If the person was an administrative person, he/she continued to work from home, but no longer went to the company. Those who are not administrative, for example, a machinist, I can't give them an activity (...) we turned people away 100% for the company, but everyone continued to receive their salary and receive benefits.

From the above quotes, it is possible to see that the HRM departments, in Brazil and in Portugal, of the companies represented by the interviewees, were asked to act very quickly to support and contribute to the organizations' strategy. This very quick response from organizations is supported by a contingent perspective, based on the idea that, to be effective, an organization's HR policies must be consistent with each other (horizontal alignment) and with the other policies of different organizational areas (vertical alignment). Moreover, these strategies depend on the context, type, nature and circumstances of organizations (Armstrong, 2008; Baird & Meshoulam, 1988; Serrano, 2010).

Another subcategory often cited by respondents in Brazil and Portugal was related to the training process (**Training**). Interviewees' reports show this subcategory as an activity that underwent changes throughout the pandemic, including in leadership development programs. For example, interviewee COV-B-BR states that:

The leadership academy was a global academy held face-to-face until the onset of the pandemic. So, all the training that took place before the pandemic took place in Sweden. [...] they do not intend to stop doing this in person, but they adapted all the training, now virtually, so the training does not stop. The quality of interaction has nothing to do with face-to-face compared to online. The transition was very fast!

For companies with operational public, the impact on mandatory training was strongly felt, as reported by the manager COV-A-BR:

We had a lot of impact on mandatory training because we really stopped, the legislation gave us this permission, postponing the validity of training, so this helped us so that we could really adapt because some groups went online. Development processes went online, with a strong impact on HRM, because we had to reinvent it overnight, but you can not change everything to technology overnight. Thus, some trainings continued in person, however in larger rooms and with fewer people in the room.

Portuguese companies have also experienced changes in terms of worker training. In the opinion of the interviewee VIR-D-PORT, it was a moment to maintain the

connection with workers who were on layoffs and who felt unmotivated with such a situation:

We took advantage of the confinement last year to do training, so people were at home in layoffs and we did a 360 training, all our human resources, regardless of category, were trained, more or less intensively, during April 2020. Everything was 100% via Zoom, everything online. There was good adherence by human resources for this training.

Added to this experience is the report of the interviewee VIR-C-PORT, from the hospital area, an area that acted so strongly throughout the pandemic period, and which reinforces how the training actions were modified and the perspectives are to be maintained online:

We are a group with several units in Portugal and now also in Madeira Island and the trainers were doing training around the units. In 2020, with the pandemic, everything stopped [...]. Now the training changed, that is, it was completely reorganized and almost all training is online and costs are avoided. There are no more travel costs for trainers. And for people, they can take the training now online, at any time at work, that is, we no longer have to define that it has to be that day, at that time, in the classroom and everyone has to be present. [...] There are trainings in which it is essential that they be in person, but most of the trainings, at this time, will continue in this online register.

The quotes above are representative of what the interviewees reported regarding the way and process that was adopted to carry out and maintain training processes and how this transition to online was experienced. According to Tanure (2021, p. 1), these somewhat abrupt changes in organizations occur because “the pandemic forced companies to accelerate their digital transformation movements. They occurred suddenly, intensely and, for the most part, disorganized. That is how big changes happen, pushed by external factors, and not by *management* deliberation” (2021, p. 1, emphasis in the original). As Ribeiro (2021) said in an interview given to Oliveira (2021) from *Notícias Magazine*, in the online edition of April 21, 2021: “There is no way to stop. You cannot stop the wind with your hands, you cannot stop this dematerialization of everything”.

4.1.2 Recruitment and Selection Changes, Reception of New Workers and Work Model Management

The next three categories present a sequence of HRM processes and activities that are now adjusted to the online format, which are: recruitment and selection, welcoming new workers into companies and managing the work model. With the advent of the pandemic, these activities, which until the pandemic were almost entirely face-to-face, took on different forms, from the totally remote to the hybrid model.

