THE MEDIATING EFFECTS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT ON HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICES AND EMPLOYEE RETENTION RELATIONSHIP: AN EMPLOYEE-EMPLOYER PERSPECTIVE.

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DECLARATION

This work has not previously been accepted in substance for any degree and is not being concurrently submitted in candidature for any degree.

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STATEMENT 1

This thesis is the result of my own investigations, except where otherwise stated. Where correction services have been used the extent and nature of the correction is clearly marked in a footnote(s). Other sources are acknowledged by footnotes giving explicit references. A bibliography is appended.

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ABSTRACT

The importance of retaining employees is emphasized by the negative outcomes of employee turnover such as the costs in finding a replacement, as well as the valuable knowledge, skills and connections that employee has. The psychological contract plays a crucial role as a framework in understanding the fundamentals of the employee-employer relationship, as it deals with the fulfilment of obligations and promises an organization has made to the employee, and vice versa. With the use of the psychological contract in employee retention, the gaps between what is promised and the extent of how the promises are met can be determined. Based on these gaps, employers can strategize employee retention practices accordingly.

In this thesis, practices of the organization (HR practices) are used as contents of the psychological contract of which its importance to the employees and the extent of its fulfilment (psychological contract) is identified, which would result in employee retention. A cross-sectional study using survey questionnaires were distributed to organizations within the Event Management industry. These organizations are those registered under the Malaysia Convention and Exhibition Bureau (MyCEB) where 50 employee-employer dyads returned the completed questionnaires. The data obtained were then analysed using descriptive, correlational, independent samples t-tests, and regression analysis to determine the relationship between the variables of this study.

This research found that there is a positive significant relationship between HR practice and psychological contract fulfilment (Employee: $\beta = 0.355$, p-value < 0.001; Employer: $\beta = 0.456$, p-value $= 0.001$), psychological contract fulfilment and employee retention (Employee: $\beta = 0.236$, p-value $= 0.019$; Employer: $\beta = 0.384$, p-value $= 0.016$), as well as a full mediation of the psychological contract fulfilment towards the relationship between HR practices and employee retention. This study also found that there is no significant difference between the perceptions of both parties in regards to HR practices ($p > 0.05$). However, there was a significant difference between employee and employer regarding the psychological contract ($p = 0.00$) and employee retention ($p = 0.013$). These findings contribute to the HRM domain and offers a valuable connection between HR practices and the psychological contract, and also the link between psychological contract and social exchange theory. Additionally, matched data of employee and employer provides valuable and corresponding information regarding the perceptions of the psychological contract.

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CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

1.1 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

The main purpose of this research is to determine how HR practices, psychological contract and employee retention are related, done within the Event Management industry. More specifically, this research intends to identify what is seen valuable or important to the employees and the extent of its fulfilment, and how that contributes to the retention of the said employees in their current organization. This chapter discusses the direction of the current research which first introduces the background of the study, followed by the problem statement, research objectives and research questions, significance of study as well as the description of the terms used in this thesis.

1.2 BACKGROUND OF STUDY

One of the biggest challenges for organizations is their ability to retain their employees, or in other words reduce or eliminate employee turnover (Ghani et al., 2022; Ahmed et al., 2016; Butali et al., 2014, Das and Baruah, 2013). The term "employee turnover" for the purpose of this research is referred to as the leaving of an employee from an organization in a voluntary manner (Ahmad, 2022; Chen et al., 2008). Particular attention should be given to employee turnover as turnover intention is one of the most studied important issues to organizations (Alias et al, 2018; Nasrudin et al., 2017).

Employee turnover can affect organizations negatively in many ways such as inability to ensure knowledge continuity due to loss of experienced workers (Shibru, 2022; Hana and Lucie, 2011), lower productivity as newer employees take a longer time to gain knowledge (Ahmad, 2022; Faeq and Ismael, 2022; Allied HR IQ, 2012) and is costly due to costs required to attract and hire new employees to replace the ones that left (Duong, 2022; Boushey and Glynn, 2012; Eady and Nicholls, 2011; Tymon et al., 2011; Allen et al., 2010), and much worse – deterioration of organisational performance (Chiendu et al., 2022; Fahim, 2018; Massingham, 2018; McElroy et al., 2011)

In the Malaysian context, employee turnover has been seen to be increasing of the years. Employee turnover is reported to have increased from years 2012 to 2013 to 13.2% (Mystarjob, 2015). In addition, the intention for employees to leave their current employment within the next two years is shown to have increased by 7% from 2012 to 2014, as reported by Tower Watson (2014). The Institute of Labour Market Information and Analysis (2018), under the Malaysian Ministry of Human Resources, found that the average turnover rate in 2017 was at 20%. In 2022, a study found that Malaysia turnover rates where at 14.9% (HRMAsia.com, 2022). Zooming out from Malaysia to the region, Malaysia's employee turnover rate has recorded to be the third highest within South East Asia in 2015 (HR In Asia, 2015). In 2016, Malaysia was reported to have a 12.8% employee turnover rate, which is higher than the average percentage of 10% in major markets in the Asia Pacific region (Hewitt, 2017). Another study found that

With this in mind, it is without a doubt that organizations are formulating strategies to reduce employee turnover, making employee retention a popular topic in management literature (Bharadwaj et al., 2022; Tymon et al., 2011; Pitts et al., 2011; Shaw et al., 2005; Steel et al., 2002; Cappelli, 2001). Changes have to be made in attracting and retaining employees (Kwok, 2022; Horwitz et al., 2003), especially for employees that possess the needed competencies and skills by the organization, in order to ensure business resilience in volatile times (Żywiołek et al., 2022; Mitchell et al., 2001).

Nevertheless, retaining employees is no easy task because employees are seen to be more loyal to themselves i.e., putting priority to their career path and growth rather than the organization's (Redondo et al., 2021; George, 2015, 2009; Cappelli, 2001; Alvesson, 2000), which reflects on the increased occurrence of employees leaving their employment. In Malaysia, employees are seen to most likely leave their current employment to better opportunities that provide better skill enhancement and career advancements, given a higher average of two and a half years as compared to previous times (The Sun Daily, 2017). This only highlights the difficulty in retaining employees due to the fact that the landscape of employment locally in Malaysia is very aggressive and competitive.

The current research is conducted within the Event Management industry where the business of event management involves the conceptualization, planning, structuring and execution of projects that includes social gatherings, conventions, exhibitions, concerts, wedding receptions, roadshows, training and any other events of similar nature. Given the fast-paced and demanding nature of the business, these employees have a high probability of leaving their current employment to either another organization that may provide better opportunities or pay, or to an organization of an entirely different industry. And this will one way or another affect the continuity of the business of the said organization.

It is without a doubt that the writer acknowledges that irrespective of the industry, employee turnover will occur and has occurred. With that in mind, the purpose of this thesis is to understand what makes an employee remain in the organization, but by including the psychological contract, a better understanding could be obtained. When an employee is employed by an organization, a perception of obligations or expectations between the employee and employer is created, which is referred to as the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989). For more than 20 years, the concept of psychological contract has grown and become pertinent to identify and manage this employment relationship, furthermore in putting together strategies and practices for effective employee retention (Phuong and Takahashi, 2018). Therefore, by linking and applying the psychological contract to employee retention, one can understand what is being perceived by the employee, which includes what is seen valuable or important to the employee or what is promised by the organization that encourages the employee to remain in the company, and from there alter and adapt management practices that focus to employee retention.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Employee turnover brings negative repercussions to an organization, not only in terms of costs relating to the re-hiring of employees to replace vacancies (Duong, 2022; Cascio and Boudreau, 2011; Allen et al., 2010) but also detrimental to the performance of the organization as leaving employees take along their expertise, skills and business relationships (Chiendu et al., 2022; Ployhard et al., 2014; Mitchell et al., 2001b). The negative outcomes of employee turnover emphasize the importance of employee retention (Dwesini, 2019; Al-Emadi et al., 2015, Chew and Chan, 2008), as turnover is regarded as the opposite of employee retention (Tripathi and Srivastava, 2020; Emery, 2010; Ghere and York-Barr, 2007).

Compared to the average percentage of 10% in major Asia-Pacific markets, the turnover rate in Malaysia is higher at 12.8% (Hewitt, 2017). In the same vein, The Edge Markets (2022) reports in an employment survey conducted in Malaysia, three in ten respondents are likely to change employers before June that year. EY (2022) also reported that 36% of Malaysian respondents in their “EY 2022 Work Reimagined Survey” are more likely to quit their jobs in the next year due to the desire for higher salary, better career advancements, enhanced well-being and increase flexibility. Similarly, a study found that Malaysian employees are motivated to search for new employees to get better salary and benefits, enhanced work-life balance and better management (Human Resources Online, 2022). Hence, it is important to identify what is important to employees in order to retain them (Singh and Tarofder, 2020; Tyagi and Agrawal, 2010; De Vos and Meganck, 2009; Montes and Zweig, 2009; Maertz and Griffeth, 2004; Steel et al., 2002). This is where the concept of psychological contract comes into play as it can be extended to employee retention in understanding and managing the employment relationship between employee and employer (Zacchaeus, 2021; Kutaula et al., 2020; Rousseau, 2012).

The psychological contract involves the perceptions of an employee of the mutual obligations between the employee and its employer (Rousseau, 1989). The perception of those said promises or obligations over the period of their employment can lead to it to be breached, violated or fulfilled (De Vos et al., 2003). Fulfilment of the psychological contract would indicate that no occurrence of breach or violation will occur, hence avoiding the negative outcomes of psychological contract breach and violation (Turnley and Feldman, 2000; Robinson, 1996), which is the focus of this thesis towards employee retention. Fulfilment would lead to increased job satisfaction, job performance, trust and commitment to the organization as well as reduction in employee turnover (Zacchaeus, 2021; Sobaih et al., 2019; Conway et al., 2011; Zhao et al, 2007; Cheung and Chiu, 2005; Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2002).

However, it may be difficult to determine what is the contents of psychological contract (Suazo et al., 2009). This could be due to the fact that the psychological contract itself consists of perceptions that are explicit and therefore subjective (Savarimuthu and Rachel, 2017 ; Lee, 2001; Rousseau, 1995) Freese and Schalk (2008) noted that there are thousands of items that can be included in the psychological contract contents, however its source, composition and how it is measured has to be taken into account. Culliane and Dundon (2006) in their review of the psychological contract acknowledged that various scholars have used different measures and context in the research of psychological contract. Studies have shown that there is a correlation between psychological contract and HR practices (Kutaula et al., 2020; Sobaih et al., 2019; Guest and Conway, 1999; 2002; 2004). In relation to the current research, Guest and Conway (2002) utilized HR practices as an approach to evaluate the psychological contract in organizations.

The fundamental objectives of HR practices are to reduce the rate of employee turnover (Rahman and Raju, 2020; Gould-Williams, 2004). Practices of the Human Resource are towards enabling employees to apply their skills and develop them and to retain employees for as long as possible (Yamamoto, 2011). Peterson (2004) also supports this notion as he argues that practices carried out by the organization, in this case it would refer to Human Resource (HR) practices, will strongly influence the intentions of leaving or remaining with the organization, and these intentions will ultimately lead to actual turnover or retention. Additionally, identification and execution of HR practices that encourages employee retention is highlighted (Narayanan et al., 2019; Mbugua et al., 2015; Kim, 2012). Hence, with the integration of psychological contract to employee retention practices, perceptions of what is seen valuable to employee can be determined and managed, resulting in employee retention.

HR practices such as recruitment, employee appraisals, training and remuneration shape employee’s psychological contract as it provides them with some form of understanding of the psychological contract (Rousseau and Greller, 1994). HR practises influences the shaping of psychological contract (Kutaula et al., 2020; Shahnawaz and Jafri, 2011) which was also argued by Guest and Conway (2004) that these practices send messages to employees of what can be expected and what is expected from them. In other words, HR practices can be used as contents of the psychological contract itself. This was supported by Scheel et al. (2013) who used HR practices in their study to determine psychological contract fulfilments among their respondents.

Organizations need to identify, understand and manage what are the perceived promises made to employees in return for their loyalty and intentions to stay. This would indicate that practices towards employee retention are only successful depending on whether or not the employee sees it to be valuable to them. Not understanding what the employee sees valuable to their intention to stay would mean that the retention practices are simply not effective. Hence it is important to determine what are valued in the employee-employer relationship and the extent of its fulfilment. Therefore, the current research which aims to determine the relationship between HR practices, psychological contract and employee retention will provide insights to what is valuable in terms of the HR practices, its extent of the fulfilment of the psychological contract, and from there how that leads to employee retention. These findings will provide insights to the current perceptions of the psychological contract that will shed light for employee retention.

Additionally, past literature has mainly focused on psychological contract breach or violation and its impact on employees behaviours (Ahmad and Zafar, 2018; Rayton and Yaalabik, 2014; Conway and Briner, 2009; Dabos and Rousseau, 2004; Raja et al., 2004; Rousseau, 1995). Previous research has also put a lot of attention on the unilateral perspective, neglecting the perspectives of both parties in the employer-employee relationship, in other words the perspectives of the employee and employer (Aggarwal and Bhargava, 2009; Guest and Conway, 2002; Kickul, 2001). Futhermore, based on the writer's academic research, there has been almost no other research pertaining to the psychological contract in the Event Management Industry. Hence, this thesis also aims to fill the gaps in literature where the focus is on the fulfilment of the psychological contract towards employee retention, which includes the perspectives of both the employee as well as the employer in the said industry. Therefore, the scope of the current study is to determine the relationship between HR practices, psychological contract and employee retention among employees and employers within the event management industry, with the emphasis on psychological contract fulfilment and the inclusion of the perspectives of both the employee and employer.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Given the background of the current research and the overview of the research problem, there exists an opportunity to understand the relationship between psychological contract and employee retention. Hence the first research objective (RO) to be addressed in the current study is:

RO1: To determine how psychological contract affect employee retention.

Based on the research objective above, the following research question is to be answered:

RQ1a: What is the relationship between psychological contract and employee retention?

As the psychological contract is implicit and subjective in nature (Rousseau, 1995, Morrison and Robinson, 1997), it shows the importance of identifying the perceptions held by the employee and employer in order to understand its effect on employee retention. Therefore, the next research question is:

RQ1b: What is the perception between employee and employer regarding the psychological contract?

In the same vein, it is also vital to determine the perceptions between employee and employer in regards to whether or not the employee will decide to remain in the organization, as these perceptions are also subjective in nature. Hence, the following research question is:

RQ1c: What is the perception between employee and employer regarding employee retention?

Based on the research statement provided, the fulfilment of the psychological contract would lead to employee retention. In addition, one of the main roles of HR practices is to retain employees (Gould-Williams, 2004), as policies and practices of the organization will determine if the employee wishes to remain to leave the organization (Peterson, 2004). Hence it is also important to determine how HR practices lead to employee retention. Therefore, the following research objective to be addressed:

RO2: To determine how HR practices affect employee retention.

In regards to the second research objective, the following research question should be answered:

RQ2a: What is the relationship between HR practices and employee retention?

Nevertheless, it is also pertinent to determine what is seen to be important in the employees' perspective that will lead to employee retention. This would also mean that employers would have to understand what is important to employees that would encourage employee retention (Phuong and Takahashi, 2018). Hence, in order for retention practices to be effective, both employee and employer should have the same perception regarding the HR practices. Therefore, the following research questions is to be answered:

RQ2b: What is the perception between employee and employer regarding HR practice?

Factors that lead to psychological contract fulfilment should be taken into consideration. In this thesis, the relationship between HR practices and psychological is also studied. Hence the next research objective would be:

RO3: To discover how HR practices affect psychological contract.

Due to the fact that the psychological contract is a perception of the employee that is subjective, the HR practices will be used as contents of the psychological contract. HR practices somewhat send messages to employees of their expectations and what is needed from them (Guest and Conway, 2004). This may be a way for them to gauge what the organization expects from them and form their expectations in return (Shahnawaz and Jafri, 2011). In other words, what will be determined is to what extent has the HR practices been provided by the organization that leads to its fulfilment of the psychological contract. Hence the following research question is to be answered:

RQ3: What is the relationship between HR practices and psychological contract?

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between psychological contract, human resource practices and employee retention in the event management industry. As the psychological contract can be used as a framework in understanding the employee-employer relationship (Rousseau, 1989), the fulfilment of the psychological contract would lead to positive employee outcome, which in this research is the retention of employees. With regards to the other research objectives, it would be suggested that psychological contract would mediate the relationship between HR practices and employee retention as previous research has shown that HR practices have an effect on psychological contract (Shahnawaz and Jafri, 2011; Guest and Conway, 2004), and that psychological contract fulfilment will lead to employee retention (Conway et al., 2011; Cheung and Chiu, 2005; Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2002). Hence the next research objective would be:

RO4: To examine the mediating effect of psychological contract on the relationship between HR practices and employee retention.

Following this research objective, the following research question is to be answered:

RQ4: Does psychological contract mediate the relationship between HR practices and employee retention?

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

The current study contributes to both theory and practice. In terms of theoretical contributions, the study extends existing empirical evidence in regards to the HRM domain and the HR practice-psychological contract-employee retention relationship. As the current research involves the mediating role of the psychological contract towards the relationship between HR practices and employee retention, this can help confirm Rousseau’s (1995) argument in terms of reciprocity as employees will reciprocate with positive outcomes when they perceive the promises made by the organization are met. In the same vein, this study puts emphasis on the fulfilment of the psychological contract rather than its breach or violation, and its impact on employee outcomes, in this case it would be employee retention. Furthermore, as this research involves the views of both employee and employer, this contributes to the field of research in terms of bilateral views where corresponding results between employee and employer can be matched.

As for practical contributions, this research provides significance to employers in their efforts towards retaining their employees. As the psychological contract is seen to mediate the relationship between HR practices and employee retention, the psychological contract can be used as a framework to identify gaps between what is perceived to be promised to the employees and what is actually delivered to them, which in turn will contribute towards the retention of the employees. As HR practices that are deemed valuable to employees are see to be effective, organizations and employers need to identify what is important to employees as well as to communicate it effectively to them.

1.6 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions were established to add clarity and understanding to the research:

Employee retention. Employee retention can be defined as the numerous activities that keep employees within an organization for a longer term (Francis, 2014).

Psychological contract. The psychological contract is an implicit contract between the employee and employee of what is expected to be given and received from each other (Kotter, 1973).

Psychological contract breach. Psychological contract breach refers to the perception of one or more obligations that is unmet by the employer ((Morrison and Robinson, 1997; Robinson and Morrison, 1995; Robinson and Rousseau, 1994)

Psychological contract violation. Psychological contract violation refers to the cognition, and the inclusion of an emotional and affective state, of unmet perceived obligations (Turnley and Feldman, 2000; Pate et al., 2003), usually follows breach (Conway and Briner, 2005) and is seen as more serious (Morrison and Robinson, 1997).

Psychological contract fulfilment. Psychological contract fulfilment occurs when all the perceived promises and obligations are met (Robinson, 1996).

Human Resource Management (HRM). Human Resource Management can be defined as a strategic methodology in achieving its objectives by managing the asset that is most valuable to an organization: the employees (George and Jones, 2012; Armstrong, 2006). HRM plays an important role in employee retention as its policies determines if an employee leaves or stays (Acton et al., 2003).

Human Resource practices (HR Practices). Human Resource (HR) practices are practices and policies carried out by the organization, are towards enabling employees to apply their skills and develop them and to retain employees for as long as possible (Yamamoto, 2011; Gould-Williams, 2004; Peterson, 2004).

Recruitment and selection. *Recruitment* can be defined as the process of obtaining suitable employees to fulfil the organizations strategies, whereas *selection* is described as evaluating the employees based on their criteria such as work experience, skills, competencies etc. (Francis, 2014).

Performance appraisal. Performance appraisal is referred to as the method to assess the employee's performance, based on a certain judging standard, to the performed task or job to ensure it is consistent with the organizational strategy and objectives (De Cieri and Kramar, 2008).

Compensation and recognition. Compensation and recognition can be described as the collective rewards in terms of monetary or non-monetary in return for the employee's contribution to the company (Alam et al., 2013; Isaac et al., 2001).

Training and career development. Training and career development refer to formal events organized by the firm to help employees attain or enhance one's knowledge, competencies and experience that is required of them to carry out current or future work (Arokiasamy, 2013).

Work-life balance. Work-life balance symbolizes how much an employee satisfies and meets their work and non-work needs in life (Alison and Rosalie, 2015). Work-life balance is also termed by academicians as "family-friendly policies" (Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Fleetwood, 2007).

CHAPTER 2 - LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

As previously stated, the current research focus is to determine the relationship between HR practices, psychological contract and employee retention. With that in mind, this chapter discusses previous works related to the topics of HR practices, psychological contract and employee retention. Related theories are also considered and discussed to further strengthen the current research. To determine the gap in previous works, this chapter also reviews some past literature in relation to the topics at hand. Based on the review and discussion of the literature, as well as the research objectives and hypotheses developed, the research framework is formulated and presented.

2.2 EMPLOYEE RETENTION

One of the biggest challenges that is faced by organizations is retaining employees (Das et al, 2013; Chiboiwa et al., 2010). This challenge seems to be a topic of study for decades as the first empirical study on employee turnover dates from 1925 (Hom et al., 2017). It is easier to attract employees as compared to retaining them (Grobler et al., 2011). This is due to the fact that employees that perform are seen to be moving from one job to another due to market value and job mobility, making it a difficult task for organizations to retain them (Almaaitah et al., 2017). Employee retention can be defined as the voluntary initiatives by organizations to keep employees from leaving the organization for as long as possible (Aldamoe et al., 2012; James and Mathew, 2012; Kyndt et al., 2009). Retention suggests the organization's aspiration and measures to retain talented employees (Hemalatha and Savarimuthu, 2013). Hence, retention can be defined as the numerous activities that keep employees within an organization for a longer term (Francis, 2014), as well as to achieve organizational objectives (Frank et al., 2004).

Employee retention in the private sector increases competitiveness, productivity and organizational performance (Aldamoe et al., 2012; Bhatnager, 2007). Gaber and Fahim (2018) also argue that retention of talented employees is one of the most crucial determinants for organizational success. In other words, the health and success of an organization in the long-term is dependent on employee retention (Ampomah and Cudjor, 2015; Das and Baruah, 2013). Hence the reason behind organizations to not only recruit but also to retain employees that are most valuable, productive, resourceful and efficient for the best benefits (Almaaitah et al., 2017). Kontoghiorhes and Frangou (2009) found that employee retention is positively related to organizational performance. They added that retention also positively affects performance quality, innovation, better products and competitiveness. Furthermore, they argue that retention of employees is more challenging as compared to recruiting employees, even though they may be two sides of the same coin. This highlights the need for organizations to develop and execute effective retention practices (Ratna and Chawla, 2012; Yamamoto, 2011).

The writer further suggests that retention strategies should not be dependent on a solitary strategy (Gaber and Fahim, 2018). For example, Hemalatha and Savarimuthu (2013) argue that retention strategies can be categories into conditions of work, salary, job enrichment and education. Samuel and Chipunza (2009) however revealed that training and development, job security, affiliation, challenging work and innovative thinking as positive effects on employee retention. Ma et al. (2017) proposes the model of embeddedness to increase retention in an organization. Developed by Mitchell et al. (2001a), the concept of job embeddedness postulate that an employee will remain in the organization if the employee well fit or compatible in one's job and organization, has valuable links with the people in the organization and its surrounding community, and experience great sacrifice in terms of loss of high benefits provided by the organization. Mat Zin et al. (2012) proposed that various strategies such as both intrinsic and extrinsic factors of motivation can be used for employee retention in Malaysia. Sandhya and Kumar (2011) categorized retention strategy into three stages, namely *bottom stage* which includes performance appraisal, employer support, and rewards as well as benefits among others, *middle stage* inclusive of recognition, training and development, workplace convenience and family benefits, and *top stage* that includes promoting work-life effectiveness, esteem needs consideration and proper recruitment and selection.

However, Samuel and Chipunza (2009) highlight the fact that organizations fail to determine and correctly use retention factors. In addition, the challenges faced by organizations in employee retention include insufficient competent and skilled employees, forecasted labour shortage due to aging society, the rigidness of organizations to switch to more customizable retention initiatives, workforce diversity and increased competitive business environment due to globalization and developing economy (Brock and Buckley, 2013; Ananthan and Sudheendra, 2011; Kontoghiorghes and Frangou, 2009; Chhabra and Mishra, 2008). As a result of the increase of employee turnover in the past years and its associated high costs, retention of competent and skilful employees has drawn much attention (Samuel and Chipunza, 2009).

Nickels and McHugh (2010) also supports the notion that recruiting and retaining employees are becoming more difficult due to the scarcity of qualified employees. Due to the fact that so much has been invested in recruiting, selecting, managing and training employees, organizations would want to retain employees, especially those that are valuable to them (Robbins and Judge, 2014). Furthermore, turnover can affect organizations negatively where it has an impact on the productivity service and profitability of an organization (Tanwar and Prasad, 2016)

The importance of retention is highlighted based on the negative outcomes of employee turnover (Al-Emadi et al., 2015, Chew and Chan, 2008), as turnover is regarded as the opposite of employee retention (Emery, 2010; Ghere and York-Barr, 2007). Turnover is described as the departure of an employee from a firm (Gill et al., 2013; Wiley, 1993; March and Simon, 1958).

Turnover can be categorized into voluntary turnover which refers to the employee deciding to leave the organization, and involuntary turnover where the organization dismisses the employee (Carnahan et al., 2012; Price and Mueller, 1981). Voluntary turnover and involuntary turnover can be determined based on which party, the employer or employee, initiated the termination of the employment contract (Allen et al, 2010; Nagadevara et al., 2008). Dhanpat et al. (2018) however define turnover as the inability of the organization to keep their employees. What should also be noted is that the outcomes of voluntary and involuntary turnover are found to be quite similar (Hancock et al., 2013; Batt and Colvin, 2011). For the purpose of this thesis, the term turnover that will be used throughout the research would be referred to voluntary turnover, which can be described as the unplanned leaving of the employee that the organization would prefer to retain (Frank et al., 2004).

Dhanpat et al. (2018) argue that employee turnover comes from the intention of employees to leave the organization. Turnover intention can be defined as the probability to leave the organization in the near future (Kashyap and Rangnekar, 2014). Intentions to leave has been a foundation to determine turnover in general since the beginning (Cho and Lewis, 2012; Dalton et al., 1999; Kirschenbaum and Weisberg, 1990). There is a wealth of turnover literature that utilizes turnover intentions as the fundamental conceptual linkage between attitude and behaviour, therefore assuming intention to leave as the best precursor to actual turnover (Bertelli, 2007; Lee and Whitford, 2007; Dalton et al., 1999).

This is based on the theory of attitudes which generally supports the idea of intent as the ultimate predictor of behaviour (Price and Mueller, 1981; Kraut, 1975). This is further argued by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) stating that a predictor to one's behaviour is through one's intention to conduct such behaviour. This notion was also argued by Porter and Steers (1973) that intention to quit is the final step before quitting itself. Thirapatsakun et al. (2014) argue that turnover is similar to the behaviour of an employee considering to leave the organization. They further argue that turnover intentions can be used as an indication to an employee's plan to leave. Elangovan (2001) also argues that intention to leave is an attitudinal tendency of the behavioural decision to leave. This is supported by Mohammad et al. (2014) that it is a behavioural tendency that stimulates the employee to attempt to leave the organization which may result in actual turnover. Harrison et al. (2006) in their study proved that employee attitudes such as intention to leave is a reliable precursor to behaviours such as resigning. Many researchers have also found a strong correlation between turnover intentions and actual turnover (Lee and Whitford, 2007; Griffeth et al., 2000)

However, there are also scholars who have found turnover intentions to be a weak predictor of actual turnover (Cohen et al, 2015; Cho and Lewis, 2012; Jung, 2010; Kirschenbaum and Weisberg, 1990). Dollar and Broach (2006) in their study argue that turnover is in fact something that has already happened. They further proved in their study that turnover intentions are indeed poor indicators to actual turnover (Dollar and Broach, 2006).

Nevertheless, Kaur and Mohindru (2013) argue that intention to leave is the possibility of the employee voluntarily chooses to will leave the organization in a given time period, which will eventually lead to actual turnover. They further argue that turnover intention has been recognised as the best precursor to actual turnover as what is expected is the positive relationship between turnover intention and actual turnover. Griffeth et al. (2000) however claims there is a positive relationship between intention and actual turnover. Furthermore, Park (2015), Liu and Onwuegbuzie (2012), Freese et al. (2011), Hassan and Hashim (2011), Rosen et al (2011), Xu (2008), Gregory et al. (2007) Zhou and Volwein (2004) and Van Breukelen (2004) found that turnover intentions were a strong precursor of actual turnover. In addition, although there are many researches on actual turnover, scholars argue that the research of turnover intentions will provide more accurate findings in determining the actual causes of turnover (Park, 2015; Kaur and Mohindru, 2013; Rizwan et al., 2013; Perryer et al., 2010; Johnsrud and Rosser, 2002; Mobley, 1982)

For the purpose of this study, the writer assumes that intention to leave will lead to actual turnover hence to be treated equally. Furthermore, turnover intention can be easily scaled, providing desirable qualities for statistical purposes and also possess better economical properties (Dalton et al., 1999). Hence the justification for many researchers to use turnover intentions as a predictor to actual turnover (Pitts et al., 2011; Lee and Whitford, 2007; Kim 2005).

Turnover is a continuous matter for organizations and still remains an issue in current times (Li et al., 2019; Hancock et al., 2013). It is a critical challenge for organizations all over the world (Amah, 2009), not only Western counties but also in Asian countries (Shah and Beh, 2016). Furthermore, employee turnover seems to be extensive in Asian countries like Taiwan, Thailand and Malaysia (Ahmad and Bakar, 2003) Challenges in employee turnover in Malaysia emerged beginning in early 1991 and progressively increased due to high workforce demand and better opportunities (Keni et al., 2013). Hausknecht and Holwerda (2013) posit that a chain reaction within the organization is activated by employee turnover. Scholars have deduced the effects of turnover on organizational performance based on the perspectives of *costs* (Dalton and Todor, 1979), *human capital* (Becker, 1993) and *social capital* (Leana and Van Buren, 1999).

In terms of *costs*, Allen et al. (2010) found that costs related to turnover are unpaid salaries, accumulated off-days, interviewing, attracting and training. Huang et al. (2006) argues that for employers, cost of turnover is relatively high in replacing employees that have left. The cost of replacing and training a new employee costs 70% of the annual salary of that leaving employee (Walker and Miller, 2010). Resulting recruitment, selection and training of replacement brings financial costs to the organization experiencing employee turnover (Holtom et al., 2008). Ong and Yee (2019) also argued that high costs incurred when replacing leaving staffs such in terms of costs involving administration, job vacancy advertising, screening and selection of candidates. Due to high employee turnover rates, organizations will spend more in attracting and training new employees (Juhdi et al., 2013). Cascio and Boudreau (2011) support the notion and further argues that the cost of replacing the employees that have left is more than 100% of the yearly pay and benefits, not forgetting the loss of knowledge, disruption of work as well as direct costs. In addition, an organization’s performance is further negatively affected by loss of highly talented employees (Gaber and Fahim, 2018), such as the delay and reduced productivity during the integration period (Massingham, 2018; Davies, 2001), possible business opportunity loss (Walker, 2001), decreased quality of relationship with customers

(Clarke, 2001), and loss productivity hidden costs (Das, 2002). Annual productivity losses due to employee turnover are found to be between 65% to 75% in the position of the employee that left the organization (Ware, 2008). As a result of the high costs associated with employee turnover, organizational performance is also affected (Busari et al., 2017).

In the perspective of *human capital*, researchers argue that organizational performance is affected by turnover when employees who have gain vital knowledge and competencies through the experience and training during the employment period leave the organization, resulting in loss of said knowledge and skills (Ployhard et al., 2014; Dess and Shaw, 2001; Pollitt, 2000). Loss of organizational knowledge is seen as one of the most critical business risks in current times (Massingham, 2010), which occurs when an employee leaves the organization and takes along their expertise, skills and business relationships (Mitchell et al., 2001b). Previous studies revealed that knowledge loss causes inefficiency and ineffectiveness (Jian et al, 2009), reduced organizational capabilities (Joe et al., 2013). organizational memory loss (Holan and Phillips, 2004), and reduced organizational output (Droege and Hoobler, 2003).

Massingham (2018) conducted a 3-year research on one particular organization on the effects of organizational knowledge loss due to employee turnover. Knowledge loss due to exiting employee have impacted the remaining employees who are still employed by the organization in terms of negative emotional effects such as stress and anxiety; and heavier workload (Durst and Wilhelm, 2012). Massingham (2018) further revealed that knowledge loss causes organizations to face lower productivity due to decreased employee morale; strategic misalignment due to capability gaps; newer inexperienced employees causing time wasted to learn competencies needed, lower productivity, decreased customer satisfaction and wasted work outputs. This is also supported by Ong and Yee (2019) where they stated that during the process of getting new employees, current employees will have to spend extra time to guide new recruits until they are able to handle their job. A previous study by Starke et al. (2003) however argues that an organization does not really experience knowledge loss as the loss of knowledge for employee turnover is replaced by the gain of newer employees replacing them. This argument was partially supported in Massingham’s (2018) study where the was a slight deficit in knowledge even after new knowledge was brought in by new employees. Nevertheless, Massingham (2018) argued that there still exists a knowledge deficit which will continue to exist over time. He further added that this was because the organization has a very good knowledge management that would cause adverse effects for organizations that did not have such systems in place.

Losing an employee to a competitor will also negatively affect the organization's competitive advantage (Kontophiorghes and Frangou, 2001). This is supported by Hancock et al. (2013) that stated turnover could cause the departing employee to share valuable knowledge regarding its core processes and vital information to the new organization that could affect the previous organization's competitive advantage. Kyndt et al. (2009) also notes that employees possess competencies and knowledge that is essential for optimal functioning of organizations and its ability to keep its competitive advantage. Therefore, the writer argues that the effects and outcomes of employee turnover only emphasizes the importance of employee retention, as also argued by Allen et al. (2010).

The same goes when an employee leaves the organization, the *social capital*, such as the employee's business connections and social resources which are almost irreplaceable are lost (Shaw et al., 2005). Organizations that have a more stable and high-quality social connections have better performance as compared to organizations facing high turnover (Leana and Van Buren, 1999). Moynihan and Pandey (2008) support this argument as the identified lower turnover intentions for organizations that possess strong internal networks. Furthermore, Felps et al. (2009) found that disrupted social connections due to turnover may have an effect on employees' morale who still remain in the organization. Additionally, frequent recruitment of new employees creates an assumption that the organization is problematic and may cause a bad image for the company (Ong and Yee, 2019).

However, Wynen et al. (2019) in their study noted on turnover having both negative as well as positive outcomes (Lee and Jimenez, 2011; Meier and Hicklin, 2008). Allen et al (2010) also argued that the negative outlook of turnover is a misconception as it can also bear positive outcomes. Hancock et al. (2013) brought up the point that employee turnover could provide positive outcomes, one of which could lead to enhanced human capital where newly hired employees could introduce new ideas and contest deep-rooted routines and processes for the better (Abelson and Baysinger, 1984). Turnover may also provide the opportunities for organizations to find better employee-organization fit that is in line with organizational goals and requirements (Moynihan and Pandey, 2008; Steijin, 2008). In terms of social capital perspective, employee turnover could result in job mobility, allowing cooperation and coordination among different units of the organization as well as breaking group thinking patterns (Wynen et al, 2019).

Wynen et al. (2019) in their study within the public sector found that there is no negative effect of employee turnover and organizational performance in terms of knowledge loss. This could be due to the organization having high conformance among different levels allow information and knowledge to be easily transferred to new employees. However, they emphasize that employee turnover can negatively affect organizational performance if such systems was not in place, especially in the private sector.

Furthermore, Hancock et al. (2013) identified that losses caused by employee turnover outweighs its potential opportunities. Hausknecht and Trevor (2011) also concluded that turnover can result in detrimental outcomes such as increased costs of recruitment and selection, disrupted operations, less of human and social capital specific to the organization and employees remaining are burdened to train and socialize with the new employee. Many researchers have supported the view of negative outcomes of turnover towards performance of sales (Kacmar et al., 2006), effectiveness in terms of cost (Alexander et al., 1994) productivity (Brown and Medoff, 1978), and lower quality of customer service (Hausknecht et al., 2009; McElroy et al., 2001). Therefore, the writer supports the importance of employee retention that is evidently highlighted from the high costs associated to employee turnover (Van Rooyen et al., 2010), but also the importance of employee retention for their unique skills and competencies (Das and Baruah, 2013), which are irreplaceable (Jacobs and Roodt, 2011).

2.2.1 Context: Events Industry in Malaysia

Events and festivals have increased substantially in scale over the past decades (Jones, 2012). Since the mid 1990's, event management or also regularly termed as "events" in Malaysia have emerged as an important industry (Bouchon et al., 2015). There has also been an increase in attention for research in event management in the 2000s (McKercher and Tung, 2015). The events industry has been pushed into the limelight due to social media coverage globally of big-scaled celebrations, festivals, sports competitions and private sector events (Getz and Page, 2016). Although the study of event management has been researched extensively in the past decade, it has not been thoroughly analysed because of its wide content (Kim and Kaewnuch, 2018). Furthermore, Marinakou (2019) acknowledges the lack of research in employee retention in the events industry, especially for full paid staff as most research focused on volunteers (Deery, 2009).

Events can be defined as an activity that is public or private which is organized in a certain venue or venues with not less than 15 people for a common purpose (Deery et al., 2005). Goldblatt (2014) describes event management as involving the process of purpose, people and place and the ability to control it. Bladen et al. (2012) defines event management as the organization and coordination of activities in order to achieve its objectives, involving temporary gatherings of people that has an actual beginning and an end. Thomas et al. (2008) provides a rather wholistic definition of event management which is "*coordination of all the tasks and activities needed to carry out an event concerning its strategy, planning, implementation and monitoring, relying on event marketing principles and project management methods".* Daniel et al. (2012) however describes event management as the involvement of design and coordination. Event management in Malaysia involves the supply of project management application to the articulation of events and festivals, which includes event services (planning of event, logistics, venue and promotion as well as its management prior and during the event), creative services (conceptualization and design of event) and production services (stage and props, video and animation, web content and event documentation) (Royal Malaysian Customs Department, 2014).

Events has a wide range of variety, from worldwide exhibitions to private functions (Bouchon et al., 2015). Pernecky (2015) also states that there are a range of events such as cultural events, festivals, sports-related, music events, political events, business events and many more. Getz (2008) identified eight classifications of events, namely (1) related to local culture, religion or customs, (2) state of political events (3) art and entertainment (4) business events such as conventions and fairs (5) academic events such as seminars and conferences (6) private events such as charities and weddings (7) professional sporting events such as the Olympics and (8) recreational events such as showcases of youth sports and recreational football tournaments. Draper et al. (2018) however categorizes these events into two types, namely leisure and business events. Leisure events would include arts and/or cultural festivals, sports and recreational events and private events that are usually attended by consumers for leisure and/or social activities. On the other hand, business events are events such as conferences, conventions, product launches, tradeshows, training and meeting sessions that are produced with the objective to educate, motivate, sell and/or network with their staff, members and/or consumers to fulfil business goals (Fenich, 2012).

