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High Potential Employee Learning Agility: Individual Differences, Learning Climate and the Role of Human Resource Management (HRM) Function

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Abstract

This study investigates the construct of learning agility, i.e., "one's engagement in learning behaviours to enhance the capacity to reconfigure activities quickly to meet the changing demands in the task environment" (Burke, 2018, p. 12). Firstly coined by Eichinger and Lombardo (2000), learning agility is positively related to employees' performance during changing organisational contexts (Bedford, 2011), the potential for advancement (Miklos et al., 2013), being identified as high potential (Dries et al., 2012) as well as to leadership success (De Meuse, 2017). As a relatively new construct, the practitioner's interest in learning agility has been growing rapidly in the last decade beyond robust empirical substantiation (De Meuse, 2015). While the organisational implications of learning agility have been looked at in current research, our understanding of 'who' demonstrates learning agility and 'how' individual differences interact with the environment is still relatively scarce (De Meuse, 2019).

With the question of "*what are the dispositional and contextual correlates of high potential employee learning agility in the workplace?*" as the primary research question; this study aims to address both the 'internal' predisposing factors (i.e., personality, motivation) contributing to one's learning agility as well as the 'external' contextual factors, specifically in the context of high potential employee population. Past research explored those individual differences in isolation; however, less attention has been directed to understanding the organisational climates which might support or impede learning agility (Harvey and De Meuse, 2021). This study examines the motivational climates as the boundary condition within which the impact of those individual differences on learning agility is strengthened or weakened (DeRue et al., 2012). Responding to the call for empirical research on the organisation's role in developing learning agility (Harvey and De Meuse, 2021), this study would also focus on how the HRM function may 'orchestrate' and synergise its practices to establish supportive organisational climates (Marin-Gracia and Tomas, 2016; Trullen et al., 2016; Milani et al., 2021).

The results show that both personality and motivational traits are associated with learning agility in different valence. An examination of the interaction effects shows that the mastery climate facilitated learning agility due to Honesty-Humility, and Emotionality traits, while the performance climate facilitated learning agility due to Agreeableness trait. Further discussions using the lens of social adroitness in the context of high potential employees identification in the workplace (Lee and Ashton, 2007; 2005; Markey and Markey, 2006) are presented. From the perspective of the HRM, this study also clarifies the crucial role that the HRM function plays in establishing conducive organisational climates; as well as its relevant practices. In order to achieve a congruent perception of all organisational constituents, the organisational alignment between the senior management team, the HRM function and the employees, is deemed to be critical. Following the 'how,' the 'which' question of HR practices contributing to such climates was also explored. The practices deemed to contribute to the HRM functions' system strength (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004) are 'criterion-based' person-organisation fit, 'democratisation' of knowledge, and low-status differentials HR practices.

Intended for both academics and practitioners alike, the value of this study is two-fold. It contributes to the learning agility body of knowledge by investigating the underlying factors within the nexus of high potential management practice and organisational climate. It expands the current nomological network of learning agility (Harvey and De Meuse, 2021) by considering the importance of the intricate context surrounding the behaviour as well as the organisational role and practices that 'shape' such context. From a practitioner's point of view, this study clarifies what and how the organisation's HRM function could do to promote learning agility in their organisations (Milani et al., 2021). The study found that a conducive learning climate could be established through HRM function's (1) person-organisation fit practices, (2) 'democratisation' of knowledge practices and (3) low status differential practices. In implementing those practices; the alignments (1) between HRM function and the senior management team, (2) between HRM sub-functions and (3) between HRM function and the employees, were deemed important to take place in order to achieve employees' unified perception and understanding of the learning agility behavioural expectations.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

1. Introduction

Introduction

This chapter aims to elaborate the background and rationale of this study. It will start with a discussion on the importance of the idea of learning agility for the business, how it contributes to their effort in managing their high-performing employees and developing future organisational leaders; as well as specific theoretical gaps and debates addressed by this study. A conclusion will then be provided to summarize this chapter.

1.1. The era of learning agility

"The illiterate of the 21st century will not be those who cannot read and write, but those who cannot learn, unlearn and relearn."
Alvin Toffler in Future Shock (1984)

As cited by Alvin Toffler almost four decades ago, one's ability (and willingness) to learn, unlearn and relearn new knowledge and skills have never been so important. This is particularly true nowadays as globalization and digitalization have continued to grow in an unprecedented rate resulting in a continuously changing, dynamic world. This shift places unique demands on a variety of organisations and requires many different capabilities from workers of all hierarchical levels. A global study by Oxford Economics that was conducted more than a decade ago has examined how globalization and transformations in the corporate environment will affect workforce needs in the future. Being 'agile,' innovative, having the ability to consider multiple scenarios, dealing with complexity and managing paradoxes were noted as some of the "in-demand skills" for this decade (Oxford Economics, 2012).

Before the pandemic, the same theme of 'agility' continues to emerge. Being 'agile' means that employees need to continuously 'stay relevant;' i.e., diversifying one's skill set and engaging in continuous learning are pivotal for employees for sustained employability in a volatile labour market (de Fruyt et

al., 2015). Quickly adapting to changing environments is indeed becoming increasingly important in today's career development (Hogan et al., 2013). A study conducted by Deloitte (2018) found that 'career' nowadays is no longer narrowly defined by jobs and skills but through experiences and learning agility. 'Having a series of developmental experiences that offer individuals to acquire new skills, perspectives and judgment' emerged as the third-most-important trend; in which 47% of respondents described it as very important ("2018 Deloitte Global Human Capital Trends," 2018). Thus, instead of a steady progression along a job-based pathway, organisations are now shifting toward a career development model that empowers their employees to acquire valuable experiences, explore new roles and continually reinvent themselves.

Such finding is also in line with Mercer's 2018 Global Talent Trends Study. They found that while at the organisational level, changing at speed is about agility and resilience; at the individual level, it's all about learning from experience. Individuals must accelerate their learning to remain relevant, are encouraged to stretch themselves, try new things and operate outside of their comfort zone ("2018 Global Talent Trends Study," 2018). A similar global study jointly conducted by DDI, The Conference Board, and EY (2018) found alike results. Agile employees are 1.2x more capable of responding to a competitive environment, 3.2x more prepared to anticipate and react to nature and speed of change and eventually 4.6x more engaged to their organisations ("Global Leadership Forecast 2018," 2018).

Looking from the side of the HRM function, differentiating HR practices to rapidly sense and act on market requirement changes, anticipate trends and competitive forces and drive more informed frequent strategic adjustments, are pivotal to establish organisation and employees' agility ("Global Leadership Forecast 2018," 2018). This was becoming more imminent during and after the global pandemic. An industry study conducted by CIPD (2020) showed that pandemic-related work rearrangements had provided a number of challenges for employees and managers, such as increased demand of flexible working requests, psychological stressors of homeworking as well as the complexity of managing and redesigning jobs that are unsuitable for remote working. One of the top three "influencing trends" mentioned here is a particular calling for

more agile ways of working and responding rapidly to industrial and economic change, especially within the private sectors. The speed at which it influences organisational changes is likely to be more rapid and significant. Thus, there is a continuous pressing need to integrate agility into the organisational HR practices to deal with and mitigate future crises (ibid.).

1.2. Leadership, talent management and the concept of learning agility

As 'learning from experience' is critical to the employees; moreover it is to the leaders. In light of the above organisational transformations, effective leadership is needed more than ever (DeRue and Myers, 2014). Leadership is one of the most important correlates of whether organisations and workgroups can effectively adapt and performing dynamic environments (Waldman et al., 2001; Peterson et al., 2003; 2009). Bass and Bass (2008) concluded that when an organisation needs to reflect changes in technology and environment, its leadership is critical in orchestrating such process. Therefore, it is obvious that organisations are designating leadership as their top strategic priority and a potential source of competitive advantage, thus investing in its future development (Day et al., 2009).

Talent management (labelled as 'high potential employees management' going forward), through its sub-function of talent identification (or designation) and development, is pivotal in building a pool of strong future leadership cadres (Finkelstein et al., 2018). Compared to their peers, high potential employees consistently and significantly show higher level of performance in a variety of contexts; stronger capacity and motivation to grow their careers within the organisation; as well as exhibiting exemplary behaviours that reflect the organisation's culture and values (Lepak and Snell, 1999; Wright et al., 2001; Ready et al., 2010). High potential employee development calls for developing employees to be future leaders through learning from their experiences (Silzer and Church, 2009; De Meuse, 2017). These high potential employees are expected to be malleable; able to 'recast' their own identities (VandeWalle, 2012). They are expected to continuously let go of old habits and ways of performing their jobs and willingly latch on to new supervisory practices and competencies that are needed in transitioning up to the organisation ladder (Freedman, 1998; Charan et al., 2001; Brousseau et al., 2006). Therefore, given

the importance of this pool of future leadership cadres to the organisation, this study will focus on the high potential employee population.

Drawing from experiential learning theory (Kolb, 1984), McCall (2004) concluded that the primary source of learning to lead — to the extent that leadership can be learned — is experience. Originated from such issue of identifying next-generation leaders who are capable of performing successfully within a dynamic environment, Eichinger and Lombardo firstly coined the term in 2000 and argued that leadership potential should be a function of individuals' agility to learn from experience. Learning agility entails both 'learning from experience' (Kolb, 1984; Felicia, 2011) and subsequently applying that learning in new challenges or situations. Selection of leadership potential should then account for his/her learning agility to adapt to the demands of future roles rather than something that the individual can already demonstrate (i.e., his/her performance in current or past roles). It is the individual's ability and willingness to learn from experience *and* apply what he/she has learned in a new, different – very often challenging – situation that differentiates high potentials from mere performers (Eichinger and Lombardo, 2000).

1.3. Learning agility: Debates and areas of investigation

As a relatively new construct, the practitioner's interest and organisational adoption in learning agility have been growing very fast in the last decade beyond robust empirical substantiation (De Meuse, 2015; 2017; 2019). A number of academic research has found that learning agility is positively related to current performance and potential for advancement (Bedford, 2011; Miklos et al., 2013), being identified as high potential (Dries et al., 2012) and to leadership success (De Meuse, 2017). Rotolo et al. (2018) argued that the current academic debates are no longer about the impact of learning agility to the organisation, but more about its definitional boundary lines, i.e., what constitutes learning agility. Beyond its 'organisational value,' our understanding of who demonstrates learning agility, the underlying context, as well as what can be done by the organisation are still relatively scarce (Harvey and De Meuse, 2021).

Firstly, this study builds on the conceptual framework of learning agility proposed by DeRue et al. (2012). Their model conceptually clarifies several relevant constructs related to learning agility, including individual differences that promote learning agility (personality and learning goal orientation); cognitive and behavioural processes that underlie it; and organisational factors that enhance the degree of learning agility of its employees. Their conceptualisation, however, is still limited in terms of empirical research; especially in the context of high potential management (Harvey and De Meuse, 2021). Aside from the 'internal' predisposing factors and central mechanisms contributing to one's learning agility, noteworthy future research is also suggested to put an emphasis on the environmental factors within organisations which might support or impede learning agility (DeRue et al., 2012). Hence, in terms of empirical contributions, this study aims to test and expand the learning agility model proposed by DeRue et al. (2012). It does so by examining the dispositional correlates of learning agility (i.e., personality and learning goal orientation) across different organisational climates conducive to learning agility (i.e., perceived mastery and performance climates); within the nexus of high potential management practices.

Secondly, on a different level of analysis, the study aspires to understand how Human Resource Management (HRM) contributes to employee learning agility. Aside from the organisational climates and high potential management practices supporting learning agility, Harvey and De Meuse (2021) also pointed out other future research area that relates to the malleability of learning agility; i.e., organisational approaches that are most effective in developing learning agility. On the micro-individual level, extant studies (Dries et al., 2012; Shin and Jun, 2019; Jooss et al., 2019; Lee and Song, 2022) have indicated that learning agility are developable through various interventions. However, on the meso-organisational level, the evidence is still nascent. How and what the organisations could do to promote their learning climate, thus, supporting the development of learning agility are still yet to be explored (Milani et al., 2021).

Based on the above rationale, the main research question of this study would be *"what are the dispositional and contextual correlates of high potential employee learning agility in the workplace?"* The research objectives are

twofold: Firstly, to explain which personality and motivational characteristics are associated with the high potential employees' learning agility and how these differ by the organisational perceived contexts (i.e., mastery and performance climates). Secondly, to explore the role of the organisation's Human Resource Management (HRM) function in establishing such contexts conducive to learning agility. A mixed method research has been conducted within the context of Indonesia, Asia Pacific's third and Southeast Asia's most populous country and biggest economy. Using data of 1499 high potential employees from 18 different organisations in Indonesia, the study employed Structural Equation Modelling to test a model of learning agility where personality (HEXACO) and motivation (mastery and performance goal orientations) were direct correlates and perceived mastery vs performance climate was the moderator of these relationships. On top of these, to capture the role of the HRM function, 34 in-depth interviews have been conducted with senior HR leaders in Indonesia from multiple industries and scales of businesses. The participants came from around 20 different industries, such as financial service, agriculture, media, banking and consumer goods, among others.

This report will comprise of eight chapters. Chapter 1 (titled 'Introduction') would be the introduction chapter that outlines the background and rationale of this study. Chapter 2 (titled 'Employee learning agility') and chapter 3 (titled 'Human resource management and employee learning agility') would be the literature review chapters that elaborate existing research on learning agility, the research gaps as well as the subsequent hypotheses and interview questions. Chapter 4 (titled 'Research methodology') outlines the methodological approach of this study, including the research design, sampling strategy and ethical considerations. Chapter 5 (titled 'Employee and Context Characteristics Associated with Learning Agility') is the data analysis chapter that tries to address the previously mentioned first research objective. Chapter 6 (titled 'The Practices and Role of the HRM function in Establishing Climate that Supports Learning Agility') is the data analysis chapter that tries to address the previously mentioned second research objective. Chapter 7 (titled 'Discussion of Research Results') is the integration chapter. This chapter aims to integrate the findings from both Chapter 5 and 6 against the literature to address the research gap and answer the research question. Finally, the last Chapter 8

(titled 'Conclusion, Limitation and Future Direction') tries to conclude this report, share some limitations of this study and suggests important research directions pertaining learning agility in the future.

Conclusion

This chapter aims to elaborate the background and rationale of this study. Being 'agile,' having the ability to consider multiple scenarios, dealing with complexity and managing paradoxes were noted as some of the "in-demand skills" by multitude of industry reports in the last decade. Looking from the side of the HRM function, differentiating HR practices to rapidly sense and act on market requirement changes, anticipate trends and competitive forces and drive more informed frequent strategic adjustments, are deemed equally important to establish both organisation and employees' agility.

In light of the above organisational transformations, effective leadership is needed. Therefore, it is obvious that organisations are designating leadership as their top strategic priority and a potential source of competitive advantage, thus investing in its future development. Drawing from experiential learning theory, extant research concluded that the primary source of learning to lead is experience; thus, giving birth to concept of learning agility.

As a relatively new construct, the practitioner's interest and organisational adoption in learning agility have been growing very fast beyond robust empirical substantiation. Regardless its 'organisational value,' our understanding of who demonstrates learning agility, the underlying context, as well as what can be done by the organisation are still relatively scarce. In order to address such gaps, this study aims to test and expand DeRue et al.'s (2012) conceptual model in order to provide a more contextualised understanding of learning agility in the workplace. The study is needed as it would (1) contribute to the evidence base of dispositional correlates of learning agility (i.e., personality and learning goal orientation), (2) contextualise our understanding of learning agility in perceived organisational climates and (3) explore the role of HRM function in facilitating employee learning agility.

2. Literature Review – Employee Learning Agility

Introduction

Chapter 2 (titled 'Employee learning agility') and chapter 3 (titled 'Human resource management and employee learning agility') would be the literature review chapters that elaborate existing research on learning agility, the research gaps as well as the subsequent hypotheses and interview questions.

In addressing the overarching research objectives of understanding the individual and contextual corelates of Learning Agility, Chapter 2 would review the literature on (i) the current learning agility body of knowledge, with a particular focus on its individual and contextual correlates; (ii) the research gap in order to understand individual and contextual correlates of LA; and (iii) then present hypotheses that this study will test for addressing the research objective.

2.1. Conceptualising learning agility
2.1.1. Practitioners' and academic communities' interests in learning agility

After introduced more than two decades by Eichinger and Lombardo (2000), the construct has garnered interest both from the practitioner as well as the academic community. A recent industry survey conducted by Talent Strategy Group in 2015 found that learning agility was the most frequently used criterion to measure leadership potential, with 62% of the respondents citing it. Other aspects such as emotional intelligence, personality and intelligence were cited less often with 24%, 14% and 13% respectively ("Potential: Who's Doing What," 2015). Similarly, Church et al. (2015) found that over 50% of them incorporated learning agility in their high potential identification and senior leadership assessment; higher than several other important constructs such as resilience, executive presence and cognitive skills. Learning agility has been an increasing part of competency models and high potential frameworks in organisations (Rotolo et al., 2018) and it receives a lot of market pull and is being applied to solve important organisational needs such as the above-mentioned assessments (Silzer and Church, 2009; Church and Rotolo, 2013; Finkelstein et al., 2018).

From the side of academic community, learning agility has also been argued as an important concept of employee career development (DeRue et al., 2012; Anseel, 2017); especially in the way it predicts leadership success or potential (Dries et al., 2012; Dai et al., 2013; Mitchinson and Morris, 2014). It is found adding value to organisations' selection and developmental efforts of their leadership team (Hezlett and Kuncel, 2012; Mitchinson et al., 2012). Learning agility was found to be positively related to current performance (Eichinger and Lombardo, 2000; Bedford, 2011) as well as the potential for advancement (Bedford, 2011). Dries et al. (2012) suggested that individuals with high degree of learning agility are more apt to learn from experience and harness greater potential. They are more likely to be high performers and more likely to be promoted as well. Dries et al. (2012) found that learning agility is a strong predictor of one being identified as a high potential (i.e., increase his/her likelihood of being identified as a high potential by a factor of 18); even a better predictor than job performance, which is still a predominant aspect of high potential identification processes in many organisations today. In their initial prediction model, job performance by itself was found to be statistically significant ($p < .01$) in discriminating between high potentials and non-high potentials. When learning agility was added as another predictor to the model, the performance of the model was significantly improved ($p < .001$).

In the healthcare industry, Miklos et al. (2013) showed that learning agility significantly predicts performance in a complex and rapidly changing environment. A meta-analysis study of 19 different learning agility studies during the last 15 years also has been done recently by De Meuse (2017). A total of 40 correlation coefficients between learning agility and leadership success were reported in these studies, in which 33 out the 40 coefficients were statistically significant at the $p<.05$ level or higher. Computation of the overall mean correlation coefficient was $r = .47$ ($p< .001$), which suggests a relatively strong relationship between learning agility and the success of leaders (De Meuse, 2017).

2.1.2. Streams of research in learning agility

Since it is firstly introduced by Eichinger and Lombardo (2000), learning agility has been broadly defined in the form of leadership meta-competencies in

learning from experience, e.g., dealing with ambiguity, problem-solving, conflict management, critical-thinking skills and open-mindedness (De Meuse, 2017). Eichinger and Lombardo (2000) defined learning agility as an individual's willingness and ability to learn new competencies in order to perform under first-time, tough or different conditions. An initial conceptual framework by Eichinger and Lombardo (2000) outlined broad four factors of learning agility, i.e., people agility, change agility, results agility and mental agility. Despite being established two decades ago, these original factors are still commonly referred by practitioners and contemporary scholars, such as Gravett and Caldwell (2016).

After more than a decade since it is firstly conceptualised, De Meuse and Feng (2015) redefined the definition of learning agility as one's ability to learn from experience, and then the willingness to apply those lessons to perform successfully in new and challenging leadership roles. On top of an additional fifth factor ('self-awareness') (De Meuse et al., 2011), De Meuse and Feng (2015) later added two additional factors of 'feedback responsiveness' and 'environmental mindfulness.' In 2012, Mitchinson et al. also established an alternative model that were claimed to be more theoretically solid and empirically rigour than Eichinger and Lombardo's. They postulated that individuals with high degree of learning agility seek out new experiences ('seeking' / 'taking risks' factor), try new and innovative ways of doing things ('innovating' factor), are able to remain present when faced with challenges ('performing' factor), are open to challenging feedback and/or assignments (inverse 'defending' factor) and take time to gather feedback and reflect on experiences ('reflecting' factor) (Mitchinson and Morris, 2014).

Aside of the research published in journal, there were also PhD research aiming to conceptualise learning agility, such as Bedford (2011) and Allen (2016). To reflect individual characteristics, Bedford (2011) developed a learning agility model to diagnose job performance that included personal characteristics and cognitive ability. Seven characteristics of individuals with high levels of learning agility were identified: Seeking feedback, actively collecting information, admitting mistakes, taking risks, learning through cooperation, taking on new challenges and bold action and habit of reflection. As for Allen (2016), he

established another model of Learning Agility Simulation (LAS) and Learning Agility Indicator (LAI). This model postulates learning agility to consist of two main factors, which is ability to gather information, recognize changing patterns and incorporate feedback ('observing', 'connecting' and 'assessing' factors); as well as motivation to pursue various opportunities, being creative and innovative and take risks ('exploring', 'imagining' and 'examining' factors).

An interesting feat to redefine learning agility came from DeRue et al. (2012). Their model defined it more narrowly and emphasizing on only certain factors of the construct, i.e., speed of learning and cognitive flexibility. They argued that the primary focus of learning agility should be on scanning a situation rapidly then understanding quickly what needs to be performed. DeRue et al. (2012) suggested that clearer-defined conceptualization is critical to understand the nuances and complexities of the construct and assess its broader organisational impact. Thus, their research tried to offer a narrower, more focused conceptualization of learning agility rather than the first stream of research. Compared to Eichinger and Lombardo that operationalize the construct of learning agility in part by its outcome of successful performance (i.e., 'results agility'), DeRue et al. (2012) separate the two and keeps the construct distinct from outcome itself. They defined learning agility as the ability to come up quickly in one's understanding of a situation and move across ideas flexibly both within and across experiences in the service of learning from experience.

As we can see in Figure 1 below, aside of defining it more narrowly, their research was also aimed to conceptually clarify several relevant constructs related to learning agility, including individual differences that promote learning agility; cognitive and behavioural processes that underlie it; and organisational environment that enhance the degree of learning agility of its employees. In terms of individual differences, their exemplary factors here were goal orientation, cognitive ability, and one personality trait of Openness to Experience.
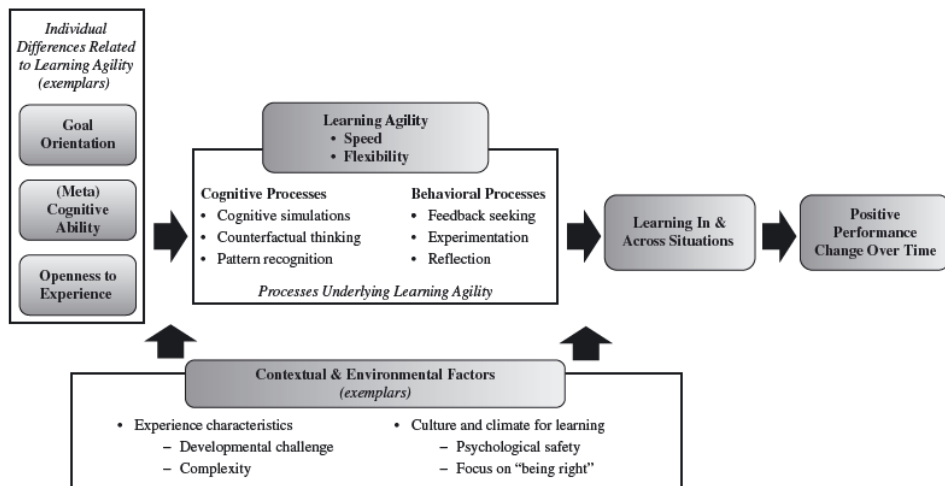
Figure 1. Overall conceptual model of learning agility (DeRue et al., 2012, p. 265)

The latest development of learning agility model was posited by Burke (2018). Burke (2018) 'harmonize' those differing perspectives by also taking DeRue et al.'s (2012) model into account. They concurred that leadership potential can be measured through an individual's capacity to learn new knowledge, skills and behaviours in responding successfully to future challenges. The authors define learning agility as the ability and willingness to reconfigure activities quickly to meet changing demands in the task environment. Although the factor 'labels' are different, the underlying facets of learning agility measured are similar to the preceding three models (i.e., 2000 Eichinger and Lombardo's, 2011 De Meuse et al.'s and 2015 De Meuse and Feng's) (De Meuse, 2017). For example, rather than calling a factor 'change agility' (Eichinger and Lombardo, 2000; De Meuse et al., 2011) or 'change alacrity' (De Meuse and Feng, 2015), Burke (2018) refer it as 'experimenting.' Another distinction would be Burke (2018) also separate the two factors — 'collaborating' and 'interpersonal risk-taking' — to assess 'interpersonal relations.' The largest difference among these models, however, involves how important the roles of 'speed' and 'information gathering' in learning agility. Table 1 below (expanded from De Meuse, 2017; 2019) summarizes the differing and complementing factors of these models by time line, as well as their corresponding measurement tools.

Scholars:	Eichinger and Lombardo (2000)	De Meuse et al. (2011)	Bedford (2011)	Mitchinson et al. (2012)	De Meuse and Feng (2015)	Allen (2016)	DeRue et al. (2012)	Burke (2018)
Measurement tools:	CHOICES®	ViaEDGE®	Bedford Learning Agility Measurement	Learning Agility Assessment Inventory (LAAI)®	TALENTx7®	Learning Agility Simulation (LAS) and Indicator (LAI)	N/A	Burke Learning Agility Inventory (BLAI)®
Factor 1:	People agility	People agility	• Learning through cooperation • Admitting mistakes		Interpersonal acumen			• Collaborating • Interpersonal risk-taking
Factor 2:	Change agility	Change agility	Take risks	Innovating	Change alacrity	Imagining		Experimenting
Factor 3:	Mental agility	Mental agility			Cognitive perspective	Connecting	Flexibility	Flexibility
Factor 4:	Result agility	Result agility	• Take on new challenges • Bold action	Seeking / Taking Risks	Drive to excel	• Exploring • Examining		Performance risk-taking
Factor 5:		Self-awareness	Habit of reflection	Reflecting	Self-insight			Reflecting
Factor 6:			Seeking feedback	Defending (*inverse*)	Feedback responsiveness	Assessing		Feedback seeking
Factor 7:					Environmental mindfulness			
Factor 8:				Performing			Speed	Speed
Factor 9:			Active information collection			Observing		Information gathering

Table 1. Comparison between factors of learning agility (expanded from De Meuse, 2017; 2019)

2.1.3. Burke's (2018) concluding conceptualisation of learning agility

Learning agility is defined as "one's engagement in learning behaviours to enhance the capacity to reconfigure activities quickly to meet the changing demands in the task environment" (Burke, 2018, p. 12). This behaviour-based definition will be used in this study as it settles the different streams of research on setting the definitional boundaries of learning agility. It is defined as developable set of behaviours that requires an examination of both the personal characteristics that antecede learning agility as well as the social contextual elements that can enhance or attenuate a person's ability to act in learning agile ways (ibid.).

Learning agility can be seen as an integration of ability and motivational aspects to learn from experience and that individuals with high degree of learning agility adjust their behaviours along with the change in the situation. Hence, there are two broad dimensions of Burke's (2018) learning agility conceptualization, which is 'learning' and 'agility.' Aligned with DeRue et al. (2012), 'agility' is based on two dimensions (flexibility and speed); while 'learning' further comprises of seven dimensions (experimenting, performance risk-taking, interpersonal risk-taking, collaborating, Information gathering, feedback-seeking and reflecting). Originated at a research team at Teachers College, Columbia University, these nine dimensions (with a total of 38 specific behavioural descriptors within them) make up a measure of an individual's learning agility (Burke et al., 2016, in Drinka, 2018). These nine dimensions provide a logical order of behaviours of learning agility (ibid.).

These dimensions are as follow:

1. Flexibility: Flexibility is being open to new ideas and proposing new solutions. It is the extent to which one displays fluidity, adaptability, resilience in the face of adversity and the ability to switch between different modes of operating in his/her learning process (Hoff and Burke, 2017). By showcasing flexibility, one might abandon behaviours that have worked in the past for new behaviours that possibly meet the demands of the current challenge. It involves the process of learning and unlearning (ibid.). Based on such demands and feedback from others, individuals might change their approach or course of action to the task at hand. Several business authors, such as Toffler (1984), Collins (2004) and Goldsmith (2008), have also pointed out similar importance of being flexible and able to learn and unlearn, both for the organisation as well as the leaders and people within it.

2. Speed: Speed is acting on ideas fast so that those not working are discarded and other possibilities are accelerated (Hoff and Burke, 2017). It has to do with how quickly one can change the course of his/her behaviours, as well as how quickly him/her can read situation cues in order to form a plan of action (Burke, 2018). Speed could be seen as the degree to which one is a 'quick study,' swift – but not hasty – while operating at his/her full potential. Thus, individuals high in speed dimension are expected to be able to change their position during a discussion in response to social cues or immediately

change their behaviours to adjust to new knowledge (DeRue et al., 2012). If the ideas result in failures, they are not dwelling in failure and moving on to the next attempt or experiment as soon as possible (Hoff and Burke, 2017). Along with flexibility, speed is necessary for change in both organisations and individuals (De Meuse, 2019). With both dimensions as the backdrop, learning agility would then be defined as the engagement in learning behaviours to reconfigure activities quickly to meet the changing demands in the task environment (Hoff and Burke, 2017).

3. Experimenting: Experimenting pertains to trying out new behaviours (i.e., approaches, ideas) to determine what is effective (Hoff and Burke, 2017). It is the extent a person tries implementing out new ideas or ways to get work done, usually through seeking out new information from the environment (Burke, 2018). Experimenting might involve testing ideas that may be obvious as well as the ones that seem 'like a stretch' (De Meuse, 2017)

4. Performance risk-taking: Performance risk-taking is about seeking new activities (i.e., tasks, assignments, roles) that provide individual opportunities to be challenged (Hoff and Burke, 2017). As it might be described as 'sticking your neck out;' performance risk-taking is the extent to which a person places him/herself in vague situations and is unclear about the process of how to go through or the outcome of such situation (Burke, 2018).

5. Interpersonal risk-taking: Interpersonal risk-taking pertains to discussing differences with others in ways that support learning and change (Hoff and Burke, 2017). It is about making oneself vulnerable with others, admitting mistakes, asking for help and at times, confronting others for the service of learning. Interpersonal risk-taking is the degree to which an individual admits failures, mistakes and other issues on-the-job; as well as trying to get help to 'make things right' (Burke, 2018).

6. Collaborating: Collaborating is about finding ways to work with others to generate unique opportunities for learning (Hoff and Burke, 2017). It concerns working directly and complementarily with others, also for the service of learning. Collaborating is the degree to which an individual tries to broker a learning process with others in his/her environment (Burke, 2018).

7. Information gathering: Information gathering pertains to 'keeping up,' that is staying relevant (Eby et al., 2003) and informed about one's professional and work matters, especially those that are subject frequently. Information gathering is the degree to which an individual continuously updates his/her pre-existing knowledge with a new piece of information (Burke, 2018). Individuals high in this dimension persevere and use various methods to remain current in his/her area of expertise (Hoff and Burke, 2017).

8. Feedback seeking: Feedback seeking is about asking others for feedback on one's idea and overall performance, thus, it focuses on active solicitation of it (Hoff and Burke, 2017). Feedback seeking is the degree to which one asks for input from others regarding his/her areas of strength and improvement (Burke, 2018). Obtaining others' feedback can help identify lessons from experiences that might go unnoticed if the individual processing and interpreting the experiences on his/her own (Anseel, 2017).

9. Reflecting: Reflecting pertains to slowing down to evaluate one's own performance to be more effective (Burke, 2016). It urges an individual to take the necessary time and space to improve his/her learning by thinking in-depth about past events regarding what went well and what could be improved (Hoff and Burke, 2017). Reflecting is the extent to which an individual reflects on his/her experience—how something happened, why it happened, how the outcome could have been different and how to initiate required changes in the future (Burke, 2018). Educational scholars (e.g., Collis and Biggs, 1982; Biggs, 1999) have emphasized reflection as one of the higher-order form of learning engagement and understanding, in which enable an individual to do 'extended abstraction' or generalize his/her learning results to entirely new, untaught domain of applications.

2.2. Theorising learning agility

As a relatively new construct, the market interests toward learning agility have been growing very fast beyond robust empirical substantiation. As concluded by De Meuse (2015; 2017), until now researchers actually have not yet been in agreement on how to define — nor even measure — the construct of learning agility; as it is still an 'infant' construct and will continue to evolve. Relative to other established psychological constructs such as intelligence, motivation and leadership that have been studied for decades, learning agility has only

been studied for the last 15 years since it was first introduced. Rotolo et al. (2018) observe that — at least currently — the definition continues to morph. Within the 15-years research on learning agility reviewed in De Meuse's (2017) meta-analysis, many studies still hold on to the original model by Eichinger and Lombardo (2000), whereas the rest either establishing their own definition or using consultants' proprietary definition. Rotolo et al. (2018) concluded that the current academic debates are less about the relevance or impact of learning agility to the organisation, but more about its definitional boundary lines, i.e., what constitutes learning agility.

There are also quite a number of consulting firms (e.g., Center for Creative Leadership, ChangeWise, Development Dimensions International, Hay Group, TALENTx7, EASI-Consult and Korn/Ferry) that widely commercialize learning agility assessment, in which all of them, unfortunately, define learning agility differently and measure it with a different number of facets. Another observation by Rotolo et al. (2018) is that the newer conceptualizations appear to be more comprehensive and complex as leadership meta-competencies rather than a targeted notion around learning from experience; a fact that might, in the end, raise organisations' concern of overcomplicating things. Nevertheless, there are at least five areas agreed by most of the academic researchers until now (De Meuse, 2017), which are (1) conceptualizing it in terms of learning from experience; (2) viewing it as a multidimensional construct; (3) postulating it as one of the key predictors of leaders' performance and potential, thus (4) playing a key role in the development efforts as well; and finally (5) encouraging additional research to be conducted.

Given the fluidity of conceptualization of the construct at this point in time, it seems sensible to position this study as a continuation of the latest line of research by Burke (2018). In order to embed learning agility into leadership development best practices and prevent it from becoming mere management 'fad;' it is critical to ensure that the construct is properly defined, well researched, *consistently* measured and reported back to organisations (Rotolo et al., 2018). This study tends to go in alignment with the broad definition of learning agility (i.e., as leadership meta-competencies) as the construct might be better to be viewed more holistically in an attempt to understand it. De

Meuse (2017) suggested that such approach would be more prudent as to comprehensively capture all of its complexity and nuances, especially within a learning environment.

In this sense, DeRue et al. (2012) suggested that a noteworthy future research should also cover the role of environment in shaping the ability of individuals to engage in learning agility; given the dynamic and complex nature of organisations surrounding the employees — for example: learning agility is more critical, thus induce the likelihood of one's showing it, in substantively complex and developmentally challenging task (Mohan and Mulla, 2013); the presence of a psychologically safe environment to make mistakes and learn from the experience (Edmondson, 2003; Detert and Edmondson, 2011); as well as supporting performance management and reward mechanisms that exist within the organisation. Whether a learning process, especially the failed one, is rewarded or punished, modelled or banned; whether performance is narrowly measured by the mere end result or also consider the process to achieve it will trigger individuals to learn fast and be flexible, thus prompting greater demonstration of learning agility (Hughes, 2009; De Meuse et al., 2010).

In their latest paper titled *Learning Agility: What We Know, What We Need to Know, and Where Do We Go from Here?*, Harvey and De Meuse (2021) established a nomological network, i.e., a diagram showing all the interrelated concepts that might surround learning agility (Figure 2). Based on the extant research on learning agility, they concluded that there are a number of research gaps that still need to be explored, such as (1) which aspects of personality contribute the most to learning agility, (2) which organisational climate attributes and high potential management practices are most important to supporting learning agility, (3) what organisational approaches are most effective in developing learning agility, and (4) which leadership behaviours most encourage learning agility.
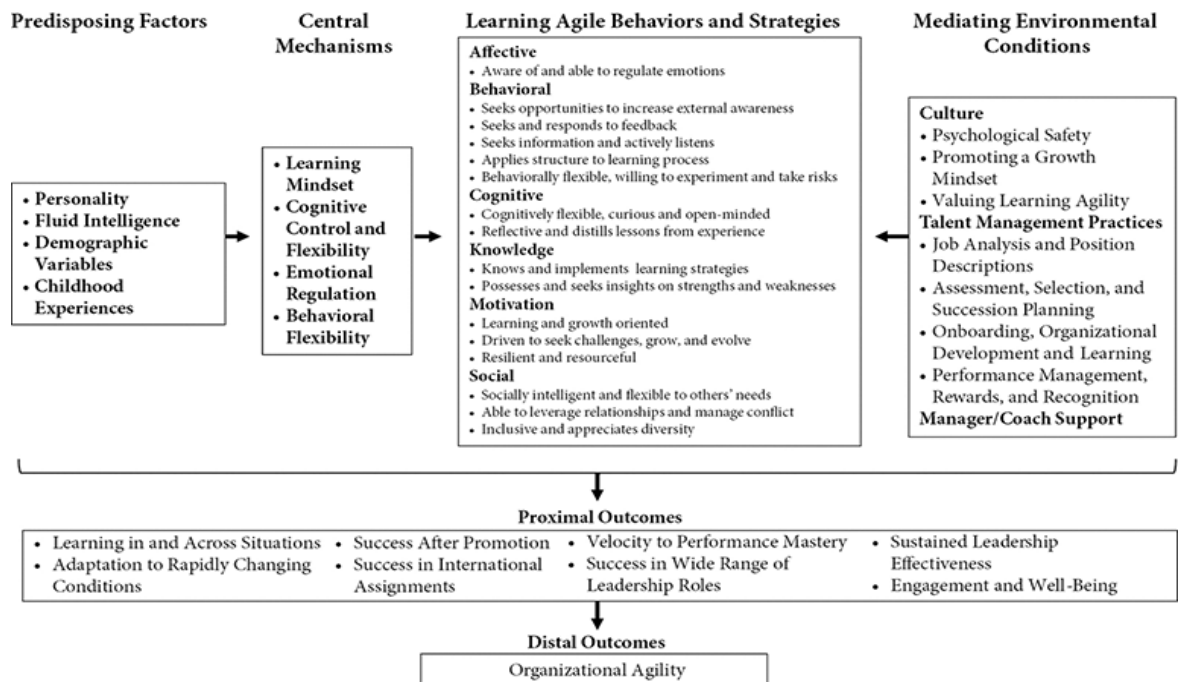
Figure 2. Nomological network of learning agility (Harvey and De Meuse, 2021, p. 471)

In alignment with DeRue et al. (2012), Harvey and De Meuse's (2021) suggested research gaps seems to go in alignment as they also consider the importance of the intricate context surrounding the behaviour as well as the organisational role and practices that 'shape' such context. While 'organisational values' of learning agility have been clarified by extant research, our understanding of who demonstrates learning agility, the underlying context, as well as what can be done by the organisation are still relatively scarce (Milani et al., 2021). As the debate lies on the extent to which and how much the correlates play a role in shaping learning agility, the main research question of this study would be:

"What are the dispositional and contextual correlates of high potential employee learning agility in the workplace?"

This study builds on the conceptual framework of learning agility proposed by DeRue et al. (2012) (Figure 1). Different than Harvey and De Meuse's (2021) model that is broader and behaviourally-driven, their framework was chosen as they focus to the construct itself and the only one who conceptually clarified several relevant constructs related to learning agility in depth, including individual differences that promote learning agility; cognitive and behavioural

processes that underlie it; and organisational factors that enhance its employee learning agility. In the context of this study; align with their model; learning agility can be operationalised as the function of one's natural capacity (i.e., HEXACO personality trait) that interacts with his/her motivation (i.e., learning goal orientation) as well as the environment (i.e., perceived motivational climate) surrounding him/her (Figure 3).

Learning Agility = f{Personality Trait, Goal Orientation, Motivational Climate}
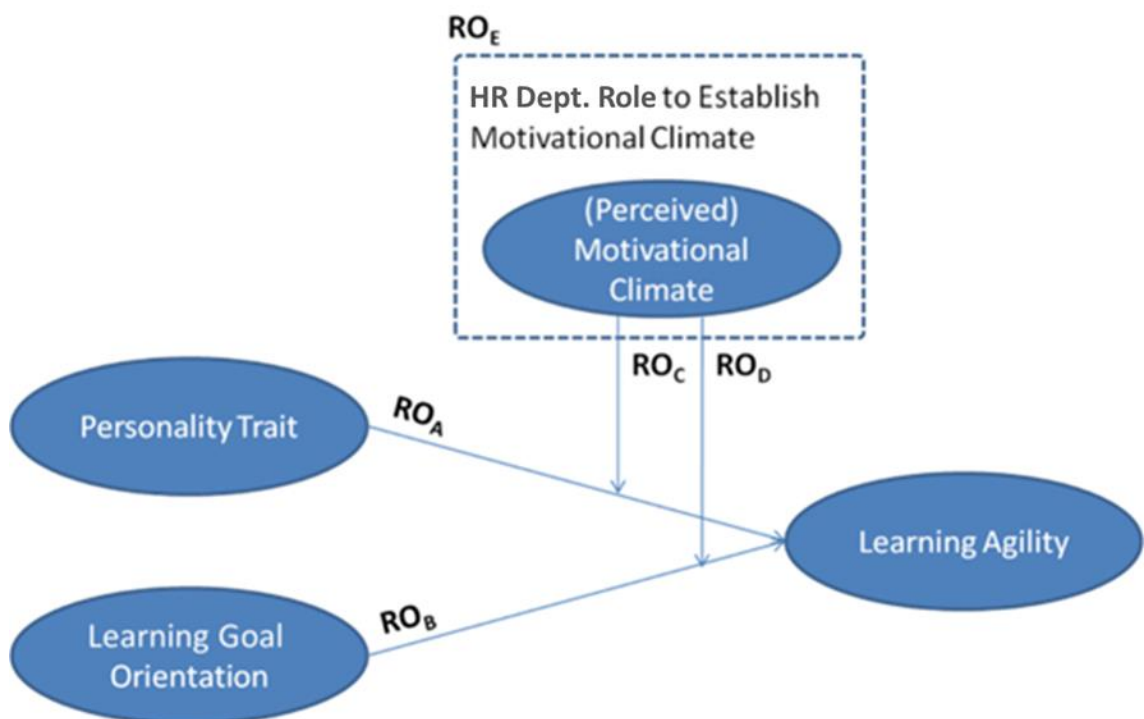
Figure 3. Initial research model

Several other scholarly articles that deal with workplace behaviour and its correlates also put personality, motivation and environment in the central place (e.g., Bartol, 1999; Tett and Burnett, 2003; Westerman and Simmons, 2007; Penney et al., 2011). An article by Neal and Hesketh (2001) shows an integrative model of individual and group performance and — indeed — performance is contributed by quite a number of factors (e.g., ability, personality, attitude, knowledge and skill, motivation, the nature and performance of the task itself; as well as the interaction between the individual and his/her surrounding workgroup).

2.3. Individual correlates of learning agility

2.3.1. RO$_A$: Personality trait as a correlate of learning agility

Personality is one of the most important building blocks to explain human behaviour. Personality itself can be defined as the psychological qualities that influence a person's characteristic behavioural patterns, in stable and distinctive manners (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2017). After being introduced for almost two decades, there was just a handful of research that has shown relationships between learning agility and personality. Being one of the most widely used and recognized theories of personality (Barrick and Mount, 1991); most of this research has used the Five-Factor Model (FFM) of personality. Build upon a rich and long history of scholarship, in 1992, Costa and McCrae formulated this 'Big Five' that is now broadly accepted as a common descriptive system of personality. The model consists of five consistent trait clusters that capture the main dimensions of personality, which are Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism (OCEAN).

Eichinger and Lombardo (2000) validated that Openness to Experience has a positive relationship to learning agility. Based on research toward 86 graduate students, Mitchinson et al. (2012) have also shown that Openness to Experience positively correlates with learning agility (r = .395, p < .001) along with Extraversion (r = .270, p < .05) and Emotional Stability (r = .466, p < .001). Another follow-up research that was done by Mitchinson and Morris (2014) and Center for Creative Leadership (CCL) toward 134 professionals also showed that learning agility was positively correlated with Openness to Experience (r = .579, p < .001), Extraversion (r = .410, p < .01), Conscientiousness (r = .437, p < .001); and negatively with Neuroticism (r = -.53, p < .01) and Agreeableness (r = -.278, p < .05). Therefore, these results suggest that individuals high in learning agility are more open to new experiences and ways of doing things (high Openness to Experience), more open to the sensory stimulation of other people or the situation itself (high Extraversion) and more process-driven in terms of achieving goals (high Conscientiousness). Additionally, they are likely to have good ability to remain calm and focus when dealing with stress (low Neuroticism) and have fewer accommodating behaviours (low Agreeableness).

The first research, however, was challenged by DeRue et al. (2012) as it based on CHOICES Architect® assessment. There were at least 5 critics to the assessment which were related to the complexity of the instrument, unalignment with Eichinger and Lombardo's (2000) original definition (measure people, results, change, and mental factors instead focusing on 'willingness' and 'ability' factors), confounding the construct and outcome of the construct in the operational definition of the assessment and almost 40% of the items are double-barrelled (DeRue et al., 2012). As for the latter research, a confirmatory study is needed on a separate sample (especially outside of the United States) to cross-validate the findings, examine for any cross-cultural differences and further clarify the latent factor structure of the measurement used in the research (Mitchinson et al., 2012).

Newer research investigating personality and learning agility, such as Allen's (2016), still shows conflicting results. Using both Learning Agility Simulation (LAS) and Learning Agility Indicator (LAI), Allen (2016) found that Openness to Experience, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism were not significantly related to learning agility in LAS measurement, while significantly positively related in LAI measurement. For Conscientiousness trait, both of the measurements found significant relationships; however, it was negatively related to learning agility in LAS measurement, while positively related in LAI measurement. Allen (2016) argued that such conflicting results might indicate that those traits were related to individuals' motivation or preference toward learning agility (as measured by LAI) but didn't necessarily make the individuals possess the ability to demonstrate it (as measured by LAS). As for this study, similar limitations of lack of non-proprietary consistent measures of learning agility and a need to consider cross-cultural differences beyond US sample are also highlighted. To sum up, De Meuse (2017) concluded that, at this point in time, identifying which personality trait that is related to which specific facet of learning agility might not be possible given the scarcity of empirical research in this area.