The category **recruitment and selection changes** highlights recruitment and selection as a process that has undergone transformations in this pandemic period and which has great relevance for organizations, as it seeks to identify the best and most suitable professionals in the labor market for the composition of teams. This process was mentioned by respondents as the most computerized. Of the 17

interviewees, 15 mentioned that the entire process was carried out internally by the company, but only 4 (Portuguese companies) did not perform any step remotely. The others already had some stage of this process carried out online, whether it was an interview with HR, knowledge assessment or selection tests. “We carried out the selection processes practically all online, with online interviews, very few face-to-face interviews and those that were face-to-face with the entire health protocol” was what the interviewee COV-A-BR said. The interviewee continued by saying: “In operational areas it is more complicated, because people have little access to technology, but in other functions we were able to keep it online without any problem, test application, all of this online”. In the words of the interviewee COV-D-BR, “the recruitment process that used to be face-to-face is now entirely online [...] today I do not have any in-person recruitment process, all of them have taken place online”.

Moving to the Portuguese context, and in the words of the interviewee VIR-F-PORT: “Usually the recruitment process during the period of confinement was being done online, (...) we did not stop, we continued to recruit online, via Zoom”. In turn, the interviewee VIR-C-PORT argues that:

Recruitment was carried out in the face-to-face model due to the specificity of the business, which is a hospital [...] in terms of selection and interviews we always continue to do it in person, we started to make a first selection online, but then we moved on to face-to-face [...] we always did it individually. Here, we do not use this form of interview for doctors. The clinical management recruits doctors because they have a very specific profile. As for the nursing staff, administrative staff and assistants, the entire process goes through the human resources department. Hence, we say that later we make the final in-person selection, at this stage with all the sanitary precautions, but it was in person because we need to assess and see if, effectively, the candidate has the profile we need.

According to Andrade (2020, p. 110), “crises are processes that, at some point, all organizations, or physical or legal entities will go through. Being attentive, watching, managing a crisis, getting the best out of it, taking advantage of opportunities is, for organizational management, a daily exercise”. It seems that the organizations managed to withdraw from this pandemic the so-called benefit for the recruitment and selection process.

After the recruitment, selection and admission of the new worker to the company, the reception stage is reached (**reception of new workers**), also called **onboarding**. This is an important HRM process, since at this time the new employee starts to feel part of the company and knows more deeply about the work activities for which he was hired. Among the practices of Brazilian and Portuguese companies to which the interviewees belonged, there was a migration from face-to-face training to the online model. As mentioned by interviewee COV-G-BR:

Another practice, which is onboarding, where you get to know all the areas of the bank and the other five companies that make up the group, it was already being all online, it was no longer being in person. So the managers recorded videos for the person to know the entire history of the bank (...) so that was great! Then a motorcycle boy would go to the person's house to take a computer and an onboarding kit that we have: a notebook and other materials. The provisional card related to the health, food and meal plan was already delivered.

The interviewee COV-C-BR highlights the fact that as people started the activities in a remote model, it was necessary to take care to carry out a more detailed onboarding in relation to the organizational structure, so that the new employee could have a broader view about the most important connections in future interactions.

Interviewees from Portuguese companies reported less about the experience with remotely welcoming new employees, however the respondent VIR-B-PORT mentioned: “as we were prohibited from traveling between municipalities, we made the host environment completely online [...], although I have no doubt that being in person would always be better to have this first contact with the company to understand and feel the process”.

As for the **work model management**, eminently developed in a face-to-face model by organizations, it was transferred to the telework or hybrid format due to the pandemic. This change was one of the most significant changes of this pandemic period among interviewees’ reports from both Brazilian and Portuguese companies. The technology made possible a panoply of possibilities that organizations could experiment with the resources available in this pandemic scenario, and telecommuting was applied as a way to minimize workers’ exposure to SARS-CoV-2 contamination (Cunha, 2020; Losekann & Mourão, 2020).

This transition from the face-to-face work model to remote work, in the quick way in which it was carried out, in order to contain the impacts of the pandemic on workers’ health, brought some challenges, as mentioned by the interviewee COV-D-BR:

We put 75% of people at home and we put a very large volume of people on vacation and many other people at home with no activity. For example, the company had 35 interns and I could not make them have activities. So we gave vacations to these young employees and we made a decision later that it was no longer possible to continue with the internship contract.

The interviewee COV-E-BR reported that:

The administrative, legal, financial, HR, communication support functions were all carried out under the home office system. The operation, maintenance and laboratory employees remained at the company. We adjusted transport, restaurant, medical service to ensure distance. As mining and logistics were considered essential, there was no stoppage.