Income is generated through the participants and attendees of such events, which also directly and indirectly impact the economy of local communities (Baloglu and Love, 2005). In addition, attendees that are pleased with the events help promote it as well as increase repeat business (Draper et al., 2018). Developments in technology especially in mobile applications that is dedicated to events allows simpler participant engagement and stakeholders as well as running of events (Rogers and Davidson, 2015; Whitfield et al., 2014; Rogers, 2013). The rising number of events complements as well as caters to the fast growth of consumer goods, technology and food industries (Nwobodo et al., 2020). Pernecky (2015) stated that the events industry is still expanding and estimated to be worth over USD 500 billion globally. In the UK, events provide jobs for 700,000 people and also contributes about £70 billion to the national economy in 2019 (Business Visits and Event Partnership, 2020). In Australia, the events industry is estimated to be valued at USD 35.7 billion in 2019, with an estimated of 229,000 of direct employment in the industry (Business Events Council of Australia, 2020).

In Malaysia, the business events industry has been recognized by the Malaysian government as a positive stimulus for the country's socio-economy (Nasir et al., 2019). Many scholars have also discussed that business events play a crucial role in stimulating the development of the country's economy and social well-being (Nwobodo et al., 2020; Yusoff et al., 2015; Kumar et al., 2014). Business events is referred to as an extension of the conventional sector of Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Exhibitions (MICE) (Yong and Ghazali, 2018). The concept of MICE is also associated to corporate tourism, leisure and hospitality industries (Bouchon et al., 2015).

The Malaysian Convention and Exhibition Bureau (MyCEB) that falls under the Malaysian Ministry of Tourism was established to collaborate with private organizations that focus on business events activities in attracting foreign participant and organizer to run their activities in Malaysia (Bouchon et al., 2015). The government of Malaysia initiated the "Business Events Roadmap" in 2016 as a strategy to make Malaysia a preferred business event hub in the region as well as internationally by 2020 (MyCEB, 2016).

In 2017, business events have attracted more than 100,000 delegates, participants and visitors to Malaysia and have contribute an estimated RM954 million to the Incremental Gross National Income (GNI) (MyCEB, 2017). Malaysia was targeted to attract 2.9 million visitors, which involves a growth of tourist visits of between 5% to 8% to Malaysia, who are visitors for international business events by 2020 (MyCEB, 2018). The business events industry is also targeted to provide 16,720 jobs and contribute RM3.9 billion to the Gross National Income (GNI) by 2020 (MYCEB, 2018). This will influence the local economy as Malaysian business events is recognized as business tourism (Yong and Ghazali, 2018).

Deery (2009) stated that events are part of the tourism industry. Events is known as an important factor that influences customers to travel which helps the promotion and development of the tourism industry (Getz, 2008). According to Bouchon et al. (2015) event management is related to the tourism industry due to the fact that events are able to attract international business tourists to a destination. An example would be the Annual Borneo Rainforest Festival that is organized in Kuching contributes to the local development of the destination as well as surrounding communities. New Zealand Major Events is responsible to attract, retain, develop and execute major events in New Zealand, Dubai Events and Promotions was established to promote, support and facilitate events in Dubai and EventScotland is responsible in bidding for events to drive tourism in Scotland as well as to enhances its international profile (Pernecky, 2015). In Malaysia, the independent industry council, Business Events Council Malaysia (BECM) that was recently established in 2018, consists of eight national industry associations, to work hand-in-hand with local bureaus and supported by the government to enhance the competitiveness of Malaysia as the go-to destination for international events (MACEOS, 2018).

Due to the wide range and different types of events, event organizers or those involved in the organization of such events would need to possess the knowledge of effectively running such events, attract participants and attendees as well as interaction with local governments and communities and other stakeholders involved (Kim et al., 2010; Getz, 2008). This has also led to a specialized industry (Pernecky, 2015). Rutherford (2008) describes the event management process can be defined as the event marketing management process. Furthermore, Nasir et al. (2019) and Rutherford (2008) further highlights that the combination of marketing and management is needed to successfully achieve the events objectives. Thomas et al. (2008) also stated that event management involves a combination of fields. Pernecky (2015) compared events to banking and hospitality, of which events industry is unique on its own, where it is related to the service economy and experiential industries which produces experiences to cater to different individuals, customers and businesses.

Pernecky (2015) further acknowledges the inclusion of various stakeholders involved in the events industry, namely international and local governing bodies, event organizers that are directly involved in the planning and execution of the events (which could be a standalone organization on its own or a dedicated division within the organization that solely handles events for the organization), and corporate organizations that use events as part of their practises such as meetings, conferences, seminars, exhibitions, sales events, PR events and so on for either internal or external stakeholder communications. Figure 1 below shows the various parties or stakeholders involved in running an event (Pernecky, 2015).

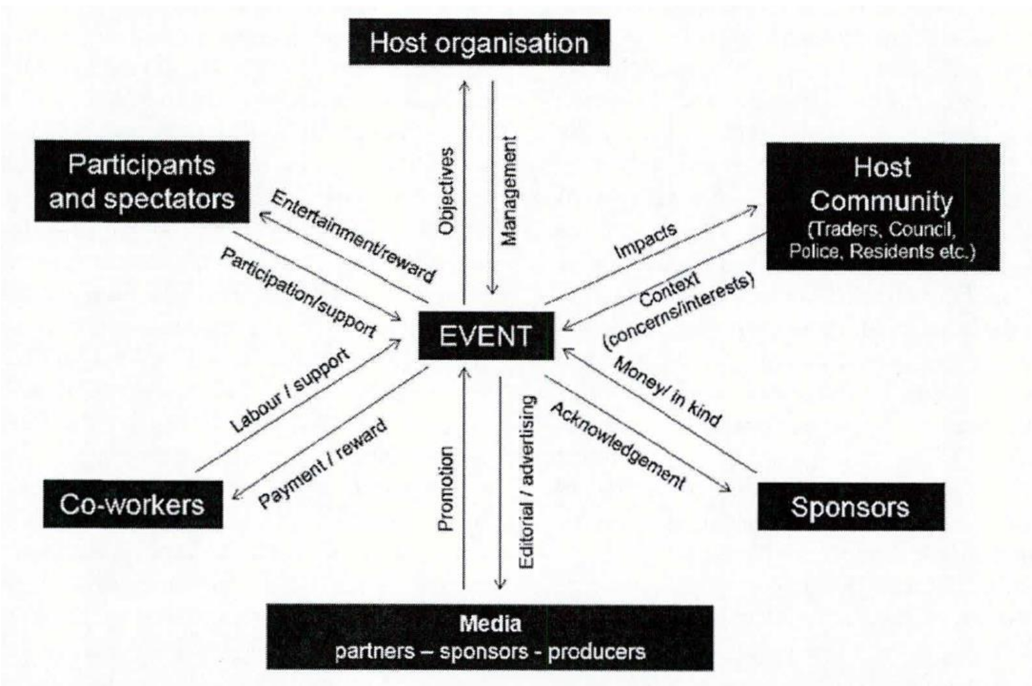

Figure 1: Various Stakeholders Involved in The Events Industry, cited in Pernecky (2015, p. 118)

Due to the fact that event management involves professionals with competencies from various fields and complex business processes (Sing et al, 2007), their employees play a very crucial role the organization’s competitive advantage, in addition to coping with the volatile business environment (Meyers and Van Woerkom, 2014; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013; Meyers et al., 2013).

According to the Department of Statistics Malaysia (2022), the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) for the third quarter of 2022 grew by 14.2% as compared to 8.9% in the previous quarter. This shows strong growth as the country moves towards endemicity and the re-opening of international borders. The events industry in Malaysia is also “bouncing back” as cited by the Malaysia Convention and Exhibition Bureau (MyCEB) where just in August 2022, MyCEB was able to secure a total of 14 Conventions and 4 Trade Exhibitions, bringing together close to 24,000 delegates which will contribute approximately RM 56 million to the Malaysian economy (MyCEB, 2022). The Star also reports that MyCEB has also organised 75 business events up to August 2022, contributing to RM 352 million to the economy (The Star, 2022). The events sector in Malaysia has seen a rapid recovery since April 2022 with the removal of the pandemic restrictions (The Malaysian Reserve, 2023). MyCEB together with its stakeholders have secured 35 business events, bringing together more than 40,000 local and international delegates which see to contribute about RM 390 million to the country’s economy (Business Today, 2023).

The unemployment rate in Malaysia has been fluctuating over the past decade between the range of 3.25% and 3.44 % (Statista, 2020). The Department of Statistics Malaysia (2021c) reported the unemployment rate to be at 4.5% as of 2020 due to the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic. However, latest unemployment rates reported by the Department of Statistics Malaysia (2022) stated a decrease of unemployment rate of 1.5% month-on-month in November 2021 where the unemployment rate for the month as at 4.3%. Nevertheless, a recent report by EY (2022) found that 36% of Malaysian respondents are highly likely to quit their jobs in the next year with the desire for better pay, career opportunities and flexibility. With that in mind, this emphasizes the employers needs to identify what employees find important and how to retain them accordingly.

What should also be highlighted is the typical size of event management companies in Malaysia are categorized as SMEs or Small Medium Enterprises, which have between 5 to 75 full-time employees (SME Corp. Malaysia, 2020). Companies that are categorized as Small and Medium Enterprise (SME) play an important role in the growth as well as recovery of national economies around the globe (Birchall and Giambona, 2007). Contributions made by SMEs to national economies result in 80% of the global economic growth (Jutla et al., 2002), as reported by Beynon et al. (2014). In the UK alone about 99% of business population are SMEs and a national employment percentage of about 52% (SBS, 2008). In local context, SMEs is important in Malaysia's economic growth as it contributes towards the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). In 2019, the Department of Statistics Malaysia recorded an increase of SME contribution of 38.9% to the country's GDP (Ministry of Entrepreneur Development and Cooperatives, 2020). Although there was a slight drop in the SME's contribution to the country's GDP in 2020 to 38.2%, SMEs employment still accounts for 48% of Malaysia labour, as reported by the Department of Statistics Malaysia (2021). SMEs play a crucial role to the economy of the country of which about 99% of total businesses in Malaysia comprise of SMEs (Tahir et al., 2018, Arunagiri et al., 2015). This emphasizes the importance of SMEs as it is the backbone of the Malaysia's economic growth (Surienty et al., 2011; Omar et al., 2009).

In order to operate efficiently and effectively, SMEs need to enhance their resources, knowledge and skills (Beynon et al., 2014). Many researches have highlighted the importance of human resources of an organization for its competitive advantage (Barney, 2001; Dollinger, 1995; Wernerfelt, 1995; Becker, 1993; Penrose, 1959). The human resource of SMEs that have specific knowledge, skills and attitudes, as well as organizational knowledge can enable the organization to achieve competitive advantage (Aragón-Sánchez et al., 2003; Lee and Bruvold, 2003; Alavi and Leidner, 2001; Barney and Wright, 1998). This highlights the importance of employee retention in SMEs as it affects the organization's performance as well as its potential for growth (Beynon et al., 2014).

Huselid (2003) highlighted the fact that very little is known in terms of organizational practices in small firms as management of human resources in SMEs in considered to be academically under-researched. The way how SMEs manage their human resources are different compared to larger firms (Aldrich and Langton, 1997; Deshpande and Golhar, 1994; Morissette, 1993) due to the fact that SMEs are leaner and have less managerial alterations (Golden, 2009; Storey, 2002). However, in a study of 247 businesses in the United States found that issues related to human resources where the same for small organizations as well (Hornsby and Kuratko, 1990).

De Kok et al. (2006) argued that based on literature, less professionalized and fewer written policies are found in SMEs when compared to larger firms in regards to HR management. Comparing larger and smaller companies, the former is able to promise career development and advancement whereas the latter may provide opportunities to gain a wider range of skills and knowledge across different department or roles within the company (Aldrich and Langton, 1997; Aldrich and Auster, 1986). Small businesses have more direct communication, higher work flexibility, flatter hierarchy as well as more responsive to market changes and customer demands (Bacon et al., 1996). However, SMEs would also need to be able to respond to changes without having the advantage of more resources as compared to organizations that are larger (Georgiadis and Pitelis, 2012; Levy and Powell, 1998). On the other hand, some researchers argue that SMEs are able to achieve lower employee turnover easier as compared to larger organizations (Whyman and Petrescu, 2015; Dex and Smith, 2002).

Bacon et al. (1996) have stressed that even though smaller firms may not have the resources and technical knowledge that larger firms may possess, it is found that smaller firms are also implementing many initiatives that can be found in larger firms, but in a less formalized manner. Although smaller companies may be inferior to larger companies in terms of formal HRM programmes, this could also be an upper hand or a competitive advantage to smaller companies due to its more informal and organic nature (Bacon et al., 1996).

However, an interesting perspective was found where Dobrev and Kim (2019) argue that size of organizations alone does not do justice to the categorization of organizations but extends beyond this simplified distinction. These simplified forms of organizations are taken for granted and its related perceptions are linked to their external identities (Hannan et al, 2007; Dobrev et al., 2006). Dobrev and Kim (2019) suggest that although size one of the most relevant characteristics that refers to an organizational form, size alone does not matter whereas the social audience that is linked to what the company is should be accounted for. For example, the distinction between a "specialist" and a "generalist" organization, where specialist organizations are typically smaller in size and generalists are large (Dobrev and Carroll, 2003) and the identities that each of them drive with their target audiences. Specialist organizations' strength lies within their stronger intrinsic appeal where their focus on a clear and homogeneous audience segment which results in the development of core features that are in line with the likings of that audience. On the other hand, generalist organizations compete on a wider scale where their intrinsic appeal is diluted due to the fact that their features would serve a wider range of preferences from heterogenous audience segment.

Knowing the type of organization, and its size as one of its properties, it will provide better understanding to how turnover occurs (Dobrev and Kim, 2019). For example, large generalist organizations are more structured and provide professional training and career development features (Bidwell and Briscoe, 2010; Hu 2003; Kalleberg et al., 1996). And because they operate at a larger scale, they are able to reduce costs of production which makes way for pay raises (Brown and Medoff, 1989). As for specialist firms, reward system coupled with its smaller size and work environment that is less rigid focus more on soft intrinsic rewards that may not resonate with larger firms (Kalleberg and Van Buren, 1996; Marsden et al., 1996). Dobrev and Kim (2019) found in their research that employees from generalist organizations leave due to the fact that they become weary of work fragmentation, process rigidity and restriction on creative initiatives, whereas specialist organization employees leave to gain career advancement that their companies cannot provide as well as attain prestige from more well-known and reputable organizations.

In line with the current research where it deals with the psychological contract, Kickul (2001) highlighted that not many research focus in terms of psychological contract between these types of firms. Importance of the study of psychological contract in smaller firms are essential due to the fact that practices within these firms are more personalized and informal (Kickul, 2001; Aldrich and Langton, 1997; Aldrich and Auster, 1986).

Kickul (2001) conducted a study within smaller organizations to determine the function of psychological contract and the types of inducements provided to employees whether explicitly or implicitly in pursuit of retaining employees. Findings showed that similar effects of unfulfilled promises occur in smaller firms. What should be highlighted is when an employee leaves the organization, the small firm experiences greater loss as it requires a lot of time, supporting resources as well as capital to identify competent individuals that are able to immediately replace the job vacancy (Kickul, 2001). In the same vein, smaller organizations do not possess the required resources to counterweigh and recuperate from the negative effects of turnover (Hancock et al., 2013).

This again highlights the importance of retaining employees, especially in SMEs, as also argued by (Beynon et al., 2014). Furthermore, it answers the call for research by various authors in regards to the study of management of human resources in SMEs (Dobrev and Kim, 2019; Whyman and Petrescu, 2015; Cegarra-Leiva et al. 2012; Georgiadis and Pitelis, 2012; Beynon et al., 2014; Aragón-Sánchez et al., 2003; Huselid, 2003; Kickul, 2001; Kalleberg and Buren, 1996).

In the same vein, event management organizations have to face challenges related to attracting, managing and holding on to their talented employees as they are vital in the organization's competitive advantage (Baum, 2008). In order for an organization in the events industry to perform well, attracting and retaining competent employees are essential (Deery and Jago, 2015). Managing and retaining employees in the events industry is extremely vital especially because it involves the delivery of services where high-quality experience can result in success (Deery, 2009). Loss of valuable employees causes the organization in the events industry to lose experience and expertise that are important to that organization (Clark et al., 2017), and can affect its competitive advantage (Dawson et al., 2011; Deery, 2009; Baum, 2008). However, HRM in the events industry is seen to be reactive and temporary (Clark et al., 2017), even though retention of employees should be a daily process (Marinakou, 2019). Shortages of talented employees would require organizations to come up with strategies to develop their human capital in the events industry (Oladapo, 2014). Marinakou (2019) argues that different retention strategies are needed in the events industry as the way events businesses function are different from typical organizations due to the uncertain working hours and irregular work force numbers (Hanlon and Jago, 2004).

2.2.2 Theories of Employee Retention

This section discusses the various theories of employee retention, namely Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964) and Expectancy Theory (Vroom, 1964) as argued by various authors (Ngo-Henha, 2017, Rathakrishnan et al., 2016, Ramlall, 2004).

Social Exchange Theory

The Social Exchange Theory (SET) emerged from the works of Homans (1958), Blau (1964) and Emerson (1976). This theory suggests that connections made by humans are through the utilization of subjective cost-benefit that are based on economics, sociology and psychology (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958). The employment relationship is seen to involve social and/or economic exchanges (Aryee et al., 2002). However, there seems to be a fine line between social and economic exchange in terms of obligations specificity, time frame and the norm of reciprocity (Pattnaik, 2018). Social exchange consists of obligations that are unspecified of which has no time frame and the exchange is dependent on trust among the parties involved (Blau, 1964). In contrary, economic exchange involves reciprocity that are specified, formal and the exchange has a short time frame (Pattnaik, 2018).

The core of this theory's principle is that of a relationship between two social parties are dependent on the mutual respect and upholding of the rules and norms that were negotiated and agreed to beforehand, either stated implicitly or explicitly (Cropanzo and Mitchell, 2005). This would indicate that a set of negotiated rules are clearly stated and recorded in terms of what is agreed upon between the parties in the exchange (Ngo-Henha, 2017).

Furthermore, the exchange relationship is seen to be dependent and contingent based on the actions of each party, of which dwells upon feelings of obligations, trust and appreciation (Haas and Deseran, 1981; Blau, 1964). In other words, this exchange involves reciprocity where one is treated based on how he or she treats others. This view comes from the works of Gouldner (1960) where he argues that in order for one to continue receiving benefits in a social interaction, he or she needs to reciprocate those benefits. According to Gouldner (1960), there are two types of reciprocity, namely *heteromorphic* where the items or resources in the exchange are different but have the same perceived value, and *hemeomorphic* of which the items or resources of exchange is the same. He further argues that the higher the perceived value of the benefit received, the stronger the obligation to repay (Gouldner, 1960).

Recent studies also argue that in order for employees to provide positive outcomes voluntarily is through positive treatment (Ko and Hur, 2014; Gould-Williams and Davies, 2005). Settoon et al. (1996) suggests that organizations that contribute positive actions that are beneficial to employees will result to creating a high-quality exchange relationship that will lead to obligations of employees to also reciprocate in positive and beneficial ways. Hence, employees who perceive positive treatment by an employer will reciprocate with positive work behaviours (Ahmad and Zafar, 2018; Ko and Hur, 2014; Conway and Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Parzefall and Salin, 2010; Aryee et al., 2002). For example, organizations that provide training and development programs to individuals will see it being reciprocated with desirable behaviours in the workplace (Wayne et al., 1997; Haas and Deseran, 1981). In addition, employers can provide better rewards, working conditions and higher respect and trust to reciprocate employees' positive work attitudes, loyalty and reduced turnover (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). On the other hand, negative treatment by employers may be reciprocated with employees' negative work behaviours (Parzefall and Salin, 2010), of which high turnover could be its outcome (Avanzi et al., 2014).

Diving deeper, literature describes two types of social exchange, namely Perceived Organizational Support (POS) which refers to the exchange relationship among an employee and his or her organization, and the other being Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) which is the exchange relationship between an employee with his or her supervisor (Smyth and Zimba, 2019; Bos-Nehles and Meijerink, 2018; Ko and Hur, 2014; Wayne et al., 2002; Wayne et al., 1997; Settoon et al., 1996; Blau, 1964). Higher organizational commitment and lower intentions to find jobs elsewhere is found to be the results of positive perceived organizational support (Ahmed et al, 2013; Dawley et al., 2010; Wayne et al., 1997). It comes to show that when employers devote employees and give recognition for their work, a stronger exchange relationship will be attained (Smyth and Zimba; Wayne et al., 1997).

In addition, LMX is found to be an important predictor of turnover intention (Ahmed et al., 2013; Dawley, 2010). The relationship between the employee and supervisor is seen to be a partnership where the employee has a perception that the exchange relationship goes two-ways between the parties that is based on mutual trust, obligation and respect (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). Hence, a negative LMX may cause a negative impact on POS as a negative relationship between an employee and his or her manager could spill over to have a negative perception of organizational support (Wayne et al., 1997). However, Harris et al. (2005) argues that having positive LMX may lead to these employees to have enhanced skills and competencies from the exchange leadership, making them attractive to other employers, which could result to them joining other organizations. This is rebutted by an argument by Kim et al. (2013) where employees' intention to leave will be reduced due to high LMX as there is a stronger emotional attachment to their supervisors.

Aside from that, as explained by Emerson (1976) who studied social exchange theory in psychology, what is seen as important when it comes to how one interacts with another is power, status, conformity, justice and leadership. The continuation of a relationship is contingent on the relationship value that is seen by the parties involved (Dawley et al., 2010). This works both ways where an employee invests in their employees will cultivate employee commitment, and the investment made by the employee will enhance the commitment towards the employer, therefore reducing the employees' intention to leave for an alternative employer (Smyth and Zimba, 2019)

An employee would shape social exchange relationships with his or her surroundings whether it is the supervisor, colleagues, customers or even suppliers. Hence, that employee would choose to continue or terminate the said relationship based on their perception on whether it is worthwhile (Almaaitah et al., 2017). In other words, employees compare the cost and benefits of an employment relationship (Aylott, 2014; Blau, 1964). For example, if the current employer offers better pay and benefits as compared to alternative employers, that employee may choose to stay (Cho and Lewis, 2012; Boxall et al., 2003).

The social exchange theory can be used to predict outcomes of an organization's practices as when employees are valued for their contributions and rewarded fairly, they will reciprocate through behaviours that commensurate said exchanges (Gould-Williams and Davies, 2005; Wayne et al., 1997). In relation to employment, employees are linked to organizations based on an agreed set of rules and obligations of which these the strength and upholding of these connections influences their decision to remain within or leave the organization (Holtom et al., 2008; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2007). Therefore, turnover of employees is a result of lack of respect or breach of implicit or explicit rules and norms that were agreed to by the employer or employees (Ngo-Henha, 2017).

The Expectancy Theory

Researchers have referred to the simplicity of the expectancy theory's core that encompasses one's behaviour is dependent on the instrumentality in achieving certain outcomes and the assessment of these said outcomes (Lewin, 1935; Tolman, 1932). Reinhart and Wahba (1975) stated that the basic idea of expectancy theory has been used in general psychology for many years, first introduced in the context of an organization by Georgopoulos et al. (1957), which then lead to various proposals of models (Lawler, 1971; House, 1971; Campbell et al., 1970; Graen, 1969; Porter and Lawler, 1968). However, the other models originated and was modified based on Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory model.

The core principle of expectancy theory is the extrinsic motivators that result in workplace behaviours (Leonard et al., 1999). The assumption of maximizing one's self-interest from extrinsic motivation is the basis of motivational theories (Shamir, 1990). What should be noted is the distinction between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation where external rewards are seen as behaviour-fuelling motivation whereas behaviours that result from internal forces (for example satisfaction from work carried out) is known as intrinsic motivation (DeCharms, 1968)

The first attempt to explain work motivation was done by Vroom (1964) using assumptions that are cognitively-oriented where he refers motivation as a "force" that impels one to carry out a certain action which is dependent on one's expectation that his or her actions will result in a certain outcome and the valence of that said outcome.

Vroom (1964) proposed the Valence-Instrumentality-Expectancy Model. *Valance* refers to the orientation toward a certain outcome and the interpretation of its attractiveness, desirability, importance or satisfaction to it (Fudge and Schlacter, 1999). In other words, valence is the value that one has set on a certain outcome (Gordon, 1993), or its anticipated satisfaction (Pearson and Hui, 2001). *Instrumentality* refers to the relationship between an outcome as a result of another outcome and the probability to achieve it. *Expectancy* however is defined as the possibility of an action to result in a performance or outcome (Van Eerde and Thierry, 1996; Karathanos et al., 1994).

As earlier mentioned, a number of other authors have also developed their own expectancy theories following Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory (Lawler, 1971; Graen, 1969; Porter and Lawler, 1968; Lawler and Porter, 1967), of which Lawler and Suttle (1973) claims originates from the criticism of Vroom's theory in terms of inexplicitness of defining and differentiating between actions and outcomes as well as various types of expectancies that is related to each action and outcomes (Campbell et al., 1970). More in detail, Lawler (1971) articulated a theory to address the said criticism by making distinctions, namely the expectancy of effort that will lead to a certain performance and that the expectancy of the said performance will lead to a certain outcome. This model of expectancy theory expresses motivation as a function of perceived probability that effort will lead to attainment of a goal, and that goal will result in attaining rewards, which includes the valence of the outcomes. This is different than the previous model as it distinguishes the type of perceptions of the action and outcomes (Lawler and Suttle, 1973). In other words, the original Vroom model was further distinguished in terms of expectancy of the *first-level* outcomes which refers performance reached based on effort put in, and expectancy of *second-level* outcome that relates to the reward obtained from the achievement of a certain performance level (Reinhart and Wahba, 1975). In the same vein, in terms of valence, its intrinsic sources were identified which include the satisfaction obtained from carrying out a certain activity regardless of the outcome as well as the satisfaction obtained from the achievement of work goals regardless of rewards that are extrinsic, of which determines the overall level of motivation (Harder, 1991).

Regarding the support for the expectancy theory model, Heneman and Schwab (1972) found 18 studies that generally support the model, in terms of correlation between attitude and job performance. In addition, Lee (2019) argue that the expectancy theory of motivation can help enhance performance as employee motivation is its very core.

Work that is reasonably challenging can be set with consideration to an employee's self-confidence, abilities, education, skills and experience, as work that is not challenging will lead to boredom and low performance (Isaac et al., 2001). Work that is too challenging could also lead to reduced motivation (Lee, 2019). The importance of clear feedback and assurance of reward delivery is highlighted to avoid misinterpretation and establish trust (Daly and Kleiner, 1995). In terms of valance, outcomes of rewards have to be attractive to employees for them to be motivated to achieve it (Snead and Harrell, 1994).

This however boils down to how well the managers or organization know their employees in order to know what they find valuable (Miller, 1999; McConnell, 1998). Lee (2019) argues that in order for motivation to be enhance performance, employees must have a clear expectation of the rewards. Mismatch of unique motivation of employees and organizational rewards makes it difficult to motivate employees (Georgellis et al., 2011). Lack of motivation can cause work dissatisfaction which will result in turnover (Sylqa, 2020). This could occur due to individual differences (Gerhart et al., 1995).

Furthermore, linking back to the model of expectancy theory, namely the Valence-Instrumentality-Valence concept, the strength of this is only as strong as the weakest link (Isaac et al., 2001). Meaning that any mismatch or misinterpretation will impact one's motivational state. Jiang and Klein (2009) claim that based on Vroom's (1964) theory, an employee would have a set of expectations and their evaluation based on whether those expectations were met or not from their working experience. When these set of expectations are not met, behaviours such as absenteeism and turnover intention will emerge (Rathakrishnan et al., 2016; Summers and Hendrix, 1991). Daly and Dee (2006) find the Expectancy Theory to be the heart of the research of employee turnover and retention, where they argue to provide evidence in the guidance of turnover research that are based on this theory (Mobley, 1977).

These theories discussed above in relation to employee retention have the common goal of retaining employees or reducing employee retention. What came to the attention of the writer from the discussion of these theories is the importance of organizations to identify what is valued by employees which encourages or motivates them to remain in the said organization. Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) in the current context focuses on the exchange between the employer and employee where upholding what is agreed in the exchange can determine the retention or turnover of employees (Holtom et al., 2008; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2007). Based on the expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), not meeting the expectations of employees could lead to turnover (Rathakrishnan et al., 2016; Summers and Hendrix, 1991).

Hence, the underpinning theory of the current research, namely the Psychological Contract (Rousseau, 1989) will be further discussed on how not only will it be able to address the above concerns but also be an important tool in comprehending the employment relationship between the employer and employee (Freese and Schalk, 2008; Turnley et al, 2003).

2.3 THE UNDERPINNING THEORY - PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT

2.3.1 Psychological Contract Origin and Development

The ever-changing business environment that is caused by technological advancements, economic development, social changes and political affairs result in alterations of organizational operations, causing fundamental modifications to employment relationships (Tyagi and Agrawal, 2010; Guest, 2004; Cullinane and Bunderson, 2003; Fox, 1974). Since the mid-1980s, evidence have shown that employment relationships have been pressured by these changes (Lee, 2001; Cappelli, 1999). Employment structures that are new and more fluid are surfacing (Guest, 2004). Concurrently, employers are reluctant to repeat the process of renegotiation as required in the conventional employment relations system due to the fact that it is time-consuming and slothful (Savarimuthu and Rachel, 2017). These issues pose vital challenges to organizations as it will impact both the management of human resources as well as employees themselves, hence it is essential for organizations to design and employ practices and policies to motivate and retain the employees (Tyagi and Agrawal, 2010).

The psychological contract is becoming an increasingly important tool in understanding and managing employee relations in the pursuit of satisfying the needs and interests of both the employers and the employees (Phuong and Takahashi, 2018; Dadi, 2012; Freese and Schalk, 2008; Turnley et al, 2003). With the ever-changing business environment, employment relationships have transformed from the traditional to the newer and more flexible employment form (Tyagi and Agrawal, 2010; Guest, 2004). In addition, employment relations are becoming more idiosyncratic rather than a collective model between trade unions and employees (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004), emphasizing the need for a framework such as what is offered by the concept of psychological contract that allows the identification and voicing of the implicit and unexpressed expectations in regards to employment (Cullinane and Dundon, 2006) But how did the psychological contract come to existence?

Psychological contract has expanded significantly over the past 20 years as driven by Rousseau (1989; 1995; 2001). Nevertheless, the concept itself has been around for more than 50 years (Dadi, 2012; Savarimuthu and Rachel, 2017). In his book “Theory of Psychoanalytic Technique”, Menninger (1958) was the first researcher to investigate the concept of psychological contract where he investigated the explicit and implicit contract among psychotherapists and their patients, but at that time did not use the exact term itself. The first researcher to conceptualize the psychological contract was Argyris (1960), describing a relationship between the employee and a group of employees as being implicit. Again, he did not use the exact term “psychological contract”. But later, Levinson et al. (1962) coined the term “psychological contract” in describing how employees explained their work experiences as a distinct set of expectations and obligations. Evidence also shows that the term psychological contract has its precedence from social exchange theory, which surrounds the premise of undetermined obligations and allocation of imbalance power resources (Blau, 1964).

In his book, Blau (1964) proposes a principle of social life that is generic, arguing that when one party does something for or gives something to another, the other party will then reciprocate. This creates an obligation for the other party to reciprocate or face unkind repercussions. The concept of exchange must have some form of scale in order for the receiving part to return the same in favour, although both parties may not have the same scale. Schein (1965) conceptualised the psychological contract, building upon the works of Levinson et al. (1962) and Argyris (1960), stating that an individual and the organization has a variety of expectations from each other, emphasizing on the matching of those expectation. Schein continued on to the means of organizations express their psychological contract via its culture (Coyle-Shapiro and Parzefall, 2008). Rousseau (1989) then reconceptualised the concept, putting greater emphasis on promises that was made by the employer which was perceived by the employee, binding them in a reciprocal obligation (Conway and Briner, 2005).

Two other important theories relevant to the psychological contract are the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) and equity theory (Adams, 1965), which will be mentioned throughout the current research. The norm of reciprocity surrounds the fact of conducting positive actions to receive favourable returns. Gouldner (1960) argues that when what is expected to be received is lesser not done, one would reciprocate by changing one’s contribution. In the context of employee-employer relationship, an employee may reciprocate the employer’s conduct by improving their contributions towards the organization and vice versa. Equity theory (Adams, 1965) also argues a similar stand to the social exchange theory of Blau (1964) where one’s input is proportional to the rewards received.

Adams (1965) initially proposed the theory where employees are motivated if they perceive fairness and equity in what they receive based on their input. The core principle of this theory refers to the exchange relationship where when one gives something, they expect something in return, based on their input given (Al-Zawahreh and Al-Madi, 2012). The assessment of what is given and received in return will reveal a sense of equity or inequity. Based on equity theory, perception of fair outcomes is when there is equal ration between what is given and received, whereas inequity occurs when the outcome-input ratios are unequal (Walster et al, 1978; Adams, 1963). When inequity happens, tension arises which stimulates one to restore equity, where one can alter one's input or leave from a situation either physically or psychologically (Harder, 1991). This will lead one to restore the equity in the relation when one feels a sense of inequity (Ngo-Henha, 2017). In the context of the employment relationship, this would relate to an employee's efforts, skills and experience of which the outcome would include pay, benefits and responsibilities among others, where employees may reciprocate in lowering or increasing their contribution as to what is received. When inequity occurs, this could result in employee turnover (Berry and Morries, 2008).

With relevance to the current study, it is important to define the term psychological contract. However, there seems to be no universally accepted definition for the term even though there is a plethora of literatures related to the study of psychological contract (Anderson and Schalk, 1998; Conway and Briner, 2005). Table 1 tabulates the comparisons of definitions given by different authors.

Table 1: Comparisons of Psychological Contract Definitions

Definition	Author (Year)	Keywords
A set of unwritten reciprocal expectations between an individual employee and the organization	Schein (1978)	Unwritten reciprocal expectations, employee, organization
An implicit contract between an individual and his organization which specifies what each expect to give and receive from each other in their relationship	Kotter (1973)	Implicit contract, employee, organization, expect to give and receive
Individual's beliefs, shaped by the organization, regarding terms of an exchange agreement between the individual and their organization	Rousseau (1989)	Individual beliefs, exchange agreement, organization
The perception of both parties to the employment relationship, organization and individual, if the reciprocal promises and obligations implied in that relationship	Herriot and Pemberton (1997)	Perception, reciprocal promises and obligations

An employee's belief about the reciprocal obligations between that employee and his or her organization, whereas these obligations are based on perceived promises and are not necessarily recognised by agents of the organization	Morrison and Robinson (1997)	Belief about reciprocal obligations, perceived promises, not necessarily recognised
A series of mutual expectations of which the parties to the relationship may not themselves be dimly aware but which nonetheless govern their relationship to each other	Levinson et al (1962)	Mutual expectations, not aware themselves

It is apparent that all the definitions above clearly state that the relationship and what is expected or perceived either by the employee or the organization is implicit. Also drawn from the definitions is the fact that the psychological contract is a concept that exist between the employer and the employees, constraining it within the context of the organization. Dadi (2012) however argues that the psychological contract can be used or extended outside of the organization where psychological contracts could exist between doctors and patients, the state and lawyers, spouses, politician and voters and many others. He states that as long as the expectations and beliefs are not written down, it can be considered as a psychological contract. Although the argument may be true, the research of psychological contract in other areas other than within the work relationship context has little research interest (Dadi, 2012). The writer would focus that the concept of the psychological contract within the scope of the organization, specifically between the employee and the organization, also obvious in the definitions provided.

In addition, it was also argued by Guest (1998) that once the definitions of the psychological contract are put into question, one would face challenges in deciding the best definition to describe the psychological contract. In regards to the various definitions provided, it seems that the psychological contract is about expectations, promises and obligations. In fact, Conway and Briner (2009) highlighted the fact that researchers have argued in regards to the differences of expectations, promises and obligations (Conway and Briner, 2005; Guest, 1998; Arnold, 1996), further stating that prior to Rousseau's research, psychological contract emphasized on expectation rather than promises. Stirring up the complication even more is with the use of obligations throughout the entire psychological contract history such as in the researches of Rousseau (1989) and Morrison and Robinson (1997), as stated by Conway and

Briner (2009). Robinson and Rousseau (1994) argue that psychological contract is separate from expectations where expectations are what is expected by employees from the employer. They further argue that the psychological contract involves perceived mutual obligations where the relationship between employee and employer is based on a reciprocal exchange of which entails a belief of obligations that the employer is to provide.

Nevertheless, Guest (1998) also pointed out the problem of defining the psychological contract which can be solved by accepting that expectations, promises, and obligations are included in the concept. This argument however was not accepted by researchers as this creates a conceptual boundary and oversimplifies the psychological contract (Dadi, 2012). Dadi (2012) also stated the fact that the concept psychological contract does not have an authoritative definition may explain why the it has been globally accepted and applicable, which on the other hand also lead researchers to define psychological contract to best serve their relevance.

For the purpose of this research, the writer proposes to adopt the definition provided by Kotter (1973) stating that the psychological contract is an implicit contract between the employee and employee of what is expected to be given and received from each other, with the inclusion that these expectations may or may not be known by the other party. Having said that, the concept of psychological contract in this research takes into consideration the perspectives of both employee and employer of what they expect to receive when providing what they perceive is expected of them. By applying this concept, the employee-employer relationship can be better understood and managed as it also takes into account the implicit perceptions.