This study would like to explore more on the personality traits correlating with learning agility using HEXACO personality model (Lee and Ashton, 2004). Despite numerous studies since the 1980s have found only five underlying

factors or taxonomy of personality, recent studies conducted in various languages (including English) with larger sets of adjectives have recovered six factors (Lee and Ashton, 2008; Saucier, 2009). The HEXACO model is an improvement over the Big Five model as it is not just a reorganisation of personality facets; it encompasses a distinct new facet of Honesty-Humility (Hough et al., 2015). Several follow up studies on HEXACO model, in both organisational and academic settings, concluded that HEXACO factors provide stronger validities or overall R^2 than Big Five factors (e.g., Lee et al., 2005; Marcus et al., 2007; Lee and Ashton, 2008; de Vries et al., 2009; 2011; Silvia et al., 2011; Kajonius, 2016). In a recent study, Anglim and O'Connor (2018) suggested that whilst the Big Five model represents a general personality framework that is appropriate to be employed across multiple situations, researchers should be aware of alternative measures (such as the HEXACO) as they could bring novel perspectives into the picture.

Lee and Ashton (2004; 2007) defined the HEXACO model to comprise of Honesty-Humility (H), Emotionality (E), Extraversion (X), Agreeableness (A), Conscientiousness (C), and Openness to Experience (O) traits; and incorporated the theoretical foundation of the Big Five personality model. Honesty-Humility is the factor covering rules, social status, and manipulating behaviours. Emotionality (or Neuroticism in the Big Five model) is the factor considering fear, stress and worry, and need for emotional support and attachment. Extraversion is the factor concerning social situations, activities, and self-concept. Agreeableness is the factor which covering issues of anger, judgment, compromise and cooperation. Conscientiousness is the factor considering personal discipline, organisation, and impulse control. And finally, Openness to Experience is the factor concerning the appreciation toward art and beauty, intellectual curiosity and flexibility or exploration.

HEXACO model itself has been empirically researched in assessing the relationship between personality traits and a wide range of social-organisational behaviours, such as risk-taking of self-reportedly individuals (Weller and Tikir, 2010; Weller and Thulin, 2012), 'psychopathy, egoism, pretentiousness, immorality and Machiavellianism' traits (de Vries and van Kampen, 2010), interpersonal workplace behaviour (Zettler and Hilberg, 2010),

social and political attitudes (Perugini et al., 2010; Leone et al., 2012), individual integrity (Lee et al., 2008) and self-concept, perseverance and passion for goals or Openness to Experience in academic setting (Furnham and Monsen, 2009; de Vries et al., 2011); but not yet with learning agility.

Under the main research question, the first sub-objective of this study would be:

"To empirically investigate the role of HEXACO personality factors in explaining the variance of high potential employees' learning agility."

As this study wants to investigate the role of personality in correlating with learning agility, it will be interesting to see how all HEXACO personality factors interplay in affecting learning agility. In alignment with De Meuse (2017), this study expects all factors to be positively correlated with learning agility, except Conscientiousness and Emotionality (or Neuroticism in the Big Five model). Individuals that score high in the Honesty-Humility scale avoids social manipulation, breaking the rules and feel no special entitlement to self-importance (Lee and Ashton, 2004). This study argues that the trait would be positively related to learning agility, as learning agility appreciates the communal or collaborative effort to knowledge creation and mastery (Hoff and Burke, 2017). This argument (of individuals high in learning agility being sociable) might go in alignment with their Extraversion and Agreeableness traits.

Individuals that score high in Extraversion scale feel positive about themselves, enthusiastic, energized and confident in interacting or leading others (Lee and Ashton, 2004). A high degree of Extraversion might contribute to their positive feeling about themselves, feeling confident when leading or addressing groups of people, enjoying social gatherings and interactions and experiencing positive feelings of enthusiasm (ibid.). As learning agility calls for human relationships and collaborations within the knowledge accumulation process – as well as requiring a high degree of social skills (Burke, 2018) – this trait might positively relate to learning agility. In a similar fashion, individuals with high scores in Agreeableness scale are forgiving, slow to judge and able to control their temper (Lee and Ashton, 2004). Individuals high in learning agility are more into

building relationships with others for the benefit of learning, being cooperative and willing to compromise their interests; rather than portraying non-accommodating behaviours (De Meuse, 2017). Thus, a high degree of Agreeableness might influence them to be more lenient in judging others, more willing to compromise and cooperate with others in the service of learning (Hoff and Burke, 2017).

Individuals with a high score in Openness to Experience scale are inquisitive about various domains of knowledge, use their imagination freely, and take an interest in creative ideas or people (Lee and Ashton, 2004; 2007). Being open to new experiences might contradict previous Individuals' learning and experiences, thus forcing them to adapt to new scenarios (DeRue et al., 2012). Individuals who are considered leaders typically exhibit higher levels of Openness to Experience (i.e., to envision success) (Judge et al., 2002). Studies on national innovation link Openness to Experience to the degree of ideation and leadership of the people of the nation (Fairweather, 2012). It is found related to individual and organisational proactivity (Neal et al., 2011), academic success (Komarraju et al., 2011), artistic and scientific creativity (Feist, 1998), intelligence (Moutafi et al., 2006) and motivation toward intellectual pursuits to increase knowledge (Major et al., 2006; Furnham and Chamorro-Premuzic, 2008).

Therefore, this study expects the above four traits of Honesty-Humility, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Openness to Experience to be positively correlated with learning agility. On the contrary, Conscientiousness and Emotionality are postulated to be negatively related with learning agility. Different than Mitchinson and Morris (2014) and Allen (2016), De Meuse (2017) theorizes that learning agility should be negatively related to Conscientiousness. This is because individuals with high degree of learning agility might embrace complexity, examine issues from a broad, high-level perspective and tend to be non-linear thinkers; rather than being organized, planful and detail-oriented individuals. Research by Brown and Sitzman (2011) found that planning (a key part of Conscientiousness trait) was not significantly related to self-regulated learning. Another research by Sanderson et al. (2016) also supported this notion by finding Conscientiousness to be significantly negatively related to multi-

tasking ability. Finally, in terms of Emotionality trait, individuals with a low score in the Emotionality scale are not deterred by the prospect of physical harm and feel little worry even in stressful situations (Lee and Ashton, 2004; 2007). Such 'calmness' might then be supportive toward several learning agility behavioural dimensions that entail risks of learning, e.g., performance risk-taking, interpersonal risk-taking and experimenting (Hoff and Burke, 2017).

Thus, there will be 6 alternative hypotheses out of the first research sub-objective, which are:

1. Hypothesis 1 (H_1a): The Honesty-Humility (H) trait will be significantly and positively associated with learning agility.

2. Hypothesis 1 (H_1b): The Extraversion (X) trait will be significantly and positively associated with learning agility.

3. Hypothesis 1 (H_1c): The Agreeableness (A) trait will be significantly and positively associated with learning agility.

4. Hypothesis 1 (H_1d): The Openness to Experience (O) trait will be significantly and positively associated with learning agility.

5. Hypothesis 1 (H_1e): The Emotionality (E) trait will be significantly and negatively associated with learning agility.

6. Hypothesis 1 (H_1f): The Conscientiousness (C) trait will be significantly and negatively associated with learning agility.

2.3.2. RO_B: Learning goal orientation as a correlate of learning agility

Besides looking at how personality plays its part, this study would like to also investigate the motivational factors behind why a person engages in learning agility. 'Motivation' is one of the central factors that are posited to affect task performance and productivity in the workplace (Neal and Hesketh, 2001; Boselie et al., 2005, Marin-Gracia and Tomas, 2016). Specifically, in the context of learning within an organisation, an individual must first perceive the need or opportunity to learn and then make accord choices of behaviour to do so (Hezlett and Kuncel, 2012; Dochy and Segers, 2018). Willingness or motivation has been specifically emphasized as one of the important elements of learning from experience and learning agility (Dominick et al., 2010; Carette and Anseel, 2012; Arun et al., 2012).

Learning agility involves both ability and motivation elements. While ability relates to the 38 behavioural descriptors mentioned before, motivation relates to the individual's willingness to move beyond one's comfort 'learning' zone (Hoff and Burke, 2017). One viable framework that will be used in this study is the goal orientation theory. As a form of achievement motivation, the construct of 'goal orientation' is firstly coined by Dweck in 1986 (VandeWalle et al., 2001). Goal orientation can be defined as individuals' propensity to pursue goals related to learning and mastery or performance and rewards (Dweck, 1986). Meece et al. (1988) further defined goal orientation as a behavioural intention that determines how individual approaches and engages in learning activities.

Early theorists of achievement goal theory, such as Dweck (1986) and Ames (1992a), dichotomized goal orientation into 'mastery goal orientation' and 'performance goal orientation.' Murphy and Alexander (2000) defined the two terms as below:

- *'Mastery goal orientation' is an individual's desire to increase knowledge and develop competence through effortful learning;*
- *'Performance goal orientation' is an individual's desire to gain social favourable judgments of one's competence.*

As an illustration, if a person wants to obtain high learning result, is it because he/she wants to look better than his/her peers (performance goal orientation) or is it because he/she wants to master the taught materials (mastery goal orientation)? Therefore, we can say that goal orientation theory aims to explain *why a person wants to engage in specific learning behaviour.*

Although goal orientation has been deemed as a key construct affecting learning agility, the empirical research proving such relationship has been inconsistent. One of the research projects that showed significant correlations between goal orientation and learning agility was conducted by Mitchinson et al. (2012). Conducted toward 86 graduate students, Mitchinson et al. (2012) showed overall learning agility was positively correlated with mastery goal orientation (r = .432, p < .001) and negatively correlated with performance goal orientation (r = -.389, p < .001). De Meuse et al. (2010) were firstly unable to show a significant relationship between the two constructs; although in their follow up study, De Meuse et al. (2011) found a positive correlation between mastery goal

orientation and learning agility (measured with viaEDGE® measurement; r = .42). In critique toward these last two research, DeRue et al. (2012) posit that such conflicting results might be due to the learning agility measurements used in their research were imprecise in assessing the speed and flexibility dimensions of the construct.

As this study would like to know why people engage in learning agility, it is important to know deeper 'why' (or the motivational base) a person engaging learning agility. Hence, under the main research question, the second sub-objective of this study would be:

"To empirically investigate the role of goal orientations in explaining the variance of high potential employees' learning agility."

Existing research has actually suggested important relationships between goal orientations with learning agility. Looking at the literature in education studies, mastery goal orientation has been found significantly positively related to learning efficacy (i.e., learner's belief toward his/her capacity in achieving his/her learning goals), intrinsic motivation to learn (Elliot et al., 2011); and the individual's self-determination (Méndez-Giménez et al., 2017). This orientation has also found to be related significantly with several learning emotions, such as positive affects (i.e., enthusiast, inspired and determined) (Gillet et al., 2015), learning enjoyment and inversely with learning boredom (Lüftenegger et al., 2016). In relations to the learning outcome itself, this orientation was found to be related to academic achievement (Lüftenegger et al., 2016). In regard to the learning process undergone by an individual, this orientation has found to positively affect cognitive engagement or absorption (Elliot et al., 2011; Gillet et al., 2015). In recent research of the model in the context of Hong Kong, Ning (2018) found that this orientation also positively relates to 'deep' strategies to learn (as opposed to 'surface' strategy); which are intention to understand for oneself (i.e., look for a deeper meaning of the knowledge) and relate ideas (i.e., make sense of things by linking them to what he/she knows already). Such intentions to understand deeper and relate ideas might contribute toward the speed and flexibility dimensions of learning agility. Finally, this orientation was also found to positively related to instrumental

help-seeking (i.e., seek help to solve a problem by him/herself; which is opposed to executive help-seeking which is more to directly solve the problem without his/her personal involvement) (Ning, 2018).

In organisational context, several research (e.g., De Meuse et al., 2010; DeRue et al., 2012; VandeWalle, 2012) also suggest possible positive relationship between mastery goal orientation with learning agility. Individuals with mastery orientation are keen to continuously gain new competencies, mastering tasks and novel situations (VandeWalle, 2001; Bell and Kozlowski, 2002). They show greater effort and persistence to learn (Colquitt and Simmering, 1998). VandeWalle et al. (2000) found that this orientation was positively related to feedback-seeking behaviour (r = .17), even if the feedbacks are negative (Farr et al., 1993; VandeWalle and Cummings, 1997). Therefore, these individuals are more likely to seek feedback due to their desire to learn and develop their skills. In a follow-up study, VandeWalle et al. (2001) also found that this orientation contributes to improved performance after receiving feedback. It was found significantly positively related with the individuals' learning effort (i.e., how much time, work intensity and overall effort put into the learning process), self-efficacy (i.e., confidence to achieve good learning result), and goal setting level (i.e., how high their learning goal will be). On research toward 314 family enterprise advisors, Davis et al. (2013) demonstrated that this orientation was also significantly positively correlated with the quality of feedback these advisors received from their clients, individual innovative behaviour as well as 'personal bricolage' — or individual's ability to accomplish goals through creatively combining and recombining existing resources. Finally, besides being receptive to feedback; DeRue and Wellman (2009) and Wong et al. (2012) suggested that these individuals are also more likely to have a greater capacity to reflect on and learn from challenging workplace experiences.

To summarize, such increase in learning motivation, openness to feedback, improved performance after feedback and the propensity to learn from developmental experiences might suggest a positive relationship between mastery goal orientation and learning agility. Due to such orientation, one might have higher degree of learning efficacy, learning enjoyment, as well as

absorption or engagement in the learning process itself, thus, positively affecting his/her learning agility.

While mastery goal-oriented individuals focus on building new competencies, performance goal-oriented individuals focus on meeting the expected standard of those competencies (VandeWalle, 1997). Performance goal orientation has been shown to negatively relate to the effect of performance feedback, as well as the performance after the feedback (VandeWalle et al., 2001). It was negatively related to individuals' self-efficacy and goal setting level. It has also been demonstrated having a negative correlation with personal bricolage (Davis et al., 2013). Looking at the literature in education studies, this orientation was found to be negatively related to two learning outcomes, which were exam performance (Elliot et al., 2011) and cumulative GPA (Ning, 2018), due to low learning efficacy (Elliot et al., 2011). This particular outcome was specifically related to the negative learning emotions felt by the learners, such as worry (Elliot et al., 2011) and anxiety (Gillet et al., 2015).

One explanation of this is a person with this orientation might prone to avoid adaptive behaviour or challenging role, out of a desire to avoid failure of the newly adopted behaviour and being criticized for that. Research on self-regulated learning behaviours also showed that this orientation was negatively related to individuals' cognition, meta-cognition and motivation; affecting their self-regulated behaviours as well as actual performance (Porath and Bateman, 2006). Compared to mastery goal orientation those regularly 'remind' and use 'skill mastery through collaboration' as the hub of one's regulatory activity, this orientation use failure as the hub; thus, evoking and perpetuating threat, anxiety and vigilance, as he/she is repeatedly reminded of the possibility of failing (Pekrun et al., 2006; 2009). While the mechanism in mastery goal orientation tends to promote commitment, absorption and broad and open approach to task engagement; the aversive mechanism in performance goal orientation might prompt self-worth concerns that prevent absorption and interfere with task attention (Elliot et al., 2011). Moreover, cognitive activity toward failure avoidance might be quite rigid and restricted. Thus, Elliot et al. (2005) concluded that mastery-based goals pursuit might feel more 'positive' and facilitate more efficient and effective learning engagement.

Therefore, on contrary to mastery goal orientation, performance-avoidance orientation might negatively relate to learning agility, primarily due to avoidance toward failure and being criticized by others.

Thus, there will be 2 alternative hypotheses out of the second research sub-objective, which are:

1. Hypothesis 2 (H$_2$a): The mastery goal orientation will be significantly and positively correlated with learning agility.

2. Hypothesis 2 (H$_2$b): The performance goal orientation will be significantly and negatively correlated with learning agility.

2.4. RO$_{C \text{ and } D}$: Contextual correlates of learning agility

Finally, this study would like to also scrutinize the intra-organisational 'contextual' factors that might affect learning agility. Organisational context has been acknowledged as one of the central correlates of individual's task performance and productivity in the workplace (Neal and Hesketh, 2001; Boselie et al., 2005, Marin-Gracia and Tomas, 2016). Past research (e.g., De Meuse et al., 2010) has tried to explore the organisational consequences of learning agility; however, less attention has been directed to understand the environmental factors within that organisation which might support or impede learning agility (DeRue et al., 2012). In their conceptual paper, DeRue et al. (2012) focused their argument to two broad workplace environmental factors that might be related to learning agility, which is culture or climate of learning and the characteristic of the learning experience itself. Looking back to what Kurt Lewin has posited as 'Lewin's equation' in 1936, a behaviour is a function or interaction of the person with his/her environment (i.e., captured in the formula of Behaviour = f(Person, Environment)). Thus, he believes that behaviour can only be explained interactively in relation to the person and his/her environment. This notion establishes the theoretical base for learning agility: People high in learning agility have deeper appreciation toward the social realities around them and pay more attention to consequences of their behaviours, as well as how those situations affect them.

There are a number of literatures on the moderating roles of learning culture and climate in explaining individual's behaviour and performance in

organisational setting (e.g., Tett and Burnet, 2003; Penney et al., 2011; Černe et al., 2014; 2017; Birkeland and Nerstad, 2016; Buch et al., 2017; Škerlavaj et al., 2017; Nerstad et al., 2018a). As this study considers personality and motivation as the correlates of learning agility, this study believes that much can be gained by looking into the learning climate that might moderate the personality — learning agility and goal orientation — learning agility relationships. Bearing the same theoretical root with the above-mentioned goal orientation theory, this study will employ perceived motivational climates (Nicholls, 1984; Ames, 1992a) as the moderating variable. Motivational climates serve as a context as they are built on employees' shared perceptions of the existing organisational criteria for success and failure.

Shaped by the organisation's policies, practices and procedures (Nerstad et al., 2013), these perceived climates aid employees' understanding of what behaviours that are expected and rewarded (Černe et al., 2014; 2017). They describe which goals to achieve, how they are evaluated and related to one another and to work-related tasks (Ames and Ames, 1984). Motivational climates have the potential to affect the salience of individuals' goals; thus, might influence distinct patterns of behaviour, affect, cognition and performance (Ames and Archer, 1988). Such climates also have been found influencing employees' moral orientations, social norms and actions toward their colleague in an achievement setting (i.e., working with or working against them) (Roberts, 2012). Thus, under the main research question, the third sub-objective of this study would be:

"To empirically investigate the role of motivational climates in moderating the personality – learning agility and goal orientation – learning agility relationships."

There are two types of motivational climate which are mastery and performance climate. These climates are structurally interdependent; thus, accentuating the importance of controlling for the simultaneous existence of one type of climates over another since the two climates are assumed to work in concert to a greater or lesser extent (Ames, 1992b). Mastery climate fosters employees' effort and cooperation in learning, development and skill mastery

(Nicholls, 1984; Ames, 1992a; 1992b). This climate has been found to promote intrinsic motivation (e.g., Buch et al., 2017), workplace performance, more adaptive behaviours or achievement strategies, more mature level of social–moral or ethical reasoning, higher degree of learning enjoyment and well-being, higher level of engagement, task perseverance and persistence in the face of difficulty, as well as lesser knowledge hiding behaviour (Ntoumanis and Biddle, 1999; Van De Pol et al., 2012; Roberts, 2012; Nerstad et al., 2013; Černe et al., 2014; 2017).

This climate contributes to the development of 'collaborative learning' peer norms and positive relationships with significant others (Ames and Ames, 1984). Here, employees' work achievements are not dependent on what they or others have accomplished in the past, thus the possibility of attaining the rewards is more equal across the employees (Dragoni, 2005). Poortvliet et al. (2009) also found that in mastery goal reward structures, employees are encouraged to openly share high-quality information (including their failures) regardless of the other's performance level. In one of their current research, Nerstad et al. (2018b) showed that perceived mastery climate was indeed driving individual employee's knowledge sharing behaviour through their supervisor's felt trust. Within the group level analysis, the same climate was also shown to be an important predictor of the collective supervisors' felt trust.

Studies in team learning process have showcased influences of different interpersonal factors that emerge during the learning process: (1) psychological safety, (2) group potency and (3) efficacy, and (4) team cohesion (Dochy and Segers, 2018). Edmondson (2003) and Detert and Edmondson (2011) research on psychological safety concluded that a team and supervisory environment — such as the case in mastery climate — that is perceived psychologically safe encourages individuals to take risks, be flexible and consider different points of view, raise questions and seek feedback. In a psychologically safe environment, individuals feel accepted and respected by others in the group. They think less about the potential consequences of expressing a different idea thus encouraging them to speak up more, less defensive and be motivated to improve their team or organisation. Such positive environment might then support group potency and efficacy. Group potency and efficacy are the shared

beliefs that the team can be effective and that it can be successful in finishing the task at hand (Dochy and Segers, 2018). Finally, team members that have a social and emotional cohesion are likely to put more energy and effort in the overall team learning process. De Meuse et al. (2010) point out that experiential learning generally requires a room to innovate and make mistakes. Thus, as we can see later in the hypothesized interaction effects, this study expects that the presence of motivational climate might positively moderate learning agility.

On the contrary, performance climate accentuates normative criteria for success (Nicholls, 1984; Roberts, 2012); that mistakes and poor performance will be 'punished.' This climate fosters forced social comparison and intra-team competition; thus, only those who are the best performers are publicly acknowledged as successful (Ames and Ames, 1984; Newton and Duda, 1999; Černe et al., 2014; 2017). In this climate, supervisors might attempt to put forth external control over employees' behaviour and encourage competition through contests, tracking or any form of incentive program (Ames, 1992b; Dragoni, 2005). The term 'normative' here refers to the criteria of success and failure is being other-referenced (Ames, 1992a; Roberts, 2012) and might contribute to egoistic motivation (Nicholls, 1984). Several studies (e.g., Ntoumanis and Biddle, 1999; Cumming et al., 2007; Buch et al., 2017) suggest a negative relationship of this climate with intrinsic motivation as behaviour is conducted due to external reward rather than for the sake of the behaviour itself. In this climate, individuals are primarily motivated to perform better than their colleagues and overwhelmed by comparative information, thus negative interdependence among employees might be established (Ames and Ames, 1984; Černe et al., 2014; 2017). They perceive their peers as competitors and may view knowledge sharing behaviour as reducing their own advantage (Poortvliet and Giebels, 2012). Research has found that performance climate might contribute to maladaptive outcomes, such as lower workplace performance, anxiety, effort withdrawal, lower persistence and higher turnover intentions (Abrahamsen et al., 2008; Nerstad et al., 2013; 2018a).

2.4.1. RO_C: The interactive roles of mastery and performance climates in personality — learning agility relationship

Using trait activation theory (Tett and Guterman, 2000; Tett and Burnett, 2003; Christiansen and Tett, 2008; Penney et al. 2011), moderating roles of motivational climates toward personality – learning agility relationship can be established. Trait activation theory posits that personality traits are expressed in work behaviour (i.e., such as learning agility) as a response to trait-relevant situational cues. These cues might broadly come from three levels, i.e., task-level, social-level and organisational-level cues. Intended as a general organizing framework in a work setting, Tett and Burnett (2003) proposed these three 'paths' as environmental moderators in that dormant personality traits will manifest as trait-expressive work behaviours only when such trait-relevant cues are present. In alignment with Lewin's Equation, personality traits and situation interact with each other and cannot be separated; thus, explaining why these traits can only influence behaviours in a relevant situation (e.g., a highly sociable work environment for an individual with a high degree of Extraversion). Employees are more drawn to and derive intrinsic satisfaction from an organisational environment that allows them to effortlessly express their personality traits (Tett and Burnett, 2003). Such personality-job 'fit' might eventually contribute to higher employee satisfaction, well-being and better job performance (Penney et al. 2011). Aside of the relevancy of the situation, the 'activation' process itself might also support increased job performance – as well as the subsequent extrinsic rewards – if the personality traits are valued on the job or expected by the organisation (e.g., expression of the above Extraversion trait is beneficial to increase the quality of the relationship between a salesman and his/her customers) (Judge and Zapata, 2015).

Based on the literature review, research investigating the interaction between motivational climate and personality has been scant. Therefore, this study is expected to be a valuable empirical expansion in this line of research. Sometimes referred as the personality of the organisation, organisational climate and culture — in general — are inferred from macro-level organisational characteristics (e.g., structure, process, policy and reward systems) (Schneider et al., 1996). To illustrate this, imagine that the same salesman position

presents in two different organisational arrangements. One is at a company with hierarchical organisational structures and social strata (e.g., due to internal competition such as the case in performance climate) and the other where organisational and social boundaries are fuzzier (e.g., in mastery climate). These arrangements might present different trait-relevant work expectations (e.g., conservative authoritarianism vs. liberal egalitarianism) (Tett and Burnett, 2003). Summarized in the Table 2 below, the various culture and climate elements provide unique opportunities for personality trait expressions; as well as indications to fit people with their preferred work environments.

Trait activation theory postulates that culture and climate elements operating at the organisational level can be relevant to personality expression in several ways; namely 'demands,' 'distracters' and 'constraints' (Tett and Burnett, 2003). These situational features are generally ongoing and definitive parts of the work context; therefore, stably affecting the relationship between personality trait and valued work behaviour (i.e., learning agility). Organisational / job 'demands' can be defined as opportunities to act in a positively valued way (Tett and Burnett, 2003). Demands include roles, responsibilities and daily tasks found in a job description; as well as behavioural expectations within the group and organisational norms. Their moderating strengths closely relate to which and how the behaviours are rewarded (i.e., the rewards system), but they might not so strong as to exclude individual differences (Tett and Burnett, 2003). In contrary to 'demands,' 'distracters' and 'constraints' work the other way around. 'Distracter' is positively related to the personality trait itself, but it might interfere and possibly weaken the relationship between the trait and valued work behaviour (e.g., an office party held near the project deadline of the extravert employee mentioned before). A 'constraint' on the other hand, negatively relates to the personality trait and its presence restricts the behavioural expression of the trait as well as the relationship with the valued work behaviour (e.g., the extravert employee might find the virtual team arrangement restricting his/her personality trait expression and hinder his/her performance).

Personality Trait - Valued Work Behaviour relationship	O'reilly, Chatman & Caldwell (1991), Ostroff (1993)			Judge & Zapata (2015)
	Related organizational culture (OCU) and organizational climate (OCL) elements	Organizational demands that strengthening the relationship	Organizational distracters and constraints that restricting the relationship	Job demands that strengthening the relationship
Honesty	*Relatively unexplored*			
Emotional Stability	OCU: Decisiveness OCL: Innovativeness, Autonomy	Atmosphere of uncertainty; rapid organizational growth or change, e.g. management restructuring	Culture of predictability; stress-free culture	Dealing with unpleasant or angry people (Sig, +); social skills requirement (Sig, +)
eXtraversion	OCU: Aggressiveness, Outcome orientation, Team orientation OCL: Participation, Warmth	Human relations; festivity; recognition	Autonomy; reserved, segmented or exclusive atmosphere; requirement to be solitude and staying low-profile	Social skills requirement (Sig, +); level of competition requirement (Sig, +); dealing with unpleasant or angry people (Sig, +); attention to detail requirement (Sig, -)
Agreeableness	OCU: Supportiveness, Team orientation OCL: Cooperation, Warmth	Friendliness; sensitivity; organizational citizenship	Autonomy; aggressiveness; mechanistic atmosphere; downsizing	Social skills requirement (Sig, +); level of competition requirement (Sig, -); dealing with unpleasant or angry people (Sig, +); attention to detail requirement (Sig, +); independence in completing work (Sig, +)
Conscientiousness	OCU: Detail orientation, Outcome orientation OCL: Achievement, Hierarchy, Structure	Compliance to the standards or regulations; presence of competitive environment that accentuates success and promotion; loyalty	Organizational change; company-wide collaboration; highly formalized bureaucracy that limits promotion opportunities	Independence in completing work (Sig, +); attention to detail requirement (Sig, -); innovation / creativity requirement (Sig, +); dealing with unpleasant or angry people (Sig, +)
Openness to experience	OCU: Innovativeness OCL: Participation, Growth, Innovativeness	Workforce diversity; risky business appetite; involvement in strategic planning process; cutting-edge organizational image	Rules or authority; structured or hierarchical, bureaucratic, stable, secure, cautious atmosphere	Innovation / creativity requirement (Sig, +); independence in completing work (Sig, +)

Table 2. Summation of empirical research relating organisational culture and climate elements with Big Five personality traits

Empirical research relating organisational culture and climate elements with Big Five personality traits have been done by O'Reilly et al. (1991), Ostroff (1993), Tett and Guterman (2000) and more recently by Judge and Zapata (2015). O'Reilly et al. (1991) offered a taxonomy of eight organisational cultures: (1) Innovative, (2) Detail-oriented, (3) outcome-oriented, (4) aggressive, (5) supportive, (6) team-oriented, (7) decisive and (8) reward-oriented. Ostroff (1993) offered a similar taxonomy of nine organisational climate dimensions: (1) Participation, (2) cooperation, (3) warmth, (4) growth, (5) innovation, (6) autonomy, (7) achievement, (8) hierarchy and (9) structure. By triangulating our knowledge on motivational climates with how these organisational culture and climate elements affecting the personality trait — valued work behaviour relationship; we can postulate several interaction hypotheses as follow.

In regard to the Honesty-Humility trait, according to Lee and Ashton (2004), a person with a high degree of Honesty-Humility avoids manipulating others, seeks no elevation in terms of social status and doesn't develop a strong sense of self-importance. Thus, in this study, the trait is postulated to be positively related to learning agility, as learning agility appreciates the communal or collaborative effort to knowledge creation and mastery (Hoff and Burke, 2017). Being in a mastery climate validates these dispositions (Nicholls, 1984; Ames, 1992a; 1992b) and might strengthen the positive relationship between Honesty-Humility and learning agility. On the contrary, being in a performance climate might weaken this positive relationship as the climate upholds a different set of social values (Nicholls, 1984; Roberts, 2012), i.e., personal winning and recognition, competition among colleagues, etc. (Ames and Ames, 1984; Černe et al., 2014; 2017). Therefore, the first set of hypotheses would be:

1. Hypothesis 3 (H_3) and Hypothesis 4 (H_4): The relationship between Honesty-Humility (H) trait and learning agility is moderated by motivational climates. The higher the mastery climate, the more positive the relationship (H_3a); the higher the performance climate, the less positive the relationship (H_4a).

As for the Extraversion trait, the relationship between the trait and valued work behaviour (i.e., performance) is strengthened when there are demands for human relations within the organisation (i.e., Team-orientation, O'reilly et al., 1991; Participation and Warmth elements, Ostroff, 1993). Organisation with Team-orientation culture element stresses collaboration (O'reilly et al., 1991). On the contrary, when the organisational atmosphere is autonomous, reserved, segmented or exclusive; or if there are requirements to be solitude and staying low-profile, the relationship between Extraversion trait and valued work behaviour is restricted (Tett and Burnett, 2003). Similarly, Judge and Zapata (2015) found that Extraversion was significantly valued in occupations requiring strong social skills.

A high degree of Extraversion in a person might contribute to his/her positive feeling about him/herself, feeling confident when leading or addressing groups of people, enjoying social gatherings and interactions and experiencing positive feelings of enthusiasm (Lee and Ashton, 2004). In this study, the trait is

postulated to positively affect his/her learning agility as it calls for human relationships and collaborations within the knowledge accumulation process; as well as requiring a high degree of social skills. As opposed to an introvert, being an extravert means that he/she generates energy from his/her outward social surroundings (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Being in mastery climate — which is more 'festive' — might generate such enthusiasm and energy, thus strengthening the positive relationship between Extraversion with learning agility. Being in performance climate, which has a more autonomous, reserved and segmented atmosphere, might weaken the positive relationship. Thus, the hypothesis that would be tested here is:

2. Hypothesis 3 (H_3) and Hypothesis 4 (H_4): The relationship between Extraversion (X) trait and learning agility is moderated by motivational climates. The higher the mastery climate, the more positive the relationship (H_3b); the higher the performance climate, the less positive the relationship (H_4b).

As we can see from the Table 2 above, the relationship between Agreeableness trait and valued work behaviour (i.e., performance) is strengthened when there is friendliness, sensitivity and citizenship within the organisation (i.e., Supportiveness and Team-orientation, O'reilly et al., 1991; Cooperation and Warmth elements, Ostroff, 1993). Organisation with Supportive culture element emphasizes information sharing, praising good performance and supporting workers (O'reilly et al., 1991). On the contrary, when the environment is autonomous and aggressive, the relationship between Agreeableness and valued work behaviour is restricted (Tett and Burnett, 2003). Judge and Zapata (2015) also found that Agreeableness was significantly positively valued in occupations requiring strong social skills and dealing with unpleasant people; but negatively valued in competitive occupations. Vermetten et al. (2001) also found that Agreeableness was significantly positively correlated with the task or mastery orientation, and negatively correlated with the ego or performance orientation.

A high degree of Agreeableness might influence a person to be more lenient in judging others, more willing to compromise and cooperate with others (Lee and

Ashton, 2004). He/she doesn't hold grudges against those who might have offended them and are not stubborn in defending their point of view. Thus, in this study, the trait is postulated to be positively related to learning agility. Being in a mastery climate might help in strengthening this positive relationship as this climate might be perceived as friendlier and calls for a higher degree of sensitivity and organisational citizenship behaviour (Roberts, 2012). With its focus on communal effort and cooperative interdependence among individuals, a mastery climate is more likely to facilitate the satisfaction of such need of relatedness; or the need to be connected to others (Gagné and Deci, 2005). On the contrary, a performance climate is more likely to promote competitive interdependence among individuals due to interpersonal competition; thus, may undermine the need for relatedness (Černe et al., 2014; 2017). Being in a performance climate might then weaken the positive relationship as it is more of an autonomous climate and involves more competition and aggressiveness (Nicholls, 1984; Roberts, 2012). Therefore, the next hypothesis would be:

3. Hypothesis 3 (H$_3$) and Hypothesis 4 (H$_4$): The relationship between Agreeableness (A) trait and learning agility is moderated by motivational climates. The higher the mastery climate, the more positive the relationship (H$_3$c); the higher the performance climate, the less positive the relationship (H$_4$c).

As we can see from the Table 2 above, the relationship between Openness to Experience trait and valued work behaviour (i.e., performance) is strengthened when there is workforce diversity, innovativeness, participation (e.g., in strategic planning process) and growth within the organisation (O'reilly et al., 1991; Ostroff, 1993). The innovative organisation here is characterized by risk-taking and experimentation (O'reilly et al., 1991). On the contrary, when the environment involves rules, authority, structure and hierarchy, the relationship between the trait and valued work behaviour are restricted (Tett and Burnett, 2003). Judge and Zapata (2015) also found that the trait was significantly valued in occupations requiring innovation or creativity. Finally, Vermetten et al. (2001) found that the trait was significantly positively correlated with a task or mastery orientation.

An individual that is high in this trait is motivated to pursue and scrutinize various domains of knowledge; being original, creative and having imagination; prefers for a variety of activities over a strict routine and takes an interest in novel ideas or people. In contrary, individual with low Openness to Experience shows little intellectual inquisition, avoid creative pursuits and un-attracted to unconventional beliefs (McCrae and John, 1992; McRae, 2004; Lee and Ashton, 2004; Friedman and Schustack, 2016). In this study, the high Openness to Experience qualities are postulated to be positively related to learning agility as learning agility requires a degree of flexibility and openness to new knowledge, ideas and experiences (Hoff and Burke, 2017). In a mastery climate, one might experience a requirement of innovation or creativity, participation, growth and a diversity of perspectives that might strengthen the expression of this trait toward learning agility. On the contrary, in a performance climate, the climate might provide a greater number of rules and structure; as well as focusing more on the individual winning over his/her colleague; thus, this climate might weaken the relationship between Openness to Experience and learning agility. Therefore, the next hypothesis would be:

4. Hypothesis 3 (H$_3$) and Hypothesis 4 (H$_4$): The relationship between Openness to Experience (O) trait and learning agility is moderated by motivational climates. The higher the mastery climate, the more positive the relationship (H$_3$d); the higher the performance climate, the less positive the relationship (H$_4$d).

As we can see from the Table 2 above, the relationship between emotional stability trait and valued work behaviour (i.e., performance) is strengthened when there is rapid growth, change and uncertainty within the organisation (i.e., Innovativeness element; Ostroff, 1993). On the contrary, when the environment is predictable and stress-free, the organisation doesn't 'necessitate' such personality trait; thus, the relationship between the trait and valued work behaviour is restricted (Tett and Burnett, 2003). Judge and Zapata (2015) also found that emotional stability was significantly valued in occupations requiring strong social skills, particularly those that require dealing with unpleasant people. Finally, Vermetten et al. (2001) found that emotional stability was significantly negatively correlated with ego or performance

orientation. In this study, a high degree of Emotionality or Neuroticism trait (i.e., inverse trait of Emotional Stability), that is shown by anxiety toward life's stresses and emotional dependency (Lee and Ashton, 2004), is hypothesized to negatively affect a person's learning agility; as learning agility requires emotional stability, i.e., some degree of comfort with uncertainty, pressure and conflict management with the competing colleagues. Being in performance climate which is more political (Ames, 1992b; Dragoni, 2005), stressful, uncertain and demands more conflict resolution skills might strengthen the negative relationship between Emotionality with learning agility. On the contrary, being in a mastery climate which is more psychologically safe (Edmondson, 2003; Detert and Edmondson, 2011), predictable and less stressful might weaken the negative relationship. Thus, the next hypothesis would be:

5. Hypothesis 3 (H_3) and Hypothesis 4 (H_4): The relationship between Emotionality (E) trait and learning agility is moderated by motivational climates. The higher the mastery climate, the less negative the relationship (H_3e); the higher the performance climate, the more negative the relationship (H_4e).

Finally, as for the Conscientiousness trait, the relationship between the trait and valued work behaviour (i.e., performance) is strengthened when there are demands for compliance to standards or regulations within the organisation, as well as the presence of a competitive environment that accentuates success and promotion. (i.e., Detail-orientation and Outcome-orientation, O'reilly et al., 1991; Achievement, Hierarchy and Structure elements, Ostroff, 1993). Detail-oriented organisations favour analysis and precision in handling details, and outcome-oriented organisations are demanding and bet on achieving results (O'reilly et al., 1991). On the contrary, when there is organisational change, company-wide collaboration or limitation toward that promotion opportunity, the relationship between Conscientiousness trait and valued work behaviour is restricted (Tett and Burnett, 2003). Similarly, Judge and Zapata (2015) found that Conscientiousness was significantly valued in occupations requiring independent effort to complete work.

A person with high Conscientiousness organizes his/her time and physical surrounding, works in a disciplined way toward his/her goals, strives for accuracy and perfection, and deliberates carefully when making decisions (Lee and Ashton, 2004). These positive qualities — however — are postulated to be against learning agility in this study. As mentioned before, learning agility necessitates one to be comfortable when making an error, embraces complexity, examines issues from a broad, high-level perspective and tends to be non-linear thinkers; rather than organized, planful and detail-oriented individual (De Meuse, 2017). Being in a mastery climate which accentuates organisational change and company-wide collaboration might weaken the negative relationship. On the contrary, being in a performance climate which signals compliance to external standards and competition that accentuates personal success and promotion might strengthen the negative relationship. Thus, the final hypothesis that would be tested here is:

6. Hypothesis 3 (H_3) and Hypothesis 4 (H_4): The relationship between Conscientiousness (C) trait and learning agility is moderated by motivational climates. The higher the mastery climate, the less negative the relationship (H_3f); the higher the performance climate, the more negative the relationship (H_4f).

2.4.2. RO$_D$: The interactive roles of mastery and performance climates in goal orientation — learning agility relationship

Aligned with Lewin's (1936) emphasis on the interaction between the person and his/her environment to explain his/her behaviour, the moderating roles of mastery and performance climates toward goal orientation — learning agility relationship could also be explained by the same trait activation theory. A 'match' between individual disposition (i.e., goal orientation) and his/her environment (i.e., the nature of the motivational climate) are supportive toward his/her performance (e.g., such as in Buch et al., 2016). A performance-oriented individual might respond more positively in a climate that 'matches' their disposition, i.e., a performance climate; while a mastery-oriented individual might respond more positively in a mastery climate (Roberts, 2012).

This notion is also apparent as goal orientation and motivational climate bear the same theoretical root of achievement goal theory (Ames, 1992a).

In the context of learning, individual with high performance goal orientation was motivated to learn due to 'other-referenced' standards of competence (VandeWalle, 1997; Elliot et al., 2013). A performance climate itself is likely to be perceived as more 'controlling' toward such externally specified standards; thus, reducing his/her feeling of autonomy and shifting the individual toward a more external locus of causality (Ryan and Deci, 2002). Therefore, being in a performance climate that offers some sort of external validations of these standards — rather than for the sake of the learning itself — provides 'a means to an end' and is more likely to 'fit' and appeal to the individual. Beside validation, the emphasis of performance climate on social comparison, competition and personal achievement is also more likely to be welcomed by a performance-oriented individual (Roberts, 2012; Buch et al., 2016). The latter might be primarily due to the individual's interest to demonstrate his/her competence and superiority to others (Newton and Duda, 1999; Cumming et al., 2007).

This scenario, however, might not be true if they are in a mastery climate; as its criteria (i.e., emphasis on participation, learning and trying hard to do one's best, Nicholls, 1984; Ames, 1992a; 1992b) should to a lesser extent satisfy such need to outperform others (Buch et al., 2016). On the other hand, when the individual's level of mastery orientation is high, a mastery climate is more likely to be welcomed by him/her. The above criteria of 'success' in a mastery climate match the individual's intrinsic or 'self-referenced' interest to improve his/her own competency and thereby feel successful in doing it (Van De Pol et al., 2012). The above criteria of failure and success in a mastery climate are self-referenced and task-involving, rather than other-referenced and ego-involving (Ames, 1992b; Boyce et al., 2009). Thus, a mastery climate is likely to facilitate satisfaction of such need for competence improvement; or "feeling effective in one's ongoing interactions with the social environment and experiencing opportunities to exercise and express one's capacities" (Ryan and Deci, 2002, p. 7).

Despite some inconsistencies, as we can see from the table below, several recent empirical studies (e.g., Nerstad et al., 2013; Buch et al., 2016; 2017) apparently have supported this notion of person-environment match. Nerstad et al. (2013) found that mastery orientation was significantly positively related to mastery climate, but not with performance climate. On the other hand, performance orientation was significantly positively related to performance climate, but significantly negatively related to mastery climate. In alignment, in a two-wave longitudinal study of 141 pupils from three military academies, Buch et al. (2017) also found that performance climate negatively moderated mastery climate and intrinsic motivation. Their findings suggested a positive relationship between mastery climate and increased intrinsic motivation only when combined with a low perception of a performance climate. Thus, introducing a performance climate along with mastery climate can be an undermining motivational strategy.

In contrary to the current study, Buch et al. (2016) investigated the moderating roles of goal orientations toward motivational climate — performance relationship. They found that the mastery climate — performance relationship was strengthened by high mastery and low performance orientations; and performance climate — performance relationship was strengthened by low mastery and high performance orientations. Interestingly, they also found that the first combination (high mastery and low performance orientations) also negatively moderated the above performance climate — performance relationship. For this specific finding, they argued that the presence of an external rewarding mechanism in performance climate might 'overcrowd' the internal motivational disposition of individuals with high mastery orientation. Finally, the presence of both high mastery and high performance orientations as well as low mastery and low performance orientations yielded inconclusive results in their research. Therefore, as we can see later in methodology chapter, there is a need to control the presence of one motivational climate while investigating the moderating role of the other motivational climate, as these two climates might relate and influence each other (Roberts, 2012).

As we can see from the Table 3 below, mastery and performance climates have also been studied as moderators toward several construct relationships, such as

knowledge hiding — creativity (Černe et al., 2014), knowledge hiding — innovative work behaviour (Černe et al., 2017), obsessive passion — incivility instigation (Birkeland and Nerstad, 2016) and employee development practice — work effort, work quality and turnover intention (Nerstad et al., 2018a). Mastery climate has been found to weaken the negative relationship between knowledge hiding behaviour and employee creativity while performance climate strengthening the negative relationship between those constructs (Černe et al., 2014). Knowledge hiding predicted lower levels of employee creativity when the mastery climate was low, but not when it was high. On the contrary, within groups in which employee perceived higher levels of performance climate, the relationship between knowledge hiding and employee creativity was more negative. Mastery climate has also been found to weaken the negative relationship between knowledge hiding behaviour and innovative work behaviour (Černe et al., 2017). Knowledge hiding also predicted lower levels of innovative work behaviour when the mastery climate was low, but not when it was high.

Birkeland and Nerstad (2016) found that obsessive passion and incivility instigation was moderated by mastery climate. Obsessive people (which was postulated to 'fit' better in performance climate) might feel the person-environment dissonance in mastery climate; thus, staying in mastery climate might challenge his/her normative status, threaten his/her motive and encouraging him/her to be uncivil (ibid.). Finally, Nerstad et al. (2018a) have found that the relationships between employee development practice and work effort, work quality and turnover intention were moderated by motivational climates. A combination of high mastery and low performance climates has been found significantly moderating employee development practice — work effort relationships. Performance climate, on the other hand, strengthens employee's turnover intention as well as possibly creating 'message confusion' between employee development practice (which was a more typical organisational practice of mastery climate) and its expected work outcomes (effort and quality).

