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Contenido

Editorial

Indicadores de Desempeño para Corregir la Desigualdad Socio-Económica

TRADICIONALMENTE, LA medición psicológica se ha enfocado en la producción de medidas que reflejen el desempeño actual de las personas en un dominio determinado. En contextos académicos, lo que esto significa es que el objetivo de la construcción de pruebas e indicadores es producir una medida del nivel habilidad actual de un estudiante, sin tener en cuenta sus condiciones de desarrollo o aprendizaje. Bajo estas condiciones, una prueba estandarizada (e.g., el Saber-11) presentará un indicador cuantitativo similar para dos estudiantes con desempeños similares, provenientes de contextos socio-económicos diferentes. Un estudiante A, en este caso hipotético, viene de un contexto privilegiado, ha tenido una alimentación adecuada, acceso a una educación de calidad, a un sistema de tutorías y a recursos socio-culturales abundantes. Un estudiante B ha crecido en circunstancias desfavorables, en una escuela de muy baja calidad, y sin acceso a los recurso a los que el estudiante A ha tenido acceso. A pesar de esto, el estudiante B ha tenido un desempeño igual al del estudiante A. Esto es, este estudiante ha logrado compensar los efectos de las circunstancias desfavorable en las que ha crecido. La medición psicológica, sin embargo, no ha desarrollado un indicador claro de este desempeño diferencial. Una universidad o un empleador que esté mirando los resultados de estos dos estudiantes para tomar una decisión no podrá saber que el estudiante A es un estudiante con un desempeño promedio o inferior al de su grupo socio-económico, una desviación estándar por debajo de la media de su grupo, mientras el estudiante B es un estudiante sobresaliente que se encuentra varías desviaciones estándar por encima de las personas de su grupo socio-económico. Esto es, la medición tradicional naturaliza diferencias que son, en si mismas, el producto de diferencias contextuales.

Una solución a esta deficiencia es la creación de un indicador que indique el desempeño comparativo del estudiante frente a su grupo socio-económico. Este indicador debería presentarse junto al indicador tradicional para darle una señal adecuada del potencial real de cada estudiante. La construcción de este indicador no es para nada compleja. Si se tienen datos socio-económicos, es posible correr una regresión prediciendo el desempeño a partir de los indicadores socio-económicos, y usar el residual de cada estudiante cómo un indicador de desempeño comparativo. Un estudiante que esté por encima de la recta de la regresión es un estudiante cuyo desempeño es superior a lo que se predice por su origen socio-económico, un estudiante que este por debajo de la recta sería el caso contrario. Para que facilitar la interpretación, el residual del modelo debe estandarizarse. En casos donde se puedan tener varias medidas para el mismo sujeto, se pueden utilizar estrategias de valor agregado (Zeghal & Maaloul, 2010). Para el caso colombiano, el ICFES ya ha desarrollado el INSE, un indicador socio-económico que puede ser utilizado para este fin.

La implementación de este indicador comparativo y, más ampliamente, la construcción de una teoría de la medición que atienda a las diferencias socio-económicas

de los estudiantes y le de señales a los mercados laborales y académicos de su desempeño comparativo se justifica por varias razones. En primer lugar, la psicología del desarrollo ha señalado desde hace muchos años la importancia de atender al desarrollo potencial que se produce en interacción con lo social (Walshaw, 2017). Es claro que un estudiante que está por encima del promedio de personas de su origen socio-económico utiliza de una mejor manera los recursos disponibles en su contexto. Es altamente posible que, si esta persona es colocada en un contexto enriquecedor en términos educativos y socio-culturales, y con los apoyos materiales adecuados, su rendimiento exceda al de una persona de un desempeño absoluto similar pero comparativamente inferior en relación con su grupo de referencia. Una segunda razón se fundamenta en el imperativo filosófico de corregir la desigualdad originada en circunstancias aleatorias que, por definición, no son resultado de las decisiones o el esfuerzo de los sujetos (e.g., Rawls, 2020). Por ejemplo, nacer y crecer en circunstancias socio-económicas desfavorables es un resultado del azar natural, no de una decisión deliberada del sujeto. A pesar de esto, la medición tradicional no corrige por estas circunstancias y presenta únicamente indicadores absolutos de desempeño. Acompañar dichos indicadores absolutos de indicadores comparativos permite corregir en alguna medida este tipo de situaciones.

Los programas de admisión especial y la acción afirmativa han sido establecidos para corregir estas desigualdades. Sin embargo, la lógica de estos programas es difícil de entender para una gran mayoría de la población y para muchos actores de la política pública. Un indicador comparativo puede hacer comprensible la lógica detrás de este tipo de políticas, además de presentar una información importante a los sistemas de admisión educativa y laboral. Este indicador permitiría a los empleadores y oficinas de admisión balancear el desempeño actual de un candidato con el desempeño potencial, lo cual permitiría tomar una mejor decisión. Una importante característica de este indicador comparativo es que funciona como un nudge, lo que evita tener que forzar decisiones en las organizaciones educativas o empresariales (Sunstein, 2014). En otras palabras, presentar el indicador comparativo junto con un indicador absoluto envía una señal a las organizaciones pero no requiere obligarlos a tomar una decisión u otra. Desde la Revista Colombiana de Psicología queremos invitar a los investigadores en psicología a explorar el uso y efectos de este tipo de indicadores comparativos, junto con otras herramientas, como el DIF (Cho et al., 2016) que se utiliza para capturar ítems que discriminan contra poblaciones específicas. Creemos que desarrollando este tipo de herramientas, la medición psicológica puede contribuir a corregir las desigualdades que por azar afectan a las personas desde su nacimiento, a aumentar las oportunidades para una gran mayoría de la población, y para visibilizar el esfuerzo que estudiantes y familias realizan para sobreponerse a las circunstancias que les tocó vivir.

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Artículos

On the Positive Side of Work-Family Interaction: Development and Validation of the Short Work-Family Enrichment Scale (SP-WFES-6) in Argentina

Validation of the Short Work-Family Enrichment Scale in Argentina

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to develop and to, subsequently, validate a Spanish version of the Short Work-Family Enrichment Scale (SP-WFES-6). Using cross-sectional (N = 438) and multi-wave (N = 103) data from a sample of workers with different backgrounds, this paper conducted a thorough examination of the psychometric properties of the SP-WFES-6 in terms of its internal consistency, test-retest reliability, dimensionality, factor invariance, gender invariance, convergent validity, discriminant validity, and predictive validity. The results from the CFA revealed that the SP-WFES-6 comprised two factors and that this two-factor structure remained statistically invariant across gender and sample. Furthermore, both factors reported adequate levels of internal consistency, test-retest reliability, convergent validity, discriminant validity and predictive validity. Altogether, the findings of this study demonstrated that the SP-WFES-6 is a reliable and valid instrument to measure work-family enrichment in Argentina and, possibly, in other Spanish-speaking countries.

Keywords: work-family enrichment, job satisfaction, burnout, validation.

El lado positivo de la interacción trabajo-familia: desarrollo y validación de la Escala Breve de Enriquecimiento Trabajo-Familia (SP-WFES-6) en Argentina

Resumen

El propósito de este estudio fue desarrollar y, posteriormente, validar una versión en español de la Escala Breve de Enriquecimiento Trabajo-Familia (SP-WFES-6). Utilizando datos transversales (N = 438) y longitudinales (N = 103) de una muestra de trabajadores diversos, este artículo realizó un examen exhaustivo de las propiedades psicométricas de la SP-WFES-6 en términos de su consistencia interna, confiabilidad *test-retest*, dimensionalidad, invariancia factorial, invariancia de género, validez convergente, validez discriminante y validez predictiva. Los resultados del CFA revelaron que la SP-WFES-6 constaba de dos factores y que esta estructura bi-factorial se mantuvo estadísticamente invariable según el género y la muestra. Además, ambos factores reportaron niveles adecuados de consistencia interna, confiabilidad *test-retest*, validez convergente, validez discriminante y validez predictiva. En conjunto, los hallazgos de este estudio demostraron que la SP-WFES-6 es un instrumento confiable y válido para medir el enriquecimiento trabajo-familia en Argentina y, posiblemente, en otros países hispanoparlantes.

Palabras clave: enriquecimiento trabajo-familia, satisfacción laboral, burnout, validación.

Introduction

THE NATURE of the interaction between work and family has received a great deal of attention in organizational psychology research, resulting in a large number of studies published in high-impact journals in the last five decades (e.g., Herman & Gyllstrom, 1977; Beutell & Greenhaus, 1983; Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1992; Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000; Gordon, Whelan-Berry, & Hamilton, 2007; Masuda, McNall, Allen & Nicklin, 2012; Kalliath, Kalliath, & Chan, 2017; Carlson, Thompson, Crawford, & Kacmar, 2019). This scholarly interest in work-family interface partly reflects the need to shed light on the dynamics between both domains as means to design organizational strategies and public policies that, on the one hand, buffer negative spillovers and, on the other hand, boost positive interactions (Powell, Greenhaus, Allen, & Johnson, 2019). These efforts are thus fundamental to promoting healthy work environments, long-lasting employee-employer relationships, and positive attitudes both inside and outside the organization (Carlson, Ferguson, Kacmar, Grzywacz, & Whitten, 2011).

For decades, research has approached work-family interactions from a conflict perspective, focusing on the factors and mechanisms that lead to interferences between both domains (Byron, 2005). In this context, work-family conflict (WFC) has been defined as a type of role conflict in which the demands from family and work domains are mutually incompatible to some extent, so that participation in one role makes participation in the other more difficult (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003). Thus, drawing on the so-called 'scarcity hypothesis', studies within this research stream have shown that individuals in such conditions are more prompted to experiencing a depletion of energy and valued resources (Lu & Kao, 2013), which is likely to lead to negative outcomes, such as job dissatisfaction (e.g., Shockley & Singla 2011), burnout (e.g., Haines III, Harvey, Durand, & Marchand, 2013), marital dissatisfaction (e.g., Kalliath et al., 2017), life dissatisfaction (e.g., Zhang, Griffeth, & Fried, 2012), and health symptoms (e.g., O'Donnell et al., 2019).

Despite the fact that research on work-family conflict has certainly had a long-standing tradition in organizational psychology, a more recent set of studies has consistently demonstrated that work-family interactions may result not only in work-family inferences but also in positive spillovers between both domains (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). In this light, work-family enrichment (WFE) reflects the degree to which the experiences in one role enhance the experiences in the other role (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006). From this perspective, individuals' participation in one role may provide them with additional resources, such as knowledge, abilities, esteem, positive feelings and mood states, or monetary rewards, which may improve their participation in the other role (Carlson et al., 2019). Consequently, based on the so-called 'expansionist hypothesis' (see Marks, 1977), WFE is expected to lead to positive outcomes, such as job satisfaction (e.g., Carlson, Hunter, Ferguson & Whitten, 2014), marital satisfaction (e.g., van Steenbergen, Kluwer, & Karney, 2014) and life satisfaction (e.g., Lim, Song, & Choi, 2012).

In this regard, and drawing on Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) definition, Carlson et al. (2006) proposed a multi-dimensional model of WFE, in which each of these dimensions may be subsequently studied in two directions, namely, work-to-family enrichment (W→FE) and family-to-work enrichment (F→WE). Regarding W→FE, Carlson et al's (2006) model identifies three dimensions: (a) development W→FE (i.e., participation in work roles facilitates the acquisition or refinement of knowledge, abilities or ways of viewing things, which improves individuals' participation in family roles), (b) affect W→FE (i.e., involvement in work roles leads to a positive emotional state, which improves individuals' participation in family roles), and (c) capital W→FE (i.e., participation in work roles results in gains of psychosocial resources, such as security, accomplishment or confidence,

which helps the individual to be a better family member). Regarding F→WE, the dimensions are: (a) development F→WE (i.e., participation in family roles facilitates the acquisition or refinement of knowledge, abilities or ways of viewing things, which improves individuals' participation in work roles), (b) affect F→WE (i.e., involvement in family roles leads to a positive emotional state, which improves individuals' participation in work roles) and (c) efficiency F→WE (i.e., involvement in family roles provides the individual with a sense of urgency, which helps them to be a better worker).

Although a few scales have been designed to examine some aspects of positive work-family interactions in general (e.g., the SWING, Survey Work-Home Interaction – NijmeGen; Geurts, Taris, Kompier, Dikkers, Van Hooff, & Kinnunen, 2005), the Work-Family Enrichment Scale (WFES; Carlson et al., 2006) is perhaps the most exhaustive and psychometrically sound instrument to measure WFE specifically. This scale has been not only validated and used in numerous studies across several countries and organizational settings, but also translated to multiple languages including Spanish (e.g., Omar, Urteaga & Salessi, 2015). In spite of the several strengths of the WFES (e.g., theoretical representativeness, strong psychometric properties, multi-dimensional measure, evidence of cross-cultural validity) its length (18 items) may limit its use in cross-sectional studies assessing multiple constructs, as well as in longitudinal or diary studies in which constructs need to be measured at different points of time (Matthews, Kath & Barnes-Farrell, 2010).

Indeed, in studies in which the length of the survey is definitely a constraint, short scales are preferable as a way to reduce participant fatigue, avoid missing data, and increase response rates (Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007). Moreover, since recent research has called for future studies that examine work-family interactions in a more integrated and holistic way (e.g., consider WFC and WFE simultaneously, include other constructs from the nomological network) an abbreviated measure

of the WFES is very much needed. With these ideas in mind, Kacmar, Crawford, Carlson, Ferguson and Whitten (2014) developed and validated an abbreviated version of the WFES, which comprised only six items and showed satisfactory levels of reliability and discriminant, convergent, and predictive validity across five samples. Although it was subjected to thorough validation procedures, further evidence of its psychometric properties is required as only few studies have used it outside the United States (e.g., Haar & Cordier, 2020).

Thus, this study aims to develop and to, subsequently, validate a Spanish version of the Short Work-Family Enrichment Scale (SP-WFES-6). Drawing on cross-sectional and multi-wave data collected in Argentina, this study conducts a thorough examination of the psychometric properties of the SP-WFES-6 in terms of its internal consistency, test-retest reliability, factor structure, factor invariance, gender invariance, convergent validity, discriminant validity, and predictive validity. The article contributes to the organizational psychology literature by, on the one hand, providing additional evidence of the cross-cultural validity of the original WFES-6 outside the United States and, on the other hand, developing an instrument that is drawn from a well-established and psychometrically sound measure, and can be used in future research on WFE in Spanish-speaking countries.

Outcomes of work-family enrichment

The predictive validity of the SP-WFES-6 is assessed in this article by analyzing the relationships of both dimensions of WFE with specific outcomes from the nomological network. According to Greenhaus and Powell (2006), WFE occurs when individuals' participation in one role (e.g., work) provides them with additional resources, such as knowledge, abilities, esteem, positive feelings and mood states, or monetary rewards, that improve their participation in the other role (e.g., family). Since this process of accumulation of resources contributes to improve individuals' personal development, mood states and competences, WFE

is expected to lead to positive states and outcomes (Carlson et al., 2019). Such 'expansionist approach' (see Marks, 1977) is consistent with conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), which posits that individuals who possess a greater pool of resources are more capable of resource gain and thus are more likely to obtain new resources in the future (resources tend to aggregate in 'resource caravans' through 'positive gain spirals'), which is expected to lead to more positive experiences both inside and outside the organization (also see Hobfoll, 2011). With these considerations in mind, this paper proposes that WFE will be positively associated with job satisfaction and negatively associated with emotional exhaustion. It should be noted that the relationships among these constructs have been not only demonstrated empirically in previous research (e.g., Carlson et al., 2014), but also examined in previous validation studies involving the original WFE-6 (e.g., Kacmar et al., 2014).

Method

Translation procedures

The development of the SP-WFES-6 followed a series of forward and backward translation procedures (see Brislin 1980; Hambleton, Merenda, & Spielberger, 2006). In the first step, two researchers independently translated the instrument from English to Spanish and then reached consensus on the final translated version of the SP-WFES-6. In the next step, other two researchers performed an independent back-translation of the SP-WFES-6 from Spanish to English and then agreed on the final back-translated version of the instrument. Finally, a bilingual expert, who held a PhD degree in Linguistics, revised these documents and confirmed that the SP-WFES-6 was a linguistically equivalent and culturally appropriate Spanish version of the WFES-6.

Participants

Participants were a non-random sample of active workers from a metropolitan area of Buenos Aires, Argentina. Though a total of 464 responses to the Time 1 survey were provided, 26 duplicated cases (5.60%) were eliminated by using the 'manage duplicate information' function in Stata. This process resulted in 438 valid responses for analysis. Approximately half of the individuals who participated in the study were employees in the private sector (48.40%) and the remaining participants either worked in the public sector (23.97%) or were entrepreneurs (27.63%). In addition to their working responsibilities, a significant proportion of the participants were also active students in higher education institutions (21.46%). Most participants had a College degree (65.29%).

Participants' age ranged from 21 to 71 (M = 39.96, SD = 12.17) years. Most of them were female (63.93%) and were living with a life partner (58.90%). A smaller proportion of the participants were single (29.68%), divorced (10.27%) or widowed (1.14%). Furthermore, approximately half of the individuals reported having at least one family member (adult or child) under their care (49.09%). Only a relatively small part of the sample (27.63%) comprised individuals who were single and had no family member under their care.

Of the 438 individuals who participated in the first wave of data collection, 295 agreed to participate in a second wave (67.35%). Of these, only 103 individuals (34.92%) provided valid responses to the Time 2 survey. Participants in the multi-wave sample were mostly female (60.19%) and lived with a life partner (64.08%). Furthermore, almost half of the participants (49.51%) indicated having at least one family member (adult or child) under their care. The mean age was 39.98 (SD = 11.06) years. Regarding the educational level of the individuals who participated in wave 2, 61.16% had a College degree.

Procedure

Considering that Buenos Aires was, at the time of the data collection (October 2020 to April 2021), under quite severe restrictions associated with the Covid-19 pandemic, the potential participants

were contacted through the internet by using a networking approach (see Lazzaro-Salazar, 2019). The procedure involved identifying a few local organizations and asking them to share an online survey on work-family interaction and well-being through their social media profiles. In other words, these organizations acted as gatekeepers who were willing to recruit potential participants within their own circles and networks (see Acknowledgements).

Eligible participants were 18 years or older and worked at least 20 hours a week. In compliance with international ethical standards (see Declaration of Helsinki, 1964, and Declaration of Singapore, 2010), invitations to the online survey included a brief description of the purposes of the study and an electronic content form. The invitation also asked the individuals to share the link to the survey with other potential participants and included a message that asked participants if they would be interested in completing a follow-up survey 6 months later. To participate in the second wave of the study, respondents were only required to indicate their email address. This information is held confidential.

Variables and instruments

Unless otherwise indicated, all constructs of interest were measured at times 1 and 2.

Work-family enrichment

Participants completed the six items of the sp-wfes-6 (see Appendix). Responses to the survey were anchored in a five-point, Likert scale ranging from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 5 (*totally agree*). The items reflecting w→fe and f→we, respectively, were averaged to compute a score for each dimension of wfe.

Outcomes of work-family enrichment

Two of the outcome variables measured by Kacmar et al. (2014) in their validation of the original wfes-6 were selected to test the predictive validity of the sp-wfes-6. As mentioned previously in this paper, wfe was expected to display

negative correlations with emotional exhaustion and positive correlations with job satisfaction. On the one hand, the emotional exhaustion subscale of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jacson, 1981) was used to measure emotional exhaustion. A sample item is "I feel emotionally drained from my work" and Cronbach's alpha coefficient was α = .89. Responses to the scale were anchored in a five-point, Likert scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*every day*). On the other hand, job satisfaction was examined using Pujol-Cols and Dabos' (2019) Spanish version of the Brief Index of Affective Job Satisfaction (Thompson & Phua, 2012). It should be noted that this instrument comprised only four items (e.g., "I find real enjoyment in my job") and exhibited an adequate level of internal consistency in this study (α = .94). Responses ranged from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 5 (*totally agree*).

Analysis

The psychometric properties of the sp-wfes-6 were examined in terms of its internal consistency, test-retest reliability, factor structure, factor invariance, gender invariance, convergent validity, discriminant validity, and predictive validity. In the first step, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed to test whether the instrument displayed the two-factor structure proposed by Kacmar et al. (2014). Next, the factor and gender invariance of the sp-wfes-6 was further tested by conducting a multi-group confirmatory factor analysis (see Kline, 2010). Once the dimensionality of the scale was confirmed, the internal consistency of the subscales representing both wfe factors was analyzed by calculating Cronbach's alpha coefficient (see Nunnally, 1978). The reliability of the instrument was further tested in terms of its test-retest reliability, by examining the correlations between both dimensions of wfe at time 1 and both dimensions of wfe at time 2. In the next stage, following Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2010), the convergent validity of the instrument was examined by calculating each factor's average variance extracted (ave) and composite reliability.

Then, the discriminant validity of the scale was analyzed by comparing the shared variance of both factors with their respective AVE values (see Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Finally, the predictive validity of the SP-WFES-6 was tested by calculating the correlations between both dimensions of WFE and the outcome variables (i.e., job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion).

Results

A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted in Amos to examine the dimensionality of the SP-WFES-6 (see Figure 1). To compare the models, different goodness of fit indices were estimated (see Hair et al., 2010), including χ2 (Chi-square), CFI (Comparative Fit Index) and RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation). As suggested by Byrne (2001), CFI values greater than .90 and RMSEA values smaller than .08 indicate an adequate fit. The hypothesized model proposed that three items would load into a W→FE factor and that the remaining three items would load into a F→WE factor. The results revealed that the two-factor model provided an adequate fit to the data, χ2 (438, 8) = 30.07, $p < .01$, CFI = .984, RMSEA = .079. Furthermore, an alternative model examined whether the SP-WFES-6 displayed a unidimensional structure. The fit indices indicated that the alternative model, χ2 (438, 9) = 343.79, $p < .01$, CFI = .760, RMSEA = .292, provided a significantly poorer fit to the cross-sectional data, Δχ2 (438, 1) = 313.72, $p < .01$.

Figure 1. Confirmatory factor analysis
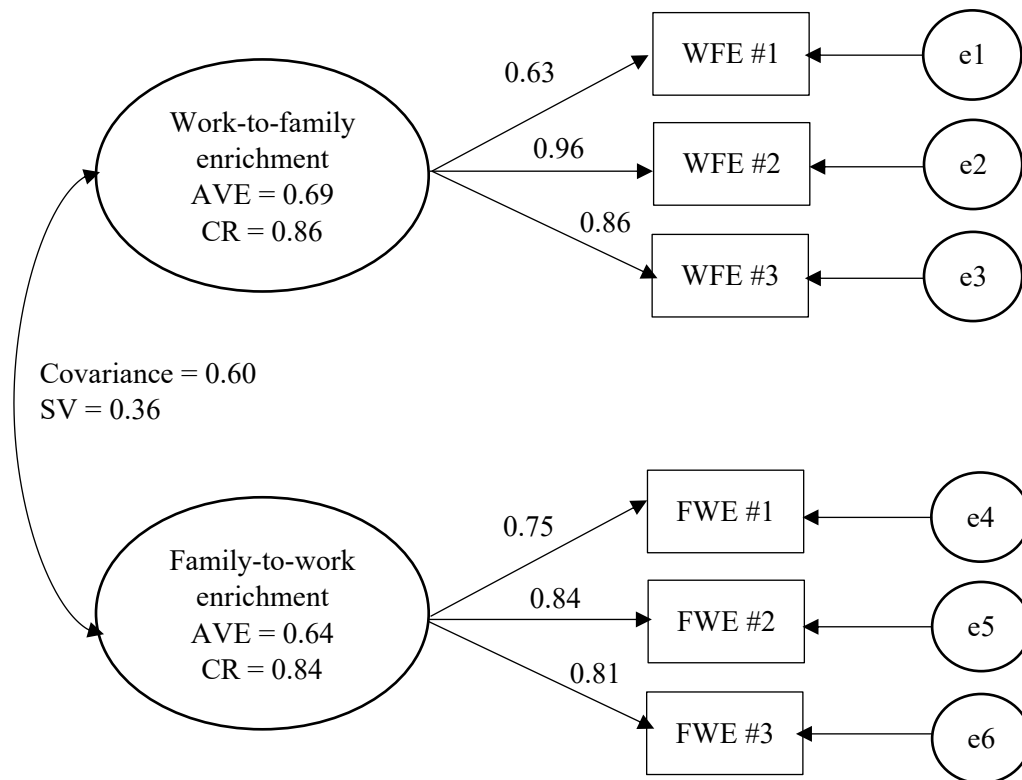
Note. n = 438. All factor loadings and correlations are statistically significant at the p < .01 level

A multi-group confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to examine whether the dimensionality of the SP-WFES-6 was invariant across gender (Kline, 2010). Consistently with previous validation studies (e.g., Pujol-Cols, 2019), four two-group models were estimated and compared in Amos 23. The first model hypothesized the same measurement model across both groups and allowed the factor loadings, correlations, and error variances to vary freely within each sub-sample. The second model held the factor loadings invariant, but allowed the factor correlations and error variances to vary freely. The third model allowed the error variances to vary across both sub-samples, but required the factor loadings and correlations to be equivalent. Finally, the fourth model specified that the factor loadings, factor correlations, and error variances for both sub-samples should be equal.