2.3.2 Unilateral and Bilateral View of The Psychological Contract

Rousseau (2004) describes the psychological contract as a product of a complex web of exchanges between the organization and the employee. These exchanges occur within the organization on an interpersonal level between the focal person and various organizational representatives (Rousseau, 1995). It is too easy to personify the organization as a unified party to the exchange relationship insofar as the feelings an employee may have for an agent of the organization may sometimes be generalized to the whole organization (Cullinane and Dundon, 2006; Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2002; Dabos and Rousseau, 2004). In order words, addressing the organization as a biological being of its own (Rousseau and McLean Parks, 1993). Organizations do not and cannot perceive of hold feelings (Whitener, 1997). It is important to note the fact that individuals hold psychological contracts, not organizations as following researches however show otherwise where the managers or the supervisors of the employees can also have perceptions and feelings of their own and not the organization as an entity (Dadi, 2012). The reciprocation is actually between the individual employee with representatives of the organization (Rousseau, 1995). Organizations cannot "perceive", but their representatives can perceive a psychological contract and react accordingly (Rousseau, 1989). In psychological contract terminology, organizational representatives with whom the employee interacts and perceives his/her contract have been labelled as contract makers (Rousseau, 1995). Hence the personification of the organization is done where actions of the agents of the organization is seen as the actions of the organization itself (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2000; Rousseau, 1989; Levinson, 1965)

Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2000) highlighted that many researchers have been neglecting the essence of mutuality in the psychological contract where much focus was on the perspective of the employees i.e., a unilateral view (Morrison and Robinson, 1997; Robinson and Rousseau, 1994; Shore and Tetrick, 1994). The definition of the psychological contract by Rousseau (1989) also puts greater emphasis on the individual employee's belief because she argues that the psychological contract is in the employee's perception on the mutual obligations between the employee and the organization (Cullinane and Dundon, 2006). The bilateral view of the psychological contract however involves the perceptions from both the employee and employer (Herriot and Pemberton, 1995; Levinson et al., 1962, Schein, 1965). This approach is useful in when comparing the differences between the employees and employers and help resolve conflicts within the organization.

Guest (1998) argues that the psychological contract should include the perspective of the employer in order to fully determine its reciprocity and mutual obligations. Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2000) in their paper included both the perspectives of employee and employer to remain consistent to the core of the psychological contract in determining the mutual perceptions of the two parties. Guest (2004) calls for the exploration of the psychological contract to return to a two-way exchange with the inclusion of the employer perspective. Other researchers took the views of both the employee and employers (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2002; Guest, 1998; Herriot et al., 1997), allowing the investigation of the mutuality of perceptions between the two parties and access how well the employer has fulfilled its obligations to its employees.

A study by Aggarwal and Bhargava (2009) was carried out among various employers and employees in India on the contents of psychological contract, particularly on the employee's perceptions of promises made by the organization and its fulfilment in comparison with the perception of the employers actually fulfilling it. The study revealed that there were apparent discrepancies between what was perceived by the employees and the employers. For example, a supportive work culture as well as growth and development opportunities were seen most valuable to employees, whereas the employers assumed that providing salary and benefits as well as support for job and resources were more important. This indicated the importance to examine the psychological contract on both the perceptions of the employee as well as the employer, as also supported by Turney et al. (2003).

Freese and Schalk (2008) also state that it is essential to measure the obligations of both employee and employers due to the fact that the psychological contract is an agreement on perceived mutual obligations. This is important as the dynamics of the psychological contract can be better understood rather than considering the psychological contract to be a one-dimensional construct (De Vos and Buyens, 2001). Various studies have depended on self-reports by their employees of their perspectives, which has surfaced genuine concern in regards to its limitations (Keeney and Svyantek, 2000). There is also a dearth of psychological contract research that includes the fulfilment of both employee and employers (Grimmer and Oddy, 2007; Nelson and Tonks, 2007).

On the other hand, Freese and Schalk (2008) argue that taking the bilateral view is seen to pose problems as the organization consists of many actors such as the top management, supervisors and HR officers, to name a few, who may not communicate the same sets of expectations. They also state that the view of the organization is a collective of diverse and differing expectations. Nevertheless, previous research has reaffirmed that the immediate supervisor as the most important representative of the organization in the employee-employer relationship (Guest and Conway, 2004; Rousseau, 1995). In a research by Guest and Conway (2002), the first part involved qualitative interviews with a total of 80 managers and employees from different levels from four organizations found that managers were viewed as the organization's representative. Research utilizing the immediate supervisor of the employee in their study found that there is higher agreement on employee obligations between employee and supervisor (Tekleab and Taylor, 2003). Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2002) in a study examining the employer-employee relationship suggested that an organizations perspective is best represented by a higher-level manager. Shore and Tetrick (1994) stated that the immediate supervisor or manager is most likely to be identified as the primary agent in terms of the psychological contract. Lester et al. (2002) also argued that the responsibility of the psychological contract fulfilment is generally of the employee's supervisor, regardless of whatever definition used. Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe (2003) also argue that employees assume the behaviours of their immediate supervisors to be representing the organization. Lewis and Taylor (2001) also argue that the formation, maintenance and monitoring of employee's psychological contract lies in the role of the immediate manager. As argued by Suazo et al. (2009) this suggests that an important role is played by the supervisors in regards to the psychological contract.

With that being said, the writer is in agreement that the agent representing the organization is the immediate supervisor or manager in the psychological contract. Exchanges that happen between an employee and his or her immediate supervisor of which these organizational decisions would generate feeling towards the organization itself (Wayne et al., 1997), as their supervisors or managers are seen as representatives of the organization (Eisenberger er al., 1986). This would mean that gestures and actions done by these managers or supervisors are assumed to be of the organization's behaviour and not the individual's (Zagenczyk et al., 2011). In addition, the writer reiterates that the psychological contract is indeed between the employee and the organization, but more specifically term “organization” or “employer” used in general refers to the agents or the organization such as managers or supervisors of whom the employee interacts with and form psychological contracts respectively, as also argued by Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2002) and Dabos and Rousseau (2004). Furthermore, the writer is in agreement with Guest (1998) because having a one-sided view of the psychological contract will not be sufficient to fully assess it since it involves both the individual and the organization, as also agreed by Petersitzke (2009). Hence, the current study will include both the views of the employee and the employer.

2.3.3 Formation of The Psychological Contract

Due to the fact that the core of the psychological contract involves perceptions that are implicit in nature, the psychological contract is subjective where these perceptions are "in the eye of the beholder" (Galić et al, 2016). The psychological contract is said to be in existence since the recruitment phase but could also be altered through a change of job or from changes within the organization (Rousseau and McLean Parks, 1993). However, researchers argue that psychological contracts are shaped from employees' experience before employment, the character of the individual employee, the influences within the organization as well as the individual's social environment (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2008; Morrison and Robinson, 2004; Rousseau, 2001a; Hiltrop, 1996). Rousseau (2001a) proposed that the formation of the psychological contract is based on an individual's schema of the employee-employer relationship.

What one experiences in their formative phase, which is said to be between the ages of 16 to 25 years, will decide one's values and attitudes (Mannheim, 1952). These experiences will shape mental schemas that would not differ so much throughout their lives (Kowske et al., 2010; Ryder, 1965). In fact, psychological contracts that are formed are difficult to change (Rousseau, 2001a; Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2000). In relation to the employment relationship, these schemas influence employee attitudes and behaviour as it influences their interpretations of actions by employers (O'Donohue et al., 2018; Dabos and Rousseau, 2004). In the same vein, the mental schema of an individual determines how one interprets events within the organization and how the psychological contract is formed (Lub et al., 2016). This may explain the subjectivity of the psychological contract as it is based on the mental model of individual employees (Freese and Schalk, 2008).

But how different is the psychological contract compared to the employment contract? In comparison with the psychological contract, the employment contract is something that is more formal, written down and communicated between the two parties with the suggestion that both parties have agreed to its contents, also highlighting the difficulty in its alteration without the consent from either party (Cullinane and Dundon, 2006). These typical employment contracts are also legally enforceable (Middlemiss, 2011; Lee, 2001; Macneil, 1985). As for the psychological contract, it is a concept that is constructed by the individual based on the implicit feelings and expectations that are subjective (Savarimuthu and Rachel, 2017; Rousseau, 1995). Employment contracts are considered to be incomplete due to the changing environment of the organization, making it all conditions to be impossible to specified up front, leaving both the employee and employers to fill up the blanks (Rousseau and Greller, 1994). In addition, Middlemiss (2011) argue that the psychological contract plays a stronger role in influencing the behaviour of employees because it is based on the beliefs and expectations of the employment relationship.

Cullinane and Dundon (2006) highlights the point that the employment contract is not usually made between those of similar power or status. They state that an employee becomes subordinate to their employers, where the employers are the one that determines the pay, benefits and workload in exchange for the employee's contribution. This imbalance of power and authority between the two parties could explain why there is always an existence of unmet psychological contracts (Morrison and Robinson, 1997). Guest (2004) also supported this as previous research found that exchanges between the employer and employee are more inclined to favour the employer. Dadi (2012) also argues that mutuality of the psychological contract is criticised due the power gap between the employee and employer. Nevertheless, the management of the psychological contract can be directed to the development of its employees rather than its plain utilization of employee as resources (Guest and Conway, 2002).

2.3.4 Types of Psychological Contracts

According to Macneil (1985) and Rousseau (1995), the psychological contract can be categorized as either transactional or relational. Transactional psychological contract is expressed as being short-term in nature, with focus on material rewards and is narrow in scope. Transactional psychological contracts generally involve an employee to provide something specific in return for something monetary of value, such as high pay and rapid advancement (Robinson et al., 1994), for a limited or determined time period (Aselage and Eisenberger, 2003; Millward and Hopkins, 1998; Marks et al, 1998). In other words, employees will have transactional psychological contracts when they perceive that their employer will provide them with specific, short-term employment with none or little training and/or development, and in return employees will perform and commit to what is required of them which is recognized by a structured reward system for tangible (financial or other non-financial) inducements (Chien and Lin, 2013).

Relational psychological contracts however are somewhat the contrary of transactional ones where rewards are less tangible, involving a socioemotional exchange with no specific time duration (Guzzo and Noonan, 1994; Shore and Tetrick, 1994). In other words, employees may have a wide range of expectations and in return go beyond their specific job requirements such as putting in longer hours or long-term loyalty with the organization (Shahnawaz and Jafri, 2011). Job security, supportive training and development (Robinson et al., 1994) as well as a sense of belonging is seen to be related to organizational inducements in the relational psychological contract in exchange for employee’s loyalty, commitment and involvement (Taylor et al., 2006). This would mean that employees will have relational psychological contract when they perceive the employer to provide stable income, job security and support which may go beyond the employment terms (Rousseau, 2000), and in return, the employees will continue to stay in the organization for a longer time period and commit as well as remain loyal to the organization (Chien and Lin, 2013).

Rousseau (1990) argues that the transactional and relational psychological contracts are two ends of a continuum, meaning that the psychological contract is either or. However, Thompson and Bunderson (2003) argue that the continuum between transactional and relational psychological contracts is too simplistic. In addition, evidence has shown that psychological contracts cannot be categorized as either transactional or relational but rather it may have a mixture of both (Arnold, 1996; Robinson et al, 1994).

Nevertheless, recent scholarly studies have highlighted a third psychological contract "category", namely ideological psychological contract (Thompson and Bunderson, 2003). More specifically, they utilize the term "currency" to refer to the exchange of contributions and rewards within the psychological contract, which are economic currencies (transactional), socioemotional currencies (relational) and their suggestion of a third currency: ideology currencies (ideological). Based on the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), employees are bound to organizations by ideological rewards which can be referred to as feelings related to a noble cause. Thompson and Bunderson (2003) define the ideological currency as "*credible commitments to pursue a valued cause or principle (not limited to self-interest) that are implicitly exchanged at the nexus of the individual organization relationship*". In an ideological psychological contract, an employee will contribute towards a certain organization's social cause which could include taking initiative to provide service to a specific component or even working after-hours to contribute to the said cause. The writer agrees with this stand as it is also apparent in findings of the research done by Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2003) in the public sector, where they stated that as long as employees feel organizational support towards their espoused cause, the fulfilment of the psychological contract itself is overlooked.

These three-part dimensions of the psychological contract resonate with seminal organizational theories of which Thompson and Bunderson (2003) refer to as "theoretical cousins" of psychological contract, namely Kelman's (1958) classic typology of attitude change (compliance, identification and internalization), Wrzesniewski et al (1997) orientation toward work theory (job, career and calling) as well as Graham and Organ's (1993) social contract types (transactional, social exchange and covenantal). These theoretical cousins show the significance of the psychological contract as a way to better describe the employment relationship by using the three categories or currencies. Incorporating ideological theory into the psychological contract could help explain findings that could be contradictory to researches limited to using the concept of transactional and relational currencies (Thompson and Bunderson, 2003). What should be re-emphasized is that these currencies of being either transactional, relational or ideological is not mutually exclusive but rather may consist of a few (Robinson et al, 1994). This provides a better method of estimate if that psychological contract is more or less transactional, relational or ideological, which proves to be useful in determining the contents of the employee-employer relationship (Hart and Thompson, 2007).

But what happens once the currencies of exchange are figured out? How will this be used in understanding the employment relationship? How can the psychological contract be used to comprehend the dynamics of the employee-employer relationship?

Going back to the definition used for this study, psychological contract is defined as an implicit contract between the employee and employer of what is expected to be given and received from each other, with the inclusion that these expectations may or may not be known by the other party. This would mean that each party, namely the employee and the employer have certain expectations to be satisfied by each other. Therefore, the psychological contract can be examined by its state of whether or not these expectations has been fulfilled or not as this would lead to certain repercussions, as studied by various authors (Morgan and King, 2012; Freese et al., 2011; Restubog et al., 2010; Bal et al., 2010; Aggarwal and Bhargava, 2009; Suazo et al., 2008; Freese and Schalk, 2008; Zhao et al., 2007; Cheung and Chiu, 2005; Guest, 2004; Pate et al., 2003; Turnley and Feldman, 2000; Robinson, 1996, Robinson and Morrison, 1995; Robinson and Rousseau, 1994). The terms breach, violation and fulfilment has been used to determine the *state* of the psychological contract, which will be discussed in the following section.

2.3.5 State of Psychological Contract

As previously mentioned, many researchers have studied into the state of the psychological contract and its various effects on the individual employee as well as the organization, namely psychological contract *breach, violation* and *fulfilment* (Zhao et al., 2007; Conway and Briner, 2005; Guest, 2004; Turnley et al., 2003; Morrison and Robinson, 1997; Robinson and Morrison, 1995; Robinson and Rousseau, 1994)

<u>Psychological Contract Breach</u>

Psychological contract breach occurs when the perceived inducements promised by the employer in return for the employee's contribution are unmet (Morrison and Robinson, 1997; Robinson and Morrison, 1995; Robinson and Rousseau, 1994). Closer to the current research, breach occurs when one or both sides of the psychological contract have not met the obligations of the other (Savarimuthu and Rachel, 2017).

Antecedents of breach may be caused by comparisons of an employee's deals with other employees within the organization and perceive unfairness (Conway and Brines, 2005), having experienced psychological contract breach in a previously employed organization as well as having alternative options to other employment opportunities outside of the organization (Robinson and Morrison, 2000). The employee's complex and sensemaking process which occasionally may not be perfect drives the perception of breach after identifying what was contributed by the employee is not the perceived proportionate contribution by the employer (Atkinson, 2006). Based on Gouldner's (1960) norm of reciprocity, this would involve the employee to alter one's output based on the employer's input.

This could lead to negative repercussions such as job dissatisfaction (Zhao et al., 2007; Tekleab et al. 2005; Johnson and O'Leary-Kelly, 2003; Turnley and Feldman, 1998; Robinson and Rousseau, 1994), reduced organizational commitment (Raja et al, 2004; Johnson and O'Leary-Kelly, 2003; Lester et al., 2002; Bunderson, 2001; Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2000), diminished job performance (Restubog et al, 2010; Bal et al., 2010; Turnley et al., 2003; Turnley and Feldman, 1999a; Robinson, 1996) reduced trust and loyalty (Robinson, 1996; Robinson and Rousseau, 1994) and employees quitting their jobs (Freese et al., 2011; Suazo et al, 2005; Bunderson 2001). Kickul (2001) also revealed that psychological contract breach in small businesses related to autonomy and growth as well as rewards and opportunities causes negative effects on employee's emotions, reduces organizational commitment and intentions so leave. She further argues that turnover causes a great deal to small firms in terms of costs and time in obtaining replacements, resources to support the loss and attracting suitable and competent employees to fill the gap. In addition, the writer supports this notion as smaller firms with less employees will be more affected than larger firms with more employees to deal with turnover.

Zhao et al. (2007) revealed in their meta-analysis that psychological contract breach and its outcomes are mediated by the employee's emotional response. In their research, the outcomes are separated into two distinct categories: attitudinal (job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intentions) and behavioural (actual turnover, organizational citizenship behaviour and in-role performance) Based on their studies, it was found that breach is positively related to violation, and mistrust positively related to job dissatisfaction, lower organizational commitment and turnover intentions, as well as negatively related to organizational citizenship behaviour and in-role performance. However, breach was found not to be related to actual turnover. Rousseau (2000) acknowledges this effect as there could exist a high cost towards the employee if there are no other employment alternatives.

With this in mind, psychological contract is a very useful tool in understanding the emotions, attitudes and behaviour of the employee towards the employment relationship (Zhao et al, 2007; Guest, 2004) but the writer further argues that the effects of unmet perceived promises and obligations may differ from one employee to another, as seen in the contradicting results by different authors. This is also supported by Rousseau (1995) stating that the psychological contract is "in the eye of the beholder", hence what is perceived by the individual employee may not be the same with another employee (Boxall and Purcell, 2003; Rousseau and McLean Parks, 1993), making the psychological contract completely subjective to that individual (Lee, 2001). However, Thompson and Bunderson (2003) argue that even though employees' views may be subjective, it may not necessarily be idiosyncratic as they further argue that employees may share the same psychological contract due to the fact that there are still promised inducements that are common as well as the sharing of organizational agents that may set perceived promises. This only highlights the importance of identifying what is being perceived by each individual, as supported by Tyagi and Agrawal (2010).

Psychological Contract Violation

According to Conway and Briner (2005) violation usually ensues breach. However, Morrison and Robinson (1997) argue that breach does not necessarily lead to violation. Robinson and Morrison (2000) argue that the interpretation of the employee on the occurrence of unmet promises and obligations moderates the relationship between violation and breach. Zhao et al. (2007) notes that the terms breach and violation has been used synonymously. Psychological contract breach and violation may be correlated, but there is a conceptual difference between them as revealed by research evidence (Zhao et al., 2007, Robinson and Morrison, 2000).

Violation is an “emotional condition” as a result of organization failing to preserve the psychological contract (Morrison and Robinson, 1997), which results in longer and undesirable effects (Zagenczyk et al., 2009; Atkinson, 2007). Breach however is seen as only the “cognition” of unmet promises or obligations which may be short-termed as employees will return to a certain “stable state” in the organization (Pate et al., 2003; Turnley and Feldman, 2000).

As compared to psychological contract breach, violation is seen to be more critical because the unmet promises are more personalised as the codes of conduct are questioned (Rousseau, 1989). Due to it being multi-dimensional, psychological contract violation involves various responses (Morrison and Robinson, 1997), where at one stage it causes employees to react in frustration, disappointment and distress (Robinson and Morrison, 1995; Pate and Malone, 2000), and lower job satisfaction (Rodwell et al., 2015; Sutton and Griffin, 2003) as well as decreased motivation (Lester et al., 2001). More extreme emotional reactions would include resentment, rage and indignation (Rousseau, 1989, Pate and Malone, 2000). Violation not only causes negative emotional responses but also behavioural consequences such as lower performance of employees (Lester et al., 2002), lesser job commitment (Turnley and Feldman, 2000) lower organizational commitment (Lemire and Rouillard, 2005; Anderson and Schalk, 1998; Guzzo and Noonan, 1994, Robinson et al., 1994, Rousseau, 1990), reduced organizational citizenship behaviour (Othman et al., 2005; Turnley and Feldman, 2000) lower organizational performance (Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran, 2005; Robinson and Morrison, 2000; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990), and augmented intentions to leave the firm (Morgan and King, 2012; Sturges et al., 2005; Turnley and Feldman 2000; Robinson and Rousseau, 1994)

Causes of Unfulfilled Psychological Contracts

Researchers argue that employee's reaction to unfulfilled psychological contracts are dependent on the reasons to the occurrence of breach, namely *incongruence*, *disruption* and *reneging* (Robinson, 1997; Morrison and Robinson, 1997; Rousseau, 1995).

Incongruence happens when the promise made is able and willing to be met by both parties, but an honest misunderstanding of either one party led to the party acting differently as perceived by the other (Morrison and Robinson, 1997). For example, an organization believes that it is living up to its promises, but the employee perceives that the organization has one or more promises that are unmet (Turnley and Feldman, 1999a).

Disruption occurs when both parties are willing to uphold the promise made to one another but circumstances arise that make either one of both parties to not be able to meet the promise. An example of disruption would include a financial impediment faced by the organization which forces the reduction or cut of inducements offered prior to the event (Turnley et al., 2003)

Reneging happens when either one or both parties are able to meet the promise but are unwilling to do so (Rousseau, 1995). For instance, an organization that experiences high profit periods may still decide to reduce pay or lay off employees in order to reduce costs even though that organization is able to handle it financially.

The response of the employees towards unfulfilled psychological contract is determined by the employee's perception of how it occurred as well as the depth of discrepancy (Turnley and Feldman, 1999b; Rousseau, 1995). Zhao et al (2007) in their meta-analysis argued the intercorrelation between psychological contract and emotions and behaviour. They argued that when an undesired event happens at work, an employee will encounter negative emotional responses which will affect that employee's assessment which then affects their behaviour.

Nevertheless, employees are seen to be forgiving when employers explain the reasons for not meeting certain promises (Middlemiss, 2011; Tyagi and Agrawal, 2010). Previous research has shown that one would try and comprehend the reason for unmet promises (Kahneman, Knetsch and Thaler, 1986). Turnley et al. (2003) however revealed in their research that employees care more about the occurrence of unmet psychological contracts rather than why it even happened.

Currencies and Unfulfilled Psychological Contracts

Tyagi and Agrawal (2010) and Hart and Thompson (2007) argue that it is imperative to determine the currencies of the psychological contract to understand why and how it may be breached or violated. It has been revealed that employee's personality is reflected upon the types of psychological contracts, for example employees that are more equity sensitive and fearful are associated to transactional psychological contracts whereas employees that are more conscientious and self-worth are related to relational psychological contract (Raja et al., 2004). In addition, relational psychological contracts are more corelated to job satisfaction, commitment and employee turnover (Raja et al., 2004; Robinson and Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1990).

Lee (2001) emphasizes on the importance of transactional psychological contracts as he argues that there is a movement towards the "new" psychological contract that is more transactional rather than the "older" relational psychological contract that focuses on providing employees with job security, steady rewards as well as career management and development in expected return of loyalty and long-term service and commitment towards the organization. However, Herriot et al. (1997) claim that relational psychological contracts are more important than transactional psychological contracts as it is mentioned more in their research. The importance of relational psychological contract was also supported by Zhao et al (2007) which found that as compared to transactional psychological contracts, there was a stronger relationship between relational breach and variables researched (job satisfaction, intentions to quit and organizational citizenship behaviour). Heffernan and Rochford (2017) found that relational psychological contract is more important than transactional as its breach is a better indicator of employee turnover. Restubog et al. (2006) and Turnley et al. (2003) also argue that breach of relational psychological contract has a stronger effect as compared to transactional.

Once an employee's psychological contract is violated, researchers argue that the employment relationship becomes more transactional of which its extent depends on the depth of perceived violation (Pate and Malone, 2000; McLean Parks and Kidder, 1994). When a transactional psychological contract is breached, perception of unfairness towards economic exchange would lead to feelings of disloyalty and injustice (Savarimuthu and Rachel, 2017; Shore and Tetrick, 1994).

Nevertheless, relational psychological contracts are more vulnerable to damage as compared to transactional psychological contracts (Tyagi and Agrawal, 2010; Hart and Thompson, 2007), where there is a greater decline in employee obligations who perceive their relational psychological contracts have been breach, as compared to those with transactional psychological contracts (Robinson et al., 1994).

Ideological psychological contracts however are more impervious to perceived breach and violation as compared to the other currencies due to its prevalence of the noble cause that is seen to be more important than personal tribulations (Thompson and Bunderson, 2003). Conversely, if the espoused caused is perceived to be breach or violated, are more extreme and hostile consequence is predicted to emerge.

Interestingly, research has found that not everyone reacts the same way when there are psychological contract breaches (Bal et al., 2010, Dulac et al., 2008; Restubog and Bordia, 2006, Coyle-Shapiro, 2002). Employees that are said to have high-quality social exchange relationships with their employer or organization may see psychological contract breaches as less intentional and less severe (Morrison and Robinson, 1997; Rousseau, 1995). On the other hand, employees that have the other end of the spectrum, namely low-quality social exchanges will react more strongly to breaches (Dulac et al., 2008; Morrison and Robinson, 1997). The high-quality relationship is said to dampen or buffer the negative effects of breaches (Dulac et al., 2008; Eisenberger et al., 2001). This is said to be the basis of the buffering-hypothesis of which effects of breaches are less intensified in high quality social exchanges or vice versa (Bal et al., 2010; Bakker et al., 2007; Erdogan et al., 2004). The intensifying-hypothesis however proposes employees who have high-quality social exchange relationships with their company will be more sensitive to breaches of the psychological contract (Restubog and Bordia, 2006; Coyle-Shapiro, 2002), due to the fact that these employees are more committed and are more likely to remain with the said organization (Tekleab et al., 2005, Masterson et al., 2000). This was supported by Bal et al. (2010) in their research where breaches of psychological contract may bring a sense of betrayal of the organization to the employees.

Regardless of whether breach or violation of the psychological contract causes more severe negative effects, the writer argues that both breach and violation have to be treated seriously, as seconded by Tomprou and Nikolaou (2011). Furthermore, the writer further argues that breach and violation occur due to perceived unmet obligations. Hence, fulfilling these perceived obligations should eliminate the occurrence of breach, which then also eliminates violation. This is supported by Tyagi and Agrawal (2010) as they state that psychological contract fulfilment is the inverse of breach where a psychological contract fulfilment signifies the absence of breach.

Psychological Contract Fulfilment

When all the perceived promises and obligations are met, psychological contract fulfilment occurs (Robinson, 1996). Determining what exactly causes fulfilment of the psychological contract have not been extensively researched (Conway et al., 2011). However, better clarification can be obtained by applying the Social Exchange Theory (SET) (Rodwell et al., 2015; Blau, 1964). Based on SET, employee's trust towards the firm will be enhanced if perceived promises are met, which will lead to positive social exchanges (Blau, 1964). This would also include the employee's reciprocity in returning gains they have received (Gouldner, 1960). Relating the concept of reciprocity within the psychological contract, balance of input and output will be maintained by employees for obligations made and fulfilled. These fulfilments will then result in better job satisfaction (Rodwell et al, 2015; Sutton and Griffin, 2004; Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2000), higher job performance, increased motivation (Lester et al., 2001), higher organizational commitment to their firm (Lemire and Rouillard, 2005; Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2003; Robinson and Rousseau, 1994), and reduced employee turnover (Iskandar and Sari, 2018; Zhao et al, 2007; Cheung and Chiu, 2005; Conway and Briner, 2002). Psychological contract fulfilment is also related to reduced emotional tiredness (Gakovic and Tetrick, 2007) as well as augmented mental welfare (Gracia et al., 2007). Guest et al. (1996) support the notion that psychological contract fulfilment will result in job satisfaction and organizational commitment. which will lead to improved organizational performance (Katou, 2013). Sturges et al (2005) also argue that psychological contract fulfilment is positively related to organizational commitment, which will further result in increased organizational efficiency.

Turnley et al. (2003) proposed a framework in accessing the relationship between psychological contract fulfilment and employer behaviour, namely in-role performance, organizational citizenship behaviour directed at the organization and organizational citizenship behaviour directed at the employees within the organization. Findings show that fulfilment of the psychological contract is positively related to all three employee behaviours studied. What was also revealed is that employees seem to favour employment relationship (relational) rather than pay (transactional). In addition, fulfilment is related strongly to the organizational citizenship behaviour aimed at the organization rather than the employees. This is consistent with the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) where when employees perceive that the organization has fulfilled what was promised to them, they will reciprocate with actions that will be advantageous to the organization.

Psychological contract breach and violation causes more damaging repercussions as compared to its fulfilment (Conway et al, 2011; Zhao et al., 2007), consistent with prospect theory which states that the pain of loss experienced is more intense as compared to the pleasure of gain (Conway et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2007; Tversky and Kahneman, 1992). This is all the more reason to reduce, or better yet, avoid the occurrence of unmet psychological contracts. Hence the writer argues that psychological contract breach and violation can be prevented through its fulfilment, as also stated by Tyagi and Agrawal (2010) that the fulfilment of the psychological contract can be achieved with the absence of breach. Furthermore, Lambert et al. (2003) found that fulfilment of the promises made are more important than the promises itself, which further emphasizes the importance of psychological contract fulfilment.

One of the effects of psychological contract fulfilment is reduced employee turnover intentions (Pradhan et al., 2017; Collins, 2010) and employee retention (Cheung and Chiu, 2005). Various researches into the psychological contract revealed that psychological contract fulfilment is positively related to employee retention (De Vos and Meganck, 2009; Zhao et al, 2007; Cheung and Chin, 2005; Conway and Briner, 2005; Kalleberg and Rogues, 2000). The writer argues that employee retention is the opposite of employee turnover as employee turnover is defined by the employee leaving the organization and no longer being employed by the organization. Retention refers to the employee still remaining and being employed by their organization. Emery (2010) and Ghere and York-Barr (2007) also supports the notion that employee retention is the opposite of employee turnover. Hence, if psychological contract breach is positively related to employee turnover, as found by Heffernan and Rochford (2017), Umar and Ringim (2015), and Clinton and Guest (2014), what can be concluded is that psychological contract breach is negatively related to employee retention for those same studies. This method has also been used by various researchers such as Zhao et al., (2007) and Kickul (2001) where they reversed the measures and findings of psychological contract fulfilment to breaches to be adopted in their study measures. Therefore, the writer argues that psychological contract fulfilment will positively affect employee retention.

Hypothesis 1: Psychological contract fulfilment is positively related to employee retention.

There has been an abundance of research in the study of psychological contract breach as compared to those focused upon the positive effects of psychological contract or its fulfilment (Dabos and Rousseau, 2004). Ahmad and Zafar (2018) have also highlighted in their paper that previous psychological contract research was primarily focused on the breach of psychological contract and its outcomes (Rayton and Yaalabik, 2014; Raja et al., 2004; Rousseau, 1995) as compared to the fulfilment of the psychological contract even though it is an important determinant in identifying employees' reactions in terms of attitudes and behaviours (Rayton et al., 2015). Hence the current research will be focused upon the psychological contract fulfilment, which will contribute to the neglected literature. The writer also highlights that the breach of psychological contract is a subjective experience which may occur as a result from the employer's action or inaction (Morrison and Robinson, 1997). Hence it is important to identify the level of mutuality between both the employee and the employer to determine the basis of agreement and discrepancy (Savarimuthu and Rachel, 2017; Cullinane and Bundon, 2006). In other words, the extent of the fulfilment of promises and obligations has to be determined in order to identify gaps in the fulfilment of the psychological contract. As this research takes a bilateral approach, the level of mutuality and discrepancy can be determined. Due to the fact that the breach or fulfilment of the psychological contract is subjective in nature, the writer hypothesizes that there will be a gap in the perception of the psychological contract.

Hypothesis 2: The perception between employee and employer regarding of the psychological contract is different.

In the same vein, the level of mutuality and discrepancy regarding their views on whether or not the employee will choose to remain in the organization can be determined, as the current study takes a bilateral approach. Since the views of the employee and employer is subjective in nature, the writer further hypothesizes that there will also be a gap in the perception of the intention of employees choosing to stay in the organization.

Hypothesis 3: The perception between employee and employer regarding employee retention between employee is different.

A study by De Vos and Meganck (2009) used psychological contract as a framework in determining factors affecting employee retention. The study involved determining the extent of the fulfilment of the employees' psychological contract and its importance. They revealed that practises carried out by the organization in employee retention was actually focusing to factors of employee turnover, furthermore factors that may not seem important to employees. In other words, employers developed retention practices based on why employees would leave instead of focusing on the reasons they stay. The writer further argues that in order to effectively retain employees, it is crucial to identify what is seen valuable to employees that motivates them to stay with the organization, as also supported by Tyagi and Agrawal (2010), De Vos and Meganck (2009), Montes and Zweig (2009), Maertz and Griffeth (2004), and Steel et al. (2002).

2.4 HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT AND RETENTION

Human Resource Management (HRM) can be defined as a strategic methodology in achieving its objectives by managing the asset that is most valuable to an organization: the employees (George and Jones, 2012; Armstrong, 2006). Its importance is highlighted as there is a paradigm shift from human resource management (HRM) to human capital development (HCD), as this indicates the value of the employees of organizations (Almaaitah, 2017; Armstrong, 2010). Bairi et al (2011) has brought up the recent focus of employee retention in the research field of HRM. HRM plays an important role in employee retention as its policies determines if an employee leaves or stays (Acton et al., 2003). A HRM that is well articulated typically reduces intention of employees to leave an organization (Slattery and Selvarajan, 2005). Peterson (2004) also supports this notion as he argues that practices carried out by the organization, in this case it would refer to Human Resource (HR) practices, will strongly influence the intentions of leaving or remaining with the organization, and these intentions will ultimately lead to actual turnover or retention. There has also been enforcement of HR policies and practices globally to reduce employee turnover and encourage retention (Hom et al., 2008), as one of the fundamental goals of HR practices are to decrease actual employee turnover rate (Gould-Williams, 2004). Practices of the Human Resource are towards enabling employees to apply their skills and develop them and to retain employees for as long as possible (Yamamoto, 2011). However, employee retention should be treated as a continuous process rather than a reaction to turnover (Ware, 2008). Therefore, the writer suggests that HR practices will positively affect employee retention.

Hypothesis 4: HR practices is positively related to employee retention.

Additionally, identification and execution of HR practices that encourages employee retention is highlighted (Mbugua et al., 2015; Kim, 2012). HRM practices that are found to be related to intentions to stay or leave are high compensation and fair performance appraisals (Dechawatanapaisal, 2018; Shaukat et al., 2017; Rubel and Kee, 2015). Chew and Chan (2008) argued that the top 5 most important HR practices that are relevant for employee retention are effective selection, reward and recognition, establishment of effective training, challenge work and opportunities, and equitable compensation and benefits. Aburummam et al. (2020) also revealed that HRM practices such as high compensation and benefits, fair performance appraisal, high promotion speed as well as adequate training and development will reduce employee turnover intentions.

Recruitment and selection in the events industry is a challenge due to the fact that the sector may not be an ideal choice of work as well as the nature of the industry to be highly labour-intensive (Christensen-Hughes and Rog, 2008). Since events are temporary, opportunities in correcting mistakes are less (Van Der Wagen, 2007), which also increases the difficulty to retain employees in the events industry because of its start/stop nature (Deery, 2009). Employees would also need to possess skills and competencies that are specific in the industry, as well as the required ability to manage emotional and aesthetic labour (Baum, 2008). Marinakou (2019) acknowledges the difficulty in defining talents needed in the events industry as she supports Deery and Jago (2015) that employees of the events industry should possess various skills, not only having good management skills but also include being creative as well as strategic. Abilities such as customer service skills can be used in other industries, allowing high skilled employees in events to search for jobs elsewhere (Baum, 2008). Hence the importance to ensure fit of culture and visions between employee and the organization (Thunnissen, 2016).

Marinakou (2019) found that organizational culture contributes to employee retention due to the fact that it influences daily experience. She proposes that the organization should promote learning and cultivate an open environment that employees are recognized and appreciated for their contributions. Internal communication within the organization is also important in retaining employees which allows detection of work challenges, guidance on career advancements, issues between staff as well as personal problems (Marinakou, 2019). Aggarwal and Bhagrava (2009) also argue that organizational culture plays an important role in the content of psychological contract as it provides a perspective of how promises and obligations are perceived by employees.

An employee’s behaviour is influenced by the organizational culture that constructs the organization’s core identity (Rashid et al., 2003; Lund 2003). In other words, the culture of the organization affects the thinking, emotions, interactions and performance in the organization (Saeed and Hassan, 2000). Schein (1985) also argues that culture can be used to understand the organization as it is governed by collective beliefs that is multi-layered. Organizational culture plays a role in the development of the psychological contract where it influences the interpretation of employees on the behaviour and communication of others within the organization (Turnley and Feldman, 1999a). Aggarwal and Bhagrava (2009) also support the notion that organizational culture plays a role in the content of psychological contract. However, a study by Shahnawaz and Jafri (2011) revealed that organizational culture did not significantly influence psychological contract as they also acknowledge that this finding was peculiar as academic literature would suggest otherwise. They further argued that organizational culture is abstract in nature as compared to visible aspects of other HR practices. Hence for the purpose of this thesis, organizational culture will not be included in the current study.

On another note, there is a negative perception of the challenges and structure of the events industry, namely low compensation, bad work-life balance, seasonal, fast-moving and driven by deadlines (Clark et al., 2017; Deery, 2009). Deery (2009) argues that the events industry is similar to hospitality and tourism, involving low pay, irregular working hours and high casualization levels which causes high turnover rates. Scholars have found various factors of employee turnover in the events industry, such as job satisfaction and commitment to the organization (Deery, 2008), job opportunities and routinized jobs (Iverson and Currivan, 2003) as well as poor work-life balance (Nizam and Kam, 2018; Chan, 2015).

In the same vein, Chew and Chan (2008) highlighted that poor employee retention is related to ineffective HR practices. Furthermore, they argue that researchers have not found an effective mix of practices that can improve employee retention (Chew and Chan, 2008).

For the purpose of this thesis, the vital HR activities to be included are *recruitment and selection, training and career development, performance appraisal*, *compensation and recognition*, as well as *work-life balance* as also supported by Allui and Sahni (2016), Francis (2014) De Vos and Meganck (2009) and Boon et al. (2011). This is similar to the list of top HR practices that was found by Boselie et al. (2005) after reviewing 104 journal articles published between 1994 till 2003, as reported by Shah and Khan (2019) in their study.

Recruitment can be defined as the process of obtaining suitable employees to fulfil the organizations strategies, whereas *selection* is described as evaluating the employees based on their criteria such as work experience, skills, competencies etc. (Francis, 2014). *Performance appraisal* is referred to as the method to assess the employee's performance, based on a certain judging standard, to the performed task or job to ensure it is consistent with the organizational strategy and objectives (De Cieri and Kramar, 2008). *Compensation and recognition* can be described as the collective rewards in terms of monetary or non-monetary in return for the employee's contribution to the company. *Training and career development* refer to formal events organized by the firm to help employees attain or enhance one's knowledge, competencies and experience that is required of them to carry out current or future work. *Work-*

life balance symbolizes how much an employee satisfies and meets their work and non-work needs in life (Alison and Rosalie, 2015).

2.4.1 Recruitment and Selection

Hiring the right person for the right job on the first try is the ultimate aim of the recruitment and selection practice (Roselius and Kleiner, 2000). Recruitment and selection play a vital role in employee retention as the right employee will impact the competitive advantage of the company (Kundu and Lata, 2017). The extensive pool of competent and skilful candidates that is produced by recruitment processes will influence the quality and skillsets of new employees (Chieng et al. 2019). However, some selection tool and processes may be more suitable to some companies and not all as it may be costly (Wilk and Cappelli, 2006). Hence it is essential for organizations to determine the selection tools in the selection process to match candidates with suitable positions (Chieng et al., 2019; Aldamoe et al., 2012). The ability to attract and hold on to competent and committed employees reflects on the effectiveness of the recruitment practices (Hughes and Rog, 2008).