The same transition from face-to-face to remote work was identified in Portuguese companies. According to the interviewee VIR-D-PORT:

For people in administrative activities, the office part, 90% did telework [...] there is work here by two teams that we have, which are the buyers and the people who issue the invoices, without these purchases and those purchases from the supplier and sales to our final consumer, 70% of this team was on layoff, during the period in which the retail trade was forced to remain closed.

However, the interviewee VIR-C-PORT describes an opposite situation regarding teleworking in a company in the hospital segment:

Here the idea was exactly the opposite. All clinical professionals, doctors, nurses and assistants had to be even more present. The situation implied a lot of extra care and even all our administrative reception staff and office support staff also had to be present. In other words, what we had to ensure was that all our human resources were safe, so the first phase was

to understand what we could do to create safe conditions and safe working conditions for them, so that they faced this difficult situation with some ease. That is what I say, in most companies everyone went home, in our case we all stayed here. Few administrative services went into telework.

Also with regard to telework, according to the interviewees' reports, it is possible to see the reactions to this experience during a time of pandemic, where some of the reports already present solutions to the questions raised. The interviewee COV-F-BR found that:

The number of meetings increased. People have a time to start activities, but they do not have a time to finish. Therefore, last month we started trying to implement what we call the "Política do Cuidado" [Care Policy]. The president sent an email to all employees, saying that every day, between 12:00 and 13:30, is the company's lunch time, so no one can have a meeting at this time. In addition, we all try to finish all meetings by 6:30 pm. The next step will be to establish a day of the week without meetings so that people can read and respond to emails, make a more specific call. [...] It is a great impact for people to manage their work time.

Some reactions to telework are associated with technological and furniture issues in workers' homes that affect ergonomics, as mentioned by interviewee COV-H-BR, "people have difficulties, mainly in terms of structure, because the network is not the same as the one at the office, the network at people's homes is not the same, which has an impact on telework". A mesma situação é reforçada pelo entrevistado COV-F-BR:

We started to realize that many people are not prepared to work at home, either because of equipment or because of ergonomics. Employees began to present several aspects to be taken into account, especially people with disabilities, who find everything adapted in the office, but do not find that adaptation at home. After that, we started to think about what is being done at the company and the solution was to provide a monetary benefit so that the necessary ergonomic equipment could be purchased.

Interviewees from Portuguese companies, as can be seen in the reports that follow share these perceptions.

... [telework conditions] was one of the concerns, and we were even asked in organizational terms to raise awareness related to this. Therefore, we had a lot of communication and awareness raising, which at the time was sent to all people who were teleworking. We also had a questionnaire that was carried out [...] in corporate terms and that was sent to all employees, where it made a small assessment of people's contentment, like the conditions they had at home. We also sent the message that we were here on this side as well to help with any problems that might arise. At the time, we made available many of our equipment such as chairs and monitors for people. We have kept proper records of our equipment inventory, but we have made it possible for people to take a variety of equipment home. And they even started to give more value to what we have in the office. (Interviewee VIR-E-PORT)

This dimension of telework in the work management model provides an overview of the challenges faced by companies to make telework as effective as possible for the reality of workers. On the other hand, it also demonstrates how much the workers in this way of working also experienced challenges to adapt to the work routine in relation to time management, ergonomics, among other aspects. Policies presented

or under development by companies in relation to timetables, benefits for purchasing equipment to ensure ergonomics, workers' learning of new work tools, new forms of communication, validate some of the issues addressed in the literature (Carmo et al., 2020; Losekann & Mourão, 2020; Marques, 2020; Tanure, 2021).

4.1.3 Organizational Culture

The organizational culture category aimed to identify the impacts that occurred on the organizational culture of companies due to the pandemic. However, the interviewees still report that it is not easy to see whether these impacts on culture have occurred, and if so, to what extent and what is their nature. According to interviewee VIR-D-PORT, "in terms of culture, I would say that little or nothing has changed. It takes so long to strengthen a bond between people, the organization's culture".

In the opinion of the interviewee VIR-E-PORT, the culture of constant change may have favored cultural adaptation resulting from the effects of the pandemic: "here at the company, people had to adapt very quickly. The automobile industry has always been an industry with many changes, so effectively the employees who work here are very used to quickly adapting to organizational and process changes".