As shown in Table 1, the baseline model provided an adequate fit to the data, χ^2 (438, 16) = 40.88, $p < .01$, CFI = .982, RMSEA = .060. Moreover,

the results showed that the baseline model was not significantly different from the second and third model. It should be noted, however, that the baseline model was significantly different from the model with the factor loadings, factor correlations and error variances held invariant, $\Delta\chi^2$ (438, 19) = 31.74, $p < .05$. In this regard, it should be noted that other fit statistics, especially CFI, should also be taken into account when examining factor invariance, since the chi-square difference test is sensitive to sample size (Kline, 2010). In this sense, changes in CFI values lower than or equal to .01 provide evidence of factor invariance (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). As Table 1 shows, changes in CFI values were lower than .01 across the four models and the fit statistics for the most constrained model were satisfactory. Altogether, these results supported the gender invariance of the SP-WFES-6 and thus indicated that the two-factor structure of the scale can be generalized across gender.

Table 1. *Tests of gender invariance*

Model	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	CFI	ΔCFI
Model 1 – No constraints (baseline model)	40.88**	16			.982	
Model 2 – Factor loadings invariant	43.63**	20	2.75	4	.983	.001
Model 3 – Factor loadings & factor correlations invariant	60.09**	29	19.21	13	.978	.004
Model 4 – Factor loadings, factor correlations & error variances invariant	72.62**	35	31.74*	19	.973	.009

Notes. n = 438. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

The procedure described above was also used to test whether the factor structure of the scale was invariant across samples (i.e., factor invariance). As a preliminary step, the cross-sectional sample (N = 438) was split into two random samples (*n* = 219). Then, four models were estimated and compared through multi-group confirmatory factor analysis in Amos 23. As shown in Table 2, the fit statistics for the baseline model were satisfactory,

χ^2 (438, 16) = 47.47, $p < .01$, CFI = .978, RMSEA = .067. Furthermore, chi-square differences were non-significant and CFI changes were lower than .01 across the four models. Taken together, these findings indicated that the two-factor structure of the SP-WFES-6 mapped well across both samples with respect to their factor loadings, factor correlations, and error variances, which provided evidence of the measurement invariance of the instrument.

Table 2. *Tests of sample invariance*

Model	χ²	df	Δχ²	Δdf	CFI	ΔCFI
Model 1 – No constraints (baseline model)	47.47*	16			.978	
Model 2 – Factor loadings invariant	53.81*	20	6.34	4	.976	.002
Model 3 – Factor loadings & factor correlations invariant	59.88*	29	12.42	13	.978	.000
Model 4 – Factor loadings, factor correlations & error variances invariant	71.21*	35	23.74	19	.974	.004

Notes. n = 438. * $p < .01$

Table 3 exhibits the means, standard deviations and reliability estimates for the SP-WFES-6. As shown in this table, the descriptive statistics and Cronbach's alpha coefficients obtained for the cross-sectional sample were very similar to those reported for the multi-wave sample. In both samples, the internal consistency estimates were higher than the conventional level of acceptance of .70 (DeVellis, 2012; Nunnally, 1978).

Table 3. *Descriptives and reliability estimates*

Dimension	Cross-sectional sample			Multi-wave sample		
	M	SD	α	M	SD	α
Work-to-family enrichment	3.53	0.91	0.85	3.55	0.93	0.81
Family-to-work enrichment	3.66	0.86	0.84	3.67	0.83	0.81

Notes. m = Mean, sd = Standard deviation, = Cronbach's alpha coefficient

The reliability of the SP-WFES-6 was also tested by examining its test-retest reliability. Figure 2 reports the correlations among W→FE measured at time 1, F→WE measured at time 1, W→FE measured at time 2, and F→WE measured at time 2. As shown in this figure, W→FE (t1) predicted W→FE (t2), but displayed no significant correlations with F→WE (t2). Similarly, F→WE (t1) was significantly related to W→FE (t2), but did not predict F→WE (t2).

Regarding the convergent validity of the SP-WFES-6, the results from the confirmatory factor analysis (Figure 1) revealed that the factor loadings of the six items of the scale were in most cases higher than .70. Moreover, AVE values were .69 and .64 for the W→FE subscale and the F→WE subscale, respectively, which exceeded the conventional level of acceptance of .50. Additionally, the

Figure 2. Test-retest reliability analysis
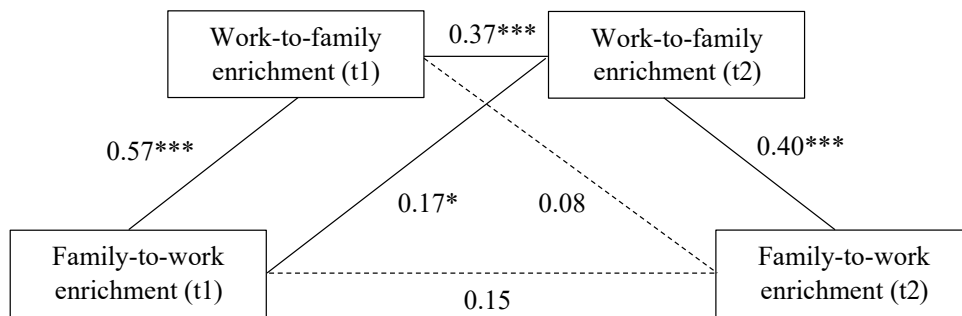
Notes. n = 103. * $p < .10$, *** $p < .01$. Full lines indicate significant correlations. Dotted lines indicate non-significant correlations

composite reliability of both subscales was higher than .70 (.86 and .84 for the W→FE subscale and the F→WE subscale, respectively). Altogether, these findings provided evidence of the convergent validity of the SP-WFES-6 (for a more detailed description of this procedure, see Hair et al., 2010).

The discriminant validity of the SP-WFES-6 was tested by comparing each factor's AVE with their shared variance estimates (see Hubley 2014). According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), the discriminant validity of an instrument is demonstrated if each factor's AVE (e.g., the AVE of W→FE) is greater than its squared correlations (i.e., shared variance) with other factors. As shown in Figure 1, the shared variance between both factors (.36) was lower than their respective AVE values (.69 and .64), which provided evidence of the discriminant validity of the scale.

The predictive validity of the instrument was examined by analyzing the correlations between the two dimensions of work-family enrichment and two outcomes from the nomological network (see Table 4). The model hypothesized that both WFE dimensions should display positive

Table 4. *Predictive validity analysis*

	js (t1)	ee (t1)	js (t2)	ee (t2)
w→fe (t1)	0.50**	-0.30**	0.45**	-0.25*
f→we (t1)	0.22**	-0.15**	0.08	-0.15
w→fe (t2)			0.39**	-0.20*
f→we (t2)			0.08	-0.01

Notes. js = Job satisfaction, ee = Emotional exhaustion. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

correlations with job satisfaction and negative correlations with emotional exhaustion. As shown in Table 4, in the cross-sectional sample, both W→FE (t1) and F→WE (t1) were found to be positively correlated with job satisfaction (t1) and negatively correlated with emotional exhaustion (t1). Similarly, in the multi-wave sample, W→FE (t2) displayed positive correlations with job satisfaction (t2) and negative correlations with emotional exhaustion (t2). Finally, in the

multi-wave sample, W→FE (t1) was found to be a significant predictor of both job satisfaction (t2) and emotional exhaustion (t2)

Discussion

Although numerous studies have demonstrated that the WFES is an exhaustive, robust and psychometrically sound instrument to measure WFE, evidence of its cross-cultural validity outside the United States is still very limited. With these considerations in mind, Omar et al. (2015) developed and validated a Spanish version of this scale (the SP-WFES) and reported adequate reliability and validity levels in the Argentinian context. In spite of these valuable efforts, the original WFES comprises 18 items, which may limit its use in longitudinal designs, diary studies or cross-sectional research that involves assessing multiple constructs (see Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007). Thus, this study developed a Spanish version of Kacmar et al.'s (2014) 6-item version of the WFES and examined its psychometric properties in terms of its internal consistency, test-retest reliability, factor structure, factor invariance, gender invariance, convergent validity, discriminant validity, and predictive validity.

The results from the confirmatory factor analysis revealed that the SP-WFES-6 exhibited a two-dimensional structure (i.e. W→FE and F→WE) and that this dimensionality was invariant across gender and sample, which provided evidence of measurement and gender invariance. Moreover, both factors showed adequate levels of internal consistency ($\alpha \geq .84$ in the cross-sectional sample and $\alpha = .81$ in the multi-wave sample) and test-retest reliability (W→FE and F→WE at time 1 predicted W→FE at time 2). Furthermore, the SP-WFES-6 exhibited satisfactory levels of convergent validity and discriminant validity, with AVE values $\geq .64$, composite reliability estimates $\geq .84$ and AVE values > shared variance estimates (.36). Finally, W→FE and F→WE were found to be positively correlated with job satisfaction and negatively correlated with emotional exhaustion in the cross-sectional

sample. In the multi-wave sample, however, only W→FE (at time 1) was found to be a significant predictor of both job satisfaction (at time 2) and emotional exhaustion (at time 2). Altogether, the findings of this study supported the reliability and validity of the SP-WFES-6 in Argentina.

Regarding the practical implications of this paper, on the one hand, the findings provided evidence of the impact of WFE on individuals' well-being. More specifically, the results showed that those workers who reported higher levels of W→FE at time 1 tended to experience higher levels of job satisfaction and lower levels of emotional exhaustion at time 2. In this sense, employers should pay close attention to the enrichment that employees experience as it can lead to more positive attitudes and states both inside and outside the organization. This could be done, for instance, by designing challenging and empowering jobs, providing sufficient opportunities for career advancement and self-actualization, adopting a supportive leadership style, and promoting healthy working environments and cultures (see Lapierre, Li, Kwan, Greenhaus, DiRenzo, & Shao, 2018). On the other hand, in addition to the multiple research implications of the SP-WFES-6, it is possible that this instrument is also useful to measure WFE in professional practice as long as participants feel that their responses to the survey will be held confidential. Indeed, unless confidentiality can be ensured, employees either will not participate in the study or will complete the questionnaire in a socially desirable way (see Piedmont, McCrae, Riemann, & Angleitner, 2000).

This article has several strengths. For instance, this was the first study to develop a Spanish version of the WFES-6 and to conduct a thorough and rigorous evaluation of its psychometric properties. To this end, the study drew on data collected from workers with different backgrounds, which allowed testing the scale across multiple organizational settings. Moreover, the inclusion of multi-wave data allowed testing the predictive validity of the scale while also reducing the common method

bias (see Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Furthermore, since the results reported in this article were consistent with those reported by Kacmar et al. (2014) in their validation study, the findings provided evidence of the cross-cultural validity of the original WFES-6 outside the United States. Additionally, these findings also indicated that the SP-WFES-6 is a linguistically equivalent and culturally appropriate instrument to measure WFE in Argentina and, possibly, in other Spanish-speaking countries.

Despite the valuable contributions of this paper to the field of organizational psychology, it is necessary to address some of its limitations. First, the individuals who participated in the study were from a metropolitan area of Buenos Aires, Argentina. Since workers from smaller cities, rural areas or other countries were not included in the sample, future research should further examine whether the psychometric properties of the SP-WFES-6 hold across countries, regions and organizational settings (see Pujol-Cols, 2021). Second, the predictive validity of the scale was examined only in terms of the correlations between WFE, emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. Future studies should also consider other family-related outcomes, such as marital satisfaction, or even other non-work constructs, such as life satisfaction. Moreover, future research should analyze the nomological validity of the SP-WFES-6 more extensively by considering different antecedents of WFE (e.g., family demands, work demands, personality traits).

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Appendix

Short version of the Spanish Work-Family Enrichment Scale (SP-WFES-6)

Mi participación en mi trabajo:

1. me ayuda a entender diferentes puntos de vista y esto me ayuda a ser un mejor miembro de mi familia.
2. me hace sentir feliz y esto me ayuda a ser un mejor miembro de mi familia.
3. me ayuda a sentirme personalmente realizado y esto me ayuda a ser un mejor miembro de mi familia.

Mi participación en mi familia:

1. me ayuda a adquirir habilidades y esto me ayuda a ser un mejor trabajador.
2. me pone de buen humor y esto me ayuda a ser un mejor trabajador.
3. me incentiva a usar mi tiempo en el trabajo de una manera más enfocada y esto me ayuda a ser un mejor trabajador.

Psychometric Properties of the Styles of Bystander Defender Intervention Scale in Cyberbullying in Mexican Adolescents: Its Relationships With Moral Identity and Cyberbullying

Bystander Defender Intervention Scale in Cyberbullying

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Abstract

Researchers have a growing interest in measuring the role of bystanders in cyberbullying. Two independent studies with Mexican adolescents (Sample 1 and Sample 2; N1 = 612, N2 = 612) were used to analyze the psychometric properties of the Styles of Bystander Defender Intervention Scale (SBDI) in adolescents. In two samples, confirmatory factorial analyses revealed that a first-order two-dimensional factor structure comprising constructive and aggressive intervention factors was equivalent. The results demonstrated configural, metric, and scalar measurement invariance in the SBDI across gender and education level (secondary vs. high school). Latent mean comparisons indicate differences by gender and education level in the model dimensions. Finally, the results indicate that defenders' aggressive interventions are positively correlated with cyberbullying and negatively associated with moral identity. On the other hand, constructive interventions were negatively related to cyberbullying and positively related to moral identity. The findings suggest that the SBDI is a helpful measure of the styles of bystander defender intervention in cyberbullying events.

Keywords: cross-validation, cyberbullying, defender bystander, internal structure, cross-validation.

Propiedades psicométricas de los estilos de la escala de intervención defensiva en el Ciberbullying: sus relaciones con la identidad moral y el Cyberbullying

Resumen

El interés por la medición del papel del espectador defensor en el ciberacoso es creciente. El presente estudio analizó las propiedades psicométricas de la escala Estilos de Intervención Defensiva de los Espectadores (SBDI), con base en dos estudios independientes con adolescentes mexicanos (Muestra 1 y Muestra 2; N1 = 612, N2 = 612). Los análisis factoriales confirmatorios comprobaron que el modelo bifactorial compuesto por los factores de intervención constructiva y agresiva del espectador defensor se ajusta a los datos. Se confirmó la invariancia de medida por sexo y nivel educativo (secundaria vs. bachillerato) de la escala. El análisis de medias latentes mostró diferencias por sexo y nivel educativo en los factores. La intervención agresiva se asoció positivamente con el ciberacoso y negativamente con la identidad moral, mientras que la intervención constructiva lo hace de forma negativa con ambas variables. Los hallazgos sugieren que la SBDI es útil para medir los estilos de intervención del espectador defensor en eventos de ciberacoso.

Palabras clave: ciberacoso, espectadores defensores, estructura interna, invariancia de medida, validación cruzada.

Introduction

Adolescents frequently use digital devices and content (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2019). Adolescents frequently use digital devices and content (OECD et al., 2020). Although differences in Internet access persist among Latin American countries, some studies have reported adolescents' frequent use of this resource for entertainment, socialization, and learning (OECD, 2020; Trucco & Palma, 2020). In Mexico, the National Institute of Statistics and Geography [INEGI], 2020) reports that 90% of adolescents between 12 and 17 years old are frequent internet consumers. Although Internet use has brought substantial benefits to adolescents' cognitive and social development (Ang, 2017; Skryabin et al., 2015), it has also had adverse effects, including online aggression (Chester et al., 2019; Rice et al., 2015).

Cyberbullying involves aggressive, repetitive, and intentional attacks through electronic devices against victims who cannot easily defend themselves (Hamm et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2008). Studies have revealed a substantial prevalence of cyberbullying in Latin American countries such as Ecuador (Calmaestra et al., 2020), Colombia and Uruguay (Yudes-Gómez et al., 2018), Argentina (Pengpid & Peltzer, 2022), and Brazil (Malta et al., 2022). In Mexico, empirical studies show that 20–30% of Mexican students have been victims of cyberbullying at some point in their schooling (INEGI, 2021; Madrid-López et al., 2020). Cyberbullying can have long-lasting adverse effects on youth mental health, including depression, anxiety, substance abuse, suicidal ideation, and attempts (Graham & Wood, 2017; Iranzo et al., 2019; Pengpid & Peltzert, 2022; Santos et al., 2022). Moreover, cyberbullying is strongly related to school absenteeism, low academic performance, and negative perceptions of school climate (Hinduja & Patchin, 2008; Ortega & González, 2016).

Throughout literature, cyberbullying is perceived as a social phenomenon that involves an aggressor, a victim, and a bystander. While the roles of aggressors and victims have been broadly explored, the role of bystanders is still understudied despite their potential to inhibit aggression and promote victims' well-being (Machackova & Pfetsch, 2016; Zych et al., 2019). Overall, scholars agree that bystanders should be behavior in cyberbullying events: passive, reinforcement of aggression, or defender of cyber victims (Mallmann et al., 2017; Olenik-Shemesh et al., 2017; Song & Oh, 2018). While passive and reinforcing bystanders have been shown to promote cyberbullying and its harmful effects on victims, defenders are expected to be potential shields that may not only hinder cyberaggression but also attenuate its negative effect on victims (DeSmet et al., 2019; Holfeld, 2014; Torgal et al., 2023).

Bystander-defender behavior involves stopping cyber aggression or comforting cyber victims (Olenik-Shemesh et al., 2017; Sarmiento et al., 2019). Traditionally, bystander defenders' interventions have been conceptualized and measured as one-dimensional constructs (see Reijntjes et al., 2016; Salmivalli et al., 1996). However, current studies suggest that defender intervention is a multidimensional construct involving aggressive and constructive interventions to help victims (Bussey et al., 2020; García-Vargas et al., 2023; Moxey & Bussey, 2020). Defending constructive interventions include prosocial behaviors that may be oriented toward victims (by providing support and orientation) or toward the bully (by trying to stop aggressive behaviors and motivating the aggressor to apologize to the victim) (Cassidy et al., 2013; DeSmet et al., 2014). However, the intervention of aggressive bystander defenders implicates retaliation behavior against the bully (e.g., spreading rumors or posting images or videos denigrating the aggressor) (Bussey et al., 2020; Moxey & Bussey, 2020).

Despite being aimed at defending victims, bystander intervention effectively stops aggression only when it is constructive; otherwise, it contributes to increasing violence (Moxey & Bussey, 2020; Pronk et al., 2019). Nonetheless, adopting a

constructive or aggressive stance remains unpredictable, because it relies on individuals' psychological resources and moral development. In this regard, Bussey et al. (2020) reported that self-efficacy and low moral disengagement are positively related to constructive defender intervention and negatively related to aggressive intervention. A recent study (Valdés-Cuervo et al., 2021) shows that moral guilt and sympathy are negatively related to the aggressive defending intervention.

Measures of Bystander Defender Behavior in Cyberbullying

Salmivalli et al. (1996) define bystander defender intervention as a unidimensional construct that combines indicators of constructive and aggressive interventions. However, the current scales (DeSmet et al., 2016; Ferreira et al., 2020; Pozzoli & Gini, 2020; Sarmiento et al., 2019) exclude items aimed at assessing aggressive interventions. The Styles of Bystander Defender Intervention scale (SBDI; Moxey & Bussey, 2000) is the only scale found by the authors that measure bystander defender intervention as a multidimensional construct that comprises both constructive and aggressive interventions.

Moxey and Bussey (2020) used a sample of Australian high school students to report the validity of interpretation based on the SBDI. However, this measure presents at least five issues that must be addressed. First, no known study by the authors has compared the adjustment of the two-dimensional model proposed in the SBDI scale with the one-dimensional model, as traditionally proposed (see Salmivalli et al., 1996). Second, cross-validation was required to ensure the stability of the measurement model. Third, no study has examined the discriminant validity of each subscale, a condition needed to verify the construct's uniqueness (Shiu et al., 2011). Fourth, few studies have examined the measurement invariance of SBDI in critical variables such as gender and educational level. Fifth, the analysis of evidence based on relationships with other variables remains limited. Furthermore, no

studies have explored the validity and reliability of the scale score to measure constructs among Mexican adolescents.

Gender Differences in Bystander Defender Intervention

Although limited, previous findings of gender effects in bystander aggressive and constructive intervention indicate that constructive defending intervention was more frequent in females than males, whereas aggressive intervention was more prevalent in males (Bussey et al., 2020; Moxey & Bussey, 2020). Regarding the length of enrollment, whereas Moxey and Bussey (2020) found fewer constructive interventions for 9th-grade students than for 7th-grade students, Bussey et al. (2020) reported significant differences. Nonetheless, these studies did not examine the scale's measurement invariance by gender. It is essential to mention that measurement invariance ensures that differences between groups result from variances in the expression of the construct, rather than from measurement bias (Byrne, 2016; Van de Schoot et al., 2012). Therefore, it is necessary to establish measurement invariance for meaningful group comparisons.

Relationships With Related Constructs

Based on theoretical considerations, we expected that both types of bystander interventions would be differently associated with cyberaggression and moral identity. In line with previous literature (Chan & Wong, 2019; Marín-López et al., 2019), we posit that constructive bystander interventions are negatively associated with cyberbullying, and aggressive interventions are positively associated.

Constructive bystander interventions are associated with higher moral emotions and lower moral disengagement (Bussey et al., 2020; Moxey & Bussey, 2020; Valdés-Cuervo et al., 2021). We expected that moral identity, the importance of being a moral person based on the person's identity (Gibbs, 2014; Hardy & Carlo, 2011), would

encourage constructive interventions and hinder aggressive interventions.

The Present Study

The present study proposed examined the validity of the interpretation of scores of Styles of Bystander Intervention in Cyberbullying (SBDI) to describe the frequency of constructive and aggressive styles of intervention in cyberbullying events in Mexican adolescents. The study assumed that validity is a unitary concept, so various sources of evidence should be integrated into the judgment of the validity of the interpretation (American Educational Research Association et al., 2014; Zumbo et al., 2014). To examine evidence based on internal structure: (1) calculate several confirmatory factorial analyses (CFA) to compare the goodness of fit of the one-dimensional and two-dimensional measurement models of bystander defender intervention (see Figure 1). (2) Verify whether the differences between the factors are empirically grounded. (3) Cross-validation was performed to examine the stability of the internal structure in an independent sample. (4) Use robust measures to ensure scale reliability (McDonald's Omega and variance extracted). (5) Explore scale measurement invariance by gender and educational level (secondary vs. high school). (6) Comparison of latent means by gender and educational level. Additionally, (7) we examined evidence validity based on the scale dimensions' relations with external variables such as cyber aggression and moral identity.

Figure 1. Factor Model of Styles of Bystander Defender Intervention in Cyberbullying
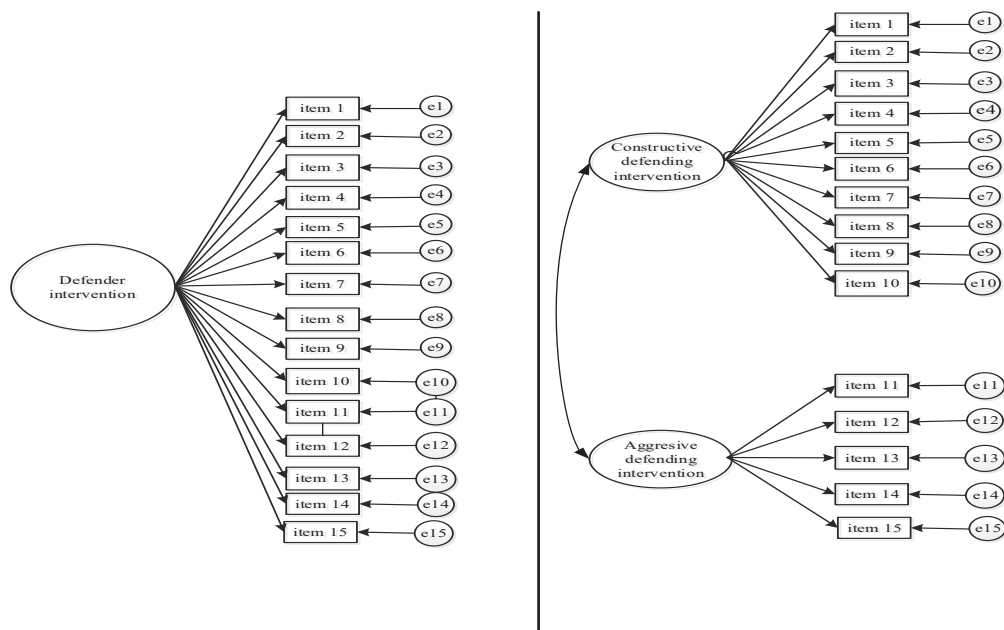
Method

We used a non-probabilistic sample of Mexican adolescents. The sample came from urban secondary schools ($N = 68$) and high schools ($N = 68$) in Sinaloa (Sample 1) and Sonora (Sample 2), Mexico. These schools are located in the middle and low-class areas of these cities. In both samples, nine participants were recruited from each school (three from each grade). We ensured that the ratio of male to female students was similar to that in the schools. Sample 1 (calibration sample) included 612 (nine from each school) adolescents (42.3% males and 57.7% females), with 306 (50%) secondary students aged from 12 to 15 years old (M years = 13.2, SD = 1.04), and 306 high school students (50%) aged from 15 to 19 years old (M years = 16.2, SD = 1.01). Sample 2 (cross-validation sample) contained 612 (nine from each school) adolescents (43% male and 57% female), with 306 (50%) secondary students aged from 12 to 15 years old (M years = 12.9, SD = 1.24), and 306 (50%) high schools students aged from 15 to 19 years old (M years = 15.8, SD = 1.11).