Levesque (2005) also states that effectiveness of the selection process is dependent on the employees and their compatibility. Hagan et al. (2006) also supports the notion that selection would include understanding of the job and its requirements and employees who are motivated to do so. In addition, a better working environment can be achieved through proper fit between employee and the job requirements, teams and organization (Tzafrir, 2006). Researches have argued that fit between the employee and working environment can positively influence their attitudes and behaviours (Hoffman and Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Verquer et al., 2003). However, an employee that has the required skills and abilities for a job does not equate to the fitting of the organizational culture and values (Lauver and Kristof-Brown, 2001). Hence it is equally important to ensure fit between person and job as well as with the organization or work setting (Van Vianen, 2000). Incongruence between employees' skills and competencies and what is required of them can lead to stress (Jacobs and Roodt, 2011). Therefore, fit between employee with job and organization is important as it not only helps employees to achieve job satisfaction from being able to better meet their job requirements but also to feel their values are consistent with the organization's (Boon et al., 2011). A study by O'Reilly et al. (1991) found that almost half of employees who left the organization was due to wrong fit. Selection of the right employees in terms of competencies, motivation and suitable number of staff is also important in achieving better organizational performance (Größler and Zock, 2010).

The importance of recruitment and selection practice is highlighted by the fact that an employee's skills, knowledge and competencies not only have to fit with the organization's requirements but also with their personality and values, as it contributes to employee retention (Arokiasamy, 2013; Chew and Chan, 2008; Lauver and Kristof-Brown, 2001; Van Vianen, 2000).

2.4.2 Performance Appraisals

Performance appraisals encourage mutual understanding among employers and employees (Aldamoe et al, 2012). Performance appraisal is considered to be one of the best practices of HRM (Kadiresan et al., 2015; Beh and Loo, 2013). An employee's contribution is also acknowledged by performance appraisals, leading to higher organizational commitment (Armstrong-Stassen and Schlosser, 2010). Effective performance appraisals can result in increased quality and productivity (Lee and Lee, 2007; Brown and Heywood, 2005), enhanced employee commitment Rahman (2006), better organizational performance (Sang, 2005; Cook and Crossman, 2004). In addition, research has shown that there is a strong relationship between performance appraisal and organizational performance (Ahmad and Schroeder, 2003; Chang and Chen, 2002).

However, proper performance appraisal systems have to be in place as it affects other HR practices (Absar et al., 2010). Daoanis (2012) argues that performance appraisals have more influence on employee's careers and work-based lifestyle. Performance appraisals are not only important in managing an employee's performance, but also determining job critical success factors as well as provide key information on pay raise, training requirements and job promotions (Beh and Loo, 2013; Boxall and Purcell, 2003). However, only less than a third of employees believe that the process of appraisals done by their company can help improve their efficiency and performance (Gruman and Saks, 2011). Furthermore, if performance appraisal is used just for the means of monitoring and measurement, employees may face stress which then affects work performance because the employee is concerned with how their career or compensation is affected by the appraisal (O'Connor et al., 2010). In addition, perceived fairness of the appraisal system also plays an important role in employee retention as the opposite can cause dissatisfaction as well as reduced organizational commitment (Sudin, 2011;

Paul and Anantharaman, 2003). Dissatisfaction with the appraisal system itself will result in turnover intentions (Whiting and Kline, 2007). Furthermore, ineffective performance appraisals can lead to a feeling of unfairness, resulting in intention to leave the organization (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). In addition, appraisal designs that are unclear which may make it more damaging rather than beneficial (Latham et al., 2005). On the other hand, individuals are more committed and have less intentions to leave or look for other jobs as a result of psychological experience of fairness (Irkamullah et al., 2012). Hence it is crucial that the performance appraisal system should be fair, transparent and be conducted without bias or grudges from either party, as it has a direct impact on employee retention (Chieng et al., 2019; Hong et al., 2012; Chiang and Birtch, 2010; Paul and Anantharaman, 2003). Additionally, an appraisal system that is well designed and fair can not only attract and motivate employees but also increase their performance (Roberson and Stewart, 2006; DeNisi and Pritchard, 2006).

Performance appraisal is also seen as a method of communication between the management and employee where an effective appraisal can lead to a better understanding by the organization on the employee’s needs as well as enhanced employee development (Hong et al., 2012). Appraisals should also be done more regularly as it can identify the extent of the employees’ achievement in goals set, their strengths as well as their key improvement areas (Jibrin-Bida et al., 2017, Ikramullah et al., 2012; Scott and Einstein, 2001). This can help employees know what they are doing right or wrong which can make them better at their jobs, increasing job satisfaction and hence increasing their intention to remain in the organization (Karen et al., 2015; Khan, 2013).

2.4.3 Compensation and Recognition

Willis (2002) argue that compensation is the most important matter in attracting and retaining employees, as also supported by Johari et al. (2012). Gardner et al. (2004) as well as Milkovich and Newman (2004) argue that pay is an essential element in retention. Employees may leave organizations due to low pay package (Highhouse et al., 1999). Organizations will tend to set compensation and benefits that are higher than the market rate to attract and retain important employees (Parker and Wright, 2000). However, increasing the compensation and rewards higher than market rates will not increase commitment and retention of employees, even though pay may be important in retaining employees (Chew and Chan, 2008). Employees will remain with the organization when they perceive their pay to be fair and adequate (Mercer

Report, 2003; Boyd and Salamin, 2001; Parker and Wright, 2000), and commensurate with their knowledge, skills and experience (Long et al., 2005). Moreover, Mathis and Jackson (2004) and Boyd and Salamin (2001) argued that employee retention is influenced by a compensation and rewards system that is balanced, transparent and competitive. In other words, if an organization does not provide compensation that is fair to the employees, negative attitudes toward the organization will emerge and result in employees leaving the organization (Osibanjo et al., 2014). Dreher and Dougherty (2005) found that effective compensation and reward process has a positive influence on sales, productivity and organizational performance. Rewards and compensation also increased product quality, enhance behaviour of employees and reduces accidents at work, which will then result in increased organizational performance (Jyothi and Venkatesh (2006).

Even though everyone wants and needs money, many have positive reactions to rewards that may cost organizations very little, such as showing appreciation, praise, or recognition (Isaac et al., 2001; Beavers, 1996; Rigsbee, 1996). In other words, employees have higher commitment and choose to remain in the organization when they are recognized and appreciated for their work (Mercer Report, 2003; Davies, 2001). Recognition refers to the acknowledgement of work done by employees (Alam et al., 2013). Cianni and Guddy (2012) also support the argument that employee retention doesn't always involve financial inducements but rather non-financial inducements such as promotions, new lateral positions and to be reached out personally by those of higher positions. Recognizing employees for their work will result in enhanced motivation which can reduce employee turnover (Shah and Beh, 2016).

2.4.4 Training and Career Development

Chew and Chan (2008) mentioned the conservative thinking that employees may leave the organization once received training as they become more marketable. However, Pritchard (2007) argues that training and development is one of the most important strategies in retaining employees, which is also supported by Wetland (2003), Oakland and Oakland (2001) and Jones et al. (2001). Garg and Rastogi (2006) argue that employees need more knowledge in order to meet global market challenges. If an employee does not possess the required skills and knowledge, that employee will face frustration and job dissatisfaction (Jacobs and Roodt, 2011). Employee will be able to know what they are doing from knowledge obtained from training which will result in job satisfaction (Armache, 2014). Furthermore, employees that are highly skilled and knowledgeable can not only enhance productivity, but also quality of products and services to customers (Khan, 2010). On the other hand, activities that enhance employees' knowledge, skills and abilities not only increases the value of the employee to the current employer but also outside companies, which is associated to higher turnover (Gardner et al., 2011; Lepak et al., 2006; Coff, 1997). In the same vein, Beynon et al (2014) highlighted that training for employees is a two-edged sword where training can result in employee retention (Birdthisle and Fleming, 2007) but also skilled employees being taken by competitors (Wood, 2009), which could be a barrier to providing such avenues (Hendry, 1995). Nevertheless, employees perceive that the organization values them when they receive opportunities training and development, resulting in commitment towards the organization (Van Dyk and Coetzee, 2012). Employees will remain in the organization where they are able to utilize their acquired skills and knowledge from training and development initiatives (Döckel et al., 2006). Competitive advantage of an organization can be maintained through talented employees (Prince, 2005; Bitner and Zeithmal, 2004).

Prince (2005) also argues that employees want opportunities for career growth. The outcomes of career advancements are advantageous to both employee and organization (Dhanpat et al., 2018). Career advancement is referred to as a system that is structured and formal designed to achieve career needs of the individual as well as the organization to sustain and enhance competitive advantage (Shoaib et al., 2009). Employees have positive reactions towards career development and opportunities for advancements (Almaaitah et al., 2017). Dhanpart et al. (2018) argue that the employee will remain in the organization if one has the opportunity to grow within the organization, or else he or she will search for better opportunities elsewhere. Opportunities for career advancements as seen to lower turnover (Griffeth et al, 2000). Promotion also reduces turnover as it is related to increased pay (Johnston et al, 1993). Slow promotions and insufficient training and development are found as reasons for employee to leave organizations (Santhanam et al., 2017; Busari et al., 2017). Arokiasamy (2013) also argues that lack of promotion significantly contributes to intention to leave the organization.

Training and development of employees can increase productivity, enhance quality of products as well as maximize or optimize resources (Aldamoe et al., 2012). Due to its positive benefits, organizations should invest in training and developments of their employees (Kundu, 2000), which also provides organizations with strategic competitive advantage (Bitner and

Zeithmal, 2004). More authors such as Lee and Bruvold (2003) and Aragón-Sánchez et al. (2003) argue that training and development positively influences productivity, organizational performance and employee retention. Training and development are seen as the most important HR practice to employees (Katou, 2013). Furthermore, Chew and Chan (2008) argue that training and development initiatives has to be suitable and match what is required.

2.4.5 Work-Life Balance

Work-life balance is valued in the events industry (Marinakou, 2019). Work-life balance symbolizes how much an employee satisfies and meets their work and non-work needs in life (Alison and Rosalie, 2015). It is becoming increasingly important especially when there is a contradiction of commitments and responsibilities (Lockwood, 2003).

Work-life balance is also termed by academicians as "family-friendly policies" (Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Fleetwood, 2007). Organizations that practice family-friendly policies can provide better employee retention (Whyman and Petrescu, 2015; Giardini and Kabst, 2008; Meyer and Allen, 1997), even for employees who do not utilize such policies themselves as this works as a positive spill over effect from their co-workers who do, which encourages them to remain within the organization (Yanadori and Kato, 2009; Grover and Crooker, 1995). When an individual is unable to find balance between their personal and work life, this incompatibility will result in a personal conflict (Moen et al., 2008). Such conflicts and cause psychological distress to employees, their families and also the organization (Lourel et al., 2009). Cegarra-Leiva et al. (2012) also found that the availability work-life balance practices without support for these practices from the organization will cause the employees to experience an unsupportive climate which will not result in any positive outcomes.

Clark et al. (2017) suggested that employees will put family first due to the irregular working hours and seasons which may result them in missing out during the holidays. Employees that are unable to keep social commitments or spend time with their family will have low job satisfaction due to being emotionally exhausted (Karatepe and Uludag, 2007). In addition, struggling between the two domains can result in not only job dissatisfaction but also family conflicts that can lead to turnover intention (Deery, 2008). Hence, organizations have to include emotional and cognitive elements in order to retain employees and not solely on financial inducements (Thunnissen et al., 2013). Work-life balance will result enhance employees' life quality which will lead to workers feeling more satisfied, motivated as well as increase organizational commitment (Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Hughes and Bozionelos, 2007). Furthermore, in order to reduce retention problems, organizations should help its employees to manage their commitments for both work and home (Tser-Yieth et al., 2004). In addition, Deery (2008) argues that there is a direct connection between work-life balance and employees' decision to stay or leave the organization, as also argued by Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran (2005).

Branham (2005) argues that factors of employee turnover is correlated to HR practices. However, efficient HR activities can reduce the percentage of employee turnover (Mbugua et al., 2015). Francis (2014) suggests that the relationship between HRM and employee retention can be understood and allow organizations to achieve results with optimal resources. Hausknecht et al. (2009) argue that in order for retention management strategies to be effective, the organization has to identify the reasons for employees to leave or stay with the organization. This is also supported by James and Mathew (2012) that turnover factors should be determined through ongoing analysis to ensure effective retention management.

Huang et al. (2006) however argues that most studies investigated on employee turnover rather than employee retention regardless of the emerging importance of retention. In addition, Steel et al. (2002) argue that the factors of employee turnover are not always the same as employee retention. As a matter of fact, this has actually been hypothesized decades ago by Herzberg (1966) and Friedlander and Walton (1964) as their research also found that the reasons as to why employees leave are not the same for them to remain in the company. De Vos and Meganck (2009) supports this as they revealed in their study that the reasons for employees to leave an organization is not the same for reasons to stay. According to their research, employees found that social atmosphere is the main reason for remaining in the organization and not the same reason for leaving. Moreover, a reason for leaving an organization was linked to work-life balance, but it did not appear to be the same reason for remaining in the organization. In addition, Gaber and Fahim (2018) in their study found that HR activities such as recruitment and selection, training and career development, performance appraisal, and compensation and benefits has positive impacts on employee retention. However, they further argue that employee retention can only be effective if done correctly, as the difficulty lies in determining and satisfying various needs of different employees.

Therefore, the writer argues that in order for HR practices to be effective in retaining employees, the views and perspectives of employees themselves should be taken into account, as also argued by Edgar and Geare (2005). Khan and Du (2014) also emphasize the need for organizations to understand the reasons employees choose to leave in order to formulate strategies to alleviate their intentions. In order words, the organization has to understand what the employees sees is important to them (Lockwood, 2006), as employee's decision to leave or remain with the organization depends on their judgement and perceptions of HR practices that is executed by the organization (Mahal, 2012; Ansari 2011). This would mean that the effectiveness of the HR practises is based on the mutual agreement by both parties about what is important to employees. In other words, HR practices are effective if the perceptions between the employee and employer are the same. As found by previous researchers, since retention practices are focused mainly on factors of turnover rather than intentions to stay, the writer hypothesizes that in this study, the perceptions between employee and employer regarding the importance of HR practices are different. This would indicate that if their perceptions are different, it would mean that the employers do indeed place importance on HR practices that may not necessarily be seen as important to employees.

Hypothesis 5: The perception between employee and employer regarding HR practice is different.

2.5 HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICES AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT

The psychological contract is a framework that allows investigation of fundamentals of an employee-employer relationship to identify, understand and predict organizational repercussions (Tyagi and Agrawal, 2010; Turnley et al., 2003). Studies have shown that there is a correlation between psychological contract and HR practices (Nassar, 2021; Bal et al., 2013; Giannikis and Nikandrou, 2013; Suazo, 2009; Uen et al., 2009; Guest and Conway, 2004; 2002; 1999). Research by Aggarwal and Bhargava (2009) and Suazo et al. (2009) both argue that HRM practices shape psychological contracts. In the same vein, research has also shown that HR practices influence psychological contracts (Supramaniam et al., 2020; Restubog et al., 2015; Pathak et al., 2005; Guzzo & Noonan, 1994; Martin *et al*., 1998; Sims, 1994).

HR practices are seen to have an effect on psychological contract as it is seen as employer obligations which is perceived as inducements by the employee (Rogozińska-Pawełczyk, 2021; Uen et al., 2009; Suazo et al., 2009). In other words, HR practices is seen to send messages to the employees of what the organization expects of them (Nassar, 2021; Uen et al., 2009; Purcell and Hutchinson, 2007; Rousseau, 1995). Similarly, Guzzo and Noonan (1994) argue that HR practices have communication value where employees receive messages through HR practices that are interpreted and assessed by employees in regards to the fulfilment of the psychological contract which translates into attitudinal and behavioural outcomes. Rousseau and Greller (1994) state that HR practices sends out promises of future intent for the exchange of contributions from employees in return, therefore influencing the formation and evaluation of the psychological contract. They argue that the choices of the organization in terms of their expectations of their employees and what employees expect in return is represented by each HR practice. Employees will only contribute effort if their interest and the interest of the organization are aligned (Huselid, 1995)

Evidence shows that HR practices that are applied effectively will influence the psychological contract of employees in a favourable manner (Katou and Budhwar, 2012; Guest and Conway, 2004; Pate et al., 2003; Rousseau and Wade-Benzoni, 1994). Positive effects of HR practices on the psychological contract have been proven by many studies (Bal et al., 2013; Raeder et al., 2012; Aggarwal and Bhargava, 2009; Uen et al., 2009). Consistent with the social exchange theory, it can be suggested that employees that perceive positive state of the psychological contract would result to exhibit positive employee outcomes. Furthermore, the very core element of the psychological contract relies on reciprocity, where the employee will positively respond to the behaviour of their employees that are deemed favourable (Rousseau and McLean Parks, 1993). If employees perceive that the given promises have been broken, a negative effect on fulfilment of employee promises will ensue (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2000). If the employee sees HR practices as being supportive, higher levels of fulfilment of the psychological contract will be perceived, hence the effect of HR practices towards the psychological contract because they shape the obligations of the employer towards the employee (Suazo et al., 2009; Uen et al., 2009). Due to the fact that day-to-day HR practices characterises the promises, HR policy and practices should have significant effect on the formation and evaluation of employer and employee obligations (Rousseau, 2001; Grant, 1999; Rousseau, 1995; Rousseau and Greller, 1994). HR practices create and shape the perceptions of employees regarding the psychological contract which then affects their behaviour and attitudes (Raeder et al., 2012). Raeder et al. (2012) also found that HR practices to be significantly associated to the fulfilment of the psychological contract, corresponding to other studies (Uen et al., 2009; Guest and Conway, 2002; Westwood et al., 2001).

HR practices such as recruitment, training and development, performance appraisal, work-life balance and remuneration determine the state of the psychological contract as it sends strong messages about the expectations of the organizations and the inducements employees will receive in return (Sheepers and Shuping, 2011; Suazo et al, 2009). Research by Silva and Weerasignhe (2016) show that HR practices affects psychological contracts as it is the main component of the psychological contract, from the recruitment and selection stage to the formulation of performance management, termination of work and retirement. Westwood et al. (2001) examined the psychological contract and five areas of HR practices namely recruitment and selection, salary and wages, planning and job design, training and development, and found that there exists a relationship between HR practices and the psychological contract. Conway and Monks (2008) investigated the relationship between HR practices and psychological contract using a wide range of HR practices but only found communication to be related to psychological contract. Organizational career management was found to have a positive relationship with psychological contract fulfilment by research carried out by Sturges et al. (2005). A study by Sels et al. (2004) found that internal career ladders as one of the HR practices to be related to the psychological contract. HR practices such as opportunities for learning, training and development, focus on job security, promotion and careers, minimizing status differentials, fair reward systems and comprehensive communication and involvement processes will contribute to positive psychological contracts (Armstrong and Taylor, 2020; Guest et al., 1996).

As previously mentioned, for the purpose of the current thesis, the HR practices that will be investigated are *recruitment and selection, compensation and recognition, performance appraisal, training and career development,* and *work-life balance*.

The importance of the recruitment process in the development of the psychological contract was argued by Robinson and Morrison (2000). Rynes (1991) argues that from the beginning of the employment relationship i.e., employee sourcing specifically sends messages to the potential job applicants regarding the terms and conditions of the employment. Some researchers also argue that the psychological contract starts to form from the hiring process, highlighting the importance of organizations to not oversell the job and keeping it realistic or else it may end in contract violation which will lead to lowered commitment and dissatisfaction (Knights and Kennedy, 2005; Makin et al., 1996; Rousseau, 1995). During the process of recruitment, Robinson and Morrison (2000) highlighted the importance of communication the psychological contract. On-going interaction between the two parties with regards to workload, development, work-life balance and career prospects are also important (Stiles et al., 1997; Herriot and Pemberton, 1997).

Psychological contracts are also produced based on the rewards given to employees that establishes the belief of their worth to the organization (Gomez-Mejia et al., 2004). Employee rewards that are holistic can address issues created by recruitment and retention as well as encourage employees to provide additional effort (Wangithi and Muceke, 2012; O'Neal, 1998). However, Beardwell and Claydon (2007) argue that employees do not just seek for primary monetary rewards but also quality relationships during work as an important facet of the psychological contract, indicating employee behaviour is affected by more than just money. Compensation and benefits are seen as important signals to predict the psychological contract perceptions of employees (Lee et al., 2011; Rousseau, 1995).

Conway and Briner (2005), Herriot and Pemberton (1997) and Rousseau (1995) suggest that performance appraisals provide the opportunity to determine and clarify employee expectations. Appraisals is the evaluation of the performance of employees in their job that goes beyond productivity align (Graham et al., 1998). This is to judge if the performance of the employee meets the targets set. Based on this, one of the fundamentals for the appraisals is to provide training where improvements are needed (Wangithi and Muceke, 2012).

Furthermore, appraisals offer recognition for performance that is deemed successful as well as guidance to the competences and behaviour that is needed to achieve expectations (Beardwell and Claydon, 2001). This highlights the importance of performance appraisals towards the state of the psychological contract as it offers accurate feedback on the employees' performance and help eradicate misconceptions from either party to the extent of the fulfilment of the psychological contract (Rousseau, 2004). Self-evaluations that are unrealistic by the employees without accurate feedback will result in misperception between the fulfilment of obligations between both parties (Shapiro, 2000; Robinson et al., 1997). The review of performance will allow the organization and its employee to evaluate and determine future opportunities for responsibility and challenge, providing opportunities to review and renegotiate those parts of the psychological contract and when done frequently can help reduce incongruence or misunderstanding among the parties (Rousseau, 2004).

Gomez-Mejia et al (2004) argued that organizations that emphasizes on training and development give the assumption to employees that the organization sees the employee as being part of its permanent employment. Training and development also shows that the organization cares about and supports the employees, more specifically the training quality shapes the perceptions of commitments being upheld regarding their career development (Wangithi and Muceke, 2012; Suazo et al., 2009). Internal promotions and informal mentoring also provide an organizational environment that is supportive and focused on development (Rousseau, 1995). Unmet promises in training and development will reduce an employee's trust towards the organization as well as the credibility of the management (Knights, 2005; Robinson, 1996). Sturges et al. (2005) stated that career development that is provided by the organization will contribute to the psychological contract fulfilment. Opportunities for growth suggest the recognition of employees' contribution and the organization's inclination to invest in their employees (Piening et al., 2013). If the employees feel secure on the statues of their employment, a more positive psychological contract will be perceived (Ye et al., 2012).

Due to the structural change of the labour market, work-life balance has also become a critical HRM concern (Bardoel, Tharenou & Ristov 2000; Skinner, Pocock & Williams 2008). Employees of the current generation seem to value achievement of work-life balance more than their predecessors (Smola & Sutton 2002; Sturges & Guest 2004). Organizations differentiate themselves through work-life balance credentials and employer branding stratergy, positioning themselves as work-life balance "friendly" to attract and retain the best talents (Collins, 2007; Harrington 2007; Sutton & Noe 2005). Besides that, various psychological contract research cites work-life balance as an expectation of the employee in the employment relationship (De Vos et al. 2003; Ellis 2007; Guest & Conway 2002; Herriot, Manning & Kidd 1997).

A positive organizational environment can be established with the appropriate utilization of HR practices which in turn will affect the extent of the fulfilment of both employee and employer promises (Suazo et al., 2009; Purcell et al, 2003; Marchington, 2001). Therefore, HR practices shape the behaviours of the employees, influencing the state of the psychological contracts (Rousseau, 1995). Guest and Conway (2002) also found that HR practices are strongly related to psychological contract breach or fulfilment. Furthermore, research but Suazo et al. (2009) showed that HR practices are the predecessors of psychological contract, or in other words HR practices influences psychological contracts. Therefore, the writer proposes that the HR practices will positively influence the fulfilment of the psychological contract.

Hypothesis 6: HR practices positively influence psychological contract fulfilment

2.6 CONTENTS OF THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT

Boxall and Purcell (2003) and Rousseau and McLean Parks (1993) argued that the psychological contract resides in the mind of each individual employee, making it subjective (Lee, 2001). It is therefore important to identify what is being perceived by each individual, as supported by Tyagi and Agrawal (2010). However, it may be difficult to determine what is the contents of psychological contract (Suazo et al., 2009).

Contents of the psychological contract include a large number of aspects and listing it all is seen to be impossible (Freese and Schalk; 2008; Anderson and Schalk, 1998). Hence, many researchers have investigated its dimensions with the hope of obtaining a general idea of the main components of the psychological contract (Yan and Mansor, 2019). Furthermore, this makes it difficult to have a standardised measure to examine the psychological contract (Freese and Schalk, 2008).

Culliane and Dundon (2006) in their review of the psychological contract acknowledged that various scholars have used different measures and context in the research of psychological contract. Rousseau (1990), identified 7 types of organizational obligations, which has been used by various researchers (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2004; Coyle-Shapiro & Neuman, 2004; Gakovic & Tetrick, 2003; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Shore & Barksdale, 1998). Based on Rousseau's (1990) instruments, Robinson and Morrison (1995) further established a general measure comprised of 18 items to measure psychological contract. This was then utilized by Lester et al. (2002). In the same vein, after carrying out content analysis of 102 scholarly and trade magazine articles between the years 1995 to 1999, Roehling et al. (2000) developed a list of 13 organizational obligations. Similarly, 38 organizational obligations were developed by Kickul (2001) whereas Kelley-Patterson and George (2002) developed a list of 50. Based on Kelley et al. (2002) and Roehling et al. (2000) list of organizational obligations, Bellou (2007) developed a new list of organizational obligations for Greek employees in the public and private sector. Although there may be a variation in items and scales used in measuring the psychological contract which may be widely accepted (De Vos, 2002; Herriot et al., 1997; Rousseau, 1990), there is still no general agreement on the characteristics of the psychological contract (Freese and Schalk, 2008).

This could be caused by the fact that the psychological contract itself consists of perceptions that are explicit and therefore subjective (Rousseau, 1995; Morrison and Robinson, 1997; Lee, 2001; Savarimuthu and Rachel, 2017). Freese and Schalk (2008) however argue that the items for the measurement of the psychological contract have to be suitable to the samples being examined. In the current thesis, the HR practices employed in the organizations of study will be used as the contents to measure the psychological contract. This is partially similar to Guest and Conway (2002) where the HR practices were utilized as an approach to evaluate the psychological contract. Respondents were asked to report the extent of whether the employer had met or provided a list of promises. Scheel et al. (2013) also used HR practices in their study to determine psychological contract fulfilments among their respondents. Rosita (2018) also argues that psychological contract is measure based on organizational promises to employees, namely career development opportunities, challenging and interesting work, supportive work environment, right compensation, and work-life balance. Furthermore, based on the review of literature, HR practices are seen as messages from the employer of what is expected of the employee and what the employee expects in return (Sheepers and Shuping, 2011; Suazo et al, 2009; Uen et al., 2009; Purcell and Hutchinson, 2007; Rousseau, 1995; Guzzo and Noonan, 1994). The identification of the extent of its fulfilment would indicate the state of the psychological contract. Hence, HR practices such as recruitment, employee appraisals, training and remuneration shape that employee's psychological contract as it provides them with some form of understanding of the psychological contract (Rousseau and Greller, 1994).

In addition, as compared to global measures, Conway and Briner (2005) highlighted the importance of measuring specific items in determining the extend of its fulfilment. Similar to Turnley and Feldman (1999a), respondents were asked to indicate the importance of the promises listed and the extent of its fulfilment. Freese and Schalk (2008) noted the importance of establishing the importance of each promise made to the employee because if the promise is not important and it is not delivered by the employer, the employee will not perceive a violation of the psychological contract. Promises that have great importance and are breached are found to have significant affective reactions (Conway and Briner, 2002).

Therefore, for the purpose of this thesis, the HR practices will be used as contents of the psychological contract of which its extent of fulfilment will be determined. This will in turn influence employee retention. The writer suggests that HR practices that are found to be valuable to employees will result in positive psychological contract, as supported by Katou (2013), Suazo et al. (2009), Purcell et al. (2003), and Pate et al. (2003).

2.7 GAPS IN LITERATURE

The literature review done in this chapter has highlighted the important studies that have led to the development of the psychological contract construct and conceptual framework used in this research. At the same time, this research has identified some gaps and unresolved issues in past literature. It is important to mention that the majority of research to date has put emphasis on the breach or violation of the psychological contract and its impact in terms of employee behavioural outcomes (Ahmad and Zafar, 2018; Rayton and Yaalabik, 2014; Conway and Briner, 2009; Dabos and Rousseau, 2004; Raja et al., 2004; Rousseau, 1995). The current research wishes to contribute to the study of the psychological contract with the focus on psychological contract fulfilment.

In addition, when researching on psychological contract, most previous studies have neglected the concept of mutuality in the psychological contract i.e., a unilateral view, using only the perspective of either the employee (Dhanpat et al., 2018; Santhanam, Kamalanabhan, Dyaram and Ziegler; 2017; Phuong and Tuan, 2015; Umar and Ringam, 2015; Kickul, 2001) or employer (Weralupitiya and Jayarathna, 2016; Raeder, Knorr and Hilb, 2012; Guest and Conway, 2002). Similar to the current research of psychological contract and employee retention, De Vos and Meganck (2009) used mixed method, qualitative for employers and quantitative for employees. Their research however was unable to correspond both the perspectives, hence they suggest for future research to have matched samples so that results can be directly evaluated. In the same vein, there are calls for future research to include both the perceptions of employee and employer also by various researchers (Weralupitiya and Jayarathna, 2016; Raeder, Knorr and Hilb, 2012; Aggarwal and Bhargava, 2009; Guest and Conway, 2002; Kickul 2001), of which this thesis attempts to answer said call.

In terms of psychological contract measure, most research use global measures to measure psychological contract (Conway and Briner, 2005). Similar to Scheel et al. (2013) and De Vos and Meganck (2009), the current thesis uses HR practices as contents of the psychological contract to be measured in terms of the extent of its fulfilment, contributing to the knowledge of methodology in measuring psychological contract.

Furthermore, up to date, there has been almost no other research studying the psychological contract in the Event Management industry. The current research attempts to address these shortfalls.

Table 2: Summary of Previous Research

Author	Focus / Scope	Perspective	Variables	Key Findings	Future recommendations
Guest and Conway (2002)	Type of communication used as well as the breach or fulfilment of the promises made by the managers with its outcomes	Unilateral (managers)	HR practices, Use of psychological contract, communication, content of psychological contract, psychological contract breah/fulfillment, psychological contract reciprocity, psychological contract outcomes	managers as representatives of organization managers play a key role in the psychological contract communication reduces perceived PC breach	- to explore both employer and employee views
De Vos and Meganck (2009)	To study the perception of managers and employees in terms of retention and how psychological contract fulfillment relates to employee loyalty, intention to stay and job search behaviours	Bilateral	HR practices, psychological contract fulfilment, intention to leave, loyalty, job search behaviours	reasons for employees to leave and stay are different, more focus put on factors of turnover and not retention Employees put more emphasis on promises that are important to them that translates to a positive relationship towards retention and loyalty	future research to use matched samples in order to directly evaluate results as managers’ views were done qualitatively, use more elaborate questionnaire (quantitative) to investigate managers' views
Raeder, Knorr and Hilb (2012)	to determine the relationship between HRM practices, psychological contract and organizational performance in the perspective of the employer	Unilateral (managers)	HR practices, psychological contract fulfillment, organizational performance	HR practices are positively related to psychological contract fulfillment	to include views from managers and employees from the same organization

Phuong and Tuan (2015)	to determine the importance of employer and employees obligations in the perspective of the employee	Unilateral (employees)	employee obligations, employer obligations	Vietnamese employees focus on working conditions and compensation for employer obligations, and "following the rule" for employee obligations	Future studies to focus on impacts of psychological contracts on employees behaviour and attitiudes
Umar and Ringam (2015)	to examine the relationship between Psychological contract factors operationalized in terms of transactional, rational and balance psychological contracts and employee turnover intention in private sector organization in Nigeria.	Unilateral (employee)	psychological contract, turnover intention	relational, transactional and balanced psychological contracts have significant relationship with employee turnover intention.	to examine other relevant variables in organizational studies
Weralupitiya and Jayarathna (2016)	to investigate the relationship between psychological contract and employee retention of a selected apparel sector rganization in Sri Lanka	Unilateral (employee)	psychological contract, employee retention	psychological contract is found to be positively correlated with employee retention	to include HR managers' views
Dhanpat, Modau, Lugisani, Mabojane, Phiri (2018)	study of factors of retention and intention to leave	Unilateral (employee)	retention factors, intention to leave	there is a significant relationship between retention factors and intention to leave Compensation was found to play an important role in intentions to leave	future research to be carried out in more than one organization

Kickul (2001)	study on the perception of employees regarding the promises made by the organization and its relationship to employee work attitudes (negative affect, commitment and intentions to leave)	Unilateral (employee)	Psychological contract breach, negative affect, commitment, intention to leave	Psychological contract breach leads to negative work attitudes	future study to include other employees of the organization such as colleagues, team members and managers. Call for use of alternative methods to operationalize psychological contract to include views from the organization and the role of the organizations environment
Santhanam, Kamalanabhan, Dyaram and Ziegler (2017)	to explore the relationship between human resource management practices, breach of psychological contract and employee turnover intentions among	Unilateral (employees)	HR practices, psychological contract, employee turnover intention	Psychological contract breach is positively related to intentions to leave Eventhough employer provide a certain promise, perception of breach will affect employee attitude.	to explore the relationship between human resource management practices and turnover intention through psychological contract breach in cross-national context and diverse industry

Table 3: Research Gap

Author	Industry / Sector	Multiple organizations	Mutuality	Respondents	
				Employee	Employer
Guest and Conway (2002)	Members of CIPD / various industries	✓			✓
De Vos and Meganck (2009)	Mix of private and public sectors	✓		✓	✓
Raeder, Knorr and Hilb (2012)	Finance, engineering, retail and hotels, public administration				✓
Phuong and Tuan (2015)	MBA students who are full-time employees			✓	
Umar and Ringam (2015)	Banking			✓	
Weralupitiya and Jayarathna (2016)	Apparel			✓	
Dhanpat, Modau, Lugisani, Mabojane, Phiri (2018)	Call centre			✓	
Kickul (2001)	MBA students working in SMEs of different industries		✓	✓	
Santhanam, Kamalanabhan, Dyaram and Ziegler (2017)	Hospitality			✓	
Current Research	**Event Management**	✓	✓	✓	✓

2.8 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Based on the review of literature, the following conceptual framework is proposed with regards to the hypotheses and research objectives. To summarize the discussions of the literature review, the following are the hypotheses:

H1: Psychological contract fulfilment is positively related to employee retention

H2: The perceptions between employee and employer regarding the psychological contract is different.

H3: The perceptions between employee and employer regarding employee retention is different.

H4: HR practices are positively related to employee retention

H5: The perceptions between employee and employer regarding HR practice is different.

H6: HR practices are positively related to psychological contract fulfilment

The conceptual framework presented in this thesis does not imply to show direct cause and effect relationships but rather provide an overview of the key concepts and proposed interactions between the variables that forms the basis of the current research. The writer will also will highlight a few relevant frameworks of various scholars that contribute to the said theoretical framework.

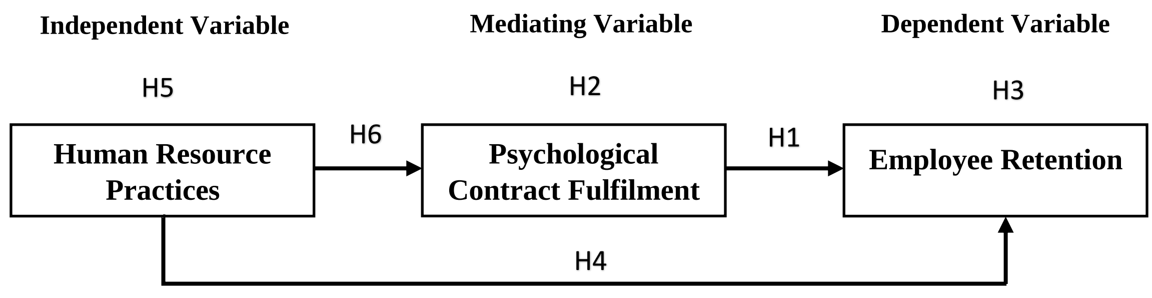

Figure 2: Conceptual Framework

Based on the literature review and hypotheses, the conceptual framework in Figure 2 above proposes that the fulfilment of the psychological contract mediates the relationship between HR practices and employee retention. Again, the HR practices consists of *recruitment* *and selection, compensation and recognition, performance appraisal, training and career development* as well as *work-life balance*.

Based on existing literature, it is found that the effect of HR practices on psychological contract is very important on one hand, and on the other hand, psychological contract is also an important factor to predict employee retention. Even though HR practices may lead to employee retention, the crux of this research is that the perception of the psychological contract fulfilment would generate an obligation on the part of the employees to reciprocate to their employer (Khoreva et al., 2017; Aggarwal and Bhargava, 2009; Conway and Coyle-Shapiro, 2006; Dabos and Rousseau, 2004; Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2003), in the case of the current study that would be their intention to stay in the organization. With regards to the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), previous studies have argued that HR practices are signals that show the inducements and obligations of the employer (Nassar, 2021; Rogozińska-Pawełczyk, 2021; Raeder et al., 2012; Uen et al., 2009; Suazo et al., 2009; Purcell and Hutchinson, 2007; Rousseau, 1995), which will then impact the psychological contract fulfilment (Sonnenberg et al., 2011; Katou, 2013, Suazo et al., 2009, Purcell et al., 2003; Pate et al., 2003). This will then subsequently result in employees perceiving the fulfilment of the organizations promises and obligations that will results in positive outcomes, such as employee retention (Iskandar and Sari, 2018; Collins, 2010; Zhao et al., 2007; Cheung and Chiu, 2005; Conway and Briner, 2002). This explanation may describe the role of psychological contract fulfilment as the mediating tool between HR practices and employee retention as shown in Figure 7. Therefore, the writer further proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 7: Psychological contract fulfilment partially mediates the relationship between HR practice and employee retention.

The discussion of this conceptual framework will first focus on the mediating role of the psychological contract fulfilment between HR practices and employee retention, followed by the brief discussion of the other variables, as these relationships has already been discussed in earlier sections of this chapter.

2.8.1 Psychological Contract Fulfilment as a Mediator Between HR Practices and Employee Retention

Numerous studies have used psychological contract as the mediator between two variables. For example, Nassar (2021) utilized the psychological contract as the mediator between HR policies and organizational commitment, as well as Bandyopadhyay and Srivastava (2021) used psychological contract fulfilment as a mediator between HR signal and organizational commitment. Uen et al. (2009) studied the mediating effects of psychological contract between HR systems and role behaviour. Pradhan et al. (2017) used psychological contract as a mediator between organizational commitment and employee retention. Katou (2013) used psychological contract as a mediator between HR practices and organizational performance.