Scholars	Variable: / Variable:	Mastery Climate	Performance Climate
Nerstad, Roberts & Richardsen, 2013	Mastery Orientation		
	Study 1	Desc: Sig (+)	Desc: Sig (+)
	Study 2	Desc: Sig (+); Reg: Sig (+)	Desc: Not Sig (+); Reg: Not Sig (+)
	Study 3	Desc: Not Sig (+)	Desc: Not Sig (+)
	Performance Orientation		
	Study 1	Desc: Sig (-)	Desc: Sig (+)
	Study 2	Desc: Not Sig (-); Reg: Not Sig (+)	Desc: Sig (+); Reg: Sig (+)
	Study 3	Desc: Sig (-)	Desc: Sig (+)

Scholars	Variable: / Moderator:	Mastery Climate - Maximal Oxygen Uptake	Performance Climate - Maximal Oxygen Uptake
Buch et al., 2016	High Mastery Orientation, High Performance Orientation	Positive (but not significant)	Negative
	High Mastery Orientation, Low Performance Orientation	Positive	Negative
	Low Mastery Orientation, High Performance Orientation	Positive	Positive
	Low Mastery Orientation, Low Performance Orientation	Negative	Negative

Scholars	Moderator: / Variable:	Mastery Climate	Performance Climate
Černe et al., 2014	Knowledge Hiding - Creativity	Less Negative	More Negative
Černe et al., 2017	Knowledge Hiding - Innovative Work Behavior	Less Negative	N/A
Birkeland & Nerstad, 2016	Obsessive Passion - Incivility Instigation	Positive	N/A
Buch, Nerstad & Säfvenbom, 2017	Mastery Climate - Intrinsic Motivation	N/A	Negative
Nerstad et al., 2018a	PEDP - Work Effort	Not significant, Significant --> Hi MC, Lo PC	Positive
	PEDP - Work Quality	Not significant	Positive
	PEDP - Turnover Intention (Negative)	Not significant	Less Negative

Table 3. Summation of empirical research on mastery and performance climates

Based on these research findings, a set of hypotheses can be established. As we have seen before, in this study, mastery goal orientation is positively, and performance goal orientation is negatively postulated affecting learning agility. Achieving a person-environment match (i.e., being in a climate that 'matches' one's individual disposition) might contribute to strengthening the relationship between a goal orientation and learning agility; and vice versa. Thus, the hypotheses that would be tested in this study are:

1. Hypothesis 5 (H_5): The relationship between mastery goal orientation and learning agility is moderated by motivational climates. The higher the mastery climate, the more positive the relationship (H_5a); the higher the performance climate, the less positive the relationship (H_5b).

2. Hypothesis 6 (H_6): The relationship between performance goal orientation and learning agility is moderated by motivational climates. The higher the mastery climate, the less negative the relationship (H_6a); the higher the performance climate, the more negative the relationship (H_6b).

Individual difference	Hypothesised relationship with learning agility	Hypothesised interaction effect of mastery climate toward goal orientation - learning agility relationship	Hypothesised interaction effect of performance climate toward goal orientation - learning agility relationship
Honesty-Humility	Positive	Strengthening	Weakening
Extraversion	Positive	Strengthening	Weakening
Agreeableness	Positive	Strengthening	Weakening
Openness to Experience	Positive	Strengthening	Weakening
Emotionality	Negative	Weakening	Strengthening
Conscientious-ness	Negative	Weakening	Strengthening
Mastery goal orientation	Positive	Strengthening	Weakening
Performance goal orientation	Negative	Weakening	Strengthening

Table 4. Summation of the research main and interaction hypotheses

2.5. Learning agility: How much it is different from the others?

As it is a relatively new construct, there is also a need to differentiate learning agility from other easily-confounded constructs, such as 'learning ability' or 'ability to learn' and 'experiential learning' or 'learning from experience' (DeRue et al., 2012). Several other scholars have also warned this. Arun et al. (2012) and Wang and Beier (2012) contended that learning agility might simply be an imported notion of cognitive ability. Wang and Beier (2012) also challenged the value of learning agility from other theories and constructs, such as 'investment theory of learning and development,' 'informal learning' construct and 'individual learning adaptability' construct from 'I-ADAPT' theory. Given the emergence of 'adaptability' construct within the career management research; there is also a need to clarify the difference between learning agility and 'career adaptability' construct as well (Savickas, 2005; Koen et al., 2010; Savickas and Porfeli, 2012; Zacher, 2014).

'Learning ability' can be generally described as the ability to acquire new, or modifying existing, knowledge, behaviours, skills, values, or preferences (Gross, 2010); while 'experiential learning' can be defined as the process of learning through experience or 'learning through reflection on doing' (Kolb, 1984; Felicia, 2011). Kolb's seminal work (1984) on experiential learning model (ELM) outlined the individual learning process from his/her experience as a cyclical process that starts from 'concrete experience' to 'reflective observation' to 'abstract conceptualization' and finally to 'active experimentation. Learning agility is indeed a *part* of one's ability to learn, but it is much more complex than mere experiential learning process or being a derivative of general intellectual ability or 'g factor' (DeRue et al., 2012). Some researchers even have found that intelligence might be generally unrelated to learning agility (Connolly and Viswesvaran, 2002; De Meuse et al., 2012; De Meuse, 2017).

When individuals learn from their experience within an organisational setting, it is an inherently interpersonal and contextualized process. There are factors of individual difference and motivation, beyond cognitive processing (Eichinger and Lombardo, 2000; 2004; De Meuse et al., 2010; De Meuse, 2017; Hoff and Burke, 2017). The process takes place in an environment where meanings are contested, rapidly changing and often ambiguous. They learn with and from other individuals with their own sense of meaning and try to shape interpretations based on it (DeRue et al., 2012). Learning in such settings involves real emotions and would be challenging as individuals can experience anxieties for fear of negative consequences, and hence, may hesitate to initiate new ways of thinking and doing (Coutu, 2002; Gavetti and Rivkin, 2005). These complex realities make learning agility.

On the other way, the novelty of inclusion of the non-cognitive factors in learning agility construct (such as organisational environment, personality and motivation) has also been challenged (Wang and Beier, 2012). 'Investment theory of learning and development' posits that one will invest a higher degree of attention in acquiring knowledge of specific domains in alignment with his/her general interest in that domain. The knowledge acquired will then be brought to bear to solve new problems in that domain of interest (Beier and Ackerman, 2005; Beier et al., 2010). Similarly, dynamic model of 'informal

learning' on the job, theorized by Tannenbaum et al. (2010), defines 'informal learning' as an unstructured, experiential learning process driven by people's choices and intentions. Tannenbaum et al.'s (2010) model of informal learning also contains environmental variables such as organisational climate and culture in addition to the individual differences that drive knowledge acquisition mentioned before (i.e., personality, motivational traits). However, unlike learning agility, these two theories do not specifically address the speed and flexibility factors at which people acquire and apply the knowledge back; both within and *across* experiences (DeRue et al., 2012; Hoff and Burke, 2017).

Learning agility should not be confused as well with 'individual adaptability' and 'career adaptability.' 'Individual adaptability' can be defined as an individual's ability, skill, disposition, willingness, and/or motivation, to change and fit toward the different task, social, and environmental features (I-ADAPT theory, Ployhart and Bliese, 2006). Individual adaptability is also conceptualized as a representation of the individual differences (i.e., knowledge, skills, abilities, and other factors) that are necessary for adaptive performance across contexts; as well as environmental characteristics providing their constraints and requirements on the adapting process itself. More specifically, 'individual learning adaptability' speaks about demonstrating enthusiasm for learning new task approaches; doing what is necessary to keep skills and knowledge up to date; quickly and proficiently learning new methods to perform unlearned tasks; adjusting to new work processes and procedures; anticipating changes in the work demands and searching for assignments or training that will prepare him/her for such changes; and finally taking action to improve work performance deficiencies (Pulakos et al., 2006).

Career construction theory (Savickas, 2005) also conceptualizes individual development as driven by a goal of person–social environment integration. 'Career adaptability' can be defined as the ability, attitude and behaviour to change to fit into new career-related circumstances (Koen et al., 2010). Career adaptability includes becoming concerned about one's future career ('Concern'); knowing what career to pursue and taking control of preparing for it ('Control'), displaying curiosity by looking around at various career options ('Curious'), and having a feeling of confidence to successfully pursue one's career aspirations

('Confidence') (Savickas and Porfeli, 2012). These two constructs might arguably be considered as wider or more general compared to learning agility (i.e., to build one's career). While learning agility might help individuals to become more adaptable and build their career, one unique aspect of learning agility would be its deeper focus on learning in situ (Wang and Beier, 2012). As noted by Hoff and Burke (2017), learning agility takes 'learning from experience' in a central place. Not just being quick in ideating and flexible toward new solutions, individuals with high degree of learning agility learn from their experiences through reflection, feedback-seeking, collaboration with other people, new information gathering as well as taking necessary performance and interpersonal risks to experiment those new ideas (Burke, 2016).

Conclusion

This chapter aimed to review the literature on individual and contextual correlates of learning agility. Based on the literature review, individual differences of learning agility might be seen as largely dispositional. However, organisational context would be an interesting area of inquiry as it might be facilitated by how employees are managed. The study aspires to build the evidence base for these individual and contextual correlates, thus, hypotheses building on previous research are developed in this chapter. As can be seen in Figure 3, all correlates are theorised at individual level and for a more nuanced understanding of correlates of learning agility, the second literature review chapter (Chapter 3) will explore how organisations can facilitate it.

3. Literature Review – Human Resource Management and Employee Learning Agility

Introduction

Similar with chapter 2 (titled 'Employee learning agility'), chapter 3 (titled 'Human resource management and employee learning agility') would be the literature review chapters that elaborate existing research related to learning agility, the research gaps as well as the subsequent interview questions.

This study is about understanding how organisations can facilitate contexts conducive to learning agility and HRM is used as a lens to address this aim. Chapter 3 is about establishing contexts relevant for learning agility and how HRM can facilitate this. It would review the literature on (i) what the extant research has found regarding organisational climates that facilitate a learning context that are created and maintained; (ii) research gap on how HRM can facilitate this context; and (iii) then present broad study research questions that this study will explore for addressing the research objective.

3.1. RO$_E$: HR practices that establishes organisational climates that support learning agility

Past research (e.g., De Meuse et al., 2010) has tried to explore the organisational consequences of learning agility; however, less attention has been directed to understand the environmental factors within that organisation which might support or impede learning agility. As mentioned before, DeRue et al. (2012) suggested that noteworthy future research should also cover the role of environment in shaping the ability of individuals to engage in learning agility; given the dynamic and complex nature of organisations surrounding the employees. In their conceptual paper, DeRue et al. (2012) focused their argument to two broad workplace environmental factors that might be related to learning agility (i.e., the characteristic of the learning experience and the organisation's learning climate); but not necessarily the organisation's roles to facilitate such climate. While 'organisational values' of learning agility have been clarified by extant research, our understanding of the underlying context

and what can be done by the organisation to facilitate it are still relatively scarce (Harvey and De Meuse, 2021; Milani et al., 2021).

Therefore, this study would also explore the HR practices that might help in establishing motivational climates that support the presence of learning agility within an organisation. The need for such study is apparent as much of the supporting empirical research of the achievement goal theory is conducted in educational, sport and physical activity settings (Roberts, 2012). Several key research cited in this study (e.g., Elliot et al., 2011; Gillet et al., 2015; Buch et al., 2016; 2017; Lüftenegger et al., 2016; Méndez-Giménez et al., 2017; Ning, 2018) were also conducted in these kinds of settings. The research was starting to be conducted in the organisational setting only within the last decade (e.g., Nerstad et al., 2013; Černe et al., 2014; 2017; Birkeland and Nerstad, 2016; Nerstad et al., 2018a). Therefore, under the main research question, the fourth and final sub-objective of this study would be:

"To explore the organisational HR practices those establish motivational climates supportive of learning agility."

Human resource management (HRM) can be defined as the design of employment system that includes a set of practices intended to maximize employee commitment and performance in order to achieve the organisation's objectives (Guest, 1997). During the last two decades, a number of HRM research has explored the linkage between HR practices and organisational performance (Posthuma et al., 2013; Marin-Gracia and Tomas, 2016). As this study is explorative in nature, it is important to firstly acknowledge the vast range or possibilities of HR practices out there. As can be seen later in chapter 4, classification of practices will be beneficial to establish an interview guide.

Based on 193 peer-reviewed articles published over the past 20 years (1992-2011), Posthuma et al. (2013) classified 61 specific HR practices into eight categories of practice based on the centrality, temporality and cross-regional generalizability. Centrality was about the usage frequency of each practice; temporality was about whether that frequency was stable and growing over time; cross-regional generalizability was about the degree to which each

practice was broadly applicable across different regions of the world. As we can see from the Table 5 below, "core"-labelled practices are practices having the highest frequency in each category, are stable and growing and cross-regional. "Broad"-labelled practices, on the other hand, aside from having the highest frequency in each category, are either stable and growing or cross-regional. Through an extrapolation with Marin-Gracia and Tomas' (2016) meta-analytic study, these practices can also be seen specifically in relation to how they can enhance employees' dispositional and organisational context elements.

	Categories	Centra-lity	Marin-Gracia and Tomas (2016)		
			Ability-enhancing Practices	Motivation-enhancing Practices	Context-enhancing Practices
Posthuma et al. (2013)	Recruitment and Selection	Core	Hiring Selectivity or Low Selection Ratio, Specific and Explicit Hiring Criteria	-	-
		Broad	Multiple Tools Used to Screen Applicants', Employment Tests or Structured Interviews', Planning Selection Processes and Staffing'	-	-
	Training and Development	Core	Training Extensiveness, Use of Training to Improve Performance, Training for Job or Firm-Specific Skills	-	-
		Broad	Training for Career Development', Cross-Functional or Multi-skill Training', New Employee Training and Orientation'	-	-
	Performance Management and Appraisal	Core	-	-	-
		Broad	-	Appraisals Based on Objective Results or Behaviours', Appraisals for Development or Potential', Frequent Performance Appraisal Meetings'	-
	Promotions	Core	-	-	-
		Broad	-	Promotions from Within', Promotions Objectively Based on Merit', Career Planning', Promotion Opportunities (e.g., frequency)', Career Paths and Job Ladders'	-
	Compensation and Benefits	Core	-	Pay for Performance, Formal Appraisal for Pay, External Pay Equity or Competitiveness, Incentive Compensation, Profit or Gain Sharing	-
		Broad	-	Comprehensive Benefits", Group-based Pay', Pay for Skills / Knowledge', Employee Stock Ownership', Public Recognition or Non-financial Rewards'	-
	Employee Relations	Core	-	Job Security or Emphasis on Permanent Jobs	-
		Broad	-	-	Low-Status Differentials', Employee Opinion and Attitude Surveys"

	Job and Work Design	Core	-	-	Decentralized Participative Decisions, Job Rotation or Cross-Functional Utilization
		Broad	-	-	Project or Other Temporary Work Teams", Job Analysis', Self-Managed Work Teams (Quality Circles)', Greater Discretion and Autonomy', Job Enlargement and Enrichment'
	Communi-cation	Core	-	-	Formal Information Sharing Program
		Broad	-	-	Employees Receive Market, Firm Performance, or Strategic Information'; Employee Input and Suggestion Processes"

(*) While all core practices are BOTH stable or growing AND cross-regional; broad practices differ. Practices that are stable or growing are signed with (') and practices that are cross-regional are signed with (").

Table 5. Categories of HR practices (Posthuma et al., 2013; Marin-Gracia and Tomas, 2016)

HR practices are hypothesised creating synergistic effect in which certain practices reinforce one another to increase organisational efficiency and effectiveness; i.e., performance obtained by using a bundle of practices will be greater than the sum of individual effects achieved by applying each practice separately (Posthuma et al., 2013). Some examples of this synergistic effect include the introduction of self-managed work teams without the support of management and proper training might reduce the results expected from the teamwork (MacDuffie, 1995; Kroon et al., 2013). In a study of call centre employees, Thompson and Callaghan (2002) indicated that only by combining practices of teamwork with job rotation and knowledge sharing, HR practices can significantly influence the employees' performance. Several scholars (e.g., Deslauriers et al., 2011; Anseel, 2017; Dochy and Segers, 2018) have suggested pairing training with other practices to enhance its impacts toward the expected development goals; such as learning-based performance appraisal, on-the-job learning, collaborative problem-solving assignment, coaching and feedback from the management. Nevertheless, Marin-Gracia and Tomas (2016) concluded that, although many researchers support the above-mentioned synergistic effect, there is no consensus in determining which specific practices must form the bundle nor the precise mechanism how such HR system should work to reach the organisation objectives (commonly known as the "black box" of HRM, Boxall and Purcell, 2016). The HR practices taken into consideration were different from one organisation to another (Kroon et al., 2013; Marin-Gracia and Tomas, 2016).

3.2. HRM and organisational learning climates

As we can see in the Table 6 below, there are several empirical pieces of research that investigate the relationship between HR practices and learning climate-related constructs. Most of them yield similar results of the HR practices significantly and positively related with such constructs; such as with learning orientation (Ning et al., 2018), creativity climate (Heffernan et al., 2015), human resource development climate (Muduli, 2015), organisational learning capability (Camps and Luna-Arocas, 2012), developmental culture (Wei et al., 2011) and organisational culture (Chow, 2012; Rhee et al., 2018; Mirzapour et al., 2019). However, there were also non-significant and mixed results found by several researchers (Chan et al., 2004; Adewale and Anthonia, 2013; Aman et al., 2018). In their research within police force population in Indonesia, Rozika et al. (2018) also failed to prove the relationship between HR practices and organisational culture. As the current study is focusing on exploring the HR practices that establishes "supportive" motivational climates, this study initially aimed to infer it through previous empirical research; i.e., what kind of practices or set of practices of the HR practices that contribute toward mastery and performance climates? This, however, turned out to be challenging as the HR practices construct investigated in the above research is being "lumped" into one single factor; aside of the absence of research that specifically relates HR practices with motivational climates. Therefore, a further empirical exploration on this topic might be required.

Scholar(s) and title	Industry or organisation context	HR practices under investigation	Learning climate-related construct and its variable type in HR practices - performance relationship	Relationship between HR practices and the learning climate-related construct
Mirzapour et al. (2019) The strategic role of human resource management in crisis management considering the mediating role of organisational culture	225 employees of the Governorate of Tehran, Iran	Strategic human resources management (Muli et al., 2014; Stone et al., 2015 in Mirzapour et al., 2019): Recruitment, retaining, motivating and managing talents, compensation, performance appraisal, and values.	Mediator: Organisational culture.	Significant and positive. Organisational culture also significantly mediated strategic human resources management and crisis management effectiveness.
Aman et al. (2018) The impact of human resource management	151 employees of all branches of all banks in District Vehari, Islamabad, Pakistan	Human resource management practices (Birasnav and Rangnekar, 2009 in Aman et al., 2018): Reward	Moderator: Organisational culture. A competing values framework, addressing the Innovation, Risk-	Not significant. Organisational culture negatively moderated the relationship

practices on innovative ability of employees moderated by organisational culture		strategy, recruitment strategy, performance appraisal, career-oriented trainings, performance-oriented trainings, and career management.	Taking, and Commitment to Innovation dimensions.	between human resource management practices and innovation.
Ning et al. (2018) The direct and moderating effect of learning orientation on individual performance in the banking industry in China: Contextualization of high-performance work systems	1887 individuals from 74 work units in the banking industry in China	**High-performance work system (Bae and Lawler, 2000; Sun et al., 2007; Takeuchi et al., 2007; Searle et al., 2011; Prieto and Santana; 2012 in Ning et al., 2018):** Reward, training and development, performance appraisal, and employee participation.	**Moderator: Learning orientation (Sinkula, et al., 1997).** Learning orientation is a series of organisational values, which reflect the preference of learning and knowledge in this organisation, and directly or indirectly influence the results of learning.	**Significant and positive.** High-performance work system was related more positively to performance when the learning orientation was stronger.
Rhee et al. (2018) High-performance work systems and firm capabilities in Korea: A fit perspective with organisational culture	2094 employees in 500 companies in South Korea	**High-performance work system (Huselid, 1995 in Rhee et al., 2018):** Training, performance evaluation, incentive compensation, and participation.	**Moderator: Organisational culture (Cameron and Quinn, 2006).** A competing values framework consists of Adhocracy, Market, Clan and Hierarchy types of culture.	**Significant and positive.** High-performance work system showed significant interaction effects with Adhocracy, Market and Clan cultures on firm capabilities; but showed no interaction effect with Hierarchy culture.
Rozika et al. (2018) Servant leadership, personnel's job satisfaction: The role of organisational culture and human resources practices	358 personnel of South Jakarta Metropolitan Resort Police Force	**Human resource practices (Mansour, 2010 in Rozika et al., 2018):** Planning, recruitment, training and development, participation and engagement, and performance assessment.	**Mediator: Organisational culture (Cameron and Quinn, 1999),** consists of 6 six dimensions of Dominant Characteristics, Organisational Leadership, Management of employees, Organisational Bonding, Emphasis on Strategy and Criteria of Success.	**Not significant.** Organisational culture was not a mediator of HR practices and job satisfaction.
Heffernan et al. (2015) Exploring the HRM-performance relationship: The role of creativity climate and strategy	169 companies in Ireland	**High-performance work system (Huselid, 1995 in Heffernan et al., 2015):** Employee resourcing, training and development, performance management and remuneration, communication and involvement, and family-friendly / work-life balance.	**Mediator: Creativity climate (Amabile et al., 1996).** Creativity climate captures formal and informal practices and procedures guiding and informing a supportive, self-starting and persistent approach to creative work.	**Significant and positive.** Creativity climate also significantly mediated the high-performance work system and performance relationship.
Muduli (2015) High-performance work system, HRD climate and organisational performance: An empirical study	150 employees from various work units in a power company in India	**High-performance work system (Sun et al., 2007 in Muduli, 2015):** Selective staffing, extensive training, internal mobility, employment security, clear job description, result-	**Mediator: Human resource development climate (Rao and Abraham, 1986).** Human resource development climate is assumptions, values and beliefs carried by the organisational participants about a	**Significant and positive.** Human resource development climate also significantly mediated the high-performance work system and

		oriented appraisal, incentive reward, participation, teamwork, and flexibility.	work environment conducive for the development of human resources.	performance relationship.
Adewale and Anthonia (2013) Impact of organisational culture on human resource practices: A study of selected Nigerian private universities	237 respondents in selected Nigerian private universities	**Human resource development practices** consist of recruitment and selection, compensation administration, performance management, and training and development.	**Criterion: Organisational culture (Kotter and Heskett, 1992; Gordon and Cummins, 1989; Hofstede, 1990).**	**Mixed results (both positive / negative and significant / non-significant).** Significant and positive relationships between human resource development practices and organisational culture were only for the recruitment process and training programmes. Job performance management, the performance of employees, external competitiveness, pay structure and compensation administration were not significant.
Camps and Luna-Arocas (2012) A matter of learning: How human resources affect organisational performance	163 companies in Spain	**High-performance work system (Pfeffer, 1998 in Camps and Luna-Arocas, 2012):** Selective hiring of new personnel, self-managed teams and decentralization, extensive sharing of information, high compensation contingent on organisational performance, extensive training, employment security and stability, and reduced status distinctions.	**Mediator: Organisational learning capability.** Organisational learning capability emphasizes the importance of facilitating factors (i.e., organisational and managerial characteristics) that facilitate the organisational learning process or allow an organisation to learn.	**Significant and positive.** Organisational learning capability also significantly mediated the high-performance work system and performance relationship.
Chow (2012) The roles of implementation and organisational culture in the HR-performance link	243 Hong Kong and Taiwanese firms operating in Guangdong, China	**High-performance human resource practices (Huselid, 1995; Youndt et al., 1996 in Chow, 2012):** Internal recruitment / promotion, training, performance appraisal and evaluation, performance-based pay, internal equity, competitive pay, employment security, and information sharing.	**Mediator: Organisational culture (Wallach, 1983).** Three distinct organisational cultures, i.e., Bureaucratic, Supportive and Innovative types of culture.	**Significant and positive.** Organisational culture also significantly mediated High-performance human resource practices and performance relationship.
Wei et al. (2011) SHRM and product innovation: Testing the moderating effects of organisational culture and	223 Chinese enterprises	**Strategic human resource management (Huselid, 1995; Zhang, 2005 in Wei et al., 2011):** Developmental culture, flat	**Moderator: Developmental culture (Quinn and Spreitze, 2001).** Developmental culture is a particular set of values and orientations that moulded and	**Significant and positive.** Strategic human resource management was related more positively to

structure in Chinese firms		structure, and product innovation.	directed employees' behaviours toward development and innovation.	product innovation when the developmental culture was stronger.
Chan et al. (2004) In search of sustained competitive advantage: The impact of organisational culture, competitive strategy and human resource management practices on firm performance	82 companies representing multiple industries in Hong Kong	**High-performance human resource (Huselid, 1995 in Chan et al., 2004):** Motivations and Skills / Structure dimensions.	**Moderator: Organisational culture (Denison and Mishra, 1995).** A four-trait culture model; consists of Involvement, Adaptability, Consistency and Mission models.	**Mixed results (both positive / negative and significant / non-significant).** Significant relationships were only with Mission and Adaptability culture models. Unexpected, negative moderating effects of Involvement and Mission culture models within the high-performance human resource – market performance relationship.

Table 6. Relationship between HR practices and learning climate-related constructs

As we can see in the final Table 7 below, there were currently just a handful of research (i.e., Den Hartog and Verburg, 2004; Chow and Liu, 2007; 2009; Úbeda-García et al., 2018) that might indirectly infer what kind of and how HR practices or set of practices establish mastery and performance climates. Based on the previously discussed hypotheses interaction sets, mastery climate is generally postulated in this study to be more supportive toward learning agility rather than performance climate; both for personality– and learning orientation–learning agility relationships.

Mastery climate itself focuses on fostering employees' effort and collaboration in learning, development and skill mastery (Nicholls, 1984; Ames, 1992a; 1992b). Comparatively, in Den Hartog and Verburg's (2004) research, a "support" orientation also focused in building such climate and they found a set of specific HR practices (labelled as "employee skill / direction practices") that was significantly related to the orientation. This aligned combination of HR practices involved strict selection, provision of employee development and internal promotion opportunity, as well as having an overarching philosophy in terms of a mission statement and HR strategy. On the other hand, performance climate speaks about accentuating normative criteria for success, social comparison and intra-team competition. Individuals are driven to perceive their

peers as competitors, thus are primarily motivated to perform better than them (Nicholls, 1984; Ames, 1992a; 1992b). Den Hartog and Verburg's (2004) "goal" orientation also emphasized individual's accomplishment as well as objective setting and productivity achievement. Beside significantly related to the same "employee skill / direction practices", this orientation could also be explained by pay-for-performance, profit sharing and team performance evaluation (Den Hartog and Verburg, 2004). These introductions of pay and profit-sharing practices that are based on performance might contribute to the establishment of such climate.

However, in 2007, Chow and Liu found a relatively contradictory finding. As we can see in the Table 7 below, they investigated several types of organisational climate, in which two of them were "sharing" and "competitive" types of climates. "Competitive" climate was displayed as extremely competitive and was not found relating to their investigated knowledge-related organisational performance construct. Such fierce competition creates barrier for resource and knowledge sharing (Chow and Liu, 2007). "Sharing" climate, however, was significantly related and found to be established by "incentives" HR system (consists of performance-based pay, internal promotion system, extensive use of training, performance management and internal communication practices). This system influences employees' performance by providing incentives that motivate or elicit desirable behaviours, which are learning and exchanging knowledge collaboratively. It took employee collaboration efforts into account (i.e., group-based reward); thus, supporting the knowledge acquisition and sharing process. This group-based incentive along with the appropriate climate environment provided a strong management tool to reward and motivate employees to do the expected behaviours; thus, eventually supporting the overall business strategy and performance. This "incentive" HR system was not related to the other types of climates. It was found working better with a "sharing" climate and a high "sharing" climate with high "incentives" system magnified the effect (Chow and Liu, 2007).

Their findings were then confirmed in their 2009 studies. In the Table 7 below, Chow and Liu (2009) also found that "supportive" climate could also established by and significantly related with "inducement" HR system; while "competitive"

climate was more related with "involvement" HR system. In their study, both HR systems were found reducing employee turnover through organisational climate and business strategy. Significant interactions were observed for the above relationships, thus offering some supports for a contingent relationship between business strategy and HR system (Chow and Liu, 2009). "Inducement" HR system emphasized on cost containment, job-based and performance-based pay. They postulated that a "supportive" climate worked very well with such paternalistic style and the explicitly instrumental nature of the system. Their empirical analysis then supported this hypothesis and showed that the match between "inducement" HR system and "supportive" climate resulted in a significantly lower employee turnover. Organisations with "supportive" climate foster information sharing and collaboration. This was found consistent with the philosophy of the system that encouraged teamwork and knowledge exchange. By offering a high level of inducements, employees might feel obliged to reciprocate through working harder, thus reducing their likelihood to quit. On the other hand, "involvement" HR system put a high focus in employees' participation, autonomy and work challenge through self-management work team, autonomy and task variation practises (Chow and Liu, 2009). This system was found relating to "competitive" climate and reducing employee turnover as well.

Finally, as we can see in the Table 7 below, Úbeda-García et al. (2018) found that comprehensive training, equitable reward system and employee participation or communication system built "organisational diversity." Being a dimension of organisational ambidexterity climate, comparable to mastery climate, "organisational diversity" speaks about the organisational values that stimulate people to be innovative and think creatively through appreciating and generating multiple perspectives and viewpoints. The above-mentioned HR practices were found promoting knowledge sharing through the "bottom-up" organisational model, the removal of communication barriers and the increased willingness to help others in their learning (Úbeda-García et al., 2018). On the other hand, comparable to performance climate, "shared vision" speaks about the values that stimulate the implementation and achievement of the organisational plans and goals. This "shared vision" was found being established by employee participation and communication system as well (Úbeda-García et

al., 2018). Thus, similar with Den Hartog and Verburg's (2004) findings; this last finding also blurred the explanation of which HR practice contributes to which type of climate.

Mastery Climate: Fosters employees' effort and cooperation in learning, development and skill mastery; supports 'collaborative learning' norms and positive relationships with peer; employees' work achievements are not dependent on what they or others have accomplished in the past.		
Scholar(s)	**Comparable Organisation Climate Types / Elements**	**Significantly Related HR Practices**
Den Hartog and Verburg, 2004; based on: 1. OC: Quinn, 1988; Van Muijen et al., 1999 2. HR practices: Snell and Dean, 1992; Huselid, 1995; Delaney and Huselid, 1996; Guthrie, 2001; Rogg et al., 2001	"Support" orientation (Focuses in cooperation, social, mutual trust, group cohesion and individual growth). Commitment of the individual employee is emphasized.	Employee skill / direction practices (Strict selection using tests / assessment centres, training and management development, obligation for employees to update skills, possibilities for internal promotion, mission-linked goal setting, written HRM strategy).
Chow and Liu, 2007; based on: 1. OC: Wallach, 1983 2. HR practices: Huselid, 1995	"Sharing" climate (Emphasis on learning process, exchange and sharing learning outcomes).	"Incentives" HR systems influence individuals' performance by providing incentives that motivate or elicit desirable behaviours. The practices referred here are performance-based pay, internal promotion system, extensive use of training, performance management and internal communication.
Chow and Liu, 2009; based on: 1. OC: Wallach, 1983 2. HR practices: Dyer and Holder, 1988; Swiercz, 1995	"Supportive" climate is trusting, encouraging, relationship-oriented and collaborative. It provides an open, harmonious and warm place to work. People are friendly and helpful.	"Inducement" HR system puts a strong focus on containing cost. It maintains efficiency by narrowly defining jobs and builds a strong link between each worker's effort and his pay. "Inducement" HR builds around incentives, using performance-based pay as an attempt to raise, monitor and control employee performance and productivity.
Úbeda-García et al., 2018; based on: 1. AOC: Rink and Ellemers, 2007; Wang and Rafiq, 2014 2. HR practices: Huselid, 1995; Beltrán-Martín et al., 2008	"Organisational Diversity" is a set of organisational values and norms that encourage and tolerate differences, also recognizing and rewarding individuals' different viewpoints, skills and knowledge.	Comprehensive training; equitable reward system; participation / communication system.

Performance Climate: Accentuates normative criteria for success; forces social comparison and intra-team competition; individuals perceive their peers as competitors, thus are primarily motivated to perform better than them.		
Scholar(s)	**Comparable Organisation Climate Types / Elements**	**Significantly Related HR Practices**
Den Hartog and Verburg, 2004; based on: 1. OC: Quinn, 1988; Van Muijen et al., 1999 2. HR practices: Snell and Dean, 1992; Huselid, 1995; Delaney andHuselid, 1996; Guthrie, 2001; Rogg et al., 2001	"Goal" orientation (Focuses in rationality, objectives, productivity and functionality). Efficiency and accomplishment of employees are emphasized.	Employee skill / direction practices (idem); reward / pay-for-performance; profit sharing; team performance evaluation.
Chow and Liu, 2007; based on: 1. OC: Wallach, 1983 2. HR practices: Huselid, 1995	"Competitive" climate (Employees display an extremely high level of competitiveness).	N/A (This climate was not found relating to the knowledge-related performance under observation).
Chow and Liu, 2009; based on: 1. OC: Wallach, 1983 2. HR practices: Dyer and Holder, 1988; Swiercz, 1995	"Competitive" climate is exciting and dynamic. It provides a creative place to work and is filled with challenge and risk. Innovative climates encourage competition and develop an entrepreneurial environment.	"Involvement" HR system, based on industrial democracy and self-management work teams, requires more autonomy, greater task variety and more effective use of knowledge and skill. "Involvement" HR builds around a relatively high proportion of professionals by structuring jobs

| Úbeda-García et al., 2018; based on: 1. AOC: Rink and Ellemers, 2007; Wang and Rafiq, 2014 2. HR practices: Huselid, 1995; Beltrán-Martín et al., 2008 | "Shared Vision" is a set of organisational values and norms that promote the overall active involvement of organisation members in the development, communication, dissemination, and implementation of organisational goals. | to provide maximum challenge, participation and autonomy. |
| | | Participation / communication system. |

Table 7. Research on HR practices and organisational climates

3.3. HRM function's role in facilitating organisational learning climates

In building such supportive organisational climates, HRM function has a critical role to play (Šindelková, 2022). Within HRM literature itself, specific research on how HRM function could establish learning climate is still nascent (e.g., Edgley-Pyshorn and Huisman, 2011). In terms of the research investigating HRM function role, extant research focus more on the broad concept of 'HRM function effectiveness' (e.g., Ryu and Kim, 2011; De Winne et al., 2013; Nguyen, 2016), employee performance (Dhir and Chakraborty, 2023; Gilbert et al., 2011) and relationship with line managers (Guthrie et al., 2011; Trullen et al., 2016) to ensure such proximal outcomes.

Ulrich (1997) argues that the HRM function has four different, generic roles to fulfil to be effective in assisting the organisation in achieving its goals, i.e., strategic partner, change agent, administrative expert and employee champion. As can be seen in Table 8, each role has specific goals, activities and deliverables that serve as the basis of the perceived HRM function's effectiveness. As found by De Winne et al. (2013), these roles bear different relative importance to different organisational constituents, i.e., employees and line managers. For the employees, the HRM function was perceived to be most effective in its roles as administrative expert and employee champion, while for line managers, administrative expert and strategic partner (ibid.).

Role	Goals	Activities	Deliverables
Strategic partner *Focus on: process and strategic issues*	Aligning HR and firm strategy	• Strategy formulation • Developing HR practices that help in successfully implementing firm strategy	• HR strategy • HR practices sending consistent messages as to what behaviour is desired
Change agent *Focus on: people and strategic issues*	Facilitating change	• Developing HR practices that create the capacity to change • Managing change	• HR strategy and HR practices creating the capacity to change
Administrative expert *Focus on: process and operational issues*	Developing and constantly optimizing an efficient HR infrastructure	• HR process re-engineering	• Efficient and effective HR processes
Employee champion *Focus on: people and operational issues*	Enhancing employees' motivation and commitment	• Providing employees with the necessary means to do their job • Recognizing and rewarding employees' contribution	• HR practices motivating employees

Table 8. HRM function roles (Ulrich, 1997)

Specifically in building the organisational climate, the HRM function was found to be effective when it assumed the role of change agent (Ryu and Kim, 2011). Šindelková (2022) argued that such a role is fulfilled by the HRM function setting the cultural orientation and related policies, as well as promoting and facilitating skills transfer between those constituents (i.e., line managers and employees). However, in earlier research about the role of HR in change management in higher education institution context, Edgley-Pyshorn and Huisman (2011) found that implementing organisational climate change might not be as straightforward. Such difficulty might be due to the relatively 'supporting' nature of the HRM function, meaning that there is a critical need for them to first justify their position, worth and capability before attempting to gain academic departments' buy-in to implement the change.

Stirpe et al. (2013) argued that only HRM functions with strong 'HR reputation' will be able to secure CEO support or persuade the line managers of the usefulness of their practices. Nguyen (2016) found that line managers' perceptions of the HRM function's formal authority had a positive and indirect impact on HRM function effectiveness through the HRM function's strategic involvement. The more formal the authority, the more the HRM function is perceived to be involved in the strategic management process (ibid.); thus, legitimating its needs for political and influencing skills. In newer research, such as Dhir and Chakraborty (2023), satisfaction with HR practices has been found affecting employee performance and this were dependent upon the function's overall HR capability, service quality and 'inducement' practices

(i.e., the extent to which the organisations committed to provide high-performing employees with a high level of responsibility, compensation, career and development opportunities).

Albeit lacking the operationalisation elements (i.e., 'how' and 'which' practices), extant research does show that building a relationship with line managers and employees might serve as a first step in building such reputation (Ryu and Kim, 2011; Gilbert et al., 2011; Guthrie et al., 2011; Trullen et al., 2016). Ryu and Kim (2011) argued that for an HRM function to be highly effective, it should be 'socially well-connected' to the line managers and their subordinates. An interdepartmental 'social capital' has been found to positively influence the HRM function's effectiveness through the benefits of information dissemination, organisation influence and solidarity (ibid.). Based on social exchange theory, Gilbert et al. (2011) investigated the impact of HRM investments made by two important HR actors, line managers and HRM function. Their research suggested that, as a result of close relationship with the HRM function, line managers can contribute to employees' performance through their own personal enactment of the HR practices as well as their relations-oriented leadership behaviour (ibid.). As suggested by Guthrie et al. (2011), line managers' assessments of the strategic value of their organisations' HRM functions are significantly influenced by their own relative use of HPWPs. When line managers report higher utilisation of HPWPs, managers perceive their HRM functions as having more strategic value.

In 2016, Trullen et al. proposed a nuanced model of how HRM function could contribute to the line managers' effective personal adoption of HR practices. They conducted their research by inductively comparing the HRM function's actions in both effective and ineffective implementation HR practices in Spanish organisational context. Trullen et al. (2016) found that HRM function can increase its effectiveness by fostering line managers' implementation abilities, motivation and opportunities; such as deploying in-the-field HR specialists, framing practices in appealing ways, involving them in the development of HR practices and seeking CEO support, among others. Aside from validating their model in different national contexts and firm sizes, one area of future research here is in operationalising their model (i.e., 'how' and

'which' practices). Coming back to the previously mentioned notion of bundling the HR practices, an important area of investigation would also be the extent to which different HR practices could interact together to achieve a significant synergistic effect (Trullen et al., 2016).

One key framework that could be used to operationalise HRM function's role might be Bowen and Ostroff's (2004) HRM system strength model. De Winne et al. (2013) found that if the HRM function scores high on HRM system strength, it is perceived as more effective in its roles. Bowen and Ostroff (2004) postulated that an effective HRM system should send signals to employees to allow them aligning their own perceptions and build a collective shared-meaning about the desired behaviours and attitudes that would consequently contribute to a strong organisational climate. Building on Kelley's attribution theory (1973 in Bowen and Ostroff, 2004), individuals try to form attributions about causal relationships when the information about practices or situations are distinctive (observed by everyone), consistent (the same across time and facets) and consensual (agreed by everyone). If an HR system meets these criteria, the likelihood of building a strong organisational climate increases (ibid.). A strong climate implies that the messages sent to stakeholders by the HRM system (i.e., the HRM function itself or the HR practices) are clear, consistent and unambiguous. If the HRM function succeeds in sending this type of messages directly or through its HR practices, the likelihood that line managers and employees perceive the HRM function as more effective in the different preferential roles increases (De Winne et al., 2013).

The above meta-features define and explain their concept; and thus, might be important to elaborate and structure the multitude of HR practices mentioned before. The first meta-feature in Bowen and Ostroff's (2004) model is distinctiveness. It reflects the degree to which the HRM practices attract employees' attention or interest. This element is made up of four sub-features: (a) Visibility, (b) understandability, (c) the legitimacy of authority and (d) relevance. The second meta-feature in the model is consistency. It emphasizes the internal alignment between the various HRM practices, where they should be crafted to support one another in attaining the organisational goals. This element is made up of three sub-features: (a) Instrumentality, (b) validity and

(c) consistent HR messages. Finally, the third meta-feature is consensus, which reflects the degree of agreement among policymakers on the logic of the firm's HRM content (policies and practices) and its effects. This element is made up of two sub-features: (a) Agreement among principal HRM decision-makers and (b) fairness.

Besides the issue of determining which specific practices forming the bundle, the issue of alignment is also deemed important by several scholars (see Posthuma et al., 2013; Harrison and Bazzy, 2017; Herd et al., 2018); especially in relation to the establishment of "supportive" organisational climate. Posthuma et al. (2013) concluded that alignment exists when there is parallelism between the organisation strategy and its HR 'architecture;' throughout the different levels within the organisation. By serving the same goal or purpose, the parallelism will enable both HRM function as well as other organisational actors to focus their attention on the same strategic objectives and mutually support each other. As an illustration, if an organisation uses the above *Pay for Skills / Knowledge* practice to reward its employees' competency improvement; it might encourage the sales employees to develop their customer service skills and product knowledge as well. This competency improvement might eventually match the organisation's marketing tactic that focuses on giving more sophisticated customer support.

In alignment with Posthuma et al. (2013), Harrison and Bazzy (2017) also posited that an alignment between strategy, HR practices and organisational climate is imperative in shaping its performance outcome. Through empirical research in a large US-based healthcare organisation, Herd et al. (2018) empirically found that perceived strategic human resource development (SHRD) alignment is positively and significantly related to learning organisation climate, perceived investment in employee development, managerial support for learning, learning opportunity awareness and psychological climate. Employees, who have a clear "line of sight" about how the SHRD is tied with organisational strategy and its change agenda, also hold the belief that learning is valued there and the organisation does invest in their development; thus, experiencing a more positive psychological climate. These findings confirm earlier research on HR practices and positive work climate that supports the discretionary effort

and collaboration (MacDuffie, 1995; Axtell and Parker, 2003; Glover and Butler, 2011). In this kind of work climate, employees might increase their learning orientation to seek opportunities to enlarge their job responsibilities and better engage in their work. Alignment within HR practices has also been found critical in creating a high trust and high performing work climate that impacts employees' level of commitment (Pfeffer, 1998; Appelbaum et al., 2000).

As outlined by Posthuma et al. (2013) (Figure 4), HR practices can come in the form of Principles, Policies, Procedures and Products that build up a four-level HR architecture. The first and overriding level would be Principle. Principle is a broad statement that serves as a guiding value or philosophy for the HR system to achieve the organisation's objectives. The second level, Policy, will be the statement that detail how the system will facilitate employee efforts toward enhancing organisational performance. The third level, Procedure (or referred as Practice in the figure below), is the specific method that the organisation will adopt to implement the system's Principle and Policy. Finally, the fourth and final level would be Product. The Product of HR architecture might come in the form of competencies that the organisation and HR architectures have co-created to enable the organisation achieving sustained levels of high performance (Posthuma et al., 2013). An example would be an extensive competency framework that will base the organisation's overall HR practices of recruitment and selection, training and development, performance management and appraisal, promotions, and compensation and benefits. When there is alignment among these HR practices, they synergistically enhance and reward those competencies. In the figure below, an example from a typical technology innovation company is provided to illustrate this four-level architecture as well as the alignment within and beyond the architecture (Posthuma et al., 2013).
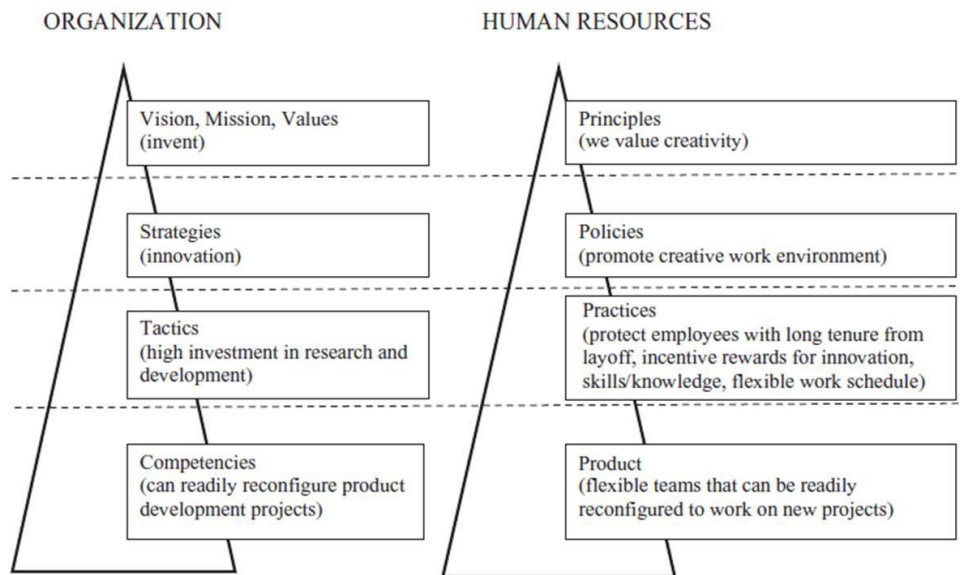
Figure 4. Illustration of HR architecture (Posthuma et al., 2013, p. 1188)

Conclusion

There is a need to build the evidence base on HR practices (or bundle of practices) that facilitate learning climates that are 'supportive' toward employee learning agility; as well as how the HRM function can support this. Several themes were emerged and will be explored further in this study, such as:

1. Lack of clarity in which HR practice or set of practices can establish mastery and/or performance climate(s) (Posthuma et al., 2013; Marin-Gracia and Tomas, 2016);

2. The mechanism on how such HR practice or set of practices could achieve a synergistic effect toward the expected performance outcome (i.e., in this study, learning agility); contributing to the HRM "black box" (Nadler and Gerstein, 1992; Marin-Gracia and Tomas, 2016; Boxall and Purcell, 2016);

3. The role of HRM function, specifically related to the issue of building relationship with the organisational constituents (Ryu and Kim, 2011; Gilbert et al., 2011; Guthrie et al., 2011; Trullen et al., 2016); and finally

4. The alignment between those HR practices or bundle of practices (Posthuma et al., 2013; Marin-Gracia and Tomas, 2016; Harrison and Bazzy, 2017; Herd et al., 2018).