Measures

Styles of Bystander Intervention in Cyberbullying Incidents

The Styles of Bystander Defender Intervention Scale (SBDI; Moxey & Bussey, 2020) was used. The scale includes 15 items grouped into two dimensions: constructive defending intervention (10 items, e.g., encouraging the child to report being picked on) and aggressive defending intervention (5 items, e.g., sharing humiliating images or videos of the bully). Likert scale response with five points (0 = *never* to 4 = *always*) was used to answer questions such as, "During the last term, how often did YOU respond to defend a cyber-victimized kid?"

A back-translation procedure was adopted to translate the items from English to Spanish. Three professional bicultural bilingual translators participated in the scale translation. One translator, whose mother language was Spanish, translated the English version of the scale into Spanish. A second translator, whose mother language was English, translated the Spanish version back to English. A third translator certified the equivalence of these versions.

Cyberbullying

The Adolescent Cyber-Aggressor Scale (CYB-AGS; Buelga et al., 2020) was used. This scale comprises 18 items to measure the frequency of harassment and intimidation suffered by classmates using the Internet and social media (e.g., average variance extracted AVE = .58, *McDonald's Omega* W = .83). The scale uses a Likert response format (0 = *never* to 4 = *always*). The CFA evidence the model fit to the data (SBX^2 = 163.43, df = 132, p = .033; SRMR = .04; CFI = .98; TLI = .97; RMSEA = .05, 90% CI [.03, .06]).

Moral Identity

The Moral Identity Scale (MIE; Aquino & Reed, 2002) was used to measure the construct. A back-translation procedure was used to translate the scale from English to Spanish. The scale comprises two dimensions: (1) internalization, with four items to assess the level of importance that individuals assign to moral traits (e.g., I feel good to be a person who holds features such as compassion, kind, fairness, generosity, and honesty; VME = .62, W = .74), and (2) symbolization, with five items to assess the level of moral traits reflected in individuals' behavior (e.g., the things I do during my free time portrays me as a person that holds: compassion, kindness, fairness, generosity, and honesty; VME = .51; W = .88). The items were rated on a Likert scale (0 = *strongly disagree* to 4 = *strongly agree*). The results of the CFA supported the model's goodness of fit (SBX^2 = 38.20, df = 20, p = .008; SRMR = .019; TLI = .99; CFI = .99; RMSEA = .02, 90% CI [.01, .04]).

Procedure

The Ethical Commission of the Institute Technologic of Sonora approved the study. Secondary

and high schools were invited to participate in the study. Schools that agreed to participate in this study were also included. Data were collected in the classroom during school hours. Parents were then asked for permission from their children to respond to the questionnaires. Only 4% of the parents rejected authorization for their children to participate. Next, the students were informed about the study's objective and that their participation would be voluntary. Finally, the participating students and parents were informed about the confidentiality of the participants.

Data analysis

The dataset contains no missing data. Means, standard deviation, symmetry, and kurtosis were calculated. We assumed that skewness and kurtosis values between -2 and 2 indicated univariate normality (George & Mallery, 2001).

Analysis of Evidence Based on Internal Structure

The goodness of fit of the one-dimensional (Model 1) and two-dimensional (Model 2) measurement models was compared (see Figure 1). The CFA uses the Diagonal Weighted Least Squares Robust (DWLS) estimation method with robust x^2 (SBX^2) correction using the LISREL 12 software. The goodness of fit of the one-dimensional (Model 1) and two-dimensional (Model 2) measurement models was compared (see Figure 1). Because the SBX^2 statistic is sensitive to large sample sizes (Byrne, 2016; Powel & Schafer, 2001), we additionally used fit indices, such as the standardized root mean square (SRMR), comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker Lewis index (TLI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The structural equation literature (SEM) suggests that the values of SRMR and RMSEA $\leq$ .08 and CFI and TLI are $\geq$ .95 indicating a good model fit (Brown, 2015; Byrne, 2016). The goodness of fit of the model was compared using differences in SBX^2 (ΔSBX^2), Akaike Information Criterion (ΔAIC), and Bayesian Information Criterion (ΔBIC). When the difference in ΔSBX^2 was

significant, a model with greater SBX^2 had a worse fit (Brown, 2015; Byrne, 2016). Furthermore, differences in AIC and BIC > 10 indicate distinctions in the model's fit, and a model with greater AIC and BIC has poor fit (Byrne, 2016; Vrieze, 2012).

We confirmed that the distinctions between the scale dimensions were empirically supported. Based on the guidelines proposed in the literature, we expected that the square of the correlation (R^2) between the SBDI factors would be less than the AVE of each factor (Hair et al., 2010).

Cross-Validation Analysis

Structural cross-validation examines the replicability of the measurement model in an independent sample (Byrne, 2016). Multigroup analysis was used to assess the replicability of the factor structure in an independent sample (sample 2). Configural, metric, and scalar invariances were also examined. Measurement invariance was supported when ΔSBX^2 was not significant ($p > .001$), ΔCFI $\leq$ .01, and ΔRMSEA $\leq$ .015.

Reliability Analysis

The scale's reliability was tested using McDonald Omega (W) and the average variance extracted (AVE). The results of $\omega > .70$ and AVE > .50 suggest adequate reliability of the scale scores (Dunn et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2017).

Measurement Invariance Analysis by Gender and Educational Level

Using a multigroup procedure, we tested configural (constrained the number of factors and factor-loading structure to be the same across groups), metric (fixed factor loadings across groups), scalar invariance (constrained intercept across groups), and residual invariance (constrained item residuals variance across groups). The nested factor model was used to examine measurement invariance in the groups by gender and educational level. The difference in SBX^2 (ΔSBX^2) was not statistically significant ($p > .001$), suggesting that the constraints imposed were equal between the groups (Brown,

2015; Byrne, 2016). We also used the differences in CFI and RMSEA to assess the invariance. The structural modeling literature proposed that differences in CFI (ΔCFI) less than .01 and differences in RMSEA (ΔRMSEA) less than .015 confirmed model invariance (Sass & Schmitt, 2013). When the results were contradictory, we assumed that the differences in CFI and RMSEA were due to the large sample size.

Latent Means Differences

Latent means by gender and education level were compared. The reference groups (girls and high school students) were fixed at zero, while the factor means of the other groups were estimated freely. A z-statistic was used to examine the differences between latent means (Brown, 2015; Byrne, 2016).

Analysis of Evidence Based on the Scale Relations With External Variables

Correlations between the SBDI with external variables were calculated to examine concurrent validity. Then, the correlation between SBDI and cybervictimization was calculated. The effect size was assessed based on guidelines from the literature (see Funder & Ozer, 2019). An effect size *r* of .10 is small, .20 indicates a medium effect, and .30 suggests a large effect.

Results

Descriptive Analysis

Table 1 provides the descriptive statistics of the items. For ten items, the means center in the "sometimes" category, with the remaining five in the "never" category. The results of skew and kurtosis indicated a normal univariate for 11 items. However, statistics indicate departures of univariate normality for items 11, 12, 13, and 14. These results indicate that adolescents rarely intervened in defending themselves against cyberbullying victims.

Table 1 *Descriptive Statistics of the SBDI Items of Calibration (Sample 1) and Cross-Calibration Sample (Sample 2)*

Item	Sample 1				Sample 2			
	M	*SD*	Skew	Kurtosis	*M*	*SD*	Skew	Kurtosis
Item 1	2.78	1.33	-0.83	-0.47	2.84	1.32	-0.96	-0.28
Item 2	2.83	1.25	-0.87	-0.19	2.86	1.23	-0.82	-0.35
Item 3	1.91	1.28	-0.96	-0.15	2.02	1.54	0.15	-1.45
Item 4	1.95	1.52	-0.48	-1.43	2.21	1.38	-0.41	-1.01
Item 5	2.62	1.33	-0.59	-0.78	2.42	1.43	-0.44	-1.11
Item 6	2.43	1.36	-0.41	-0.99	2.23	1.39	-0.39	-1.06
Item 7	2.48	1.41	-0.50	-1.03	2.16	1.44	-0.14	-1.29
Item 8	2.45	1.38	-0.44	1.02	2.12	1.23	-0.87	-0.92
Item 9	2.18	1.42	-0.17	-1.24	2.28	1.41	-0.67	-0.88
Item 10	2.32	1.45	-0.31	-1.22	2.13	1.21	-0.45	-1.12
Item 11	0.46	0.87	2.06	3.93	0.51	0.63	1.93	3.16
Item 12	0.38	0.52	3.01	6.28	0.31	0.46	1.80	6.81
Item 13	0.39	0.72	2.36	5.46	0.44	0.68	1.91	4.43
Item 14	0.50	1.13	2.01	3.46	0.53	0.78	1.92	3.01
Item 15	0.83	1.13	1.27	0.74	0.85	1.16	1.23	0.58

Assessing One-Dimensional and Two-Dimensional Measurements Models

The goodness-of-fit statistics for the one-dimensional (Model 1) and two-dimensional (Model 2) measurement models in Sample 1 (calibration sample) were assessed. Confirmatory factor analyses showed that Model 1 did not have a reasonable adjustment to the data (SBX^2 = 680.14, df = 76, p < .001; SRMR = .12; CFI = .88; TLI = .77; RMSEA = .13, 90% CI [.12, .14]), whereas Model 2 had an acceptable goodness of fit (SBX2 = 105.61, df = 78, p = .014; SRMR = .04; CFI = .98; TLI = .97; RMSEA = .04, 90% CI [.03, .05]). The fit of Model 2 showed better adjustment than Model 1 (ΔSBX^2 = 384.53, df = 2, p < .001; ΔAIC = 515.73; ΔBIC = 515.62; see Table 2).

Table 2 *Goodness-of-fit Statistics of the One-Dimensional and Two-Dimensional Measurement Models (N = 612)*

Model	SBX^2	df	p	AIC	BIC	Comparison	ΔSBX^2	ΔAIC	ΔBIC
One-dimensional	490.14	76	< .001	767.42	892.54	1 vs. 2	384.53	515.73	521.62
Two-dimensional	105.61	78	.014	251.69	370.92				

In Model 2, the factor loadings were from .54 to .88 (p < .001); the constructive defending and aggressive defending intervention factors were positively correlated with each other (see Figure 2). The remaining analyses were based on model 2. These results indicate that bystander defender intervention is a two-dimensional model.

Figure 2 *Results of the Two-Dimensional Model of Styles of Bystander Defender Intervention*
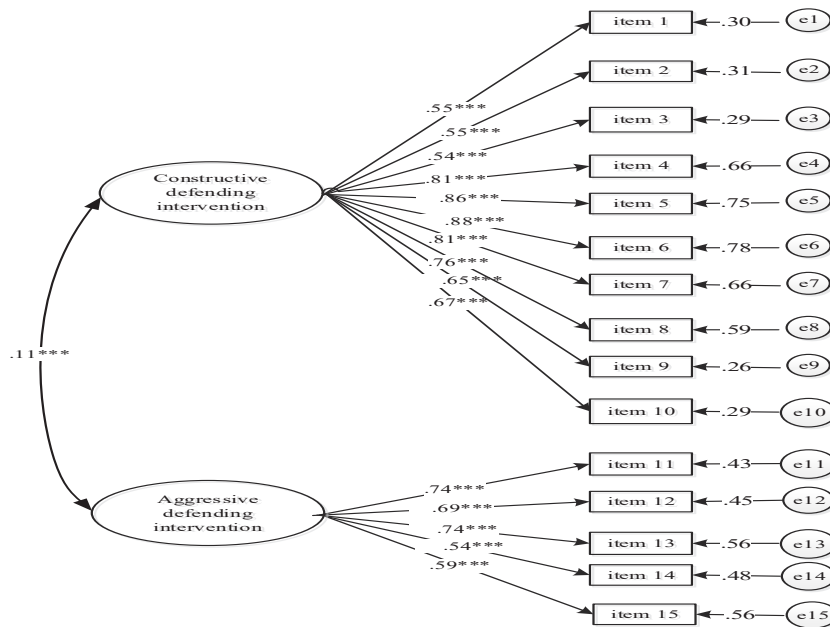
Note. Standardized factor loadings are also reported.

The square of the correlation between the SBDI factors in both samples was less than the AVE of each factor (Sample 1 AVE = .52, R^2 = .01; Sample 2 AVE = .53, R^2 = .02). We concluded that these scores confirm the uniqueness of each SBDI dimension.

Factorial Structure Cross-Validation

A multigroup procedure was used to assess the stability of the two-dimensional measurement model in an independent sample of adolescents. The configural model (SBX^2 = 192.65, df = 152, p = .014; SRMR = .04; CFI = .97; TLI = .96; RMSEA = .04, 90% CI [.03, .07]) had an adequate fit for the data. Furthermore, the results confirmed the metric and scalar invariance of the model (see Table 3). Additionally, the reliability for each factor in both samples was acceptable: constructive defending (Sample 1, ω = .77 and AVE = .52; Sample 2 ω = .79 and AVE = .53), and aggressive defending (Sample 1, ω = .81 and AVE = .55; Sample 2 ω = .78; AVE = .51). Overall, these results confirmed that Sample 1 factor structures were replicated in Sample 2, which confirms the stability of the two-dimensional first-order structure.

Table 3 *Results of Comparisons Between Sample 1 (N = 612) and Sample 2 (N = 612)*

Model	SBX^2	df	ΔSBX^2	Δdf	p	ΔCFI	ΔRMSEA
Configurational	192.65	152					
Metric	203.05	165	12.4	13	.495	.001	.001
Scalar	211.34	168	18.69	16	.285	.001	.002

Assessing Measurement Invariance by Gender

The configural model had a goodness-of-fit on both samples (Sample 1 SBX^2 = 205.45, df = 152, p = .002; SRMR = .051; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .03, 90% CI [.02, .03]; Sample 2 SBX^2 = 196.25, df = 152, p < .001; SRMR = .06; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .03, 90% CI [.02, .04]). When factor loadings were fixed to be equal across genders (metric invariance), the difference in the configural model was not statistically significant in either sample, and changes in the CFI and RMSEA were small (ΔCFI < .01, and ΔRMSEA < .015). When intercepts of the observed variables were forced to be equal by gender, the differences were not statistically significant, and differences in CFI and RMSEA were small (ΔCFI < .01, and ΔRMSEA < .015), which supports scalar invariance in Samples 1 and 2. Finally, the results support residual invariance (see Table 4).

Assessing Measurement Invariance by Educational Level

The fit indices indicated that the configural model fit the data by educational level in both samples (Sample 1: SBX^2 = 205.67, df = 152, p = .002; SRMR = .04; CFI = .97; TLI = .96; RMSEA= .04, 90% CI [.03, .06]; Sample 2 SBX^2 = 194.38, df = 152, p = .011; SRMR = .05; CFI = .96; TLI = .95; RMSEA= .05, 90% CI [.03, .07]). The factor loadings were constrained to be equal between secondary and high school students (metric invariance), the comparison with the configural model was not statistically significant in either sample, and the changes in CFI and RMSEA were not significant (ΔCFI < .01, ΔRMSEA < .015). We then added constraints on the intercepts of the model (scalar invariance). These results show that the difference in SBX^2 between models was not significant, and the changes in CFI and RMSEA were smaller than those suggested in the literature (ΔCFI = .003, ΔRMSEA = .002). Also, the results confirmed residual invariance by educational level (secondary school vs. high school) (see Table 4).

Table 4 *Summary of Fit Statistics for Testing Measurement Invariance by Gender and Education Level in Styles of Bystander Defender Intervention Scale in Cyberbullying*

Invariance	SBX^2	df	ΔSBX^2	Δdf	p	ΔCFI	ΔRMSEA
Gender							
Sample 1							
Configural	205.45	152					
Metric	225.89	165	20.44	13	.085	.004	.001
Scalar	234.23	168	28.78	16	.025	.007	.004
Residual	264.56	188	30.33	20	.064	.008	.003
Sample 2							
Configural	196.25	152					
Metric	213.33	165	17.08	13	.196	.003	.002
Scalar	221.43	168	25.18	16	.07	.005	.005
Residual	251.12	188	29.69	20	.075	.008	.009
Educational level (secondary vs. high school)							
Sample 1							
Configural	205.67	152					
Metric	230.22	165	24.55	13	.026	.002	.001
Scalar	236.11	168	30.44	16	.016	.003	.002
Residual	270.65	188	34.54	20	.023	.008	.007
Sample 2							
Configural	194.38	152					
Metric	208.18	165	13.8	13	.388	.003	.003
Scalar	216.23	168	21.85	16	.148	.006	.006
Residual	242.15	188	25.92	20	.168	.008	.009

Latent Means Differences

Females were chosen as a reference group to compare factors by gender. Then, the male means informed the difference in constructs across the groups. The results show a statistically significant difference in gender in the model dimensions. Notably, girls had higher levels of constructive defense and lower levels of aggressive defense than did boys.

Concerning possible differences by educational level, the high school group was chosen as the reference and the secondary students' group was informed of the difference in factor means. The test results revealed a statistically significant difference that was unique to the aggressive defense dimension. High school students had higher levels of aggressive intervention than secondary school students when they observed cyberbullying incidents (see Table 5).

Relations With External Variables

As expected, constructive defending had a negative relationship with cyberbullying and a positive relationship with moral identity (see Table 6). Furthermore, as expected, aggressive defending interventions were positively correlated with cyberbullying and negatively correlated with moral identity. The effect size of the correlation ranged between low and medium, suggesting explicative and practical consequences (Funder & Ozer, 2019). Overall, these correlations confirmed the concurrent validity of the SBDI.

Table 5 *Latent Means Differences by Gender and Educational level on SBDI*

Variable	Factor	M_{dif}	z	p	Cohen's d
Gender	Constructive	0.24 *0.19*	-2.58 *-2.19*	.010 *.028*	0.11 *0.08*
	Aggressive	0.27 *0.32*	6.30 *5.08*	< .001 < .001	0.18 *0.20*
Educational level	Constructive	0.07 0.11	0.25 *-0.89*	.802 *.373*	0.03 *0.05*
	Aggressive	0.14 *0.20*	-3.12 *-2.13*	.002 *.017*	0.09 *0.07*

Note. Values in regular font are from Sample 1; those in italics are from Sample 2.

Table 6 *Correlations Between SBDI Subscales, Cyberbullying, and Moral Identity*

	1	2	3	4
1. Defender constructive intervention	_	.13	-.19**	.20**
2. Defender aggressive intervention	.11	_	.22**	-.17**
3. Cyberbullying	-.17**	.24**	_	.27**
4. Moral identity	.18**	-.15**	.29**	_

Note. Sample 1 values are below the diagonal, and sample 2 values are above the diagonal.

**p < .01.

Discussion

Prior studies have investigated bystander-defender intervention in cyberbullying events; most conceptualized bystander-defender intervention in cyberbullying as prosocial. However, this study confirms that defender intervention should be aggressive or constructive. Thus, unlike other scales, the Styles of the Bystander Defender Intervention (SBDI) considers two possible stances for defenders: constructive and aggressive. Given its relevance to advancing the current understanding of multidimensional defenders' interventions in cyberbullying, this study sought to examine the psychometric properties of the SBDI in a Mexican sample. Our findings confirm what other studies report, bystander defender intervention is a multidimensional construct that comprises aggressive and constructive intervention. Furthermore, the results indicate that the scale may be suitable (valid and reliable) for use in Mexican populations, facilitating research on variables associated with constructive interventions in cyberbullying.

Bystander Defender Intervention as a Multidimensional Construct

Findings support the multidimensional conceptualization of the bystander defender intervention proposed by the SBDI. Discriminant validity was confirmed, suggesting that constructive and aggressive factors measure a unique construct. Our results align with those of previous research (Bussey et al., 2020; Lou & Bussey, 2019; Moxey & Bussey, 2020) that distinguishes constructive and aggressive interventions for cyberbullying bystanders. Further studies are needed to explore the roots and effects of different bystander intervention styles on cyberbullying. Similarly, it is necessary to explain the effects of bystander interventions (constructive and aggressive) on the prevalence and prevention of cyberbullying.

Measurement Invariance by Gender and Educational Level

The results provide empirical evidence supporting the measurement invariance of the SBDI scale by gender and education level (secondary and high school). In other words, the SBDI

measures the same metrics between the groups. Once measurement invariance was confirmed, mean latent differences were examined in these groups. Consistent with other studies regarding gender differences (Bussey et al., 2020; Moxey & Bussey, 2020), these results confirm the statistical differences in both model dimensions. Girls have higher levels of constructive and lower levels of aggressive intervention in cyberbullying.

Statistically significant differences in aggressive interventions were also found among the education level groups. High school students had higher levels of aggressive intervention in cyberbullying incidents than secondary school students. Further research is needed to test the roots of these differences by analyzing contextual, family, and personal factors as input variables leading to constructive or aggressive defender interventions.

Relations With External Variables

The expected correlation between the SBDI and cyberbullying and moral identity was found, confirming concurrent validity. These results are in line with those of previous studies (see Moxey & Bussey, 2020). Although further studies are needed, we suggest that the violence escalation cycle framework (Anderson & Carnagey, 2004) helps to explain the effect of aggressive interventions in maintaining cyberbullying.

On the other hand, the results are consistent with past research (see Bussey et al., 2020; Valdés-Cuervo et al., 2021), showing that aggressive intervention by bystanders is negatively associated with moral identity, whereas constructive intervention is positively related. Although additional research is needed to understand these relationships, we posit that moral identity is a potential buffer for adolescent aggression (see Colasante et al., 2015).

Theoretical and Practical Implications

This research improves our knowledge of the role of bystanders in cyberbullying. Identifying specific roles and associated factors has contributed to the development of effective targeted bystander cyberbullying interventions. The intervention of defender bystanders is crucial for education, evaluation, and research purposes. The distinction between aggressive and constructive bystander defender interventions facilitates the study of psychosocial factors associated with these behaviors and the development of targeted and helpful anti-cyberbullying programs. Furthermore, an intervention that promotes bystander defender intervention could teach students how to intervene constructively in cyberbullying events. Although further studies are necessary, the findings suggest that strategies to encourage cyber bystanders' defensive interventions must be accompanied by interventions that encourage students' moral development.

The measurement invariance of the SBDI facilitates a meaningful comparison of defender interventions by gender and educational level (secondary vs. high school). Then, practitioners can identify the differences in factors associated with types of defender intervention in both gender and educational level (secondary and high school). In addition, they can evaluate whether programs to promote bystander construction and hinder aggressive defending interventions have different results according to gender and education level.

Limitations

This study has several limitations. First, the results were based on self-reported measures, which may have inherent response biases. Therefore, further studies should include different informants (e.g., peers and teachers) and measurement strategies (e.g., interviews) to provide a more robust scale to measure the styles of bystander defender interventions in cyberbullying events. Second, the findings are based on a non-probabilistic sample from a specific region of Mexico. It is desirable to use random and cross-national samples from diverse cultures (e.g., indigenous students) to examine the psychometric properties of the SBDI.

Third, given the cross-sectional design of this study, it remains challenging to assess whether aggressive or constructive intervention exists. Therefore, further studies should examine the prevalence of the bystander defender type (constructive or aggressive) in cyberbullying events over time. Finally, we need to examine the validity equivalence of the English and Spanish versions of the scale. Further research should examine the validity of the interpretation of this two-scale version.

Future Research

Future studies must further examine the precursors and consequences for victims of both styles of bystander–defender intervention in cyberbullying. Additionally, differences in gender and education levels in defender intervention styles should be studied. Finally, additional studies exploring the consequences of aggressive and constructive interventions in prevention programs are required.

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Appendix

Styles of *Bystander Defender Intervention Scale*

Constructive intervention

By telling the cyber-aggressor, you think that what the cyberbullying did is not OK.
Le digo al ciber agresor que el ciberbullying no está bien.

By comforting the cyber victim and telling them that it is not their fault that they were picked on.
Consuelo a la ciber víctimas y les digo que no es su culpa que la hayan molestado.