Circling back to the current research, the proposed conceptual framework sees the psychological contract fulfilment as the mediator between HR practices and employee retention. Since the basis of the psychological contract relies on reciprocity (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960), where the employee will react positively based on the behaviour of their employees (Rousseau and McLean Parks, 1993), HR practices that are deemed favourable by the employees and fulfils their expectations will see a reciprocity of positive response, in this case would be employee retention. Employees are willing to meet their obligations for the organization when there the expectations of the employee and employer are a match, and if agreeable by both parties, there is an exchange based on the mutual expectations which constructs the psychological contract (Pradhan et al., 2017; Robinson, 1995; Sapienza et al., 1997; Schein, 1980). Patrick (2014) argues that an individual behaviour is based on the strength of the psychological contract of which is dependent on the fulfilment of the perceived obligations. The psychological contract involves the abiding of responsibilities between the employee and organization which regulates the life of the organization (Robinson et al., 1994).

Even though derived from outside of HRM literature, the concept of psychological contract is used to determine the relationship between HR practice and employee attitudes and behaviours (Seeck and Parzefall, 2010; Cullinane and Dundon, 2006; Guest and Conway, 2002). In the same vein, Wright and Boswell (2002) argued that psychological contract is best viewed by connecting the mechanisms between HR practices and employee behaviours. This proposition extends the argument of Rousseau (1995) about the central importance of reciprocity in relation to the management of exchange relations (Coyle-Shapiro and Shore

2007). Rousseau (1995) argued the likeliness of the mediating role of the psychological contract between HR practices and work outcomes. Previous research has argued the psychological contract as a mediator between HR practices and the behaviour and attitudes of employees (Paauwe, 2009). A conceptual model by Aggarwal and Bhargava (2009) shows links between HR practices, the psychological contract and employee behaviours and attitudes, indicating the psychological contract to be a mediator.

The current study is also partially in line with Guest and Conway's (2004) psychological contract model where HR practices have a major influence on the state of the psychological contract, indicating that a positive psychological contract will lead to employee retention. Guest (2004) suggests a framework using the concept of psychological contract to identify and examine the employee-employer relationship by including a greater context that is relevant to the core employment relationship. Guest's (2004) framework uses the perspectives of both the employer and employee, HR policies, the state of the psychological contract as well as its consequences in terms of attitudinal and behavioural.

In addition, Katou (2013) proposed a framework that links HR practices, psychological contract and organizational performance where it consists of two interlinked systems. The first system is where the state of the psychological contract mediates the relationship between HR practices and organizational performance. The second system is within the psychological contract itself where the employers attitude mediates the state of the psychological contract itself. When the psychological contract is fulfilled by the employer, the employee will be satisfied, committed and motivated to fulfil their end of the bargain, as the norm of reciprocity postulates (Gouldner, 1960). Since the state of the psychological contract mediates the relationship between the HR practises and organizational performance, HR practices will influence organizational performance due to fulfilment of the psychological contract. Katou (2013) revealed that psychological contract mediated the relationship between HR practices and organizational performance, indicating the psychological contract fulfilment as the epicentre of the entire relationship. There is also evidence of reciprocity when employees perceive their psychological contract has been fulfilled by the employer, where they react by keeping their promises in return. Furthermore, their study revealed that rewards as well as training and development are found to be the most important HR practices that result in the fulfilment of psychological contract. The writer highlights the relationship between HR practices and psychological contract fulfilment, further emphasizing that HR practices that are important to the employees will result in psychological contract fulfilment.

A recent study by Aburumman et al. (2020) on investigating the impact of human resource practices on employee turnover intention, they revealed that compensation, performance appraisal, promotion and training and development are negatively related to employee turnover intentions. In order words, when employees are satisfied with the said HR practices provided by the organization, the employees would choose to stay longer with that organization. Aburumman et al. (2020) further argued that when employees are given positive contribution by the organization, they will reciprocate and provide positive inputs in return, as supported by the social exchange theory of Blau (1964). In this case, by providing satisfactory HR practices to the employees, the employees will choose to remain in the organization. The writer also supports this and further argues that such relationship is similar to the concept of psychological contract where when perceptions of the employee's psychological contract is being fulfilled will lead to positive outcomes (Rousseau, 2000), and closer to the current research would be employee retention, as supported by Iskandar and Sari (2018), Zhao et al. (2007), Cheung and Chiu (2005) and Conway and Briner (2002).

The state of the psychological contract will either positively or negatively affect the formation of the relationship between HR practices and employee retention. Since this study focuses on the fulfilment of the psychological contract, the relationship of HR practices and employee retention is mediated by the fulfilment of the psychological contract.

2.8.2 HR Practices and Psychological Contract

Based on the conceptual model, the writer proposes that HR practices will positively influence the fulfilment of the psychological contract. As the HR practices send messages to employees of what can be expected and is expected of them, HR practices influences the shaping of the psychological contract (Shahnawaz and Jafri, 2011; Guest and Conway, 2004).

Suazo et al. (2009) argues that HR practices influence psychological contracts by forming the promise fulfilments of employer and employees. The formation of the psychological contract begins through one of the earliest HR practices in the employment relationship which is employee sourcing, where information regarding the employment terms and conditions is transmitted to potential job candidates (Rynes, 1991), as supported by Suazo et al. (2009), Robinson and Morrison, (2000) and Shore and Tetrick (1994) where they argue that the recruitment process influences the form of the psychological contract. Eilam-Shamir and Yaakobi (2014) also argue that HR practices are important in the formation of psychological contract for new employees. Once psychological contracts are formed, it is quite stable and resistant to change (Tomprou and Nikolaou, 2011). The view of employers on providing permanent employment to employees is seen on the emphasis of training and development (Gomez-Mejia et al, 2004), or their permanent employment is reflected on the training and development. Psychological contracts are also produced based on the rewards provided by the organization that displays an employee’s worth of their long-term salaries (Gomez-Mejia et al., 2004). Rewards system was found to have a key impact on the employment relationship (Roussaeu and Ho, 2000; Robinson, 1996). Expectations between employee and employer can also be determined with performance-management practices such as performance appraisals Aggarwal and Bhargava, 2009; King, 2000). Trainings that are in line with the business objectives of the organization and positive work experience cultivate long-term employment relationship (Aggarwal an Bhargava, 2009; Martin et al., 1998). A positive environment created within the organization is influenced by HR practices, which then influences the extent of psychological contract fulfilment between employees and employers (Suazo et al, 2009; Purcell et al., 2003; Marchington, 2001).

The writer suggests that HR practices that are found to be valuable to employees will result in positive psychological contract, as supported by Katou (2013), Suazo et al. (2009), Purcell et al. (2003), and Pate et al. (2003).

2.8.3 Psychological Contract Fulfilment and Employee Retention

The proposed conceptual framework suggests that psychological contract fulfilment will influence employee retention. Robinson (1996) suggests that psychological contract occurs when all the perceived promises and obligations are met. Fulfilment of the psychological contract will reduce employee turnover intentions (Pradhan et al., 2017; Collins, 2010) and will lead to employee retention (Cheung and Chiu, 2005).

Researchers have also shown that psychological contract fulfilment is positively related to employee retention (De Vos and Meganck, 2009; Zhao et al, 2007; Cheung and Chin, 2005; Conway and Briner, 2005; Kalleberg and Rogues, 2000). As previously mentioned, the core of the psychological contract is based on reciprocity where if the employee perceives that the promises made by their employer is fulfilled, they will react positively in return (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960), relative to the current study would be employee retention. Of course, psychological contract fulfilment will lead to other desirable outcomes such as better job satisfaction (Rodwell et al, 2015; Sutton and Griffin, 2004; Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2000), higher job performance, increased motivation (Lester et al., 2001), higher organizational commitment to their firm (Lemire and Rouillard, 2005; Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2003; Robinson and Rousseau, 1994), reduced emotional tiredness (Gakovic and Tetrick, 2007) as well as augmented mental welfare (Gracia et al., 2007). However, the focus of the current thesis is on employee retention. To reduce repetition, previous sections have already discussed the relationship between psychological contract and employee retention (see section "Psychological Contract Fulfilment" in Chapter 2).

2.9 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN RESEARCH OBJECTIVES, RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

Based on the discussion of the literature in this chapter, the following Table 4 summarizes the links between the research objectives, research questions and hypotheses of the current thesis.

Table 4: The Relationship between Research Objectives, Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Objective	Research Questions	Hypotheses
RO1: To determine how psychological contract affect employee retention.	RQ1a: What is the relationship between psychological contract and employee retention? RQ1b: What is the perception between employee and employer regarding the psychological contract? RQ1c: What is the perception between employee and employer regarding the employee retention?	H1: Psychological contract fulfilment is positively related to employee retention. H2: The perceptions between employee and employer regarding the psychological contract is different. H3: The perceptions between employee and employer regarding employee retention is different.
RO2: To determine how HR practices affect employee retention	RQ2a: What is the relationship between HR practices and employee retention? RQ2b: What is the perception between employee and employer regarding HR practice?	H4: HR practices are positively related to employee retention. H5: The perceptions between employee and employer regarding HR practice is different.
RO3: To discover how HR practices affect psychological contract.	RQ3: What is the relationship between HR practices and psychological contract?	H6: HR practices are positively related to psychological contract fulfilment.
RO4: To examine the mediating effect of psychological contract fulfilment on the relationship between HR practices and employee retention.	RQ4: Does psychological contract fulfilment mediate the relationship between HR practices and employee retention?	H7: Psychological contract fulfilment partially mediates the relationship between HR practice and employee retention.

CHAPTER 3 – RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between psychological contract, human resource practices and employee retention in the events industry. Even though there are numerous studies describing the relationship between the said variables, there is a gap in academic literature as discussed in the previous chapter.

The current research is situated within the interpretive research paradigm, applying a deductive approach of hypotheses testing. The current study adopted a cross-sectional design to achieve the research objectives. The bilateral view will be taken which includes the perspectives from both employee and employer. The list of event management companies in Malaysia were accessed from an online database where these companies are registered as "Event Product and Service Provider" supplier under the Malaysia Convention and Exhibition Bureau (MyCEB, 2023). A total of 4 companies with 175 employed personnel approved their participation in the current research where the respondents were given a Web-based survey questionnaire. As there are only 55 managers in total in the said companies, a maximum of only 55 dyads can be created. Hence, 55 pair of questionnaires were distributed with 50 usable matched questionnaires were collected. This amounts to 90.9% response rate.

This chapter serves as a description of the research methodology and design that was used in order to carry out the current study. This chapter begins with a brief discussion of the research questions and hypotheses, followed by the description of the research design, data collection method, questionnaire design, sampling design, data analysis methods and lastly the ethical considerations.

3.2 RESTATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND RELATED HYPOTHESES

From the review of literature, it was found that the relationship between HR practices and Employee Retention is mediated by the fulfilment of the Psychological Contract. Furthermore, there is an association between HR practices and the psychological contract fulfilment, as well as between the psychological contract fulfilment and employee retention. The concept of the psychological contract plays an important role in the current research as it provides a framework that allows employees feelings and conducts to be examined, and what is prioritized by them. (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD, 2020).

The following are hypotheses of the current study:

H1: Psychological contract fulfilment is positively related to employee retention.

H2: The perception between employee and employer regarding the psychological contract is different.

H3: The perception between employee and employer regarding employee retention is different.

H4: HR practices are positively related to employee retention.

H5: The perception between employee and employer regarding HR practice is different.

H6: HR practices are positively related to psychological contract fulfilment.

H7: Psychological contract will partially mediate the relationship between HR practice and employee retention.

To recap, the following are the research objectives of this thesis:

RO1: To determine how psychological contract affect employee retention.

RO2: To determine how HR practices affect employee retention.

RO3: To discover how HR practices affect psychological contract.

RO4: To examine the mediating effect of psychological contract on the relationship between HR practices and employee retention.

In order to identify what are the factors that lead to employee retention, the importance of these factors should first be identified (Tyagi and Aggrawal, 2010; De Vos and Meganck, 2009; Steel et al., 2002). As HR practices are used as the contents of the psychological contract, the extent of its fulfilment is also identified, as Rousseau (2001) also calls for the identification of specific factors that affect the contents of the psychological contract (Mbugua et al., 2015; Kim, 2012). Hence when employers carry out HR practices to fulfil their end of the psychological contract, employees will perceive the fulfilment of the psychological contract which will result in employee retention (Katou, 2013; Suazo et al., 2009; Purcell et al., 2003; Pate et al., 2003). This is done by including the perspectives of both employee and employer in order to make the psychological contract a rational framework for understanding the employer-employee relationship (Guest, 2011; Baker, 2009).

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between psychological contract, human resource practices and employee retention in the events industry. To answer the research questions, a quantitative methodology, namely a cross-sectional survey research design using a Web-based survey questionnaire was used. Data collection was done from a population of employees within the event management industry in Malaysia. Aside from data collection of the demographics of participants, the data on three main variables were collected, namely HR practices, Psychological Contract and Employee Retention. Furthermore, descriptive, t-test, correlational and regression analyses were carried out in the pursuit to answer the research questions.

Given the unique job requirements and working conditions of events industry (Das and Baruah, 2013), there is a dearth of research within the said industry pertaining to the topic at hand. Since many studies were focused towards the negative elements of either the psychological contract (breach) or employee turnover, this thesis puts emphasis on the fulfilment of the psychological contract and how it contributes to employee retention. Hence, no employees of the participating companies were excluded from the current research.

3.4 DATA COLLECTION METHOD

The purpose of the current research is to determine the relationships between the variables in order for the writer to generalize about certain characteristics, behaviour or attitudes of a population (Creswell, 2009; Alreck and Settle, 2004). This research utilized a survey methodology to determine if there is a relationship between HR practices, psychological contract and employee retention among employees in the Malaysian event management industry, via the data collection method of a web-based survey. This survey was cross-sectional of which the collection of data was done at a single point in time.

The most commonly used data collection method in psychological contract research are self-completed survey questionnaires (Conway and Briner, 2005; Rousseau and Tijoriwala, 1998). Also, given the fact that the research in psychological contract involves the individual's perception of reciprocal obligations, the self-report measures would be the most suitable source of information (Rousseau and Tijoriwala, 1998).

The present study uses a web-based survey to collect data. These questionnaires were made using Google Forms and be distributed electronically via messaging apps or emails to the respondents, using a survey link that was created. Web-based survey has more benefits as compared to e-mail attachment surveys, due to the fact that is saves time, has lower administrative costs and better survey design flexibility, as well as its ability to access a large sample (Cresswell, 2009; Wright, 2005). Compared to physical or paper questionnaires, electronic or Internet-based questionnaires have higher response rates of 65%, as compared to paper questionnaires of 50% response rates (Wright, 2005). In the same vein, since most individuals are highly accessible to the internet, questionnaires were distributed to them through those means which will allow a higher response rate and lower contamination of respondent's answers (Saunders et al., 2016). Since the emphasis of anonymity of research respondents, online survey is more advantageous as respondents may not feel comfortable expressing their opinions physically in person (Van Selm and Jankowski, 2006). Furthermore, this eliminates the use of an interviewer which also eliminates the risk of interviewer effects (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Hence the suitability of using the web-based survey method for the current study.

In addition, online survey tools, such as Google Forms, will allow data to be captured and saved automatically which can then be used to analyses. Research has also shown that this method is not only practical but also efficient in data collection while having low administrative costs and are able to access a larger sample (Creswell, 2009; Wright, 2005). Furthermore, the role of the writer will be separated from this technique as questions will be prepared prior to distribution of the questionnaires (Saunders et al., 2016).

However, survey research does have its weaknesses. It is crucial to note the potential sources of error, ethical issues and required expertise (Sills and Song, 2002). Among the problems that may occur with the delivery method of web-based surveys would include security issues, Internet connectivity problems and inconsistencies in the delivery medium, among other factors (Wright 2005; Sills and Song, 2002). Nevertheless, all employees of the participating companies require the use of the internet and web-based communication as part of their daily work, of which access to the Internet were not to be seen as a problem or an issue. Another significant limitation of the cross-sectional questionnaire is that it will not be able to analyse the changes of the psychological contract over time (Turnley and Feldman, 1999a). This also creates a problem in establishing the direction of causal relationships between variables (Guest, 2011; Paauwe, 2009). Although there are strengths in conducting longitudinal research, the cross-sectional data was employed as this choice is governed by time, access to data as well as resource limitations. Additionally, access to participants was only for a given timeframe which was approved by the decision makes of the participating organizations. As event management deals with a fast-paced work nature, having to collect data over future points in time may affect the work and performance of the employees and the organizations.

In terms of security, the survey site used Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) encryption protocol to encrypt the survey link and page during transmission. On the introductory page, the survey provided information regarding the research, also stating that the participation is also fully voluntary as well as the confidentiality and anonymity of the respondents, with the option for the respondents to leave any time during survey. Consent was also requested before proceeding to the actual survey, of which upon submitting this information will bring the respondents to the survey. Upon completion of the entire survey, respondents were directed to a page acknowledging and thanking them for their participation. The contents of the survey were constructed by the writer which can be found in Appendix 1 (for employee) and Appendix 2 (for employer).

3.5 SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

3.5.1 Constructs and Measures

Types of data variable to be collected are namely demographic, attitudes and behaviours (Dillman et al., 2014). Demographic data variables refer to the respondents' characteristics, which will be used to explore how the respondents' attitudes and behaviours may differ. Attitude data variables are used to determine how the respondents feel about the questions asked. Lastly, behaviour data variable refers to data about what has been done, is being done or will be done in the future. The latter two data variables will be related to the respondents' answers pertaining to the importance of the HR practices and state of the psychological contract as well as theire opinion and reaction in terms of remaining in the current organization.

Based on the conceptual framework, three variables are to be analysed in the current study, namely HR practices, Psychological Contract Fulfilment and Employee Retention. HR practice is the independent variable. Psychological Contract Fulfilment is the mediating variable. Lastly, employee retention is the dependent variable.

Closed-ended questions are used to measure the said variables where respondents are to choose from answers that have already been provided (Fink, 2013). One of the closed-ended questions that are used were scales, where a Likert-style scale in order to collect opinion data on how the respondent. Likert scales can be categorized as symmetric or asymmetric, where symmetric Likert scales has a centre point in between the two extremities of strongly disagree and strongly agree, and asymmetric Likert scales do not (Joshi et al., 2015). The Likert scale used in the current research is the 4-point Likert scale. Although a 5-point Likert scale will provide independence to the respondents to choose any response, a midpoint option or neutral response would either mean that it represents a true neutral or it could be a nonresponse choice (Raaijmakers, et al., 2000). Hence an asymmetric Likert scale, or one without a midpoint could altogether eliminate nonresponsive answers. In addition, in the viewpoint of methodology, the measurement of reliability and validity with or without a midpoint is not affected (Tsang, 2012; Dawes, 2001; Matell and Jacoby, 1971) Furthermore, Garland (1991) suggests that removing the midpoint is considered to be socially acceptable.

These scales will be adapted from existing scales, as advised by Shrauf and Navarro (2005). A rating scale is used because it is an effective method to measure the opinions of respondents as well as to evaluate their perceptions regarding the topic at hand (Coelho and Esteves, 2007; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). The details of these scales will be explained later on.

What should also be highlighted is the fact that this study involved the identification of opinions from both the employee as well as their matched employers. De Vos and Meganck (2009) in their study involved the perspectives of both the employee and employer regarding the retention practices, its importance and the extent of its fulfilment. However, data was collected qualitatively using semi-structure interviews with managers on the current retention practices and its importance based on the views of the said managers. Data collected with employees were measured quantitatively using survey questionnaires to measure its importance and fulfilment. This led to unmatched results, falling short of correspondence among data collected. Aggarwal and Bhargava (2009) included a bilateral view on their perceptions regarding organization obligations. Questionnaires distributed to respondents were given accordingly to either employee or employer. Employee respondents were asked to indicate the extent of the promises provided by the organization, whereas employer respondents were asked to indicate the extent of how much they, as the organization's representative, provided the employees the same list of promises. This method is similar to the research by Lester, Turnley and Bloogood (2000), where employee and employer respondents were asked to indicate the commitment promised and received. Hence the items for the variables mentioned above will be adapted to enable the respondents to answer the questionnaires based on their perspectives. This will also be explained in more detail in the following section.

In addition to these variables, demographic data was collected to identify gender, age group and years of employment to describe the population. For this, another type of closed-ended question that will be used are category questions of which data pertaining to the respondents' demographics will be collected. In addition, the writer did not feel the need to translate the questionnaire into vernacular as English is commonly spoken language in Malaysia. Table 5 shows the number of items for each construct and the used scale.

Table 5: Variables, number of items and scales used.

Variables	*Number of Items*	*Scale Used*
HR Practices		
Recruitment and Selection	8	Likert scale
Performance Appraisals	3	Likert scale
Compensation and Recognition	5	Likert scale
Training and Career Development	9	Likert scale
Work-life Balance	4	Likert scale
Psychological Contract Fulfilment		
Recruitment and Selection	8	Likert scale
Performance Appraisals	3	Likert scale
Compensation and Recognition	5	Likert scale
Training and Career Development	9	Likert scale
Work-life Balance	4	Likert scale
Employee Retention	4	Likert scale
Total Items	**62**	

In order to ensure the validity and reliability of the questions as well as the answers, questions prepared have to be understood by the respondent as the researcher intends, and the same goes for the answers provided by the respondents where it has to be understood by the researcher as the respondent intends (Foddy, 1994). *Validity* of measurements refers to the questionnaire's ability to actually measure what is intended to measure (Saunders et al., 2016). To ensure this, measurements used by previous researchers will be adapted based on the current research. Furthermore, a pilot test will be conducted prior to the actual field work to ensure validity and reliability. Reliability is related to consistency of answers obtained at different conditions and different times (Saunders et al., 2016). To ensure consistency, Cronbach's alpha will be used, where values of 0.7 and above would indicate that the questions used are reliable (Mitchell, 1996).

3.5.2 HR Practices

The measurements of HR practices, namely *recruitment and selection, performance appraisals, compensation and recognition, training and career development,* and *work-life balance* were selected and adapted from previous works (Aburumman et al., 2020; Francis, 2014; Boon et al., 2011; Mahal, 2012; Lee et al., 2010; De Vos and Meganck, 2009; De Vos et al., 2003; Delery and Doty; 1996).

For the measurement items of HR practices, respondents will be asked to indicate the importance of the items listed. This measurement was adapted from De Vos and Meganck (2009) and Turnley and Feldman (1999a) where they asked respondents to indicate how important each item is to them. Using a four-point Likert scale, respondents will provide scores where (1) refers to "not important", (2) "somewhat not important", (3) "important" and (4) "very important". The items in for each dimension under HR practices were adapted in a way to be used for both the employee and employer level respondents. For the employee, the respondents were asked to indicate the importance of each item is to them. The exact phrase used for employee respondents is "Please indicate how important each item is to you". As for the managers, they were asked to indicate how important each item is to their employees. The exact phrase used for employer/manager respondents is "Please indicate how important each item is to your employee". This will then allow views from both parties to be collected based on the same items. The adaptations of each item are explained in the following sections.

Adapted items for Recruitment and Selection

Measures for Recruitment and Selection will be adapted from the 8 items developed by Mahal (2012), which reported an alpha-reliability of 0.76 in his research. The Table 6 below indicates the original items and adapted items used for this construct.

Table 6: Adapted items for Recruitment and Selection

Original Items	Label	Adapted Items
The recruitment process of your company is very clear	RS1	A clear recruitment process
Your organization focuses on external sources of recruitment	RS2	Recruit from external sources/outside the company
Your organization focuses on internal sources of recruitment	RS3	Recruit from internal sources/within the company
Recruitment process of your company compared favourably to other companies	RS4	Better recruitment process than other companies
Your organization selects the right person for the right job	RS5	Select the right person for the right job
There is proper procedures of the selection process	RS6	Proper procedures in the selection process
There are no chances of personal biasness while selecting the person	RS7	No chances of personal biasness when selecting employee
The selection process is fair and justifiable	RS8	Fair and justifiable selection process

Adapted Items for Performance Appraisals

Performance appraisals will be measured using 3 items reported by Lee et al. (2010) which was used by Aburumman et al. (2020) with a reported alpha-reliability of 0.70 in their research. Table 7 below shows the original and adapted items for this construct.

Table 7: Adapted Items for Performance Appraisals

Original Items	Label	Adapted Items
Your firm frequently does formal appraisals	PA1	Frequent formal appraisals
Your firm frequently does informal appraisals	PA2	Frequent informal appraisals
Your firm uses the appraisals results	PA3	Uses the results from the appraisal

Adapted Items for Compensation and Recognition

Compensation and recognition will be measured using a combination of 7 items reported by Lee et al. (2010) and Delery and Doty (1996) as used by Aburumman et al. (2020) and Francis (2014) respectively, with both having an alpha-reliability of 0.87 for their research.

Table 8: Adapted Items for Compensation and Recognition

Original Items	Label	Adapted Items
I received the amount of pay that commensurate the work I do	CR1	Amount of pay that reflect the work done
My pay is generally equal the pay of my colleagues of the same level/position	CR2	Equal pay among with the same level/position
My pay is generally equally to the pay of similar jobs in other companies of the same industry	CR3	Equal pay for the same job in other companies within the same industry
The reward system is fair and rewarding people who accomplish company objectives	CR4	Reward system that is fair and rewarding for people who accomplish company objectives
The reward system really recognises people who contribute the most to the company	CR5	Reward system that recognizes people who contribute the most to the company

Adapted Items for Training and Career Development

Training and career development will be measured using 9 items developed by Boon et al. (2011) with reported alpha-reliability of more than 0.75 in their research. Table 9 shows the original and adapted samples used to measure this construct.

Table 9: Adapted Items for Training and Career Development

Original Items	Label	Adapted Items
The opportunity to go for training, courses, and workshops	TC1	Opportunity to go for training, courses, and workshops
The opportunity to develop new skills and knowledge for their current job or possible jobs in the future	TC2	Opportunity to develop new skills and knowledge for my/their current job or possible jobs in the future
Coaching that supports my development	TC3	Coaching that supports my/their development
Support in planning my future development	TC4	Support in planning my/their future development
The opportunity to work for another department	TC5	Opportunity to work for another department
The opportunity to do another job within this organization	TC6	Opportunity to do another job within the company
Good career prospects	TC7	Good career prospects
An increase in job responsibilities if I perform well at my current tasks	TC8	Given more responsibilities when I/they perform well at current tasks
The opportunity to occupy a higher position with the organisation	TC9	Opportunity to get higher positions in the company

Adapted Items for Work-life Balance

Work-life balance will be measured using 4 items reported by De Vos et al. (2003) and also used by De Vos and Meganck (2009), with an alpha-reliability of 0.83 in their research. The Table 10 below tabulates the original items and the adapted items to measure this construct.

Table 10: Adapted Items for Work-life Balance

Original Items	**Label**	**Adapted Items**
Respect for personal situation	WB1	Given respect for personal situation
Opportunities for flexible working hours depending on your personal needs	WB2	Opportunities for flexible working hours depending on my/their personal needs
Opportunity to decide for yourself when to take your vacation	WB3	Opportunity to decide for myself/themselves when to go on leave
A flexible attitude concerning the correspondence between your work and private life	WB4	There is a flexible attitude regarding the connection between work and private life

3.5.3 Psychological Contract Fulfilment

In the current study, the HR practices will be used as the contents of the psychological contract. In other words, the psychological contract fulfilment is measured based on the extent of the HR practices being fulfilled. These refer to the same items of HR practices studied in this research, *namely recruitment and selection, compensation and recognition, performance appraisals, training and career development,* and *work-life balance*. Scheel et al. (2013) used performance-related pay and training as the psychological contract contents. De Vos and Meganck (2009) used retention practices i.e., HR practices as contents of the psychological contract, which was identified from interviews with managers.

In the current research, the HR practices were identified through academic research of which the importance of the items will be identified, as explained in the previous section. The same items will then be measured based on the extent of its fulfilment, where respondents will be asked the extent of the obligations provided. This form of measurement was adapted from Guest and Conway (2002), Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2002) and Porter et al. (1998), which is also similar to the research by De Vos and Meganck (2009). Guest and Conway (2004) measured the psychological contract first by the identifying the degree of the promise committed followed by the extent of its fulfilment. However, this was done among employee respondents only. In other words, the promises said to be committed and the extent of its fulfilled was only measure in the view of the employees, therefore lacking mutuality in perceptions (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2000). To answer the call to include both perspectives of the employee-employer relationship, the employees' immediate managers or supervisors were included in this study. Dyads of employee-managers were created, which will be explained in this chapter.

Employee respondents will be asked to indicate the extent of how much the current organization have provided the items listed. The exact phrase used was "Please indicate the extent your company has provided out each item listed below". As for the Employer respondents, they were asked to indicate the extent of how much they, as the representatives of the organization, have provided their obligations, based on the given items. The exact phrase used in the questionnaire for employer respondents was "Please indicate the extent you have provided each item listed below". A four-point Likert scale is provided, with (1) indicating "not provided at all", which gives the respondents the option to indicate if a particular item has never been provided in the first place, followed by (2) "slightly", (3) "partially" and (4) "greatly".

Items for the psychological contract for employees and employers were coded similar to items in HR practices with the inclusion of "PC_". For example, "PC_HR1". "PC_PA1" and so on.

3.5.4 Employee Retention

Employee retention will be measured using a combination of 4 items reported in Mahal (2012) and Francis (2014). The data collected will be from the employee respondents only. The following Table 11 shows the original items and items adapted to measure Employee Retention.

Table 11: Adapted Items for Employee Retention

Original Items	Label	Adapted Items for Employee
I do not intend to quit my job	ER1	I do not intend to quit my job.
It is unlikely that I will actively look for a different organization to work for in the next year	ER2	It is unlikely that I will actively look for a new job next year.
I am not thinking about quitting my job at the present time	ER3	I am not thinking about quitting my job at the present time
If you are given an option again, you will choose to work for the current company	ER4	If given an option again, I will choose to work for the company

Respondents will indicate their agreement to the items using a four-point Likert scale where (1) would be "strongly disagree", (2) "disagree", (3) "agree" and (4) "strongly agree".

3.5.5 Demographics

In order for the writer to describe the respondents, a number of demographic questions were asked at the end of the survey. These questions included several control variables that are related to psychological contract and employee retention, namely "gender", "age group" and number of years working for the organization i.e., "years of employment", which is based on previous research (Chien and Lin, 2013; Boon et al., 2011; Chew and Chan, 2008; Huang et al., 2006; Sturges et al., 2005; Turnley et al., 2003; Kickul, 2001). Gender will be measured as a dichotomous variable (i.e., male or female). Age will be measured according to generations, namely Baby Boomers (1946 – 1964), Gen X (1965 – 1976), Gen Y (1977 – 1995) and Gen Z (1996 – present). Years of Employment will be measured based on the following: "less than 6 months", "less than 1 year", less than 2 years", less than 3 years, "less than 4 years", "less than 5 years" and "more than 5 years".

The items used in the questionnaire is presented in Appendix 1(for Employee) and Appendix 2 (for Employer).

3.5.6 Pilot Test

A pilot test was carried out prior to the actual research not only to ensure reliability but also to refine questions in order for respondents to be able to understand these questions to avoid problems in answering them (Saunders et al., 2016). A pilot test is also required to be carried out to strengthen the internal validity of the instruments used in the research (Johanson and Brooks, 2010). Additionally, Freese and Schalk (2008) noted that a pilot study has to be carried out if the questionnaire has not been used for a specific sample before.

From the database available on the MyCEB website (MyCEB, 2023), event management companies that were not participating in the current research were selected for the pilot test. An email containing separate links for the original questionnaires for employee and employer were provided, with the request to also provide feedback to the researcher concerning any errors or questions about the items or questions asked. Details are explained in Chapter 4.

3.6 SAMPLING DESIGN

3.6.1 Target Population

The list of event management companies in Malaysia were accessed from an online database where these companies are registered as "Event Product and Service Provider" supplier under the Malaysia Convention and Exhibition Bureau (MyCEB, 2023). From a total of 82 companies, 22 were either not reachable or no longer in business and 10 were primarily focused on travel and tourism solutions rather than event management as their core business. The remaining 51 companies were contacted to invite them to participate in the current research, as well as number of employees and managerial positions. The writer ensured that participating companies should have at least 20 full-time employees to ensure higher participation rate. A total of 10 companies showed interest but only 4 gave permission to carry out the current research. The reluctancy or low participation rate could be explained due to the effects of the pandemic as many event management companies either ceased operations or downsized.

The typical size of event management companies in Malaysia are categorized as SMEs or Small Medium Enterprises, which have between 5 to 75 full-time employees (SME Corp. Malaysia, 2020). Furthermore, since event management organizations in Malaysia do employ talents to work for certain projects i.e., part-time, only full-time employees will be considered as eligible respondents. Additionally, since employee retention is the focus of this research, employees who are currently being employed during the duration of the current study will be considered and not those who have already left their employment.

The following is Table 12 tabulating the total number of people in each participating organization, including the employees and their managers.

Table 12: Total population based on company.

COMPANY	EMPLOYEE	MANAGER	TOTAL
W	20	13	33
X	49	13	52
Y	36	19	55
Z	25	10	35
Total	**120**	**55**	**175**

3.6.2 Sample Size

It is important to determine the sample size of the current research to ensure that the sample measure is representative of the population to ensure the generalization of the findings (Rahi et al., 2019; Awang, 2012)

Based on Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table, the sample size for a population between 170 and 180 is between 118 to 123. However, since the current research deals with the relationship between employer and employee, dyads are to be formed. This research will include one employee for each direct manager or supervisor. Hence the total maximum dyads that are available is based on the number of managers in the population, which is 55. The formation of the employer-employee dyads will be explained later in this chapter. Based on the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table below, for the population of 55, the samples should be 48.

Table 13: Population and Sample Size. Source: Krejcie and Morgan (1970)

N	*S*	*N*	*S*	*N*	*S*
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	1000000	384

Note.—*N* is population size. *S* is sample size.

However, this approach does not include the calculation of sampling error and confidence level when determining the sample size. Hence, the current research referred to the approach by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) which includes the sampling error and confidence level when calculation the sample size. According to Cohen et al. (2007), for the population between 50 to 75, the sample size should be between 46 to 67, with a confidence level of 95% and sampling error of 3%.

Table 14: Sample size, confidence levels and confidence intervals for random samples. Source: Cohen et al. (2017)

Population	Confidence level 90 per cent			Confidence level 95 per cent			Confidence level 99 per cent		
	Confi- dence	Confi- dence	Confi- dence	Confi- dence	Confi- dence	Confi- dence	Confi- dence	Confi- dence	Confi- dence
30	27	28	29	28	29	29	29	29	30
50	42	45	47	44	46	48	46	48	49
75	59	64	68	63	67	70	67	70	72
100	73	81	88	79	86	91	87	91	95
120	83	94	104	91	100	108	102	108	113
150	97	111	125	108	120	132	122	131	139
200	115	136	158	132	150	168	154	168	180
250	130	157	188	151	176	203	182	201	220
300	143	176	215	168	200	234	207	233	258
350	153	192	239	183	221	264	229	262	294
400	162	206	262	196	240	291	250	289	329
450	170	219	282	207	257	317	268	314	362
500	176	230	301	217	273	340	285	337	393
600	187	249	335	234	300	384	315	380	453
650	192	257	350	241	312	404	328	400	481
700	196	265	364	248	323	423	341	418	507
800	203	278	389	260	343	457	363	452	558
900	209	289	411	269	360	468	382	482	605
1,000	214	298	431	278	375	516	399	509	648
1,100	218	307	448	285	388	542	414	534	689
1,200	222	314	464	291	400	565	427	556	727
1,300	225	321	478	297	411	586	439	577	762
1,400	228	326	491	301	420	606	450	596	796
1,500	230	331	503	306	429	624	460	613	827
2,000	240	351	549	322	462	696	498	683	959
2,500	246	364	581	333	484	749	524	733	1,061
5,000	258	392	657	357	536	879	586	859	1,347
7,500	263	403	687	365	556	934	610	911	1,480
10,000	265	408	703	370	566	964	622	939	1,556
20,000	269	417	729	377	583	1,013	642	986	1,688
30,000	270	419	738	379	588	1,030	649	1,002	1,737
40,000	270	421	742	381	591	1,039	653	1,011	1,762
50,000	271	422	745	381	593	1,045	655	1,016	1,778
100,000	272	424	751	383	597	1,056	659	1,026	1,810
150,000	272	424	752	383	598	1,060	661	1,030	1,821
200,000	272	424	753	383	598	1,061	661	1,031	1,826
250,000	272	425	754	384	599	1,063	662	1,033	1,830
500,000	272	425	755	384	600	1,065	663	1,035	1,837
1,000,000	272	425	756	384	600	1,066	663	1,036	1,840

As this research involves dyads, Du and Wang (2016) have suggested a minimum of 50 dyads with no missing data from any dyads in order to obtain reliable and valid estimates. Hence the writer would need to obtain a minimum of 50 employee-employer dyads.

3.6.3 Sampling Technique

For the purpose of this study, sampling will be taken from the population within the said event management companies. Probability sampling, is used as it will allow generalizations and will have less risks of biasness as compared to non-probability sampling (Saunders et al., 2016). Furthermore, since employee retention is the focus of this research, employees who are currently being employed during the duration of the current study will be considered and not those who have already left their employment. In line with the research objectives, psychological contract perspectives of both employees as well as the managers will be taken into account. Hence employee-employer dyads were formed.

Dyads are basically a group of two individuals (Zhao et al, 2022, Du and Wang, 2016). Dyads are also divided into two types, namely *distinguishable* dyads (which can be differentiated based on heterogenous indicators such as gender or roles) and *indistinguishable* dyads, which share same characteristics of a certain variable (Ledermann and Kenny, 2017; Kenny et al., 2006;). In this research, the dyads formed are *distinguishable* dyads as the dyads consists of employee and employer which are differentiated based on their role and position in the organization ,where one holds a managerial role, and the other does not.

Upon receiving approval from the participating companies, the writer provided the survey questionnaire link to the representative of the company, to be distributed to their supervisors/managers and their respective subordinates. There are two levels of respondents, which are “employers” who are the direct supervisors or managers, and the “employees” who are the direct subordinates to the said managers. The two levels of the respondents are identified prior to the distribution of the questionnaires. As previously mentioned, there are a total of 55 managers in the participating companies, hence a total of 55 dyads were identified. The supervisors or managers were first asked to select a subordinate and complete the questionnaires based on the selected subordinate. Upon completion, the selected subordinate will be given another set of questionnaires to complete based on their respective manager or supervisor. These questionnaires were marked before its distribution to ensure match between the manager and subordinate. Since the questionnaires are web-based, individual links are given to each respondent. Both level of respondents is also given a code as an additional method to ensure matching between respective managers and subordinates. An example of the list of survey links provided to the company representative to be distributed to the respondents is shown in the following Table 15.