In addressing the aim of understanding individual and contextual correlates of learning agility, this study adopts concepts from HR systems theory and aims to understand how HRM can facilitate organisational learning climates conducive to learning agility. This is more closely reflected in the following research questions which will be further explored empirically in this study:

1. From a managerial perspective, how could HRM function 'orchestrate' or align its practices to establish the organisational climate that is conducive to learning agility, and

2. Which HR practices that would be supportive toward a 'strong' and 'unified' organisational climate that supports learning agility.

Addressing these emerging research questions would help the primary aim of understanding individual and contextual correlates of employee learning agility. The next chapter will discuss about the research methodology of this study.

4. Research Methodology

Introduction

In previous chapter, the literature review, research questions as well as empirical propositions underpinning the study have been introduced. Under the main research question (*i.e., what are the dispositional and contextual correlates of high potential employees' learning agility in the workplace?*), the study's overall aims were twofold. Firstly, to explain which personality and motivational characteristics are associated with the high potential employees' learning agility and how these differ by the organisational perceived contexts. Secondly, to explore the role of HRM in establishing organisational climates conducive to learning agility.

This chapter aims to operationalise the above research objectives, hypotheses and questions that were developed in the first three chapters. It outlines the philosophical and methodological approaches of this study, including the research design, data collection tools, sampling strategy and ethical considerations.

4.1. Philosophical positioning of the study

The philosophical positioning of this study in its entirety would be pragmatism (Figure 5). Pragmatism asserts that concepts are only relevant where they support action (Kelemen and Rumens 2008). Reality matters to pragmatists as practical effects of ideas, and knowledge is valued for enabling actions to be carried out successfully (Saunders et al., 2016). In this positioning, researcher values drive the reflexive process of inquiry, which is initiated by doubt and a sense that something is out of place, and which re-creates belief when the problem has been resolved (Elkjaer and Simpson, 2011). Pragmatists recognise that there are many different ways of interpreting the world and undertaking research, therefore no single point of view can provide the complete picture and that there may be multiple realities (Saunders et al., 2016).

From a pragmatists research philosophy, this study formulated two broad research objectives, i.e., what is the high potential employees' learning agility and how can organisations facilitate their learning agility. Starting with a problem of the correlates of learning agility, both individually and contextually, this study aspires to contribute pragmatic solutions that inform future HRM practices. To address these two objectives, (1) the study's approach to theory development was deductive for the first objective and inductive for the second objective; (2) the methodological choice was convergent mixed methods, quantitative for the deductive reasoning and qualitative for inductive reasoning; (3) the research strategies were survey for both quantitative and qualitative methods; (4) the research time horizon was cross-sectional; and (5) the data collection tools was questionnaire for quantitative and interview for qualitative.
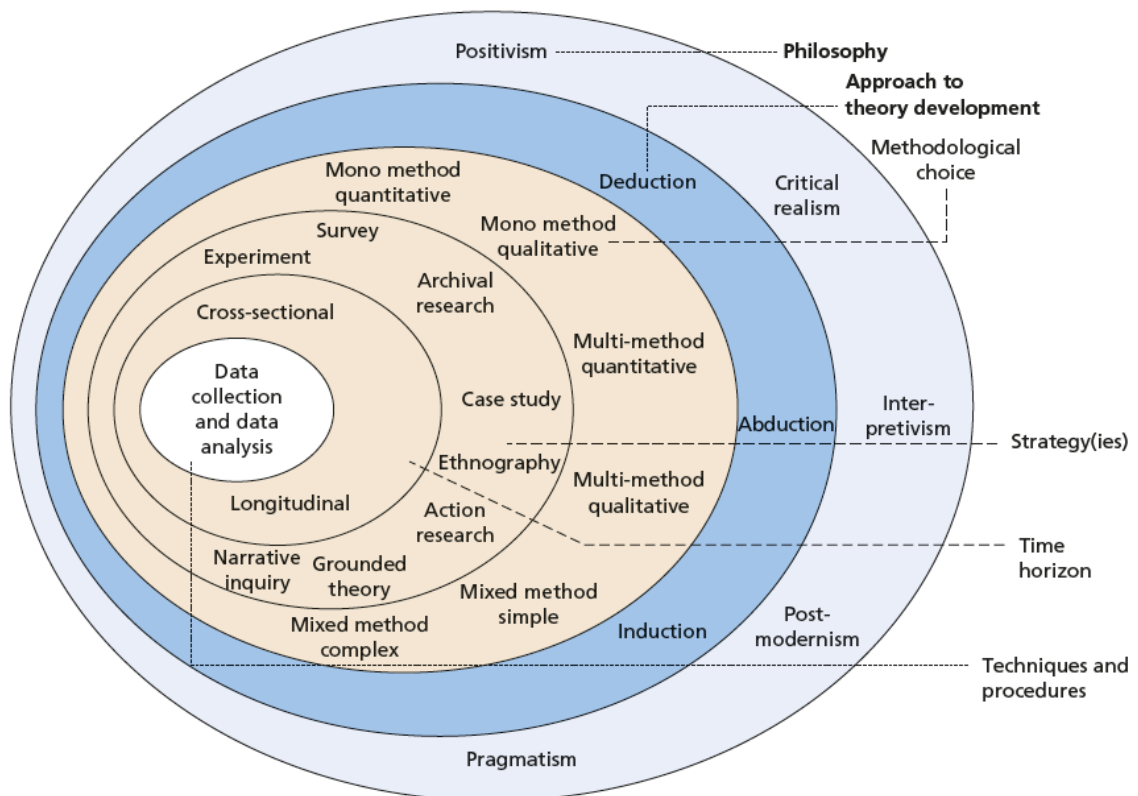
Figure 5. Research onion (Saunders et al., 2016, p. 124)

4.1.1. Approach to theory development

The study's approach to theory development was deductive for the first objective and inductive for the second objective.

Deductive approach is about forming a conclusion based on generally accepted facts. For the first objective (i.e., explaining which personality and motivational characteristics are associated with the high potential employees' learning agility and how these differ by the organisational perceived contexts), deductive approach seems to be a fitting because the object of the study exists within the context of the individual him/herself and his/her organisation; but this is something that is obscure, hard to be observed in full, revealed or accessed directly (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). The relationship between the correlates and learning agility construct should be concrete, exist independently of this study and do not depend on different viewpoint of observers (ibid.). Hence, to deduce a solid conclusion based on facts, the way to inquire the 'nature of the worlds' is through standardised methods (e.g., personality and motivational inventories); rather than being inferred subjectively by the respondents since learning is a social, interpersonal and contextualized behaviour (DeRue et al., 2012).

This study aims to provide exposure and demonstrate correlation of the factors (i.e., personality, motivation and environment) toward learning agility through hypotheses testing and deductions. Empirical propositions based on previous research findings were built and tested against large data set. In order to sustain objectivity, a detached involvement of the researcher or indirect data gathering needs to be conducted to capture what is 'happening' within that individual. Easterby-Smith et al. (2012) suggested that the researcher's position in this approach must be independent of the construct being explored as human interests here should be irrelevant. Finally, as another methodological implication of this approach, this study employs statistical probability method, and the data would then be collected from large number of randomly sampled respondents to achieve the generalization of this study's result. Here, several advantages can be generated, such as ability to cover wide range of organisational contexts and being fast and economical. On the flip side, the method employed can be seen as inflexible, artificial and might not be very effective in understanding the whole individual processes that might contribute to learning agility (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012).

Inductive approach is about forming a generalisation based on what is observed. As discussed before, noteworthy future research on learning agility should cover the role of the environment; given the dynamic and complex nature of organisations surrounding the employees (DeRue et al., 2012). For the second objective (i.e., exploring the role of HRM in establishing organisational climates conducive to learning agility), inductive approach seems to be a fitting given the lack of research and understanding in this area (Harvey and De Meuse, 2021; Milani et al., 2021). The second objective does not strive to form a conclusion based on hard facts, but rather our understanding of the above 'phenomena of interest' mainly through the perspectives of small numbers of specific stakeholders. Hence, in this approach, the unit of analysis should be able illustrate the complexity of the "whole" situations (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012).

As will be detailed further in the next section (Section 4.1.3.), the interviews were conducted with the CEOs or the senior HR leaders in the sample organisations. This study progresses through gathering rich data from which ideas are induced (i.e., organisational contexts that support or impede learning agility). Instead of *propositions*, this part of the study starts with *gaps* and generalization of the findings were then be made through conceptual abstraction (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). The strengths of this approach then are the potential generalization of the findings beyond the present sample as well as being flexible to multiple data sources. On the contrary, the weakness would be possible difficulties to reconcile discrepant information and accommodate institutional or cultural differences (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012).

4.1.2. Methodological choice, strategy and time horizon

As mentioned before, the methodological choice for this study was convergent mixed methods, quantitative for the deductive reasoning and qualitative for inductive reasoning. The research strategies were survey for both quantitative and qualitative methods. Finally, the research time horizon was cross-sectional.

This study uses mixed methods as the methodological choice (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). Although firstly conducted as early as 1920s, there has been a recent surge of interests in mixed method research in the last two decades. Stimulated by several scholars, such as Creswell (2002), mixed method research

draws on pragmatist philosophy, which combines quantitative and qualitative methods in the same study (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). By doing mixed method, this study intends to obtain "different but complementary data" (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018, p. 68) in order to better understand the research problem; as well as bringing together the strengths of quantitative and qualitative methods (i.e., generalization of research findings through large quantitative dataset and the use of objective measurements; combined with richer and more in-depth qualitative responses of specific, purposively selected samples). The design of the mixed method itself is "convergent design" (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; 2018) or "triangulation design" in their earlier work (cf. Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). In this design, the data collection and analysis of both methods is done independently at the same time; while the merging or integration of the results and the overall analysis will be done afterwards (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018).

Each method serves a distinct purpose in address different aspects of the research objectives. As mentioned before, quantitative method was used in explaining the relationship between personality trait and goal orientation with learning agility, as well as the interaction effects of motivational climate. Qualitative method was used in exploring the organisations' HR practices that can establish a motivational climate(s) conducive toward learning agility. This arrangement resonates with the premise of "parallel-databases variant" of the above convergent design (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; 2018). In this approach, two parallel strands of data are collected and analysed independently to answer different research questions, as single dataset is not sufficient to fulfil the requirements of every question. The two sets of independent results are then only brought together or synthesized during the discussion.

When it comes to research strategy, there are different strategies such as survey, ethnography, action research and case study (Saunders et al., 2016). The selection of appropriate research strategy is influenced by the nature of the research topic and the research objectives (Yin, 2018). The research strategy and time horizon are a cross-sectional survey for both methods. This method is selected due to the limitation on the research time and budget.

4.1.3. Data collection tools

To address the two distinct research objectives, the data collection tools were questionnaire for quantitative and interview for qualitative.

4.1.3.1. Quantitative data collection and sampling strategy

The quantitative study uses questionnaire as the data collection tool (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). Aside of the usual participant demographic questions, this questionnaire consists of valid and reliable self-scored inventories. Full permission to use the inventories from each author has been secured. There were 4 inventories, which are Burke Learning Agility Inventory (Catenacci-Francois, 2018), 38 items, to measure learning agility; HEXACO-60 Inventory Ashton and Lee, 2009), 60 items, to measure personality trait; 3 x 2 Goal Orientation Inventory (Elliot et al., 2011), 18 items, to measure goal orientation and Motivational Climate at Work Questionnaire (Nerstad et al., 2013), 14 items to measure motivational climate. In order to determine learning agility construct validity against some other constructs argued to be similar with it (e.g., individual learning adaptability); there were additional 9 items unique to the construct that were also included here. The total core questions were 136 items which should be able to be finished in 20 – 30 minutes (assuming 10 – 15 seconds of response time per question). Except for HEXACO-60 Inventory items, each item from other inventories was presented against a scale of 1 – 7 indicating agreement to disagreement with the statement in that item. The full questionnaire will be provided in Appendix 1.

The sampling strategy in this study was a probability random sampling within the sample Indonesian organisations' high potential employee population (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012; Collis and Hussey, 2014). All members of the population were invited to the study and had the same opportunity to participate or not to participate. As we can see in Figure 6. below, in order to determine the number of participants for the quantitative part, this study conducts a power analysis via G*Power (Faul et al., 2007; 2009). In order achieve significant statistical results for the 16 correlates under investigation (8 independent variables and 2 moderating variables); given the 'Type I' and 'Type II' error probability rates of 0.05 and 0.2 (Creswell and Cresswell, 2018), the estimated power of 0.8 and the "small" $f2$ effect size of 0.1 (Cohen, 1988);

the required number of participants would be at the minimum of 196 people. Denoting the power estimation as a range from 0.7 to 0.9 in steps of 0.1, the program also shows a possible range of sample from 164 to 242 people depending on the estimated power.
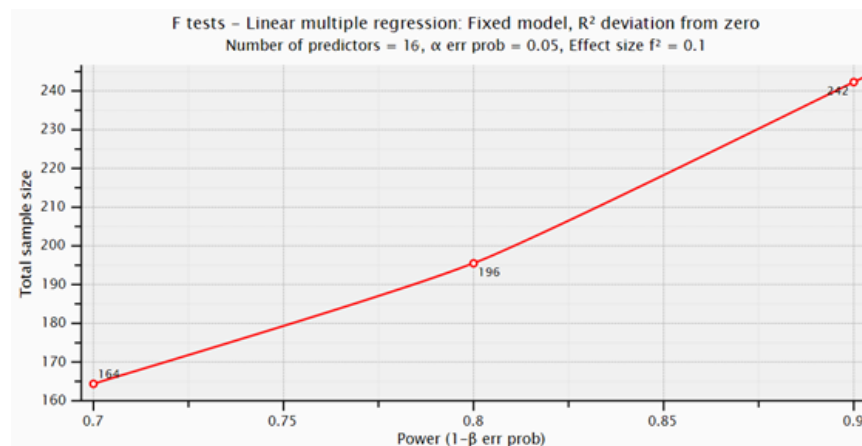
Figure 6. Power analysis result via G*Power software (Faul et al., 2007; 2009)

In terms of participant recruitment, this study worked closely with the HRM function liaisons. A copy of Participant Information Sheet containing the questionnaire hyperlink were sent to them to be further forwarded to all of the organisations' high potential employees. The questionnaire itself was built through Qualtrics, a survey builder program. High potential employees were defined as employees that have been with the organisation for at least 1 year and/or experience at least 1 performance appraisal period, who are considered most instrumental to the competitive advantage of the organisation. The statement of 'participation will be confidential, voluntary and bear no relationship whatsoever with the participants' current and future performance

nor potential evaluation' was stated clearly in the sheet. Participants' consent to participate in this study were recorded prior proceeding with the questionnaire. Should they have any question for the researcher, they can contact the researcher directly to the email address provided in the sheet.

A total of 2500 questionnaires were distributed, of which 2417 were returned indicating an 97% response rate overall. After cleaning and screening for missing data, 1499 responses were retained for data analysis. The data cleaning and screening procedure will be elaborated further in the next chapter. There were 982 male, 507 female and 10 non-gender participants comprising of 65.5% and 33.8% of the sample size. In terms of age, the majority of participants (42%) were in the age group 31-40 years old, followed by those aged 20-30 years old (35.8%), and aged 41-50 years old (19.1%). Most of the participants were university graduates (82.7%), with the rest being from either post-graduate degrees (14.3%) or high school and below (3%). In terms of professional tenure, the biggest proportion of participants had professional tenure of 3-5, 6-10 and 11-15 years of work experience (i.e., 978 participants or 65.2%).

In terms of employees' leadership role, the category of "manager of others" comprised more than half of the sample size (i.e., 54%). The other categories, "individual contributor" and "manager of managers," comprised 36% and 9.4% of the sample, respectively). From the functional background perspective, the majority of participants came from operation and administration (26.2%) and sales and marketing functions (28%). The next major proportions of participants came from finance and accounting and human resource (12.9%) and general affairs functions (12.6%). The rest of the participants came from customer service, information technology, public and investor relations, research and development, and others.

Finally, in terms of the industry background of the participants, this study covers around 20 industries. The big chunks of participants came from financial service (33.6%), agriculture (19.9%), media (11.8%), banking (11.4%) and consumer goods industries (10.8%). The rest came from carpentry, e-commerce, energy, education, information technology, pharmacy, property development,

transportation, consulting, hospitality, logistic, manufacturing, public service, retail and others.

4.1.3.2. Qualitative data collection and sampling strategy

As this study is situated within an inductive approach, it is interested in the participants' own experiences and interpretations of the reality (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012; Creswell and Creswell, 2018). Given its explorative nature, this study draws on in-depth qualitative methods to investigate the relatively little-known phenomena through the perspectives of those closely involved in it (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012; Saunders et al., 2016; Yin, 2018). The following qualitative study uses interview as the data collection tool (Creswell and Creswell, 2018).

An interview can be described as a purposeful discussion between people to gain insight into one's perceptions of a specific topic (Saunders et al., 2016). An interview is suitable with the aim of this study as the researcher might not have a deep understanding of the issue at hand and would benefit from the flexibility in exploring it. As reflected in the above research gaps, such flexibility is important as it allows the study to explore the vast topics of HR practices, learning agility and climate within a complex organisational environment. The interviews were conducted with the CEO or the senior HR leaders in the sample Indonesian organisations; whose role related to organisation culture, business partnership, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance management and appraisal, promotions, compensation and benefits, employee relations, job and work design, or internal communication (Posthuma et al., 2013). These interviews are expected to be able to generate rich insights into complex environments faced by the CEOs or the senior HR leaders (Richie and Lewis, 2003; Saunders et al., 2016). They allow the researcher to understand the meanings, thoughts and feelings of the participants; thus, providing the necessary in-depth data for this study (Bryman, 2008).

Derived from the literature to address the existing gaps, there was a semi-structured interview guide consisting of 6 main questions for an approximately 1-hour face-to-face interview. This guide will be provided in Appendix 2. A

semi-structured interview allows participants to focus on what is important to them rather than this study's predetermined ideas (Richie and Lewis, 2003); therefore, might contribute to minimizing the bias. Should the participants become confused or uncomfortable in responding, the researcher would be able to directly clarify, probe for additional details or even reword the questions. Finally, the researcher can also use illustration or another form of aids to ask complex or theoretical questions (Saunders et al., 2016). On the contrary, this tool also has some limitations. As it was conducted face-to-face, the researcher should be continuously vigilant as any comment, tone or non-verbal behaviour might affect the participants' responses (Collis and Hussey, 2014). Albeit the semi-structured nature of the interview, consistent replication of the interview process from one participant to the next should be strived. Leading, double-barrelled questions should be avoided to hinder socially desirable or partial responses (Saunders et al., 2016). The ideal interview would be when the participants are at ease and able to respond freely about their points of view. Therefore, rapport building, active listening and being value-free or non-judgemental toward their responses are pivotal (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012).

The sampling strategy in this study was a non-probability, purposive sampling strategy. This strategy would allow this study to focus on subjects that are most likely to experience, know about or have insights into the research topic (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012; Collis and Hussey, 2014). In a qualitative study, although the optimum sample size is not straightforward and depends on the study's purpose (Saunders et al., 2016), this study's initial aim was to have around 20-30 samples. Regardless of the number, the sampling decisions were guided by the principle of theoretical saturation. The required data would be collected until no new insights generated and each concept has been fully explored (Bryman, 2008). In this case, a snowball strategy might then emerge subsequently as well (Ng and Coakes, 2014).

In terms of participant recruitment, this study worked with the CEOs' or senior HR leaders' executive assistant to arrange a time for an interview; via face-to-face. Similarly, a copy of Participant Information Sheet sent before the interview. The statement of "participation will be confidential, voluntary and bear no relationship whatsoever with the participants' current and future

performance nor potential evaluation" was stated clearly in the sheet. Should they have any question for the researcher, they can contact the researcher directly to the email address provided in the sheet. Participants' consent to participate in this study was recorded verbally before the interview begins. As mentioned before, in the event of non-participatory or non-availability of the participants, a snowball strategy may be used (i.e., looking for his/her or the HRM function liaison's recommendations on the next available senior HR leaders with similar level or scope of responsibility).

As we can see in the Appendix 2, the interviews began with the researcher putting the boundary of the study, i.e., focusing on high potential employees. A simplified definition of high potential employees was given to the participants: "Employees who *have been with the organisation for at least one year and/or experience at least one performance appraisal period, who are considered most instrumental to the competitive advantage " the organisation. Compared to their peers, they consistently and significantly show a higher level of performance in a variety of contexts, stronger capacity and motivation to grow their careers within the organisation, as well as exhibiting exemplary behaviours that reflect the organisation's culture and values.*" After the boundary was set, there were three main areas of investigation that are inquired to the participants which are about (I) their high potential employees' behaviours, (2) the learning climate(s) that support learning agility and (3) their HR practices that might help in establishing such climates within their organisation.

Thirty-four in-depth interviews have been conducted with senior HR leaders in Indonesia from 20 different industries and scales of businesses (from 100 to 25,000 employees). Their roles involved Regional Chief HR Officer, Country/Chief HR Officer and functional-level HR Managers (see Table 9 below).

Participant Code	Generic Job Title	Industry	Scale of Business (i.e., Number of Employees)
Participant 01	Chief HR Officer	Banking	±25.000
Participant 02	HRBP Manager	Banking	±25.000
Participant 03	HR System Manager	Banking	±25.000
Participant 04	Chief Operation Officer	Consultancy	±100
Participant 05	Chief Executive Officer	Consultancy	±100
Participant 06	Chief HR Officer	E-commerce	±5.000
Participant 07	HRBP Manager	E-commerce	±5.000
Participant 08	Training Manager	E-commerce	±5.000

Participant 09	Training Manager	E-commerce	±5.000
Participant 10	Chief HR Officer	Education	±300
Participant 11	Chief HR Officer	Financing Service	±3.000
Participant 12	Chief HR Officer	Financing Service	±11.000
Participant 13	Talent Manager	Financing Service	±11.000
Participant 14	Training Manager	Food and Beverages	±2.000
Participant 15	Org. Development Manager	Food and Beverages	±2.000
Participant 16	Recruitment Manager	Food and Beverages	±2.000
Participant 17	Chief HR Officer	Food and Beverages	±2.000
Participant 18	Chief HR Officer	Carpentry	±2.000
Participant 19	Chief HR Officer	Media - Electronic	±21.000
Participant 20	Chief HR Officer	Media - Traditional	±21.000
Participant 21	Chief HR Officer	Oil and Gas	±200
Participant 22	HRBP Manager	Oil and Gas	±200
Participant 23	Regional Chief HR Officer	Pharmaceutical	±12.000
Participant 24	Chief HR Officer	Plant Breeding	±1.000
Participant 25	HRBP Manager	Plant Breeding	±1.000
Participant 26	Training Manager	Plant Breeding	±1.000
Participant 27	HR Advisor	Property Development	±500
Participant 28	Training Manager	Property Development	±500
Participant 29	HRBP Manager	Property Development	±500
Participant 30	Chief HR Officer	Public Service	±100
Participant 31	Chief HR Officer	Transportation	±4.000
Participant 32	Talent Manager	Transportation	±4.000
Participant 33	HR Manager	University	±300
Participant 34	College Dean	University	±500

Table 9. Interview participants' code, job title, industry and scale of business

4.2. Confidentiality issues and data management considerations

For quantitative data, the personal data collected were age, gender, formal educational background, number of years of full-time work experience, current organisation name, current work division / department, current work location, current managerial role and current tenure in the organisation. A personal email address was also collected (primarily for distributing the individual learning agility survey result should it is requested). For qualitative data, the personal data collected were current organisation name, current position title, current work location, current managerial role and current tenure in the organisation.

As for the quantitative study, confidentiality of the participants was ensured through the use of anonymous questionnaire. It was fully administered through electronic means. As mentioned before, it was forwarded to all of the organisations' high potential employee population, thus minimizing the chance of individual identification. With a common percentage of high potential employee being 5-15% of the total employee population (Berger and Berger, 2004), a possible number of participations from a company of 2000 employees would be around 100-300 employees. One apparent issue here is regarding the relationship dependency between the recruiter (HRM function liaison) and the

participants. The HRM function liaison might be perceived representing the organisation, thus, there was an employer-employee relationship dependency. In order to mitigate the influence, aside from the clear confidentiality statement in the Participant Information Sheet, they can opt out from filling in the questionnaire, ignore or delete the email without any requirement to inform the researcher nor the HRM function liaison. Should they have any question for the researcher, they can contact the researcher directly to the email address provided in the sheet and not the HRM function liaison. Participants' consent to participate in this study was recorded prior proceeding with the questionnaire. For the qualitative study, the interview was conducted privately with a recording process following the University-guided procedures on data management. The name and title of the participant, his/her organisation; as well as any reference to the other person and organisation names; have been concealed in the final manuscript. These names have been simply addressed as "senior leader" and/or "company A" pseudonyms.

As per PGR Code of Good Practice in Research, the research data will be kept for maximum of 10 years (and 5 years for personal data) after the study completion. The intention for keeping the data is to enable the researcher to reuse and expand the current study in the future; as well as collaborating with the other researchers. The risks involved here are regarding data theft or misuse by unauthorized parties, in which this study needs to put forth some precautionary measures. The storage used for the research data during and after the research will also be University of Glasgow's authenticated cloud storage space OwnCloud (https://owncloud.gla.ac.uk). The laptop used to work on the study in daily basis was Adam Smith Business School's laptop secured by the researcher's login ID and password. At the end of data keeping period, the data will also be destroyed by File Shredder program (http://www.fileshredder.org/). File Shredder program itself has been released as 'freeware' under GNU licence and can be downloaded and used without any restrictions.

OwnCloud enables this study to fulfil the live / active data storage requirements of (1) data must stay in the EU, (2) data must stay in the UK, (3) data must stay on campus and (4) storage managed or contracted by the University; as well as

the sharing requirements of (1) data is sensitive and needs to be restricted to a small group, (2) can be securely shared with colleagues at the University of Glasgow, (3) collaborators at another university and (4) collaborators without university logins. By doing the above measures, this study is also in alignment with the University of Glasgow's best practices in handling confidential data (https://www.gla.ac.uk/myglasgow/it/ informationsecurity), which require confidential data to be properly encrypted, stored in central repository on secure servers maintained in secure physical environments and not be held on local disk storage, mobile phones or tablets.

As the researcher would like to position this study as a collaborative project with the participating organisations; the participants as well as their HRM function should also be directly benefited. Beside an opportunity for the participants to do self-reflection, this study provided an option for the participants to receive the summary of their individual learning agility survey result at the end of the survey. A small research incentive in the form of shopping voucher of Rp. 50.000 or £3 could also be provided, funded by both *Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education* and *Adam Smith Business School Fieldwork Funding*. If requested, a written summary of organisation-specific learning agility survey results and a copy of final manuscript could also be provided to the HRM function liaison. A separate post-research presentation to brief and discuss further the managerial implications of these results could also be provided.

If a written summary of individual learning agility survey result was requested, each participant got his/her own learning agility survey result in the form of his/her average scores, compared to the overall specific organisation's upper, mid and lower percentile norms. The result was sent via encrypted email, individually to each participant's personal email address, in a secured .pdf file. If organisation-specific learning agility survey results was requested, the individuals' learning agility survey results were presented in aggregated, organisation-level, format. Again, the result was sent via encrypted email, individually to each HRM function liaison's email address, in a secured .pdf file.

4.3. Research generalisability, validity, reliability and participants well-being considerations

Generalisability in social research could be achieved through proper selection of sampling methods, representative and adequate sample sizes as well as the valid and reliable data collection tools (Collis and Hussey, 2014). As mentioned since the introduction chapter, this study focused on the high-potential employee population. Therefore, the chosen sampling method for this study was (1) a probability, simple random sampling method against such population; and (2) a non-probability, purposive sampling method against the CEOs or the senior HR leaders in the sample Indonesian organisations (in which the interview was focused on the same population as well). In terms of sample sizes, as mentioned before, the minimum sample sizes were derived (1) using a power analysis and (2) utilising a principle of theoretical saturation. While generalisability toward high-potential employee population might be secured, that might not be the case with general employee population. As learning agility is not a concept exclusive to the high potential employee population, the decision to focus on the population and derived sample from there might introduce a bias and an issue with the generalisability of the study's findings against the wider, more general population of employees. It is imperative for the reader to consider the study's findings in light of such design limitation.

In terms of validity and reliability of the data collection tools, this study strived to ensure its overall validity and reliability through the usage of valid and reliable inventories, expert reviews, standardised instructions, common respondents' language (Indonesian) and consistent scoring procedures (Salkind, 2006; Kountur, 2007). For the quantitative part of the research, this study utilised previously validated and reliability-tested inventories (i.e., Burke Learning Agility Inventory, Catenacci-Francois, 2018; HEXACO-60 Inventory, Ashton and Lee, 2009; 3 x 2 Goal Orientation Inventory, Elliot et al., 2011; and Motivational Climate at Work Questionnaire, Nerstad et al., 2013). As for the qualitative part of the research, this study utilised a semi-structured interview guide that was corroborated by relevant literature (see Chapter 4).

In his technical report, Burke (2018) has reported several validity and reliability properties of the inventory. The intercorrelations between Burke Learning

Agility Inventory subscales have been found to be moderate and positively correlated (i.e., less than .8) (ibid.). This indicates that, while the subscales are related, they are also measuring unique dimensions. This is in alignment with the study's discriminant validity analysis using HTMT criteria in Chapter 6. In terms of reliability (internal consistency), each subscale demonstrated high degree of reliability as Cronbach's Alpha was greater than .7 (Ibid.). In terms of convergent validity, nine dimensions of learning agility were found to be correlated significantly in the expected direction with nine of the ten cognitive, behavioural and personality measures (i.e., Learning Goal Orientation, Tolerance for Ambiguity, Generalized Self Efficacy, Big Five and External Locus of Control), supporting the inventory's construct validity (Ibid.). In terms of discriminant validity, measures of Risk Aversion and Reactance were used and they were found to be negatively related with learning agility (Ibid). Finally, in terms of criterion validity, two studies performed using the inventory found (1) a positive correlation of .42 ($p<.05$) between learning agility overall score and a rating of the probability of success in an executive-level position; and (2) a positive correlation of .31 ($p<.01$) and .25 ($p<0.5$) between the same overall score and the performance measure's 'Results Orientation' and 'Drives or Enables Growth,' respectively (Burke et al., 2016). Seven of the nine dimensions were also found to be correlated with at least one of the eight leadership attributes used to evaluate leadership success (correlations ranged from $r = .23$ to .39; $p<.05$ to $p<.01$) (Ibid.).

When it comes to HEXACO-60 Inventory, the validity and reliability properties can be found in Ashton and Lee (2009) study. The study found the reliability (internal consistency) of the subscales in the .7 to .8 range and all of their intercorrelations under .3; thus, were compared favourably with measures of the Big Five factors (Ibid.). In terms of construct validity, correlations between the HEXACO-60 subscales with the NEO-FFI subscales were also consistent with HEXACO: PI-R (i.e., longer version of HEXACO Inventory): HEXACO-60 Extraversion, Conscientiousness, and Openness to Experience subscales correlated strongly with their NEO-FFI counterparts; the HEXACO-60 Emotionality and Agreeableness subscales showed moderately strong relations with their NEO-FFI counterparts; and HEXACO-60 Honesty-Humility subscale only had modest correlation with NEO-FFI Agreeableness sub-scale (Ibid.). To

the best of the researcher's knowledge, there is no study yet investigating the discriminant validity of the HEXACO-60 Inventory. The discriminant validity of the inventory would be presented in this study in Chapter 6 using HTMT criteria.

For 3 x 2 Goal Orientation Inventory validity and reliability properties, this study refers to Elliot et al. (2011). In terms of the reliability (internal consistency), each subscale demonstrated a high level of reliability, ranging from .83 to .91 (p<.05) (Ibid.). In terms of structural validity, a factor analysis was conducted and all standardized factor loadings were moderate to strong (ranging from .52 to .95) with each fit statistic met the criteria for a good fitting model (Ibid.). Additional analyses were conducted by Elliot et al. (2021) to evaluate the relative fit of the 3 x 2 Goal Orientation model by comparing it with a series of 10 alternative models. They found that the hypothesized model was a better fit to the data than any of the alternative models. Finally, in terms of construct and criterion validity, Elliot et al. (2021) investigated how the inventory subscales correlate with other constructs, such as Approach and Avoidance Temperaments, Exam Performance, Intrinsic Motivation, Exam Worry, Class Absorption, Class Energy, SAT Score and Response Bias. All constructs were found to be correlated in the hypothesized directions with Cronbach Alpha ranging from .71 to .93 (p<.05), indicating strong validity properties (Ibid.).

Finally, for Motivational Climate at Work Questionnaire, this study refers to Nerstad et al. (2013) for the inventory's validity and reliability properties. In terms of reliability (internal consistency), the performance climate subscale demonstrated a high level of reliability of .84 and .81 (p<.05) for the two study samples. The mastery climate subscale demonstrated a high level of reliability as well (i.e., .85 and .77 (p<.05) for the same samples) (Ibid.). The intercorrelation between the above two climate subscales were negatively significant at -.28, indicating that they were related but separate. When a factor analysis is conducted, they found no cross-loadings, with all the factor loadings were above the stringent criteria of .50, supporting the discriminant validity of the inventory (Ibid.). In terms of construct and criterion validity, the findings from the hierarchical regression analyses in both of their studies concurred with previous empirical findings where the inventory similarly predicted relevant outcome variables (Ibid.).

Aside from HEXACO-60 Inventory, a translate-back-translate procedure for the other tools was performed; along with their standardised instructions and scoring procedures. This translate-back-translate procedure is conducted by firstly translating the tools from English language to Indonesian language. The translated inventories are then translated back to English language for a 'coherence' review by a Work Psychologist with a mastery in both languages. The final version of the tools resulting from this procedure were then validated by Dr. Belgin Okay-Somerville and Professor Sabina Siebert prior submission to the College of Social Sciences Research Ethics Officer.

The above-mentioned data collection tools allowed participants of this study to offer balanced responses and to express their own point of views. This study also tried further effort to minimize any possible distress toward the participants, specifically in relation to their English language mastery. This study used the native language of participants (i.e., Indonesian), both in the quantitative as well as the qualitative parts of this study. All of the standardised instructions that were contained in the Participant Information Sheets, communication emails, as well as the actual items of the tools themselves were written in Indonesian language. The question-and-answer process of the interviews were also fully conducted in Indonesian language.

4.4. Data analysis strategy

The results of the first part of the study were tested and analysed mainly through Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) technique. A preliminary analysis consisting of systematic data screening and cleaning, outliers and normality assumption check would firstly be conducted. Following the preliminary analysis, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) would be conducted to test the previously mentioned hypotheses. Finally, corroborated by literature review, the results of the hypotheses testing would be discussed in greater detail. The Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) program version 27.0 was employed for preliminary data analysis including data screening and clean up, missing and outliers data detection, its normality and homogeneity, as well as to produce descriptive statistics, such as frequencies and percentages. The Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) program version 27.0 was then used for Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA),

then continued with the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) analysis to test the hypotheses. A variable control is employed here. As concluded by Roberts (2012), mastery and performance climates can relate and influence each other; thus, there is a need to control the presence of one motivational climate while investigating the moderating role of the other motivational climate.

As for the second part of the study, one of the challenges here is how to 'make sense' of the rich and complex qualitative data and transform them into concise and meaningful descriptions of the phenomena (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). An inductive thematic approach was adopted in this study. This approach involves 'chunking' the collected data into meaningful and related categories, to be further rearranged and analysed systematically for patterns (Saunders et al., 2016). After all interviews completed, written transcripts were produced. Based on these transcripts, initial summaries and key quotes were noted down. Corroborated by the literature review, these summaries allowed key themes to be identified (open-coding). In relation to these themes, sections of the interviews were then categorised. After they are being rearranged according to the categories, final summaries can be established. In this study, the researcher used NVIVO program providing for this coding; followed by axial and selective coding (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). These coding can be done by looking for underlying relationships or patterns, horizontally or vertically, and identifying new themes or categories (if there's any). This analysis was then tested by seeking examples to negate it or for alternative explanations. Finally, the induced ideas and theories were linked back to the literature review.

After both independent studies have been conducted, as suggested by Creswell and Creswell (2018), the concluding integration and interpretation processes should be done through an identification of content areas represented by both quantitative dataset and qualitative materials; and synthesizing the results side-by-side in narrative discussions. As mentioned before, these two sets of data were collected for two different purposes (or research objectives). Corroborated by the literature review, the merge of the results was conducted by linking the quantitative statistical results relevant to a topic area with qualitative results in the form of quotes relevant to the same topic area; i.e.,

specifying how these *in vivo* statements either converge or diverge the statistics (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018).

Conclusion

This chapter aims to operationalise the research objectives, hypotheses and questions that were developed in the first three chapters. It has outlined the philosophical and methodological approaches of this study, including the research design, data collection tools, sampling strategy and ethical considerations.

To address the two research objectives, (1) the study's approach to theory development was deductive for the first objective and inductive for the second objective; (2) the methodological choice was convergent mixed methods, quantitative for the deductive reasoning and qualitative for inductive reasoning; (3) the research strategies were survey for both quantitative and qualitative methods; (4) the research time horizon was cross-sectional; and (5) the data collection tools was questionnaire for quantitative and interview for qualitative. Following discussions on data collection tools; the sampling strategy, the validity, reliability and participants' well-being issues, as well as bigger ethical and data management considerations have also been presented.

The next chapter (Chapter 5 titled 'Employee and Context Characteristics Associated with Learning Agility') is the findings and analysis chapter that tries to address the previously mentioned first research objective. The following chapter after that (Chapter 6 titled 'The Practices and Role of the HRM function in Establishing Climate that Supports Learning Agility') is the findings and analysis chapter that tries to address the second research objective.

5. Employee and Context Characteristics Associated with Learning Agility

Introduction

For addressing the main research question (*i.e., what are the dispositional and contextual correlates of high potential employees' learning agility in the workplace?*), the study's overall aims were twofold. Firstly, to explain which personality and motivational characteristics are associated with the high potential employees' learning agility and how these relationships differ by the perceived organisational climates (i.e., mastery and performance climates). Secondly, to explore the role of Human Resource Management (HRM) in establishing organisational climates conducive to learning agility. This chapter presents findings in relation to the former research objective and the following chapter (Chapter 6) will focus on the latter (i.e., role of HRM).

This study builds on the conceptual framework of learning agility proposed by DeRue et al. (2012). Their framework was chosen as they were the only one who conceptually clarified several relevant constructs related to learning agility in depth, including individual differences that promote learning agility; cognitive and behavioural processes that underlie it; and organisational factors that enhance its employee learning agility. This study extends the model of learning agility proposed by DeRue et al. (2012) (Figure 1). It does so by examining the dispositional correlates of learning agility (i.e., personality and learning goal orientation) across different organisational climates conducive to learning agility (i.e., perceived mastery and performance climates).

In terms of personality, this study used HEXACO model (Lee and Ashton, 2004) which measures six personality traits compared to earlier research that use FFM (cf. Mitchinson and Morris, 2014; Allen, 2016); as well as providing stronger validities (e.g., Kajonius, 2016; de Vries et al., 2011; Silvia et al., 2011). Based on previous research findings, it was expected that all of the personality factors (Honesty-Humility, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Openness to Experience) to be positively correlated with learning agility, except for Conscientiousness

and Emotionality. These expectations are formulated in the following hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 1 (H1): Learning agility will be positively associated with (H1a) Honest-Humility, (H1b) Extraversion, (H1c) Agreeableness and (H1d) Openness to Experience; while negatively with (H1e) Emotionality and (H1f) Conscientiousness.*

Besides looking at how personality plays its part, this study also investigated the motivational factors behind why a person engages in learning agility. Based on the classic work of Carol Dweck on achievement goal theory (Dweck, 1986), this study employed the construct of goal orientation to measure the individuals' propensity to pursue goals related to learning and mastery ("mastery goal orientation") or performance and rewards ("performance goal orientation"). Based on achievement goal theory, due to the development-focused and collegial nature of learning agility (Hoff and Burke, 2017), it was expected that mastery goal orientation is positively correlated with learning agility. In contrary, performance goal orientation that accentuates goal achievement and interpersonal competition (VandeWalle et al., 2001) is expected to be negatively correlated with learning agility. These expectations are formulated in the following hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 2 (H2): Learning agility will be positively associated with (H2a) mastery goal orientation; while negatively with (H2b) performance goal orientation.*

Past research (e.g., De Meuse et al., 2010) explored organisational implications of learning agility; however, less attention has been directed to understand the environmental factors within organisations which might support or impede learning agility (DeRue et al., 2012). Bearing the same root of achievement goal theory, this study employed the construct of perceived motivational climates (Ames and Ames, 1984). Mastery climate fosters employees' effort and cooperation in learning, development and skill mastery (Nicholls, 1984; Ames, 1992a; 1992b); while performance climate accentuates normative criteria for

success (Nicholls, 1984) and fosters forced social comparison, inter- and intra-team competition (Ames and Ames, 1984; Newton and Duda, 1999).

Using trait activation theory (Tett and Burnett, 2003), this study theorises how the above-mentioned individual differences will shape learning agility in different motivational climates; i.e., employees are more drawn to and derive intrinsic satisfaction from an organisational environment that allows them to effortlessly express their personality traits and learning goal orientation (Tett and Burnett, 2003). It was therefore expected that the relationship between personality and learning agility will depend on the individual's perception of mastery and performance climates at work. This is formulated in the following hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 3 (H3): Perceived mastery climate will facilitate learning agility in the workplace for all personality dimensions by either strengthening the positive relationships (with (H3a) Honesty-Humility, (H3b) Extraversion, (H3c) Agreeableness and (H3d) Openness to Experience) or weakening the negative relationships (with (H3e) Emotionality and (H3f) Conscientiousness).*

> *Hypothesis 4 (H4): Perceived performance climate will impede learning agility in the workplace for all personality dimensions by either weakening the positive relationships (with (H4a) Honesty-Humility, (H4b) Extraversion, (H4c) Agreeableness and (H4d) Openness to Experience) or strengthening the negative relationships (with (H4e) Emotionality and (H4f) Conscientiousness).*

Utilising the trait activation theory (REF), this study also expects motivational climates to differentially impact the effect of learning goal orientation on learning agility. Based on trait activation theory, it is argued that individuals who are high on performance orientation will respond more positively in a climate that 'matches' their disposition (Roberts, 2012), i.e., a performance climate, while individuals who score high on mastery orientation will respond

more positively in a mastery climate. This is formulated in the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 5 (H5): Perceived organisational climate will moderate the positive relationship between mastery goal orientation and learning agility in the workplace, such that (H5a) the higher the perceived mastery climate the stronger the relationship will be, and (H5b) the higher the perceived performance climate, the weaker the relationship will be.

Hypothesis 6 (H6): Perceived organisational climate will moderate the negative relationship between performance goal orientation and learning agility in the workplace, such that (H6a) the higher the perceived mastery climate the weaker the relationship will be, and (H6b) the higher the perceived performance climate, the stronger the relationship will be.

This chapter will firstly discuss the preliminary data analysis conducted to systematically screen and clean the data set. This is followed by the main data analysis comprised of CFA and SEM techniques. Finally, findings and discussions are presented following those data analysis.

5.1. Preliminary data analysis

As suggested by Gaskin (2020), a systematic data screening and cleaning procedure has been undertaken to ensure the data integrity before proceeding with the analysis. From the 2417 responses received, it was decided to use only 1499 responses. Most of the omitted data is due to erroneous and invalid response values. The procedure to identify and omit these types of responses was conducted in the following order: (1) responses with incomplete demographic data; (2) responses that failed to notice the reverse-coded questions, thus, that were highly patterned or had 0 standard deviations (e.g., all response values entered were 5 or 7); (3) responses with unrealistically short survey completion duration (e.g., finished the overall 152 questions survey in less than 15 minutes or less than 6 seconds per question); and (4) Qualtrics-flagged double responses.

In terms of missing data, all questionnaires used in this study were screened for any missing answer before the data entry. According to Hair et al. (2010), missing data is considered a significant problem in data analysis that may affect the results of the research. The impact of missing data is even more critical when using Structural Equation Modelling in AMOS (Arbuckle, 2020). For example, Chi-Square and other fit measures such as Goodness-of-Fit-Index and also modification indices would be difficult to compute if there was any missing data in the sample. Schumacker and Lomax (2004) suggest that missing data up to 5% is considered acceptable. In this study, this concern was electronically safeguarded by "mandating a response" for 151 questions, except for the email address question, in Qualtrics software. Consequently, there was no missing data (or below the 5% threshold).

In terms of outliers, detecting and treating them early enough are essential as they may affect the data normality and can distort statistical tests (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). However, while extreme outliers should be omitted, Tabachnick and Fidell (2014) suggest to still retaining the mild outliers. In this study, SPPS was used to identify the univariate outliers within the data by determining frequency distributions of z-score (Kline, 2011). A value up to $\pm$ 3.29 can be accepted in a large (i.e., more than 80) dataset (Kline, 2011). On the item and variable levels, only 4% of the overall responses that have more than two univariate outliers. In terms of multivariate outliers, Mahalanobis D2 measure was used to determine the multivariate outlier (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011) using AMOS. For all records that p1 value <0.05 (i.e., significant on one side) would be considered as influential outliers and that the correlation between the variables for these responses is significantly different or abnormal compared to the rest of the dataset (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). Only 7% of the overall responses were identified here. Therefore, these responses were retained for analysis due to their limited number compared to the whole dataset and so were suitable to be included in further analysis (Hair et al., 2010).