By encouraging the cyber-victim to report being picked on.
Animo a la ciber víctima a denunciar que la están molestando.

By telling the cyber-aggressor to stop picking on the other students.
Le digo al ciber agresor que deje de molestar a otros estudiantes.

By telling the cyber-aggressor that picking on the other students was mean and wrong.
Le digo al agresor ciber agresor que molestar a los otros estudiantes es malo e incorrecto.

By telling the cyber-aggressor that picking on the other students is hurtful to them.
Le comento al ciber agresor que acosar a otros estudiantes es dañino para él mismo.

By telling the cyber-victim to ignore the mean things that were said.
Le digo a las ciber víctimas que ignoren las cosas malas que le dicen.

By encouraging the cyber-aggressor to say sorry to the student they picked on.
Estímulo al ciber agresor a pedir disculpas al estudiante que molesto.

By giving the cyber-victim advice about coping with cyberbullying.
Aconsejo a la ciber víctima como manejar la situación de ciberacoso.

By telling the cyber-aggressor to back-off.
Le digo al ciber agresor que se detenga.

Aggressive Intervention

By writing embarrassing jokes or comments about cyber-aggressor.
Publico chistes o comentarios vergonzosos sobre el ciber agresor

By sharing humiliating images or videos of the cyber-aggressor.
Comparto imágenes o videos humillantes del ciber agresor.

By spreading rumors or gossip about cyberbully.
Difundo rumores o chismes del ciber acosador.

By making threats to the cyber-aggressor.
Amenazo al ciber aggressor.

By saying mean things about the cyber-aggressor.
Publico cosas malas del ciber agresor.

Career Satisfaction as a Retention Factor for Mozambican Adult Educators

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Abstract

The goal of our research is to analyze the career satisfaction as a retention factor of adult educators. A total of 25 interviews were conducted in Mozambique. The study adopted qualitative method, using grounded theory. The results found chronic problems in Mozambican Human Resource Management (HRM) Public Educational Sector. The difficulties in career development, training, and poor rewards are pointed as factors that affect adult career satisfaction. In addition, the career support, and financial incentives do not match with adult educators' retention expectancy. The findings show the dissatisfaction of adult educators and consequently increase the turnover.

Keywords: career satisfaction, human resource management, retention, adult educators.

La Satisfacción Profesional Como Factor de Retención de los Educadores de Adultos Mozambiqueños

Resumen

El objetivo de nuestra investigación es analizar la satisfacción profesional como factor de retención de los educadores de adultos. Se realizaron un total de 25 entrevistas en Mozambique. El estudio adoptó método cualitativo, utilizando la *grounded theory*. Los resultados encontraron problemas crónicos en la Gestión de Recursos Humanos (GRH) del sector educativo público de Mozambique. Las dificultades en el desarrollo de la carrera, la formación y las escasas recompensas se señalan como factores que afectan a la satisfacción profesional de los adultos. Además, el apoyo a la carrera profesional y los incentivos financieros no se corresponden con las expectativas de retención de los educadores de adultos. Los resultados muestran la insatisfacción de los educadores de adultos y, en consecuencia, la escasa retención.

Palabras clave: satisfacción profesional, gestión de recursos humanos, retención, educadores de adultos.

Introduction

THE ADULT educator career is vital to eradicate illiteracy and promote the lifelong learning (Demetrion, 1997; Itasanmi, et al., 2021). However, "the organizational system is now in a mode of all change, all dynamic, total fluidity, and thus careers are unpredictable, vulnerable, and multidirectional" (Baruch, 2006, p.1). So, the work environment of adult educator is insecure, because of continuous changes in education policies (Pacheco, 2000; Fullan, 2009). This deal affects the career satisfaction due to the downsizing of the Human Resource Management (HRM) (Rossi & Hunger, 2012; Cardoso & Costa, 2016).

Some scholars believe that the nature of careers is dynamic and always affected by continually volatile factors that have a great effect on career satisfaction (Hansen, et al., 2017; Saha, et al., 2017). Therefore, adult educators' career is also influenced by several negative factors (e.g. career stagnation). Indeed, the Ministry of Education and Human Development (MINEDH) has the responsibility to enhance innovative and flexible strategies to ensure career development of adult educator as critical factor for organization's competitiveness and sustainability (Simione, 2019; Araoz & Ramos, 2021). This is the reason we focus on HRM processes to understand the career satisfaction as a retention factor of adult educators.

In Mozambique, the study of this topic is quite recent. There is a lack of systematic analysis of the state of art. The main theoretical and empirical research aim to understand adult educator career in the context of education policy implementation (Mário & Nandja, 2005; Luís, 2012; AFRIMAP, 2012; Manuel & Popov, 2016; Manuel, et al., 2017; Nugroho & Karamperidou, 2021; Juliasse, 2021). However, this paper seeks to fill the gap of the HRM concerning the career satisfaction and retention of the adult educators.

Unfortunately, the HRM strategies of Mozambican Public Education Sector that work to retain adult educators are not successful. For instance, Luís (2012) reveals weaknesses for adult educator career satisfaction. The recruitment process and the compensation policies are disruptives. The adult educators are hired as volunteers, without public announcement and the salary is paid as allowance. This scenario raises the question of how career satisfaction factors can enhance the retention of Mozambican's adult educators?

The present study builds on limited information about career satisfaction and retention of adult educators in the Mozambican context. Our goal is to analyze and explain how career satisfaction can enhance the retention of adult educators. The contribution of this paper is three-fold. First, we aim to guarantee career satisfaction as a critical success factor for the retention of adult educators. Second, we reflect the capacity of HRM practices in terms of career satisfaction. Finally, we demonstrate the retention of adult educators, as positive impact of career success.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. First, based on the literature review we suggest a conceptual framework of career satisfaction, retention of adult educators and we provide an overview of adult educator career in Mozambique. Second, in the empirical part of the paper, we describe the methods used in our exploratory study, before presenting and discussing our findings. The following conclusion includes the limitations, theoretical and practical implications for future research.

Theoretical Framework

Career Satisfaction

Career satisfaction is a feeling of employees that reveals professional achievement (Toropova et al., 2021). Conceptually, "It refers to employees' sense of achievement in their careers, and maybe derived from such factors as promotion, pay level, and opportunities for professional development" (Kong, et al., 2020, p. 3). It is an individual predisposition connected with success

at work (Alves et al., 2014) that depends on the HRM practices, responsible for employees' well-being (Spurk, et al., 2011).

Herzberg's two-factor theory provides empirical support for analyzing the career satisfaction. The theory measures the difference between motivation and hygiene factors. Motivation factors show how the employees can achieve the recognition, responsibility, advancement, achievement, and the possibility for growth in the career, whereas hygiene factors include organizational HRM policies, for instance interpersonal relations, relationship with supervisors, working environment and salary (Alshmemri, et al., 2017). Concerning career satisfaction, Bakotić (2016) believes that the financial incentives are important to enhance the employee's commitment. According to Marqueze & Moreno (2005) and Abacar et al., (2020) the career satisfaction promotes employees' psychological contracts at work.

It is important to note that employee success depends on career satisfaction (Cardoso & Costa, 2016). So, the HRM is responsible to enhance the performance and positive attitudes at work. The efficiency of the tasks depends on the high motivation of the employee (Bonneton, et al. 2022). Bagdadli & Gianecchini (2019) explain that HRM practices are the key strategies for retaining the best employees, using the career development tools as essential factors of career satisfaction.

Considering Herzberg's two-factor theory, the career satisfaction deals with two facets, such as intrinsic (subjective) and extrinsic (objective) factors of employee's retention (Koustelios & Tsigilis, 2005). For Armstrong (2006) the intrinsic factors refer to the fulfillment of organizational interest. The employee aims to reach the recognition of work. While Trivellas et al. (2015) confirm that career satisfaction depends on extrinsic factors, related to rewards and financial incentives. Following the theory above, the satisfaction of public servants is subjective because they defend the public interest (Wright & Grant, 2010; Taylor & Westover, 2011).

Hur (2017) tested the Herzberg's two-factor theory of Motivation in the Public Sector. The author categorized the motivators as (opportunity for advancement, training, career development, increased responsibility, pride, authority, incentives, and flexibility of HRM procedures) and the Hygiene Factors (job security, pension and retirement plan, less red tape, less conflict, medical and insurance, family friendly policy and salary). The study confirms that Herzberg's two factor theory of motivation can be applied to the public servants. In this case, we therefore use this theory as a framework to analyze how the career satisfaction can enhance the retention of Mozambican adult educators.

Retention of Adult Educators

In competitive business world, the attraction and retention of employees are vital to organizational success. Kong et al. (2020, p. 2) recognize that "to retain and motivate the best employees, organizations must work to enhance their career satisfaction". It is the responsibility of the managers to assist their employees, linking the HRM policies and practices. However, the retention of adult educators is considered disruptive. The imposition of various reform initiatives in an educational context, disconnected from the HRM capacity, represents intolerable conditions for career development (Fullan, 2009). One of the deep feelings of adult educators is the job insecurity. Goodman et al., (2015) reveal obstacles to retaining employees in organizations. The lack of financial career incentives and limitations of benefits are the reasons for turnover.

The Herzberg's two-factor theory also explain the career satisfaction as factor of intention to turnover. The empirical results show that leadership career support moderates the relationship between career management practices, job satisfaction and turnover intention (Oliveira, et al., 2019). In this case Schaefer, et. al., (2012) point out three important factors of adult educators' retention,

namely: career support, financial incentives, and organizational climate.

First, career support is an HRM strategy, which recognize the employee work effort. It serves to enhance work performance as a valuable resource for labor productivity. To raise work commitment, the organizations promote career mentoring to support the employees (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Eisenberger, et al., 1990). According to Kong et al. (2020, p. 3) "organizational career support, which can include orientation programs, mentoring, job rotation, and workshops, are crucial in meeting employees' career expectations". Shore and Tetrick (1991) concluded that career support has a positive relationship with employee retention.

Second, the financial incentives contribute to career satisfaction and increase the retention of employees. However, the study of See et al. (2020) found the high turnover level of adult educators in educational system, for reasons of low rewards and less career incentives. So that, "compensation has a high effect on employee retention within a company because with satisfactory compensation, employees will feel that the company is caring about employee needs" (Syahreza, et al. 2017, p. 2). The financial incentives help the fulfillment of employee's lives, improving the engagement, job satisfaction and well-being.

Third, the organizational climate plays an important role in the retention of adult educators. Chapman (1983) recognizes the social and professional integration as a successfully key to attract the employees. The leadership support enhances the adult educator to stay in the organization. Toropova et al., (2021) found the cooperation between adult educators and the school principal as an important strategy to retain the staff. Based on this notion, the team-working, mentoring and a supportive leadership culture encourage adult educators to stay in the organization (Harsch & Festing, 2020). "Thus, perceived organizational career support may encourage employees' expectation for future

career growth and help them persist in pursuing their career goals" (Kong et al, 2020, p.3).

Adult Educators' Career in Mozambique

Mozambique has a high illiteracy rate among people aged 15 and above. The 2017 Census data estimates that, in this age group, 39% of the Mozambican population cannot read or write. This rate is high among women (49.4%) and low (27.2%) for men. The illiteracy for women is related to poverty and has a significant impact on children's education, as it is women who mostly assume this responsibility of household in rural area (MINEDH, 2020).

Given the importance of illiteracy reduction, the adult educator career is vital because it helps individuals who are out of school to develop basic skills, promoting the lifelong learning (Mário & Nandja, 2005; Manuel, et al., 2017). Unfortunately, the Mozambican Public Education Sector does not clearly define the legal status of adult educator career management. The work contract is seasonal and precarious, with duration of 10 months. The study of Luís (2012) points out some weaknesses in HRM, concerning the adult educators' career. There are not clear procedures to attract, select, develop, and retain adult educators (Linden, 2005; Rungo, 2005). For example, the recruitment process is done at the school level, on an arbitrary and *ad hoc* basis. These professionals are hired voluntarily, with low levels of training (from grades 4 to 9). Moreover, one of the critical points of the adult educator career is the lack of the opportunities for financial incentives and medical assurance. This scenario affects the satisfaction at work. According to Juliasse (2021) the adult educators work under precarious infrastructural conditions. They have not adequate classrooms for working. A similar picture emerges from the study of Manuel et al. (2017, p.10) which confirms that "adult educator work environment faces the lack of resources. All the equipment used for practical work is old and obsolete in training centers".

Method

Research Design

To increase our understanding of this topic, we have explored in-depth how career satisfaction factors contribute to the retention of adult educators. To achieve the goal of this research, we have chosen an exploratory, qualitative approach. The methodological option is appropriate for social sciences research (Creswell, 2009). The qualitative research is characterized by its flexibility, openness, and ability to respond to a certain social problem (Busetto, et al., 2020). This type of research offers tools for understanding complex situations and provides opportunities to expand our views of some research problem (Austin & Sutton, 2014). It allows describing people's beliefs, experiences, attitudes, behaviors, and interactions regarding a certain social phenomenon (Pathak, et al., 2013). The qualitative research emphasizes the unique, unrepeatable, and subjective characteristics of the explored topic. The subjectivity plays a decisive role in constructing and interpret theories about psychological phenomena (Cuenya & Ruetti, 2010).

This paper involves an interpretative approach and analyzes different perspectives on the topic, which describe the meanings of HRM problem that affects the employees (Aspers & Corte, 2019). We have chosen grounded theory method to understand the career satisfaction of adult educators. This method is a process of generating theory from data and it is used in qualitative research for collecting the data, coding, and analyzing the information provided by the participants. The researcher selects the information and decides about the categories to develop new theory (Noble & Mitchell, 2016).

Participants

The sample was composed of 25 Mozambican adult educators (17 males and 8 females). The participants were selected by convenient method. The sample was determined by saturation point. The decision of the sample changed over the data collection process. The saturation point was crucial to decide the number of participants could be considered for the research (Hennink & Kaiser, 2022). During the interview process, when we reached the 25 adult educators, no additional information in the data collection was needed. The saturation refers to the point during data analysis at which incoming data points (interviews) produce little or no new useful information (Guest, et al., 2020; Sebele-Mpofu, 2020; Islam & Aldaihani, 2022). The researcher begins to hear the same answers again and again. It is the time to stop collecting data and start the analyzing process of what has been collected (Saunders et al., 2018).

The participants were between 23 to 40 years old. Regarding education levels, 44% had completed the grade seven of primary school; 28% grade nine of secondary school; 8% grade 10 of secondary school and 20% grade 12 of secondary school. The work experience of the participants varies between 2 to 12 years, according to the table below:

Table 1 *Sociodemographic characteristics of the participants*

	N (=25)	
	n	**%**
Gender		
Male	17	68
Female	8	32
Marital status		
Single	12	48
Married	9	36
Divorced	4	16
Age range		
20-25anos	12	48
25-30 anos	8	32
35-40 anos	5	20
Education		
Primary school (Grade 7)	11	44
Secondary school (Grade 9)	7	28
Secondary school (Grade 10)	2	8
Secondary school (Grade 12)	5	20
Professional experience		
1-5 years	7	28
6-10 years	12	48
11-15 years	6	24

Source: Owner elaboration

Instrument and Procedures

For data collection, we conducted 25 semi-structured interviews containing 11 questions. The first section presents sociodemographic data (gender, marital status, age, education, and professional experience) of the participants as presented in the Table 1. The second comprised the information regarding career satisfaction and the third section analyzed the career retention of adult educators. The study was conducted and approved by the Ethics Committee of the Rovuma University for studies involving humans with credential 06.0738.2016 of 2nd August 2021 and was authorized by the Angoche Distrital Education Youth and Technological Service (11.08.2021). The semi-structured interview guideline used the following topics in Table below:

According to Table 2, we analyzed the career satisfaction factors and the retention of adult educators. The semi-structured interviews were administered in a harmonious working environment. We contacted the adult educators and explained the purpose of the research. Then, the information was recorded to be later transcribed. We translated the data collected from Portuguese to English. The duration of the interview was about 30-45 minutes for each participant. We have guaranteed the anonymity and confidentiality of the information provided by interviewees. We followed the recommendations of Cuenya and Ruetti (2010), which explain that the study of psychological phenomenon requires rigor and structured questions to explore in depth the research problem. However, it is important to contrast these questions with the facts of reality. So, the progress of Psychology as science can provide new inputs that can explain the future research.

The aim of this study was to analyze the career satisfaction as a retention factor of adult educator. The interviews were recorded, transcribed, and analyzed using the Amberscript program. This program separated the questions of the researcher and the answers of the participants. Then, we underlined the keywords of the statements, suggesting

Table 2 *Interview topics*

Categories	Question topics
Career satisfaction of adult educators	Opportunities and challenges of adult educators. Understanding how the rewards are paid, career development, training, and the feelings of adult educators regarding career satisfaction. Explore the difference between teachers and adult educators to understand the main opportunities for career satisfaction.
Retention of adult educators	Understanding de importance of financial incentives to improve career expectations. Explore the strategic objectives of HRM regarding the attraction, selection, development, and retention of adult educators. Analyze how the organizational support occurs and supervision visits to help the career of adult educators.

Source: Owner elaboration

the categories that could add the data analysis. The information was processed using grounded theory method. For Hsieh & Shanon (2005) this analysis has categorized the information with similar meanings, to obtain the understanding of the phenomenon under study.

To ensure qualitative rigor, we followed the approach chosen by Bengtsson (2016) considering the four stages, namely: pre-analysis, recontextualization, categorization, and compilation of the information. In the first stage, we used a systematic process to code the interview data and then subjectively analyze and interpret to identify the most relevant aspects of the topic. The second stage we roll the preliminary categories and filtered the information, based on the literature review. In the third stage, we separated similar and different information and we constructed the final categories.

In the last stage, we analyzed the information with the support of the literature to avoid data bias. In this context, we coded each interviewee using the letter "P" and the number "1", for example (P1, P2, P3, P4.... P5).

Following the Campo-Redondo (2021) proce-dures, we performed the open, axial and selective mode to analyze the data obtained by interview. Regarding the open coding, we identified the main theoretical categories of career satisfaction and retention factor. This analysis generated similar and different conceptual subcategories. Then we address the axial coding to review the subcategories to find the theoretical dimensions. In this context, we compared the differences and similarities of the subcategories to identify the aggregated dimen-sions. Finally, we performed the selective coding of the data and we found the final categories. In sum, to examine the narratives of the participants concerning the career satisfaction as retention factor of adult educators, we divided the data into micro-analysis and successive comparisons. We found the connections of some pieces of the data to other subcategories, linking to main category. Once, we conceived the theoretical matrix to find the relationships between the subcategories, in order to find a bridge between the Herzberg's Theory and the conclusive analysis.

Results

We present in the following section the re-sults of our paper. First, we looked at the main categories of career satisfaction and we outlined the adult educators' career retention. Our find-ings followed the Herzberg's two-factor theory showing the adult educator career satisfaction, like: (i) career development, (ii) career training and (iii) career rewards. Then, we found the (i) career support and the (ii) financial incentives as career retention factors. The main findings are demonstrated in Figure 1:

Figure 1 Model of data analysis
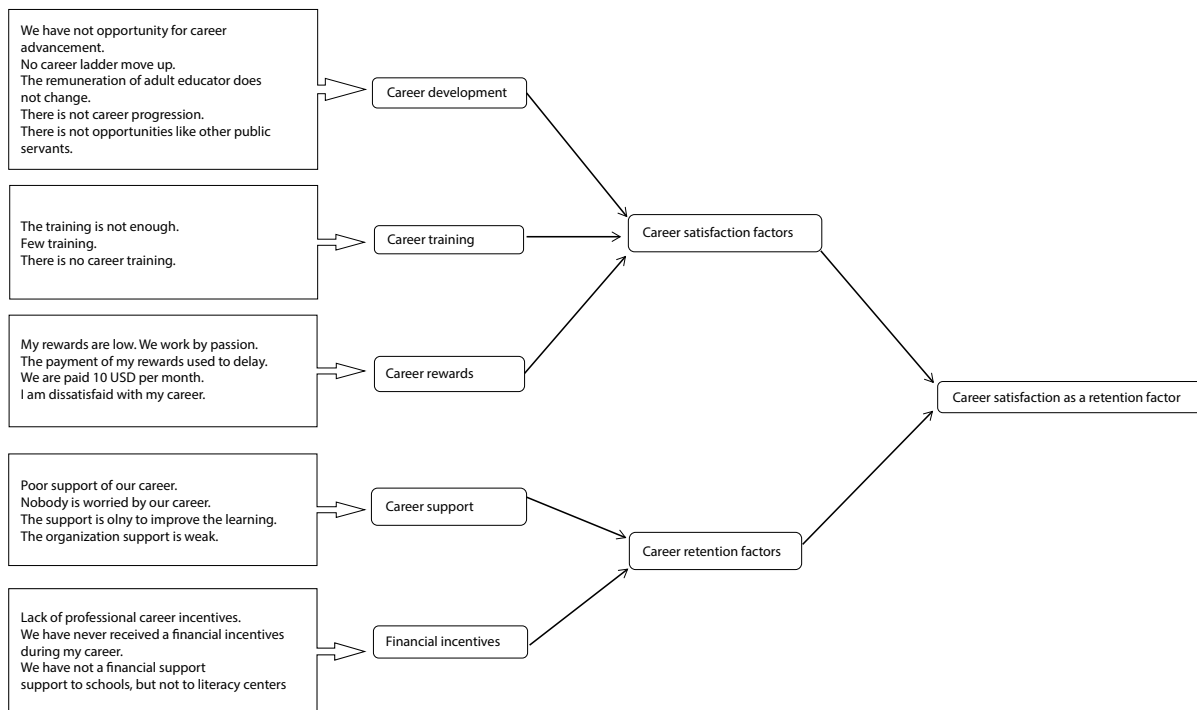
Note. The Figure 1 demonstrates the main findings of this paper. Following the Herzberg's theory factors, first the content of the semi-structured interview has showed the following career satisfaction categories concerning the adult educators' views, such as:

Career Development

Our interview confirmed that career development is main category found of career satisfaction in adult educators. The participants have considered as a category which enhance career advancement. However, they outlined that in Mozambican Public Education Sector are few strategies of HRM. So, the career progression of adult educators is weak because they are not public servants, but volunteer staff. They are hired to perform seasonal activities. This is reflected in the following statements below.

There is a difference between the primary school teacher and the adult educator. In terms of work, we are equal, we have the task of teaching, but career management is different. I participate in school activities, but the salary is not equal. It makes me sad because I cannot advance in my career. It is difficult to move up the career ladder (P5).

I will never develop my career since I joined as an adult educator. I am 11 years of experience, and I am still on the same remuneration. I am inserted into the education system, but I do not have opportunities like other employees. There is neither growth nor career development (P12).

We do not have professional development. I am just a volunteer. I do not have a career progression. I have been here for 09 years, but I never had opportunities to advance in my career (P13).

Career Training

In our data, we found particularities of career satisfaction connected to the training of the adult educator. One of the most important categories that enhance the career satisfaction of adult educators is training. It helps the development of professional skills, improving the job performance. For instance, the training itself can be a strategic HRM to support adult educators. The interviewees recognized that they have been receiving training. However, they regretted to be scarce and take place sporadically. We illustrate in the following statements below:

We receive training once a year. This happens during the holiday time, but it is not enough (P1).

We are few trained. The training takes place from time to time. They happen at the beginning of the career (P7).

We had some trainings. The outcome is to improve teaching and learning. No one explains to us about our career (P9).

Career Rewards

The extrinsic rewards (salaries and financial incentives) are pointed out by the interviewees as being one of the essential factors of career satisfaction. When the organization increases the rewards, the employees tend to improve the performance at work. However, adult educators confirmed poor rewards in comparison to teachers. Despite the nature of their job, they earn 10 United States Dollar (USD) per month. This is a professional constraint of adult educators. They feel undervalued. In this context, we demonstrate below the interviewees' statements:

I am dissatisfied with my career. Because the rewards are low. We work three or four months without being paid. We continue working, so we do not sit at home waiting for the salaries. We work for the passion. One month, we can be paid, but the next one it does not. The wages are not enough to support the basic monthly expenses. We are paid 650 Meticais per month (equivalent to 10 USD) (P1). From 2008 to 2011 we have been paid per year. They accumulated the remuneration for a whole year. There were some changes from 2012, we have paid per month. In 2015 there was an increase of 100.00 MT (1.5 USD), and we now receive 650.00 MT (10 USD) (P10).

In this section, we found the factors of career satisfaction. According to the Figure 1, we also analyzed the retention of adult educators. It is important to note that the retention of employees

in the organization depends on HRM strategies, which are conceived to promote attraction and retention, creating favorable organizational support and career incentive packages. In this context, the interviewees pointed the career support and career incentives as being essential factors of career retention.

Career Support

The interview points out that adult educator career support is weak. The Mozambican Public Education Sector has little support of these professionals. The only support is the pedagogical supervision. Moreover, the coordination between the Pedagogical Influence Zones, the schools, and the adult educator centers is deficient. We found that the fund of Direct Support to Schools do not benefit adult educators work conditions. To illustrate, the statements of the interviewees show:

> The support we receive is poor. It does not support our careers but guides us to work in a calm environment (P7).