Table 15: Examples of Survey Questionnaire Links and Codes

No	Code	Manager	Subordinate
1	A123	https://www.example1A.com	https://www.example1B.com
2	B123	https://www.example2A.com	https://www.example2B.com

A total of 55 questionnaires sets were distributed and the total usable sets is 50, after ensuring that the questionnaires of the corresponding manager to the employees and vice versa were collected. In other words, the researcher successfully obtained 50 dyads at the end of the research. Employer respondents that submitted their response without the submission of their matched subordinates, or vice versa, were discarded. The codes given were checked to ensure matching of data between employee and immediate supervisor or manager. Emphasis was made on the voluntarily nature of the survey participation. The detailed steps of the online survey are described in Table 16.

Table 16: Sampling Technique Procedure

Procedure	Description
1. Receive approval from participating company	A letter was sent to potential companies to request permission to carry out the survey among its employees. Upon approval, a designated contact person or company representative was assigned for the purpose of communication between the writer and the company for administrating the survey.
2. Verbal announcement by company representative heading the survey administration	The company representative was requested to make a verbal announcement during the weekly/periodic staff meetings to inform the employees on the purpose of the research and its timeframe.
3. Invitation of respondents to complete the survey using the link provided by the writer	The online link for the Web-based survey questionnaire was provided to the company representative to be distributed to the managers/supervisors of the company. Each manager/supervisor was asked to complete the questionnaire based on a selected subordinate. These questionnaires were marked (given a specific link and code) to ensure successful pairing upon collection. Once completed, the subordinate selected will be provided with another set of questionnaires which has also been marked to ensure match between the manager/supervisor and the respective subordinate.

	The timeframe to complete the survey was also communicated to indicate the cut-off time for receiving of completed surveys. In addition, a disclaimer on the introductory page of the survey highlighted that the participation of the survey is voluntary and requested their agreement to participate in the research.
4. Follow-up / reminder communication to complete the survey	The writer followed-up with the company representatives on a weekly-basis to remind and check the progress of the survey administration and participation.

3.7 DATA ANALYSIS METHOD

Data collected are tabulated and entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 27. More specifically, aside from analysis, SPSS will be also used to code and record the data. Data that is SPSS-enabled were checked for similarities or differences as well as its accuracy. As only completed surveys can be submitted, it was not required to check for incomplete surveys.

Preliminary data analysis was carried out, namely non-response bias analysis, common method variance test, multicollinearity analysis and normality analysis. When specific categories of survey respondents are underrepresented as a result of their non-response, non-response bias arises, which can cause errors in extrapolating demographic characteristics from survey data (Berg, 2010). The non-representative behaviour of survey respondents, either prior to or following data collection, can lead to sampling mistakes, which this study minimises. Two groups of respondents will be created based on the dates on which their questionnaires were submitted. The non-response bias is then established using the independent samples t-test, a statistical tool included in SPSS software that enables evaluation of whether means obtained from different samples differ significantly (Field, 2018b).

Common Method Variance (CMV) is variance that results in a misleading correlation between the variables of interest since it is produced by the measurement method rather than the constructs being tested (Krishnaveni & Deepa, 2013). With analytical methodologies evaluating the degree to which the data may be impacted by biases due to the survey tool utilised, the purpose testing for CMV is to measure the level of such biases (Eichhorn, 2014). For this study, Harman Single Factor technique is applied to introduce potentially significant errors with exploratory factor analysis where all variables are loaded onto a single factor and constrained so that there is no rotation.

Multicollinearity arises when strong correlations between predictors destabilise a multiple regression model, making interpretation challenging. Tolerance and VIF (variance inflation factor) are used to identify multicollinearity (Allen et al., 2019). As for normality tests, this is used to examine if the group of scores are approximately normally distributed, which is done using univariate and multivariate normality tests. Univariate normality is assessed through SPSS with Skewness and Kurtosis statistics, which describes the shape of the distribution of literacy test scores (Allen et al., 2019). The multivariate normality test will be done using WebPower internet website, as recommended by Hair et al. (2017), which utilizes Mardia's multivariate skewness and kurtosis method (Wulandari, Sutrisno and Nirwana, 2021)

The measurement model test is also carried out to evaluate how well the measurement scale or model matches observed data by comparing expected values from the model with actual data (Field, 2018a), These tests involve reliability analysis, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), and validity analysis. The current research also included adoption and adaptation of items from previous research, hence the deployment of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), since previous research may differ in terms of population, socio-economic status, race and culture from the current research (Awang, 2012). EFA is also used to examine the validity of each item (Boduszek et al., 2018; Strauss and Smith, 2009). In addition, Cronbach's alpha tests for reliability were carried out for each variable.

Descriptive analysis was carried out for demographic data. The descriptive statistics include mean and standard deviation, according to the relevant demographics, namely gender, age and number of years working with the organization, which offers an initial overview of the current study (Creswell, 2014) Subsequently, a correlation analysis using Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was conducted to determine the size and direction of the linear relationships (Ratner, 2009).

Next, the Test of Difference was conducted, in terms of the significant difference in perception between employee and employer in terms of HR practice, Psychological Contract Fulfilment and Employee Retention, which was tested using the independent sample t-test (Field, 2018b).

Besides that, to examine the relationship among variables, linear regression analysis was used to identify how each variable affect the other (Allen et al., 2019). In other words, how HR Practice affect Psychological Contract Fulfilment, how Psychological Contract Fulfilment affect Employee Retention, and how HR Practices affect Employee Retention. By doing so, this will also answer the research questions and objectives of the current research as they are related to the hypotheses of this study. To measure the effect of Psychological Contract Fulfilment as the mediating variable on the relationship between HR Practices and Employee Retention, PROCESS Macro was used (Hayes, 2022). Details of the data analyses is explained in Chapter 4. The summary of statistical method used for analysis that related to the hypotheses is summarised in Table 17.

Table 17: Summary of Statistical Method Used for Data Analysis based on Hypotheses.

Research Hypothesis	Statistical Test
H1: Psychological contract fulfilment is positively related to employee retention	Regression analysis
H2: The perceptions between employee and employer regarding the psychological contract is different.	Independent Sample T-test
H3: The perceptions between employee and employer regarding employee retention different.	Independent Sample T-test
H4: HR practices are positively related to employee retention	Regression analysis
H5: The perceptions between employee and employer regarding HR practice is different.	Independent Sample T-test
H6: HR practices are positively related to psychological contract fulfilment.	Regression analysis
H7: Psychological contract fulfilment partially mediates the relationship between HR practice and employee retention.	PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2022)

On another note. due to the fact that the survey was administered digitally via the Internet, it was not required to perform separate data entry. All data was stored safely on a secure server which is password protected and backed-up on a daily basis. Once the survey was closed, data were downloaded from Google Forms into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet of which was then uploaded to the SPSS software. Data downloaded was also stored in the writer's laptop which is password protected and is always on person or kept in a locked file drawer.

3.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In line with the university's requirements., before the current research was carried out, the writer completed and submitted the application for research ethical approval, which received approval from the University Research Ethics Committee. The writer is also aware that rules and regulations set by the university which must be complied at any stage of this research.

The research adheres to the code of ethics for research which emphasizes that the participants are to voluntarily participate in the said research. The writer must ensure no harm will come to them due to their involvement and participation (Creswell, 2008; McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). All necessary consent and permission required for the execution of this project is obtained based on the research codes of ethics. Due to the fact that the survey was administered over the Internet, the first page of the survey clearly gave the participants the choice to decline or discontinue their participation at any time during the process. Furthermore, the writer is not aware of any potential risk to the human subjects, the writer as well as the university at the present time, that may have resulted from the current research. Rules of conduct set out by the university or the participating company (if any) were complied to accordingly.

Data collected from the survey was carried out without any identifying codes or characteristics of the participants. The identities of the respondents were kept confidential throughout the entire research. Data collection and storage was done in line with the Personal Data and Protection Act 2010 (The Malaysian Bar, 2012) where extra caution has to be taken due to the fact that misuse of personal information obtain may be punishable by law.

CHAPTER 4 - ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.1 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

This chapter presents the results of the current thesis. Data collected from the surveys were analysed using IBM SPSS version 27 software. The pilot study data will first be presented at the beginning of this chapter, which includes the demographic profile as well as the construct reliability. This is then followed by the preliminary data analysis, namely non-response bias analysis, common method variance test, multicollinearity analysis and normality analysis. Thereafter, the descriptive analysis of the respondents' data is presented, which includes the demographic profile, and the mean and standard deviation analysis each variable. Following this is the correlation analysis to assess the strength and direction of the relationship between two continuous variables. Next the model assessment analysis was carried out, which includes the reliability, exploratory factor analysis and validity analyses.

Subsequently, the independent sample t-test was then conducted to determine if there are any differences in terms of the perceptions of the employee and employer towards HR practices, Psychological Contract and Employee Retention. Next is the test of relationships between the variables using linear regression analysis. In the same vein, the mediating variable was tested using the PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2022). Finally, the writer concluded with the hypotheses testing results.

4.2 PILOT TEST

4.2.1 Demographic Profile

As explained in Chapter 3 (section 3.5.6), the pilot study respondents are event management companies that were not participating in the main research. These companies are from the same database available on the MyCEB website (MyCEB, 2023). A total of 31 survey questionnaires for employees and 30 questionnaires for employers were returned. These were unmatched questionnaires as the purpose of the pilot test was to evaluate the reliability and if the respondents could understand the questions. Based on the feedback received, respondents fully understood all questions and minimal amendments were made in terms of font size and instructions prior to publishing and administrating to the research population.

Table 18: Pilot Test Demographic Data for Employee

Demographic Profile		Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	14	45.2
	Female	17	54.8
Age Group	Baby Boomers (1946-1964)	0	0
	Gen X (1965-1976)	1	3.2
	Gen Y (1977 – 1995)	18	58.1
	Gen Z (1996 - present)	12	38.7
Years of Employment	Less than 6 months	5	16.1
	Less than 1 year	2	6.5
	Less than 2 years	8	25.8
	Less than 3 years	5	16.1
	Less than 4 years	7	22.6
	Less than 5 years	1	3.2
	More than 5 years	3	9.7

From the 31 Employee respondents, 45.2% were male and 54.8% were female. As for their age profile, more than half of the employee respondents (58.1%) are in the Gen Y (1977-1995) age group, aging between 28 years old to 46 years old, followed by 36.7% in the Gen Z (1996 – present) age group, aging from 27 years old and below, and only 3.2% of the respondents are in the Gen X (1977 – 1995) age group, aging between 47 years old to 58 years old. In terms of years of service with their current company, 25.8% of the employee respondents has less than 2 years of employment with the current company, followed by 25.8%

with less than 2 years, 22.6% with less than 4 years, 16.1% with less than 6 months and less than 3 years, 9.7% with more than 5 years, 6.5% with less than 1 year, and 3.2% with less 5 years of service, as shown in Table 18.

As for the Employer respondents, the majority were female at 67% and the remaining 33% were male. Most of them were aged between 28 years old to 46 years old (Gen Y) at 70%, followed by 16% within the Gen Z, aging from 27 years and below, and only 13.3% are in the Gen X age group of ages between 47 to 58 years old. In terms of years of employment, a majority of the supervisors/managers have worked with the current company for more than 5 years at 40%, followed by less than 5 years at 16.7%, less than 1 year at 13.3%, less than 4 years and less than 3 years both at 10% respectively, less than 3 years at 6.7% and only 3.3% have worked less than 6 months in the current company. Table 19 presents the demographic data for employer respondents for the pilot test.

Table 19: Pilot Test Demographic Data for Employer

Demographic Profile		Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	10	33
	Female	20	67
Age Group	Baby Boomers (1946-1964)	0	0
	Gen X (1965-1976)	4	13.3
	Gen Y (1977 – 1995)	21	70.0
	Gen Z (1996 - present)	5	16.7
Years of Employment	Less than 6 months	1	3.3
	Less than 1 year	4	13.3
	Less than 2 years	5	16.7
	Less than 3 years	2	6.7
	Less than 4 years	3	10.0
	Less than 5 years	3	10.0
	More than 5 years	12	40.0

4.2.2 Pilot Test - Constructs Reliability

The data collected from the pilot test was analysed to test its reliability as shown in Table 20. All measurements reported a Cronbach alpha of higher than 0.7, indicating that the questions used in the survey questionnaire are reliable (Mitchell, 1996). Thus, all the items from survey questionnaire are excellent measure of the variables and will be used for the research population. Pilot test responses were not included in the final data analysis.

Table 20: Pilot Test Reliability Results

Variables	Cronback Alpha Value	
	Employee	Employer
HR Practices	0.85	0.84
Recruitment and Selection	0.72	0.74
Performance Appraisals	0.70	0.72
Compensation and Recognition	0.97	0.89
Training and Career Development	0.95	0.96
Work-life Balance	0.91	0.93
Psychological Contract Fulfilment	0.85	0.79
Recruitment and Selection	0.96	0.91
Performance Appraisals	0.95	0.93
Compensation and Recognition	0.73	0.78
Training and Career Development	0.96	0.90
Work-life Balance	0.79	0.83
Employee Retention	0.94	0.91

4.3 DATA CODING

Data was coded before analysis was carried out. As the questionnaire for this study contains only structured questions, they are pre-coded by using short names and numbers. The following Table 21 shows the constructs, questions and codes respectively. The constructs for HR Practices and Psychological Contract used a four-point Likert scale, providing scores of (1) referring to "not important", (2) "somewhat not important", (3) "important" and (4) "very important". As for Employee Retention, a four-point Likert scale was used where (1) would be "strongly disagree", (2) "disagree", (3) "agree" and (4) "strongly agree".

Table 21: Data Coding

Construct	Dimension	Question	Code
HR Practices	Recruitment and Selection	1	RS1
		2	RS2
		3	RS3
		4	RS4
		5	RS5
		6	RS6
		7	RS7
		8	RS8
	Performance Appraisals	9	PA1
		10	PA2
		11	PA3
	Compensation and Recognition	12	CR1
		13	CR2
		14	CR3
		15	CR4
		16	CR5
	Training and Career Development	17	TC1
		18	TC2
		19	TC3
		20	TC4
		21	TC5
		22	TC6
		23	TC7
		24	TC8
		25	TC9

	Work-Life Balance	26	WB1
		27	WB2
		28	WB3
		29	WB4
Psychological Contract Fulfilment	Recruitment and Selection	30	PC_RS1
		31	PC_RS2
		32	PC_RS3
		33	PC_RS4
		34	PC_RS5
		35	PC_RS6
		36	PC_RS7
		37	PC_RS8
	Performance Appraisals	38	PC_PA1
		39	PC_PA2
		40	PC_PA3
	Compensation and Recognition	41	PC_CR1
		42	PC_CR2
		43	PC_CR3
		44	PC_CR4
		45	PC_CR5
	Training and Career Development	46	PC_TC1
		47	PC_TC2
		48	PC_TC3
		49	PC_TC4
		50	PC_TC5
		51	PC_TC6
		52	PC_TC7
		53	PC_TC8
		54	PC_TC9
	Work-Life Balance	55	PC_WB1
		56	PC_WB2
		57	PC_WB3
		58	PC_WB4
Employee Retention		59	ER1
		60	ER2
		61	ER3
		62	ER4

For demographic data, re-coding is employed for Gender, Age Group and Years of Employment in numbers, as shown in Table 22 below. In short, data coding and editing allows data computed into more meaningful data by comparison.

Table 22: Data Recoding for Demographics

Demographic Data	Indication	Number
Gender	Male	1
	Female	2
Age Group	Baby Boomers (1946 – 1964)	1
	Gen X (1965 – 1976)	2
	Gen Y (1977 – 1995)	3
	Gen Z (1996 – present)	4
Years of Employment	Less than 6 months	1
	Less than 1 year	2
	Less than 2 years	3
	Less than 3 years	4
	Less than 4 years	5
	Less than 5 years	6
	More than 5 years	7

4.4 PRELIMININARY DATA ANALYSIS

4.4.1 Non-Response Bias Analysis

Based on the time period given to complete the survey questionnaire, the respondents were separated into two categories: "early" and late response group before the non-response bias analysis was carried out. The questionnaires were deployed on 1 June 2022 and given a timeframe of a maximum of 30 days to complete, which is by 30 June 2022. Based on this time period, the first 15 and final 15 respondents for each Employee and Employer respondents were categorized as "Early Response Group" and "Late Response Group" respectively. In other words, 15 employees were categorized as early respondents and remaining 15 employees as late respondents, with the same settings applied to the employer respondents.

The independent samples t-test was then applied to establish the non-response bias. If the p-value is less than 0.05 would indicate that there is a significant difference between the groups which poses non-response bias (Sylvia & Terhaar, 2018).

The following Table 23 shows the independent sample t-test results for Employee respondents which indicates the *p* values of two-tailed tests for all the variables including Gender ($p=0.481$), Age Group ($p=0.285$) and Years of Employment ($p=0.657$), are greater than 0.05. In other words, the results generated for Employee is free from non-response bias and the samples collected are representing the target population.

As for the Employer respondent group, Table 24 indicates that the *p* values of two-tailed tests for all the variables, including Gender ($p=0.285$), Age Group ($p=0.667$) and Years of Employment ($p=0.645$), are greater than 0.05. Hence, the results generated for Employer is also free from non-response bias and the samples collected are representing the target population.

Table 23: Non-Response Bias Results (Employee)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Gender	Equal variances assumed	.413	.526	.714	28	.481	.13333	.18687	-.24945	.51612
	Equal variances not assumed			.714	27.991	.481	.13333	.18687	-.24946	.51613
Age Group	Equal variances assumed	1.544	.224	1.090	28	.285	.20000	.18344	-.17576	.57576
	Equal variances not assumed			1.090	27.911	.285	.20000	.18344	-.17582	.57582
Years of Employment	Equal variances assumed	3.783	.062	-.449	28	.657	-.33333	.74280	-1.85488	1.18822
	Equal variances not assumed			-.449	25.780	.657	-.33333	.74280	-1.86081	1.19414

Table 24: Non-Response Bias Results (Employer)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Gender	Equal variances assumed	1.544	.224	-1.090	28	.285	-.20000	.18344	-.57576	.17576
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.090	27.911	.285	-.20000	.18344	-.57582	.17582
Age Group	Equal variances assumed	.750	.394	-.435	28	.667	-.06667	.15327	-.38063	.24730
	Equal variances not assumed			-.435	27.032	.667	-.06667	.15327	-.38114	.24780
Years of Employment	Equal variances assumed	1.175	.288	.466	28	.645	.20000	.42910	-.67897	1.07897
	Equal variances not assumed			.466	18.009	.647	.20000	.42910	-.70147	1.10147

4.4.2 Common Method Variance Test

The Harman single-factor test is used in this study to estimate the common method variance by using SPSS, and the results for Employee are shown in Table 25. According to Table 25, the cumulative percentage value for extraction sum of squared loadings is 19.849%, which is lower than the threshold value of 50% that suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003) and Eichhorn (2014), As a conclusion, there is no common method variance issue occured in this study.

Table 25: CMV Test - Total Variance Explained (Employee)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	12.306	19.849	19.849	12.306	19.849	19.849
21	.649	1.047	91.138			

22	.618	.997	92.135			
23	.585	.944	93.079			
24	.552	.891	93.969			
25	.437	.704	94.674			
26	.410	.661	95.335			
27	.331	.533	95.869			
28	.327	.528	96.397			
29	.294	.474	96.870			
30	.234	.377	97.248			
31	.216	.348	97.595			
32	.208	.336	97.931			
33	.198	.319	98.250			
34	.182	.293	98.543			
35	.150	.242	98.786			
36	.135	.218	99.004			
37	.116	.186	99.191			
38	.099	.160	99.351			
39	.082	.133	99.483			
40	.073	.117	99.600			
41	.062	.100	99.701			
42	.046	.075	99.775			
43	.041	.065	99.841			
44	.036	.059	99.899			
45	.029	.047	99.946			
46	.019	.031	99.977			
47	.008	.013	99.990			
48	.006	.010	100.000			
49	1.355E-15	2.185E-15	100.000			
50	9.682E-16	1.562E-15	100.000			
51	9.019E-16	1.455E-15	100.000			
52	4.797E-16	7.737E-16	100.000			
53	3.223E-16	5.198E-16	100.000			
54	2.910E-16	4.694E-16	100.000			

55	1.077E-16	1.736E-16	100.000			
56	-6.927E-17	-1.117E-16	100.000			
57	-2.844E-16	-4.586E-16	100.000			
58	-4.565E-16	-7.364E-16	100.000			
59	-6.493E-16	-1.047E-15	100.000			
60	-7.826E-16	-1.262E-15	100.000			
61	-9.778E-16	-1.577E-15	100.000			
62	-1.080E-15	-1.742E-15	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The following Table 26 shows the the Harman single-factor test results for Employer. According to Table 26, the cumulative percentage value for extraction sum of squared loadings is 24.259%, which is lower than the threshold value of 50% that suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003) and Eichhorn (2014), As a conclusion, there is no common method variance issue occured in this study.

Table 26: CMV Test - Total Variance Explained (Employer)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	15.041	24.259	24.259	15.041	24.259	24.259
20						
25						
30						
31	.233	.375	97.533			

32	.205	.331	97.864			
	.197	.318	98.182			
	.161	.259	98.441			
	.148	.239	98.680			
	.127	.204	98.884			
	.109	.177	99.060			
	.101	.163	99.224			
	.083	.135	99.358			
	.077	.125	99.483			
	.067	.107	99.590			
	.060	.097	99.688			
	.050	.080	99.768			
	.043	.070	99.838			
	.036	.058	99.896			
	.024	.039	99.935			
	.020	.033	99.968			
	.014	.023	99.990			
	.006	.010	100.000			
	1.545E-15	2.492E-15	100.000			
	1.018E-15	1.642E-15	100.000			
	9.300E-16	1.500E-15	100.000			
	5.857E-16	9.447E-16	100.000			
	4.535E-16	7.315E-16	100.000			
	2.540E-16	4.097E-16	100.000			
	1.919E-16	3.094E-16	100.000			
	1.021E-16	1.647E-16	100.000			
	-2.449E-17	-3.950E-17	100.000			
	-2.164E-16	-3.490E-16	100.000			
	-3.054E-16	-4.926E-16	100.000			
	-5.006E-16	-8.073E-16	100.000			
	-8.772E-16	-1.415E-15	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

4.4.3 Multicollinearity Analysis

The data is also tested for if there are multicollinearity issues. According to Table 27, the findings of multicollinearity analysis for Employee data are shown with the outcomes of TV for all constructs are ranging from 0.898 to 0.999 whereas the results of VIF values for all constructs are ranging from 1.002 to 1.021. The results of TV for all constructs are greater than 0.1 whereas the results of VIF for all constructs are less than the threshold value of 5 as recommended by Hair et al. (2014). As shown in Table 27, this study is free from multicollinearity issue. This study will analyse the normality distribution in the following section.

Table 27: Multicollinearity Analysis (Employee)

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance Value (TV)	Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)
Employee Retention	HR Practices	0.898	1.002
	Psychological Contract Fulfilment	0.999	1.021

The data from Employer respondents is also tested for if there are multicollinearity issues. According to Table 28, the findings of multicollinearity analysis for Employer data are shown with the outcomes of TV for all constructs are ranging from 0.801 to 0.824 whereas the results of VIF values for all constructs are ranging from 1.213 to 1.248. The results of TV for all constructs are greater than 0.1 whereas the results of VIF for all constructs are less than the threshold value of 5 as recommended by Hair et al. (2014). As shown in Table 28, this study is free from multicollinearity issue. This study will analyse the normality distribution in the following sections.

Table 28:: Multicollinearity Analysis (Employer)

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance Value (TV)	Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)
Employee Retention	HR Practices	0.801	1.248
	Psychological Contract Fulfilment	0.824	1.213

4.4.4 Normality Analysis

According to Malhotra (2020), the skewness and kurtosis of the individual metric variable are evaluated in this study to determine the univariate normality of the data. Table 29 shows the normality analysis for the Employee data. Results shows that the statistical value of skewness for all indicators ranges between -0.990 and 0.107, which are within the range between -2 and +2 as proposed by Schumacker and Lomax (2016). Furthermore, the kurtosis statistic values for all items range from -1.265 to 1.936, which are less than the threshold value of 7 as suggested by West, Finch and Curran (1995). As a result, the data collected in this study fulfilled the univariate normality condition.

Table 29: Univariate Normality Analysis (Employee)

Constructs	Items	Skewness	Kurtosis	Univariate Normality	
		Statistic (S)	Statistic (K)	Yes	No
HR Practices	RS1	-0.990	1.730	✓	
	RS2	-0.370	-0.384	✓	
	RS3	-0.283	-0.160	✓	
	RS4	.107	-.286	✓	
	RS5	-.587	-.556	✓	
	RS6	-.660	.353	✓	
	RS7	-.744	-.608	✓	
	RS8	-.943	-.145	✓	
	PA1	-.405	-.053	✓	
	PA2	.027	-.706	✓	
	PA3	-.533	.130	✓	
	CR1	-.593	1.936	✓	
	CR2	-.774	-.329	✓	
	CR3	-.544	.036	✓	
	CR4	-.905	-.133	✓	
	CR5	-.672	-.453	✓	
	TC1	-.267	-.585	✓	
	TC2	-.528	-.574	✓	
	TC3	-.377	-.651	✓	
	TC4	-.961	.947	✓	
	TC5	-.179	-.561	✓	

	TC6	-.078	-.785	✓	
	TC7	-.395	-.612	✓	
	TC8	-.354	-.726	✓	
	TC9	-.522	-.590	✓	
	WB1	-.587	-.556	✓	
	WB2	-.568	-.156	✓	
	WB3	-.804	-.230	✓	
	WB4	-.507	-.744	✓	
	HR_PRAC	-.625	0.064	✓	
Psychological Contract Fulfilment	PC_RS1	-.126	-.499	✓	
	PC_RS2	-.013	.499	✓	
	PC_RS3	-.026	-.109	✓	
	PC_RS4	-.526	.653	✓	
	PC_RS5	-.094	-.525	✓	
	PC_RS6	.000	-.424	✓	
	PC_RS7	-.403	.075	✓	
	PC_RS8	-.025	-.783	✓	
	PC_PA1	-.336	-.502	✓	
	PC_PA2	-.106	-.048	✓	
	PC_PA3	-.438	-.442	✓	
	PC_CR1	-.390	-.365	✓	
	PC_CR2	-.543	-.367	✓	
	PC_CR3	.057	-.996	✓	
	PC_CR4	-.418	-.659	✓	
	PC_CR5	-.284	-.753	✓	
	PC_TC1	-.531	-.225	✓	
	PC_TC2	-.726	.945	✓	
	PC_TC3	-.768	1.002	✓	
	PC_TC4	-.623	-.180	✓	
	PC_TC5	-.129	-.546	✓	
	PC_TC6	-.456	-.396	✓	
	PC_TC7	-.819	1.835	✓	
	PC_TC8	-.196	-.556	✓	

	PC_TC9	-.288	-.333	✓	
	PC_WB1	-.740	.618	✓	
	PC_WB2	-.160	-.826	✓	
	PC_WB3	-.661	.046	✓	
	PC_WB4	.104	-1.265	✓	
	PC_F	-.591	-.004	✓	
Employee Retention	ER1	-.825	.983	✓	
	ER2	-.951	.211	✓	
	ER3	-.694	1.134	✓	
	ER4	-.536	1.159	✓	
	EMP_RET	-1.147	.793	✓	

Multivariate normality test was also carried out using Mardia's multivariate skewness and kurtosis method (Wulandari, Sutrisno & Nirwana 2021). Therefore, Mardia's multivariate normality test is used in this study to evaluate the multivariate normality test for the variable in this study by using WebPower internet website as recommended by Hair et al. (2017). A b-value of kurtosis less than 3 indicates that the data is normally distributed as suggested by Yuan et al. (2005). As shown in Table 30, the b-value of kurtosis in this study is 2.409751, which is less than the threshold value of 3 which is suggested by Yuan et al. (2005). In summary, the data collected for employees from this study is normally distributed.

Table 30: Multivariate Normality Analysis (Employee)

Mardia's Multivariate Skewness and Kurtosis			
	b	**z**	**p-value**
Skewness	2.409751	20.0812615	0
Kurtosis	15.614168	0.3964439	0

As for the Employer Data, table 31 shows, that the statistical value of skewness for all indicators ranges between -1.238 and 0.165, which are within the range between -2 and +2 as proposed by Schumacker and Lomax (2016). Furthermore, the kurtosis statistic values for all items range from -1.258 to 1.878, which are less than the threshold value of 7 as suggested by West, Finch and Curran (1995). As a result, the data collected in this study fulfilled the univariate normality condition.

Table 31:Univariate Normality Analysis (Employer)

Constructs	Items	Skewness	Kurtosis	Univariate Normality	
		Statistic (S)	Statistic (K)	Yes	No
HR Practices	RS1	-.618	-.644	✓	
	RS2	.165	-.891	✓	
	RS3	-.265	-.414	✓	
	RS4	-.099	-1.043	✓	
	RS5	-1.235	.166	✓	
	RS6	-.989	.196	✓	
	RS7	-.749	-.316	✓	
	RS8	-.628	-1.012	✓	
	PA1	.021	-.724	✓	
	PA2	.093	-.917	✓	
	PA3	-.338	-.537	✓	
	CR1	-.905	-.133	✓	
	CR2	-.293	-1.080	✓	
	CR3	-.601	-.449	✓	
	CR4	-.951	-.238	✓	
	CR5	-.888	-.667	✓	
	TC1	-.125	-1.172	✓	
	TC2	-.354	-1.147	✓	
	TC3	-.373	-1.258	✓	
	TC4	-.397	-.736	✓	
	TC5	-.164	-.325	✓	
	TC6	-.263	-.294	✓	
	TC7	-.452	-.846	✓	
	TC8	-.549	-.421	✓	

	TC9	-.682	-.661	√	
	WB1	-1.021	-.009	√	
	WB2	-.727	-.005	√	
	WB3	-.460	-.700	√	
	WB4	-.376	-1.046	√	
	HR_PRAC	-.508	-.431	√	
Psychological Contract Fulfilment	PC_RS1	-.309	-1.124	√	
	PC_RS2	-.580	.200	√	
	PC_RS3	-.811	.577	√	
	PC_RS4	-.196	-.368	√	
	PC_RS5	-.835	-.457	√	
	PC_RS6	-.377	-.651	√	
	PC_RS7	-1.060	1.408	√	
	PC_RS8	-.672	-.453	√	
	PC_PA1	-.317	-.750	√	
	PC_PA2	-.568	-.156	√	
	PC_PA3	-1.117	1.864	√	
	PC_CR1	-1.012	.981	√	
	PC_CR2	-.642	-.230	√	
	PC_CR3	-.369	-.976	√	
	PC_CR4	-.880	-.343	√	
	PC_CR5	-1.238	1.650	√	
	PC_TC1	-.776	.205	√	
	PC_TC2	-.434	-.662	√	
	PC_TC3	-.794	-.361	√	
	PC_TC4	-.962	.614	√	
	PC_TC5	-.077	-1.247	√	
	PC_TC6	-.346	-.805	√	
	PC_TC7	-.747	-.366	√	
	PC_TC8	-.812	-.003	√	
	PC_TC9	-.654	-.507	√	
	PC_WB1	-.443	1.878	√	
	PC_WB2	-.825	-.260	√	

	PC_WB3	-.696	.309	✓	
	PC_WB4	-1.010	.379	✓	
	PC_F	-.386	-.528	✓	
Employee Retention	ER1	-.046	.756	✓	
	ER2	-.187	.278	✓	
	ER3	-.591	.121	✓	
	ER4	.025	.260	✓	
	EMP_RET	-.572	1.589	✓	

Multivariate normality test was also carried out for employer data as well. As shown in Table 32, the b-value of kurtosis in this study is 2.576202, which is less than the threshold value of 3 which is suggested by Yuan et al. (2005). In summary, the data collected for employers from this study is normally distributed.

Table 32: Multivariate Normality Analysis (Employer)

Mardia's Multivariate Skewness and Kurtosis			
	b	**z**	**p-value**
Skewness	2.576202	21.468354	0
Kurtosis	18.250137	2.097955	0

4.5 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

4.5.1 Respondents Demographic Profile

This section presents the demographic profile of the respondents involved in the current study. The total number of respondents participated in the current research are 100 people creating 50 dyads, where 50 were employee respondents and remaining 50 people were employer respondents, which are their matched direct supervisors/managers.

From the 50 employee respondents, 44% were male and 56% were female. As for their age profile, half of the employee respondents (50%) are in the Gen Z (1996 – present) age group, aging from 27 years old and below, followed by 48% of them in the Gen Y (1977 – 1995) age group, aging between 28 years old to 46 years old, and only 2% of the respondents are in the Gen X (1954-1976) age group, aging between 47 years old to 58 years old. In terms of years of employment with their current company, 34% of the employee respondents have been with their current company for less than 2 years, followed by 16% with less than 6 months, 14% with less than 3 years of employment, 14% with more than 5 years of employment, 12% with less than 1 year, and 6% and 4% with less than 4 years and 5 years of employment respectively. Table 33 presents the demographic data for employee respondents.

Table 33: Demographic Data for Employee

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Demographic Profile</th><th>Frequency</th><th>Percentage (%)</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Gender</td><td>Male</td><td>22</td><td>44.0</td></tr>
<tr><td>Female</td><td>28</td><td>56.0</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="4">Age Group</td><td>Baby Boomers (1946-1964)</td><td>0</td><td>0</td></tr>
<tr><td>Gen X (1965-1976)</td><td>1</td><td>2.0</td></tr>
<tr><td>Gen Y (1977 – 1995)</td><td>24</td><td>48.0</td></tr>
<tr><td>Gen Z (1996 - present)</td><td>25</td><td>50.0</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="7">Years of Employment</td><td>Less than 6 months</td><td>8</td><td>16.0</td></tr>
<tr><td>Less than 1 year</td><td>6</td><td>12.0</td></tr>
<tr><td>Less than 2 years</td><td>17</td><td>34.0</td></tr>
<tr><td>Less than 3 years</td><td>7</td><td>14.0</td></tr>
<tr><td>Less than 4 years</td><td>2</td><td>4.0</td></tr>
<tr><td>Less than 5 years</td><td>3</td><td>6.0</td></tr>
<tr><td>More than 5 years</td><td>7</td><td>14.0</td></tr>
</table>

As for the employer respondents, the majority were female at 60% and the remaining 40% were male. Most of them were aged between 28 years old to 46 years old (Gen Y) at 82%, followed by 6% within the Gen X age group of ages between 47 to 58 years old and only 3% are Gen Z, aging from 27 years and below. In terms of years of employment, a majority of the supervisors/managers have worked with the current company for more than 5 years at 72%, followed by less than 2 years at 14%, less than 5 years at 6%, less than 4 years at 4% and the percentage for respondents at the employer level for those working less than 6 months and less than 3 years are the same at only 2%. Table 34 presents the demographic data for employer respondents.

Table 34: Demographic Data for Employer

Demographic Profile		**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**
Gender	Male	20	40
	Female	30	60
Age Group	Baby Boomers (1946-1964)	0	0
	Gen X (1965-1976)	6	12
	Gen Y (1977 – 1995)	41	82
	Gen Z (1996 - present)	3	6
Years of Employment	Less than 6 months	1	2
	Less than 1 year	0	0
	Less than 2 years	7	14
	Less than 3 years	1	2
	Less than 4 years	2	4
	Less than 5 years	3	6
	More than 5 years	36	72

4.5.2 HR Practices

The HR Practices consists of 5 dimensions, namely Recruitment and Selection (RS), Performance Appraisals (PA), Compensation and Recognition (CR), Training and Career Development (TCD) and Work-life Balance (WLB).

Recruitment and Selection (RS) is measured using items in the questionnaire, which are coded as RS1 to RS5. For Employee, the mean score for every item range between 2.44 and 3.50, while the standard deviation of the score ranges between 0.63888 and 0.77959. For Employer, the mean score for every item range between 2.4200 and 3.5400, while the standard deviation of the score ranges between 0.70595 and 1.01015. The results are tabulated in Table 35 below.

Table 35: Mean and Standard Deviation (RS)

Items	Employee		Employer	
	Mean	**Std. Dev.**	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**
RS1	3.2000	.72843	3.2000	.83299
RS2	2.4400	.76024	2.4200	.97080
RS3	2.6200	.77959	2.8000	.83299
RS4	2.6800	.68333	2.6000	1.01015
RS5	3.4000	.63888	3.5400	.70595
RS6	3.2000	.72843	3.2800	.85809
RS7	3.4000	.69985	3.1800	.87342
RS8	3.5000	.64681	3.3200	.76772

As for Performance Appraisals (PA), the items are coded as PA1 to PA3. For employee, the mean score ranges between 2.6400 and 2.6400, while the standard deviation ranges between 0.78246 and 0.87505. For employer, mean score ranges between 2.7600 and 3.0400, while the standard deviation ranges between 0.78142 and 0.82214. The results are shown in Table 36 below.

Table 36: Mean and Standard Deviation (PA)

Items	**Employee**		**Employer**	
	Mean	**Std. Dev.**	**Mean**	**Std. Dev**
PA1	2.8200	.80026	2.7600	.82214
PA2	2.6400	.87505	2.8200	.80026
PA3	3.0000	.78246	3.0400	.78142

Table 37 below presents the descriptive statistics for Compensation and Recognition (CR) where the items used in the questionnaire are coded from CR1 to CR5. The mean score for every item for employee ranges between 2.9400 and 3.5400, while the standard deviation ranges between 0.61312 and 0.99816. The mean score for every item for employer ranges between 2.9800 and 3.4800, while the standard deviation ranges between 0.61412 and 0.91451.

Table 37: Mean and Standard Deviation (CR)

Items	Employee		Employer	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
CR1	3.5400	.67643	3.5200	.61412
CR2	2.9400	.99816	2.9800	.91451
CR3	3.0200	.79514	3.0400	.90260
CR4	3.5200	.61412	3.4800	.67733
CR5	3.4600	.61312	3.4200	.75835

As for the Training and Career Development (TC) dimension, the items used in the questionnaire are coded as TC1 to TC9, as shown in Table 38. For employee, the mean score for every item range from 2.8600 to 3.4200, whereas the standard deviation for the items are ranged from 0. 60911 to 0.92604. For employer, the mean score for every item range from 2.6200 to 3.2800 whereas the standard deviation for the items are ranged from 0.67128 to 0. 85619.