The rites, rituals and commemorations of organizations are moments to reinforce the organizational culture according to Freitas (1991), Schein (1996), Nepomuceno (2013), Cunha et al. (2007), Tanure (2021) and which are highly valued. This question was raised with the interviewees to find out how the pandemic affected the holding of these events. According to the interviewees' reports, and comparing Brazil and Portugal, Brazilian companies held more events than Portuguese companies, which may reflect a trait of the Brazilian nationality culture that may have influenced the organizational culture of companies in that country.

Based on his experience, the interviewee VIR-A-PORT says: "we were so overwhelmed that we could not figure out what day it was. [...] Besides, there was not time, there was not time to know if it was Father's Day, Mother's Day or if it was our birthday...".

Regarding the impact of the pandemic on rites and commemorations, the interviewee COV-E-BR says that "it affected a lot, the end-of-year party was replaced by a Christmas Kit, which, however much it was celebrated, obviously did not have the same affection from previous celebrations. The birthday celebration of the month was replaced by a gift to be celebrated with the family, which was also very well-received".

Finally, and according to the interviewee COV-A-BR, the events, commemorations continued with adjustments resulting from the pandemic: "the company celebrated ten years, but we wanted to give people a gift. So we made a party box for all employees, sending each one home, with a cake, balloons, sweets, snacks and soft drinks so that he could take a picture with his family from the celebration and post it on the social network".

4.1.4 What are the Main Facilitators and Hindrances in Terms of HRM Adaptation in Dealing with the Effects of the Pandemic at the Labor Level?

The answer to this question, based on the reports of the interviewees, in what concerns **productivity during the pandemic period**, highlights that the opportunities for training carried out remotely, the crisis committees that were created in some companies to analyze the issues of the pandemic and the resulting decisions implemented in the companies, were facilitating elements. On the other hand, issues related to the unavailability of computer data network, restricted structure of computer equipment so that workers could start teleworking quickly, were listed as obstacles both in Brazilian and Portuguese companies.

A common action found between Brazilian and Portuguese companies that mapped the critical issues of the pandemic was the creation of a crisis committee, as described by respondent GOV-G-BR: “right from the start, a crisis committee was created, with human resources, information technologies, medicine, processes, operational risk and financial risk. These areas had to participate in order to be able to map all the risks”.

Among the difficulties encountered, the mobilization of workers to work at home, with conditions to carry out activities in a remote format, for the functions that allowed it, is highlighted. The data capacity for accessing the computer network during the teleworking period also added as a hindrance. According to the interviewee COV-G-BR:

The biggest problem was taking everyone home because a lot of people worked only on the desktop. Most people did not have a laptop...] the area I have has more than 100 employees, it's the customer service and no one had a laptop... Then a lot of people had to take their own computer home. The company paid Uber; there were people who wanted to take a chair too, it was up to the person to take it, but then little by little, a notebook replaced everything. For security reasons, it was necessary to have VPN available to everyone, so it was that rush, despite IT had to provide it, everything turns to human resources.

On the other hand, the technical preparation of professionals is a facilitator of the confinement process, which developed more during the layoff period. This aspect, according to the interviewee VIR-D-PORT, reinforced the skills of workers in the company's stores and allowed them to be ready to resume activities with more and better knowledge, skills and abilities, allowing them to respond more adequately after the reopening of stores.

The category **confinement effects** brought relevant mentions in the subcategory referring to impacts on workers' mental health. Both respondents in Brazil and Portugal reported that there were issues related to mental health due to the pandemic period related to isolation and telework. This situation was especially aggravated for working mothers due to the combination of a heavy working routine, as they have a mixed shift between work and domestic tasks. In addition, there were schools that closed and children at home were an added reason for concern and impact on performance. As the interviewee VIR-C-PORT mentioned: “it was immediately an added difficulty because we had schools to close and we have many mothers who had to combine childcare and work. So we now understand that all our staff were

exemplary and everyone made an extra effort to continue to maintain good service at the hospital, while having to manage all the issues at home”.

O entrevistado COV-F-BR acrescentou:

Those who are alone say “I can’t stand being in my house alone anymore” or those who have children say they cannot work under these conditions and the company now has the option for those who want to be able to work in the office, they are open, but it is optional. There were people who asked to come back because they were getting sick while staying at home, so the company made it optional.