> We receive support from the educational services to evaluate adult educator work. We also receive support in textbooks for the first year and third year. We receive the educator's books, but the pupil does not have. It is the only support (P13).

Financial Incentives

The career management practices have been identified as one of the most important tools to create career incentive packages. Such incentives ensure employee stability, concerning to job retention. Career incentives can be assessed as financial or subjective. The financial consist in the payment of allowances. While the subjective is associated with the recognition of work through awards and certificates of honor. In the context of this research, adult educators reveal that they do not receive career incentives. The HRM of the Mozambican Public Education Sector has not defined incentives for these professionals. In addition, few HRM

mechanisms are implemented to enhance the satisfaction of adult educators' careers.

> I have not professional incentives. My career has no such privileges. I have never received an award or support during my career (P4).

> There is no professional incentive. There is no financial support. Even though there is Direct Support to Schools. The literacy centers do not receive this financial support. The Government gives support to schools, but not to literacy centers that are devalued (P5).

Discussion

The goal of this paper is to analyze career satisfaction as a retention factor for adult educators. We illustrated the findings of our research in two main categories. To explore the topic deeply, our results show the distinct career satisfaction factors identified in this study herein are result of HRM strategies that are characterized by different internal factors, such as career development, career training and career rewards. Furthermore, the retention of adult educator has also been explored and we found career support and financial incentives as the success critical factor in organization. The findings fit partially the main Herzberg's two-factor theory, because the respondents did not express their opinion in all variables of the Theory above. First, we present the discussion of career satisfaction. Then we point out career satisfaction as a retention factor.

Career Satisfaction

The preliminary analysis of the findings confirms the results observed in many studies of empirical research. To illustrate See et al (2020) refers that adult educator is dissatisfied because of poor career development opportunities, less trainings, and low rewards. This leads to absenteeism in their career. The results show that the Herzberg's theory factors are not yet appropriated related to a person's job satisfaction in terms of career

advancement, possibility of growth, recognition, and achievement.

However, adult educators feel insecure and instable at work because of the scarce opportunities for career development (Alves et al., 2014). The dynamic nature of careers requires organizations to move away from traditional practices to flexible HRM strategies, to promote professional development (Bagdadlia & Gianecchini, 2019). The flexibility in HRM procedures is one of the strategies that serve to enhance the career growth of employees (Sullivan & Al Ariss, 2021).

Following the insights of our study, we found some dysfunctions in HRM strategies in the Public Education Sector. However, some research observes the lack of opportunities for advancement in the career of adult educators (Kachhawa, et al., 2018).

For instance, the career development of adult educators in Mozambique follows a rigid and complex structure. There is a lack of public funds to support the career promotion of these professionals. Furthermore, they do have not the right to career advancement because are considered voluntary servers.

The second category of career satisfaction concerns the training of adult educators. Most of these training is about the Teaching and Learning Process, apart from careers development. The MINEDH (2020) recognizes the weaknesses related to the training of human resources in the Mozambican Public Education Sector, in particular the adult educators. This is due to the lack of material and financial conditions to strengthen the education servers.

The third category was noted in career satisfaction regarding rewards of adult educators. Our study found that the remunerations are low. It corresponds to 10 USD per month, which causes career dissatisfaction. Indeed, career rewards are crucial to promoting career satisfaction. Rewards positively influence employee performance and motivation. They have a significant impact on organizational commitment (Shah et al., 2012). The low rewards of adult educators have been

found as the cause of turnover. One of the constraints refers to the deterioration of the HRM Mozambican Public Education Sector in terms of adult educator's career development. These professionals work under precarious conditions, becoming victims of work stress (Abacar, et al., 2020; Zoller & Bacskai, 2020).

Career Satisfaction as a Retention Factor

The findings of this study show that adult educators are dissatisfied. Therefore, the retention of these professionals is low, and it is a challenge for HRM in the Public Education Sector. For this reason, we found career support and career incentives as factors of adult educators' retention. Furthermore, this study explains how the career satisfaction enhance the retention of adult educators.

First, the career support was found as a crucial factor to promote the adult educator's career satisfaction. The results of Han and Yin (2016) confirms that job satisfaction is positively related to employee retention. For instance, Hurst and Good (2009, p. 573) affirm that "[…] Supervisory support (e.g. appreciation, consideration and feedback) plays a vital role in reducing stress, increasing job satisfaction, and enhancing employee recruitment and retention.".

Based on view above, the career support is a HRM strategy which provides opportunities for employee career advancement (Duan, et al., 2018). Even though, the satisfaction of adult educators increases when school administration supports the careers, ensuring the school's effectiveness (Long et al. 2012). Similar research points out that administrative support is an important tool to meet employees' expectations and increase productivity at work (Borman & Dowling, 2008).

Under HRM strategies, the career support often receives attention as a critical factor for career satisfaction. In Mozambican context, the adult educators do not receive necessary support in their work, because they are hired in the uncertain job modality, as volunteers and with precarious work

contract (Simione, 2019). They are considered as seasonal employees.

The second category of adult educators' retention refers to career incentives. The findings of this study indicate that financial or subjective incentives are essential to ensure employee retention. As outlined by Shen (1997) the adult educators tend to turnover. This happens because of low rewards and a lack of career incentives. The adult educator's retention depends on the dynamic nature of HRM in the Public Education Sector, concerning the career reward as strategy to satisfy adult educator (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007).

However, Mozambican adult educators have a contrary view. They consider that HRM in Public Education Sector faces serious problems. For instance, the recruitment process of these professionals is insecure and inappropriate. The work contract is seasonal with 10 months duration. There is not a chance to career development. Under these circumstances, the adult educator develops a capacity to adapt their work to organizational HRM difficulties, having self-confidence and being willing to take risks. As observed by Luís (2012), the adult educator career is affected by job insecurity, dissatisfaction, and turnover. Due to these factors Nugroho and Karamperidou (2021) argues the increase in absenteeism of adult educators in the Mozambican context. The main concern is related to job dissatisfaction. MINEDH (2020) acknowledges that the Mozambican Public Education Sector faces chronic finance difficulties, reducing the conditions to satisfy the adult educator careers.

Conclusion

In this study, our goal was to analyze career satisfaction as a retention factor of Mozambican adult educators. The findings of 25 interviews have lighted the feelings of the participants. This paper partially confirms that Herzberg's two factor theory of motivation can be applied to the adult educators. The career satisfaction is affected by feeling related to poor career growth, less trainings and low career rewards. Furthermore, the retention of these professionals is still poor in Mozambique. The turnover is high because of the scarcity of career support and financial incentives. Among three motivators factors found in this study (career development, career training, and career rewards) do not significantly increase career satisfaction. The career rewards are very limited in Public Educational Sector and the working conditions of adult educator are precarious. Overall, these professionals reported career dissatisfaction, negatively affecting the career retention.

This paper outline that Mozambique's Education Sector has chronic HRM problems, particularly in the adult educator career development. Apart from that, there is no programs for training adult educators. All happens in *ad hoc* mode. The only training takes place before the vacation commencement, where the supervisors prepare the adult educator on their annual lesson plans. We found also in our research that adult educators earn low rewards, which causes dissatisfaction at work.

Regarding the retention of these professionals, this paper found two main categories, which led us to a thorough analysis. First the career support for adult educators is deficient due to the lack of practical guides which define the share of responsibilities between school principals and the adult educator supervisor. Second, the lack of financial support gives rise to challenges for the retention of adult educator. They do not receive career incentives and there are not HRM packages for professional development. This scenario increases the adult educator turnover.

Limitations, Theoretical and Practical Implications for Future Research

Limitations

We acknowledge that our study carries some limitations. First, the participants of this research work in urban area. We believe that adult educators working in rural environment have more

constraints to be explored. Second, the study was conducted in a pandemic environment of Covid-19, which impacted an enormous effort to collect the data. We spent much time to convince the participants, explaining continuously the pertinence of the paper. Third, by the nature of qualitative research, we avoid running the risk of generalizing the conclusions obtained in this study to other countries. But we can replicate for Mozambican context, according to the beliefs of the participants.

Theoretical Implications

This study adds insights for the existing theoretical framework with specific approaches of career satisfaction and retention of adult educators. Our results indicate the importance of career development, trainings, and career rewards, increasing value to the literature and providing a deep understanding of HRM strategies. We suggest that future research could replicate this study in different settings. Such study could follow quantitative methods, testing the relationships between career satisfaction and retention of adult educators, to obtain demonstrable results. These implications can show that there is still much to be investigated to enrich career satisfaction as a retention factor for adult educator in different HRM contexts.

Practical implications

This paper brought some insights for HRM showing the main problems of career satisfaction and retention of adult educators. Due to the nature of adult educator career, we propose innovative, resilient, and adaptable HRM strategies for enhance the employees. In this case, the organizations must provide the security, stability, innovation, and good work to enable the adult career expectancy. It is important to promote the multilevel selection process, involving the top management to define the criteria of adult educator career in educational context. We encourage future researchers to examine the main factors of adult educator career

retention. We believe that some hypotheses in a longitudinal study can provide inputs to improve the HRM. This would help the Education Sector to recognize the adult educator career as employees, promoting the organizational trust of the work and self-esteem.

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Political Ideology and the Legitimization of Social Inequalities in Colombia

Political Ideology and Inequality in Colombia

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Abstract

This article examines the effect of left-right political ideology on attitudes toward inequality and the maintenance of the status quo in Colombia. In three studies, we examined the influence of political orientation on attitudes towards economic inequality (Study 1, $N = 506$), gender inequality (Study 2, $N = 277$), and political inequality (Study 3, $N = 1,555$). Our results suggest that people positioning further to the right on the political spectrum —political conservatism—were consistently associated with lower perception of social inequalities, greater justification of the unequal status quo, and refusal to take actions that redress inequality. These results were consistent across different domains, such as economic, political and gender inequalities. Furthermore, our findings also suggest that political ideology was also associated with political and affective polarization. Political ideology is discussed as a category that allows people to perceive and understand the social world from which they position themselves in relation to political issues.

Keywords: Inequality, Political Ideology, Social Psychology, System Justification, Colombia.

Ideología política y legitimación de las desigualdades sociales en Colombia

Resumen

En este artículo se examina el efecto de la ideología política de izquierda-derecha sobre las actitudes hacia la desigualdad y el mantenimiento del statu quo en Colombia. En tres estudios, evaluamos la influencia de la orientación política sobre las actitudes hacia la desigualdad económica (Estudio 1, $N = 506$), la desigualdad de género (Estudio 2, $N = 277$) y la desigualdad política (Estudio 3, $N = 1.555$). Nuestros resultados sugieren que las personas que se posicionan más a la derecha en el espectro político —conservadurismo político— se asocian sistemáticamente con una menor percepción de las desigualdades sociales, una mayor justificación del statu quo, y un mayor rechazo a emprender acciones que promuevan el cambio social. Estos resultados fueron consistentes en diferentes ámbitos, como las desigualdades económicas, políticas y de género. Además, nuestros resultados también sugieren que el conservadurismo político estuvo asociado con diferentes formas de polarización política y afectiva. La ideología política se discute como una categoría que permite a las personas percibir y comprender el mundo social desde el que se posicionan en relación con las cuestiones políticas.

Palabras claves: colombia, desigualdad, ideología política, psicología social, justificación del sistema.

POLITICAL IDEOLOGY allows people to understand and navigate through different social, political, and economic issues. Ideologies include a set of beliefs, values and behaviors about social reality, which are identified with the left or right side of the political spectrum. Positioning to the left or to the right is a widely used ideological compass to differentiate "progressive" (left-wing) or "conservative" (right-wing) attitudes, which are likely related to the legitimization of inequality, the search for social justification and resistance to change (Bobbio, 1996; García-Castro, 2010; Jost, 2017).

Political ideology, however, depends on the historical, social, political, and economic characteristics of each context (Caprara and Vecchione, 2018). Therefore, being on the left or on the right of the political spectrum have different connotations in a country with strong democratic institutions (e.g., Europe), with recent experiences of military dictatorships (e.g., Latin America), or countries with ongoing internal armed conflict (e.g., Colombia). Indeed, political ideology becomes more important in defining political attitudes depending on the country of reference (Freire, 2008; Wiesehomeier and Doyle, 2012). As such, the notions of left and right should be reviewed in the light of some "hard cores" (e.g., beliefs, values, identities) shared across people and societies, as well as "soft" or peripheral aspects specific to each context.

This article examines the role of political ideology on legitimating inequality in Colombia, a country historically characterized by high levels of political violence, poverty and exclusion (Moncada, 2013). We seek to integrate the conceptual and contextual discussion of ideology from the perspective of social psychology in the Colombian context. Our research relies on the idea that left-right political ideology remains a useful indicator to understand some political attitudes around (in)equality and support for the status quo. Particularly, we expect that placing more to the right (vs. left) in the political spectrum will be positively associated with the legitimation of social inequalities

in economic, gender, and political domains. We argue that the legitimating effect of political ideology is maintained across different social domains (economic, gender-based, and political) and it is central within the Colombian political conflict. However, there is little empirical literature that confirms these correlates of political ideology in Colombia. As such, we still do not know if there are any nuances of the Colombian context that need to be taken into account.

This article contributes to the scientific literature on the psychosocial correlates of political ideology in two aspects. First, it evaluates the pertinence of a left-right political ideology in a context of high social and economic inequality such as Colombia and allows questioning whether the political ideologies revolve around the justification of social inequality. Second, this article shows some particularities of political ideology in Colombia, related to its conservative history and armed conflict. Considering that the existing literature on political ideology in Colombia has more historical, political, or sociological perspectives, this article is one of the first empirical investigations showing the correlates of political ideology on a wide variety of social and political attitudes. As such, this study helps to gain a better understanding of the meaning of left-right political ideology in Colombia.

Left-Right Political Ideology From a Psychosocial Perspective

Ideologies can be defined from different perspectives, depending on the theoretical background and the level of analysis. For instance, ideologies can be seen as a set of belief systems about different dimensions of life (e.g., political, religious, philosophical); but can also be seen as discursive or rhetorical artifacts to manipulate and deceive (Leader Maynard and Mildenberger, 2018). From an empirical and non-normative perspective, ideology is defined as a system of political and moral attitudes composed of different cognitive, affective and motivational processes

(Jost, 2006). Thus, political ideology represents an organized set of values (i.e., abstract ideals or guiding principles) and attitudes (i.e., positive or negative evaluations) about a specific issue (Maio et al., 2006). As such, values are seen as concepts or beliefs about desirable states or behaviors that transcend the individual and guide their evaluations and behaviors (Schwartz, 1992). These values provide a frame of reference for perceiving reality and shape behaviors aligned to what is considered correct, fair and appropriate (Jost et al., 2009).

Some political ideologies contribute to legitimate social inequalities and maintain the status quo, such as the belief in a just world, social dominance orientation, meritocracy, system justification, and political conservatism (García-Castro, 2010; Jost and Hunyady, 2005). Regarding political conservatism, this ideology is captured by the distinction between left and right, which has been a useful, consistent and parsimonious indicator to approximate political attitudes in the Western world (Jost, 2009). The left-right division corresponds to a system of beliefs and attitudes underlying progressive or conservative thoughts that represent antagonistic concepts in the world of politics, particularly, regarding equality issues: the left-progressive is associated with a greater search for equality, and the right-conservative is committed to the legitimization of inequality (Bobbio, 1996; Hunt, 2014).

From a psychological perspective, left-right political ideology reflects individual differences on specific cognitive and motivational processes for understanding reality. In this regard, political ideology represents a motivated social cognition (Jost et al., 2003), related to a series of needs in epistemic (e.g., to understand the world), existential (e.g., to avoid threats), and relational (e.g., to share reality with others) factors that revolve around two substantive dimensions: justification of inequality and support for the status quo (Jost et al., 2009). The left-right asymmetry has received abundant empirical evidence internationally, showing that conservative (vs. progressive) political ideology is often associated with higher levels of the needs for cognitive closure, perceptions of threat, dogmatism, cognitive rigidity, and intolerance of uncertainty, among others (for a systematic review see Jost, 2017).

Political ideology also denotes asymmetries in moral values. For example, Nilsson and Jost (2020) found that positioning on the right side of the political spectrum was linked to stronger endorsement of beliefs in a competitive and dangerous world, as well as normativism (e.g., preference for adhering to norms). Likewise, the left was positively associated with humanism (e.g., attributing intrinsic value to people) and desire to change (Nilsson and Jost, 2020). Besides, conservative people tend to score similar in the values of caring, fairness, loyalty, authority, and purity, as well as having less consensus toward public policies (Haidt et al., 2009). On the other hand, liberals (vs. conservatives) adhere significantly higher to the values of caring and fairness (Graham et al., 2009).

Furthermore, political ideology can feed political and affective polarization. That is, people can become more extreme in their beliefs, attitudes, and affects because of their ideological differences with other people (Hetherington, 2009). Indeed, political and affective polarization can be a by-product of people's political preferences and ideologies (Abramowitz & Saunders, 2008). Research has shown that political and affective polarization have increased because of cleavages in political attitudes toward, redistribution, and welfare (Webster & Abramowitz, 2017). Similarly, political polarization is likely to increase when people perceive greater differences between political issues (Rogowski & Sutherland, 2016), and when people endorse political conservatism and nationalism (Satherley, Sibley, et al., 2020). Likewise, international data have shown that polarization between people from the left and right have been fed by redistributive preferences and inequality-related topics (Noureddine & Gravelle, 2021). Thus, the influence of political

ideology on the legitimacy of inequality can be a potential linkage that foster polarization.

Political Ideology as a Context-Dependent Process

Left-right political ideology is constructed within a specific historical, social and cultural context (Caprara and Vecchione, 2018; García-Castro, 2010). Caprara and Vecchione (2018) showed that in some countries left-right ideology was associated with political and intergroup attitudes, while in others this only occurred when there was a clear demarcation of political parties. In Spain, Jahn (2011) also showed that the "two party system" restricted the political ideologies, with the left tending to be more homogeneous in terms of condemning inequality and the right presenting greater divisions between neoliberals and conservatives. Likewise, in other countries of Europe, left-right political ideology has been strongly associated with adherence to specific political parties, and this party structure serves as a reference to define the political attitudes of their sympathizers (Vegetti and Širinić, 2018). Solano-Silva (2018) showed that people aligned to the right-side of the political spectrum was associated with greater acceptance of inequality in developed Western countries, but this association was lower and more diverse in Latin American countries. Left-right political ideology has different configurations in Latin America, depending on the type of policies related to support for the tax system, public spending, and privatization (Wiesehomeier, 2010; Wiesehomeier and Doyle, 2012).

In Colombia, empirical literature on political ideology is scarce. One study showed that political conservatism was associated with higher scores in authoritarianism and social dominance (Díaz, 2017). Another study found that political conservatism was associated with greater orientation to blind patriotism, greater national identity, authoritarianism, conformism, orientation to self-censorship (i.e., withholding information to protect one's own group), and lower support for universal values such as truth, peace, and social justice (Lobato et al., 2020). Furthermore, political conservatism was positively associated with individualizing, binding, and moral absolutism values (as defined in the Moral Foundations theory) (Avendaño et al., 2021). These studies pointed out a relationship between political conservatism or right-wing political ideology and inequality-justifying attitudes, but do not systematically examine the influence of political ideology on different inequality dimensions embedded in social, political, and economic domains.

Regarding the meaning of political ideology in Colombia, it can be interpreted from a historical perspective. Historical research suggest that Colombia was influenced by right-wing movements from Europe at the beginning of the 20th century, which promoted the centrality of religion, family and property (Gaitán-Bohórquez & Malagón-Pinzón, 2019). Furthermore, political ideology in Colombia is intrinsically related to the political armed conflict between left-wing guerrillas and right-wing military and paramilitary groups. Although left-wing and right-wing armed groups have been involved in human rights violations, right-wing paramilitary groups were mainly involved in maintaining inequalities by repressing dissident groups, and protecting rural elites and extractives corporations (Coronado, 2019).

Another characteristic of political conservatism in Colombia is the association with "strong leaders", whose political campaign revolved around iron fist measures against left-wing guerrillas. However, such political figures have been linked to illegal armed groups. For instance, it has been proved that the Colombian electoral system (2002-2006) was influenced by illegal right-wing paramilitary groups, who managed to gain political representation in the parliament (Acemoglu et al., 2013). Therefore, political ideology in Colombia is not only expressed by the justification of social inequality, but it is also embedded within

a long-standing armed conflict and political corruption (Gamboa Gutiérrez, 2019).

The Current Research

The aim of this article is to examine the association between political ideology and the legitimacy of social inequality in economic, gender, and political domains. Thus, we focus on the influence of political ideology on the endorsement of political measures, attitudes and values related to the legitimation of economic inequality (Study 1); the perception and legitimization of gender inequality (Study 2); and political attitudes related to social conflict, political inequality and polarization (Study 3). These studies point to the same idea about the effect of political ideology on the legitimization of inequality and the maintenance of the status quo in Colombia. In addition, each study makes specific contributions about different types of inequalities that are understudied in the Colombian context. Taken together, these studies examine the system-justifying nature of the left-right political positioning by testing its consistency in independent samples and across several domains.

This investigation complied with the ethical standards for conducting research in psychology, approved by the University of Granada (No.170/CEIH/2016). The fellow universities that participated in the Study provided formal approval for the research; and all participants signed an informed consent for participating in the Study.

The analytical strategy across three studies was similar. We used linear regression analyses, in which political ideology predicts different forms of legitimating economic, social, and political inequalities. Political ideology was treated as a continuous variable, such that higher values indicate a position further to the right in the political spectrum, which means higher political conservatism. When the outcome variable was dichotomous, we used logistic regression instead. We controlled by the potential influence of sociodemographic variables, such as gender, age, and socioeconomic status (income and education). Data, code and materials (see Table S7

in the supplementary material for the complete wording of the items) used in this research are publicly available at: https://osf.io/9dgzs/

Study 1

The aim of Study 1 was to examine the influence of political ideology on the legitimacy of political measures, attitudes, and values related to the maintenance socioeconomic inequality

Participants

A total of 506 university students (50.3% women, 49.5% men, 0.40% other), from five universities (one public, four private) located in the city of Cali, Colombia ($M_{age} = 20.27$, $SD = 3.95$). Data was collected between March and June 2018 through a paper-and-pencil questionnaire at the library of the universities.

Measures

Political Ideology

An indicator of political self-positioning was used. Participants had to place themselves, based on their political affinity, on a scale ranging from 1 "Extremely left-wing" to 7 "Extremely right-wing" ($M = 3.57$, $SD = 0.97$).

Support for Progressive Policies

We used three items that assessed the degree of individual support for political measures that promote social change: abortion, homosexual marriage, and euthanasia. Participants had to rate their responses on a seven points Likert scale: 1 "Strongly Disagree" to 7 "Strongly Agree") ($M = 5.27$, $SD = 1.6$). This scale presented appropriate reliability according ($\alpha^1 = 0.80$). The following variables had the same response scale, except for the variables in which we explicitly mention another instruction.

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1   All references to reliability throughout the manuscript refer to Chronbach's alpha (α).

Support for a Military Solution to end the Armed Conflict in Colombia

a single item asked if "A military solution is the best way to end the armed conflict in Colombia." ($M = 2.42$, $SD = 1.62$, Likert scale from 1 "strongly disagree" to 7 "strongly agree").

Attitudes Toward Economic and Social Inequality

Three items assessed attitudes of participants toward economic and social inequality (in a scale from 1 "strongly disagree" to 7 "strongly agree"): intolerance toward inequality ("Differences in income in Colombia are too large", based on García-Castro et al., (2021) ($M = 6.05$, $SD = 1.33$); justification for inequality ("If income in Colombia were more equal, people would be less motivated to work hard") ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 1.86$); and support for economic redistribution measured by the average of two items (e.g. "The government should impose higher taxes on people with higher incomes") ($R = 0.29$, $P < .001$, $M = 5.22$, $SD = 1.31$).

Support for Affirmative Action

Two items measured the degree in which participants supported political mobilizations or protesting that favor the most disadvantaged populations (e.g., "To hold protests, marches, and public demonstrations defending the rights of the most disadvantaged groups in Colombia") ($M = 5.72$, $SD = 1.15$; Likert scale from 1 "strongly disagree" to 7 "strongly agree").

Universal Values

Participants were asked to rate the meaningfulness of six values using a response scale ranging from –1 "opposed to my values" to 7 "Of supreme importance". An exploratory analysis identified two dimensions, the first one on Social Justice that grouped values such as Equality (equal opportunities for all), A peaceful world (free from war and conflict), and social justice (correcting injustices and caring for the vulnerable) ($\alpha = 0.73$; $M = 5.99$, $SD = 1.15$). The second dimension associated with

Power, such as values for Authority (the right of some to lead or direct), Influence (having an impact on people and events), and Wealth (material possessions, money) ($\alpha = 0.68$; $M = 3.81$, $SD = 1.51$).