To test the normality assumption, skewness-kurtosis test was employed to check whether the data is normally distributed (Pallant, 2020). Should the data be not normally distributed, it may affect the validity and reliability of the

results. According to Gaskin (2020), an acceptable range for skewness-kurtosis value is ±3. On the item and variable levels, all items in the dataset and variables were found to be normally distributed (i.e., <±3). This confirms that there was no major issue of non-normality of the data. Homogeneity is another assumption of normality that the dependent variables display an equal variance across the number of the independent variables (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). It is essential to determine the presence of the homogeneity of variance within multivariate analysis as it might contribute to incorrect estimations of the standard errors (Hair et al., 2010). In this study, the researcher used Levene's test to determine the presence of homogeneity of variance in the dataset using gender as a non-metric variable. The results revealed that both on the item and variable levels, variances found in most of the items and variables were non-significant (i.e., p>.05); thus, confirming the homogeneity of variance in the dataset.

5.2. Data analysis

There were two models used in data analysis, i.e., measurement and structural models. Measurement model allows the examination of relationships between latent variables and their measures; while structural model test the hypothesized relationships between those latent variables (Gaskin, 2020). Two steps were used during the data analysis. In the first step, the CFA was employed to assess (1) the validity and reliability of all research variables as well as (2) the overall goodness-of-fit measurements of the measurement model. The measure scores were then imputed using SPSS program to form a single composite score of each latent variable. Finally, the study employed the SEM technique to test the hypothesised relationships among the independent and dependent variables. Using such two-step approach assures that only the valid and reliable variables were used in the structural model (Hair et al., 2010).

Aside of the skewness-kurtosis tests conducted and elaborated before (see 5.1. Preliminary Data Analysis), to further test the data normality as well as to prepare for the factor analysis, a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and a Bartlett's test of sphericity were conducted. As we can see in Table 10 below, the KMO is greater than 0.6, hence the sample used was adequate and we could proceed with the factor analysis. The Bartlett's test of

sphericity is also significant here. Sphericity assumption itself is the condition of equal variances between all combinations of the factors involved (Hinton et al., 2004). As it is significant (p<.05), the assumption is not violated and we could proceed with the factor analysis.

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.662
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2467.499
	df	55
	Sig.	.000

Table 10. Convergent validity and reliability analysis

Based on Gaskin (2020), during the CFA, this study analysed two types of validity, which are discriminant and convergent validity. Factors should be unique or not sharing too much variance, i.e., they should not be too highly correlated with other factors in the measurement model; hence, establishing this validity is one of the most critical steps in preparing for causal analysis in a structural model (Gaskin, 2020). In this study, discriminant validity will be assessed using the Hetero-trait Mono-trait (HTMT) criteria. HTMT confirms whether a set of items measure one trait (their own factor) or multiple traits (Gaskin, 2020). Below result tables were produced by AMOS using an AMOS plugin from Gaskin (2016a), with thresholds taken from Hu and Bentler (1999). We can see in Table 11 that none of the factors are closely related as their shared HTMT value was below the recommended threshold of 0.900 (Henseler et al., 2015).

	H	C	X	A	E	O	MCPERF	MCMAST	LA	PERGO	MASTGO
H											
C	0.338										
X	0.148	0.517									
A	0.308	0.035	0.023								
E	0.207	0.126	0.241	0.093							
O	0.105	0.243	0.319	0.053	0.082						
MCPERF	0.258	0.356	0.371	0.108	0.077	0.158					
MCMAST	0.163	0.025	0.223	0.098	0.187	0.063	0.089				
LA	0.076	0.466	0.542	0.076	0.182	0.432	0.349	0.078			
PERGO	0.184	0.100	0.196	0.009	0.002	0.074	0.153	0.457	0.080		
MASTGO	0.142	0.317	0.274	0.092	0.008	0.112	0.363	0.160	0.233	0.562	

HTMT Warnings

There are no warnings for this HTMT analysis.

Level of significance: (+) p<0.100, (*) p<0.050, (**) p<0.010, (***) p<0.001.
Acronyms: (HTMT) Hetero-trait Mono-trait, (H) Honesty-Humility, (E) Emotionality, (X) Extraversion, (A) Agreeableness, (C) Conscientiousness, (O) Openness to Experience, (MCPERF) Performance Climate, (MCMAST) Mastery Climate, (LA) Learning Agility, (PERGO) Performance Goal Orientation, (MASTGO) Mastery Goal Orientation.

Table 11. Discriminant validity analysis

For the convergent validity as well as the reliability, this study used the Composite Reliability (CR) indicator. During the CFA, Gaskin (2020) argues for using CR as a more precise measure to demonstrate factor reliability or internal consistency of the factors. Albeit Cronbach's Alpha has been widely used as an estimator for reliability, it has been criticised for its lower bound value which underestimates the true reliability. In this sense, CR can be used as its value is slightly higher than traditional Cronbach's Alpha (Peterson and Kim, 2013). The satisfactory value of CR is above 0.700 (Malhotra and Dash, 2011), while some other scholars argue 0.600 to 0.700 would already be sufficient (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994; Hair et al., 2010; Peterson and Kim, 2013). As we can see from the CR column in Table 12, all variables used in this study showed good convergent validity and reliability, with scores ranging from 0.628 to 0.959.

	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)
H	0.719	0.212	0.139	0.746
C	0.714	0.203	0.265	0.722
X	0.751	0.246	0.336	0.780
A	0.704	0.203	0.095	0.733
E	0.628	0.156	0.093	0.668
O	0.707	0.209	0.134	0.740
MCPERF	0.800	0.404	0.133	0.811
MCMAST	0.860	0.439	0.209	0.870
LA	0.959	0.723	0.336	1.196
PERGO	0.903	0.608	0.294	0.905
MASTGO	0.873	0.364	0.294	0.873

Acronyms: (CR) Composite Reliability, (AVE) Average Variance Extracted, (MSV) Maximum Shared Variance, (MaxR(H)) Maximal Reliability), (H) Honesty-Humility, (E) Emotionality, (X) Extraversion, (A) Agreeableness, (C) Conscientiousness, (O) Openness to Experience, (MCPERF) Performance Climate, (MCMAST) Mastery Climate, (LA) Learning Agility, (PERGO) Performance Goal Orientation, (MASTGO) Mastery Goal Orientation.

Table 12. Convergent validity and reliability analysis

The measurement model will be firstly examined for goodness-of-fit. This study adopted the maximum-likelihood method to estimate the model's parameters where all analyses were conducted on variance-covariance matrices (Hair et al., 2010). In order to assess the model's goodness-of-fit, there are some fit measurements that can be considered (Hu and Bentler, 1999; Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011; Gaskin, 2020). The most widely used is the ratio of the x^2 statistic to its degree of freedom (x^2/df or CMIN/DF). A value of less than 3 indicates "excellent" fit while a value between 3 and 5 indicates "acceptable" fit (Hu and Bentler, 1999). Hair et al. (2010) suggested other indices to indicate model fit: Comparative Fit Index (CFI); Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR); Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA); and the test of close fit (PClose)." Gaskin (2020) suggested prioritising some of them to consistently test and report the model fit, which are CFI, SRMR and RMSEA. An "excellent" CFI value would be above 0.95 with the "acceptable" value being above 0.90. An "excellent" SRMR value would be below 0.08 with the "acceptable" value being below 0.10. An "excellent" RMSEA value would be below 0.06 with the

"acceptable" value being below 0.08. Finally, an "excellent" PClose value would be above 0.05 with the "acceptable" value being above 0.01.

Table 13 below is produced by AMOS through the aid of "model fit measures" plugin from Gaskin (2016b). This shows that although the CFI value for the measurement model was under the acceptable standard, the model had considerably good fit across other indices used (x2/df=2.96, SRMR=0.06, RMSEA=0.04, CFI=0.74, PClose=1.00). Hence, the measurement model was accepted as good fit with data.

Measure	Estimate	Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN	24252.577	--	--
DF	8191.000	--	--
CMIN/DF	2.961	Between 1 and 3	Excellent
CFI	0.740	>0.95	Terrible
SRMR	0.058	<0.08	Excellent
RMSEA	0.036	<0.06	Excellent
PClose	1.000	>0.05	Excellent

Acronyms: (CMIN) Chi-square Statistic, (DF) Degrees of Freedom, (CFI) Comparative Fit Index, (SRMR) Standardised Root Mean Square Residual, (RMSEA) Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, (PClose) P-value for the test of Close Fit

Table 13. Model fit analysis of the measurement model

Having established the reliability, two types of validity, as well as the overall measurement model's goodness-of-fit; the next step is to test the relationships between the exogenous and endogenous latent variables which can be done during the structural or causal model stage (Hair et al., 2010; Arbuckle, 2020). The overall R^2 of the measurement model is 0.34, hence, the model can explain 34% of the variation in the dependent variable (i.e., learning agility). In behavioural science, Cohen (1988) suggested such R^2 value can be considered substantial as it is more than 0.26. In relation to SEM, Chin (1998) argued that such R^2 value can be considered at least as moderate since it is more than 0.33.

Prior to hypothesis testing, full structural model was compared to partial structural models without the interaction terms. A stepwise approach to model testing was taken, where this study first tested the relationship between individual difference variables and learning agility and then added the interaction terms with motivational climate variables. Common method bias (CMB) markers are included throughout to account for any bias due to self-report nature of data (Williams et al., 2010; Gaskin, 2020). As can be seen in Table 14, the final structural model with moderation effects was a better fit with the data. In terms of the value of R^2, although the second model is already substantial (i.e., more than 0.26, Cohen, 1988), the final model yields the highest value of R^2 of 0.34. This might suggest that the addition of perceived motivational climates contributes to the model's strength in explaining the variability of employee learning agility.

Mo-del	Model Description (with CMB markers included)	x2	DF	Sig?	Δx2	ΔDF	Δx2/ΔDF	CMIN/DF	CFI	SRMR	RMSEA	Pclose	R^2
1	HEXACO →LA	0.000	0.000	0.000	N/A	N/A	N/A	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.283	0.000	0.18
2	HEXACO and GO → LA	395.899	24.000	0.000	395.899	24.000	16.496	16.496	0.959	0.092	0.102	0.000	0.28
3	HEXACO and GO x MC → LA	617.865	95.000	0.000	221.966	71.000	3.126	6.504	0.949	0.055	0.061	0.000	0.34

Acronyms: (CMIN) Chi-square Statistic, (DF) Degrees of Freedom, (CFI) Comparative Fit Index, (SRMR) Standardised Root Mean Square Residual, (RMSEA) Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, (PClose) P-value for the test of Close Fit

Table 14. Stepwise approach analysis of the structural model

Although the CMIN/DF value (x2/df=6.50) was not at the acceptable standard (i.e., slightly above acceptable standard of 5, Hu and Bentler, 1999), in overall, the final model with interaction terms showed good fit with data (Δx2/Δdf=3.13, p<.05, CFI=0.95, SRMR=0.06, RMSEA=0.06, PClose=0.00) (Table 15). Therefore, this study can confidently proceed to examine the hypothesized relationships within the structural model.

Measure	Estimate	Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN	617.865	--	--
DF	95.000	--	--
CMIN/DF	6.504	Between 1 and 3	Terrible
CFI	0.949	>0.95	Acceptable
SRMR	0.055	<0.08	Excellent
RMSEA	0.061	<0.06	Acceptable
PClose	0.000	>0.05	Not Estimated

Acronyms: (CMIN) Chi-square Statistic, (DF) Degrees of Freedom, (CFI) Comparative Fit Index, (SRMR) Standardised Root Mean Square Residual, (RMSEA) Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, (PClose) P-value for the test of Close Fit

Table 15. Model fit analysis of the structural model

5.3. Findings

There were six sets of hypotheses that were tested in this study. The first two were about the relationships between personality (i.e., HEXACO personality traits) and learning agility, and the relationships between motivation (i.e., goal orientations) and learning agility. The second two were about how perceived motivational climates (i.e., mastery and performance climates) facilitate the relationships between personality and learning agility. The final two were about how perceived motivational climates facilitate the relationships between motivation and learning agility. As can be seen in Table 16 below, this study has fully supported H1-2 (despite some of the directions of the independent variables were different than what have been hypothesised) and partially supported H3-6.

	Estimate	S.E.	p
Personality			
Honesty-Humility	-0.13	0.05	0.01*
Emotionality	-0.20	0.06	0.00*
Extraversion	0.40	0.04	0.00*
Agreeableness	-0.12	0.05	0.03*
Conscientiousness	0.43	0.06	0.00*
Openness to Experience	0.21	0.04	0.00*
Learning goal orientation			

Mastery goal orientation	0.19	0.05	0.00*
Performance goal orientation	-0.04	0.02	0.03*
Personality*Learning climate			
Honesty-Humility*Mastery climate	0.17	0.08	0.03*
Emotionality*Mastery climate	-0.25	0.09	0.01*
Extraversion*Mastery climate	-0.07	0.06	0.26
Agreeableness*Mastery climate	-0.08	0.08	0.31
Conscientiousness*Mastery climate	0.02	0.09	0.85
Openness to Experience*Mastery climate	-0.05	0.05	0.31
Honesty-Humility*Performance climate	-0.09	0.15	0.57
Emotionality*Performance climate	0.04	0.20	0.84
Extraversion*Performance climate	0.08	0.12	0.53
Agreeableness*Performance climate	0.55	0.17	0.00*
Conscientiousness*Performance climate	0.20	0.19	0.28
Openness to Experience*Performance climate	-0.15	0.11	0.17
Learning goal orientation*Learning climate			
Mastery goal orientation*Mastery climate	-0.02	0.07	0.78
Performance goal orientation*Mastery climate	0.02	0.03	0.54
Mastery goal orientation*Performance climate	0.11	0.12	0.35
Performance goal orientation*Performance climate	-0.02	0.05	0.67

Note. (1) Model R^2 explaining learning agility is .34.
        (2) Level of significance: (+) $p<0.100$, (*) $p<0.050$, (**) $p<0.010$, (***) $p<0.001$.

Table 16. Summary of estimates between study variables correlating with learning agility

The summary table shows that the study findings provide support for H1. As hypothesised, Extraversion (B=.40, SE=.04, p<.05) and Openness to Experience (B=.21, SE=.04, p<.05) were positively and Emotionality (B=-.20, SE=.06, p<.05) was negatively associated with learning agility. However, contrary to the study hypotheses, Honesty-Humility (B=-.13, SE=.05, p<.05) and Agreeableness (B=-.12, SE=.05, p<.05) were negatively and Conscientiousness (B=.43, SE=.06, p<.05) was positively associated with learning agility.

In examining the relationships between goal orientation and learning agility, the study findings provide support for H2 concerning the positive relationship between mastery goal orientation and learning agility (B=.19, SE=.05, p<.05) as well as the negative relationship between performance goal orientation and learning agility (B=-.04, SE=.02, p<.05).

In terms of Hypotheses 3-6, an examination of the effects shows that only H3a (Honesty-Humility*Perceived Mastery Climate; B=.17, SE=.08, p<.05), H3e (Emotionality*Perceived Mastery Climate; B=-.25, SE=.09, p<.05) and H4c (Agreeableness*Perceived Performance Climate; B=.55, SE=.17, p<.05) are supported in showing the differential impact of personality on learning agility based on perceived motivational climate. As observed in below figures, perceived mastery climate weakened the negative relationship between Honesty-Humility Figure 7 and learning agility; but strengthened the negative relationship between Emotionality and learning agility Figure 8. Finally, Figure 9 shows perceived performance climate weakens the negative relationship between Agreeableness and learning agility. Aside of these three interactions, no other support is found for the remaining hypotheses.

Johnson-Neyman Plot

Analysis

Interaction	Estimate	Standard Error	P-Value
LA <-- HXMC	0.143	0.077	0.063
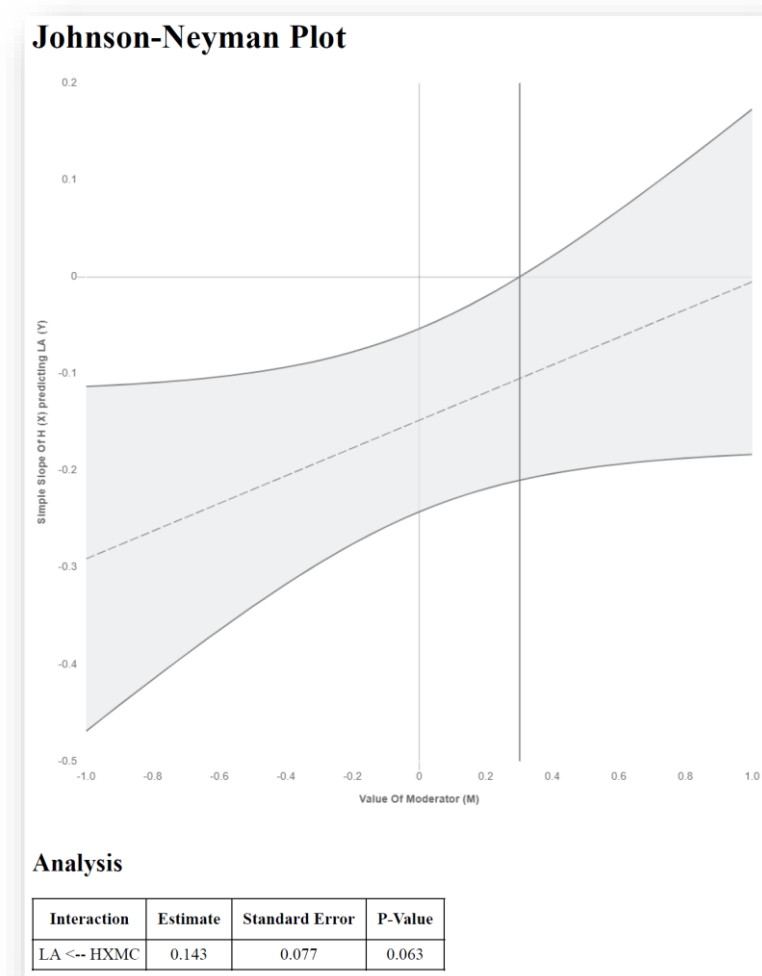
Figure 7. Interaction effect between Honesty-Humility and perceived mastery climate

Johnson-Neyman Plot

Analysis

Interaction	Estimate	Standard Error	P-Value
LA <-- EXMC	-0.260	0.092	0.005
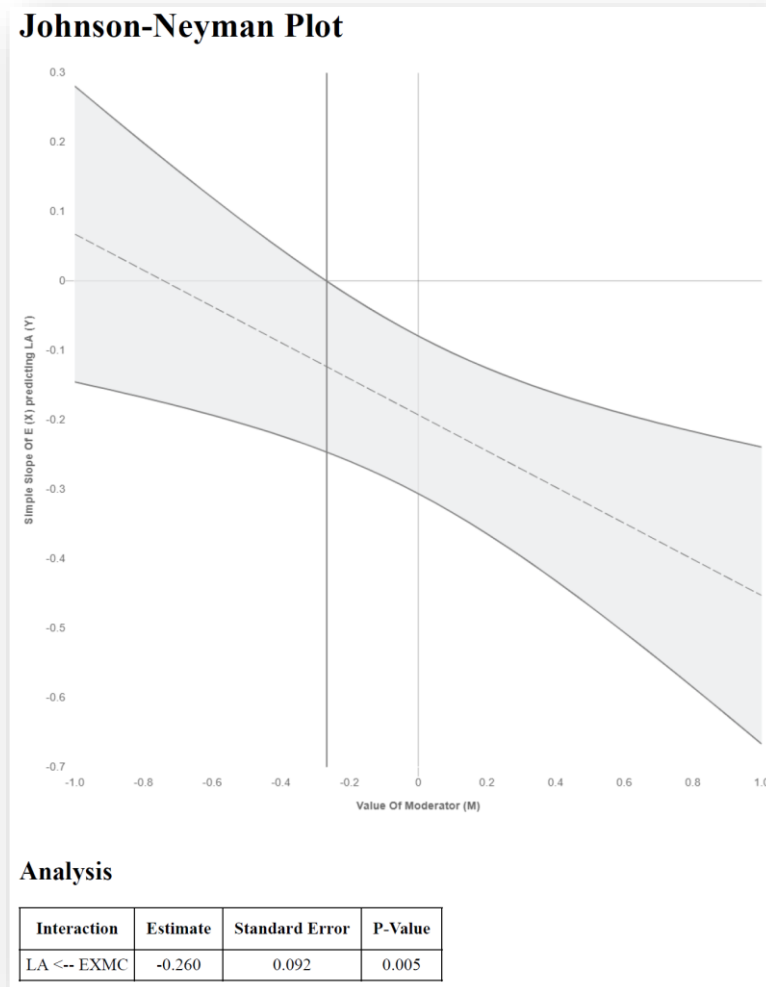
Figure 8. Interaction effect between Emotionality and perceived mastery climate

Johnson-Neyman Plot

Analysis

Interaction	Estimate	Standard Error	P-Value
LA <-- AXPC	0.534	0.164	0.001
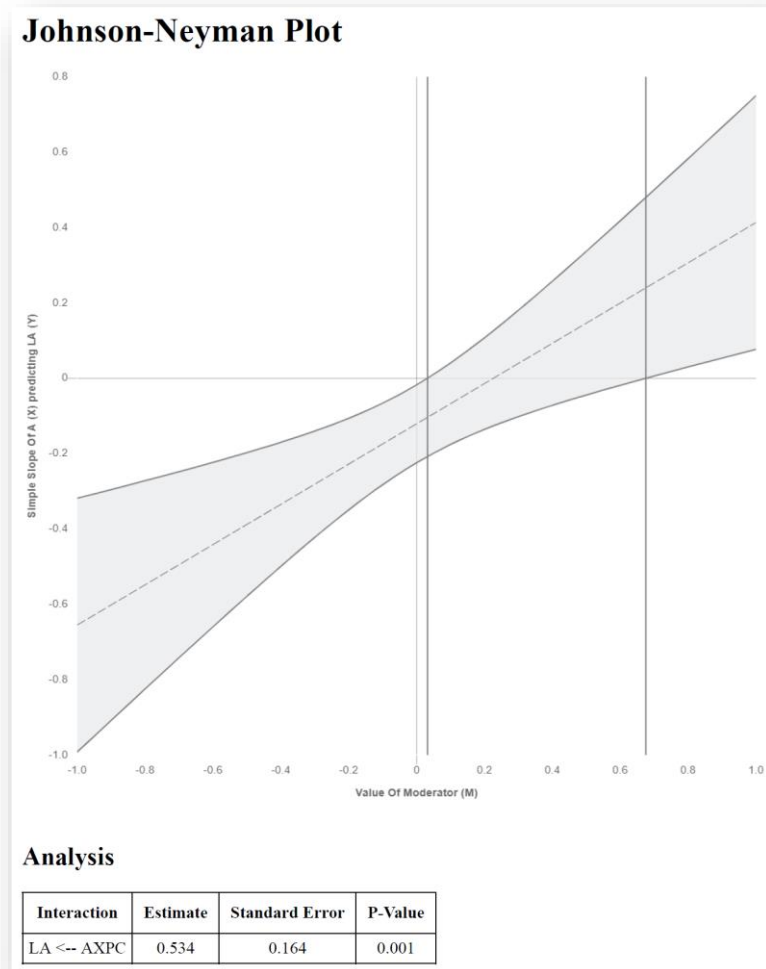
Figure 9. Interaction effect between Agreeableness and perceived performance climate

5.4. Discussion

As we can see later, this study contributes to the expansion of the nomological network of learning agility (Harvey and De Meuse, 2021), especially on the predisposing factors (i.e., personality) and central mechanisms (i.e., learning goal orientation; labelled as "learning mindset") of learning agility (Figure 2). As we have seen in the literature review, albeit inconsistent, there have been a number of research already on these factors in the past. Beyond merely confirming DeRue et al.'s (2012) conceptualisation and the latest line of research with proprietary measurement tools, this study has particularly shown how these factors interact with the environmental conditions.

In the last two decades, extant research mostly revolves around the "value" of learning agility, thus investigating it in terms of how it relates to specific proximal outcomes (e.g., work performance, promotability, high potential identification, leadership success) (De Meuse, 2019; Harvey and De Meuse, 2021). However, in terms of the correlate and contextual factors, more research still needs to be done, i.e., (1) which aspects of personality contribute the most to learning agility and (2) which organisational climate attributes and high potential management practices are most important to supporting learning agility (Harvey and De Meuse, 2021). Hence, in terms of empirical contributions, this study would expand the learning agility body of knowledge by investigating the above-mentioned underlying factors within the nexus of high potential management and organisational climate.

In this part, we are going to look at each factor in parts. Firstly, on the personality and secondly, on the learning goal orientation. After each relationship has been clarified, through the lens of trait activation theory (Tett and Burnett, 2003), their interactions with the perceived organisational climates will be explored. A conclusion on how all these factors eventually correlate to a higher or lower level of learning agility will follow.

Learning agility, personality and its interaction with the work environment
Since learning agility was reconceptualised more than a decade ago by DeRue et al. (2012), a number of follow-up studies investigating the relationship between personality and learning agility have been done (e.g., Mitchinson et al., 2012; Mitchinson and Morris, 2014; Allen, 2016; De Meuse, 2017). Along with these studies, this study has expanded DeRue et al.'s (2012) model by showing that Openness to Experience might not be the only personality trait that correlate with learning agility. This study's hypotheses concerning personality differences in learning agility found mixed results. While the findings confirm previous research on Openness to Experience, Extraversion and Emotionality; this study found puzzling relationships between Honesty-Humility, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness dimensions of personality and learning agility.

As postulated by DeRue et al. (2012), the study's finding on Openness to Experience confirm their assertion. Align with Mitchinson et al. (2012) and Mitchinson and Morris (2014), this study has also found that Openness to Experience positively correlates with learning agility. Individuals with a high score in Openness to Experience scale are inquisitive about various domains of knowledge, use their imagination freely, and take an interest in creative ideas or people (Lee and Ashton, 2004; 2007). Hence, as learning agility requires a degree of flexibility and openness to new knowledge, ideas, experiences and ways of doing things (Hoff and Burke, 2017), being open to new experiences might contradict previous Individuals' learning and experiences, thus, forcing them to adapt to new scenarios (DeRue et al., 2012). Hence, a high degree of Openness to Experience might explain such positive relationship with learning agility.

Beyond Openness to Experience trait, Extraversion and Emotionality traits might also correlate with learning agility (cf. DeRue et al., 2012). Confirming previous research (e.g., Mitchinson et al., 2012; Mitchinson and Morris, 2014), this study has also found that Extraversion positively correlates with learning agility. A high degree of Extraversion in a person might contribute to his/her positive feeling about him/herself, feeling confident when leading or addressing groups of people, enjoying social gatherings and interactions and experiencing positive feelings of enthusiasm (Lee and Ashton, 2004). One feasible explanation is probably due to learning agility itself necessitates interaction with other people (e.g., interpersonal risk-taking, feedback seeking and collaborating dimensions of learning agility, Burke, 2016). Hence, being more open to the sensory stimulation of other people or the situation itself might then contribute to the greater extent of learning agility. Finally, in terms of Emotionality, this study has confirmed Mitchinson and Morris' (2014) findings, that Emotionality negatively correlates with learning agility. Individuals with a low score in the Emotionality scale are not deterred by the prospect of physical harm, emotional-dependency and feel little worry even in stressful situations (Lee and Ashton, 2007). As learning agility requires emotional stability, i.e., some degree of comfort with uncertainty, pressure and conflict management with the competing colleagues (De Meuse, 2017), a low degree of Emotionality might contribute to higher degree of learning agility.

Contrary to the hypotheses, this study found that Honesty-Humility and Agreeableness were negatively, and Conscientiousness was positively associated with learning agility. As learning agility closely relates to communal learning behaviours (Hoff and Burke, 2017), it was initially assumed that individuals with high degree of learning agility are individuals that are 'authentic' or candour in showing "one's own weaknesses" to others (high Honesty-Humility) as well as willing to compromise ones' interests for the benefit of learning (high Agreeableness). In terms of Conscientiousness, it was initially assumed that they would embrace complexity; examine issues from a broad, high-level perspective and tend to be non-linear thinkers rather than organized, planful and detail-oriented individuals (low Conscientiousness). Apparently, as these assumptions were made in isolation, they do not hold. This study findings show that people high in learning agility might be open to 'social manipulation' (low Honesty-Humility), have fewer accommodating behaviours (low Agreeableness) and are more process-driven in terms of achieving goals (high Conscientiousness) (cf. Mitchinson and Morris, 2014). As we can see below, greater clarity might be achieved when we observed the relationships between these factors and learning agility in relation to their interactions with the environment.

It can be argued that findings on Honesty-Humility and Agreeableness can be understood through the lens of social adroitness (Markey and Markey, 2006). Ashton et al. (2000) defined social adroitness as regulation of ones' behaviour to get what they want from others, often through indirect means, e.g., flattery, indirection, reciprocal altruism, politeness and strategic reasoning (Markey and Markey, 2006). It differs from psychopathy in which it is not intrinsically manipulative, but rather refers to a set of social skills to get the most out of people and strategically work with them. Similarly, individuals low in Honesty-Humility and Agreeableness dimensions typically exhibit behaviours of flattering others to get what they want, being more open to social manipulation, outdoing strict rules, feeling of self-importance; as well as being critical of others and welcoming argument to defend their point of view (Lee and Ashton, 2007). In fact, Lee and Ashton (2005) found that Honesty-Humility and Agreeableness were the two strongest factors with negative correlations to social adroitness.

To investigate the relationships even further, additional analyses were made to showcase how the above traits related to the social facets of learning agility: (1) collaborating, (2) interpersonal risk-taking and (3) feedback seeking (Burke, 2016) (Table 17). While all other personality traits (Openness to Experience, Extraversion and Conscientiousness) show significant relationships with every dimension of learning agility, the above interacting three traits (Honesty-Humility, Emotionality and Agreeableness) show some variations as depicted below. (1) Collaborating is about finding ways to work with others to generate unique opportunities for learning. It concerns working directly and complementarily with others, also for the service of learning. (2) Interpersonal risk-taking pertains to discussing differences with others in ways that support learning and change. It is about making oneself vulnerable with others, admitting mistakes, asking for help and, at times, confronting others for the service of learning. Finally, (3) feedback seeking is about asking others for feedback on one's idea and overall performance. It focuses on active solicitation of it. Feedback seeking is the degree to which one asks for input from others regarding his/her areas of strength and improvement.

	Estimate	S.E.	p
Honesty-Humility → Collaborating	-0.089	0.052	0.087
Honesty-Humility → Feedback Seeking	-0.102	0.050	0.044*
Honesty-Humility → Interpersonal Risk-Taking	-0.054	0.045	0.227
Emotionality → Collaborating	-0.142	0.064	0.026*
Emotionality → Feedback Seeking	0.043	0.062	0.487
Emotionality → Interpersonal Risk-Taking	0.000	0.055	0.996
Agreeableness → Collaborating	-0.138	0.058	0.018*
Agreeableness → Feedback Seeking	-0.011	0.056	0.850
Agreeableness → Interpersonal Risk-Taking	-0.213	0.050	0.000*

Level of Significance: (+) p<0.100, (*) p<0.050, (**) p<0.010, (***) p<0.001.

Table 17. Summary of estimates between personality traits correlating with the social facets of learning agility

Looking at the significant relationships, individuals with a low degree of Honesty-Humility tend to have more self-entitlement (Paul et al., 2022), thus might correlate with their behaviour in seeking feedback from others on their performance. In order to achieve their 'social goals,' due to their low degree of Honesty-Humility trait, they are more open to flattering others in order to

get what they want socially. Although they feel entitled to feedback and look for it, they might not necessarily want to be seen as vulnerable (e.g., showing their mistake or lack of knowledge or skill). As they have a low degree of Agreeableness, they might be more critical of others and welcome arguments to 'showcase' their point of view (Paul et al., 2022). As we can see in Table 17, low Agreeableness correlates with a higher degree of collaborative and interpersonal risk-taking behaviours as these learning agility behavioural dimensions might provide an 'avenue' to fulfil such needs (i.e., working directly and complementarily with others, discussing and confronting differences with others). Finally, the significant relationship between Emotionality and Collaborating might also support this explanation. Since learning agility requires emotional stability, i.e., some degree of comfort with uncertainty, pressure and conflict management with others (De Meuse, 2017), a low degree of Emotionality might contribute to a higher degree of collaborative behaviour of learning agility. As we will see in the next paragraph, these behaviours of flattery, self-promotion, being self-entitled and critical of others might be related to the 'social expectations' surrounding them as high potential employees.

As mentioned before in the Research Methodology chapter, our study participants were all identified as "high potential employees". Hence, looking from the perspective of trait activation theory, the organisational context might also activate the above-mentioned traits. A recent meta-analysis (Finkelstein et al., 2018) suggested that one of the key aspects of high potential employee identification is social competence or social effectiveness. High potential employees are "constantly on the watch," thus, need to be socially adept, able to persuade and inspire diverse constituencies to navigate the sometimes-choppy political waters of the organisation (ibid.). Impression management (particularly the use of ingratiation, self-promotion and intimidation strategies, Jones and Pittman, 1982) was also noted as one of the determining factors that could accelerate or impede ones' chance to make on the "High potential list" (Finkelstein et al., 2018). This context might also explain the study's finding of Conscientiousness being positively associated with learning agility. Individuals who score high in Conscientiousness scale put their focus in orderly surroundings or schedules and might not be too comfortable

with error in their work effort (Lee and Ashton, 2004; 2007). Confirming Mitchinson and Morris' (2014) research that shows people high in learning agility are more process-driven in terms of achieving goals; low self-control, low Conscientiousness, and low motivation were also found to be characteristics directly antithetical to the requirement and image of a high potential employee (Finkelstein et al., 2007; Roehling et al., 2013).

Looking from the perspective of trait activation theory, this study found further support for the social adroitness argument of learning agility in the examination of the interaction effect between Honesty-Humility and perceived mastery climate. This study shows that mastery climate weakens the negative relationship between Honesty-Humility and learning agility. It can be argued that the collegial nature of mastery climate (Ames, 1992a) weakens or prohibits the individuals' social adroitness and impression management to socially manipulate, strategically reason and flatter others to get what they want. A similar conclusion can be drawn based on this study finding on the stronger impact of Agreeableness on learning agility based on performance climates. The negative relationship between Agreeableness and learning agility was weakened in performance climates. One possible argument here is that a performance climate promotes competitive interdependence among individuals due to interpersonal competition; thus, it may undermine the need for relatedness (Černe et al., 2014; 2017). Being in a performance climate might then weaken that negative relationship as it is more of an autonomous climate and involves more competition; and not so much of "working with others" (Nicholls, 1984; Roberts, 2012). This is in alignment with Judge and Zapata's (2015) research on the relationship between Agreeableness and the job demand of being independent in completing work. There is no need to be less agreeable (i.e., being critical of others, welcoming arguments to defend their point of view, feeling anger readily in response to mistreatment) in an autonomous environment. Thus, when the environment is autonomous and competitive, the relationship between Agreeableness and valued work behaviour is "restricted" (Tett and Burnett, 2003).

Under the same line of arguments of social adroitness, this study has also found that the employees' perceived mastery climate strengthened the negative

relationship between Emotionality and learning agility. As organisational mastery climate is "psychologically safer" for individuals to make mistakes and learn from the experience (Edmondson, 2003; Detert and Edmondson, 2011), it can be argued that such "safety" might strengthen the above "calmness" characteristic of low Emotionality trait that is associated with learning agility. Other research examining the interaction between Emotionality and the organisational environment seems to suggest the same conclusion. Judge and Zapata (2015) also found that emotional stability was significantly valued in occupations requiring strong social skills, particularly those that require dealing with unpleasant people. Other research found that the relationship between emotional stability trait and valued work behaviour (i.e., performance) is strengthened when there is rapid growth, change and uncertainty within the organisation (i.e., innovativeness element, Ostroff, 1993). On the contrary, when the environment is more predictable or "mechanistic," the organisation doesn't 'necessitate' such personality traits; thus, the relationship between the trait and valued work behaviour is "restricted" (Tett and Burnett, 2003). As mentioned before, learning agility demands a degree of comfort with uncertainty, pressure and conflict management. Thus, the finding suggests that this can be due to personality differences, the effect of which may be enhanced/suppressed in organisational settings.

The above three interactions expand our understanding of the boundary condition of learning agility postulated in Harvey and De Meuse's (2021) nomological network. They clarify which and how personality traits interact with the organisational climate in support of a higher degree of learning agility. Further, they also contextualise these climate interactions in relation to the organisations' high potential management practices. As mentioned before, this study encompasses quantitative and qualitative data collection methods with two different groups of participants. While the quantitative was conducted with the high potential employees, the qualitative was conducted with the senior HR leader of those employees, investigating their role and HR practices in building the climate. Learning from the latter, a minor theme also emerged clarifying the organisations' 'expectations' of their high potential employees to be socially adroit (Finkelstein et al., 2018). Interestingly, these expectations also pose some tensions at the end of the day as the high potential employees are

also expected to balance it (i.e., being socially adroit) with execution, follow-through and planning. These proximal outcomes are beyond what is currently being defined as "learning agility" by Hoff and Burke (2017) or captured in DeRue et al. (2012) or Harvey and De Meuse's (2021) models.

Aligned with Finkelstein et al. (2018), some participants mentioned about the expectations that their organisations have toward their high potential employees; and how they eventually influence the high potential identification and designation process. According to the HR managers in this study, high potential employees are perceived as individuals with a lot of knowledge/skills, experiences and novel ideas. They work harder than their counterparts to seek and bring about changes. Initiating something different and maintaining a good, credible image are deemed important for high potential employees. Some excerpts are as below:

> *The [main] characteristic of our high potential employees is that they are very keen on learning. Not just from a book but also their work experience. They need to apply it [what they have learned], propose an improvement, sell their idea… Our high potentials also exert more effort in working. They are working harder and much more than others. Besides that, they are also actively building and leveraging their network to look for and discuss their ideas. (Participant 31)*

> *We expect our high potential employees to deliver more. They need to look outside, be up to date with technological advancements and then relate these back to their role in the company. They need to have these kinds of habits. (Participant 21)*

Learning from the participants, due to such expectation, the high potential employees are perceived as seeking continuous exposure. They aspire to be heard, understood and in constant communication with their manager. They need to be widely acknowledged or to be at the 'centre stage' of the

organisation. According to the participants, these needs can be perceived as a manifestation of their social strategy to maintain managerial 'presence' and stay relevant within the higher circle of leadership. Some excerpts are as below:

We know their [high potential employees] needs. They need empowerment, engagement and exposure. They want to be trusted with considerable responsibilities, where they can also manage the risk at the same time. They want freedom to act within that framework. They want to be "at the stage." They want to be seen and acknowledged by other people. Finally, they want to be heard, understood, and constantly communicate with their manager. (Participant 3)

Proactivity [i.e., being socially present] helps them to make a progressive career… I do not know about it in other countries, but in Indonesia, based on my observation, most "high-flyers" are like that. They like to kickstart something new but [unfortunately,] might not like to finish it. (Participant 19)

While being socially adroit might be important for their 'survival' and sustainability in the pool of high potential employees, there were also clear accentuations regarding the need to execute and finish what they have started, i.e., delivering actual, improved work results. The participants claimed that the high potential employees' perseverance to finish a project, from the beginning to the end, is something of value. It is about having an implementation discipline and not just about "grandiosely" starting a new initiative. Some excerpts are as below:

One of the challenges in building our learning culture... Looking at the current [high potential employees] profile, frankly speaking, it is more of an "instant" generation. So, if we see learning as a journey and not just a destination, we struggle to find 'loyal' people. People that stick with

the work and consistently perform, not just incidentally!
(Participant 1)

Another problem is the paradigm of success. Focusing on superficial qualities, such as... initiating different projects. Sometimes people think that these are good. They [high potential employees] have a good performance track. But the real question is, do they actually finish it? To really have one [good performance track], they need to also show discipline…. Let's say… Every day they will go and do this project step-by-step until it is finished. I [i.e., the participant putting him/herself in the position of high potential employees] want everything to be fast, flashy and good for my image... Thus, they [high potential employees] sometimes cannot accept if we ask them to continue the project... We want them to finish a project and not just start it and let others finish it.... So, high potential employees need to be aware of this. (Participant 18)

Finally, aside from execution and follow-through, planning and following the right 'process' are also deemed important by the participants. While flexibility and experimentation are important learning agility dimensions, some of the participants from research-heavy industries still acknowledged the importance of established work processes. "Sticking" to a process and not relying on mere intuition were perceived by one of the participants to be important in maintaining a consistent level of delivery. Looking back to the earlier discussion on Conscientiousness being positively correlated with learning agility, these excerpts might shed some light on explaining the relationship. Being conscientious is still contextually critical; hence might contribute to a higher degree of learning agility. Some excerpts are as below:

Personal factors such as the employees' ego... We have a case of an employee whose strength has been strongly acknowledged by his/her surrounding. When she/he says something, his/her peers take it fully as it is and skip the

process. Unfortunately, this did not end well. The results were not good. So, intuition is acceptable, but more often than not, doing the right process is also important. (Participant 26)

The process is very important to be done correctly. Focus on the end result is there, but being fast is, again, not enough. When we used to do something, we tend to skip some processes and rely solely on intuition; moreover, if the person doing it is our high potential employee, that is an expert in his/her field. However, a number of failures in the past were attributable to this kind of mistake. So, we learn that process, or doing something right, is also very important. (Participant 24)

Learning agility, learning goal orientation and its interaction with the environment

This study's hypotheses concerning goal orientation differences in learning agility found partial results. As hypothesised, mastery and performance goal orientations significantly related with learning agility, but not when they are interacted with the environment (i.e., perceived motivational climates).

Confirming previous research, mastery goal orientation positively correlates with learning agility. Extant research (e.g., De Meuse et al., 2010; DeRue et al., 2012; VandeWalle, 2012; Davis et al., 2013) found that mastery orientation contributes to the increase in learning motivation, experimentation and the propensity to learn from developmental experiences, hence, might explain the positive relationship between mastery orientation and learning agility. When it comes to performance goal orientation, this study found that is negatively correlated with learning agility. Echoing previous research (e.g., Elliot et al., 2011; Davis et al., 2013; Gillet et al., 2015), due to the individual's emphasis on meeting the performance standard, this orientation has been found to be correlated with negative learning emotions, such as worry and anxiety, thus, reducing the efficacy. Davis et al. (2013) explains that individuals who score high on performance orientation might avoid adaptive behaviour or challenging

role (i.e., learning agility's experimentation and performance risk- taking behaviours, Hoff and Burke, 2017) out of a desire to avoid failure of the newly adopted behaviour and being criticized for that, hence, might explain the negative relationship with learning agility.

Although the relationships between learning goal orientations and learning agility have previously been established, referring to Harvey and De Meuse's (2021) nomological network (Figure 2), one specific area that needs to be clarified further is about the relationships of those orientations with each of the learning agility behavioural dimension. Continuing the previous analysis of the dispositions at the behaviour level (as opposed to the construct level), the study found mastery orientation significantly and positively correlates with all nine learning agility dimensions. On the other hand, performance orientation significantly and negatively correlates with all but feedback seeking (Table 18).

	Estimate	S.E.	p
Mastery goal orientation → Collaborating	0.256	0.056	0.000*
Mastery goal orientation → Feedback Seeking	0.207	0.052	0.000*
Mastery goal orientation → Interpersonal Risk-Taking	0.190	0.047	0.000*
Performance goal orientation → Collaborating	-0.047	0.021	0.026*
Performance goal orientation → Feedback Seeking	-0.009	0.019	0.636
Performance goal orientation → Interpersonal Risk-Taking	-0.046	0.017	0.008*

Level of Significance: (+) p<0.100, (*) p<0.050, (**) p<0.010, (***) p<0.001.

Table 18. Summary of estimates between learning goal orientations correlating with the social facets of learning agility

In the context of high potential management research, a recent meta-analytic study by VandeWalle et al. (2019) argued that learning goal orientation had been one of the significant predictors of leadership potential. In her latest work, Dweck (2016) asserted that individuals who believe their potentials are malleable (rather than fixed) have a higher degree of development and performance improvement potency primarily due to being more open and attentive to others' feedback. Their goals might be less about using it to determine if they were successful and more about what they can learn from it to be more effective in the future. Specifically on mastery orientation, the relationships between the orientation and feedback-seeking behaviour have

long been established. VandeWalle et al. (2000) found that mastery orientation was positively related to feedback-seeking behaviour (as opposed to performance orientation), even if the feedback is negative (Farr et al., 1993; VandeWalle and Cummings, 1997). VandeWalle et al. (2001) also found that mastery orientation contributes to improved performance after receiving feedback as it was positively related with the individuals' learning effort, self-efficacy, and goal setting level. Finally, besides being receptive to feedback; DeRue and Wellman (2009) and Wong et al. (2012) concluded that individuals with high mastery orientation are also more likely to have a greater capacity to reflect on and learn from challenging workplace experiences.

In the learning agility literature itself (De Meuse et al., 2010; DeRue et al., 2012; VandeWalle, 2012; Davis et al., 2013; Hoff and Burke, 2017; De Meuse, 2019; Harvey and De Meuse, 2021), feedback-seeking behaviour has been widely acknowledged to be an important element of learning agility. Regarding the relationships between learning goal orientations and feedback-seeking behaviour, the study found that mastery orientation positively correlates with the behaviour, while performance orientation does not (Table 18). The study would argue that we could look at these results from the perspectives of social adroitness and the social context these high potential employees face in the organisations. Individuals scoring high in mastery orientation might perceive the 'value' of feedback more positively and the 'cost' of seeking it less negatively than those high in performance orientation. Hence, a feedback-seeking effort's overall cost-benefit ratio is likely stronger and more positive for those high in learning agility. While the information on what one does well (i.e., positive feedback) may be ego and socially enhancing, learning what one needs to do better (i.e., negative feedback) is typically more helpful in enhancing performance (Finkelstein and Fishbach, 2012). A meta-analysis conducted by Anseel et al. (2015) found that those with high mastery orientation frequently seek feedback, particularly negative feedback. Individuals who proactively seek feedback to figure out how to improve their performance take a less ego-involved orientation. Their response to feedback, especially the negative ones, is more productive than those who do not seek feedback (Ashford et al., 2016; DeNisi and Sockbeson, 2018). Therefore, individuals high in learning agility would likely place greater weight on the learning opportunity feedback provides

and, therefore, often seek feedback, even in the face of the risk of receiving negative feedback.