Finally, the reduction of **bureaucracy** and simplification of processes had a favorable impulse that respondents relate to the pandemic and which is perceived as a positive result. However, there were also aspects that made it difficult, such as the mobilization of workers for telework without having notebooks available, adequate chairs to carry out the workload with adequate ergonomics, the lack of a data network sufficient for everyone to be connected at the same time, among other reports. However, these situations were resolved over time. The results are in line with the Tannure study (2021, para. 1) that describes this somewhat abrupt arrival of these digital and even structural transformations in organizations.

Systematizing, the team meetings and trainings are highlighted by the interviewees as facilitators throughout the pandemic, among the actions developed. These moments were used by the HRM to respond to the need to pass information on to people and calm the anxieties that arose. As Ruão (2020) emphasizes, the more troubled an environment, the more clear and accurate information favors the creation and existence of a climate of trust, showing that actions are being taken in favor of the best for all. And the trainings also fulfilled the expected role of training workers both for the new form of work in progress, as well as preparing them for the resumption of activities.

Among the complicating factors, the interviewees reinforced the issue of workers’ mental health, especially those who were or those still in telework. This issue was not mitigated during the pandemic and will deserve attention from the HRM for the post-pandemic management of the work teams. Aspects of mental health, extreme tiredness, depressions that were already noticed during the pandemic, may continue to appear among teams of workers in organizations, as side effects of the period lived in the last year and a half, as signaled by Velin and Flacher (2020) and Giust-Desprairies (2020). The HRM should pay special attention to these aspects, which, as mentioned by Giust-Desprairies (2020), workers are demonstrating as a reflection of the uncertainties and anxieties during the pandemic.

4.1.5 *What Lessons Can HRM Learn from the Crisis Generated by Covid-19?*

To answer this research question, respondents were asked to find out what lessons HRM learned from the pandemic. These learnings are associated with the maturity of the professionals, the business segment and the experiences in the HRM in which the professionals are inserted.

For the interviewee COV-C-BR:

The HRM is always that area that is the promoter and that has to think about actions for people. And we had a big challenge to solve. I think what remained, at least for me, is that we are much more capable of making the changes that we always wanted to make. For this, it is necessary to think outside the box. And how much we had to really put the rhetoric into practice. I think the positive side of this showed that we no longer have an excuse to say that we are not going to implement changes, we no longer have an excuse, we just have to learn what the importance of HRM processes, policies and practices actually is.

For the interviewee COV-B-BR, people being at the center of the strategy is a learning experience for HRM resulting from this pandemic. In the interviewee words:

I think the great thing about HRM is that we are not the owners of the school we are the educators. The educator in the sense of expanding possibilities of working together on solutions. And I think that if the leadership model is also a very retrograde model, we are to blame, because we never gave the leader the autonomy he should have had since the beginning of a process, we always say he is responsible for the leadership, but we go there and run his house. We never thought about bringing people into the strategy. So I see that today we are much more prepared to understand what a relationship is strategically, which is a relationship to seek solutions and to be able to actually involve people.

In turn, the interviewee COV-D-BR highlights the humanization on the part of the HRM as a learning experience, mentioning that:

A strong learning started in seeing people as people within organizations, another thing that was extremely important which is a flattening of hierarchy in companies. A director could have Covid and an operational professional could too, and then everyone is treated the same. So this brought people together, this implied a very strong learning of humanity and a very great care for people, a relationship of much greater trust.

Valuing and motivating human resources is the learning highlighted by the interviewee VIR-D-PORT, when he mentions: “What I learn from this confinement is the fact that human resources have a great capacity for resilience, which exceeds some expectations. However, if human resources are not recognized, they are very easily discouraged”.

From the perspective of the interviewee VIR-E-PORT, people’s safety, health and resilience are great lessons learned from this pandemic period. In the interviewee words:

The company has always prioritized the safety and health of employees. We try to have a culture of safety and proximity to employees that has always existed and is part of the organization’s habits; however, I think it was easier to demonstrate to employees that the concern with safety is undoubtedly very important for us with this issue of Covid-19. We know that if people do not feel safe and feel unhappy with what they are doing, they do not produce.