Subjective Socioeconomic Status

Participants were asked to place themselves in a 10-rung ladder representing the social ranks of their society (1 being the lowest and 10 being the highest) ($M = 3.32$, $SD = 2.16$).

Results and Discussion

As an overall result, we found that people with lower scores in political conservatism were less likely to legitimate inequality and perpetuate the status quo (Pearson correlations between the variables included in Study 1 are available in Table S1 at the on-line supplementary material[2]). Regarding attitudes towards social policies, the results suggested that positioning more to the left (vs. right) of the political spectrum was associated with greater support for progressive policies (i.e., legalizing abortion, euthanasia, and homosexual marriage) (β[3] $= -.23$) and rejected more the military solution to the armed conflict ($\beta = -.29$).

Regarding attitudes towards inequality, positioning more to the left in the political spectrum was associated with less tolerance towards economic inequality ($\beta = -.12$), less justification of inequality ($\beta = -.19$), and greater support for the redistribution of resources ($\beta = -.22$); but it was not associated with support for affirmative action ($\beta = -.09$n.s.[4]).

With respect to universal values, we found that positioning to the left (vs. right) was linked to less adherence to values associated with power and hierarchies ($\beta = .18$), and it was not associated to social justice values ($\beta = -.03$n.s.). Furthermore, when the people placed themselves more to the left in the political spectrum, they reported lower subjective socioeconomic status ($\beta = .10$). The

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2   See online supplementary material at: https://osf.io/9dgzs/
3   Standardized regression coefficient of political ideology predicting the mentioned outcome.
4   n.s. = Not statistically significant.

standardized regression coefficients of political ideology predicting outcome variables related to inequality are summarized in Figure 1 (see Table S4 in the supplementary material for complete information about regression analyses).

Figure 1 *Standardized Regression Coefficients of Political Ideology Predicting Social Attitudes in Study*
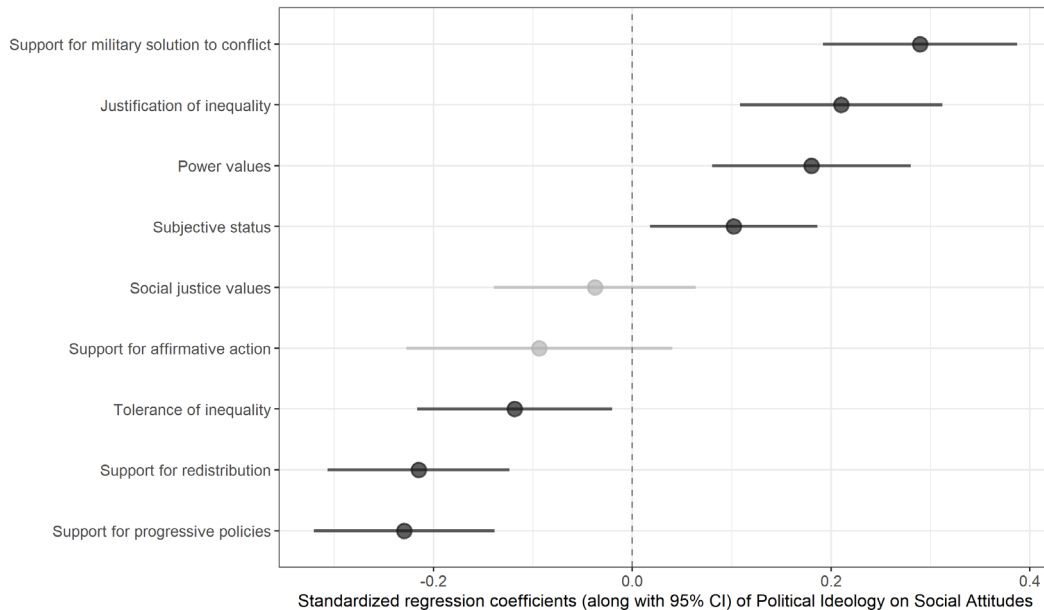
Note: Light gray-shaded dots indicate non-significant values.

The results of Study 1 suggested that people that position to the left side of the political spectrum were associated with greater support for progressive policies and lower justification of social inequality. These results are consistent with previous studies (Jahn, 2011; Jost, 2017), which indicated that values linked to the left-right political spectrum revolve around the theme of equality and social justice (Bobbio, 1996).

Study 2

The robustness of political ideology on the legitimacy of inequality can be tested by examining its consistency through different social domains. Gender relations represent one of the domains of public life where dynamics of inequality and domination between groups have been observed throughout history (Sidanius and Pratto, 1999). Therefore, Study 2 aims to test the influence of political ideology on the legitimization of gender inequality.

Participants

We used the Colombian sample that participated in the international project on gender perceptions and ideologies "Toward Gender Harmony", which is a large-scale collaborative research focused on gender inequality across countries (Kosakowska-Berezecka et al., 2020). We only used the Colombian sample because it was the only one that included political ideology. Although the original sample consisted of 691 participants, our final sample was composed of 277 participants that provided information about their political ideology ($M_{age} = 23.27$, $SD = 6.67$; 66.43% Women, 31.41% Men, 2.16% non-binary or no response), from two cities in Colombia (Cali 92.36%, Barranquilla 7.64%). Data was collected

between August and December 2019 through an on-line questionnaire. Participants replied to an open call to participate in this study and filled the questionnaire after consenting.

Measures

Political Ideology

Participants had to identify their political ideology according to their political affinity on a scale ranging from 1 "Extremely left-wing" to 10 "Extremely Right" ($M = 3.52$, $SD = 1.92$).

Awareness of Gender Inequality

A single item on the recognition of gender inequality in society was used adapted from Glick and Whitehead (2010) (i.e., "In general, our society currently treats women less fairly than men"). The response scale ranged from 1 "Strongly Disagree" to 7 "Strongly Agree" ($M = 4.97$, $SD = 1.87$).

Perception of Economic Gender Inequality

One item assessed the degree in which participants perceived gender income inequality "How large do you think the differences in economic income are between Men and Women in Colombia?" Participants rated their responses from 1. None (no differences), 2. Very small (men earn a little more than women), 3. Small, 4. Medium, 5. Large, 6. Very large (men earn much more than women) ($M = 4.29$, $SD = 1.23$).

Intolerance Towards Gender Inequality

An item was adapted to determine whether economic gender inequality was considered as excessive (García-Castro et al., 2019): "In Colombia, the differences in economic income between men and women are too large". A 7-point scale was used (1 "Strongly Disagree" to 7 "Strongly Agree") ($M = 4.74$, $SD = 1.58$).

Beliefs in Equal Opportunities

An item on the belief in the existence of equal job opportunities for men and women was adapted (Anonymous-reference-for-review): "In Colombia, women have the same opportunities for work and professional development as men". Participants rated their responses from 1 "Strongly Disagree" to 7 "Strongly Agree" ($M = 3.24$, $SD = 1.53$).

Acceptance of Inequality - Egalitarian Ideology

Comprise the value of equality as a life's principle and indicates people's justification of inequality (Brandt and Reyna, 2017). Participants had to indicate the degree in which they resembled a person who "thinks it is important that all people in the world are treated equally", and that "everyone should have equal opportunities in life." The responses were rated in a scale from 1"Not at all like me" to 7 "Very much like me" ($M = 6.43$, $SD = 0.97$).

Resistance to Social Change - Traditional Ideology

Participants indicated the degree in which they resembled a person who valued following traditions "tradition is important, following the customs given by religion and family". The responses were rated in a scale from 1"Not at all like me" to 7 "Very much like me" ($M = 2.89$, $SD = 1.73$).

Gender Zero-sum Ideology

It consists of the belief in the existence of a natural competition between men and women in terms of absolute losses or gains. This ideology was assessed though 7 items adapted from Ruthig et al. (2017), (e.g., "More good jobs for women mean fewer good jobs for men). The responses were rated in a scale from 0 "Strongly Disagree" to 5 "Strongly Agree") ($\alpha = .79$; $M = 0.64$, $SD = 0.75$).

Ambivalent Sexism

Refers to attitudes toward women that encompass stereotypical perceptions of gender roles

and prejudice about women, using six items from Cárdenas et al. (2010). Exploratory factor analysis identified two dimensions, the first one related to benevolent sexism (3 items), which expresses traditional and subordinate roles of women in society (e.g., "Women should be loved and protected by men") (α = .60; M = 2.01, SD = 1.27); and a second dimension related to hostile sexism or prejudicial attitudes toward women (3 items), (e.g., "Women seek to gain power by manipulating men.") (α = .72; M = 1.25, SD = 1.07). Participants rated their responses from 0 "Strongly Disagree" to 5 "Strongly Agree").

Gender Essentialism

Represents the belief in the existence of fundamental differences between men and women that reflect their nature (essence) and define their identity. The mean of three items adapted from Skewes et al. (2018) was calculated (e.g., Men and women have different abilities"). Responses were rated in a scale from 1 "Strongly Disagree" to 7 "Strongly Agree") (α = .61; M = 4.24, SD = 1.50).

Collective Actions in Favor of Gender Equality

Four items evaluated activities that people are willing to carry out to claim equal rights for all genders (Tausch et al., 2011), (e.g., "participating in demonstrations"). Responses were rated in a scale from 1 "Not at all likely" to 7 "very likely") (α = .80; M = 4.48, SD = 1.60).

Civic Actions in Favor of Gender Equality

Six items evaluated the willingness to support civic actions adapted to gender inequality issues (Alisat and Riemer, 2015) (e.g., "How likely are you to participate in a community event that focuses on gender issues?"). Responses were rated in a scale from "1 "Not at all likely" to 7 "Very likely" (α = .93; M = 4.54, SD = 1.71).

Religiosity

One single item assessed the importance of religion in participant´s lives: "How religious do you consider yourself to be?". Responses ranged from 1 "Not at all" to 10 "Very much" (M = 3.71, SD = 3.19).

Results and Discussion

The main finding of Study 2 is that people scoring higher (vs. lower) in political conservatism were more likely to underestimate gender inequalities and endorse beliefs and discriminatory attitudes that reinforce social disparities (Pearson correlations between the variables included in Study 2 are available in Table S2 at the on-line supplementary material).

Regarding the attitudes toward gender inequality, it was found that the more people positioned further to the left, the greater their awareness of gender differences (β = −.31), the greater their perception of the magnitude of such gender differences (β = −.24), and the lower their belief that men and women have the same work opportunities (β = .16). Intolerance to gender inequality was not significantly linked to political ideology (β = −.10n.s.).

In relation to ideologies justifying gender inequality, it was found that being further to the left on the political spectrum was associated with: a) greater support for egalitarian ideologies (β = −.18) and less support for traditional ideas (β = .19); b) lower belief that gender equality represents losses for men (β = .15); c) lower benevolent (β = .19) and hostile (β = .18) sexism; d) lower belief that there are essential differences between men and women (β = .20); and e) lower levels of religiosity (β = .21).

Regarding the disposition toward social change promoting gender equality, it was found that being more to the left in the political spectrum was associated with greater support for collective actions that condemn gender inequalities (β = −.30), and greater disposition to participate in civic actions that seek gender equality (β = −.29) (See Figure 2, see Table S5 in the supplementary

material for complete information about regression coefficients).

Figure 2 *Standardized Regression Coefficients of Political Ideology Predicting Gender Attitudes in Study*
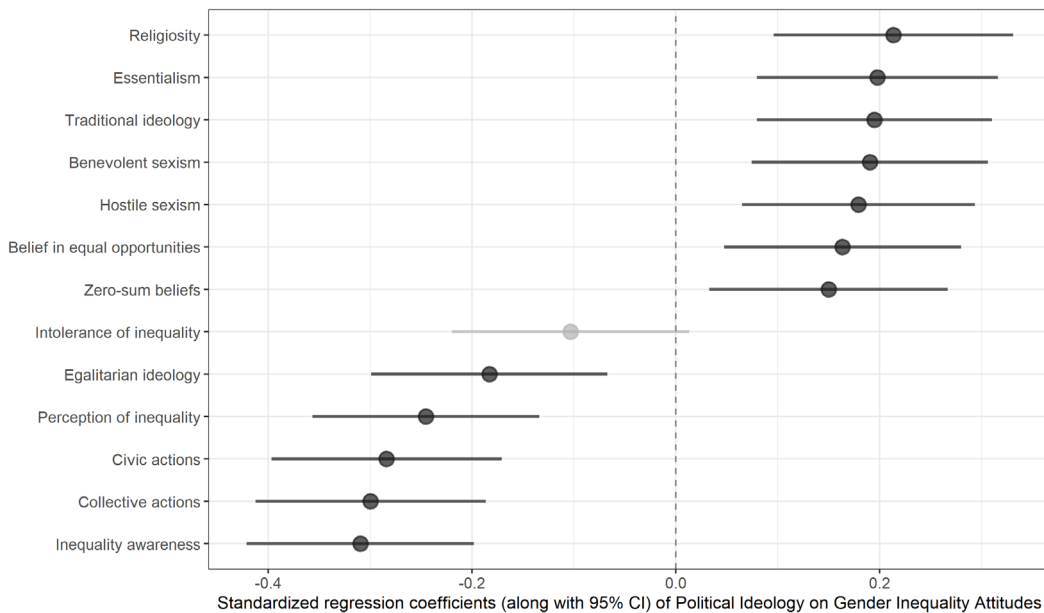
Note: Light gray-shaded dots indicate non-significant values.

These results are consistent with Study 1 findings, and with previous studies reported in the international literature on the relationship between political ideology, the legitimization of social inequality and the maintenance of the status quo (Jost, 2017). In this sense, it is shown that when people place themselves more to the left of the political spectrum, they report higher levels of rejection about different forms, subtle and explicit, of justifying gender inequality. These results are consistent with previous research that showed that right-wing political ideology is linked to higher levels of prejudice toward sexual diversity and sexism across different samples (López-Sáez et al., 2020a, 2020b). Therefore, the less people identified with the right side of the political spectrum, the lower they justify gender inequality and the more they are willing to mobilize for social change.

A limitation of Study 2 is that right-wing participants are underrepresented in this sample.

Hence, it is difficult to state with certainty if this opposite tendency holds across the whole ideological spectrum and if the right-side is in fact associated to values and attitudes against social change. In addition, the fact that the participants from Studies 1 and 2 were university students, who are young adults, and hold levels of formal education above the national average, also limits the possibility of generalizing these results to Colombian society. For this reason, in Study 3 we used survey data to evaluate whether the legitimating function of political ideology holds with a larger and representative sample from Colombia; and whether it can be extended to a broader range of topics related to political inequalities linked public policies and social attitudes linked to the Colombian political climate, such as the armed conflict and political polarization.

Study 3

The aim of Study 3 is to determine the influence of political ideology on attitudes toward political inequality linked to the Colombian armed conflict and political polarization. This allows us to extend our previous results by confirming the inequality-legitimating function of political ideology on a different domain of the public life. Furthermore, we can examine the potential influence on political polarization surrounding public policies under discussion in Colombia about the peace agreements with left-wing armed political groups.

Participants

We used the Colombian sample of the eighth wave of the Americas Barometer (LAPOP - Latin American Public Opinion Project) collected between 2018-2019 (LAPOP, 2020). LAPOP is an inter-institutional initiative that explores public opinion on social, political and economic issues related to democracy throughout the Americas and the Caribbean. The sample was composed of 1555 participants who responded who informed their political ideology (M_{age} = 39.92 years, SD = 16.22; 48.55% Women, 51.45% Men). The study used a representative probabilistic design of the Colombian population in terms of geographical region, income, and ethnicity.

Measures

Political Ideology

Political orientation left-to-right was rated from 1 "Extremely Left" to 10 "Extremely Right" (M = 5.78, SD = 2.68).

Political System Support

Three items assessed the expressions of support for the country's political system in general (e.g., "To what extent do you think that Colombia's political system should be supported?") (α = .73). The responses ranged from 1 "Not at all" to 7 "Very much" (M = 4.41, SD = 1.49).

Political Trust

We used four dimensions of trust toward political authorities and institutions. First, political trust (3 items), measured how much participants relied on their institutions (e.g., the judicial system) (α = .85; M = 3.34, SD = 1.32). Second, trust in the Military and Police Forces (r = .503, P < .001; M = 4.21, SD = 1.64). Third, trust in the president, at the time of data collection, Iván Duque (M = 3.99, SD = 2.13). Fourth, trust toward the political armed group that participated in the peace process in 2018 (i.e., the FARC-EP). All responses were rated from 1 "Not at all" to 7 "Very much" (M = 1.87, SD = 1.35).

Participation in Social Protests

A single item assessed the degree of participation in protests and collective movement ("In the last 12 months have you participated in a demonstration or public protest?"; 1 "Yes", 11%: 0 "No", 89%).

Attitudes Towards Social Inequality and Support for Redistribution

Five indicators evaluated participant´s sympathy with public measures targeted at reducing economic inequality: support for redistribution of income (i.e., "The Colombian government should implement strong policies to reduce income inequality between the rich and the poor") (M = 5.39, SD = 1.68); support for redistribution of economic resources for helping the most disadvantaged (i.e., "The government should spend more on helping the poor") (M = 6.09, SD = 1.38); support for redistribution of economic resources focused on the contribution of the better-off (i.e., "It is unfair that the rich pay a lot in taxes, but receive little in state services") (M = 4.01, SD = 1.97); belief in unemployment as an individual problem rather than a governmental responsibility (i.e., "Most unemployed persons could find a job if they wanted to") (M = 4.55, SD = 2.01); support for land redistribution (2 items, e.g., "To what extent do you agree that vacant land should be distributed to peasants who do not have enough

land to farm") (R = .562, P < .001, M = 5.86, SD = 1.30). All responses were rated from 1 "Strongly Disagree" to 7 "Strongly Agree".

Resistance to Reconciliation

Two items evaluated the willingness to sympathize with demobilized combatants (e.g., "How strongly would you approve of a daughter/son of yours being friends with a demobilized FARC combatant"). Response scale from 1 "strongly disapprove" to 10 "strongly approve" (r = .612, P < .001) (M = 5.14, SD = 2.64).

Support for Peace Process With the ELN

One item measured support for the president to continue the peace talks with the ELN (*Ejército de Liberación Nacional*[5]) (i.e., "The government of former President Juan Manuel Santos initiated a peace process with the ELN. To what extent do you agree with President Iván Duque continuing these negotiations?"). Responses were rated from 1 "Not at all" to 7 "Very much" (M = 5.04, SD = 1.92).

Support for Peace Agreement Modification

One item evaluated support to modify the peace agreements signed between the government and the FARC-EP (i.e., "President Iván Duque proposed during his electoral campaign to modify the accords reached between the Colombian government and the FARC. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the president?"). Responses were rated from 1 "Not at all" to 7 "Very much" (M = 4.28, SD = 1.89).

Support for a Military Solution to the Armed Conflict

One item evaluated participant´s support for a military solution to the conflict with the guerrilla in Colombia. Two possible responses

were offered: 1 "Use of military force" (29%) or 0 "Negotiation" (71%).

Sexist Ideologies

two items evaluated the perception of women's submission in social relations (e.g., "When a woman says she is a victim of harassment at work, she is usually exaggerating"). Responses were rated from 1 "Strongly Disagree" to 7 "Strongly Agree") (R = .279, P < .001; M = 3.52, SD = 1.67).

Approval of Progressive Policies

We computed the mean of four items that evaluated the acceptance of different social issues (e.g., homosexuality, euthanasia). Responses ranged from "1 strongly disapproves" to 10 "strongly approves" (α = .81) (M = 5.46, SD = 2.55).

Religiosity

A single item assessed the importance of religion in the participant´s lives (i.e., "How important is religion in your life?"). Responses were rated from 1 "Not at all important" to 4 "Very important" (M = 3.52, SD = 0.84).

Political Polarization

The average of four items evaluated the willingness of participants to deny the rights of people with different opinions (e.g., "There are people who always speak poorly of the government in Colombia, not only of the current government, but of the system of government. How strongly do you approve or disapprove the right to vote of these people?"). Similar indicators have been previously used for measuring polarization (Brown-Iannuzzi et al., 2020). Responses were rated from 1 "strongly disapprove" to 10 "strongly approve" (α = .71) (M = 4.93, SD = 1.95).

Affective Polarization

Affective polarization refers to the dispersion of feelings, positive (hope and pride) and negative (anger and fear), towards two political actors that represent the left and the right in

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5   The ELN is one of the left-wing armed groups involved in the current Colombian political armed conflict.

Colombia (Gustavo Petro and Iván Duque). The measure proposed by Wagner (2021)[6] calculated the difference and intensity of feelings towards these two political actors. As such, higher values indicate that individuals endorse both positive and negative feelings toward political actors (M = 2.45, SD = 1.15).

Voting in the 2018 Presidential Election

participants were asked to answer the question "For whom did I vote for President in the second round of the 2018 presidential election?" (i.e. 0 "Gustavo Petro", 38%; 1 "Iván Duque", 62%).

Results and Discussion

In general terms, in Study 3, we found that people scoring higher in political conservatism were more supportive of the status quo, and more reluctant to support social change measures associated with both progressive policies and the solution of the Colombian armed conflict.

Furthermore, the greater the political conservatism, the more adherence to beliefs that sustain gender inequalities and the greater political and affective polarization. Interestingly, political ideology had no association with redistributive preferences in this sample (Pearson correlations are available at Table S3 in the supplementary material).

Regarding the support for the country's political system, it was observed that the more to the right in the political spectrum, the greater support for the political system (β = .22), the greater the trust in the political institutions (β = .20), the armed forces (R = .16), and the Colombian president (β = .34) (Ivan Duque). Likewise, placing to the right side of the political spectrum was related to lower trust in the FARC-EP political party (left-wing group) (β = −.08), and lesser participation in protests (β = −.36) (See Figure 3, see Table S6 in the on-line supplementary material for complete information about regression coefficients).

Figure 3 *Standardized Regression Coefficients of Political Ideology Predicting Political Attitudes in Study 3*
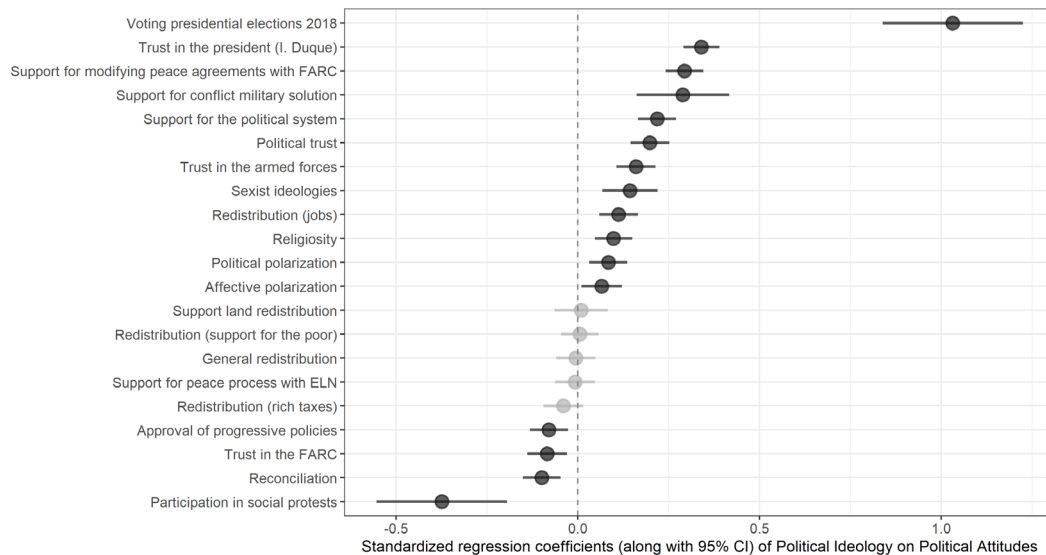
Note: Light gray-shaded dots indicate non-significant values.

6   The equation is: $\sqrt{\frac{\sum_{p=1}^{p}(sentim._{ip}-\overline{Sentim._i})^2}{n_p}}$ Where i = participant; sentim. = sentiment score; p = political group; n = number of political groups.

In relation to the support for measures to redress inequality, it was found that the more people placed to the right of the political spectrum, the more they believed that unemployed people could get a job if they wanted to ($\beta = -.11$). However, political ideology was not associated with any of the variables related to support for redistribution, such as support for rich taxation ($\beta = -.04$n.s.), the government role for reduction of inequality ($\beta = -.01$n.s.), the provision of social assistance to the disadvantaged ($\beta = .01$n.s.), the land redistribution for peasants victimized by the armed conflict ($\beta = .01$n.s.).

Regarding resistance to the peace process, it was found that placing more to the right in the political spectrum, was linked to less willingness to reconcile with demobilized combatants ($\beta = -.10$); greater support for modifying the peace agreement ($\beta = .29$); greater support for military solutions to the armed conflict ($\beta = .13$). Political ideology was not associated with support for the peace negotiations with the ELN armed group ($\beta = .01$n.s.).