Conclusion

In the last two decades, extant research mostly revolves around the "value" of learning agility, thus investigating it in terms of how it relates to specific proximal outcomes (e.g., work performance, promotability, high potential identification, leadership success) (De Meuse, 2019; Harvey and De Meuse, 2021). However, more research still needs to be done in terms of the correlate and contextual factors (ibid.). The study's findings and analysis in this chapter contribute to the learning agility body of knowledge by investigating the underlying factors (i.e., personality traits and learning goal orientations) within the nexus of high potential management practice and organisational climate.

In terms of personality, the study has expanded DeRue et al.'s (2012) initial model by showing that Openness to Experience might not be the only personality trait correlated with learning agility. Confirming past research (Mitchinson et al., 2012; Mitchinson and Morris, 2014), Extraversion, Emotionality, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness traits also correlate with learning agility in different directions. The study also found Honesty-Humility trait is negatively related to learning agility; a direction against the study's initial hypothesis. To explain this and the following interaction relationships between the traits and the motivational climates, the study offers an explanation through the lens of social adroitness (Markey and Markey, 2006). At the behavioural level (as opposed to the construct level), additional analyses were made to showcase how the above traits related to the social facets of learning agility. The study eventually suggests that social adroitness and the possible individual impression management behaviours (Jones and Pittman, 1982) might be related to the 'social expectations' surrounding them as high potential employees. As high potential employees are managed through constant managerial observation, they need to be socially adroit to navigate the possible political environment of the organisation (Finkelstein et al., 2018). Finally, a thematic analysis was also done to accentuate and illustrate the same organisational contexts these high potential employees face in their organisation.

In terms of learning goal orientation, the study confirms the previous research on mastery orientation was positively, and performance orientation was negatively associated with learning agility. Although these relationships have been well established, referring to Harvey and De Meuse's (2021) nomological network, one specific area that needs to be clarified further is the relationships of those orientations with each learning agility behavioural dimensions. The study found mastery orientation significantly and positively correlates with all nine learning agility dimensions; while performance orientation only significantly and negatively correlates with most of them. Looking at the social facets of learning agility, the relationship between performance orientation and feedback seeking is not statistically significant. The study would argue that such a result can be seen from the perspectives of social adroitness as well. Individuals high in mastery orientation (thus, high in learning agility) would likely place greater weight on the learning opportunity feedback provides and, therefore, often seek feedback, even in the face of the risk of receiving negative feedback.

6. The Practices and Role of the HRM function in Establishing Climate that Supports Learning Agility

<u>Introduction</u>

Under the main research question (*i.e., what the personal and environmental factors that are associated with high potential employees' learning agility?*), the study's overall aims were twofold. Firstly, to explain which personality and motivational characteristics are associated with the high potential employees' learning agility and how these differ by the organisational perceived contexts (i.e., mastery and performance climates). Secondly, to explore the role of Human Resource Management (HRM) in establishing organisational climates conducive to learning agility. In this chapter, following the quantitative data analysis, the participants' qualitative responses will be presented and analysed to address the second research objective.

Based on the literature review conducted before, there are two areas of inquiry that would be explored further in the second part of the study: (1) From a managerial perspective, **<u>how</u>** could HRM function 'orchestrate' or align its practices to establish the organisational climate that is conducive to learning agility and (2) **<u>which</u>** HR practices that would be supportive toward a 'strong' and 'unified' organisational climate. Referring to the quantitative findings and analysis in the previous chapter (Table 19), the study has found that (1) grouped by the participants' organisations, the occurrence of perceived mastery climate was consistently higher than performance climate; and (2) mastery climate (not performance climate) was significantly and positively related with learning agility. Hence, in this chapter, the analysis of the HRM function role and practices would be focused on how they could establish the organisation's mastery climate.

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.892	.194		9.734	<.001		
	H	-.151	.025	-.111	-5.964	<.001	.820	1.219
	E	-.088	.023	-.068	-3.890	<.001	.924	1.083
	X	.308	.025	.238	12.252	<.001	.755	1.324
	A	-.101	.023	-.075	-4.329	<.001	.937	1.068
	C	.221	.027	.157	8.158	<.001	.774	1.293
	O	.276	.021	.231	13.035	<.001	.903	1.107
	MASTGO	.074	.020	.082	3.786	<.001	.612	1.633
	PERFGO	-.037	.011	-.074	-3.325	<.001	.575	1.738
	MCMAST	.221	.024	.174	9.129	<.001	.783	1.277
	MCPERF	.015	.016	.018	.953	.341	.764	1.309

a. Dependent Variable: LA

Table 19. Multiple regression analysis of factors related to learning agility

This chapter would be divided into two main sub-chapters, which are about (1) the role of HRM function in aligning its practices to establish mastery climate and (2) the practices that support the establishment of such climate.

6.1. The role of HRM function in the establishment of mastery climate

Through thematic analysis of participants' responses, there were three main theoretical categories or "themes" emerged from the data, which as we will see in this section revolve around the alignment between different organisational constituents. As we can see in below data structure (Figure 10), there are three themes building up to congruent organisational perception which are alignment (1) between HRM function and the senior management team; (2) between HRM sub-functions and (3) between HRM function and the employees.
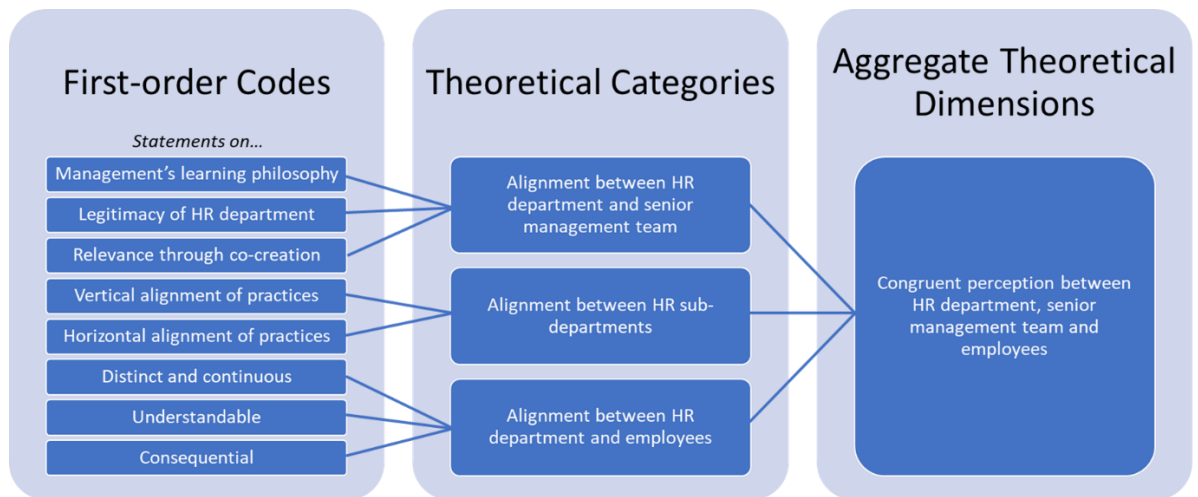
Figure 10. Data structure "how"

6.1.1. Alignment between HRM function and senior management team

The first theme that emerged is about how HRM function aligns with the senior management team in order to establish the intended organisational climate (i.e., mastery climate). As we can see later, there would be three sets of statements that emerged from the participants, which are statements on the (1) management's learning philosophy, (2) legitimacy of HR authority and (3) relevance through co-creation.

The first set of statements that emerged revolve around the agreement amongst principal HRM decision-makers – which are the top management, HR leadership team as well as the employees' supervisor – regarding the need and the purposes of those practices. A number of participants attributed such degree of importance when it comes to how far these decision-makers "align" with each other. An illustrative excerpt is as below:

> *When we moved toward learning agile organisation, the understanding was not uniform. We prioritised who needs to understand it first-hand, and we started from the Executive Committee team. Now, they started to see that it is the right setup for the organisation (Participant 12).*

"Leaders," in general, are deemed by the participants to be the role model of the intended learning context that the organisation wants to establish. As we can see below, their "supportive" behaviours are deemed contributing to the

employees' behaviours. Here, one of the participants even mentioned leadership as one of the key elements to establish the intended climate as it is able to "permeate" across different kinds of organisational arrangements (e.g., structure). An illustrative excerpt is as below:

> *As the culture is already agile, adding another layer of accountability to the structure apparently did not affect the speed too much, such as creating bureaucracy. That is why I think culture is the most important thing. Culture is like "monkey see monkey do." If people see their leaders decisive, everyone will do the same thing. Hence, I am currently focusing on the leaders. What I learned is whatever the structure, if the leader's quality is good, the same cadence, speed, flexibility will still take place. (Participant 09)*

An interesting notion that emerged from the interview is, such "agreement" on the Principles of the HR architecture (Posthuma et al., 2013), goes beyond the current management team. Some of the participants that claimed their organisations adopting mastery climate acknowledged that it goes a long way up to their organisations' "founder's philosophy." They claimed that these founders already showcased a specific focus regarding the intended learning context (with catchphrases such as: "growth mindset," "focus on people development," "learning organisation," etc.) since the very beginning. These Principles were then continuously "descended" or passed down to the next generation of business owners and management team. Some of the participants acknowledged that such "tradition" or agreement across generations of leaders is what makes their learning context strong and distinct. Some illustrative excerpts are as below:

> *In building a culture, we need at least three things: Mindset, competency and governance. We need to have the same mindset, and this can be built through role model of our top leaders. Even since the conception of our company, our founders have already been focusing on learning. We already have Management Trainee program since 1980s as they knew*

that, in the future, the organisation needs to grow leaders from within. This growth mindset originates and is continuously being descended from our founders to our leaders. There is a continuous attention on this mindset within our coaching philosophy. Another evidence is that our training centre has been established for more than 30 years; and we already worked with the universities to provide Corporate MBA for our high potential employees since a very long time ago. (Participant 01)

We are thankful that our founder, BOC/BOD and leaders believe in people development. They see that "people" is the core of this company and they invest their time and money in developing the leadership skills of our employees. One example is that our company invests in a very expensive executive coaching program for our senior leaders... Even our own CEO himself takes a lengthy Certified Coach program. These are for the top-level leaders. For other levels, we have internal coach development program as well as cross-functional peer-coaching. We try to integrate the latter with their career progression. For example, we have one person who is being developed to be a Production Manager, we assigned him a peer-coach from Sales and Marketing to enrich his perspective and ensure he is ready for the role. I am surprised that this initiative has been replicated independently within the unit itself to even lower-level leaders. (Participant 26)

The second set of statements is about how such belief of the senior management team might influence their adoption of the HR practices and the legitimacy of HRM function's authority in the same time. 'HR authority' itself could be defined as how employees perceive the credibility and status levels of the HR practices, systems, functions, or agents (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004). Some participants accentuated the importance of the leaders' personal use or involvement in these practices and how it might support the HRM function's

authority or "credibility" in front of the employees. Some illustrative excerpts are as below:

> *Nevertheless, leaders play a big role in showing what matters. One time there is one leader thought the importance of learning. To mitigate the lack of budget, he created a sharing knowledge event between his own team… It works! Therefore, leader is the key to success here… If the leaders use and encourage the use of HR tools… When they agree, support and follow-up the HR initiatives, then the implementation would be good. The example was IDP [Individual Development Plan] exercise. If they are using it on their own and encourage their staffs to do it, then it will be a successful initiative... (Participant 27)*

> *Really dependant or contingent to the leaders' quality. One of the examples is our Customer Experience department. The passion of the leader is to teach. They believe that a way to achieve excellence is to have the right capability. Hence, they run their own academy, even using their own headcount. As this kind of behaviour is still uneven, we started to cross-pollinate conversations amongst the leaders to build the same level of passion of development. (Participant 08)*

According to the participants, building the legitimacy of HRM function's authority could also be done through sharing the success story of the HRM function establishing the mastery climate. Such actions, especially when they are done "through" the senior leadership team, were claimed to impact the participation and engagement rates of the employees positively. Some illustrative excerpts are as below:

> *We call them "sarasehan [eng: sharing together in a close and intimate circle]." In 1 year, we can have up to 22 "sarasehan."*
> *In these events, the CEO himself meet and discuss with the employees about the philosophies and expectations [to learn];*

as well as hearing [work] grievances from them. We learned that direct communication matters [in instilling the learning philosophy]. (Participant 14)

When we are starting out, we piloted the transformation in the "budget" stream. We shared the success stories as well as the key learnings through a leadership townhall. After that, we continue into other streams. There were a lot of transitionary courses [attended by employees from multiple departments]; along with all of the discussions and confusions. Prioritisation is important here. There was no specific formula, we just learn-by-doing, discuss and adjust along the way. (Participant 12)

The third set of statements is about how HRM function could achieve "relevance" by co-creating the practices with the senior management team. "Relevance" itself can be understood as the degree of perception of how far the HR practices are useful, significant, and relevant to the "users" of those practices (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004). As we can see in the previous sets of statements, involving the "users" is deemed critical to build their understanding and adoption of the practices. Participants have mentioned the importance of mapping and understanding the "target audience," as well as prioritising the conversation from there early enough (i.e., starting from the senior management team). In this sense, the participants also acknowledged the importance of establishing a close communication "clique" with the management team or regular meetings with them to secure the "buy-in" toward implementing the HR practices. Some illustrative comments are as follow:

I created a communication group with HR Heads from the other sub-holding companies. I checked the [learning] needs and wants of the employees. Besides that, we also have a communication group with the Senior Directors. Securing their buy-in early enough is very critical to ensure implementation. Being one team or partnering with them is very important. We need to always align with them. (Participant 29)

In this PMO [Project Management Office] team, we have a "cadence" weekly meeting. Every BOD [Board of Director] is committed to fully attend this meeting. If department A does something, other departments will know about it as well... We asked the high potential employees in HR and Finance to share their knowledge to other departments. This is to ensure cross-functional learning takes place. (Participant 22)

From the interview, the "relevance" itself seems to be anchored to the "users" needs. Being sensitive and considerate to "users'" needs (or "pain points") – both now and in the future -- are considered as important starting points to design relevant HR practices; not just what the HRM function used to deliver. Some illustrative comments are as follow:

Previously, [in identifying learning needs] our HR team doesn't think from the perspective of the business users. We changed this by spending more time with the other department leaders, trying to investigate their pain points. We start from what they need rather than what we can do. (Participant 31)

One example is when we launched a new "flexi" or personalised insurance benefit. We involved a number of [support] departments like Procurement and Finance but not the business [i.e., other departments related to the operation of the company]. Due to hasty launching and not engaging them early enough, it was a bit chaotic as the managers do not understand the new benefit. To fix that, we eventually need to step back [i.e., to understand their needs], increase our communication efforts and invite all our managers to introduce and discuss the insurance product. What we learn is that sometimes HR thinks that we know, or assume we know, our customers' needs. (Participant 13)

Following the above theme of users' "needs" in building the intended mastery climate, another dominant set of statements that follows is about the need to

"co-create" or "refine" the HR practices with the senior management team to achieve such relevance. It is deemed important by the participants to stay "vigilant" to the "users'" real, continuously changing needs. There is a clear need to keep validating the HRM function's assumption here (Dank and Hellstrom, 2020). Again, by involving the users early enough, some of the participants mentioned that it might contribute to their support and early adoption of the practices. We can observe the same idea when the participants spoke about their challenges on the lack (as well as delay) of two-way communication. Regardless of how well the "intention" or design, these issues are deemed inhibiting employees understanding and effectiveness of the HR practices. Some illustrative comments are as follow:

> *Stakeholder management. The worst thing you can do is to just sit down, design and do your HR program. You need to get out, walk and discuss with other departments, such as operation, sales, etc. We just need to make sure our program is "half-baked" and ask for their input to improve. When it is being implemented, it would make them feel that it is not just HR's but their program as well. We call them a spirit of "co-creation." (Participant 31)*

> *I believe the common problem in many companies is the delay or even the absence of feedback loop… When we create an HR initiative, sometimes it's challenging to get the feedback from the employees… What we did is we visit our work unit or branch to investigate HR issues happening there. But it was already a long-outdated issue that we never knew about. If they report it just-in-time, the solution would be much better and faster. My team's willingness is there, but this is not enough. It was more to us chasing their needs, hence making "HR as business partner" as another rhetorical statement. (Participant 02)*

Aligned with the notion of "Agile HR" mentioned by Dank and Hellstrom (2020), the participants also acknowledged a shift in terms of how the HRM function launch and manage their practices; again, to ensure relevance with the "users'"

continuously changing needs. Rather than accentuating to have a time-consuming and detailed planning upfront, this "new" way of work necessitates the HRM function to be flexible toward the employees' feedback along the way. Launching a practice in a "prototype" state as soon as possible and adjusting it to employees' feedback, when and if it comes, is perceived by the participants as the ideal. Some participants equated being relevant as being fast and "just-in-time;" although they still acknowledged the importance of ensuring the "baseline" quality of work and managing the risk. Some illustrative comments are as follow:

> *In an organisation as big as ours, having an agile "working pattern" integrated in HRM function [structure] would be the most appropriate way going forward. It's like a Scrum team in IT department. We want to avoid a "waterfall approach" that heavily emphasises? on planning and a "big bang" delivery, as it takes a long time, hence, the [employees'] issue [that we handle] might not be relevant anymore. (Participant 01)*

> *The way we work now is to put stronger emphasis on launching an initiative early and then adding on to it later step-by-step. We are then looking for our employees' feedbacks every step of the way to improve our initiative that has been launched earlier. We are accepting the fact that it is okay not to be perfect at the first launch. While ensuring the baseline quality and managing the risk, we believe it is better for us to deliver something, or anything, fast rather than delivering something perfect but taking a long time. (Participant 01)*

To conclude, looking on the participants' statements above, an establishment of mastery climate calls for more than alignment between the HRM function and the senior management team. Mastery climate fosters employees' effort and cooperation in learning, development and skill mastery (Nicholls, 1984; Ames, 1992a; 1992b). To achieve a 'strong' and 'unified' climate, the participants seem to suggest that it needs to be firstly rooted back to the senior management team's own philosophy or belief on the importance of learning

(management's learning philosophy). This belief is deemed critical as it supports their own adoption, as well as the managerial communication of the practices, that in turns, build the overall legitimacy of the HRM function (legitimacy of HR authority). In relation to building the intended organisational climate, Bowen and Ostroff (2004) postulated that an effective HRM system aligns employees' perceptions and builds a strong-shared meaning about the desired behaviours and attitudes that would consequently contribute to the organisational outcomes. According to Bowen and Ostroff (2004), individuals try to form attributions about causal relationships when the information about practices or situations are distinctive (observed by everyone), consistent (the same across time and facets) and consensual (agreed by everyone). Looking at the data presented before, the alignment between HRM function and the senior management team addresses this consensual feature.

As we can see in the participants' quotes as well (e.g., Participant 14 on series of employees' "sarasehan" with the CEO himself), the role of senior management team in "instilling" the learning philosophy is deemed critical. When it comes to learning agility (e.g., in this context, knowledge sharing behaviour), participants seem to accentuate the attitudinal and behavioural commitments of the leaders. Bircham-Connolly et al. (2005) found that leadership plays a pivotal role in promoting and cultivating such knowledge sharing behaviour; through contributing to employee's experiential learning and through providing opportunities for and managing the processes whereby their staff share or transfer their knowledge. When it comes to bundled of HR practices, Kim and Chang (2009) also found that congruent leadership; along with management communication, performance-based reward, knowledge sharing and learning culture; appear to increase innovation capacity of the organisation. Referring to the HR architecture elaborated before (Posthuma et al., 2013), Principles is the first and the overriding level of HR architecture that serves as a guiding value or philosophy for the HR system to achieve the organisation's objectives. Having an overarching philosophy; for example in terms of a mission statement and HR strategy; is found to be supportive toward the establishment of learning climate (Den Hartog and Verburg, 2004). Scott-Ladd and Chan (2004) found that such congruence could be achieved through the senior management team modelling the desired behaviours and providing

appropriate rewards. Through such mechanism (leadership role modelling), employees learn to trust management sufficiently to initiate an innovative experimentation within a mastery climate, even when it involves risk-taking (Scott-Ladd and Chan, 2004; Nerstad et al., 2018b).

Finally, ensuring "relevance" was also one of the key ideas when it comes to building the intended mastery climate. Beyond continuous two-way communication that anchor the practices to employees' needs, this is achieved through co-creating the HR practices with the senior management team (relevance through co-creation). Employees, who have a clear "line of sight" about how the SHRD is tied with organisational strategy and its change agenda, also hold the belief that learning is valued there and the organisation does invest in their development; thus, experiencing a more positive psychological climate (Herd et al., 2018). When employees have "individual voice behaviour" (i.e., individuals' discretionary communication of ideas), it facilitates collective learning (Morrison et al., 2011). "Keeping everybody on the same page," in essence, relies on individuals' information sharing; hence, played a central role in building the intended (mastery) climate (Lai and Yang, 2017).

6.1.2. Alignment between HR sub-functions

The second theoretical category or "theme" that emerged is about the alignment within the HRM function itself. As we would see later, there are two sets of statements that emerge from the participants, which are about "vertical" and "horizontal" alignment of HR practices. "Vertical" is about alignment between the different level of previously mentioned HR architecture (from the level of Principles to Product), and "horizontal" is about alignment between the different sub-functions under HRM function.

The first set of statements under this theme is about the vertical alignment of HR practices. When being asked on the steps to build mastery climate in their organisation, the participants spoke about the alignment between the different levels of their HR architecture; from the level of function's guiding Principles to the level of Policies, Practices and Products. The same strategic intent to build a climate that fosters learning and knowledge sharing was deemed important to be "reflected" when they set up their HR policies and implement

their HR practices. Here, participants also talked about selecting the right partner and ensuring the relevant facilities and technological infrastructure in place. These are acknowledged as important by the participants to achieve such alignment between those levels. Some illustrative comments are as follow:

Principles: *The most important thing is the spirit of learning new things. Started more than 20 years ago, the interview questions from the founder showed that we are a learning organisation. How do you share? What books do you like to read? This same criterion [would then] exist consistently in our HR policies… Let's say in our recruitment practices, for example the way we interview people, etc.… (Participant 14)*

Policies: *Everything that the HRM function does must be aligned to create that learning climate. HR policy must be supportive, e.g., during COVID19, we need to restrict business travel for education purpose. If we do not give ample room for them to connect with each other, or facilitate that learning, we can't sustain the culture. (Participant 18)*

Practices: *We put the expected [learning agile] values as one of the important factors in our performance appraisal process. Not just in terms of managing their performance and rewarding them, development and promotion would also "stem" from these values acquisition by the employees. (Participant 24)*

Products: *The second is about the competency to learn and adapt. Our development focuses on how we can learn better, build internal learning motivation and having a mindfulness to learn. The third is about governance. When we ask people to learn, we need to prepare the policies and facilities to support it, such as online, mobile and collaborative learning platforms, etc. This comprehensive approach will then build our high potential employees' previously mentioned will, skills and attitude to learn. (Participant 01)*

Beyond what has been postulated in Posthuma et al.'s HR architecture (2013), the participants in this interview also mentioned about horizontal alignment of

HR practices, which is the second set of statements under this theme. When it comes to the process of establishing the intended mastery climate, some participants mentioned the difficulty to "separate" which function(s) under their team that contributes toward such climate:

> *It is difficult to separate which function support climate creation because every HRM function will relate to the creation. Either directly or indirectly. (Participant 18)*

> *All HRM functions contribute to the climate creation, even from the side of HR operation like Payroll. Even though it is operational, Payroll can contribute the perception of fairness in this organisation. (Participant 27)*

Here, one of the participants specifically mentioned the significance of having the right "one HR" mindset before "facing" the employees. Such mindset is deemed supportive toward the HRM function's cohesion and alignment, as it encourages the members' ability and willingness to "adjust" and "share key information" with each other. Hence, according to the participants, regardless of what kind of context that the organisation aspires to build, it needs to be communicated stably and consistently, beyond and within the HRM function. Some illustrative comments are as follow:

> *To ensure internal HR alignment [in establishing the learning climate], we need to have a mindset of "One HR." So, whenever any of my team goes out of HR room, they represent the entire HRM function and not just their own function... Every HR sub-department has its fair share. Learning and development is important as they handle performance and talent management. Talent acquisition is critical, especially during our growth phase, as they need to bring in a big number of high potential employees fast but balanced with the quality of hire. Organisation development is ever evolving as we need to ensure we have the right structure. Structure is like a house. The foundation needs to be correct. (Participant 13)*

Sometimes it seems that everyone doing their job, but we don't achieve what we expect. [In establishing a unified perception of culture], it is important to think with the end in mind and utilise collaboration. By working collaboratively in HR, all functions will be able to adjust and inform accordingly their requirements with each other, for example: What a good high potential employee looks like? (Participant 32)

To conclude, looking on the participants' statements above, the case of alignment is also acknowledged to be crucial within the different "horizontal" functions of the HRM function itself; not just "vertically." In general, alignment within HR practices has also been found critical in creating a high trust and high performing work culture that impacts employees' level of commitment (Pfeffer, 1998; Appelbaum et al., 2000). When there is alignment among these practices, they synergistically enhance and reward the expected employees' competencies and behaviours (Posthuma et al., 2013).

In relation to aligning employees' perceptions to establish the organisation mastery climate, the "message" itself (i.e., about the HR strategic intensions and the "reflected" policies, practices and products) should be uniformed and aligned (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004). In their term, "consistency" is about the degree to which the multitudes of HR practices send consistent and stable signals to the employees. In accordance with Herd et al.' (2018) research, such aligned perceptions might contribute to heightened awareness of the availability of learning opportunities, perceived investment in employee development, organisational support for learning; that in the end might support the establishment of organisation learning climate

6.1.3. Alignment between HRM function and employees
The final theoretical category or "theme" that emerged is about the alignment between HRM function and the employees. There are three sets of statements building up to this theme, which are statements on the importance of having a communication that is distinct and continuous, clear, as well as communicating a clear set of behavioural consequences to improve employees' internal motivation to learn.

Following the previous two alignments between HRM function and the senior management team as well as within the HRM function itself, the first set of statements is about a communication effort to the employees that is distinct and continuous. Visibility of the HR practices to build the expected mastery climate was deemed achieved through the "unique" nature of the message itself. Some of the participants mentioned the importance of having a rallying "campaign tagline" to communicate the intended vision of the mastery climate to learn and share as much as possible. Some illustrative comments are as follow:

> *We start by creating a vision, a rallying platform where we make it clear where we are heading. We aim to be the most admired tech company in Indonesia. That is why our mission is to create a winning learning ecosystem that is simpler, more humane, impactful, fun and technology driven. This mission and vision would then be translated into the sub-department level. (Participant 09)*

> *We create a learning ecosystem with "#AllTeachersAllStudents" to brand our movement… We want to communicate that learning does not belong exclusively to HR. So that if I am an expert in one field, how can I be motivated to create a module and teach it? If you managed to do it, you will be incentivised using points system… [As a result,] there are a lot of general skills event, even covering the most casual topic, such as how to make a coffee like a barista. They invite a consumer brand outside the company, marketing department and they establish this kind of community independently. This is happening beyond HR team. (Participant 06)*

In relation to building a organisational learning climate where employees are encouraged to learn as much as possible and concurrently share their knowledge; there is strong emphasis from the participants to disseminate information as wide as possible, across departments and employee levels. We can see this reflected in the last participant's comment above on "#AllTeachersAllStudents"

initiative as well. The information that is disseminated could be operational or strategic in nature (e.g., market, industry, firm performance, etc.). From the interview, aside of being "unique," being frequent, continuous and expansive in terms of communicating are also acknowledged by the participants as one of the ways to achieve such visibility. In alignment with Scott-Ladd and Chan (2004), such widely distributed communication is argued to help shaping the organisational climate and facilitate the development of trust, especially regarding the proper guidelines or boundaries of behaviour. An illustrative excerpt is as below:

> *In this climate, communication is frequent, fast and "borderless;" or less focused on their own department. Decision making is done collaboratively and data to support that is widely accessible by everyone within the company. (Participant 25)*

> *In this PMO [Project Management Office] team, we have a "cadence" weekly meeting… If department A does something, other departments will know about it as well… We asked the high potential employees in HR and Finance to share their knowledge to other departments. This is to ensure cross-functional learning takes place. (Participant 22)*

The second set of statements is about the degree of clarity and ease of understanding of the content of HR practices. Participants claimed that, beyond being visible, the message about the mastery climate and what kind of behaviours it entails need to be clear and easy to understand as well. While this seems to be very generic, participants mentioned the importance of "translating" or "operationalising" the HR Principles, not just within the HRM function itself but also to employees in general, to achieve such degree of understandability. Some "operationalisations" are acknowledged to be done even until the level of employee behaviours, so that both HRM function and the employees are speaking "the same language." Some illustrative comments are as follow:

Entrepreneurship is one of our core values [to build the learning climate], aside of being innovative and result-orientation. We then translate these values further into 8 leadership qualities as a part of our journey in developing our high potential employees. (Participant 13)

The first thing to ensure was a clear understanding. We communicated what kind of culture we want to achieve; compared to what we had at that time. Then, we tried to cascade it by level and function. We made it very specific, operationalising what our values look life in real life. Let us say our "learning humility" value... Every department needs to discuss "what it looks like and how to achieve it?" and we topped it of by engagement activities, such as video competition. In some departments, we try to integrate this even more in their morning briefing where each employee takes turn in sharing what he/she did aligned with that value. (Participant 26).

The third set of statements is about communicating a clear set of behavioural consequences to improve employees' internal motivation to learn. Departing from statements on HRM function communication effort that should be distinct, continuous and understandable in nature; one significant idea that follow is about employees' internal motivation to learn. In this sense, participants accentuated the importance of "anchoring" HR development initiatives to employees' perspective rather than to what the HRM function has to offer. Related keywords such as understanding employees' "personal challenge," "interest," "passion" and "insight" are mentioned several times by the participants:

The higher you got, the more stubborn you will be. So how can we acculturate people with our life-long learning philosophy? We let others tell them the message... We even invite a Movie Director to talk to our employees about passion. So, it doesn't have to be business people who do the talking. So "insight" is important. We do not belittle people and force them to get

something. We let them get insight on their own. (Participant 15)

For us, it [i.e., learning agile behaviour] is more about the sense of purpose. We do not need an individual measurement to capture that; it is the continuous communication of that purpose [that matters]. Hence, internal motivation arises. So, the motivation [...] comes from willingness to serve the purpose rather than to simply get the reward. (Participant 17)

If you want to make learning is fun, the "compass" must be the employee's own interest. When someone learn about something he/she really passionate about, he/she can learn hours on end. Nobody told them to do that. But the effort and results are greater than if we incentivise them. (Participant 14)

Following the notion of establishing internal motivation to learn that anchors to employees' perspectives, the participants emphasised the importance of setting a clear set of behavioural consequences upfront. Some of the participants mentioned about clarifying their organisations' "experimentation philosophy" which accentuates the absence of punishment for possible failures due to their employees "experimenting" at work. The participants acknowledged that a safer and more conducive climate might then encourage their employees' innovative behaviours. Some illustrative comments are as follow:

We rely so much on on-the-job learning. There were so many projects running in the past few years. There was no "template" for them to do the job, so they need to build everything from scratch, and this makes them learn a lot. We always accentuate to our high potential employees for not to be afraid failing or making mistake. If you make a mistake, admit it. Do not be afraid talking it and then move on. This encourages their initiative, innovation. We would not punish their creativity.

These kinds of paradigms are very much upheld dearly in our organisation. (Participant 12)

We believe that everybody is talented. If there is something wrong with their performance, there must be a mismatch with their current environment. We can see the practice in how we empower people, even new people. We do not implement tight control or monitoring, or punishment if they do something wrong. So, the opportunity to learn and fail is there. Our philosophy is "fail fast, learn fast." We just need to make sure we manage the risk where failure is really not an option. The leader's role here is to manage that risk. (Participant 13)

To conclude, this final theme focuses on the "learning ecosystem" and the role of clear communication and intrinsic motivation to maintain this ecosystem. Back to Bowen and Ostroff 's (2004) assertions on building organisational climate; in strong HR systems, messages regarding what is appropriate behaviour are communicated to employees in an unequivocal (observed by everyone), consistent (the same across time and facets) and consensual (agreed by everyone) way. Hence, HR systems must possess a set of unique characteristics, which are related to the process by which a consistent message about HR content is sent to employees. Learning from the data emerge from the interview, a supportive HR communication effort is deemed to be distinct, continuous, understandable; as well as communicating a clear set of behavioural consequences that reinforce employees' internal motivation to learn.

One interesting notion that emerged here was about the absence of punishment and how it might encourage the expected learning agility behavioural dimension (i.e., experimenting). In alignment, Edmondson (2003) and Detert and Edmondson (2011) research on psychological safety concluded that a team and supervisory environment that is perceived psychologically safe – such as the case in mastery climate – encourages employees to take more risks, be flexible and consider different points of view, raise questions and seek feedback. De Meuse et al. (2010) also point this out in their research on experiential learning,

i.e., that learning in a mastery climate generally calls for a room to innovate and make mistakes. As we have seen in the participants' excerpts on the absence of punishment, in a psychologically safe environment, employees might think less about the potential consequences of expressing a different idea; thus, encouraging them to showcase more learning agility; such as experimenting, speaking up more, being less defensive and being motivated to improve their overall team or organisation's learning outcome (Burke, 2016).

Concluding the first area of inquiry, there are two key empirical contributions arise from this area concerning (1) the crucial roles HRM function play in the HRM-Performance relationship in general, and in creating organisational learning climates in particular; and (2) the importance of vertical and horizontal alignment for implementing the organisational climates establishment.

The first empirical contribution concerns the crucial role that HRM function plays in establishing organisational mastery climate. This provides a broader understanding of the HRM-Performance relationship, which currently revolves around the question of which HRM practices or systems are relevant for establishing such climate (e.g., Den Hartog and Verburg, 2004; Chow and Liu, 2007; 2009; Úbeda-García et al., 2018), yet neglects how the HRM function may "orchestrate" and set the "contextual stage" to establish the intended climate. Looking to extant literature in HRM, this is in relation with the so-called "black box" of HRM (Boxall and Purcell, 2016), which is about the mechanism of how HR practices could align and complement each other to achieve a synergistic effect. In order to achieve a congruent perception of all organisational constituents of the expected behaviours to establish the said mastery climate, this study showed that alignment between – at least – three stakeholders is critical, i.e., the senior management team, the HRM function and the employees. This constitutes the second empirical contribution. Beyond the extant literature that emphasis on the "vertical" alignment of HR practices (Posthuma et al., 2013) that happens "at the top" of the organisation (Scott-Ladd and Chan, 2004; Kim and Chang, 2009); alignment is deemed important to happen "horizontally" across the different HR sub-functions as well as in relation to employees' intrinsic motivation to maintain a "learning ecosystem."

Expanding Bowen and Ostroff's (2004) seminal assertion on "HR system strength" to establish organisational climate, this study shows that there are multiple alignments between multiple parties that need to take place to establish such system strength.

6.2. HR practices that support the establishment of mastery climate

Besides establishing a congruent employees' perception through aligned communication efforts as mentioned above, an effective HRM system builds a strong-shared meaning about the desired behaviours and attitudes that would consequently contribute to the organisational outcomes (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004). Under the second area of inquiry, there are seven sets of statement that could be categorised further into three theoretical categories or "themes." As we can see later below (Figure 11), these themes are about HR practices that are deemed important by the participants to communicate such behavioural expectations; i.e., (1) person-organisation fit HR practices; (2) "democratization" of knowledge HR practices; and (3) low status differentials HR practices.
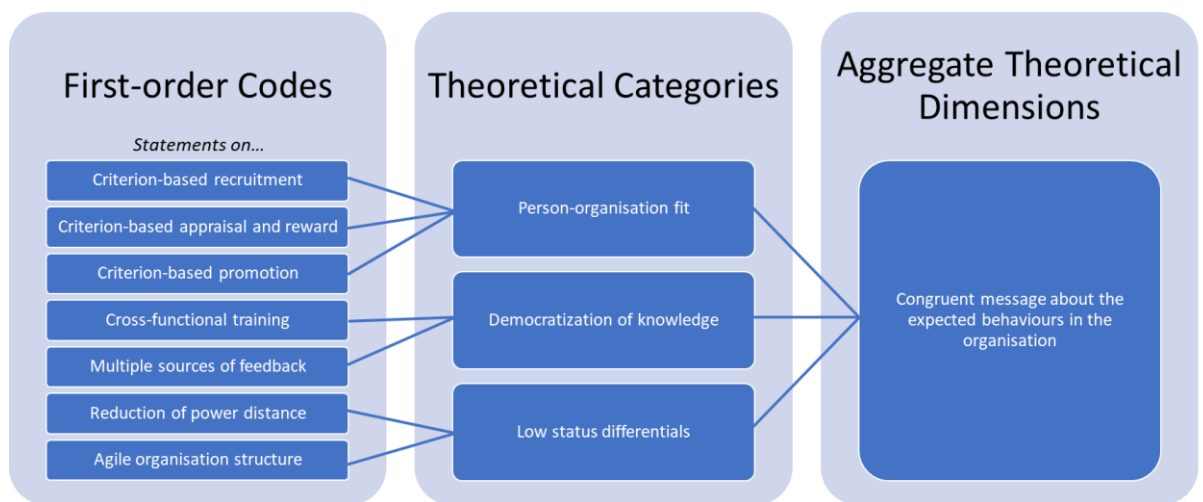

Figure 11. Data structure "which"

6.2.1. Person-organisation fit HR practices

The first theoretical category or "theme" that emerged is about the HR practices to ensure person-organisation fit. There are three sets of statements building up to this theme, which are statements regarding criterion-based recruitment, performance appraisal, reward and promotion.

The first set of statements that emerged was about "criterion-based recruitment." When it comes to the HR practices that establish the organisation's mastery climate, participants seem to emphasise the importance of, firstly, "recruiting for culture" to ensure the vertical and horizontal alignments mentioned before. Hiring candidates that are "culturally fit" with the organisation is considered very important for some of them. Two illustrative excerpts are as below:

> *Number one is recruitment…. We should be selective both in terms of candidates' skills and values… Value alignment are much more important here... (Participant 27)*

> *In recruitment, we are specifically recruiting based on our "3 DNA" [i.e., participant's organisational culture] and agility. We recruit for agility. We have development camp or hackathon. We give a project challenge, let's say, you need to finish developing this software by 3PM today. Can they do that? Do they have that ability and mindset to achieve it? Do they make it happens? These are the qualities that guide us in recruiting. (Participant 06)*

Here, participants mentioned several practices such as project-based assignment, behavioural event interview and on-the-job observation, that assess specific candidates' criteria expected by their organisation. Interchangeably labelled by the participants as "value," "profile" or "characteristic," this behaviour-based criterion is perceived as a guide to their hiring decisions. Some of them mentioned several learning agility behavioural dimensions that are expected to be shown by the candidates during the selection process; which are related to several learning agility dimensions such as information seeking ("hungry"), interpersonal risk-taking ("humble"), experimentation ("hustle and establish something out of nothing"), flexibility and speed. Some illustrative comments are as below:

> *In the recruitment space, we used to have a lot of assessments. But now, we just focus more on doing behavioural event*

interview to assess the culture fit. We specifically focus on the "dynamic" profile of the candidates, which is whether they are flexible, comfortable with speedy change and the unknown, hustle and establish "something out of nothing" or not. This is what we primarily looking for. (Participant 07)

Recruitment [is like] "garbage in garbage out." Here, we hire for attitude, someone with personal values aligned with our company values... When we recruit high potential employees, we look for two main characteristics, which are hungry [for learning] but also humble at the same time… For [such] key positions, we do use competency-based interview, but usually [it is more to] our senior leaders directly interview the incumbents. (Participant 24)

In organisational climate establishment, HR practices is argued to play a critical role in building a strong-shared meaning about the expected behaviours (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004). Beyond guiding the hiring decisions, culturally aligned recruitment practices are acknowledged by the participants to also serve as "a signalling function" for the candidates to define their future work context (i.e., mastery climate). Research has found that strong signals on the organisation's goal and its corresponding employee behaviours increase the likelihood of behavioural adoption and goal attainment (Klein and Sorra, 1996). This also goes in alignment when we are looking at recruitment practices of "value-oriented" organisations, such as in the case of medical professional. Within the last decade, a notion of "values-based recruitment (VBR)" emerges from the premise that a high degree of value congruence, i.e., the extent to which a person's values are similar to those of the organisation in which they work, is deemed critical in shaping the behaviours expected by the organisations (Sekiguchi and Huber, 2011).

The second set of statements was about criterion-based performance appraisal and reward. The same theme of "person-organisation fit practices" continues to emerge regarding performance management and appraisal practices. These practices are important to consider as they align individual and team behaviour

with organisational strategies (Zhang and Li, 2009). The participants seem to continue acknowledging the importance of putting the criteria expected by the organisation as one of the important appraisal factors; referred by the participants as "value," "behavioural expectations" or "qualities." Some participants (e.g., Participant 13) mentioned about a more balanced proportion ratio of performance and behavioural criterion measurements. Finally, some of them (e.g., Participant 11) also mentioned about putting another layer of ratio to recognize the employees' (70%) as well as their team performance (30%). These ratios, eventually, are deemed influencing their reward practices. Several participants' excerpts are as below:

> *We put the expected values as one of the important factors in our performance appraisal process. Not just in terms of managing their performance and rewarding them, development and promotion would also "stem" from these values acquisition by the employees. (Participant 24)*

> *Here [In doing performance management in his/her company], we try to align their performance with how their behaviours aligned with the expectations mentioned before, which is having a high degree of learning agility. (Participant 06)*

> *In terms of the "how" [i.e., behavioural criterion] measurement, we proportion it equally with the "what" [i.e., performance criterion] of 50%-50%. For [defining and rewarding] the "how," we use eight qualities we spoke before, such as how you collaborate, communicate, think big, etc. (Participant 13)*

> *The only changes that we have executed are the 50%-50% ratio between "what" and "how," as well as the 70%-30% ratio between individual and company contributions. (Participant 11)*

Despite the notion of self-induced, internal motivation to learn as mentioned previously in the first area of inquiry, the participants still acknowledged the importance of consistently aligning the expected employees' behaviours to

their subsequent consequences (cf. Bowen and Ostroff, 2004). When it comes to reward practices, there were some evidences of "progression-related carrot" approach in encouraging and achieving clarity of what is the "expected behaviour." This came through both in terms of monetary (e.g., incentive/bonus resulted from the above ratio-based performance appraisal) and non-monetary reward (e.g., innovation competition, contribution point system). The participants claimed that these career opportunities related "consequences" eventually reinforce the employees' internal motivation to learn as well as the expected behaviours (e.g., creating a module based on their expertise and sharing it to their colleagues). Some illustrative comments are as follow:

> *We create a learning ecosystem with "#AllTeachersAllStudents" to brand our movement. This [employee training and development initiative] includes the incentive piece. We want to communicate that learning doesn't belong exclusively to HR. So that if I am an expert in one field, how can I be motivated to create a module and teach it? Our role here is only as the administrative "gatekeeper." If you managed to do it, you will be incentivised using points system. This is good for your executive visibility to build your career as well as your own self-fulfilment. So, this is the bottom-up… [approach to establish learning climate]. (Participant 06)*

> *The other thing we can do to appreciate our high potential employees is through informal mechanism, i.e., not part of the formal reward mechanism. We hold innovation competition to challenge and showcase their [learning agile] behaviours. Winning this competition would then incentivise such behaviours. (Participant 03)*

Learning from the participants, performance management practices bear important relationships with mastery climate establishment in their organisation. On one hand, research (e.g., Kaya et al., 2010) has found that performance management practices positively affect organisational climate.

On the other hand, alignment with the organisational climate has been empirically shown to be important toward the effectiveness of a performance appraisal system itself (Farndale et al., 2011; Peretz and Fried, 2012; Haines and St-Onge, 2012). In a similar fashion with the study participants, Schleicher et al. (2018), in their meta-analysis study, argued the importance of integrating the formal and informal components of a performance appraisal system to establish the expected employees' behaviours. While formal component consists of performance management structures and procedures; the informal components are the unwritten, implicit performance management-related contextual factors (e.g., organisational value, climate, presence of informal feedback, etc.). Recent articles also emphasize the importance of informal components above and beyond or in concert with the formal components (e.g., Tuytens and Devos, 2012; Hofstetter and Harpaz, 2015).

Continuing from performance management; in the area of reward practices, the participants acknowledged the importance of defining and clarifying the same criteria in order to establish the expected learning agility. In their research, Úbeda-García et al. (2018) also found similar results. They assert that a criterion-based employee participation system (such in the case of "#AllTeachersAllStudents" movement referred above), along with equitable reward and comprehensive training, build employees' creativity and innovation. In combination, these practices stimulate people to be innovative and think creatively through appreciating and generating multiple perspectives and viewpoints. Accordingly, these practices were found to promote knowledge sharing behaviour through the "bottom-up" organisational communication model, the willingness to help others in their learning and the removal of communication barriers (ibid.).

Aside of individual-based reward practices, an interesting notion of team-based practices also emerged from the participants' interviews. They believed that employees' collaboration effort should be appreciated (e.g., through team-based reward); thus, supporting their knowledge acquisition and sharing behaviours within their own individual sphere of competence (Oden, 1997). Accordingly, Bock et al. (2005) and other researchers whose work are grounded in motivation theory (e.g., Fathi et al., 2011), have found that team reward

practices are important in promoting knowledge sharing. A study on knowledge sharing conducted in academic institutions in Malaysia also found that appropriate incentive systems, coupled with personal expectations regarding the value of knowledge sharing are important in cultivating sharing behaviour amongst academics (Cheng et al., 2009). They found that academics are motivated to share their knowledge to their peers if they perceive the incentive and reward mechanisms encouraging knowledge sharing behaviour; even if there is no immediate reward or pay-off to that behaviour.