The interviewee VIR-B-PORT highlights the aspects she considers crucial, as follows:

I think that we initially learned three major lessons: one is the issue of the flexibility of remote work and the benefits of one’s own self-responsibility. I think that the pandemic only came to prove that people feel, as long as they are trained for it and as long as there is good

communication, more productive and feel more recognized and motivated with a demanding type of leadership, which is self-responsible, than with a very controlling leadership. I think that is the way to go, flexibility and a lot of self-responsibility. As a second learning, we have to talk about the issue of digitization. I think that talking about digitalization will have, at least in the reality of Portugal, I do not know how it is in other countries, to understand that this will only be possible if there is a concentration between the desire of companies and the desire of the government. [...] digitization cannot be just on the companies' side, there must also be a desire on the part of governments and the existence of policies in this regard. Another fundamental pillar is undoubtedly the question of mental health. I think it was an advantage, it was an eye-opener and it was a learning experience and it has been very positive. It is helping not to stigmatize mental health, especially when people started noticing cases of people who had never had any kind of problem, such as anxiety, and with this Covid-19 issue, they found themselves with panic attacks. [...] I think that the pandemic brought us this eye-opener, I think that these are going to be the three main pillars that the pandemic brought us.

The lessons learned indicate a closer action by the HRM, which integrates what was experienced throughout the pandemic with what comes next, that is, which represents changes in the performance of companies in relation to people, as mentioned by Tanure (2021). In short, acting with a more contemporary and humanized perspective, in order to deal with workers by understanding their personal needs and values and equating this with the company's culture and labor practices. They incorporate the ability to make the work of the HRM more flexible with the unforeseen events that can happen in the workers' routine, combined with the development of leaders and the implementation of innovation, agility and strategic positioning of human resources.

5 Conclusion

This study's main objective was to identify the changes in HRM as a result of Covid-19 pandemic. From the study developed, it is demonstrated that the processes that HRM performs have all gone through some type of change or transformation, to a greater or lesser degree, whether it is digitization or simplification due to the pandemic. According to the interviews, such changes brought gains for those who carry out the activities, which is very positive, considering that the focus of HRM professionals should be the support and development of professionals and the organization's leadership, promoting the alignment of the organization's strategy with HRM practices and policies. These changes allowed to gain time given the rapid evolution throughout the pandemic, and will therefore allow redirecting the role of HRM in companies to its essence.

Teleworking was one of the solutions most strongly implemented by companies in general in different countries. However, there are not only the positive points reported, as due to the long period of exposure to this type of work, tiredness and weariness is already felt in different types of workers. This situation has already been perceived by companies as an aspect to be taken care of for a healthy continuity of this type of work. The HRM of organizations has already presented some solutions

and policies that can help this work model not be “burned out” or “failed”. After all, and according to the interviewees, both workers and companies already think of the hybrid model as a format to be implemented post-pandemic.

According to the results of this study, the mental health of workers is an issue that, in fact, should be on the agenda of HRM professionals for the next few years. It is essential to take care of people’s health and adapt the organizations’ business strategy. Finding the balance will be the big differentiator for the success of organizations. Furthermore, it is still too early to assess the consequences that this entire process will have on everyone’s lives.

Leaders were forced to make decisions and act in the heat of the pandemic and had the support of companies to implement such actions, according to interviewees’ opinions. However, as the vaccination process progresses and the return to face-to-face work approaches, there will probably be a need to rethink the actions taken and to develop leadership to work in a new environment, possibly managing teams in a hybrid model.

Comparatively, Brazil and Portugal had many similarities in the interviewees’ answers regarding the questions that were presented. In some aspects, the behavioral traits of Brazilian culture reflected in more affective actions, in order to ensure greater involvement of workers even with the challenges of distancing caused by telework, as observed in the events, rites and celebrations carried out throughout the pandemic period. These affective actions are very important for the individual commitment and maintenance of the relationship between the team members and the company and, according to the literature (Freitas, 1991; Nepomuceno, 2013; Schein, 1996; Serrano, 2010), the realization of these moments reinforces the organizational culture of the companies.

Returning to the main research question of this study, about the impacts of the pandemic on HRM, it is clear that there are many and of different orders. They range from systems and processes to mental illness. To deal with the new situations that arise from this scenario, HRM must rely on the resilience, wisdom and humanization that some interviewees referred to as lessons to be learned from the pandemic, which will allow writing the next chapters on the evolution of HRM in organizations.

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