As for support for traditional values, placing to the right of the political spectrum was related to less support for progressive social policies (e.g., abortion, euthanasia, homosexual marriage) ($\beta = -.08$), greater acceptance of sexist ideologies ($\beta = .14$), and greater religion centrality ($\beta = .10$).

Regarding political polarization, greater identification with the right was associated with greater disposition to deny political rights to the opposition ($\beta = .08$), greater affective polarization ($\beta = .07$), and higher likelihood of voting for Ivan Duque in the 2018 presidential elections ($\beta = 1.03$).

General Discussion

The aim of this research was to examine the effect of political ideology on the legitimization of inequality and support for the status quo in Colombia. Then, we tested the association between ideological self-positioning and attitudes towards

inequality in different domains, such as those related to economic, gender, and political attitudes.

The results confirmed that political ideology has a consistent effect on legitimating inequality and resisting social change in issues such as economic inequality (Study 1), gender inequality (Study 2) and political inequality (Study 3). Our results suggest that positioning further to the right on that political spectrum—understood as political conservatism—, people were less aware of inequalities and more willing to justify social disparities in terms of economic, political, and gender-based issues. We also found that political conservatism was consistently linked to higher levels of support for the status quo and resistance to change, more willingness to support military actions to deal with the armed conflict, higher rejection of the peace agreements and willingness to reconcile with demobilized combatants, and higher levels of affective and political polarization. In addition, the further people place to the right, the less they supported progressive and support social mobilizations to reduce inequality. Interestingly, we found that despite of such differences in inequality-related attitudes, in Study 3, we found that political ideology was not associated with any of redistributive policies aimed at reducing inequality. In sum, these results confirm that left-right political ideology remains a key concept for guiding attitudes towards inequality and social change (García-Castro, 2010; Jahn, 2011; Jost, 2017) (see summary of the findings in Table S8 in the supplementary material).

At a theoretical level, the present findings also confirm the conceptual proposal that posits that left-right political ideology revolves around issues of inequality and social justice (Bobbio, 1996; Hunt, 2014; Solano Silva, 2018). As suggested by the literature, political ideology plays a key role in the justification of the existing political system, and the maintenance of social inequalities (Jost et al., 2008; Jost and Hunyady, 2005). In this regard, the present study confirms that left-right

political ideology is still a relevant category in the Colombian context linked to how people perceive, understand, position, and take actions on different social issues (Rutjens and Brandt, 2019). In addition, this study offers consistent evidence on how political ideology works transversally across different domains, such as economic, gender and political inequality.

These results contribute to the empirical study on political ideology and the justification of inequality in several ways. First, this article presents one of the first empirical studies showing the correlates of political ideology in Colombia. Although left-right political ideology is widely used in public debate, it is often confined to the positioning of specific political actors (e.g., candidates, political parties) or armed actors (e.g., guerrillas, paramilitaries), which excludes its implications for social and intergroup attitudes toward inequality and change. Moreover, some works on political ideology in Colombia adopt historical, political or sociological perspectives (Caviedes, 2016; González, 2011; Kajsiu, 2019; Rochlin, 2019), but does not explore into the belief systems associated with them and how they guide people's behavior. Our contribution is to offer an empirical and psychosocial approach that allows us to support a critical and reflexive research agenda necessary to understand political life (Aristizábal, 2010; Dane, 2021). Thus, our findings allow us to define left-right political ideology beyond partisanship and critical historical events, and instead we map a set of political attitudes that legitimate inequality and sustain the status quo in Colombia. This psychosocial perspective on political ideology serves as a bridge between the historical discussion about socio-political issues and inequality, and individual attitudes that guide behaviors.

Second, our results provide insights for understanding the social divisions in Colombia that have become even more evident in the Colombian political climate related to social unrest and political campaigning (Rincón, 2021). For instance, we found differences between the political ideology of university students (Studies 1 and 2) and the general population (Study 3), the former placed further to the left and the latter further to the right. This ideological divergence appears to be related to age and education. Research shows that conservatism increases with age and that university education tends to promote progressive left-wing values (Jost, 2009; Thorisdottir et al., 2007). Therefore, the differences in political ideology among the samples in this research could also reflect the unequal access to social resources (e.g., education) that allow people to value different motives related to social, political, religious and economic issues (Miller, Dorcé, Uribe and Saavedra, 2021, Hatibovic, Bobowik, Faúndez, and Sandoval, 2017).

The political cleavages due to political ideology are not just expressed in terms of the legitimacy of economic inequality, but also in the levels of political and affective polarization. Thus, rightwing participants (vs. left-wing) showed extreme animosities toward out-party political leaders and supported denying opposition political rights. This finding is consistent with previous research showing that inequality-related issues are at the core of political polarization (Noureddine & Gravelle, 2021; Satherley, Sibley, et al., 2020). As such, differences between political stances are highly likely to exacerbate polarization and division in society (Rogowsky & Sutherland, 2016).

Furthermore, in Study 3, we also found no substantive differences in support for redistributive measures along the ideological spectrum, which seems to be counterintuitive with previous literature. Our interpretation of this finding is that, under extreme levels of inequality such as those experienced in Colombia, most of the people are aware of shocking inequalities and unfairness, which in turn leads them to support measures for redressing inequality. However, this was not the case of university students (Study 1 and 2), for whom political ideology did influence their redistributive preferences to redress inequality. These mixed results can be the by-product of different process of political socialization, as

university students are likely to be more sensitive to social justice topics that the average person in Colombia. Further research should examine whether the influence of political ideology on political attitudes depend on people's individual differences, socioeconomic status, educational level, among other potential moderators.

Third, ideological divisions rely on different ways of perceiving and understanding the world on issues such as economic inequality, gender inequality and political polarization: the left of the political spectrum is more sensitive for recognizing inequalities and social injustices, while the right is more conservative, traditionalist and authoritarian (Anderson and Singer, 2008). Although it is not possible to determine causal relations between ideological cleavages and social phenomena, the social outburst lived in Colombia during 2021 and the political climate during the 2022 presidential elections, have increased the salience of political ideologies in the public discourse. For instance, social mobilizations in 2021 revolved about inequality and justice (e.g., access to education, tax justice, etc.) topics (Movilizatorio, 2021) and political campaigns are concerned about policies related to left-wing political agendas. As such, perceptions of inequality shape political attitudes because it is linked to feelings of unfairness and relative deprivation for not having access to resources and opportunities (García-Sánchez et al., 2018). These perceptions are amplified by left-wing political ideology that makes people even more aware of inequality, and therefore, could be crucial components to mobilize people for demanding social change (van Zomeren et al., 2008; Noureddine and Gravelle, 2021). Therefore, we can affirm that political ideology shapes the way of perceiving, justifying and reacting to social reality.

Among the limitations of this work, there were two studies conducted with university students', which are not representative of the Colombian population. However, in Study 3 we used data from the general population, which confirmed most of the results found with university students.

Besides, because of the correlational nature of our data we cannot imply causal relationships. These correlates, instead, could be interpreted as a way of defining left-right political ideology in attitudinal terms. Indeed, political ideology as a bipolar construct does not capture the complexity of the relationships that exist between so many social beliefs and attitudes (Azevedo et al., 2019; Rutjens and Brandt, 2019). Yet, left-right political ideology still performs adequately as a useful category to understand how people navigate through political issues. Importantly, a recent study suggests that economic conservatism can be one of the potential mechanisms through which social conservatism increase adherence to moral foundations values (Avendaño et al., 2021). Therefore, it is possible that political conservatism reflects different underlying dimensions about social, cultural, economic, and other domains that, in turn, will have different effects on political attitudes. Previous studies suggest that political conservatism can operate through other psychological processes, such as authoritarianism, social dominance orientation, traditionalism, among others (García-Sánchez et al., 2022; Rottenbacher, 2012; Rottenbacher and Cáceres, 2014; Rottenbacher and Guzmán, 2013). Future studies could delve deeper into the psychological underpinnings and mechanisms associated with the influence of political conservatism on social attitudes.

In addition, the effect sizes we found in our studies did not exceed a Pearson correlation of .30, which in the field of social psychology can be interpreted as small or medium effect sizes (Lovakov and Agadullina, 2021). However, this does not mean that it is of no theoretical or practical relevance. Indeed, the influence of political ideology on explaining inequality-related attitudes ranges on the average levels of effect sizes in psychology, which indicates it is still a substantial contribution. Furthermore, these effect sizes can have substantive pragmatical implications, since political ideology can be a driving force of political behaviors, such as political elections, demonstrations, and support for

public policies. Thus, political ideology can serve as a political compass through which people navigate social life and guide their behaviors.

Another potential limitation of our studies is that we used survey indicators and scales that are not fully validated in the Colombian context. Fully validated measures about inequality in Colombia are relatively scarce, which reflects a limitation of the field in general. However, survey indicators are commonly used in social science, providing reliable findings similar to those discussed in sociology and political science research. Furthermore, we found that all the variables showed appropriate psychometric properties in terms of reliability and dimensionality. Further research in social and political psychology should continue working on validating new scales to advance empirical research in this area.

In summary, this research has shown that political ideology remains an important category for understanding and positioning oneself in the social world. The categories of left and right are historical and context-dependent constructions that intersects with people's motivations to defend (or challenge) the status quo. In this paper we show that political conservatism is associated with greater justification of inequality and support for the status quo through different social attitudes toward diverse dimensions of political life. These differences are amplified in the Colombian public discourse by exacerbating emotions towards political figures (Movilizatorio, 2021). Thus, this article can help us to better understand what political ideology means in Colombia and, therefore, to acknowledge foundational ideological differences in perceptions and beliefs about inequality that could hinder the process to get a more just and egalitarian society.

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Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Employee Voice and Academic Staff Retention in Nigerian Universities: Mediating Role of Conflict Resolution

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Abstract

The researchers in African countries have received attention in the literature, especially in the academic environment, as high labour turnover among the academic staff leds to reduced productivity and quality of education in Africa. This study investigated the positioning of conflict resolution through the extemporization of 'Employee voice (EV), organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB), and employee retention (ER) using selected Universities with the underlay history of established successive culture in Southwest, Nigeria. The survey involved three hundred and seventy-six (376) academic staff members. A quantitative study was conducted with a structured questionnaire to test the hypothesis. Structural equation modelling was used to analyze the data. The independent variable (EV and OCB) predicts the dependent variable (ER); this shows that the relationship is statistically significant. The study recommends that organizations, particularly tertiary institutions, enhance and value employee voice. scheduling of periodic meetings in which all

voices are given the necessary respect and opinions will change the positioning of the mediating variable.

Keywords: employee retention; organizational citizenship behavior, employee voice, conflict resolution.

Comportamiento de Ciudadanía Organizacional, Voz de los Empleados y Retención del Personal Académico en Universidades Nigerianas: Papel Mediador en la Resolución de Conflictos

Resumen

Los investigadores en los países africanos han recibido atención en la literatura, especialmente en el entorno académico, ya que la alta rotación laboral entre el personal académico conduce a una reducción de la productividad y la calidad de la educación en África. Este estudio investigó el posicionamiento de la resolución de conflictos a través de la improvisación de la 'voz de los empleados (EV), el comportamiento de ciudadanía organizacional (OCB) y la retención de empleados (ER) utilizando universidades seleccionadas con la historia subyacente de la cultura sucesiva establecida en el suroeste de Nigeria. La encuesta involucró a trescientos setenta y seis (376) miembros del personal académico. Se realizó un estudio cuantitativo con un cuestionario estructurado para probar la hipótesis. Se utilizó un modelo de ecuaciones estructurales para analizar los datos. La variable independiente (EV y OCB) predice la variable dependiente (ER); esto demuestra que la relación es estadísticamente significativa. El estudio recomienda que las organizaciones, particularmente las instituciones terciarias, mejoren y valoren la voz de los empleados. programación de reuniones periódicas en las que se da a todas las voces la necesaria el respeto y las opiniones cambiarán el posicionamiento de la variable mediadora.

Palabras clave: la retención de empleados; comportamiento de ciudadanía organizacional, voz del empleado, resolución de conflictos.

Introduction

THE ROLE of higher education institutions in the provision and development of the workforce for sustainable economic growth and development in all countries is documented in the literature and recognized by educators, researchers, experts, and scholars around the world (Zettler, 2022). Higher education institutions are expected to be the source of information for the most specialized and skilled intellectuals due to their unique nature (van Kleef & Lelieveld, 2022). They train a qualified and adaptable workforce, generate new knowledge through basic and applied research, access existing global knowledge, and provide a platform for adapting this knowledge to local use by supporting knowledge-based economic growth and poverty reduction strategies (Jamil, 2016). The evidence of this was displaced by a high turnover in academic settings which has recently become a major concern for psychologists and researchers in African countries (Masoga, 2013), calling for a halt to the emigration of perceived knowledge workers. Due to the brain drain or loss of talented African academic staff, many countries on the African continent lack the skills needed to meet the challenges of economic development (Benedict & Ukpere, 2011). The constant strikes at higher education institutions in Nigeria are becoming a disturbing phenomenon in the education sector (Sajuyigbe, 2015; Enahoro & Adeyinka, 2013; Ojokuku, 2013; Ologunde, Asaolu & Elumide, 2012). The above scenario has resulted in a significant number of Nigerian scholars migrating abroad in search of greener pastures. The impact of this apparent reduction in the number of academic staff is that the lecturer/student ratio is high and can put a heavy burden on lecturers in the field, leading to reduced productivity and reduced quality of education in higher institutions of learning in Nigeria (Sajuyigbe, 2015).

In the current scenario, employee retention is a major concern for researchers, educators, and policymakers. Employee retention is defined as an organization's ability to prevent employee turnover or the number of people who leave their jobs voluntarily or involuntarily over a while (Sajuyigbe, 2021). Researchers have found that employees are more likely to stay and work to successfully achieve their corporate goals if appropriate employee retention strategies are adopted and implemented by the company (Wilkinson, Gollan, Kalfa, & Xu, 2018; Ruck, Welch & Menara, 2017; Wood & De Menezes, 2011). Thereby positing that increasing employee retention has a direct impact on a company's productivity and success. Furthermore, Employee Voice has been identified as one of the employee retention strategies to prevent employee turnover. Employee retention is strongly and systematically linked to employee voices (Şimşek & Gürler, 2019). This link explains that when employees at all levels share their views and opinions, work together towards common goals, and share power and influence, they are no longer attracted to alternatives. In addition, organizational citizenship behaviour was recognized by scientists and documented as one of the employee retention strategies in HR management that motivates employees to maintain maximum time in the organization and contribute effectively (Salami, 2009). Lavelle, Gunnigle, and McDonnell (2010) show that an organization's citizenship behaviour provides personal motivation beyond the need to provide something for fair treatment. Empirical evidence shows that employee voice and the organization's citizenship behaviour can bring many valuable improvements to the organization, such as organizational commitment (Soieb, Othman & D'Silva, 2013), job satisfaction (Kanana, 2016), and employee retention (Abdullah, Maisoon & Islam, 2018).

Employee voice, organizational citizenship behaviour, employee retention, and conflict resolution have been independently studied and conceptualized in a variety of ways in both developed and developing countries (Soieb, Othman & D'Silva, 2013; Kanana, 2016; Abdullah, Maisoon & Islam, 2018). However, especially in the education sector, the role of mediating conflict

resolution in the relationship between employee voice, organizational citizenship behaviour and employee retention has not been explored. Thus, this current study fills a gap in the human resource management literature by examining the mediating role of conflict resolution on the relationship between employee voices, organizational citizenship behaviour, and employee retention. The research is expected to provide valuable insights that government and university management can use to optimize educational environments through employee engagement, organizational citizenship behaviour, and conflict resolution.

Underpinning Theories

Prior studies have linked various theories such as Human Capital theory (Abdullah, Maisoon and Islam, 2018), equity theory (Ekabu, 2019), Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory (Jagun, 2015), social exchange theory (Owence, Pinagase, and Molotsi, 2014), Path-Goal theory (Şimşek & Gürler, 2019), Resource-Based View Theory (Onyango, 2013), Strategic Contingency Theory (Odhong & Omolo, 2014), and Herzberg's Two-Factor theory (Owence, Pinagase & Molotsi, 2014) to establish the link between employee relationship management and employee retention. However, no or few studies used a mixture of different theories to explain the relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour, employee voice, conflict resolution, and employee retention. Thus, this study warrants details to address this contemporary gap in the literature by using Equity Theory and Path-Goal theory to explain the role of mediating conflict resolution in the relationship between employee voice, organizational citizenship behaviour, and employee retention. A good reason for using these theories is that equity theory represents a balance between academics' attitudes toward their academic careers and the intensity of their work. This theory argues that governments should be responsible for paying academics fairly to prevent staff turnover and the number of people seeking greener pastures in neighbouring countries.

Furthermore, path-goal theory shows that the actions of the Nigerian government affect academic motivation, performance, and retention. Integrity may be determined by academic satisfaction, goals, and the government's ability to promote retention.

Equity Theory

The theory of Equity (1965) focuses on people's perceptions of how they are treated compared to others in terms of decision-making participation, freedom of expression, and collaborative learning (Miringu, 2017; Orina, 2014; Spector, 2008). According to Ekabu (2019), the theory is that employees are treated fairly, motivated to perform at their best, and even organizations make a round trip by engaging in organizational citizenship behaviour. Millis (2017) shows that equity theory is a moral theory in that it seeks to understand the causes of happiness and satisfaction. Conflicts can be explained by the difference in the relationship between work and compensation. Conflicts occur when an employee feels cheated in a relationship and is willing to leave. The theory demonstrates that the number of organizational citizenship behaviour patterns (OCBS) can be reduced if employees feel that the output/input ratio is below the reference value (Khalid et al., 2012; Rizwan & Ali, 2010). Alternatively, the person can be late, miss a job altogether, or quit the job. Therefore, this theory can be applied to understand the changing intentions of scholars in Nigerian higher education institutions. Academics then compare their working conditions and other aspects of the teaching profession with their equivalents in similar institutions in the public sector. This explains why the Nigerian University Academic Staff Union (ASUU) has made multiple strikes nationwide to demand better working conditions.

In this study, the equity theory is used to connect the organizational voice with organizational citizenship behaviour. This arises from the requirement to comprehend an employee`s ability to speak up and be heard in an organizational setting. This idea is thought to be a moral theory

for achieving full organizational engagement to achieve a productive synergy. The productivity of the organization is said to reflect the synergy atmosphere. The authors' positions on this theory, as stated by Khalid et al., (2012) and Rizwan & Ali (2010), show that the number of organizational citizenship behaviour patterns (OCBS) can be lowered if employees believe the output/input ratio is below the reference value, in retrospect, the employee voice. The employee's ability to hear a note decides whether or not he is regarded as a citizen of the corporation (Miringu, 2017). Overall, what motivates an individual to act in the direction of making an opinion known is a function of the company's un-suppressiveness, which allows the employee's voice to be heard regardless of the situation in which the organization finds itself. As a result, there is a cultural obstacle to employee growth is removed. It is based on this premise that the theory intends to hypothetically relate the prowess of an employee voice to staff retention in the organization

In short, it can be concluded that constructivism allows approaching the vocational phenomenon in an alternative and innovative way, understanding it as a process that is inscribed in socio-historical contexts that are permanently created and recreated. This conception is consistent with Bruner's (2008) socio-cultural proposals on cognitive development, which guide the conceptualization proposed here (Gergen, 2007; Kang et al., 2017; Young & Collin, 2004). So, after recognizing the place of constructivism in this new conception of vocationality, next, this process will be approached from the notion of identity.

Perspective the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership

Path-Goal theory dates back to Martin Evans (1970) and was further developed by House (1971). The theory shows that leader behaviour depends on employee satisfaction, motivation, and performance. Leaders are expected to help followers reach their goals and provide the guidance and

support they need to ensure that their goals are in line with the goals of the institution (Kasinathan & Rajee, 2017; Habeeb, 2019; Barsulai, Makopondo & Fwaya, 2019). An organizational goal that details the methods used by leaders. Wilkinson, Gollan, Kalfa, and Xu (2018) state that if a manager constantly consults with employees, seeks suggestions, allows participation in decision-making, protects employee well-being, treats them equally, and show confidence in their abilities, employees will exhibit organizational citizenship behaviour and be committed to organizational goals. Research shows that when managers make up for the shortcomings of either employees or the work environment, citizenship organizational behaviour, work satisfaction, and employee retention are positively impacted (Grego-Planer, 2019; Cherry, 2010). In the same direction, Masood, Siddiqui, Lodhi, and Shahbaz (2020) reveal that employees exhibit organizational citizenship behaviour and commitment when managers show a smooth, clear direction without obstacles to achieving the company's goals. Ram and Prabhakar (2011) argue that leaders can change the lives of the employees by changing their ambitions to leave the organization if they were motivated to participate in decision-making, treat them equally, and have confidence in their abilities. According to Şimşek and Gürler (2019), the Path-goal theory predicts that a leadership direction is an important tool in helping subordinates complete complex tasks beyond their ------capabilities. Therefore, the Path-Goal theory applies to this study because the theory is emphasizing the need for the Nigerian universities' management and government to level out the educational challenges by encouraging academic staff to make decisions about non-payment of allowances, extended working hours, poor relationships, and industrial hazard. This helps academic staff demonstrate organizational citizenship behaviour and a high level of commitment to educational development.

For the adoption of the path growth theory, it assumes to a certain degree that the voice of

employees in an organization concerning diverse opinions will lead to a conflict but as the resolution of that occurs, the retentiveness of the employees in the organization on that job is harnessed. Wood & De Menezes, (2011) made it known that human nature naturally abhors conflict and the growth of any society is based on the proposition of an amicable way of solving conflicts as it arises. The assurance that such conflict will be solved will create an organizational allegiance vis-à-vis a reason for continuity within the organization (Rizwan & Ali, 2010). Thus, bringing the path growth theory into adoption for the study as it culminates the existence of a conflict resolution as a mediator to harness organizational citizenship behaviour from the belief of being retained in the organization based on the job path the employee believes will be attained. From a bird's eye view, the different entailed collective transitional factor for employee retention is based on the consistency of conflict resolution emanating from the organizational citizenship behaviour. The above-listed parameters are the ways in which employee retention operates from the consciousness of the path growth theory using conflict resolution acting as the mediating transit into participating in the organizational citizenship behaviour

Employee Voice and Employee Retention

The roots of the concept of employee voice date back to the Industrial Revolution of the 18th century when agricultural societies became more industrialized and urbanized (Kaufman, 2013). According to Wilkinson, Gollan, Kalfa, and Xu (2018), employee voices have been in the limelight of human resource management and organizational behaviour (OB) since the 1980s. Rees, Alfes, and Gatenby (2013) describe an employee's voice as a broad and formal means of employee input, including involvement in decisions, conflict resolution, grievance procedures, suggestion systems, quality circles, employee-management meetings, ombudsman services, and work councils. The employee relationship management literature considers the

employee's voice to be a fundamental democratic act for employees who have the right to express their opinions about workplace decisions in the organization (Wilkinson et al., 2018).

Empirical research has shown that there is a positive correlation between employee voice and employee retention. For example, a study by Wood and De Menezes (2011) shows that employee voice is associated with low willingness to quit and employee involvement. In addition, Ruck, Welch, and Menara (2017) have also established a positive relationship between employee voice and employee retention. Han, Chiang, and Chang (2010) also found that employees with a corporate culture that encourages employee participation in decision-making tend to stay in the company. From the same perspective, Bakker and Demerouti (2008) argue that employees who autonomously, manage, and responsibly propose improvements within an organization tend to stay in the organization. In the same perspective, Path-Goal theory attests that if a leader constantly consults with employees, seeks suggestions, allows participation in decision-making, protects employee well-being, treats them equally, and show confidence in their abilities, employees will be committed to organizational goals. The above-consensus results should be reviewed in the context of Nigeria. Therefore, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H_1: There is a positive and significant relationship between employee voice and employee retention

Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Employee Retention

In the early 1980s, the term "organizational citizenship" was used to describe employee behaviour within the social systems of various companies. Due to the increasing importance of autonomous and team-based work compared to the strict traditional hierarchy, it has since evolved into an important subject of research (Le Pine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). Therefore, an understanding of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) is

becoming increasingly important to the social structure of a company and the long-term sustainability of employee responsibilities. Employee roles and their behaviour are fundamental, both at the macro level for changes in all organizations and at the micro level for individual organizations. In previous studies, researchers found that the basic strategy of today's organizations for effective employee retention is organizational citizenship behaviour (Paille, 2013; Lam, Chen & Takeuchi, 2009; Paille & Grima, 2011). Citizenship is employee behaviour that is not part of an employee's contract or job description but is beneficial to the company's performance. Employees are motivated to support the company's core values and demonstrate these behaviours without expecting compensation.