Table 38: Mean and Standard Deviation (TC)

Items	Employee		Employer	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
TC1	3.2600	.63278	2.9600	.85619
TC2	3.4200	.60911	3.2000	.75593
TC3	3.3000	.64681	3.2000	.78246
TC4	3.3400	.71742	3.2800	.67128
TC5	2.9400	.76692	2.6200	.80534
TC6	2.9000	.78895	2.6800	.81916
TC7	3.3400	.62629	3.2800	.70102
TC8	2.8600	.92604	2.9400	.91272
TC9	3.3800	.63535	3.3800	.69664

As shown in Table 39, the descriptive analysis for Work-life Balance (WB) consists of its mean and standard deviation results. Items coded WB1 to WB4 were used in the questionnaire where the mean score ranges between 3.1600 to 3.4000, while the standard deviation ranges from 0.63888 to 0.80913, for employee. As for employer, the mean score ranges between 2.9800 to 3.5200, while the standard deviation ranges from 0.64650 to 0.91451.

Table 39: Mean and Standard Deviation (WB)

Items	Employee		Employer	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
WB1	3.4000	.63888	3.5200	.64650
WB2	3.1600	.76559	3.2400	.77090
WB3	3.2800	.80913	2.9800	.91451
WB4	3.3200	.68333	3.2200	.73651

4.5.3 Psychological Contract Fulfilment

The Psychological Contract Fulfilment consists of 5 dimensions which is similar to HR Practices, namely Recruitment and Selection (PC_RS), Performance Appraisals (PC_PA), Compensation and Recognition (PC_CR), Training and Career Development (PC_TC) and Work-life Balance (PC_WL).

Recruitment and Selection (PC_RS) is measured using items in the questionnaire, which are coded as PC_RS1 to PC_RS5. For employee, the mean score for every item range between 2.7400 and 3.1400, while the standard deviation of the score ranges between 0.55291 and 0.76265. For employer, the mean score for every item range between 1.6600 and 2.6000, while the standard deviation of the score ranges between 0.53452and 0.82338. The results are tabulated in Table 40 below.

Table 40: Mean and Standard Deviation (PC_RS)

Items	Employee		Employer	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
PC_RS1	3.1400	.63920	2.1800	.74751
PC_RS2	2.9800	.55291	1.8000	.80812
PC_RS3	3.0800	.60068	2.0600	.81841
PC_RS4	2.7400	.66425	1.6600	.82338
PC_RS5	3.1000	.64681	2.6000	.53452
PC_RS6	3.0000	.63888	2.3000	.64681
PC_RS7	2.9000	.76265	2.3800	.69664
PC_RS8	3.0200	.68482	2.4600	.61312

As for Performance Appraisals (PC_PA), the items are coded as PC_PA1 to PC_PA3, of which the mean score ranges between 2.7200 and 2.8000, while the standard deviation ranges between 0.67883and 0.90441 for employee. As for employer, the mean score ranges between 2.0400 and 2.1633, while the standard deviation ranges between 0.76559 and 0.80711. The results are shown in Table 41 below.

Table 41: Mean and Standard Deviation (PC_PA)

Items	**Employee**		**Employer**	
	Mean	**Std. Dev.**	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**
PC_PA1	2.8000	.88063	2.0400	.80711
PC_PA2	2.7800	.67883	2.1600	.76559
PC_PA3	2.7200	.90441	2.1633	.77317

Table 42 below presents the descriptive statistics for Compensation and Recognition (PC_CR) where the items used in the questionnaire are coded from PC_CR1 to PC_CR5. The mean score for every item for employee ranges between 2.4800 and 2.8800, while the standard deviation ranges between 0.84853 and 0.99468. The mean score for every item for employer ranges between 1.9600 and 2.4600, while the standard deviation ranges between 0.67643 and 0.94675.

Table 42: Mean and Standard Deviation (PC_CR)

Items	**Employee**		**Employer**	
	Mean	**Std. Dev.**	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**
PC_CR1	2.8800	.84853	2.3600	.72168
PC_CR2	2.7000	.90914	2.0400	.87970
PC_CR3	2.4800	.99468	1.9600	.94675
PC_CR4	2.7800	.95383	2.4600	.67643
PC_CR5	2.8200	.91896	2.4400	.70450

As for the Training and Career Development (PC_TC) dimension, the items used in the questionnaire are coded as PC_TC1 to PC_TC9, as shown in Table 43. For employee, the mean score for every item range from 2.5400 to 3.2000 whereas the standard deviation for the items are ranged from 0.63888 to 0.90351. For employer, the mean score for every item ranges from 1.9400 to 2.4800 whereas the standard deviation for the items are ranged from 0.61412 to 0.86685.

Table 43: Mean and Standard Deviation (PC_TC)

Items	Employee		Employer	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
PC_TC1	2.9600	.85619	2.1600	.81716
PC_TC2	3.0600	.73983	2.3200	.65278
PC_TC3	2.9200	.75160	2.4600	.64555
PC_TC4	2.8000	.90351	2.3400	.74533
PC_TC5	2.5400	.86213	1.9400	.86685
PC_TC6	2.5400	.83812	2.0600	.81841
PC_TC7	3.0200	.68482	2.4800	.61412
PC_TC8	3.2000	.63888	2.2800	.78350
PC_TC9	2.6200	.83029	2.4200	.64175

As shown in Table 44, the descriptive analysis for Work-life Balance (PC_WB) consists of its mean and standard deviation results. Items coded PC_WB1 to PC_WB4 were used in the questionnaire. For employees, the mean score ranges between 2.9400 to 3.2400, while the standard deviation ranges from 0.68928 to 0.81441. As for employer, the mean score ranges between 2.2200 to 2.5000, while the standard deviation ranges from 0.61445 to 0.77618.

Table 44: Mean and Standard Deviation (PC_WB)

Items	Employee		Employer	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
WB1	3.2400	.71600	2.5000	.70711
WB2	3.1200	.68928	2.5000	.61445
WB3	3.1000	.81441	2.2200	.73651
WB4	2.9400	.76692	2.3600	.77618

4.5.4 Employee Retention

Employee Retention (ER) was measured using 4 items in the questionnaire, which are coded as ER1 to ER4. For employees, the mean score ranges between 2.5600 to 2.8200, while the standard deviation ranges from 0.59556 to 0.70450. As for employer, the mean score ranges between 2.8800 to 3.0800, while the standard deviation ranges from 0.53299 to 0.60474. The results are tabulated in Table 45 below.

Table 45: Mean and Standard Deviation (ER)

Items	Employee		Employer	
	Mean	**Std. Dev.**	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**
ER1	2.7000	.61445	2.9600	.53299
ER2	2.5600	.70450	2.8800	.59385
ER3	2.7800	.64807	3.0400	.60474
ER4	2.8200	.59556	3.0800	.56569

4.5.5 Pearson's Correlation Coefficient Analysis

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient Analysis was carried out to assess the strength and direction of the relationship between two continuous variables (Allen et al., 2019). In this case, the relationships to be tested will be between HR Practices and Psychological Contract Fulfilment, HR Practices to Employee Retention, and Psychological Contract Fulfilment to Employee Retention.

Table 46 below shows the results from the correlation analysis for Employee data. Based on the results shown, all variable correlations are free from multicollinearity and are within the acceptable limit as no variable has a value higher than 0.85 (Hair et al., 2010). Additionally, all variable correlations are positive and statistically significant to reach other. Specifically, HR Practices has correlations with Psychological Contract Fulfilment and Employee Retention ($r = 0.414$ and 0.393; p-value < 0.05); Psychological Contract Fulfilment has positive relationships with Employee Retention ($r = 0.282$; p-value < 0.05).

Table 46: Correlation Analysis (Employee)

		HR_PRAC	PC_F	EMP_RET
HR_PRAC	Pearson Correlation	1	.414**	.393**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.003	.000
	N	50	50	50
PC_F	Pearson Correlation	.414**	1	.282*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003		.047
	N	50	50	50
EMP_RET	Pearson Correlation	.393**	.282*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.047	
	N	50	50	50

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

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

As for Employer data, Table 47 below shows the results from the correlation analysis. Based on the results shown, all variable correlations are free from multicollinearity and are within the acceptable limit as no variable has a value higher than 0.85 (Hair et al., 2010). Additionally, all variable correlations are positive and statistically significant to reach other. Specifically, HR Practices has correlations with Psychological Contract Fulfilment and

Employee Retention (r = 0.562 and 0.281; p-value < 0.05); Psychological Contract Fulfilment has positive relationships with Employee Retention (r = 0.304; p-value < 0.05).

Table 47: Correlation Analysis (Employer)

		HR_PRAC	PC_F	EMP_RET
HR_PRAC	Pearson Correlation	1	.562**	.281*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.048
	N	50	50	50
PC_F	Pearson Correlation	.562**	1	.304*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.032
	N	50	50	50
EMP_RET	Pearson Correlation	.281*	.304*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.048	.032	
	N	50	50	50

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

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

Given to these presented results, all variables are free from multicollinearity problem as all values were lower than the threshold values of 0.85 (Hair et al., 2010). Thus, these variables can proceed to linear regression analysis to determine the effect between the variables.

4.6 MEASUREMENT MODEL ASSESSMENT

4.6.1 Reliability Analysis

Table 48 presents the reliability estimates for the variables of HR Practice (Employee), HR Practice (Employer), Psychological Contract (Employee), Psychological Contract (Employer), Psychological Contract Fulfilment and Employee Retention. The reliability test was conducted using Cronbach Alpha approach. According to Nunnally (1978) and Afthanorhan et al. (2021), the acceptable limit for the Cronbach Alpha is at least 0.70. In this case, it was observed that the value of reliability falls in the rage between 0.663 and 0.924 for Employee and 0.617 to 0.937 for Employer, suggesting that the items representing the variable are reliable and acceptable. Thus, all the items used are excellent measure of the variables.

Table 48: Reliability Results

Variables	Cronback Alpha Value	
	Employee	Employer
HR Practices	0.924	0.937
Recruitment and Selection	0.821	0.885
Performance Appraisals	0.745	0.694
Compensation and Recognition	0.791	0.759
Training and Career Development	0.886	0.873
Work-life Balance	0.819	0.819
Psychological Contract Fulfilment	0.902	0.911
Recruitment and Selection	0.822	0.769
Performance Appraisals	0.663	0.617
Compensation and Recognition	0.900	0.857
Training and Career Development	0.875	0.807
Work-life Balance	0.753	0.848
Employee Retention	0.919	0.918

4.6.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

As previously explained in Chapter 3, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) is used since the current research adapted items from previous research to fit the current research.

4.6.2.1 EFA for HR Practices (Employee)

The HR practice variable was measured initially by 5 dimensions, namely Recruitment and Selection, Performance Appraisal, Compensation and Recognition, Training and Career Development, and Work-Life Balance, amounting to a total of 29 items in the questionnaire. These items used an interval score from 1 (not important) to 4 (very important).

The EFA used the extraction method of Principal Component with Varimax Rotation, where the factor was set to 5, as there are 5 dimensions of the HR practices. The EFA results in Table 49 indicates the Barlett's Test of Sphericity was significant (Chi-Square = 1123.833; df = 406; p-value = 0.000), as well as the Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measuring the sampling adequacy 0.763, which also exceeded the required value of 0.6 (Hair et al., 2010). These results indicate that the data was adequate to proceed to further testing in EFA (Suhr, 2005).

Table 49: KMO and Barlett's Test for HR Practice (Employee)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.763
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1123.833
	df	406
	Sig.	.000

The following Table 50 presents the total variance explained for psychological contract for employer, after performing the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Varimax rotation. The results demonstrate that the PCA method has extracted 5 components from the HR practice variable with eigenvalues higher than the value of 1.0. The total variance explained 67.542%, which is higher than the threshold value of 60% therefore the internal validity for this variable is verified (Hair et al., 2017).

__Table 50: Total Variance Explained for HR practice (Employee)__

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	10.777	37.164	37.164	10.777	37.164	37.164	6.010	20.725	20.725
2	2.926	10.090	47.253	2.926	10.090	47.253	4.823	16.633	37.357
3	2.137	7.369	54.622	2.137	7.369	54.622	3.809	13.134	50.491
4	2.017	6.956	61.578	2.017	6.956	61.578	2.704	9.325	59.816
5	1.730	5.964	67.542	1.730	5.964	67.542	2.240	7.726	67.542
6	1.468	5.063	72.605						
7	1.051	3.623	76.228						
8	.917	3.162	79.390						
9	.865	2.983	82.373						
10	.701	2.417	84.790						
11	.643	2.216	87.006						
12	.582	2.007	89.014						
13	.507	1.747	90.761						
14	.402	1.385	92.146						
15	.337	1.162	93.308						
16	.306	1.056	94.364						
17	.263	.906	95.270						
18	.261	.900	96.169						
19	.214	.737	96.907						
20	.166	.572	97.479						
21	.152	.523	98.003						
22	.120	.414	98.416						
23	.110	.378	98.795						
24	.098	.337	99.131						
25	.069	.239	99.371						
26	.059	.205	99.576						
27	.051	.175	99.750						
28	.039	.134	99.884						
29	.034	.116	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The rotated component matrix results for HR practice presented in the Table 51 shows that the 29 items collapse neatly into each component of the HR Practice. All items have factor loadings higher than 0.5, which is the acceptable limit recommended by (Hair et al., 2010). Given to this result, all items under HR practices were retained and are suitable for further testing.

Table 51: Rotated Component Matrix[a] for HR Practice (Employee)

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
RS1				.627	
RS2				.701	
RS3				.636	
RS4				.748	
RS5				.784	
RS6				.558	
RS7				.869	
RS8				.791	
PA1					.564
PA2					.717
PA3					.565
CR1			.577		
CR2			.768		
CR3			.821		
CR4			.548		
CR5			.549		
TC1	.655				
TC2	.705				
TC3	.682				
TC4	.726				
TC5	.828				
TC6	.757				
TC7	.788				
TC8	.691				.
TC9	.670				
WB1		.523			
WB2		.575			
WB3		.691			
WB4		.488			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 9 iterations.

4.6.2.2 EFA for HR Practices (Employer)

The HR practice variable for employer was also measured initially by 5 dimensions, namely Recruitment and Selection, Performance Appraisal, Compensation and Recognition, Training and Career Development, and Work-Life Balance, amounting to a total of 29 items in the questionnaire. These items used an interval score from 1 (not important) to 4 (very important).

The EFA used the extraction method of Principal Component with Varimax Rotation, where the factor was set to 5, as there are 5 dimensions of the HR practices. The EFA results in Table 52 indicates the Barlett's Test of Sphericity was significant (Chi-Square = 1156.256, df = 406, p-value = 0.000), as well as the Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measuring the sampling adequacy 0.686, which also exceeded the required value of 0.6 (Kline, 1994; Hair et al., 2017; Afthanorhan et al., 2020). These results indicate that the data was adequate to proceed to further testing in EFA (Suhr, 2005)

Table 52: KMO and Barlett's Test for HR Practice (Employer)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.686
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1156.256
	df	406
	Sig.	.000

The following Table 53 presents the total variance explained for psychological contract for employer, after performing the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Varimax rotation. The results demonstrate that the PCA method has extracted 5 components from the HR practice variable with eigenvalues higher than the value of 1.0. The total variance explained is 67.924%, which is higher than the threshold value of 60% therefore the internal validity for this variable is verified (Hair et al., 2017).

Table 53: Total Variance Explained for HR Practice (Employer)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	11.404	39.325	39.325	11.404	39.325	39.325	6.532	22.525	22.525
2	2.665	9.190	48.514	2.665	9.190	48.514	4.393	15.149	37.674
3	2.275	7.846	56.361	2.275	7.846	56.361	3.706	12.779	50.453
4	1.839	6.342	62.703	1.839	6.342	62.703	2.953	10.183	60.636
5	1.514	5.222	67.924	1.514	5.222	67.924	2.114	7.288	67.924
6	1.146	3.953	71.877						
7	1.064	3.670	75.548						
8	.781	2.692	78.239						
9	.761	2.623	80.862						
10	.729	2.512	83.374						
11	.633	2.182	85.556						
12	.601	2.073	87.629						
13	.578	1.995	89.624						
14	.477	1.643	91.267						
15	.416	1.435	92.702						
16	.338	1.166	93.867						
17	.304	1.049	94.916						
18	.283	.975	95.892						
19	.256	.882	96.773						
20	.221	.761	97.535						
21	.172	.592	98.127						
22	.131	.450	98.577						
23	.103	.356	98.933						
24	.089	.307	99.240						
25	.086	.296	99.536						
26	.056	.194	99.730						
27	.043	.149	99.879						
28	.022	.076	99.955						
29	.013	.045	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The rotated component matrix results for HR practice presented in the following Table 54 shows that the 29 items collapse neatly into each component of the HR practice. All items have factor loadings higher than 0.5, which is the acceptable limit recommended by (Hair et al., 2010). Given to this result, all items under HR practices were retained and are suitable for further testing.

Table 54: Rotated Component Matrix[a] for HR Practice (Employer)

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
RS1	.781				
RS2	.622				
RS3	.664				
RS4	.576				
RS5	.701				
RS6	.761				
RS7	.689				
RS8	.722				
PA1		.558			
PA2		.704			
PA3		.686			
CR1					.604
CR2					.686
CR3					.809
CR4					.526
CR5					.535
TC1				.771	
TC2				.724	
TC3				.713	
TC4				.662	
TC5				.769	
TC6				.713	
TC7				.663	
TC8				.722	
TC9				.587	
WB1			.717		
WB2			.776		
WB3			.772		
WB4			.723		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 9 iterations.

4.6.2.3 EFA for Psychological Contract Fulfilment (Employee)

The Psychological Contract Fulfilment variable was measured with the similar dimensions of the HR practices, namely Recruitment and Selection, Performance Appraisal, Compensation and Recognition, Training and Career Development, and Work-Life Balance, amounting to a total of 29 items in the questionnaire. These items used an interval score from 1 (not provided at all) to 4 (greatly).

The EFA used the extraction method of Principal Component with Varimax Rotation, where the factor was set to 5, as there are 5 dimensions of the Psychological Contract. The EFA results in Table 55 indicates the Barletts's Test of Sphericity was significant (Chi-Square = 1087.210, df = 406, p-value = 0.000), as well as the Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measuring the sampling adequacy 0.763, which also exceeded the required value of 0.6 (Kline, 1994; Hair et al., 2017; Afthanorhan et al., 2020). These results indicate that the data was adequate to proceed to further testing in EFA (Suhr, 2005)

Table 55: KMO and Barlett's Test for Psychological Contract Fulfilment (Employee)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.763
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1087.210
	df	406
	Sig.	.000

The following Table 56 presents the total variance explained for psychological contract for employer, after performing the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Varimax rotation. The results demonstrate that the PCA method has extracted 5 components from the psychological contract fulfilment variable with eigenvalues higher than the value of 1.0. The total variance explained 62.251%, which is higher than the threshold value of 60% therefore the internal validity for this variable is verified (Hair et al., 2017).

Table 56: Total Variance Explained for Psychological Contract Fulfilment (Employee)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.361	28.831	28.831	8.361	28.831	28.831	5.124	17.670	17.670
2	3.321	11.451	40.281	3.321	11.451	40.281	4.292	14.799	32.469
3	2.556	8.812	49.094	2.556	8.812	49.094	3.970	13.689	46.158
4	2.240	7.724	56.818	2.240	7.724	56.818	2.335	8.052	54.210
5	1.576	5.433	62.251	1.576	5.433	62.251	2.332	8.041	62.251
6	1.478	5.096	67.348						
7	1.350	4.656	72.004						
8	1.155	3.984	75.988						
9	1.004	3.461	79.449						
10	.881	3.040	82.489						
11	.806	2.781	85.269						
12	.758	2.615	87.885						
13	.541	1.866	89.751						
14	.401	1.382	91.133						
15	.372	1.282	92.416						
16	.362	1.248	93.663						
17	.331	1.142	94.805						
18	.302	1.042	95.847						
19	.233	.805	96.652						
20	.223	.767	97.419						
21	.205	.707	98.126						
22	.150	.517	98.643						
23	.102	.352	98.995						
24	.084	.290	99.285						
25	.077	.266	99.551						
26	.063	.216	99.767						
27	.035	.122	99.889						
28	.018	.062	99.951						
29	.014	.049	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The rotated component matrix results for Psychological Contract Fulfilment presented in the following Table 57 shows that the 29 items collapse neatly into each component of the psychological contract fulfilment. All items have factor loadings higher than 0.5, which is the acceptable limit recommended by (Hair et al., 2010). Given to this result, all items under Psychological Contract Fulfilment were retained and are suitable for further testing.

Table 57: Rotated Component Matrix[a] for Psychological Contract Fulfilment (Employee)

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
PC_RS1			.589		
PC_RS2			.625		
PC_RS3			.538		
PC_RS4			.642		
PC_RS5			.787		
PC_RS6			.806		
PC_RS7			.819		
PC_RS8			.740		
PC_PA1					.614
PC_PA2					.783
PC_PA3					.543
PA_CR1		.805			
PA_CR2		.753			
PA_CR3		.859			
PC_CR4		.833			
PC_CR5		.737			
PC_TC1	.735				
PC_TC2	.780				
PC_TC3	.782				
PC_TC4	.770				
PC_TC5	.627				
PC_TC6	.687				
PC_TC7	.731				
PC_TC8	.601				
PC_TC9	.578				
PC_WB1				.573	
PC_WB2				.662	
PC_WB3				.548	
PC_WB4				.772	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

4.6.2.4 EFA for Psychological Contract Fulfilment (Employer)

The Psychological Contract Fulfilment variable for employer was also measured by 5 dimensions, namely Recruitment and Selection, Performance Appraisal, Compensation and Recognition, Training and Career Development, and Work-Life Balance, amounting to a total of 29 items in the questionnaire. These items used an interval score from 1 (not provided at all) to 4 (greatly).

The EFA used the extraction method of Principal Component with Varimax Rotation, where the factor was set to 5, as there are 5 dimensions of the Psychological Contract. The EFA results in Table 58 indicates the Barlett's Test of Sphericity was significant (Chi-Square = 1055.655, df = 406, p-value = 0.000), as well as the Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measuring the sampling adequacy 0.689, which also exceeded the required value of 0.6 (Kline, 1994; Hair et al., 2017; Afthanorhan et al., 2020). These results indicate that the data was adequate to proceed to further testing in EFA (Suhr, 2005)

Table 58: KMO and Barlett's Test for Psychological Contract Fulfilment (Employer)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.689
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1055.655
	df	406
	Sig.	.000

The following table 59 presents the total variance explained for Psychological Contract for employer, after performing the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Varimax roatation. The results demonstrate that the PCA method has extracted 5 components from the HR practice variable with eigenvalues higher than the value of 1.0. The total variance explained is 64.960%, which is higher than the threshold value of 60% therefore the internal validity for this variable is verified (Hair et al., 2017).

The rotated component matrix results for Psychological Contract Fulfilment for employer presented in the following Table 60 shows that the 29 items collapse neatly into each component of the Psychological Contract Fulfilment. All items have factor loadings higher than 0.5, which is the acceptable limit recommended by (Hair et al., 2010). Given to this result, all items under Psychological Contract Fulfilment were retained and are suitable for further testing.

Table 59: Total Variance Explained for Psychological Contract Fulfilment (Employer)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.564	32.980	32.980	9.564	32.980	32.980	4.623	15.943	15.943
2	2.726	9.398	42.378	2.726	9.398	42.378	3.910	13.483	29.426
3	2.395	8.260	50.639	2.395	8.260	50.639	3.773	13.009	42.436
4	2.193	7.562	58.201	2.193	7.562	58.201	3.524	12.152	54.588
5	1.960	6.759	64.960	1.960	6.759	64.960	3.008	10.372	64.960
6	1.564	5.393	70.352						
7	1.180	4.068	74.421						
8	1.010	3.484	77.905						
9	.868	2.993	80.898						
10	.821	2.831	83.729						
11	.721	2.485	86.214						
12	.566	1.952	88.166						
13	.547	1.885	90.052						
14	.469	1.616	91.667						
15	.395	1.362	93.029						
16	.330	1.138	94.168						
17	.290	1.001	95.169						
18	.241	.833	96.001						
19	.216	.743	96.745						
20	.194	.667	97.412						
21	.173	.596	98.009						
22	.136	.467	98.476						
23	.112	.385	98.861						
24	.100	.345	99.205						
25	.069	.239	99.444						
26	.052	.178	99.622						
27	.046	.158	99.780						
28	.038	.131	99.912						
29	.026	.088	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 60: Rotated Component Matrix[a] for Psychological Contract Fulfilment (Employer)

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
PC_RS1	.727				
PC_RS2	.516				
PC_RS3	.544				
PC_RS4	.588				
PC_RS5	.877				
PC_RS6	.808				
PC_RS7	.666				
PC_RS8	.770				
PC_PA1			.634		
PC_PA2			.554		
PC_PA3			.578		
PA_CR1				.632	
PA_CR2				.808	
PA_CR3				.860	
PC_CR4				.499	
PC_CR5				.539	
PC_TC1					.570
PC_TC2					.844
PC_TC3					.892
PC_TC4					.680
PC_TC5					.634
PC_TC6					.792
PC_TC7					.598
PC_TC8					.736
PC_TC9					.595
PC_WB1		.761			
PC_WB2		.740			
PC_WB3		.846			
PC_WB4		.838			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 9 iterations

4.6.2.5 EFA for Employee Retention (Employee)

The Employee Retention variable for employee was measured using 4 items. These items have an interval score from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). The EFA using the extraction method of Principal Component with Varimax Rotation was conducted on the 4 items. The results in Table 61 indicates the Barlett's Test of Sphericity was significant (Chi-Square = 152.008, df = 6, p-value = 0.000), as well as the Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measuring the sampling adequacy 0.804, which also exceeded the required value of 0.6 (Kline, 1994; Hair et al., 2017; Afthanorhan et al., 2020). These results indicate that the data was adequate to proceed to further testing in EFA (Suhr, 2005)

Table 61: KMO and Barlett's Test for Employee Retention (Employee)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.804
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	152.008
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

The following Table 62 presents the total variance explained for Employee Retention, after performing the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Varimax roatation. The results demonstrate that the PCA method has extracted 1 component from the Employee Retention variable with eigenvalues higher than the value of 1.0. The total variance explained is 80.978%, which is higher than the threshold value of 60% therefore the internal validity for this variable is verified (Hair et al., 2017).

Table 62: Total Variance Explained for Employee Retention (Employee)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.239	80.978	80.978	3.239	80.978	80.978
2	.413	10.329	91.307			
3	.207	5.186	96.493			
4	.140	3.507	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

In this case, the rotated component matrix results for Employee Retention could not be presented as there was only one component extracted. The following Table 63 presents the Component matrix results indicating the factor loading for each item. All items have factor loadings higher than 0.5, which is the acceptable limit recommended by (Hair et al., 2010). Given to this result, all items under Employee Retention were retained and are suitable for further testing.

Table 63: Component Matrix[a] for Employee Retention (Employee)

	Component
	1
ER1	.937
ER2	.869
ER3	.912
ER4	.880

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a. 1 components extracted.

4.6.2.6 EFA for Employee Retention (Employer)

The Employee Retention variable for employer was measured using 4 items. These items have an interval score from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). The EFA using the extraction method of Principal Component with Varimax Rotation was conducted on the 4 items. The results in Table 64 indicates the Barlett's Test of Sphericity was significant (Chi-Square = 144.025, df = 6, p-value = 0.000), as well as the Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measuring the sampling adequacy 0.815, which also exceeded the required value of 0.6 (Kline, 1994; Hair et al., 2017; Afthanorhan et al., 2020). These results indicate that the data was adequate to proceed to further testing in EFA (Suhr, 2005)

Table 64: KMO and Barlett's Test for Employee Retention (Employer)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.815
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	144.025
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

The following Table 65 presents the total variance explained for Employee Retention, after performing the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Varimax roatation. The results demonstrate that the PCA method has extracted 1 component from the Employee Retention variable with eigenvalues higher than the value of 1.0. The total variance explained is 80.430%, which is higher than the threshold value of 60% therefore the internal validity for this variable is verified (Hair et al., 2017).

Table 65: Total Variance Explained for Employee Retention (Employer)

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.217	80.430	80.430	3.217	80.430	80.430
2	.404	10.099	90.529			
3	.208	5.202	95.731			
4	.171	4.269	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

In this case, the rotated component matrix results for Employee Retention could not be presented as there was only one component extracted. The following Table 66 presents the Component matrix results indicating the factor loading for each item. All items have factor loadings higher than 0.5, which is the acceptable limit recommended by (Hair et al., 2010). Given to this result, all items under Employee Retention were retained and are suitable for further testing.

Table 66: Component Matrixa for Employee Retention (Employer)

	Component
	1
ER1	.915
ER2	.997
ER3	.916
ER4	.858

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

4.6.3 Validity Analysis

Based on factor analyses explained in sections 4.6.2.1 to 4.6.2.6, the following Table 67 summarizes the internal validity results for the respective variables. Based on the results, the total variance for each variable is higher than the threshold value of 60%, therefore verifying its internal validity (Hair et al., 2017).

Table 67: Validity Results

Variable	**Total Variance (%)**	
	Employee	**Employer**
HR Practices	67.542	67.924
Psychological Contract Fulfilment	62.251	64.960
Employee Retention	80.978	80.430

4.7 TEST OF DIFFERENCES

Independent Sample t-test was conducted to compare the significant difference between the perceptions of the employee and employer towards HR Practice, Psychological Contract Fulfilment and Employee Retention (Cohen et al., 2007).

4.7.1 Independent Sample T-Test for HR practices

An independent sample t-test was used to compare the difference of perceptions regarding HR practices between employee ($n = 50$) and employer ($n = 50$) respondents. Levene's test was also found to be non-significant. The assumption of homogeneity of variance has not been violated. Thus, equal variances can be assumed. The t-test was statistically not significant, with the Employee group ($M = 3.1476$, $SD = 0.41421$) with slightly higher score of 0.0467, 95% CI [-0.13136, 0.22654], than the Employer group ($M = 3.1000$, $SD = 0.48478$), $t(98) = 0.528$, $p > 0.05$, two-tailed, as shown in Table 69. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 is rejected, where the perceptions between employee and employer regarding HR practice are not different. This may indicate that both the employee and employer may have similar perceptions in terms of the level of importance held regarding HR practices.

Table 68: Group Statistics (HR Practices)

	CATEGORY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
HR_PRAC	EMPLOYEE	50	3.1476	.41421	.05858
	EMPLOYER	50	3.1000	.48478	.06856

Table 69: Independent Sample T-Test (HR Practices)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper
HR_PRAC	Equal variances assumed	1.726	.192	.528	98	.599	.04759	.09017	-.13136	.22654
	Equal variances not assumed			.528	95.671	.599	.04759	.09017	-.13142	.22659

Another independent sample t-test was carried out to compare the difference of perceptions between employee (n=50) and employer (n=50) regarding the dimensions of HR practices, namely *performance appraisals, compensation and recognition, training and career development,* and *work-life balance*. Table 71 shows the results of the test. Levene's test was found to be non-significant for all dimensions. The assumption of homogeneity of variance has not been violated. Table 71 also indicates that there is no statistical significance difference between the perceptions of the employee and employer towards the dimensions of the HR practice, namely recruitment and selection (p = 0.912), performance appraisals (p = 0.682), compensation and recognition (p = 0.943), training and career development (p = 0.214), and work-life balance (p = 0.680). This again indicates that there is some mutual understanding between the employee and employer on the level of importance placed on these dimensions of HR practices.

Table 70: Group Statistics (Dimensions of HR Practices)

	CATEGORY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
HR_RS	EMPLOYEE	50	3.0550	.47256	.06683
	EMPLOYER	50	3.0425	.64117	.09068
HR_PA	EMPLOYEE	50	2.8200	.66738	.09438
	EMPLOYER	50	2.8733	.63134	.08929
HR_CR	EMPLOYEE	50	3.2960	.55584	.07861
	EMPLOYER	50	3.2880	.55866	.07901
HR_TC	EMPLOYEE	50	3.1933	.51572	.07293
	EMPLOYER	50	3.0600	.54995	.07778
HR_WB	EMPLOYEE	50	3.2900	.58545	.08280
	EMPLOYER	50	3.2400	.62262	.08805

Table 71: Independent Sample T-Test (Dimensions of HR Practices)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
HR_RS	Equal variances assumed	.060	.806	.527	98	.912	.01250	.11264	-.21104	.23604
	Equal variances not assumed			.533	96.491	.912	.01250	.11264	-.21128	.23628
HR_PA	Equal variances assumed	.016	.900	-.411	98	.682	-.05333	.12992	-.31116	.20449
	Equal variances not assumed			-.411	97.700	.682	-.05333	.12992	-.31117	.20450
HR_CR	Equal variances assumed	.000	.991	.072	98	.943	.00800	.11145	-.21317	.22917
	Equal variances not assumed			.072	97.998	.943	.00800	.11145	-.21317	.22917
HR_TC	Equal variances assumed	.005	.944	1.251	98	.214	.13333	.10662	-.07826	.34492
	Equal variances not assumed			1.251	97.598	.214	.13333	.10662	-.07827	.34493
HR_WB	Equal variances assumed	.515	.475	.414	98	.680	.05000	.12086	-.18985	.28985
	Equal variances not assumed			.414	97.631	.680	.05000	.12086	-.18986	.28986

4.7.2 Independent Sample T-Test for Psychological Contract

An independent sample t-test was used to compare the difference of perceptions regarding Psychological Contract between employee (n = 50) and employer (n = 50) respondents. Levene's test was also found to be non-significant. The assumption of homogeneity of variance has not been violated. Thus, equal variances can be assumed. The t-test was statistically significant, with the Employee group (M = 2.8890, SD = 0.40775) with slightly lower score of 0.275, 95% CI [-0.51835, -0.19454], than the Employer group (M = 3.2454, SD = 0.40812), t(98) = - 4.369, p = 0.000, two-tailed, as shown in Table 71 Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is accepted, where the perceptions between employee and employer regarding the psychological contract is different. This may indicate that what is perceived to be provided by the employer is different from what is perceived to be received by the employee.

Table 72: Group Statistics (Psychological Contract)

	CATEGORY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PC_F	EMPLOYEE	50	2.8890	.40775	.05766
	EMPLOYER	50	3.2454	.40812	.05772

Table 73: Independent Sample T-Test (Psychological Contract)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
PC_F	Equal variances assumed	.047	.829	-4.369	98	.000	-.35644	.08159	-.51835	-.19454
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.369	98.000	.000	-.35644	.08159	-.51835	-.19454

Another independent sample t-test was carried out to compare the difference of perceptions between employee (n=50) and employer (n=50) regarding the contents of the Psychological Contract, namely in terms of *performance appraisals, compensation and recognition, training and career development,* and *work-life balance*. Table 75 shows the results of the test. Levene's test was found to be significant for all dimensions. The assumption of homogeneity of variance has not been violated. Table 75 also indicates that there are statistical significances difference between the perceptions of the employee and employer towards the contents of the Psychological Contract, namely recruitment and selection (p = 0.038), performance appraisals (p = 0.005), compensation and recognition (p = 0.000), training and career development (p = 0.000), and work-life balance (p = 0.012). This again indicates This may indicate that what is perceived to be provided by the employer is different from what is perceived to be received by the employee, for all dimensions of the psychological contract.

Table 74: Group Statistics (Content of Psychological Contract)

	CATEGORY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PC_RS	EMPLOYEE	50	2.9950	.43445	.06144
	EMPLOYER	50	3.1800	.44404	.06280
PC_PA	EMPLOYEE	50	2.7667	.63976	.09048
	EMPLOYER	50	3.1267	.62774	.08878
PC_CR	EMPLOYEE	50	2.7320	.78310	.11075
	EMPLOYER	50	3.2520	.63221	.08941
PC_TC	EMPLOYEE	50	2.8511	.56102	.07934
	EMPLOYER	50	3.2733	.46180	.06531
PC_WB	EMPLOYEE	50	3.1000	.56695	.08018
	EMPLOYER	50	3.3950	.58921	.08333

Table 75: Table 73: Independent Sample T-Test (Contents of Psychological Contract)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
PC_RS	Equal variances assumed	.954	.331	-2.106	98	.038	-.18500	.08785	-.35934	-.01066
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.106	97.953	.038	-.18500	.08785	-.35934	-.01066
PC_PA	Equal variances assumed	.002	.962	-2.840	98	.005	-.36000	.12676	-.61154	-.10846
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.840	97.965	.005	-.36000	.12676	-.61154	-.10846
PC_CR	Equal variances assumed	2.335	.130	-3.653	98	.000	-.52000	.14233	-.80245	-.23755
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.653	93.830	.000	-.52000	.14233	-.80261	-.23739
PC_TC	Equal variances assumed	.453	.502	-4.109	98	.000	-.42222	.10276	-.62615	-.21829
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.109	94.508	.000	-.42222	.10276	-.62624	-.21820
PC_WB	Equal variances assumed	.776	.381	-2.551	98	.012	-.29500	.11564	-.52448	-.06552
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.551	97.855	.012	-.29500	.11564	-.52448	-.06552

4.7.3 Independent Sample T-Test for Employee Retention

An independent sample t-test was used to compare the difference of perspectives regarding Employee Retention between employee (n = 50) and employer (n = 50) respondents. Levene's test was also found to be non-significant. The assumption of homogeneity of variance has not been violated. Thus, equal variances can be assumed. The t-test was statistically significant, with the Employee group (M = 2.7150, SD = 0.57590) with slightly lower score of 0.275, 95% CI [-0.49182, - 0.05818], than the Employer group (M = 2.9900, SD = 0.51498), t(98) = 11.455, p = 0.013, two-tailed, as shown in Table 77. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 is accepted, where the perceptions between employee and employer regarding employee retention is different.

Table 76: Group Statistics (Employee Retention)

	CATEGORY	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
EMP_RET	EMPLOYEE	50	2.7150	.57590	.08144
	EMPLOYER	50	2.9900	.51498	.07283

Table 77: Independents Sample T-Test (Employee Retention)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
EMP_RET	Equal variances assumed	.649	.422	11.455	98	.013	-.27500	.10926	-.49182	-.05818
	Equal variances not assumed			12.033	96.800	.013	-.27500	.10926	-.49185	-.05815

4.8 TEST OF RELATIONSHIP

4.8.1 Regression Analysis

As a recapitalization, Figure 3 below shows the conceptual framework for the current study.

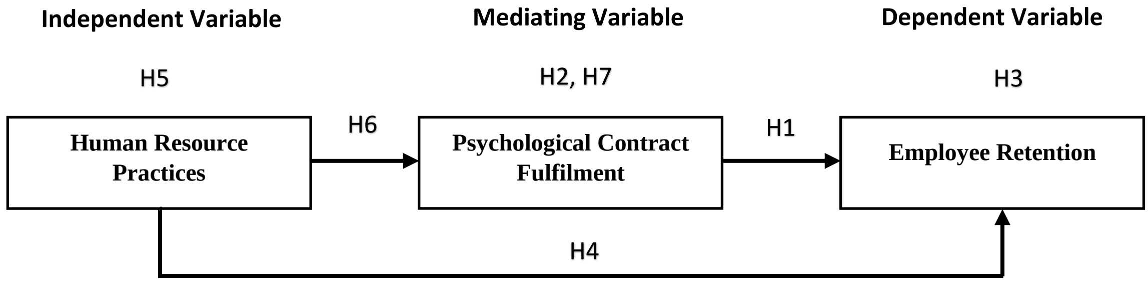

Figure 3: Conceptual Framework

To test the relationship between the variables, the linear regression analysis is conducted (Bertani et al., 2018).