The third and final set of statements in this "person-organisation fit practices" theme is about criterion-based promotion. Macky and Boxall (2007) argue that promotion goes beyond ensuring that there are candidates for job openings; but it is also a type of extrinsic reward that can motivate employees by providing them with opportunities to advance within the firm. Similar as before, the participants seem to emphasise the importance of alignment between the previously mentioned organisational criteria (e.g., culture, value, profile or behavioural expectations) with the promotion criteria. As we can see before in the first area of inquiry, the efficacy of this practice seems to be "amplified" when a concerted and aligned message is present. By accentuating the same message in the promotion criteria (e.g., the importance of having desire to grow, being learning agile, etc.), this might support the expected learning behaviour. Below are some examples of participants' statements showcasing the said alignment:

> *We expect our high potential employees to be the role model of our corporate culture. One is focus to their customers, so that their work results are really relevant to the needs of the customers. The next thing is about being a role model of growth mindset. We expect them to "making things happen, making it better." They need to have a mindset that everything -- even though it is already good -- can still be improved. So, the higher you are in the organisation, the more you are expected to be a role model of this "3 DNA" [i.e., participant's organisation values]. (Participant 07)*

Our high potential employee indicators, such as for them to be learning agile, are not directly part of our performance appraisal. Having those indicators doesn't mean that they will be measured higher in terms of performance... These indicators are more related to career opportunity. When there is an opportunity to be promoted, they would enable the high potential employees to be considered for that position. If you do your work well at your position, as a company, we will appreciate that with salary and bonus at that position, but not necessarily a promotion. Promotion, especially to leadership positions with bigger scope of responsibility, call for those indicators that are beyond good, past performance. (Participant 03)

The above-mentioned criteria alignment was also accentuated when the participants discussed about promotion-from-within. In a classic study conducted almost three decades ago, Ganesan et al. (1993) found that a combination of entry-level hiring and promotion-from-within builds the expected organisational climate. It supports employees' morale, mutual trust in the people and the organisation, compatibility of goals, organisational commitment and the occurrence of non-expected opportunistic behaviour. By doing these practices, organisations would then have a greater opportunity to socialize employees to organisational norms and impart the value needed to inculcate the intended organisational climate (ibid.). This has been found quite consistently over the years (e.g., Pfeffer, 1995; Ghebregiorgis and Karsten, 2006). Promotion-from-within encourages training and skill development because the availability of promotion opportunities within the firm "bind" workers and employers (ibid.). It might boost employee's morale because it gives them a feeling that management cares about the advancement of its employees whenever an opportunity is created and there are chances of career development, which itself might result in them working better and staying in the organisation (Ghebregiorgis and Karsten, 2006). Below are some excerpts from the participants' interview on this idea of promotion-from-within:

We have tried to "buy" high potential employees from outside, but it has never turned out well. We prefer to groom leaders internally. What was happened to external recruits in the past was long culture adaptation and clashes with the existing employees. (Participant 15)

I would like to find someone which has the balance of what we need now and in the future. We need to have someone able to accelerate our work process. External high potential employees mapping is something that we [still need to] frequently do. We "tap" high potential employees outside the company, especially for our critical roles, such as CEO and CEO-1. I give them an understanding that it is not because I want to replace them, but I just want to make sure that the company keeps going no matter what… [Having said that,] we have a lot of experiences of people joining in, but they do not fit with our culture, and eventually they will leave us because of culture misfit. (Participant 12)

To conclude the first theme of "person-organisation fit HR practices," we learned from the participants that criterion-based recruitment, performance appraisal, reward and promotion are practices that might be important to communicate a congruent message about the expected learning behaviours to the employees. In order to maintain alignments mentioned in the first area of inquiry, they seem to emphasise the importance of, firstly, "recruiting for culture." Interchangeably labelled by the participants as the candidates' aligned "value," "profile" or "characteristic," this behaviour-based criterion is perceived as a guide to their hiring decisions. Some of them mentioned several learning agility behavioural dimensions that are expected to be shown by the candidates during the selection process; which are related to several learning agility dimensions such as information seeking ("hungry"), interpersonal risk -taking ("humble"), experimentation ("hustle and establish something out of nothing"), flexibility and speed. Continuing from recruitment practices, they seem to continue acknowledging the importance of putting the same criteria as one of the important appraisal factors. Notions on a balanced ratio between

performance and behavioural criterion, as well as individual and team measurements emerged here. When it comes to the subsequent reward practices, the practices are deemed important to encourage and achieve clarity of what is the "expected behaviour," using both monetary and non-monetary forms of reward. Finally, participants also talked about aligning those criteria-mentioned before to promotion criteria; to continuously nurture the occurrences of expected learning behaviours. A notion of promotion-from-within also emerged here from the participants, especially in relation to maintain the organisation climate that has been established all these times.

Answering a call to extend and operationalise HRM research on the bundle of HR practices (e.g., Chow and Liu, 2007; 2009; Fullwood et al., 2012), the findings indicate that a combination of criterion-based recruitment, performance appraisal, reward and promotion practices are important to communicate the expected employee learning agility. These goes in alignment with Chow and Liu's (2007) research. They found that their so-called "incentives HR system" significantly related to and established their comparable organisation "sharing" climate (i.e., focusing on information sharing and learning collaboration). This "incentives HR system" consists of performance-based pay, internal promotion system, extensive use of training, performance management and internal communication practices. Such combination of HR practices influences employees' performance by providing incentives that motivate or elicit desirable behaviours, which are learning and exchanging knowledge collaboratively (ibid.). Similarly, it took employee collaboration efforts into account (i.e., group-based reward); thus, supporting the knowledge acquisition and sharing process. In alignment with this study's participants, the above-mentioned incentives along with the appropriate climate environment eventually provided a strong management tool to reward and motivate employees. By offering a high level of incentive, employees might feel the need to "reciprocate," thus, increasing their likelihood to elicit the expected learning behaviours (Chow and Liu, 2009). In a similar fashion, as a result of bundled HR practices, Fullwood et al. (2012) also found that employees had more positive attitudes towards knowledge sharing behaviour as they believe that it will improve and extend their relationships with colleagues, offer opportunities for internal promotion and external appointments, etc.; hence,

contributing toward the accommodative organisational climate and culture (McDermott and O'Dell, 2001; Liebowitz, 2008; Hislop, 2009).

6.2.2. "Democratization" of knowledge HR practices

The second sub-theme that emerged is about HR practices to ensure all employees have access to (or "democratization" of) knowledge in the workplace. As we can see later in the participants' comments, wide provision of access and distribution of information across different levels and departments are deemed critical to build a climate conducive for learning. In this context, management and employees are encouraged to share information as much and as wide as possible to build the cumulative knowledge of the organisation. In this theme, there are two sets of statement on HR practices building such climate, i.e., statements on cross-functional training and multiple sources of feedback.

The first set of statements is about cross-functional training. As we can see from the following quotes, the practices mentioned might be common (such as classroom training, on-the-job training and job rotation), but it seems that there are a lot of emphasis on disseminating and inviting employees to share information and knowledge through the aid of organisational training and development practices. When it comes to the social dimensions of learning agility – i.e., collaborating and interpersonal risk-taking – cross-functional collaboration is deemed critical to facilitate employees' behaviour to work and learn across their level and departmental boundaries. To nurture such collaboration, participants often mentioned about "sharing sessions," where employees can learn different "disciplines" and are expected to "reciprocate" by sharing back their expertise to their peers. The message that is being communicated here is that information and knowledge are widely available and they can learn anything in this organisational context, not just due to their development needs but also because they are interested to learn it. This goes in alignment with the previously-mentioned idea of "internal motivation to learn." Below are some excerpts of the participants' responses:

> *Since the beginning, we always believe that we can learn*
> *beyond the classroom. If you are invited to a formal training,*

people can feel forced to do it. It is a paid duty, an obligation that they need to do. So, they might not want to do it. We want people to learn something not because they have to, but because they are having fun. Here, we want to create a comprehensive learning environment. They can learn anything they want, build new connection, rotate and join a department that they aspire. (Participant 14)

Due to COVID19, our company learning and development budget is also negatively impacted. Hence, we change the way we develop and engage our employees. It is different now that we work remotely and do not engage our people daily, so people leadership skills are in great need. In doing this, we do not use external source at all. The most impactful program we have is our experience sharing program. It is like a bite-size, learning podcast. Let us say for Change Management, we asked one of our senior leaders that has experience in this area to share. The participation and engagement rate were continuously high. (Participant 12)

If department A does something [e.g., an innovative working practice], other departments will know about it as well. To support this, we also do sharing sessions, like HR for Non-HR, Finance for Non-Finance. We asked the employees in HR and Finance to share their knowledge to other departments. This is to ensure cross-functional collaboration takes place. (Participant 22)

[Beside recruit for culture,] the next thing [in establishing the learning climate within the participant's organisation] is how willing you are in teaching others. That is why there are a lot of informal and organic [i.e., initiated and established independently by the employees] learning opportunities in our company. We cannot force people to learn these days. You can

learn across disciplines, and this is what we try to create in our organisation. (Participant 15)

The second set of statements is about multiple sources of feedback. Continuing from the importance of encouraging cross-functional training to "democratize" knowledge within the organisation, the participants also acknowledge the value of collecting and disseminating performance-related information during the performance appraisal process. Considering multiple sources of employee feedback, i.e., not just from his/her supervisor but also his/her peers, seems to be supportive toward the establishment of the intended "collaborative" mastery climate. These excerpts exemplify some practices conducted in the participants' organisations:

Goal and initiative settings are conducted regularly; and the review is done quarterly through a feedback conversation. The main discussion point here is the learning conversation: What did you learn and how would you improve. Feedback is also done even until the level of individual employees… Although we don't have PA, leaders are still accountable to align and set clear expectations. (Participant 14)

Specifically for our product team, our performance measurement uses quarterly "OKR" (Objectives - Key Results). Facilitated by our performance appraisal system, we then hold performance review every 6 months. When performance appraisal is due, he/she [the functional reporting head] will look for feedback from their stream [cross-functional team] colleagues, coach and head. (Participant 12)

For [defining and rewarding] the "how" [in the performance appraisal process], we use eight qualities we spoke before, such as how you collaborate, communicate, think big, etc. Anyone can go into anyone's performance appraisal page and provide feedback. This enables a "cross-pollination" of "how" feedback. Not just from the functional reporting or stream [cross-

functional team] head, but also from other people that interact
with the employee. (Participant 13)

To build the intended mastery climate, there are a number of emphases from the participants on disseminating and inviting employees to share information through the aid of HR practices, such as training and development and performance appraisal. To nurture cross-functional collaboration that critical to learning agility (Burke, 2016), employees are expected to learn different areas of knowledge and "reciprocate" by sharing back their expertise to their peers; mostly through the "sharing sessions" mentioned by the participants. The same notion of collecting and disseminating information is also apparent during the performance appraisal process.

Learning from the participants, the cross-functional sharing or training experienced by the employees enable them to become more aware of the knowledge, skills, abilities and responsibilities of other team members, hence supporting the mastery climate that is characterised by learning and knowledge sharing behaviours. Such quality (of common knowledge of others' expertise) has been found as important mediators of group performance (Ilgen et al., 2005; LePine et al., 2008). In their research on hotel industry in Taiwan, as a result for cross-functional training, Chen and Tseng (2012) indicated that cross-functional training particularly contributes to functional and numerical flexibility of the employees, hence, might support the performance risk-taking and experimenting dimensions of the learning agility. Functional flexibility aims to enhance an employee's ability to perform a variety of jobs and participate in decision-making, whereas numerical flexibility aims to reduce costs by limiting an employee's involvement in the organisation (Kalleberg, 2001). Functional flexibility means that a multiskilled worker can be deployed from one job to another according to the needs of the moment (Lucas, 2004); while numerical flexibility aims for job vacancies to be swiftly filled by flexible workers by facilitating both the sideways and upward movement of workers from one post to another (Matias-Reche and Fuentes-Fuentes, 2006).

Aside of benefitting the flexibility of the workforce, when it comes to supporting cross-functional collaboration, such knowledge sharing and

exchanging behaviours seem to also contribute to the overall organisation's internal social structures as well. In their conceptual paper, Evans and Davis (2005) argued that the effect of HR practices on organisational performance is furthered by their impact on organisations' internal social structures. The "internal social structure" itself can be characterized in terms of the nature of relationships (e.g., bridging weak ties, norms of reciprocity, and shared mental models) and in terms of the behaviours that are associated with those relationships (e.g., role-making and organisational citizenship behaviours) (ibid.). In alignment with the participants' comments, cross-functional training seems to also foster proactive "role-makers" behaviour in which employees are expected to actively develop and nurture a network of productive relationships which facilitates information sharing and resource exchange. This is especially beneficial in organisational climate (such as mastery climate) requiring collaborations across departments. Role makers can be expected to establish the required cross-departmental ties (e.g., information technology and customer relations), reducing the need to funnel requests and information up and down traditional organisational hierarchies—which can be slow and ineffective (Galbraith, 1973). All these, in turn, might be supportive toward the facilitation of collaborating dimension of employee learning agility, as it calls for inter-organisation networking and collaborating behaviour (Hoff and Burke, 2017).

Other important notion that emerges here in relation to the mastery climate is on the establishment of "reciprocal" learning and sharing behaviours. The participants seem to also acknowledge the importance of generalized "norms of reciprocity" (Eisenberger et al., 1986) in "exchanging" information and knowledge that is part of the intended learning context; in which such training and development practices might help by grooming people most likely to develop such norms. Reciprocity norms build the overall organisational flexibility by increasing cooperation in complex problem solving (Tsai and Ghoshal, 1998). Such norms might then support the establishment of a common mental model shared amongst these employees about the expected learning behaviour (Evans and Davis, 2005). A "mental model" itself can be defined as similar and overlapping knowledge sets attitudes and beliefs regarding tasks,

co-workers, and the organisation that facilitate cooperation and decision making (Cannon-Bowers and Salas, 2001).

Finally, a comparable behavioural expectation to collect and share information could also be seen in terms of performance feedback or appraisal practices. "Cross-pollination" of employee feedback, i.e., not just from his/her supervisor but also his/her peers throughout the organisation, seems to be supportive toward the establishment of the intended mastery climate. Research has shown multi-source feedback can improve employee performance, with larger effects observed when peers and direct reports are included, when it occurs more than once a year, and when it is done for developmental as opposed to administrative purposes (e.g., Smither et al., 2005). Wide availability and dispersion of performance-related information convey the same message of "democratization of knowledge," hence, might contribute to the expected open and collaborative learning climate. Research found that implementation of such multi-source feedback can increase employee perceptions of achievement and support climate, as well as general performance appraisal system effectiveness (Mamatoglu, 2008).

6.2.3. Low status differentials HR practices
The third and final sub-theme that emerged is about HR practices to ensure low status differentials. Status differentials itself refer to the situation in which an individual or a group gains a higher social standing than another (Mattarelli and Gupta, 2009). As can be seen in participants' excerpts below, these practices encourage employees' learning and experimentation behaviours by emphasising a psychologically safe environment. Such focus on reducing status differences is consistently apparent in a number of HR practices. In this theme, there are two sets of statements on HR practices which are about reduction of power distance and agile organisation structure. As an outcome of these practices, participants deemed that they might support a more "communal" decision making, as well as the overall speed and flexibility of the organisation.

The first set of statements is about reduction of power distance between the employees and the management. This has consistently emerged throughout several categories of HR practice, such as training and development,

performance management and appraisal, compensation and benefit, employee relations, job and work design and management communication. Establishing a candour, safe and "equal" environment for the employees is deemed important by the participants to encourage their learning and experimentation behaviours. Below are some of the participants' quotes reflecting this:

> *Our culture is that managers would not limit the initiative of their subordinates... The environment is regular or "intense" in terms of communication. You can contact anyone, talk freely, discuss. We encourage this openness. (Participant 28)*

> *We learned that creating a safe environment to learn is important. People can't learn and work [i.e., experiment new things] if they are afraid of punishment or their boss. Their energy is depleted to manage those kinds of things [i.e., high status difference between employees and their managers]. (Participant 16)*

> *Some people said that the owner retain the employees by creating a comfortable working environment. But to us, it's not a comfortable working environment as the management keeps "challenging" us every day. The CEO said "chaos" will always need to be introduced. He simply calls us, ask us to do something different from the plan and build a [direct and personal] conversation to enable us to achieve the new target... We are more to believe that giving trust and appreciating people build their organisational identity and commitment. (Participant 17)*

> *The negative side of us being a "family company" is that it refrains us from being candour. It makes us "saving others face." That's why we make this "vulnerable session" where we can be more open, critical and assertive... Such "vulnerability" reflects from our CEO himself. One time he acknowledged [publicly] that he, himself, made a mistake and this contributed to a loss*

of talent. We are still trying to do this, but leaders are invited to acknowledge their failure and it is okay to ask for help. (Participant 25)

There is a company bonus, simply based on company performance. There is a guaranteed bonus of 1 time per year but if the company achieves more, everyone will get the same additional multiplier. So, we build trust with the employees here. So not just the owner gets the profit but everyone. (Participant 17)

In alignment with the participants, there have been consistent research findings throughout the years on how low status differentials contribute toward employee learning agility as well as the broader mastery climate. The perception of high-status differentials between different group members reduces mutual understanding (Cramton, 2001), hampers the spontaneous activation of searching-and-learning behaviours (Edmondson, 2003), makes team synchronization more difficult (Chen et al., 2004), reduces the level of creativity and innovation of a firm (DiTomaso et al., 2007) and stimulates stereotyping and develop a hostile organisational atmosphere particularly for demographic minorities (Kunze et al., 2011). In 2009, Mattarelli and Gupta explored status differentials between eight globally distributed teams with members belonging to the same organisation, ethnicity, as well as having homogeneous degree of competence. They found that when status differentials between the teams are low, spontaneous knowledge sharing, especially related to "how to do things," is more likely to happen. Finally, a consistent finding was also found in recent research by Sung and Choi (2021) that low-status differentials contribute to effective interaction and free knowledge exchanges that are required to generate innovative solutions among members.

Taking a step back to the idea of "alignment" mentioned in the first area of inquiry, an interesting notion that emerged is about the congruence between these HR practices and the senior management team's behaviours showcasing low status differentials (e.g., "CEO's personal chaos project," "vulnerability session," etc.). In a similar fashion, the extant literature has also demonstrated

the role of such high-involvement HR practices in shaping employees' perceptions of "inclusive" climates. Alikaj et al. (2021) found that the perceived presence of such HR practices in the organisation enhances the tendency of proactive individuals to enact creative behaviour. Boehm et al. (2014) elaborated an integrated model that specifies the mechanisms through which HR inclusive practices influenced diversity climate perception, in particular through similar processes of collective sense-making. These practices might then support the employee's likelihood to voice their own ideas and opinions as lower status members might be fearful of creating conflicts with senior or higher-ranking members due to potential negative reputation (e.g., being rude), unfavourable performance appraisal (Pelled et al., 2001; Choi, 2007) and neglection by higher status members (Van der Vegt et al., 2005). Finally, low status differentials could also be seen in some of the participants' approach regarding reward calculation. These participants seem to also acknowledge the importance of being open and transparent in the process. Morris et al. (2004) argue that pay and promotion policies matter to firms and employees alike; they shape employees' perceptions of fairness and justice. Hence, by being open and "equal" on the reward calculation, the similar message of low status differentials could be communicated to the employees as well.

The second set of statements is about agile organisation structure. Aside of the notion of reducing the power distance, as we can see from the quotes below, there were also statements on flattening the overall organisation structure to reduce the "distance" between the employees and the management; and this is where Agile principles come into the picture. Departing from the Taylorian paradigm that seeks organisational efficiencies through bureaucratic structure, hierarchy and centralized control over production; Agile "ways of work" call for flatter organisational structure that consists of self-managed, cross-functional teams (Boehm and Turner, 2003; Moe, 2013; Mahadevan et al., 2015). Here, the participants accentuated the establishment of cross-functional teams that consist of qualified, self-sustaining members who come from different departments. As a result, some benefits claimed by the participants might include the improvements of work speed, flexibility, accuracy or relevance of solutions to the issue at hand, as well as the general collective knowledge of

employees involved. Below are some related illustrative quotes from the participants:

Agile is set of characteristics, a [contextual] characteristic of being flexible, dynamic, collaborative, forward-looking... We changed our project management methodology as well as [the corresponding] organisation structure, from functional to "product stream" structure. In those streams [i.e., cross-functional teams], we require employees not to wear their "functional hat," but as a "product owner" that needs to have broader knowledge and understanding... Our previous functional organisation structure has created a silo. Everyone has their own interest and it's very hard for them to see beyond their own function. We change this by redefining our company's purpose, value propositions as well as what our customers need from us. After this is clear, we create a specific product and the stream [i.e., cross-functional team] to build the product. We put different expertise within the team, hence it is easier for them to collaborate around the product... Being hierarchical doesn't fit us as it makes us slow. During this transition, I advised the ExCo [i.e., senior management team] on organisation design, simplified the structure and span of control, shortened layer; to ensure speedier decision making and closer distance to customers' requirement. (Participant 12)

The difference [resulted from the organisation redesign]? On the result. Before the transformation, the budgeting process took 9 months with high level of error due to lack of communication between departments. After the agile organisation structure is being implemented, the work cadence, speed, level of accuracy and common understanding of all parties involved are significantly improved. The same happens when we implement it in the product team, or even our own HR team... The close collaboration, between HR and business,

contributes to the improvement of work quality and speed to achieve the target. (Participant 13)

Our agile organisation structure provided the speed and flexibility... The structure really relies on the communal decision making, from the perspective of business, product and technical [expertise]... [In our company] we are currently building a new "business unit"-based structure, a holding structure without the bureaucracy. (Participant 09)

In alignment with the participants, research has found that adopting Agile project management methodology and structure might support the flexibility and speed of the entire organisation (Overby et al., 2005; Leffingwell, 2007); hence, might be conducive toward the employee learning agility. Williams and Cockburn (2003) assert the Agile benefits as increased employees' productivity, work satisfaction as well as shared learning behaviours. Research on Agile showcases that, in enabling a balance between flexibility and structure, Agile creates a slightly "chaotic" environment where creativity and innovation can occur (Highsmith, 2002). In this study, some of the participants' organisations already adopt Agile methodology. Beyond flattening the structure and establishing cross-functional teams, the organisation redesign also features the establishment of community-based, adaptive structures that "revolve" and align around the customers' "value chain" (Bratton et al., 2021). Research has found that such work arrangement positively improves interface among the employees, hence reducing conflict and enhancing collaboration among them (Le Meunier-Fitzhugh and Massey, 2019), increasing the level of their innovative work outputs (Edmondson and Harvey, 2018), as well as establishing conditions for them to be more open to innovative ideas (Lyytinen and Rose, 2006).

In relation to ensuring low status differential, extant research might support the participants' comments. A centralized, tall structure that introduces explicit lines, separating employees into different organisational echelons, decreases employee work and learning "involvement" due to the numerous layers of bureaucracy and rigid rules (Carpenter, 2002). Creating status differential among organisational members based on their formal hierarchical

position was also detrimental to employee competence and satisfaction, as well as to overall operational performance (Choi et al., 2017). In this context, lower-level employees have fewer opportunities to take on responsibility, engendering an 'us vs. them' attitude that generates social chasm among members (Carpenter, 2002); hence, neglecting some of the social dimensions of learning agility (e.g., interpersonal risk-taking and collaborating). This condition might further create an environmental context for employees, which signifies the legitimacy of hierarchy, unfair allocation of resources and exclusion of lower-class members from decision-making processes (Findler et al., 2007). To avoid such unfavourable consequences, as can be seen as well in the participants' quotes, organisation might establish a flatter structure that endorses Agile principles. This effort toward a reduced status differential would then facilitate social integration, interpersonal learning and social support among employees (Carpenter, 2002); in which are supportive toward the above-mentioned dimensions of learning agility.

To conclude this theme; in building the intended mastery climate, the participants seem to acknowledge the importance of establishing a candour, safe and "equal" environment to encourage their learning and experimentation behaviours. This is achieved through the reduction of power distance between the employees and the management, as well as establishing a flatter organisation structure that utilises adaptive, cross-functional teams that revolve and align around the customers' value chain. As an outcome of these practices, participants deemed that they might contribute to a more "communal" decision making as well as the possible improvement of the overall speed, flexibility, accuracy and the general collective knowledge of employees involved.

Concluding the second area of inquiry, the key empirical contributions would be about the HR practices that are deemed significant to establish organisational learning climate. These three practices are (1) person-organisation fit HR practices; (2) 'democratisation' of knowledge HR practices; and (3) low status differentials HR practices. 'Person-organisation fit HR practices' are practices that are important to communicate a congruent message about the expected learning behaviours to the employees, i.e.,

recruitment, performance appraisal, reward and promotion. In order to maintain the alignments mentioned in the first area of inquiry, they seem to emphasise the importance of putting behaviour-based criterion to guide their decisions in these practices. When it comes to training and development practice, it primarily serves to nurture the cross-functional collaboration that critical to learning agility. Using sharing sessions, employees are expected to learn different areas of knowledge and 'reciprocate' by sharing back their expertise to their peers. Ensuring a 'democratisation' of knowledge is critical to showcase the 'end behavioural product' of the climate. Finally, to build the intended mastery climate, the participants seem to acknowledge the importance of establishing a candour, safe and 'equal' environment to encourage their learning and experimentation behaviours. This is achieved through the reduction of power distance practices between the employees and the management, as well as establishing a flatter organisation structure that utilises adaptive, cross-functional teams that revolve and align around the customers' value chain.

Conclusion

There were two areas of inquiry that were explored in the second part of the study: (1) From a managerial perspective, how could HRM function "orchestrate" or align its practices to establish the organisational climate that is conducive to learning agility and (2) which HR practices that would be supportive toward a 'strong' and 'unified' organisational climate. For the first area of inquiry, there are two key empirical contributions arise from this area concerning (1) the crucial roles HRM function play in the HRM-Performance relationship in general, and in creating organisational learning climates in particular; and (2) the importance of vertical and horizontal alignment for implementing the organisational climates establishment. For the second area of inquiry, the key empirical contributions would be about the HR practices that are deemed significant to establish organisational learning climate. These three practices are (1) person-organisation fit HR practices; (2) 'democratisation' of knowledge HR practices; and (3) low status differentials HR practices.

From the perspective of HRM role, the first empirical contribution concerns the crucial role that HRM function plays in establishing organisational mastery

climate. This provides a broader understanding of the HRM-Performance relationship, which currently revolves around the question of which HRM practices or systems are relevant for establishing such climate, yet neglects how the HRM function may 'orchestrate' and set the 'contextual stage' to establish the intended climate. In order to achieve a congruent perception of all organisational constituents of the expected behaviours to establish the said mastery climate, this study showed that alignment between — at least — three stakeholders is critical, i.e., the senior management team, the HRM function and the employees. This constitutes the second empirical contribution. Beyond the extant literature that emphasis on the "vertical" alignment of HR practices that happens 'at the top' of the organisation; alignment is deemed important to happen 'horizontally' across the different HR sub-functions as well as in relation to employees' intrinsic motivation to maintain a 'learning ecosystem.'

From the perspective of HR practices, 'person-organisation fit HR practices' are practices that are important to communicate a congruent message about the expected learning behaviours to the employees, i.e., 'criterion-based' recruitment, performance appraisal, reward and promotion. When it comes to training and development practice, it primarily serves to nurture the cross-functional collaboration that critical to learning agility, through the use of employees' sharing sessions. Finally, to build the intended mastery climate, the participants seem to acknowledge the importance of establishing a candour, safe and 'equal' environment to encourage their learning and experimentation behaviours.

7. Discussion of Research Results

<u>**Introduction**</u>

This study aimed to understand the disposition and contextual factors that are associated with high potential employees' learning agility. Extant research in learning agility mostly revolves around the "value" of learning agility, thus investigating it in terms of how it relates to specific proximal outcomes (De Meuse, 2019; Harvey and De Meuse, 2021). In terms of the disposition and contextual factors, more research still needs to be done. Within learning agility nomological network (Harvey and De Meuse, 2021), there are two current research gaps, i.e., (1) which aspects of personality contribute the most to learning agility and (2) which organisational climate attributes and high potential management practices are most important to supporting learning agility.

Hence, in terms of empirical contributions, this study would test and expand the learning agility model proposed by DeRue et al. (2012). This framework was chosen as it was the only ones that conceptually clarified several relevant constructs related to learning agility, including individual differences that promote learning agility; cognitive and behavioural processes that underlie it; and organisational factors that enhance the degree of learning agility of its employees. The examination is done so by testing the dispositional correlates of learning agility (i.e., personality and learning goal orientation) across different organisational climates conducive to learning agility (i.e., mastery and performance climates); within the nexus of high potential management practices. To understand more about this perceived organisational context, this study also looked into the organisations' HRM function roles in facilitating such context through their practices.

This chapter aims to integrate the findings from both Chapter 5 and 6 against the literature to address the two research objectives. Firstly, to explain which personality and motivational characteristics are associated with the high potential employees' learning agility and how these differ by the organisational

perceived contexts. Secondly, to explore the role of HRM in establishing organisational climates conducive to learning agility. This chapter would then be structured according to the study's intention to address the learning agility construct from two different levels of analysis, i.e., micro- (employee) and meso- (organisational) levels.

7.1. Understanding employee learning agility
7.1.1. Personality and employee learning agility

On the micro-individual level, the study demonstrated that learning agility is, indeed, influenced both by personality as well as motivational traits. In terms of personality traits, this study has expanded DeRue et al.'s (2012) model by showing that Openness to Experience might not be the only personality trait that correlate with learning agility. When it comes to furthering our understanding of the correlates of learning agility, in alignment with other researchers (e.g., Mitchinson and Morris, 2014; Allen, 2016; De Meuse, 2017), personality traits such as Extraversion, Openness to Experience and Conscientiousness were also found positively associated with learning agility while Emotionality and Agreeableness were found negatively associated. Being an individual who is open to the sensory stimulation of other people (Extraversion), are intellectually curious and flexible (Openness to Experience), self-discipline and process-driven (Conscientiousness), welcoming argument to defend his/her point of view (Agreeableness) – but at the same time – being emotionally calm (Emotionality) seems to be supportive toward learning agility (Burke, 2016). Beyond what has been clarified before in the literature, the study also found that Honesty-Humility (a trait specific to HEXACO personality model) negatively associated with learning agility. It suggests that people high in learning agility might be open to 'social manipulation' (Paul et al., 2022).

Although the relationships between those traits with learning agility in general have been frequently researched, this study has shown interesting nuances within the deeper 'facets' of learning agility, especially the social ones: (1) collaborating, (2) interpersonal risk-taking and (3) feedback seeking (Burke, 2016). Individuals with a low degree of Honesty-Humility tend to show more self-entitlement (Paul et al., 2022), thus might correlate with their behaviour in seeking feedback from others on their performance. In order to achieve their

'social goals,' due to their low degree of Honesty-Humility trait, they are more open to flattering others in order to get what they want socially. Although they might feel entitled to feedback and look for it, they might not necessarily want to be seen as vulnerable (e.g., showing their mistake or lack of knowledge or skill). As they have a low degree of Agreeableness, they might be more critical of others and welcome arguments to 'showcase' their point of view (Paul et al., 2022). As demonstrated in Chapter 5, low Agreeableness correlates with a higher degree of collaborative and interpersonal risk-taking behaviours as these behaviours might provide an 'avenue' to fulfil such needs (i.e., working directly and complementarily with others, discussing and confronting differences with others). Finally, the significant relationship between Emotionality and collaborating dimension might also support this explanation. Since learning agility requires emotional stability, i.e., some degree of comfort with uncertainty, pressure and conflict management with others (De Meuse, 2017), a low degree of Emotionality might contribute to a higher degree of collaborative behaviour of learning agility. Beyond what have been covered in existing research, the study has expanded our understanding of learning agility by showing the deeper relationships between these traits with each distinct facet of learning agility.

Apart from the existing stream of research on learning agility, social adroitness (Markey and Markey, 2006) was offered as an alternative lens to understand such behaviours (e.g., flattery, self-promotion, being self-entitled and critical of others); especially in relation to the organisational context surrounding the participants (as 'high potential' employees) that accentuates social competence (Finkelstein et al., 2018). Social adroitness itself can be defined as regulation of ones' behaviour to get what they want from others, often through indirect means, e.g., flattery, indirection, reciprocal altruism, politeness and strategic reasoning (Ashton et al., 2000). High potential employees are more likely to be 'constantly on the watch,' hence, need to be socially adept, able to persuade and inspire diverse constituencies (Finkelstein et al., 2018). Existing research has found these as determining behavioural qualities that accelerate or impede ones' chance to make on the 'high potential list' (ibid.).

A greater clarity might be achieved when we observed the relationships between these personality traits and learning agility in relation to their interactions with the perceived organisational context. Extant research (e.g., Saputra et al., 2018; Tripathi et al., 2020) have pointed out the key role played by the organisational-context factors such as learning and development climate in promoting and supporting learning agility, with significant effects on individual professional attitudes such as work engagement and turnover intention. However, our knowledge of how these correlates impact learning agility in different organisational contexts is still limited (Milani et al., 2021).

As elaborated before in literature review chapter, this study utilised achievement goal theory's perceived mastery and performance climates as the organisational contextual proxies (Nicholls, 1984; Ames, 1992a; 1992b). On one hand, perceived mastery climate has been found strengthening the negative relationship between Emotionality and learning agility as well as dampening the negative relationship between Honesty-Humility and learning agility. On the other hand, perceived performance climate has been found dampening the negative relationship between Agreeableness and learning agility. Extending DeRue et al.'s (2012) theoretical framework; as mastery climate is psychologically safer for individuals to experiment and learn from the experience (Edmondson, 2003; Detert and Edmondson, 2011), it can be argued that such 'safeness' might activate the 'calmness' characteristic of low Emotionality trait that is associated with learning agility. Relating back to the contexts surrounding the high potential employees mentioned before, due to the collegial nature of mastery climate, they might feel less pressured and worried to achieve normative success (e.g., not to fail and make mistake). This might then correlate to their experimentation behaviours (i.e., one of the learning agility behavioural dimensions) (Hoff and Burke, 2017).

From the perspective of trait activation theory, the same collegial nature (Ames, 1992a) might also dampen the cue for the individual's social adroitness to strategically reason and flatter others to get what they want and outdo strict rules (low Honesty-Humility trait). In a climate that appreciates the process and peril of learning, there might not be too much expectations to be 'socially competent' as opposed to performance climate that accentuates interpersonal

competition. Finally, as for performance climate; when there is a high occurrence of 'autonomous' climate that involves more competition instead of collaboration, such climate might then dampen the cue for the individual's relatedness, i.e., be less agreeable. Here, the need to be more critical of others and welcoming argument to defend his/her point of view (low Agreeableness trait) might not be existent in a climate that emphasises individual, as opposed to socially comparative, performance.

These findings validate and operationalise DeRue et al.'s (2012) assertions on the learning climate that juxtaposes a focus of 'being right' and psychological safeness to make mistakes. Adopting trait activation theory (Tett and Burnett, 2003), the findings show the relevance of perceived organisational climate in regards to how personality characteristics are associated with learning agility. The above three interactions also expand our understanding of the boundary condition of learning agility postulated in Harvey and De Meuse's (2021) nomological network. They clarify which and how personality traits interact with the organisational climate in support of a higher degree of learning agility. Finally, beyond what is currently postulated by DeRue et al. (2012), putting social adroitness as a lens to understand employee behaviour in an organisational context that accentuates social competence might offer deeper explanation on the complex relationship between his/her personality, behaviour and the surrounding climate.

Related to the research gap of high potential management practices (Harvey and De Meuse, 2021), further contextualisation of this area might also yield deeper support for the complex relationship. The findings in this study are informed by quantitative and qualitative data from two key stakeholders: employees and HR managers, respectively. Learning from the latter, a minor theme also emerged clarifying the organisations' 'expectations' of their high potential employees to be socially adroit (Finkelstein et al., 2018). Interestingly, these expectations also pose some tensions at the end of the day as the high potential employees are also expected to balance it (i.e., being socially adroit) with execution, follow-through and planning. These proximal outcomes are beyond what is currently defined as learning agility behavioural dimensions (e.g., DeRue et al., 2012; Hoff and Burke, 2017; Harvey and De Meuse, 2021).

In Chapter 5, HR managers discussed the organisational expectations from their high potential employees; and how they eventually influence the high potential identification and designation process. According to the HR managers in this study, high potential employees are perceived as individuals with a lot of knowledge/skills, experiences and novel ideas. They work harder than their counterparts to seek and bring about changes. Initiating something different and maintaining a good, credible image are deemed important by the organisations for high potential employees. Learning from the participants, due to such expectation, the high potential employees are perceived as seeking continuous exposure. According to the participants, these needs can be perceived as a manifestation of their social strategy to maintain managerial 'presence' and stay relevant within the higher circle of leadership.

One interesting perception that emerged in this study is that, while being socially adroit might be important for their 'survival' and sustainability in the pool of high potential employees, there were also clear accentuations regarding the expectations to execute and finish what they have started (i.e., delivering actual, improved work results), planning and following the right 'process.' While flexibility and experimentation are important learning agility behavioural dimensions (DeRue et al., 2012; Hoff and Burke, 2017), such process orientation seems to be also acknowledged by the participants as another important expectations. Looking back to the earlier discussion on Conscientiousness being positively correlated with learning agility, these contexts might also shed some light on explaining the relationship. Being conscientious is still contextually critical; hence might contribute to a higher degree of learning agility.

While DeRue et al. (2012) argue that learning agility should be defined narrowly only in terms of speed and flexibility of learning – specifically in relation to the issue of enlarging boundary definition of learning agility (De Meuse, 2017; Rotolo et al., 2018) – these expectations are still 'out there' in the organisations. Contrasting with DeRue et al.'s (2012) model, the environmental correlates that affect learning agility might go beyond the experience characteristics and the learning climate itself (Figure 1). Establishment of such climate by the organisational expectations and the subsequent HRM function practices might also be important to explore. In terms of furthering our understanding of

learning agility, it might be important to pay attention to the organisations' high potential management practices and what they 'communicate' to the employees (Harvey and De Meuse, 2021). DeRue et al. (2012) defined learning agility narrowly as the ability to come up quickly in one's understanding of a situation and move across ideas flexibly both within and across experiences in the service of learning from experience (i.e., focusing only to speed and flexibility behavioural dimensions). Taking into account the findings presented in this study, their definition seems to be limited. Beyond personal dispositions, there is a need to incorporate social contextual elements as well that can enhance or attenuate one's learning agility (cf. Burke, 2018).

7.1.2. Motivation and employee learning agility

Learning agility can be seen as an integration of ability and motivational aspects to learn from experience and that individuals with high degree of learning agility adjust their behaviours along with the change in the situation (Burke, 2018). In terms of motivational aspects, confirming previous research (e.g., De Meuse et al., 2010; VandeWalle, 2012; Davis et al., 2013), mastery goal orientation was found positively correlated with learning agility while performance goal orientation was negatively correlated.

Focusing on skill mastery through cooperation in learning instead of personal normative success in developing oneself seems to be supportive toward learning agility. Referring back to the theoretical framework proposed by DeRue et al. (2012), these findings expand the knowledge of the correlates of learning agility by clarifying the valence (or direction) of how those motivational traits relate to learning agility. Although such relationships have been well established by previous research (e.g., De Meuse et al., 2010; DeRue et al., 2012; VandeWalle, 2012; Davis et al., 2013), referring to Harvey and De Meuse's (2021) nomological network, one specific area that needs to be clarified further is about the relationships of those orientations with each of the learning behaviour. Continuing the previous analysis of the dispositions at the behaviour level (as opposed to the construct level), the study found mastery orientation significantly and positively correlates with all nine facets of learning agility. On the other hand, performance orientation significantly and negatively correlates with all but feedback seeking.

In the learning agility literature itself (De Meuse et al., 2010; DeRue et al., 2012; VandeWalle, 2012; Davis et al., 2013; Hoff and Burke, 2017; De Meuse, 2019; Harvey and De Meuse, 2021), feedback-seeking has been widely acknowledged as an important behavioural process of learning agility. Learned from the findings, individuals scoring high in mastery orientation might perceive the 'value' of feedback more positively and the 'cost' of seeking it less negatively than those high in performance orientation. As the behaviour's cost–benefit ratio is likely stronger and more positive for those high in learning agility, they might be more likely to appreciate the learning opportunity it provides, and therefore, often seek feedback even in the face of the risk of receiving negative feedback. These behavioural level findings reconfirm the long-established findings (e.g., Farr et al., 1993; VandeWalle and Cummings, 1997; VandeWalle et al., 2000; 2001; DeRue and Wellman, 2009; Wong et al., 2012; Davis et al., 2013; Anseel et al., 2017; Ashford et al., 2016; DeNisi and Sockbeson, 2018) on the relationship between learning goal orientation and feedback-seeking behaviour within the scope of learning agility nomological network.

7.2. The Human resource management and employee learning agility

On the meso-organisational level, the study aspires to understand how Human Resource Management (HRM) contributes to employee learning agility. Aside from the organisational climates and high potential management practices supporting learning agility, organisational and leadership approaches that are related to the malleability of learning agility are also significant research gaps within the learning agility nomological network (Harvey and De Meuse, 2021). Extant studies have found that learning agility are developable through career variety (i.e., job rotation, enlargement and enrichment) (Dries et al., 2012), knowledge sharing (Shin and Jun, 2019; Lee and Song, 2022) as well as organisational-sponsored mobility (Dai et al., 2013; Jooss et al., 2019). However, on the whole organisational climate level, the evidence is still nascent. How and what the organisations could do to promote their learning climate, thus, supporting the development of learning agility are still yet to be explored (Milani et al., 2021).

The above-mentioned research objective was achieved through the exploration of Senior HR leaders' perspectives on the role of the organisations' HRM

function in establishing organisational climates conducive to learning agility. Current research investigating the relationship between climate and learning agility (Saputra et al., 2018; Tripathi et al., 2020) have pointed out that learning climate is positively related to learning agility, with significant effects on individual professional attitudes such as work engagement and turnover intention. Tripathi et al. (2020) argued that learning climate encourages and facilitates employees' learning, disseminating and sharing knowledge behaviours; thus, facilitating them to be more innovative and agile towards learning about self and others.

Regardless, there is still a further need to specifically capture the qualitative perspectives of the organisations' top-level executives from multiple industries to obtain in-depth information about the strategy to establish such climate (Tripathi et al., 2020). The findings from this study show that that when it comes to organisational climates conducive to learning agility, perceived mastery climate was positively and significantly related with learning agility but not perceived performance climate. Hence, the specific context of the discussion here would be more to the mastery climate. There are two areas of inquiries that have been explored in this thesis: (1) From a managerial perspective, how could HRM function align its practices to establish the organisational mastery climate and (2) which HR practices would be supportive toward the establishment of such climate.

7.2.1. How could HRM function align its practices to establish the organisational mastery climate?

For the first area of inquiry on the role of HRM function, there were three main themes emerged from the interview, which revolve around the alignments between different organisational constituents. When asked how HRM function helps facilitate establishment of mastery climate, senior HR leaders in this study primarily referred to alignment (1) between HRM function and the senior management team; (2) between HRM sub-functions and (3) between HRM function and the employees.

Research investigating the relationship between the leadership of senior management team and learning agility is currently still emerging. The

importance of presenting leadership role model to stimulate employee learning agility has been shown (Kim and Lee, 2021). Regardless, how such leadership 'operates' and aligns with the broader organisational practices to support learning agility are still relatively unknown (cf. Harvey and De Meuse, 2021). This notion of leadership and how it relates to the learning climate supporting the learning agility are also absent in DeRue et al.'s (2012) model. From the onset, this study found a deeply rooted belief or philosophy of the senior management team on the importance of learning is critical. It is deemed supporting their own adoption, as well as the managerial communication of the HR practices, that in turns, build the overall legitimacy of the HRM function.

When it comes to learning agility (e.g., knowledge sharing, interpersonal risk-taking behaviours), participants seem to accentuate the leaders' attitudinal and behavioural commitments to personally inspire, motivate and intellectually 'stimulate' the employees. As we can see in interviews (e.g., Participant 14 on multiple employees' 'sarasehans' – closed and intimate knowledge sharing – with the CEO himself; Participant 25 on the CEO publicly acknowledging his mistake and future development area), the role of senior management team in 'instilling' the learning philosophy is deemed critical. Due to leadership role modelling, employees learn to trust management sufficiently to initiate experimentation behaviours (i.e., one of the learning agility behavioural dimensions) within a mastery climate, even when it involves risk-taking (Nerstad et al., 2018b). Through such value congruence process between the leaders and followers (Jung and Avolio, 2000), employees might be more open to internalise the learning agility value of their leaders into their personal value system and behaviours.

From the perspective of the HRM function itself, beyond extant HRM literature suggesting continuous two-way communication that anchor the practices to business needs (Scott-Ladd and Chan, 2004; Bircham-Connolly et al., 2005; Kim and Chang, 2009), ensuring 'relevance through co-creation' was emerged when it comes to building an aligned mastery climate with the senior management team. Rather than accentuating a time-consuming planning upfront, launching a practice in a 'prototype' state as soon as possible and flexibly adjusting it to management's feedback, when and if it comes, is perceived by the participants

as the ideal. In order to achieve this, the study found that alignment within the HRM function itself is critical. This notion of alignment of organisational practices in building a cohesive learning climate is currently still absent from both DeRue et al.'s (2012) as well as Harvey and De Meuse (2021) nomological network.

Expanding the current research that emphasises the vertical alignment of HR practices that happens at the top of the organisation (e.g., Posthuma et al., 2013), alignment is also deemed important to happen horizontally across the different HR sub-functions. When it comes to building a mastery climate that support employee learning agility, the participants accentuate the alignment between the different levels of their HRM function architecture (Posthuma et al., 2013); from the level of guiding Principles to the level of Policies, Practices and Products. The same strategic intent to build a climate that fosters learning and knowledge sharing was deemed important to be reflected when the function set up their HR policies and implement their HR practices. While vertical alignment within HRM function matters, so do horizontal alignments. It is deemed encouraging the members' ability and willingness to adjust and share key information with each other. In accordance with Herd et al.' (2018) research, such alignment might contribute to employees' heightened awareness of the availability of learning opportunities, perceived investment in employee development and organisational support for learning. In the end, these might support the establishment of organisation learning climate.