Organizational citizenship behaviour has been observed over time. Behaviour often provides ideas for minimizing the need for surveillance, improving work ethic, and reducing costs. Individual behaviour is visionary and tends to choose activities that it believes are part of its future position. Employees who are willing to exceed their obligations support the organization in dealing with change and unpredictability. According to Kasinathan and Rajee (2017), organizational citizenship behaviour is the willingness of employees to make voluntary and supportive gestures while empirically showing that organizational citizenship behaviour significantly predicts employee retention. Lavelle (2010) shows that organizational citizenship behaviour provides organizations with the personal motivation that goes beyond the need to do something for fair treatment. A study conducted by Paille (2009) finds a positive and significant relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour and employee retention. Similarly, Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, and Blume (2009) argue that organizational citizenship behaviour predicts productivity, efficiency, and retention when encouraged within the organization. The Grego-Planer (2019) study also agrees with a previous study that found a positive link between organizational citizenship behaviour and

employee retention. Habeeb (2019) also shows that organizational citizenship behaviour motivates employees to become involved and incorporated into the organization and is, therefore, willing to work beyond formal expectations. In addition, Barsulai, Makopondo, and Fwaya (2019) found in their study that employee retention and productivity are predicted by organizational citizenship behaviour.

Equity theory argues if a leader should be responsible for paying fairly it will enhance OCB and prevent staff turnover (Masood et al., 2020). Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H_2: There is a positive and significant relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour and employee retention

Construct Conflict Resolution as Mediating Factor

The term conflict resolution refers to the informal or formal process used by two or more parties to reach a peaceful resolution to a disagreement. As indicated by Weber (1946) the study of conflict resolution in the organization has now been subjugated by the rationalist tradition. Conflict, according to the rationalist viewpoint, is a threat to efficiency, and conflict resolution is the use of specialized tools to regulate or divert conflict into constructive endeavours. Cultural heritage, on the other hand, emphasizes how conflict resolution meanings and forms are socially constructed in organizations and institutional environments (Behfar, K, Friedman, & Brett, 2016). The systematic achievement of global relevance depends on the ability of managers to recognize and deal with conflicts in the workplace (Julia, Juriy, Maksim, & Valeria, 2020).

Previous studies demonstrate that there is a direct relationship between conflict resolution, employee voice, organizational citizenship behaviour, and employee retention. For example, Roche (2016) discovers that conflict resolution in the workplace reduces stress, has impacts on trust between employees and leadership, and makes it easier for

employees to stay engaged. The study conducted by Clardy (2018) reveals that conflict resolution has a positive link with employee involvement, organizational citizenship behaviour, and retention which brings organizations to the limelight of global relevance. Gramberg, Teicher, Bamber, and Cooper (2020) further reported that employee voice, organizational citizenship behaviour, and retention are predicted by conflict resolution. Additionally, Gramberg, Teicher, Bamber, and Cooper (2017) find that conflict resolution facilitates employee participation in decision-making, commitment, and employee retention. Dunford, Mumford, and Boss (2020) also retorted those employees whose managers engage in conflict resolution have the perception of involvement culture, organizational citizenship behaviour, and lower turnover rates. The study of Alam, Arora, and Gupta (2020) also confirms that conflict resolution dimensions such as problem-solving

discussions, communication skills, team mediation, teamwork, departure, reaction, and effective listening have a significant influence on employee participation in decision-making, organizational citizenship behaviour, and intention to leave. Based on the empirical findings, the following hypothesis emerged:

H_3: There is a positive and significant relationship between conflict resolution and employee retention

H_4: Conflict resolution mediates the relationship between employee voice and employee retention

H_5: Conflict resolution mediates the relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour and employee retention

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this current study is presented (see Fig.1)

Figure 1 *Conceptual Framework*
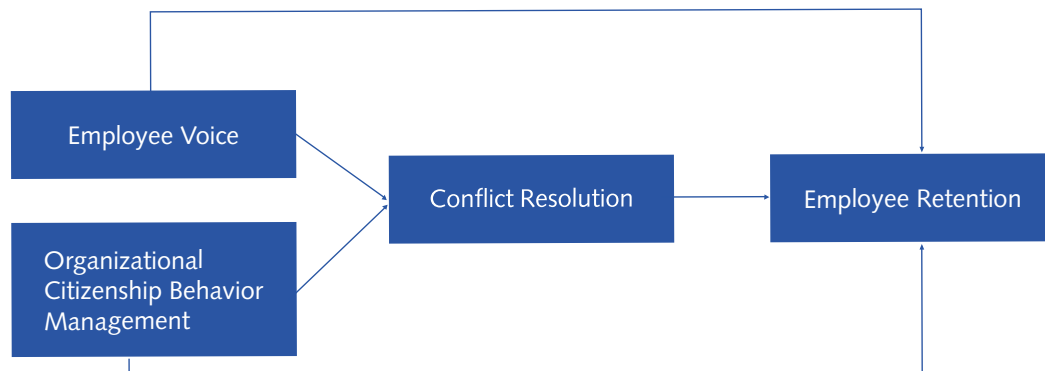
Note. In the above model, employee voice and organizational citizenship behaviour are taken as independent variables while conflict resolution is the mediator and employee retention as a dependent variable.

Method: Sample and Procedure

The study population comprises full-time academic staff members of the three selected universities, as it is primarily responsible for training the higher education level workforce. The sample was selected using non-probability sampling techniques. First, a purposive sampling

technique was used to select the three universities (University of Ibadan, Ekiti State University, and Babcock University). Thereafter, a sample of 450 academic staff was conveniently selected from the three universities. The sample comprises 150 each from the universities. Consequently, 450 copies of the questionnaire were administered by

the researchers to participants who volunteered to participate in the study from 5th July 2021 to 8th November 2021. At the end of the period, 376 copies of the questionnaires were returned representing a response rate of 0.84%.

50% of them came from the University of Ibadan, 35% of respondents came from Ekiti State University, and only 15% of them came from Babcock University. 71% of the respondents were male and 29% were female. This trend suggests that men make up the majority of lecturers. This distribution may be because, in most Third World countries, men are culturally more educated than women. Forty-five percent of respondents were between 40-50 years, 36% were between 30- 40 years, 14 % were between 50 – 60 years, and only 5% were above 60 years. The average age of most respondents is 43 years. This means that most faculty members are still very young, energetic, and active. This development means that they can still make a meaningful contribution to academic development.

Seventy-seven percent of respondents have a third-degree (PHD) as the highest educational qualification and 30% have a second degree (M.SC), but only 3% of respondents have a first-degree (B.SC) as the highest educational qualification. This means that more than 60% of academic staff have a PHD, which can help improve the level of education of students. 55% of respondents have been in university for 10 to 30 years, 35% have been in university for 19 years, and 10% have been in university for over 30 years. The average majority of respondents have more than 10 years of the university experience. Years of university experience show that most of them understand the institutional structure and administrative background that inevitably determine their coping strategies.

Measurements

To test the hypothesis, a quantitative study was conducted with a structured questionnaire. This study uses a conflict resolution scale developed and validated by Magdalene (2016) to measure conflict resolution. The scale has seven items in phrase format, fixed to a 5-point Likert scale, and has the following degree of response: Strongly Disagree (1), to Strongly Agree (5). The following is an example of a sample item; Shifting ground helps to resolve issues in the university in a fast and dynamic way, and the application of confrontation in conflict management reinforces mutual trust and respect in the university. The author gave a reliability alpha coefficient of 0.845 for seven items. The Employee Voice Scale developed and approved by Kos (2015) was used to measure the voice of employees. The scale consists of 8 points in the form of phrases and is linked to a 5-point scale of the Likert type with the following degree of response: strongly disagree (1), strongly disagree (5). Examples of the sample items include; Employees at each level in the organization taking part in the decision-making process up to an extent, the organization giving rewards for making appropriate suggestions, and the organization consulting employees in strategic decision-making. The author gave an alpha reliability factor of 0.89 for 6 items.

The employee retention scale developed and approved by Albaqami (2016) was used to measure employee retention. The scale consists of 7 items in the form of phrases and is linked to a 5-point scale of the Likert type with the following degree of response: strongly disagree (1), strongly disagree (5). Examples of the sample items include; I would prefer to spend the rest of my career with this university, there is no plan to leave this university soon and my career is secure in this University." The author gave an alpha reliability factor of 0.91 for 7 items. This current study uses the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale developed and validated by Jena and Pradhan (2018). It is a 5-point Likert-type scale in which the response ranges from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1). The 8-item scale measures organizational citizenship behaviour among academic staff. Examples of the sample items include; I enjoy helping others with work problems, I

believe in doing honest work for an honest day, paying attention to how someone's actions affect the work of others, and I am always up to date on changes in the organization. The author gave an alpha reliability factor of 0.92 for 7 items.

Data Analysis

The PROCESS macro program was used as a regression-based software package to analyze the data.

Results and Discussion

Table 1 *Correlations*

Variable	1	2	3	4
1. Employee Retention	1.000			
2. Employee Voice	.304	1.000		
3. Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	.623	.525	1.000	
4. Conflict Resolution	.447	.623	.865	1.000

Pearson's r ranges between +1 and -1, with +1 indicating a perfect positive correlation, -1 indicating a perfect negative correlation, and 0 indicating no linear connection at all. Table 1 depicts a very moderate to high positive connection. Employee retention (ER) is more likely when there is more employee voice (EV) and organizational

citizenship behaviour (OCB), and the effect is quite powerful. The Pearson Correlation indicates that the variables have moderate to high relationships. Similarly, the two-tailed significance value is 0.000. The usual alpha value is 0.05, indicating that the association is extremely significant and not just the result of random sampling error.

Table 2 *Model Summary*

Model		R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
						R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1		.304[a]	.092	.090	.583	.092	38.119	1	374	.000	
2		.624[b]	.389	.385	.479	.296	180.800	1	373	.000	
3		.651[c]	.424	.419	.466	.035	22.472	1	372	.000	1.644
	a. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Voice										
	b. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Voice, OCB										
	c. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Voice, OCB, Conflict Resolution										
	d. Dependent Variable: Employee Retention										

The model summary in Table 2 provides details about the characteristics of the model. In the present case, the study established an R-value,

which is the multiple correlation coefficient of the study. The results show .304 for EV .624 for OCB, and .651 for CR, suggesting the measure of the

quality of the prediction of the dependent variable. This result further indicates that 0.304 for EV is a weak association between the predictor variables. However, when grouped into one model, 0.624, OCB, and 0.651, CR shows a good and strong level of prediction and an acceptable correlation between the predictor variables.

Similarly, the coefficient of determination, measured by the R^2 of the total variables in the model, is 0.424 and indicates how much of the total variation in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variable. This reveals that the regression model explains 9.2 percent of the changes in the EV, 38.9 percent of the changes in the OCB, and 42.4 percent of the variability observed in the target variable. Moreover, the adjusted R^2 of the total variables in the model is .419, with an R^2 of .424 indicating the variation of the sample results from the population in multiple regressions. It is required to have a difference between R-square

and the adjusted R-square minimum. In this case, the value is .419, which is not far off from .424, which is good. Durbin-Watson = 1.644, which is between the two critical values of 1.5.

The F-ratio obtained from the SPSS analysis for the ANOVA is similarly substantially more than one, indicating that the model is acceptable in describing the link between the predictor variables and the outcome variables. This was also reinforced by the zero p-values, which indicate that the model is significant and hence acceptable for understanding the connection between dependent and independent variables. Similarly, the linear regression F-test contains the null hypothesis that there is no linear connection between the two variables ($R^2 = 0$). The test is very significant with $F = 91.125$ and large degrees of freedom, therefore we may infer that the variables in the model have a linear relationship.

Table 3 *Coefficients*

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.719	.201		13.506	.000	2.323	3.115					
	Employee Voice	.302	.049	.304	6.174	.000	.206	.399	.304	.304	.304	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	2.153	.171		12.612	.000	1.817	2.489					
	Employee Voice	-.031	.047	-.032	-.663	.508	-.124	.062	.304	-.034	-.027	.724	1.380
	OCB	.511	.038	.639	13.446	.000	.436	.585	.623	.571	.544	.724	1.380
3	(Constant)	1.915	.173		11.043	.000	1.574	2.256					
	Employee Voice	.062	.050	.063	1.244	.214	-.036	.161	.304	.064	.049	.612	1.635
	OCB	.750	.063	.940	11.984	.000	.627	.873	.623	.528	.472	.252	3.968
	Conflict Resolution	-.277	.058	-.404	-4.741	.000	-.392	-.162	.447	-.239	-.187	.213	4.694
a. Dependent Variable: Employee Retention													

To examine these variables' conditions, SPSS was used to run the regression analyses as follows. The independent variable (employee voice – EV, organizational citizenship behaviour- OCB, and Conflict resolution) predicts the dependent variable (employee retention - ER). The mediator (Conflict resolution- CR) predicts the dependent variable (ER) while controlling for the effect of the independent variable; this indicates that the relationship is statistically significant. The outcomes offer a summary of the variables that have still to be included in the model. The hierarchical model was used in the study, and this summary explains the variables that have been defined to be input in the following phases. The summary computes a T-test for each predictor's estimated B-value if it was entered into the equation at this stage.

Table 3 displays the SPSS regression output. This table displays the unstandardized and standardized regression coefficients, standard errors, the t and p values, and the 95% confidence interval for each analysis. The result shows that the independent variable (EV) is a significant predictor of the dependent variable (ER) (T = 6.174, P < .00). In other words, the direct effect (unstandardized coefficient = .302) is statistically significant. Hence, H_1 is accepted. This result is in line with the study of Wood and De Menezes (2011) that employee voice is associated with low willingness to quit and employee involvement. In addition, Ruck, Welch, and Menara (2017) have also established a positive relationship between employee voice and employee retention.

Similarly, when organizational citizenship behaviour- OCB was added to the model and analyzed the unstandardized and standardized regression coefficients, standard errors, the T and P values, and the 95% confidence interval for each analysis. The result shows that the independent variable (OCB) is a significant predictor of the dependent variable (OCB) (T = 13.446, P < .00). In other words, the direct effect (unstandardized coefficient = .511) is statistically significant. Hence, H_2 is accepted. The result conforms with

the study of Kasinathan and Rajee (2017) that organizational citizenship behaviour is the willingness of employees to make voluntary and supportive gestures while empirically showing that organizational citizenship behaviour significantly predicts employee retention. Likewise, the study also agrees with Grego-Planer (2019), that found a positive link between organizational citizenship behaviour and employee retention. This shows that organizational citizenship behaviour motivates employees to become involved and incorporated into the organization and, therefore, willing to work beyond formal expectations (Habeeb, 2019).

Table 3 is also the same for the mediating variable (CR) when entered as a significant predictor of the dependent variable (ER) (T = -4.741, P < .00). In other words, the direct effect (unstandardized coefficient = -.277) is statistically significant. In this scenario, the findings show that incorporating conflict resolution into the model has a substantial influence on the model's capacity to predict employee retention. Therefore, H3 is acceptable. This study confirms that conflict resolution in the workplace reduces stress, impacts trust between employees and leadership, and makes it easier for employees to stay engaged.

Moreover, the results confirmed that when the three variables are entered jointly at the same time, the results confirmed that OCB and CR is a significant predictor of the dependent variable (ER) ((OCB)T = 11.984, P < .00; (CR) T = -4.741, P < .00). In other words, the direct effect (unstandardized coefficient (OCB) = .750 (CR)-.277) is statistically significant, while EV is an insignificant predictor of ER. This study confirms the result of Clardy (2018) which reveals that conflict resolution has a positive link with employee involvement, organizational citizenship behaviour, and retention which brings organizations to the limelight of global relevance. However, this study is not in line with the results of Gramberg, Teicher, Bamber, and Cooper (2020) who reported that employee voice, organizational citizenship behaviour, and retention are predicted by conflict resolution.

Table 4 *Mediating effects*

MODEL SUMMARY					
Variable / Effect	**R**	**R Square**	**F Statistics**	**P-value**	
EV→CR→ER	.6226	.3876	236.6930	.0000	
OCB→CR→ER	.8649	.7480	553.5071	.0000	
MEDIATING EFFECT VALUE OF CONFLICT RESOLUTION					
	Coefficients	**T values**	**P-values**	**LLCI**	**ULCI**
Employee Voice	.0418	.7103	.4780	-.0739	.1574
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	.6538	11.9259	.0000	.5460	.7616

The mediated multiple regression models have been carried out through process macro conditional analysis in SPSS. The relationship between employee voice, Organizational Citizenship Behavior and employee retention in this study were mediated by Conflict resolution. The items were measured from Table 4 above, the results show the R^2 in the model with the mediating variable was 0.60 and 0.86 respectively, showing that R^2 changed for the model with the mediating variable. The results indicate that the mediating model was statistically significant with the model having F= 236.69 and 553.51 with a P-value =.000. This shows that the model is suitable for explaining the mediating influence of conflict resolution between Organizational Citizenship Behavior and employee retention. From Table 4, based on the mediation rule by Hayes (2013), conflict resolution partially mediates between Organizational Citizenship Behavior and employee retention with a P-value of 0.000. The rules state that the intervening term must be significant and if the intercession effect of the model values in both Lower-Level Confidence Interval (LLCI) and Upper-Level Confidence Interval (ULCI) has no zero value between them, the mediating variable has a significant effect on the model. The results further indicate that conflict resolution does not mediate the relationship between employee voice and employee retention with a P-value of 0.4780. Thus, H_4 is confirmed and H_5 is not supported.

Discussion of Findings

The results of this study establish that there is a positive linkage between organizational citizenship behaviour, employee voice, conflict resolution and employee retention. This implies that organizational citizenship behaviour, employee voice, and conflict resolution are managerial tools for employee retention. This means that employee retention is sacrosanct when academic staff are allowed to participate in decision-making that is germane to their career. This study aligns with Wood and De Menezes (2011) that employee voice is associated with low willingness to quit and employee retention. In addition, Ruck, Welch, and Menara (2017) also established that there is a positive relationship between employee voice and employee retention. In another study, Han, Chiang, and Chang (2010) found that employees with a corporate culture that encourages employee participation in decision-making are more likely to stay with the company. From the same perspective, Bakker and Demerouti (2008) argue that employees who lead autonomously within an organization and take responsibility for suggesting improvements tend to stay in the organization. Path-goal theory is also consistent with previous research that employee consultation, solicitation of suggestions, and participation in decision-making have a significant impact on employee retention.

Evidence suggests that organizational citizenship behaviour is highly correlated with employee retention. This means that the academic staff's

willingness to make spontaneous and supportive gestures is a predictor of staff retention. This study agrees with Kasinathan and Rajee (2017) that organizational civic behaviour significantly predicts employee retention. Lavelle (2010) also acknowledges that an organization's citizenship behaviour gives it a personal incentive beyond the need to do something to ensure fair treatment. Research by Paille (2009) confirms a significant positive correlation between organizational citizenship behaviour and employee retention. Similarly, Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, and Blume (2009) argue that organizational citizenship predicts productivity, efficiency, and retention when encouraged within an organization. A study by Grego-Planer (2019) also agrees with previous research that found a positive association between organizational citizenship behaviour and employee retention. Additionally, a study by Barsulai, Makopondo, and Fwaya (2019) found that employee retention and productivity are predicted by organizational citizenship behaviour. We also found that, with a P-value of of 0.000, conflict resolution partially mediated between employee voice and employee retention, and between OCB and employee retention.

Conclusion and Recommendation

This study investigated the positioning of conflict resolution through the extemporization of 'employee voice, organizational citizenship behaviour, and employee retention using selected universities with the underlay history of established successive culture, being the first at various stages of setup in Southwest, Nigeria. Previous related works on the aforementioned variables, listing the linear relationship towards the outcome of conflict resolution on various paradigms, were referred to en route to this research. The findings revealed a significant linear relationship between all measured variables and the mediating variable. Furthermore, statistically, employee voice and organizational citizenship behaviour were found to predict employee retention. As a result, the relationship is

statistically significant. While controlling for the effect of the independent variable, the mediator, conflict resolution, expects there to be an effect on employee retention. The research findings did not support this, with conflict resolution failing to mediate the relationship between employee voice and employee retention. A conflicting report from Nguyen et al., (2022) and Stephen et al., (2018) on the desire to harness employee retention. As a result of this finding, the study recommends that organizations, particularly tertiary institutions, enhance and value employee voice. It has been established as a follow-up for Organizational Citizenship Behavior, resulting in employee retention. The scheduling of periodic meetings in which all voices are given the necessary respect and opinions will change the positioning of the mediating variable.

Theoretical Implications

This study illustrates the relevance of equity theory and pass-goal theory to employee retention in academia. The results of this study support the premise of justice theory that academics can be retained by involving them in decision-making related to non-payment of bonuses, long working hours, deteriorating relationships, and industrial hazards. According to Ekabu (2019), the theory posits that at this facility, employees are treated fairly, motivated to do their best, and even reciprocated through the organization by engaging in organizational citizenship behaviour. . Similarly, Millis (2017) shows that the theory of justice that seeks to understand the causes of happiness and satisfaction to achieve full organizational engagement and productive synergy is a moral theory. Khalid et al., (2012) argue that the number of Organizational Citizen Behavior Patterns (OCBS) can be reduced when employees perceive their output/input ratio to be below a baseline.

Furthermore, path-goal theory shows that Nigerian government actions influence academic motivation, achievement, and retention. Recent research has shown that a leadership direction is

an important tool in supporting subordinates to accomplish complex tasks beyond their capabilities (Imşek & Gürler, 2019). Applying the path-goal theory to this study is how Nigerian university leaders and governments encourage faculty members to make decisions about non-payment of benefits, long working hours, deteriorating relationships, and industrial hazards served as a precautionary measure to offset educational challenges. The path-goal theory of leadership allows academic staff to demonstrate their organizational citizenship and a strong commitment to educational development with the goal of conflict resolution. This enables positive and inclusive growth of the organization.

Practical Implications

This research has practical implications for governments, and management of tertiary institutions. The organizational citizenship behaviour found in this study is moderated by conflict resolution, with the view that employee voice determines and thereby leads to employee retention. Through conflict resolution, the potential to mediate between employee voice, organizational citizenship, and employee retention can be demonstrated, thereby making any society prone to chaos and adopting the mindset of warfare. It has become clear that the current limitations can be overcome. Evidence, as opposed to a means of removing tension from an established conflict. Moreover, compared to Nigerian spaces where master-servant relationships existed, staff voices were found not to determine attachment (Ayeni, 2015). This determines the reasons for the decline in employee loyalty in an area that has received little research. Governments must therefore take responsibility for paying academics fairly, preventing staff turnover, and preventing numbers of people from seeking greener pastures in neighbouring countries. Universities should also promote and value employee participation. Scheduling regular meetings where all voices are given respect and input shifts the landscape of mediating variables.

Limitations and recommendations for further studies

The geographical scope was one of the major limitations encountered by the researcher while conducting this study, as it only focused on one of Nigeria's geopolitical zones. Furthermore, the sample population was limited to academic staff while excluding non-academic staff, which would have provided a more balanced viewpoint. The study was conducted in an academic setting, and one might wonder if it applies to other industries, as they may differ from other industries, showing a different path, and thus generalization cannot be used. In addition, the study looked at four (4) variables: organizational citizenship behaviour, employee voice, academic staff retention, and conflict resolution. This approach may have an impact on the adequacy of the constructs' components. Another limitation of this study is the use of a questionnaire as a quantitative data collection approach, which may limit the expense and discovery of other new variables in the data collection process.

The study's findings and recommendations are strategic tools for persuading managers, administrators, and business owners to improve business performance. However, there are some suggestions for future research. The study's empirical research established a significant relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour, employee voice, academic staff retention, and conflict resolution. Since organizational citizenship behaviour and employee voice have been established, further research should consider issues such as work ethics, organizational structure, and economic stability. Additionally, the manner of conflict resolution should be studied to determine across contexts. Instead of using the selected parameters, the scope of the work was limited to three universities. A comparison of private and public universities. Furthermore, additional research can be conducted from the standpoint of state comparison by selecting a fixed number of universities to posit another or supplement

the presented viewpoints. While the study uses a quantitative approach as its main measure of the instrument, a qualitative approach can be used as the main or sole instrument to gather more insights on the research across diverse institution strata in Nigeria.

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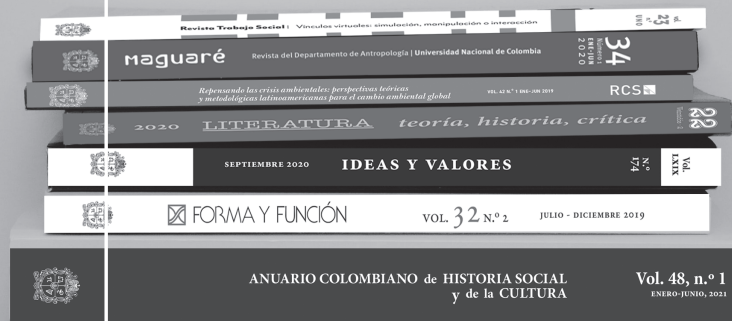
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