The last them is about the alignment with the employees. In order to establish 'learning ecosystem,' a supportive HR communication effort is deemed to be distinct, continuous, understandable; as well as communicating a clear set of behavioural consequences that reinforce employees' internal motivation to learn. When it comes to supportive learning climate, DeRue et al. (2012) argued on the importance of psychological safety and moderated focus on 'being right.' In alignment, Deepa et al. (2021) found that fostering environment that builds positive perceptions about learning enhances employee learning agility. At the same time, it is also important for organisations to create an ecosystem that ensures experimentation opportunities of the newly acquired knowledge for the employees (ibid.). Operationalising and expanding their arguments, this study

suggested the value of both providing positive reinforcement and eliminating negative punishment as learning agility behavioural consequences. Setting a clear set of behavioural consequences upfront in building and sustaining such ecosystem (e.g., Participant 06 on incentives for employees due to sharing their knowledge, Participant 03 for winning in innovation competition) are deemed important by the participants. In relation to the earlier findings of this study, these reinforcing consequences might contribute to the employees' mastery goal orientation to learn and share, as well as providing an avenue for the employees to showcase themselves given the expectation of being socially adroit.

Following the notion of establishing internal motivation to learn that anchors to employees' perspectives, participants acknowledge the importance of clarifying their organisations' 'experimentation philosophy' which accentuates the absence of punishment for possible failures due to their employees experimenting at work. De Meuse et al. (2010) pointed this out in their research on experiential learning, i.e., that learning in a mastery climate generally calls for a room to innovate and make mistakes. Employees who hold the belief that learning process (including its peril of failure) is valued have clearer 'line of sight' on how learning agility is tied with organisational strategy and its change agenda; thus, experiencing a more positive psychological climate (Herd et al., 2018). Supported by the earlier findings of perceived mastery climate interacts with Honesty-Humility and Emotionality traits, the employees might then worry less about the potential negative consequences of 'opening up' and 'trying out' new behaviours; thus, might encourage them to showcase more learning agility; such as experimenting, speaking up more, being less defensive and being motivated to improve their overall team or organisation's learning outcome (Burke, 2016).

Looking at the three themes from the first area of inquiry, this study provides a broader understanding of the HRM-Performance relationship; which currently revolves around the question of which HR practices or systems that are relevant for establishing such climate (e.g., Den Hartog and Verburg, 2004; Chow and Liu, 2007; 2009; Úbeda-García et al., 2018). This is broader than looking at HR practices and systems supporting organisational performance as the extant

research might neglect how the HRM function itself may orchestrate and set the contextual stage between different constituents and levels of the organisation to establish the intended climate. Beyond current research investigating the relationship between climate and learning agility (Saputra et al., 2018; Tripathi et al., 2020), this study utilises Bowen and Ostroff's (2004) HR system strength model to operationalise how the organisations build their learning climate in support of employee learning agility. Bowen and Ostroff (2004) postulated that an effective HRM system aligns employees' perceptions and builds a strong-shared meaning about the desired behaviours and attitudes that would consequently contribute to the organisational outcomes. Messages regarding what is 'expected' learning agility behavioural dimensions are argued to be communicated to employees in an unequivocal (observed by everyone), consistent (the same across time and facets) and consensual (agreed by everyone) ways. In alignment with their theory, this study shows that multiple alignments between multiple parties are deemed critical to take place to establish such system strength.

Taking a critical look, there might be a tendency for the participants to provide generic answers on these notions of alignment. A more complete perspective might then be generated by looking into the practices they did to establish a supportive climate in the second area of inquiry. Linking to what has been found earlier in this study, it seems that there might be contradictions. On one hand, provision of expected behavioural consequences and avenues to 'showcase' the employees (e.g., CEO sharing session, knowledge sharing initiative, innovation competition) seems contributing toward the perceived mastery climate. On the other hand, it might communicate the expectation of social adroitness and promote perceived performance climate within the organisation at the same time. The same goes with the absence of punishment for experimentation behaviour (i.e., one of learning agility behavioural dimensions). It might go in alignment with mastery goal orientation being positively and performance goal orientation being negatively related to learning agility. It might also align with the lessening the impacts of perceived mastery climate toward Honesty-Humility and Emotionality traits. However, the contextual correlates were not found to significantly interacting with any of these goal orientations. Learning from Herd et al.'s (2018) study on employees' perceptions on strategic HR

alignment, there might be a need to further research in the future to validate the implementation of these alignments, the employees' real experiences as well as their perceptions on how these affect their actual learning behaviours.

7.2.2. Which HR practices would be supportive toward the establishment of such climate?

For the second area of inquiry on the HR practices, there are seven sets of statements that have been categorised further into three themes. Referring to a research gap about organisational approaches that are most effective in developing learning agility (Harvey and De Meuse, 2021), these themes are about HR practices that are deemed important to establish mastery climate and facilitate the employees meeting the behavioural expectations: (1) person-organisation fit HR practices, (2) 'democratisation' of knowledge HR practices, and (3) low status differential HR practices.

In organisational climate establishment, HR practices is argued to play a critical role in building a strong-shared meaning about the expected behaviours (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004). A number of learning agility research in the last decade (e.g., Dries et al., 2012; Dai et al., 2013; Saputra et al., 2018; Tripathi et al., 2020) have shown the value of HR (specifically learning and development) practices in providing employees with new skills, flexibility and wider perspectives to tolerate ambiguity, change tenacity and eagerness to improve as well as opportunities to collaborate with others in the spirit of learning. Beyond learning and development, this study extends this line of research by showing other specific practices that are also deemed strategically important by senior HR leaders. Answering a call to operationalise HRM research on the bundle of HR practices that contribute to employee performance (e.g., Fullwood et al., 2012; Boxall and Purcell, 2016; Milani et al., 2021); on the first theme of person-organisation fit HR practices, we learned from the participants that culturally-aligned recruitment, performance appraisal, reward and promotion are practices that might be important to communicate a congruent message about the expected learning behaviours to the employees.

Starting from the onset, a high degree of value congruence (i.e., the extent of which a person's values are similar to his/her organisation's values) is deemed

critical in recruiting new employees with behaviours expected by the organisations (Sekiguchi and Huber, 2011). Beyond guiding the hiring decisions, learning agility criteria-based recruitment practices are acknowledged by the participants to serve as a 'signalling function' for the candidates as well in defining their future work context (i.e., mastery climate). Continuing on managing and rewarding the employees, this study argued the importance of putting the same criteria as one of the important performance appraisal factors. Despite the notion of self-induced, internal motivation to learn as mentioned previously in the first area of inquiry, the participants still acknowledged the importance of consistently aligning the expected employees' behaviours to their subsequent consequences (cf. Bowen and Ostroff, 2004), e.g., monetary (e.g., incentive/bonus based on the performance appraisal results) and non-monetary rewards (e.g., award from innovation competitions, contribution point system from contributing to knowledge sharing sessions).

Finally, when promoting the employees, the study found that the same criteria were deemed important to be aligned with the promotion criteria. Such alignment might boost employee's morale because it gives them a feeling that management cares about the advancement of its employees whenever an opportunity is created and there are 'feasible' chances of career development, which itself might result in them working better and staying in the organisation (Ghebregiorgis and Karsten, 2006; Tripathi et al., 2020). This finding reaffirms and operationalises earlier research on bundled HR practices affecting learning climate (e.g., performance-based pay, internal promotion system, extensive use of training, performance management and internal communication practices) (Chow and Liu, 2007; 2009). Such practices were found providing a strong management tool to motivate and reward employees to learn and share their knowledge (i.e., one of learning agility behavioural dimensions). By offering an aligned criteria-based incentive, employees might feel the need to 'reciprocate,' thus, supporting their likelihood to elicit the expected learning behaviours (ibid.)

On the second theme, the study found that such 'reciprocity' could also be built through learning and development practices, as this study found, specifically through employees' sharing sessions. Current research on learning agility (e.g.,

Shin and Jun, 2019; Lee and Song, 2022) found that learning agility is positively related to knowledge sharing behaviour. Along with other constructs, such as internal learning motivation and positive psychological capital, Shin and Jun's (2019) found knowledge sharing behaviour significantly interacted with learning agility to support the employees lifelong learning competence. Lee and Song (2022) argued on the malleability of learning agility through organisational interventions (such as knowledge sharing), rather than being limited by inherent intellectual traits (such as IQ). Deeper understanding on how to establish such practice in supporting learning agility is in important for future research (ibid.). Albeit the practice itself might already be clear, this study operationalised it and showed how it might relate with other HR practices, such as reward practices.

To nurture collaborative learning, participants acknowledge the value of "sharing sessions," where employees can learn different "disciplines" and are expected to "reciprocate" by sharing back their expertise to their peers. The message that is being communicated here is that information and knowledge are widely available (or 'democratisation of knowledge'), and they can learn anything in such organisational context, not just due to their development needs but also because they are interested to learn it (i.e., internal learning motivation). To establish such 'learning ecosystem' (as in the first area of enquiry), the study found widely and continuously communicated learning campaigns (e.g., Participant 06's "#AllTeachersAllStudents" knowledge sharing movement) hold value to establish employees' habitual behaviour of sharing knowledge with each other. Aligned with Úbeda-García et al. (2018), such criteria-based employee participation system, along with equitable reward and comprehensive training, stimulate employees to be innovative and think creatively by appreciating and generating multiple perspectives and viewpoints. Accordingly, these practices were found to promote learning agility through the "bottom-up" organisational communication model, the removal of communication barriers and the improved willingness to help others in their learning (ibid.).

Beyond what is currently being captured in extant theoretical models of learning agility (e.g., DeRue et al., 2012; Harvey and De Meuse, 2021), for the

last theme of the second area of inquiry, the study suggests how 'low status differential' contribute toward employee learning agility as well as the broader mastery climate. Status differential itself refer to the situation in which an individual or a group gains a higher social standing than another (Mattarelli and Gupta, 2009). Low status differential hasn't been mentioned at all yet in these learning agility models, despite a number of theoretical and empirical inferences that can be made between the two concepts. On one hand, the perception of high-status differential between different group members has been found reducing mutual understanding (Cramton, 2001), hampering the spontaneous activation of searching-and-learning behaviours (Edmondson, 2003), making team synchronization more difficult (Chen et al., 2004), reducing the level of creativity and innovation of a firm (DiTomaso et al., 2007), stimulating stereotyping and developing a hostile organisational atmosphere particularly for demographic minorities (Kunze et al., 2011). On the other hand, Mattarelli and Gupta (2009) found that when status differential between the teams is low, spontaneous knowledge sharing, especially related to "how to do things," is more likely to happen. Finally, a low-status differential also contributes to effective interaction and free knowledge exchanges that are required to generate innovative solutions among members (Sung and Choi, 2021). All these findings might suggest that low status differential might be an important concept supporting organisational mastery climate and employee learning agility.

Learning from the participant interviews, this study found the importance of establishing a candour, safe and "equal" environment to encourage employee learning agility (i.e., knowledge sharing, experimentation as well as a more "communal" decision making behaviours). The study found that low-status differential is, first and foremost, deemed to be achieved through reducing the power distance between the employees and the management as well as emphasising a psychologically safe environment. Taking a step back to the idea of 'alignment' mentioned in the first area of inquiry, an interesting notion that emerged in this study is about the congruence between these HR practices and the senior management team's behaviours showcasing low status differential (e.g., Participant 17's CEO's personal chaos project, Participant 25's CEO vulnerability session). Referring back to Kim and Lee's (2021) study on

transformational leadership and learning agility, this study might clarify further the significant relationship between them, specifically related to the charisma, inspirational motivation and individualised consideration of a transformational leader (Dirani, 2009; Han et al., 2017). By being personally involved with the employees and honest (vulnerable) about his/her concerns and areas of development, the leader might be perceived as more authentic, charismatic or inspirational by the employees. Thus, contributing the effectiveness of the leadership role modelling as well as the level of trust built between them (Nerstad et al., 2018b).

Related to the HRM function itself, this theme has consistently emerged throughout several categories of HR practice, such as training and development, performance management and appraisal, compensation and benefit, employee relations, job and work design and management communication. In alignment, the extant literature has also demonstrated the role of such 'high-involvement' HR practices in shaping employees' perceptions of 'inclusive' climates and experimentation behaviours (Alikaj et al., 2021). Boehm et al. (2014) elaborated an integrated model that specifies the mechanisms through which HR inclusive practices influenced diversity climate perception, in particular through similar processes of collective sense-making. These practices might support the employee's likelihood to voice their own ideas and opinions as lower status members might be fearful of creating conflicts with more senior members due to potential negative reputation (e.g., being rude), unfavourable performance appraisal (Pelled et al., 2001; Choi, 2007) and neglection by higher status members (Van der Vegt et al., 2005). By being open and 'equal' on these HR practices, the similar (or aligned) message of low status differential could be communicated to the employees. Hence, all these might contribute to higher degree of mastery climate as well as learning agility.

The three themes that emerged in relation to the HR practices that facilitate mastery climates together suggest the importance of strategic and holistic approach. In organisational climate establishment, HR practices are argued to play a critical role in building a strong-shared meaning about the expected behaviours (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004). Operationalising HRM research on the bundle of HR practices that contribute to employee performance (e.g.,

Fullwood et al., 2012; Boxall and Purcell, 2016; Milani et al. 2021), this study contributes by showing the links between those individual HR practices from the perspective of key decision makers (i.e., senior HR leaders). Beyond HR (learning and development) practices, this study extends existing research by showing other specific practices that are also deemed strategically important. One interesting notion that emerges in this study yet has never been explored before in any of the learning agility models, is about low status differential. Through theoretical and empirical inferences, both from this study as well as the existing research, this study has shown that low status differential does matter to learning agility and might be an important concept to explore further in the future research.

While it might be an important concept in the learning agility nomological network (Harvey and De Meuse, 2021), all findings need to be looked at in a bigger picture. Having the management intention to 'democratise' learning through low status differential might contradict employees' expectation of being socially adroit. On one hand, a candour, safe and 'equal' environment is deemed important to encourage employee learning agility. Reduction of power distance or title differentiation is significant to communicate such value of inclusivity. They are expected to learn from and share their knowledge as much as possible to anyone. However, on the other hand, employees (especially the high potential ones) might also be expected to keep differentiating themselves from others. There's an expectation for the to keep showcasing their credibility and initiating something new. Such dissonance might confuse the employees and reduce the effectiveness of the HR strategy. Finally, quoting Wright and Nishii (2006), there is also an importance in scrutinizing the distinction between intended vs. implemented vs. experienced HRM. As the data is based exclusively on the perspectives of the senior HR leaders, this study might be inherently biased to the strategic intentions of these decision makers. Future studies, then, might benefit from clarifying and validating these assumed relationships further with the employees.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we have taken a critical look on the findings against the theoretical model utilised in this study, i.e., DeRue et al. (2012), and a wider

and more recent nomological network of learning agility (Harvey and De Meuse, 2021).

While DeRue et al. (2012) argue that learning agility should be defined narrowly only in terms of speed and flexibility of learning, it does not exist in isolation. There are multiple, possibly conflicting, organisational and management expectations within the organisations. Hence, taking into account the study findings, their definition seems to be limited. Beyond personal dispositions, there is a need to incorporate social contextual elements (e.g., social adroitness due to high potential employees management practices) as well that can enhance or attenuate one's learning agility (cf. Burke, 2018).

Beyond current research investigating the relationship between climate and learning agility (Saputra et al., 2018; Tripathi et al., 2020), there is a need to clarify organisation's role in learning agility climate establishment (Milani et al., 2021). This study utilises Bowen and Ostroff's (2004) HR system strength model to operationalise how (and through which practices) the organisations build their learning climate in support of employee learning agility. Finally, it also expands earlier research on bundled HR practices (e.g., performance-based pay, internal promotion system, extensive use of training, performance management and internal communication practices) affecting learning climate (Chow and Liu, 2007; 2009).

8. Conclusion, Limitations and Future Research Directions

Introduction

This chapter tries to conclude the study's overall findings, discuss some limitations and suggest important research directions pertaining learning agility in the future.

Looking at the study itself, it aspires to understand the dispositional and contextual correlates that are associated with high potential employees' learning agility. To this aim, the research objectives were twofold. Firstly, to explain which personality and motivational characteristics are associated with the high potential employees' learning agility and how these differ by the organisational perceived contexts. Secondly, to explore the role of HRM in establishing organisational climates conducive to learning agility. These two research objectives reflect the study's intention to address the high potential employees' learning agility construct from two different levels of analysis, i.e., micro- (employee) and meso- (organisational) levels.

8.1. Overall conclusion

In terms of the first objective, the study's findings and analysis contribute to the learning agility body of knowledge by investigating the underlying factors (i.e., personality traits and learning goal orientations) within the nexus of high potential management practice and organisational climate.

In terms of personality, the study has expanded DeRue et al.'s (2012) initial model by showing that Openness to Experience might not be the only personality trait correlated with learning agility. Confirming past research (Mitchinson et al., 2012; Mitchinson and Morris, 2014), Extraversion, Emotionality, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness traits also correlate with learning agility in different directions. The study also found Honesty-Humility trait is negatively related to learning agility; a direction against the study's initial hypothesis. To explain this and the following interaction relationships

between the traits and the motivational climates, the study offers an explanation through the lens of social adroitness (Markey and Markey, 2006). At the behavioural level (as opposed to the construct level), additional analyses were made to showcase how the above traits related to the social facets of learning agility. The study eventually suggests that social adroitness and the possible individual impression management behaviours (Jones and Pittman, 1982) might be related to the 'social expectations' surrounding them as high potential employees. As high potential employees are managed through constant managerial observation, they need to be socially adroit to navigate the possible political environment of the organisation (Finkelstein et al., 2018). Finally, a thematic analysis was also done to accentuate and illustrate the same organisational contexts these high potential employees face in their organisation.

In terms of learning goal orientation, the study confirms the previous research on mastery orientation was positively, and performance orientation was negatively associated with learning agility. Although these relationships have been well established, referring to Harvey and De Meuse's (2021) nomological network, one specific area that needs to be clarified further is the relationships of those orientations with each learning agility behavioural dimension. The study found mastery orientation significantly and positively correlates with all nine learning agility behavioural dimensions; while performance orientation only significantly and negatively correlates with most of them. Looking at the social facets of learning agility, the relationship between performance orientation and feedback seeking is not statistically significant. The study would argue that such a result can be seen from the perspectives of social adroitness as well. Individuals high in mastery orientation (thus, high in learning agility) would likely place greater weight on the learning opportunity feedback provides and, therefore, often seek feedback, even in the face of the risk of receiving negative feedback.

In terms of the second objective, the study's findings and analysis contribute to the learning agility body of knowledge by investigating method how and what the organisations could do to promote their learning climate (Milani et al., 2021).

Aside from the organisational climates and high potential management practices supporting learning agility, Harvey and De Meuse (2021) also pointed out several other future research areas especially that relate to the malleability of learning agility, i.e., organisational and leadership approaches that are most effective in developing learning agility. Extant studies have indicated that learning agility are developable through career variety (i.e., job rotation, enlargement and enrichment) (Dries et al., 2012), knowledge sharing (Shin and Jun, 2019; Lee and Song, 2022) as well as organisational-sponsored mobility (Dai et al., 2013; Jooss et al., 2019). However, on the whole organisational climate level, the evidence is still nascent.

There were two areas of inquiry that were explored in the second part of the study: (1) From a managerial perspective, how could HRM function "orchestrate" or align its practices to establish the organisational climate that is conducive to learning agility and (2) which HR practices that would be supportive toward a 'strong' and 'unified' organisational climate. For the first area of inquiry, there are two key empirical contributions arise from this area concerning (1) the crucial roles HRM function play in the HRM-Performance relationship in general, and in creating organisational learning climates in particular; and (2) the importance of vertical and horizontal alignment for implementing the organisational climates establishment. For the second area of inquiry, the key empirical contributions would be about the HR practices that are deemed significant to establish organisational learning climate. These three practices are (1) person-organisation fit HR practices; (2) 'democratisation' of knowledge HR practices; and (3) low status differentials HR practices.

From the perspective of HRM role, the first empirical contribution concerns the crucial role that HRM function plays in establishing organisational mastery climate. This provides a broader understanding of the HRM-Performance relationship, which currently revolves around the question of which HRM practices or systems are relevant for establishing such climate, yet neglects how the HRM function may 'orchestrate' and set the 'contextual stage' to establish the intended climate. In order to achieve a congruent perception of all organisational constituents of the expected behaviours to establish the said mastery climate, this study showed that alignment between — at least — three

stakeholders is critical, i.e., the senior management team, the HRM function and the employees. This constitutes the second empirical contribution. Beyond the extant literature that emphasis on the "vertical" alignment of HR practices that happens 'at the top' of the organisation; alignment is deemed important to happen 'horizontally' across the different HR sub-functions as well as in relation to employees' intrinsic motivation to maintain a 'learning ecosystem.'

From the perspective of HR practices, 'person-organisation fit HR practices' are practices that are important to communicate a congruent message about the expected learning behaviours to the employees, i.e., 'criterion-based' recruitment, performance appraisal, reward and promotion. When it comes to training and development practice, it primarily serves to nurture the cross-functional collaboration that critical to learning agility, through the use of employees' sharing sessions. Finally, to build the intended mastery climate, the participants seem to acknowledge the importance of establishing a candour, safe and 'equal' environment to encourage their learning and experimentation behaviours.

8.2. Managerial implications

As this study is pragmatic in nature, there would be important for the reader to be able to take several practical and specific action plans out of this study, especially in terms of how HRM function could build a learning climate conducive to learning agility.

1. Pay attention to the perceptual alignments between HRM function, senior management team and employees.
2. To build alignment with the senior management team, beyond generically being considerate to their "pain points" and rooting for their "learning philosophy," try to co-create the learning practices together with them. Refine the practices with them in "just-in-time" fashion and encourage them to personally adopt and endorse these practices. This study found that these leadership behaviours build the legitimacy of HRM function in front of the employees. When the function, along with its practices, are perceived to be legitimate, communicating the expected learning behaviours is deemed to be easier going forward.

3. Within the HRM function itself, a "one HR" perceptions from the senior management team and employees are imperative to be achieved. Try to ensure both horizontal and vertical alignments. Vertical alignment is achieved when there is an alignment between the different levels of HR architecture; i.e., the same strategic intent to build a climate that fosters learning and knowledge sharing should be reflected accordingly in the HR policies, practices and end products/services. Horizontal alignment, on the other hand, is an alignment between the different subfunctions under the HRM function. Several practices that the study found to be critical in building employees' understandings and perceptions of the expected learning behaviours:

a) Criterion-based recruitment: To hire candidates that are "organisationally fit" (i.e., learning orientated) from the onset.

b) Criterion-based performance appraisal and reward: To measure and reward, both individual and team, expected learning behaviours through the use of monetary and non-monetary rewards.

c) Criterion-based promotion: To promote and build future leadership pool that upholds the same degree of learning orientation.

d) Cross-functional training: To ensure all employees have access to (or "democratization" of) knowledge in the workplace.

e) Cross-pollination of ideas and feedbacks: To ensure "critical incidents" of expected learning behaviours that take place everyday are captured and distributed back to the employees.

f) Reduction of status differentials: To establish a candour, safe and "equal" environment for the employees to encourage their experimentation behaviours.

g) Agile organisation structure: Flattening the overall organisation structure to reduce the power distance between the employees and the senior management team.

4. Finally, to build alignment with the employees, an unequivocal, consistent and consensual message is critical. This can be achieved, of course, by firstly ensuring all HR-related written communications are distinct, easy to understand and continuous. The further challenge is to ensure the non-written communications communicate the same message (e.g., the senior management team's leadership behaviours, how and what kind of

employees' behaviours are rewarded or punished, etc.). Studies have found that employees' internal motivation to learn is an important factor for sustainable learning behaviours. This study found that one area that could be leveraged here is to clarify on the organisations' "experimentation philosophy," i.e., how do they treat the employees' failures as much as the successes that come from experimenting at work.

8.3. Limitations and future research directions

In terms of the limitations of this study, there is a need to acknowledge that there are a number of research design and methodological improvements that can be made in the future.

As this study was conducted relying on self-report inventories (especially the quantitative part of the study), the results might have been influenced by common method variance (CMV) or common method bias (CMB) (Lindell and Whitney, 2001). As can be seen in the methodology chapter, the researcher has conducted several ex-ante and ex-post remedies to address CMB. This study utilised established, previously validated and reliability-tested inventories; in anonymous and safe environment. Referring to Podsakoff et al. (2003), such ex-ante remedies might contribute to avoiding the CMB through the use of inventories that contain minimum item ambiguity, social desirability and demand characteristics. As for ex-post remedies, beyond ensuring the discriminant validity of the factors involved (Ibid.), this study has included the CMB markers (Richardson et al., 2009) throughout the step-wise CFA process to account for the bias (see 5.2. Data analysis, Williams et al., 2010; Gaskin, 2020). Regardless, to address and minimize CMB even more in the future research, several further design-related remedies should be considered (i.e., conducting the study with variables obtained from different sources, contexts and time frames as elaborated below) (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Since the study is cross-sectional in nature, it captures the relationships between the dispositional and contextual correlates with high potential employees' learning agility only at one point in time (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). Despite the statistical significance, it might not provide the evidence of the relationships over time. Larger research budget and longer research period

in the future might warrant longitudinal research design. Beyond testing the same relationships, longitudinal research might provide more insight on the contextual changes of the relationships over time (Saunders et al., 2016). In terms of the population under study, it focuses on the high potential employees. Wider (e.g., general employees) and more varied types of participants in future research might provide more generalisable research findings; or even an entirely different strength and valence of the relationships given the context of social adroitness might not be the same for everyone within the organisation. Finally, as mentioned before, the study was conducted in two different levels of analysis (i.e., micro- (employee) and meso- (organisational) levels), collected data from two different kinds of samples to address two different research objectives. Although the linkages between the resulting two different findings have been provided, they could only be done through theoretical inferences of past research findings and not empirical inferences. In the future, having a single research objective, sample and level of analysis might provide more focused and robust findings.

Despite being advantageous to be able to access the perspectives of multiple key HR decision makers across different industries, there is also a critical need to validate their intentions. Wright and Nishii (2006) pointed out the importance of scrutinizing the distinction between intended vs. implemented vs. experienced HRM. As the data is based exclusively on the perspectives of the senior HR leaders, this study might be inherently biased to the strategic intentions of these decision makers. Learning from Herd et al.'s (2018) study on employees' perceptions on strategic human resource development alignment, there is a need to further validate the actual implementation of these alignments, the employees' experiences as well as their perceptions on how the different HR practices affect their actual learning behaviour. A deeper empirical analysis – for example, using motivational construct such as 3 x 2 learning goal orientations (Elliot et al., 2011) – might be beneficial to clarify how these HR practices and their postulated alignments influence the employees' learning motivation. Finally, future research might benefit from exploring several other concepts relevant to this study findings, such as transformational leadership, agile HR, impression management; as well as

empirically testing employees' social adroitness and their level of learning agility.

Appendices

<u>Appendix 1. Questionnaire</u>

<u>Appendix 2. Interview Guide</u>

Participant Information Sheet

You are being invited to take part in a research titled **"A Study of Employee Learning Agility - The Effects of Individual Differences and Motivational Climate."** Before you decide, it is important for you to understand why this research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether you wish to take part. Thank you for reading this.

The researcher that is leading this study is Alvin Hadiono; a PhD student from Adam Smith Business School, University of Glasgow, United Kingdom. This research is funded by Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education (Lembaga Pengelola Dana Pendidikan / LPDP).

The purpose of this research is to answer a question on the internal and external factors of the individual that lead to his/her learning agile behaviour. **Your participation in this research will be confidential, voluntary and bear no relationship whatsoever with your current and future performance and potential evaluation.** You can withdraw at any time without giving any reason. Your participation will entail completing a questionnaire that should be able to be finished in around 20 minutes. **There is no right or wrong answer. Consider and answer every statement carefully, but do not overthink it. Please be open and honest.**

Your confidentiality as research participant will be ensured using anonymous questionnaire. Please note that such confidentiality will be respected subject to legal constraints and professional guidelines. As per the University Code of Good Practice in Research, all of the personal and research data will be kept and managed in the University's secured cloud storage space. These data will then be destroyed 5 years and 10 years, respectively, after the completion of the research.

Research incentives
1. A small token of appreciation in the form of shopping voucher of Rp. 50.000.
2. At the end of the questionnaire, there will be an option for you to receive the summary of your individual learning agility inventory results.

Should your organization request for its overall employees' learning agility inventory results, the collected individual results will be presented in aggregated, organization-level format; not individually.

This research has been considered and approved by the College Research Ethics Committee, University of Glasgow, United Kingdom. **Should you require further information regarding this research, you may contact the researcher directly at xxxxxxx or xxxxxxxxxx. Should you want to pursue any complaint, you may direct it to the College of Social Sciences Ethics Officer, Dr Muir Houston, at muir.houston@glasgow.ac.uk.**

_____End of Participant Information Sheet_____

Participant Consent Form

Title of Project   **:** "A Study of Employee Learning Agility - The Effects of Individual Differences and Motivational Climate"

Name of Researcher: Alvin Hadiono, PhD Student from Adam Smith Business School, University of Glasgow, United Kingdom

I confirm that   :

- I have read and understood the Participant Information Sheet for this research and have had the opportunity to ask questions.
- I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.
- I acknowledge that there will be no effect on my employment arising from my participation or non-participation in this research.
- I acknowledge that my participation in this research is confidential through the use of anonymous questionnaire.
- I acknowledge that all of the research data will be kept and managed in the University's secured cloud storage space. At the end of data keeping, the data will be destroyed.
- I acknowledge that, in the event of my organization requests its overall employees' learning agility inventory results, the collected individual results will be presented in aggregated, organization-level format; not individually.
- Finally, I acknowledge that such confidentiality will be respected subject to legal constraints and professional guidelines.

By completing this questionnaire, you are consenting to participate in this study.

_____End of Participant Consent Form_____

General Instructions: Please remember that this is not a test; thus, there is no right, wrong, better or worse answer. It bears no relationship whatsoever with your current and future performance and potential evaluation in your organization. Consider and answer every statement carefully, but do not overthink it. Please be open and honest.

<u>**Inventory 1 out of 5**</u>
Instructions: Please consider how often you engage in the following behaviours at work. Complete it based on your actual current and past behaviours. Complete it in your context as an employee of your current organization.

How often do you engage in the following behaviours at work?

		1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
1	Ask my peers to provide me with feedback on my performance.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
2	Seek feedback from my manager about my performance.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
3	Discuss my potential for advancement within the organization with my manager.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
4	Directly ask others for their thoughts on how I can improve my performance.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
5	Seek new information on topics related to my job or field.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
6	Update my knowledge and expertise through formal training or education.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
7	Read trade journals, newspaper articles, books, or other sources to stay informed.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
8	Collect data to increase my knowledge, evaluate my progress, and inform my next steps.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
9	Take on new roles or assignments that are challenging.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
10	Engage in tasks that are ambiguous in terms of how to succeed.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
11	Embrace work that is risky, even if the outcomes are uncertain.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
12	Volunteer for assignments or projects that involve the possibility of failure.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
13	Bring up problems and tough issues with others.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
14	Ask others for help when needed.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
15	Discuss my mistakes with others.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
16	Challenge others' ideas and opinions even when they are shared by many people.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
17	Look for ways to leverage the unique skills, knowledge, and talents of others.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently

18	Work with colleagues from different backgrounds or job functions to share perspectives.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
19	Collaborate with people in other parts of the organization.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
20	Ask a variety of stakeholders for their points of view.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
21	Evaluate new techniques or different ways of solving problems.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
22	Experiment with unproven ideas by testing them out.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
23	Try different approaches to see which one generates the best results.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
24	Jump into action and learn by trial and error.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
25	Stop to reflect on work processes and projects.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
26	Take time to reflect on how to be more effective.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
27	Consider the reasons for and consequences of my actions or recent events.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
28	Critically evaluate work-related events with others in order to understand what happened.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
29	Consider many different options before taking action.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
30	Switch between different tasks or jobs as needed.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
31	Find common themes among opposing points of view.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
32	Articulate seemingly competing ideas or perspectives.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
33	Propose solutions that others see as innovative.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
34	Quickly develop solutions to problems.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
35	Get up to speed quickly on new tasks or projects.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
36	Acquire new skills and knowledge rapidly and easily.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
37	Readily grasp new ideas or concepts.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently
38	React well to unexpected problems.	1 Not at All	2	3	4 Occasionally	5	6	7 Very Frequently

Instructions: On the following pages you will find a series of statements about you. Please read each statement and decide how much you agree or disagree with that statement.

To what extent do you agree/disagree with each of the following statements?

		1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
1	I would be quite bored by a visit to an art gallery.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I plan ahead and organize things, to avoid scrambling at the last minute.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I rarely hold a grudge, even against people who have badly wronged me.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I feel reasonably satisfied with myself overall.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I would feel afraid if I had to travel in bad weather conditions.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I wouldn't use flattery to get a raise or promotion at work, even if I thought it would succeed.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I'm interested in learning about the history and politics of other countries.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I often push myself very hard when trying to achieve a goal.	1	2	3	4	5
9	People sometimes tell me that I am too critical of others.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I rarely express my opinions in group meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I sometimes can't help worrying about little things.	1	2	3	4	5
12	If I knew that I could never get caught, I would be willing to steal a million dollars.	1	2	3	4	5
13	I would enjoy creating a work of art, such as a novel, a song, or a painting.	1	2	3	4	5
14	When working on something, I don't pay much attention to small details.	1	2	3	4	5
15	People sometimes tell me that I'm too stubborn.	1	2	3	4	5
16	I prefer jobs that involve active social interaction to those that involve working alone.	1	2	3	4	5
17	When I suffer from a painful experience, I need someone to make me feel comfortable.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Having a lot of money is not especially important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
19	I think that paying attention to radical ideas is a waste of time.	1	2	3	4	5
20	I make decisions based on the feeling of the moment rather than on careful thought.	1	2	3	4	5

21	People think of me as someone who has a quick temper.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
22	On most days, I feel cheerful and optimistic.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
23	I feel like crying when I see other people crying.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
24	I think that I am entitled to more respect than the average person is.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
25	If I had the opportunity, I would like to attend a classical music concert.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
26	When working, I sometimes have difficulties due to being disorganized.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
27	My attitude toward people who have treated me badly is "forgive and forget".	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
28	I feel that I am an unpopular person.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
29	When it comes to physical danger, I am very fearful.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
30	If I want something from someone, I will laugh at that person's worst jokes.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
31	I've never really enjoyed looking through an encyclopaedia.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
32	I do only the minimum amount of work needed to get by.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
33	I tend to be lenient in judging other people.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
34	In social situations, I'm usually the one who makes the first move.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
35	I worry a lot less than most people do.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
36	I would never accept a bribe, even if it were very large.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
37	People have often told me that I have a good imagination.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
38	I always try to be accurate in my work, even at the expense of time.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
39	I am usually quite flexible in my opinions when people disagree with me.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
40	The first thing that I always do in a new place is to make friends.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
41	I can handle difficult situations without needing emotional support from anyone else.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
42	I would get a lot of pleasure from owning expensive luxury goods.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree

43	I like people who have unconventional views.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
44	I make a lot of mistakes because I don't think before I act.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
45	Most people tend to get angry more quickly than I do.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
46	Most people are more upbeat and dynamic than I generally am.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
47	I feel strong emotions when someone close to me is going away for a long time.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
48	I want people to know that I am an important person of high status.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
49	I don't think of myself as the artistic or creative type.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
50	People often call me a perfectionist.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
51	Even when people make a lot of mistakes, I rarely say anything negative.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
52	I sometimes feel that I am a worthless person.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
53	Even in an emergency I wouldn't feel like panicking.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
54	I wouldn't pretend to like someone just to get that person to do favours for me.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
55	I find it boring to discuss philosophy.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
56	I prefer to do whatever comes to mind, rather than stick to a plan.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
57	When people tell me that I'm wrong, my first reaction is to argue with them.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
58	When I'm in a group of people, I'm often the one who speaks on behalf of the group.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
59	I remain unemotional even in situations where most people get very sentimental.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
60	I'd be tempted to use counterfeit money, if I were sure I could get away with it.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree

Inventory 3 out of 5

Instruction: The following statements represent types of goals that you may or may not have when you are learning a knowledge or skill at work. For each item, please indicate your level of agreement with the statement. Complete it in your context as an employee of your current organization.

When you learn something new at work, your goal is…

#	Statement	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3	4 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	5	6 Agree	7 Strongly Agree
1	To perform well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	To obtain good results.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	To be effective.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	To avoid performing badly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	To avoid bad results.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	To avoid being ineffective.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	To do better that what I usually do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	To have better results that I had in the past.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	To be more effective than before.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	To avoid having worse results than I had previously.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	To avoid doing worse than I usually do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	To avoid being less effective compared to my usual level of performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	To do better than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	To be more effective than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	To have better results than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	To avoid doing worse than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	To avoid worse results than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	To avoid being less effective than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Inventory 4 out of 5

Instruction: On the following pages you will find a series of statements about your current department/work group. Please read each statement and decide how much you agree or disagree with that statement. Complete it in your context as an employee of your current organization.

To what extent do you agree/disagree with each of the following statements?

1	In my department/work group, there exists a competitive rivalry among the employees.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
2	In my department/work group, work accomplishments are measured based on comparisons with the accomplishments of co-workers.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
3	In my department/work group, rivalry between employees is encouraged.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
4	In my department/work group, internal competition is encouraged to attain the best possible results.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
5	In my department/work group, only those employees who achieve the best results/accomplishments are set up as examples.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
6	In my department/work group, one is encouraged to perform optimally to achieve monetary rewards.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
7	In my department/work group, an individual's accomplishments are compared with those of other colleagues.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
8	In my department/work group, it is important to achieve better than others.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
9	In my department/work group, one is encouraged to cooperate and exchange thoughts and ideas mutually.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
10	In my department/work group, each individual's learning and development is emphasized.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
11	In my department/work group, cooperation and mutual exchange of knowledge are encouraged.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
12	In my department/work group, employees are encouraged to try new solution methods throughout the work process.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
13	In my department/work group, one of the goals is to make each individual feel that he/she has an important role in the work process.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
14	In my department/work group, everybody has an important and clear task throughout the work process.	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree

Inventory 5 out of 5

Instruction: This survey asks a number of questions about your preferences, styles and habits at work. Read each statement carefully. Then, for each statement, circle the corresponding number that best represents your opinion.

To what extent do you agree/disagree with each of the following statements?

1	I take responsibility for acquiring new skills	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
2	I enjoy learning new approaches for conducting work	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
3	I take action to improve work performance deficiencies	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
4	I often learn new information and skills to stay at the forefront of my profession	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
5	I quickly learn new methods to solve problems	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
6	I train to keep my work skills and knowledge current	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
7	I am continually learning new skills for my job	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
8	I take responsibility for staying current in my profession	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
9	I try to learn new skills for my job before they are needed	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral (Neither Disagree / Agree)	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree

Participant Demographic

1	Age	☐ 20-30 ☐ 31-40 ☐ 41-50 ☐ 51-60 ☐ 61+
2	Gender	☐ Female ☐ Male ☐ Refuse to declare
3	Formal educational background	☐ High school and below ☐ University graduate ☐ University post-graduate
4	Number of years of full-time work experience	☐ <1 ☐ 1-2 ☐ 3-5 ☐ 6-10 ☐ 11-15 ☐ 16-20 ☐ 20+
5	Current organization name	…

6	Current work division / department	☐ Sales and marketing ☐ Customer service ☐ Operation and administration ☐ Finance and accounting ☐ Human resource and general affairs ☐ Public relation and investor relations ☐ Information technology ☐ Research and development ☐ Others:
7	Current work location	☐ Jakarta ☐ Others:
8	Current managerial role	☐ Individual contributor ☐ Manager of others ☐ Manager of managers
9	Current tenure in the organization	☐ <1 ☐ 1-2 ☐ 3-5 ☐ 6-10 ☐ 11-15 ☐ 16-20 ☐ 20+

Research incentives

1	Would you like to receive the summary of your individual learning agility inventory results?	☐ Yes ☐ No
2	Would you like to receive the Rp. 50.000,- shopping voucher?	☐ Yes ☐ No
3	If you say "yes" to any of the questions above, please provide your email address in the box next to this statement.	

_____ End of Research Questionnaire. Thank you for your participation. _____

University of Glasgow

College of Social Sciences

Participant Information Sheet

You are being invited to take part in a research titled **"A Study of Employee Learning Agility - The Effects of Individual Differences and Motivational Climate."** Before you decide, it is important for you to understand why this research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether you wish to take part. Thank you for reading this.

The researcher that is leading this study is Alvin Hadiono; a PhD student from Adam Smith Business School, University of Glasgow, United Kingdom. This research is funded by Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education (Lembaga Pengelola Dana Pendidikan / LPDP).

The purpose of this research is to understand the factors associated with learning agility. **Your participation in this research will be confidential, voluntary and bear no relationship whatsoever with your current and future performance and potential evaluation.** You can withdraw at any time without giving any reason. Your participation will entail a face-to-face interview with the researcher that should be able to be finished in around 1 hour. This interview will be recorded only with your consent.

Your confidentiality as research participant will be ensured using pseudonyms.
- Your name, job title, your organization name; as well as any reference to another person name, job title and organization name; will be concealed in the final manuscript. These names will be simply addressed as "senior leader" and/or "organization A."
- The interview process itself will be conducted privately with a recording process following the University's policies and procedures on data management.
- However, please note that complete confidentiality may not be guaranteed, due to the limited size of the participant sample (e.g. there is only one Head of HR in an organization). Please note as well that the above assurances on confidentiality will be strictly adhered unless evidence of wrongdoing or potential harm is uncovered. In such cases, the University may be obliged to contact relevant statutory bodies/agencies.
- As per the University Code of Good Practice in Research, all of the personal and research data will be kept and managed in the University's secured cloud storage space. These data will then be destroyed 5 years and 10 years, respectively, after the completion of the research.

Research incentives
1. A small token of appreciation in the form of shopping voucher of Rp. 100.000.
2. If requested, a copy of the final research manuscript could be provided.

This research has been considered and approved by the College Research Ethics Committee, University of Glasgow, United Kingdom. **Should you require further information regarding this research, you may contact the researcher directly at xxxxxxx or xxxxxxx. Should you want to pursue any complaint, you may direct it to the College of Social Sciences Ethics Officer, Dr Muir Houston, at muir.houston@glasgow.ac.uk.**
_____End of Participant Information Sheet_____

College of Social Sciences

Participant Consent Form

Title of Project : "A Study of Employee Learning Agility - The Effects of Individual Differences and Motivational Climate"

Name of Researcher: Alvin Hadiono, PhD Student from Adam Smith Business School, University of Glasgow, United Kingdom

I confirm that :

- I have read and understood the Participant Information Sheet for this research and have had the opportunity to ask questions.
- I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.
- I acknowledge that there will be no effect on my employment arising from my participation or non-participation in this research.
- I acknowledge that my participation in this research is confidential. My name, job title, my organization name; as well as any reference to another person name, job title and organization name; will be concealed as pseudonyms in the final manuscript.
- I acknowledge that all of the research data will be kept and managed in the University's secured cloud storage space. At the end of data keeping, the data will be destroyed.
- Due to the limited size of the participant sample, I acknowledge that complete confidentiality may not be guaranteed.
- I acknowledge that the above assurances on confidentiality will be strictly adhered unless evidence of wrongdoing or potential harm is uncovered. In such cases, the University may be obliged to contact relevant statutory bodies/agencies.

I consent / do not consent (delete as applicable) for the interview to be audio-recorded.

I agree / do not agree (delete as applicable) to take part in this research.

Name of Participant   …………………………………………………   Signature …………………………………………………

Date of Consent   …………………………………………………

Name of Researcher   …………………………………………………   Signature …………………………………………………

Date of Consent   …………………………………………………

_____End of Participant Consent Form_____

Interview Questions

No	Main Interview Questions	Possible Probing Questions
	High-potential employees, or HIPOs for short, can be defined as employees that have been with your organization for at least 1 year and/or experience at least 1 performance appraisal period, whom are considered most instrumental to the competitive advantage of your organization. Compared to their peers, they consistently and significantly show higher level of performance in a variety of contexts; stronger capacity and motivation to grow their careers within your organization; as well as exhibiting exemplary behaviours that reflect your organization's culture and values.	
1	As an [HR professional / CEO], what is your understanding of learning agility?	1. So, is it important for your organization, especially your HIPOs, to have learning agility? Why / why not? 2. We will discuss this deeper later, but generally, there are a lot of opportunities nowadays for your HIPOs to learn nowadays, both within and beyond your organization. They can learn from various sources, like reading books, attending classes, talking with their colleagues, from their experiences, etc. Imagine one of your HIPO that is learning agile, what kind of behaviours that he/she shows in daily basis? 3. From your point of view, how or in what way do these behaviours affect his/her potential and performance?
2	What do you think about learning climate in your organization?	1. Is establishing such climate important in your organization? Why / why not? 2. How or in what way do they are building higher levels of learning agility of your HIPOs? 3. The learning climate you aim to establish; does it value learning process or performance more? Or both? 4. Is there different type of climate implemented in different parts of your organization? Why? How or in what way?
3	Focusing on the HR practices conducted in your organization, what do you think would be the practices to establish such conducive learning agile climate[s]?	1. Out of those HR practices, which ones do you think will be the most important practices? 2. Why are these HR practices important? 3. How or in what way do these HR practices establish such climate[s]?
4	Focusing specifically on the [e.g. C&B] practices conducted in your organization, what do you think would be the important [e.g. C&B] sub-practices to establish such conducive learning agile climate[s]?	1. Why are these HR practices important? 2. How or in what way do these HR practices establish such climate[s]?
5	Taking into account of all HR practices you have mentioned before, how to combine and ensure alignment of these practices?	1. What considerations do you have before combining and aligning these practices? 2. Is such alignment important to you? Why / why not? 3. What kind of misalignment between these practices that can or have happened? 4. How to mitigate or "fix" any mis-alignment?

6	Finally, let's discuss about implementation. How do you ensure such HR vision is implemented in practice and experienced by the employees?	1. What factors involved here to ensure implementation? 2. What can or have gone wrong? 3. How to mitigate or "fix" any mis-implementation?

Participant Demographic

1	Current organization name	…
2	Current position title	…
3	Current work location	☐ Jakarta ☐ Others:
4	Current managerial role	☐ Individual contributor ☐ Manager of others ☐ Manager of managers
5	Current tenure in the organization	☐ <1 ☐ 1-2 ☐ 3-5 ☐ 6-10 ☐ 11-15 ☐ 16-20 ☐ 20+

_____ End of Research Interview Questions. Thank you for your participation. _____

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