Additionally, the following are the hypotheses tested in the conceptual framework.

H1: Psychological contract fulfilment is positively related to employee retention.

H2: The perceptions between employee and employer regarding the psychological contract is different.

H3: The perceptions between employee and employer regarding employee retention is different.

H4: HR practices are positively related to employee retention.

H5: The perceptions between employee and employer regarding HR practice is different.

H6: HR practices are positively related to psychological contract fulfilment.

H7: Psychological contract fulfilment will partially mediate the relationship between HR practice and employee retention.

4.8.1.1 HR Practices to Psychological Contract Fulfilment (Employee)

A simple or bivariate linear regression was carried out to determine the relationship between HR Practices and Psychological Contract Fulfilment for employees.

Table 78 presents the summary of the model for Employee. In this table, the findings reveal that the R square value is 0.149 or 14.9% variation in Psychological Contract Fulfilment variable due to the explanatory variable of HR Practice. Additionally, 85.1% of the rest variation could be explained by other potential predictor for the present study.

Table 78: Model Summary of HR Practices to Psychological Contract Fulfilment (Employee)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.387[a]	.149	.132	.40483

a. Predictors: (Constant), HR_PRAC

Table 79 presents the path coefficient results for the model after executing the regression analysis. The findings reveal that the HR Practice has a positive and significant effect with Psychological Contact Fulfilment (β = 0.355, p-value <0.001). Hence, Hypothesis 6 is accepted, where HR Practices are positively related to Psychological Contract Fulfilment.

Table 79: Path Coefficients[a] Results of HR Practices to Psychological Contract Fulfilment (Employee)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.909	.378		5.048	.000
	HR_PRAC	.355	.122	.387	2.904	.006

a. Dependent Variable: PC_F

4.8.1.2 HR Practice and Psychological Contract Fulfilment to Employee Retention (Employee)

A multiple regression was carried out to determine the relationship between HR Practice and Psychological Contract Fulfilment towards Employee Retention for employees.

Table 80 presents the summary of the model for Employee. In this table, the findings reveal that the R square value is 0.200 or 20.0% variation in Employee Retention variable due to the explanatory variable of the combination of HR Practice and Psychological Contract Fulfilment. Additionally, 80.0% of the rest variation could be explained by other potential predictor for the present study.

Table 80: Model Summary of HR Practice and Psychological Contract Fulfilment to Employee Retention (Employee)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.447[a]	.200	.166	.52595

a. Predictors: (Constant), HR_PRAC, PC_F

Table 81 presents the path coefficient results for the model after executing the regression analysis. The findings reveal that the HR Practice has a negative and non-significant effect with Employee Retention (β = - 0.285, p-value > 0.05). However, Psychological Contract Fulfilment has a positive and significant effect with Employee Retention (β = 0.236, p-value = 0.019) Hence, Hypothesis 1 is accepted, where Psychological Contract Fulfilment are positively related to Employee Retention. However, Hypothesis 4 is rejected, where HR practices are not positively related to employee retention.

Table 81: Path Coefficients[a] Results of HR Practice and Psychological Contract Fulfilment to Employee Retention (Employee)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.010	.553		5.440	.000
	HR_PRAC	-.285	.136	-.275	-2.091	.062
	PC_F	.236	.097	.320	2.437	.019

a. Dependent Variable: EMP_RET

4.8.1.3 Mediating effect of Psychological Contract Fulfilment towards the relationship between HR practices and Employee Retention (Employee)

The current study assessed the mediating role of Psychological Contract Fulfilment on the relationship between HR Practices and Employee Retention using PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2022). Model Number 4 was selected to determine the model with a mediator variable and the resampling and confidence level was set at 10,000 and 95% respectively. The following is the output from the analysis.

```
Run MATRIX procedure:

***************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.2 ****************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.       www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2022). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**************************************************************************
Model  : 4
    Y  : EMP_RET
    X  : HR_PRAC
    M  : PC_F

Sample
Size:  50

**************************************************************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 PC_F

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      .3931      .1545      .1681     3.9094     1.0000    48.0000      .0001

Model
             coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant    1.5462      .3617     4.2742      .0000      .8283     2.2640
HR_PRAC      .4941      .1168     4.2319      .0001      .2624      .7258

**************************************************************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 EMP_RET

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      .2744      .0753      .2968     3.9489     2.0000    47.0000      .0225

Model
             coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant    1.7542      .5236     3.3503      .0012      .7150     2.7933
HR_PRAC      .0166      .1687      .0981      .9220     -.3183      .3515
PC_F         .3415      .1342     2.5439      .0125      .0751      .6079

************************** TOTAL EFFECT MODEL ****************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
```

```
 EMP_RET

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      .1166      .0136      .3134     1.3507     1.0000    48.0000      .2480

Model
              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     2.2821      .4939     4.6204      .0000     1.3019     3.2623
HR_PRAC       .1853      .1594     1.1622      .2480     -.1311      .5017

************** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y **************

Total effect of X on Y
     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
      .1853      .1594     1.1622      .2480     -.1311      .5017

Direct effect of X on Y
     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
      .0166      .1687      .0981      .9220     -.3183      .3515

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
           Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
PC_F        .1687      .0845      .0202      .3519

*********************** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS ************************

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
  95.0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
  10000

------ END MATRIX -----
```

The results revealed that the relationship between HR Practices and Employee Retention is not significant (R-square = 0.0136, F (1,48) = 1.3507, p > 0.05. By Cohen's (1988) conventions, a combined effect of this magnitude can be considered "small" (f^2 = .0138). The hypothesis predicting the direct effect of HR Practices on Employee Retention was also not supported by the model, as the value of 0 is straddled between lower limit (-0.3183) and upper limit (0.3515), and the p-value is more than 0.05. However, the hypothesis predicting that the indirect effect of HR Practices and Psychological Contract Fulfilment would account for significant variance in Employee Retention also supported by the model, as the value of 0 is not straddled between the lower limit (0.202) and upper limit (0.3519) (Hair et al. 2017). In other words, there is a full mediation of Psychological Contract Fulfilment between the relationship of HR Practices and Employee Retention. There, Hypothesis 7 is rejected where full has occurred.

$$f^2 = 0.0136 / (1 - 0.0136) = 0.0138$$

4.8.1.4 HR Practices to Psychological Contract Fulfilment (Employer)

A simple or bivariate linear regression was carried out to determine the relationship between HR Practices and Psychological Contract Fulfilment for employers.

Table 82 presents the summary of the model for Employer. In this table, the findings reveal that the R square value is 0.208 or 20.8% variation in Psychological Contract Fulfilment variable due to the explanatory variable of HR Practice. Additionally, 79.2% of the rest variation could be explained by other potential predictor for the present study.

Table 82: Model Summary of HR Practices to Psychological Contract Fulfilment (Employer)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.456[a]	.208	.192	.39918

a. Predictors: (Constant), HR_PRAC

Table 83 presents the path coefficient results for the model after executing the regression analysis. The findings reveal that the HR Practice has a positive and significant effect with Psychological Contact Fulfilment (β = 0.456, p-value = 0.001). Hence, Hypothesis 6 is accepted, where HR Practices are positively related to Psychological Contract Fulfilment.

Table 83: Path Coefficients[a] Results for Employer of HR Practices to Psychological Contract Fulfilment (Employer)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.218	.276		8.025	.000
	HR_PRAC	.316	.089	.456	3.554	.001

a. Dependent Variable: PC_F

4.8.1.5 HR Practices and Psychological Contract Fulfilment to Employee Retention (Employer)

A multiple regression was carried out to determine the relationship between HR Practice and Psychological Contract Fulfilment towards Employee Retention for employers.

Table 84 presents the summary of the model for Employee. In this table, the findings reveal that the R square value is 0.119 or 11.9% variation in Employee Retention variable due to the explanatory variable of the combination of HR Practice and Psychological Contract Fulfilment. Additionally, 88.1% of the rest variation could be explained by other potential predictor for the present study.

Table 84: Model Summary of HR Practice and Psychological Contract Fulfilment to Employee Retention (Employer)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.345[a]	.119	.082	.49350

a. Predictors: (Constant), HR_PRAC

Table 85 presents the path coefficient results for the model after executing the regression analysis. The findings reveal that the HR Practice has a negative and non-significant effect with Employee Retention (β = - 0.128, p-value > 0.05). However, Psychological Contract Fulfilment has a positive and significant effect with Employee Retention (β = 0.384, p-value = 0.016) Hence, Hypothesis 1 is accepted, where Psychological Contract Fulfilment is positively related to Employee Retention. However, Hypothesis 4 is rejected, where HR practices are not positively related to employee retention.

Table 85: Model Summary Path Coefficients[a] Results of HR Practice and Psychological Contract Fulfilment to Employee Retention (Employer)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1.885	.523		3.604	.001
	HR_PRAC	-.103	.124	-.128	-.830	.441
	PC_F	.446	.178	.384	2.498	.016

a. Dependent Variable: EMP_RET

4.8.1.6 Mediating effect of Psychological Contract Fulfilment towards the relationship between HR practices and Employee Retention (Employer)

The current study assessed the mediating role of Psychological Contract Fulfilment on the relationship between HR Practices and Employee Retention using PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2022). Model Number 4 was selected to determine the model with a mediator variable and the resampling and confidence level was set at 10,000 and 95% respectively. The following is the output from the analysis.

```
Run MATRIX procedure:

***************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.2 ****************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.       www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2022). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**************************************************************************
Model  : 4
    Y  : EMP_RET
    X  : HR_PRAC
    M  : PC_F

Sample
Size:  50

**************************************************************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 PC_F

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE     F(HC3)        df1        df2          p
      .4564      .2083      .1593     9.2501     1.0000    48.0000      .0038

Model
              coeff    se(HC3)          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     2.2183      .3311     6.6991      .0000     1.5525     2.8841
HR_PRAC       .3161      .1039     3.0414      .0038      .1071      .5251

**************************************************************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 EMP_RET

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE     F(HC3)        df1        df2          p
      .3452      .1192      .2435     2.8504     2.0000    47.0000      .0679

Model
              coeff    se(HC3)          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     1.8849      .5595     3.3691      .0015      .7594     3.0104
HR_PRAC      -.1026      .1254     -.8179      .4175     -.3549      .1497
PC_F          .4457      .1871     2.3824      .0213      .0693      .8220

************************** TOTAL EFFECT MODEL ****************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 EMP_RET
```

```
Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE     F(HC3)        df1        df2          p
      .0477      .0023      .2701      .0882     1.0000    48.0000      .7677

Model
              coeff     se(HC3)          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     2.8735      .3941     7.2909      .0000     2.0811     3.6660
HR_PRAC       .0383      .1289      .2971      .7677     -.2209      .2974


************** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y **************

Total effect of X on Y
     Effect     se(HC3)          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
      .0383      .1289      .2971      .7677     -.2209      .2974

Direct effect of X on Y
     Effect     se(HC3)          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
     -.1026      .1254     -.8179      .4175     -.3549      .1497

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
          Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
PC_F       .1409      .0641      .0244      .2724

*********************** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS ************************

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
  95.0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
  10000

NOTE: A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix
estimator was used.

------ END MATRIX -----
```

The results revealed that the relationship between HR Practices and Employee Retention is not significant (R-square = 0.0023, F (1,48) = 9.2501, p > 0.05. By Cohen's (1988) conventions, a combined effect of this magnitude can be considered "small" (f^2 = .0023). The hypothesis predicting the direct effect of HR Practices on Employee Retention was also not supported by the model, as the value of 0 straddles between lower limit (-0.3549) and upper limit (0.1497), and the p-value is more than 0.05. However, the hypothesis predicting that the indirect effect of HR Practices Psychological Contract Fulfilment would account for significant variance in Employee Retention also supported by the model, as the value of 0 does not straddle between the lower limit (0.244) and upper limit (0.2724) (Hair et al. 2017). In other words, there is a full mediation of Psychological Contract Fulfilment between the relationship of HR Practices and Employee Retention. Therefore, Hypothesis 7 is rejected because a full mediation has occurred.

$$f^2 = 0.\ 0023/\ (1 - 0.\ 0023) = 0.0023$$

4.9 SUMMARY OF RESULTS

This section explains the overall findings of the current research. Table 86 describes the relationship between two or more variables in the regression analysis with the comparison between Employee and Employer data for R-square value, B-value and p-value.

Table 86: Regression Analysis Result Comparison

Regression Analysis	**R-square**		**B-value**		**p-value**	
	Employee	**Employer**	**Employee**	**Employer**	**Employee**	**Employer**
Simple Regression						
HR to PCF	0.149	0.208	0.355	0.316	0.006	0.001
Multiple Regression (HR + PCF to ER)						
HR to ER	0.200	0.119	-0.285	-0.103	0.062	0.441
PCF to ER			0.236	0.446	0.019	0.016

For the relationship between HR Practice and Psychological Contract Fulfilment, R-square value for Employer is seen to be higher than the Employee, indicating that HR Practice for Employer has a higher variability in the outcome of Psychological Contract Fulfilment (Allen et al., 2019). However, the B-value for Employee is higher (0.355) compared to Employer (0.316) indicating that there is a higher influence of HR practice towards Psychological Contract Fulfilment for Employee as compared to Employers. In addition, the B-value for both Employee and Employer are positive with the p-value being lower than 0.05, indicating a positive and significant relationship between HR Practices and Psychological Contract Fulfilment (Field, 2018).

For the relationship of HR Practice and Psychological Contract Fulfilment towards Employee Retention, R-square value for Employee is seen to be higher than the Employer, indicating that HR Practice for Employee has a higher variability in the outcome of Psychological Contract (Allen et al., 2019). For the relationship of HR Practice towards Employee Retention, both B-values are negative and p-value more than 0.05, indicating a negative and non-significant relationship for both group respondents.

Table 87: Mediation Model Result Summary

	R-square		f-square		LLCI/ULCI ≠ 0	
Mediating	**Employee**	**Employer**	**Employee**	**Employer**	**Employee**	**Employer**
HR to PC to ER	0.0136	0.0023	0.0136/ (1-0.0136) = 0.0138 = small effect size	0.0023/(1-0. 0023) = 0.0023 = small effect size	0.0202 to 0.3519	0.0244 to 0.2724

Table 87 shows the results of the mediation model, in terms of the R-square, f-square and the LLCI/ULCI ≠ 0 values. R-square value is observed the to be higher for Employee (0.0136) as compared to Employee (0.0023). The f^2 is employed to determine the effect size and according to the formula suggested by Cohen (1988), where f^2 is equal to R2 divided by 1 - *R2*. Both shows small effect sizes. It is also seen that the Psychological Contract Fulfilment fully mediates the relationship between HR Practices and Employee Retention, as 0 does not straddle between the upper and lower limits.

Based on the findings of this study, the following Table 88 summarizes the hypothesis testing in this research.

Table 88: Summary of Results

Research Hypothesis	Result
H1: Psychological contract fulfilment is positively related to employee retention	Accepted
H2: The perceptions between employee and employer regarding the psychological contract are different.	Accepted
H3: The perceptions between employee and employer regarding employee retention are different.	Accepted
H4: HR practices are positively related to employee retention.	Rejected
H5: The perceptions between employee and employer regarding HR practice are different.	Rejected
H6: HR practices are positively related to psychological contract fulfilment.	Accepted
H7: Psychological contract partially mediates the relationship between HR practice and employee retention.	Rejected

CHAPTER 5 – DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

This chapter deliberates the findings presented in Chapter 4. The chapter begins with the restatement of this research, which brings together the steps involved, and presents the whole picture of the current research. The summary of the research findings follows this, which presents the results of the research in general. Thereafter, the following sections discuss the findings of the Test of Differences as well as the Test of Relationships. Following this will be the presentation of the theoretical and practical implications, the study's limitations, suggestions for future research and lastly the conclusion.

5.2 RESTATEMENT OF RESEARCH

This research attempts to explain the relationship between HR practices, psychological contract and employee retention. As previous research suggests, the psychological contract plays the role of the mediator between organizational practices and employee behavioural outcome (Bandyopadhyay and Srivastava 2021; Pradhan et al., 2017; Katao, 2013; Seeck and Parzefall, 2010; Aggaarwal and Bhargava, 2009; Guest and Conway, 2002). The breach or fulfillment of the psychological contract is dependent on the perception of the employees towards the extent of the promises met, and the subsequent outcome from the state of the psychological contract, as the theory of reciprocity and social exchange theory suggests (Gouldner; 1960; Blau, 1964). In this current study, what is found valuable by the employee in terms of the HR practices and the fulfilment of these obligations (psychological contract fulfillment) by the organization will result in employee retention.

With this in mind, the current study employed the quantitative method using a cross-sectional design, with the use of survey questionnaires. Data was collected from a total of 50 employee-employer dyads from the event management industry in Malaysia.

IBM SPSS version 27 was used to carry out the analysis where the writer started with presenting the results of the pilot study, namely the demographic profile and construct reliability of the pilot study. This was then followed by preliminary data analysis, descriptive analysis and correlational analysis of the data from the current research respondents. The model assessment analysis was also conducted, which included the reliability, exploratory factor analysis and validity analyses.

Next, the Test of Differences was carried out, namely using the independent sample t-test to determine the difference in perspective between the employee and employer respondents in terms of HR practices, Psychological Contract Fulfilment and Employee Retention. Subsequently, the Test of Relationships between variables was carried out using linear regression analysis, with the mediating variable was tested using PROCESS Macro. The result from the analyses indicates that 4 out of 7 hypotheses were accepted.

5.3 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

The main aim of conducting the current study is to determine the relationship between HR practices, psychological contract and employee retention. As mentioned in the problem statement, organizations face challenges in retaining their employees as turnover rates seem to be increasing over the years. In Malaysia, the turnover rate is at 12.8%, which is 2.8% higher than the turnover in major Asia-Pacific markets (Hewitt, 2017). Additionally, another research claims that one-third of Malaysians intend to leave their job in that year (The Edge Markets, 2022). The effects of negative turnover only emphasize the importance or retaining employees as their unique skills, knowledge and social connections are irreplaceable (Das and Baruah, 2013, Jacobs and Roodt, 2011)

For this reason, the writer was motivated to address the aim of this study through the four research objectives. In the first research objective, the current study aims to determine how the psychological contract affect employee retention. This objective is addressed by answering three research questions. The first research question is “What is the relationship between psychological contract and employee retention?” (RQ1a). As analyzed in Chapter 4, this study found that the psychological contract fulfilment has a significant positive effect on employee retention. In other words, the fulfilment of the psychological contract will result in employee retention. This answers RQ1a and indicates that Hypothesis 1 is accepted. The second research question is “What is the perception between employee and employer regarding the psychological contract?” (RQ1b). The research found that there is a significant difference in perceptions between employee and employer regarding psychological contract, hence answering RQ1b and accepting Hypothesis 2. The third reach question is “What is the perception between employee and employer regarding employee retention?" (RQ1c). Findings show that there is a significant difference in perceptions between employee and employer regarding employee retention, hence answering RQ1c and accepting Hypothesis 3.

The second research objective of this research is to determine how HR practices affect employee retention. This objective is addressed by answering two research questions, namely "What is the relationship between HR practices and employee retention?" (RQ2a) and "What is the perception between employee and employer regarding HR practice?" (RQ2b). In answering the RQ2a, it was found that HR practices does not have a significant positive relationship to employee retention. Hence, rejecting Hypothesis 4. For RQ2b, it was found that there is no difference between the perceptions of HR practices between employee and employer. This also means that Hypothesis 5 is rejected.

For the third research objective, the writer attempts to discover how HR practices affect psychological contract. RQ3 asks "What is the relationship between HR Practices and Psychological Contract?" Results found that HR practices have a significant and positive relationship towards psychological contract fulfilment. This then answers RQ3 and accepts Hypothesis 6.

To determine the mediating effect in the conceptual framework, the fourth objective is prescribed which aims to examine the mediating effect of psychological contract on the relationship between HR practices and employee retention. RQ4 asks "Does psychological contract partially mediate the relationship between HR Practices and Employee Retention?" To answer this research question, PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2022) was used, which found that psychological contract fulfilment fully mediates the relationship between HR Practices and Employee Retention. Hence, answering RQ4 and rejecting Hypothesis 7.

5.4 DISCUSSION

5.4.1 Discussion on The Test of Differences

The current research investigated the perceptions between the employee and employer regarding HR practices, Psychological Contract and Employee Retention. It was found that there were no significant differences in terms of perception regarding the HR practices between the employee and employer respondents. This would indicate that the level of importance with regards to the HR practices that is perceived by both the employee and employer is similar. These HR practices are practices and policies carried out by an organization has strong influence towards the intentions of staying or leaving in the organization (Peterson, 2004). The ultimate purpose of HR practices is to essentially retain employees (Gould-Williams, 2004). Previous research has highlighted the importance of identifying HR practices that encourage employee retention (Mbugua et al., 2015, Kim, 2012). HR practices can only be effective if they are found to be important to employees (Gaber and Fahim, 2018; De Vos and Meganck, 2009). Since the level of importance held by both the employees and employers are similar, it is safe to assume that the employers are aware of what is important to the employees in terms of HR practices. Hence this could be a sign that employers are one step closer toward executing effective HR practices since they are deemed to be favourable to the employees themselves. The similar perspectives in regards to HR practices could be explained due to the size of the organizations in study. As previously mentioned, most event management companies fall within the SME category where the number of employees is between 5 to 75 full-time employees (SME Corp. Malaysia, 2020). Companies like these have more direct communication, are less formalized, higher work flexibility and flatter hierarchy (De Kok et al., 2006; Bacon et al., 1996). This could explain why these perceptions between employee and employer in terms of HR practices are similar as it can be more easily communicated and managed when compared to larger organizations.

Although the perception of HR practices seems to be similar between employee and employer, the delivery and execution of these HR practices may not be as effective. This is shown in the results of the test of differences in terms of Psychological Contract. Findings in the current research show that there is a significant difference between the perceptions held by employees and employers in regard to the Psychological Contract. In the current research, the contents of the Psychological Contract are the HR practices. In the current study, the psychological contract looks into what is provided by the employers and what is received by the employees in terms of the HR practices, i.e., the extent of fulfillment of the psychological contract. HR practices as contents of the psychological contract were indeed used in previous research (Rosita, 2018; Scheel et al., 2013; De Vos and Meganck, 2009; Guest and Conway, 2002). The dimensions of HR practices used in this research are *recruitment and selection, performance appraisals, compensation and recognition*, *training and career development,* and *work-life balance*. As the results have shown, there is a significant difference between the perceptions of the employee and employer. This could be explained due to the nature of the psychological contract being subjective, which may occur due to the employer's action or inaction (Savarimuthu and Rachel, 2017; Morrison and Robinson, 1997; Rousseau, 1995). In addition, it seems that the employer respondents have also placed a higher score in terms of what is provided, as compared to what is received by the employee, indicating that the level of fulfilment perceived by the employee is lower compared to the employer.

Circling back to the difference in perceptions between employee and employer with regards to the HR practices, both parties place the same level of importance in terms of HR practices. But the fulfilment of these HR practices by the employers to the employees is lower than what is perceived by the employees. In other words, the employers are aware of what is important to the employees, but in terms of fulfilment, it may not be the same as perceived by the employees. Based on previous research, there are several reasons for unfulfilled psychological contract, namely *incongruence, disruption and reneging* (Robinson, 1997; Morrison and Robinson, 1997; Rousseau, 1995). *Incongruence* happens when the promise made is able and willing to be met by both parties, but an honest misunderstanding of either one party led to the party acting differently as perceived by the other (Morrison and Robinson, 1997). *Disruption* occurs when both parties are willing to uphold the promise made to one another but circumstances arise that make either one of both parties to not be able to meet the promise (Turnley et al., 2003). *Reneging* happens when either one or both parties are able to meet the promise but are unwilling to do so (Rousseau, 1995). Nevertheless, it is important for employers to truly identify the gaps in the level of fulfilment and evaluate where they fall short to work towards reducing or eliminating the gap. For example, the employers may be aware that work-life balance is important to employees. But are the employers truly delivering or providing this to their employees based on what the employees perceive? In terms of work-life balance, employees may value work/personal life flexibility or autonomy in deciding when they go on leave. But are the employers aware of this and really meet such expectations?

The current research also found that there is a significant difference between the employee and employer in terms of Employee Retention. This would indicate that the employee and employer have different perspectives in terms of the employees' intention to remain in the organization. Again, the employer respondents have given a higher score as compared to the employees. This could be explained based on the gaps found in the fulfilment of the psychological contract. Although the relationship between HR practices, Psychological Contract and Employee Retention will be explained in the following sections, it is important to briefly state here that the current research have found that there is a positive significant relationship between Psychological Contract and Employee Retention. As the norm of reciprocity is the basis of the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989), employees will reciprocate based on what is received from the employer. The employee will respond positively to the behaviour of their employees that is deemed favourable (Rousseau and McLean Parks, 1993). This is consistent with the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) where when employees perceive that the organization has fulfilled what was promised to them, they will reciprocate with actions that will be advantageous to the organization, in this case would be employee retention. Patrick (2014) argues that an individual behaviour is based on the strength of the psychological contract which is dependent on the fulfilment of the perceived obligations. These findings also resonate with the argument by Guzzo and Noonan (1994) stating that the interpretation and the assessment of the HR practices in terms of its fulfilment will translate into attitudinal and behavioural outcomes, in the case of the current research it is employee retention. Therefore, it is important for employers to note in terms of the gap in perceptions when it comes to employee retention. The employers may perceive that what they are currently doing will lead to employee retention but may in fact not be as effective as what they thought it would be. This is a very critical situation of which employers need to be aware of. Hence, employers would need to truly evaluate what they are currently doing if they wish to retain their employees.

5.4.2 Discussion on The Test of Relationships

5.4.2.1 Relationship Between HR Practices Towards Psychological Contract Fulfilment

The current study has found that HR practices have a significant positive effect on psychological contract fulfilment. This finding supports previous research that there is a correlation between HR practices and psychological contract (Nassar, 2021; Kutaula et al., 2020; Sobaih et al., 2019; Bal et al., 2013; Giannikis and Nikandrou, 2013; Suazo, 2009; Uen et al., 2009; Guest and Conway, 2004; Sturges et al., 2005). This finding also resonate with previous studies which have indeed shown that HR practices have a positive affect on psychological contract fulfilment (Armstrong and Taylor, 2020; Silva and Weerasignhe, 2016; Sheepers and Shuping, 2011; Suazo et al, 2009; Westwood et al., 2001).

Literature has argued that the formation of the psychological contract begins since the recruitment phase (Rousseau and McLean Parks, 1993). This is because recruitment or the sourcing of employees sends messages to them in regard to the terms and conditions of the employment. This would mean that HR practices are seen to send messages to employees of what the organization are providing them and what is expected of them (Nassar, 2021; Rogozińska-Pawełczyk, 2021; Raeder et al., 2012; Uen et al., 2009; Suazo et al., 2009; Purcell and Hutchinson, 2007; Rousseau, 1995). This would also mean that overselling the job could lead to breach or violation since the organization may not be able to fulfil the perceptions held at the beginning phase of the employment (Makin et al., 1996; Rousseau, 1995). This is especially important given the fast-paced nature of work and irregular hours in the event management industry. Employees need to know what to expect of them in the job.

As previously mentioned, HR practices are the practices and policies carried out by the organizations. The dimensions of HR practices studied in the current research are *recruitment and selection, performance appraisal, compensation and recognition, training and career development,* and *work-life balance.* Research has also that compensation and benefits are seen as important signals to predict the psychological contract perceptions of employees (Lee et al., 2011; Rousseau, 1995). Having competitive and fair pay, especially in terms of pay that is equal to the amount of work put in is very important. Recognition on the other hand is equally important as this may not be replaced with money. Another important HR practice is performance appraisals where this provides the opportunity for organizations to determine and clarify employee expectations (Conway and Briner, 2005; Rousseau, 1995). Since performance appraisal is a form of communication as it provides feedback to the extent of target achievements, Robinson and Morrison (2000) have also highlighted the importance of communication. This allows both the employee and employer to evaluate current performance and review future opportunities. Frequent evaluations like this can help reduce incongruence or misunderstandings between the two parties (Rousseau, 2004).

Training and career development show that the organization cares for and supports the employees (Wangithi and Muceke, 2012; Suazo et al., 2009). Sturges et al. (2005) stated that career development that is provided by the organization will contribute to the psychological contract fulfilment. This is also very important in an event management company because of the size of the organization. Employees may not be able to move up vertically as their hierarchy levels are not that high. Furthermore, giving more responsibilities and a wider job scope may empower employees and give them a sense of support for their personal development. The perception of not providing training and development may give the impression that the organization is not supportive and may cause the employees to feel insecure in their employment (Ye et al., 2012). Various psychological contract research cites work-life balance as an expectation of the employee in the employment relationship (De Vos et al. 2003; Ellis 2007; Guest & Conway 2002; Herriot, Manning & Kidd 1997). This is especially true in the event management industry as work-life balance is valued in the event management industry (Marinakou, 2019). Not providing the flexibility to handle personal issues and manage the balance between work and personal life will cause psychological distress to the employee, given already by the nature of work in the said industry (Lourel et al., 2009; Moen et al., 2008). Hence providing such policies will result in positive outcomes.

The current study involves the identification of importance held by the employees and employers in term of HR practices. Based on the findings that HR practices has a positive effect on the Psychological Contract Fulfilment, these HR practices that are deemed valuable to employees will affect the psychological contract in terms of what is expected by the employees. Having said that, employers need to be wary of the messages communicated through these HR practices as this will effect the employees' expectations. The current study has also shown that the relationship of HR practices towards Psychological Contract Fulfilment has a higher impact for employees as compared to employers, further highlighting the importance of ensuring the execution of the HR practices that are deemed valuable to employees that meet their expectations, in order for these HR practices to be effective (Gaber and Fahim, 2018; De Vos and Meganck, 2009).

5.4.2.2 Relationship Between HR Practices and Psychological Contract Fulfilment towards Employee Retention

Current research has found that Psychological Contract Fulfilment has a significant positive relationship towards Employee Retention. This finding is consistent with previous research, which found that psychological contract fulfilment is positively related to employee retention (Iskandar and Sari, 2018; Pradhan et al., 2017; Collins, 2010; De Vos and Meganck; 2009; Zhao et al., 2007; Cheung and Chiu, 2005; Conway and Briner, 2002). Since there is a significant relationship between psychological contract fulfilment and employee retention, employers have to ensure that the psychological contract perceived to be held by the employees are fulfilled to elicit positive outcomes, as the psychological contract is based on the norm of reciprocity (Rousseau, 1995). This would mean that if the employer fulfils the expectations or promises that are perceived by the employees, this would result in their intention to remain in the organization.

Referring back to the findings of the Test of Differences in regard to the psychological contract, it was found that there was a significant difference of perceptions between employee and employer with regards to the psychological contract. The following independent samples t-test also found there is a significant difference in perceptions between the employee and employer respondents with all the contents of the psychological contract. Hence having a gap in terms of what is perceived to be promised by the employers and what is actually met will have its resulting outcomes. The contents of the psychological contract that if found to have a significant difference in perceptions could indicate that the employee’s psychological contract are either not fulfilled may cause them to react negatively or perceive the psychological contract to be breached or violated (Bal et al., 2010, Dulac et al., 2008; Restubog and Bordia, 2006, Coyle-Shapiro, 2002). This is also reflected in the difference of perspectives found between the employee and employer with regards to the intention to remain in the organization. Therefore, it is extremely crucial for employers to identify the gaps in the fulfilment of the psychological contract in order to ensure positive outcomes. Similarly, previous research has also emphasized the identification of level of mutuality between the employee and employer in determining the basis of agreement and discrepancy (Savarimuthu and Rachel, 2017; Cullinane and Bundon, 2006). Reasons for shortcoming in the psychological contract should be communicated to employees as previous research argued that employees are seen to be forgiving when employers explain the reasons for not being able to meet certain promises (Middlemiss, 2011; Tyagi and Agrawal, 2010).

However, the current study found that the HR practices is not significantly related to Employee Retention, which is contrary to various previous studies (Aburummam et al., 2020; Gaber and Fahim, 2018; Dechawatanapaisal, 2018; Shaukat et al., 2017; Rubel and Kee, 2015; Chew and Chan, 2008; Mbugua et al, 2015; Francis, 2014; Branham, 2005). This could be due to the size of sample not being large enough for the relationship to be significant, as the sample size would affect the statistical precision of the study (Malhotra, 2020; Pallant, 2020; Stevens, 1996). This could also be explained based on this research's conceptual framework that required a multiple regression analysis to determine the relationship of Psychological Contract Fulfilment towards Employee Retention, and HR practices towards Employee Retention. In other words, because of the presence of the Psychological Contract Fulfilment variable in the conceptual framework, there is no direct relationship between HR practices and Employee Retention. This is due to the fact that the current study found that the Psychological Contract Fulfilment fully mediates the relationship between HR practices and Employee Retention. This is explained in the following section.

5.4.2.3 Mediating Effect of Psychological Contract Fulfilment

The psychological contract can be used as a framework to identify, understand and predict organizational outcomes (Zacchaeus, 2021; Kutaula et al., 2020; Rousseau, 2012; Tyagi and Agrawal, 2010; Turnley et al., 2003). In this research, the fulfilment of the psychological contract was found to fully mediate the relationship between HR practices and employee retention. The mediating effect of the psychological contract fulfilment between HR practice and employee behaviour and attitudes found in the current research show support towards previous research by Aggarwal and Bhargava (2009) and Paauwe (2009) where they found links between HR practices and employee behaviours and attitudes with the psychological contract as the mediator. The finding of psychological contract as the mediator between the relationship between HR practice and employee retention is also consistent with the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), where employees that perceive a positive state of the psychological contract will result in demonstrating positive employee outcomes. This is also in line with the very core of the psychological contract, which is reciprocity between employee and employer obligations, where the employee will positively respond to the behaviour of their employers that are deemed favourable (Rousseau and McLean Parks, 1993). If the employees perceive that the promises are not met, negative outcomes will follow (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2000). In the same vein, the perception of the psychological contract fulfilment would generate an obligation on the part of the employees to reciprocate to their employer (Khoreva et al., 2017; Aggarwal and Bhargava, 2009; Conway and Coyle-Shapiro, 2006; Dabos and Rousseau, 2004; Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2003),

In this case, based on the evaluation to the extent of fulfilment of the HR practices they deem valuable will result on their intention to stay or leave the organization. The current study also partially supports the psychological contract model by Guest and Conway (2004) where HR practices have an influence of the state of the psychological contract, of which a positive psychological contract or the fulfilment of the psychological contract will lead to employee retention. Similarly, the current findings also support Guest’s (2004) framework which included both the perspectives of the employer and employee, HR policies, state of the psychological contract and its attitudinal and behavioural consequences.

This shows that HR practices that are valuable to employees help form the psychological contract, and upon its fulfilment will lead to employee retention. Hence by ensuring that the fulfilment of promises and obligations that are seen valuable to employees, employers can predict the outcome in terms of retaining employees. In other words, the findings of the current thesis show that the psychological contract can be valuable in explaining the relationship between HR practices and positive employee outcomes such as employee retention.

5.5 THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

The theoretical implications of the current study is four-fold. Firstly, the current study confirms and extends existing empirical evidence regarding the basis of HR practices-psychological contract-employee retention. This study enriches the HRM domain and provides a valuable link between HR practice and psychological contract fulfilment, as well as between the concept of psychological contract and the social exchange theory. In other words, this study extends the literature referring to the HR practices and employee retention with the inclusion of psychological contracts. The major finding of this relationship is that the psychological contract fulfilment fully mediates the relationship between HR practices and employee retention.

In the same vein, the current study also confirms and extends Rousseau's (1995) argument on reciprocity of the psychological contract where employees will reciprocate with desirable organizational outcomes such as employee retention, when their psychological contract has been fulfilled. This is because a major part of this research's conceptual model is that the relationship between HR practices and employee retention is mediated by the psychological contract. These findings confirm the argument posed by the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960) that the fulfilling of the psychological contract on the part of the organization will lead to employee outcomes that are positive. In regard to the norm of reciprocity, for example, if the organization fulfills the obligations related recruitment and selection, performance appraisal, compensation and recognition, training and career development, and work-life balance, a need for employee to reciprocate is created and this can be in a form of employee outcome reciprocity through employee retention. The findings in this research support the writer's argument that the implementation of the HR practices by the employer will then encourage the employees to fulfil their part of the contract in the form of remaining in the organization. Hence this research argues that the fulfilment of the psychological contract can be valuable in explaining the relationship between HR practices and positive employee outcomes. This would mean that psychological contract fulfilment is effective in describing and predicting employee outcomes of employee retention.

Since this study took the bilateral view in this research, it also provides insights into the perspective of two important parties of the employment relationship: the employee and employer. Surveys were conducted to advance the understanding of both parties' perception on what they believe is important in terms of employee retention and its connection to outcomes. The current study proves that there is a certain level of mutuality in the exchange relationship between employee and employer. Because the bilateral view was taken, the perspectives from both employee and employer could be compared which found that there were no significant differences between them in terms of HR practices. This could indicate that there is a mutual understanding in what the employees deem valuable in order for them to stay with the current organization. However, comparison of perceptions between the employee and employer regarding the psychological contract and employee retention would mean that there is in fact a gap in terms of the fulfillment of the psychological contract and the employees' intention to remain in the organization. As this research involved employee respondents that a matched to their respective employer respondents, this provides corresponding results which not only provides valuable information but also answers calls by previous research (Weralupitiya and Jayarathna, 2016; Raeder, Knorr and Hilb, 2012; Aggarwal and Bhargava, 2009; Guest and Conway, 2002; Kickul 2001).

In addition, the current research has also contributed to the study of the psychological contract. There is an abundance of previous research that has put focus on the breach or violation of the psychological contract and its impact on employee outcomes (Ahmad and Zafar, 2018; Rayton and Yaalabik, 2014; Conway and Briner, 2009; Dabos and Rousseau, 2004; Raja et al., 2004; Rousseau, 1995). This study focus on the fulfilment of the psychological contract and found that psychological contract fulfilment has an impact on employee outcomes. Furthermore, the current research also used specific items and determined the extend of its fulfilment, contrary to most previous research that use global measures to measure the psychological contract (Conway and Briner, 2005). Similar to previous research, the current thesis used HR practices and its extent of fulfilment to measure the psychological contract (Scheel et al., 2013; Devos and Meganck, 2009), hence contributing to the knowledge of methodology in measuring psychological contract.

5.6 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

The current study presents important implications for both the managers as well as the decision makers in event management organizations. The analysis of the HR-PCF-ER relationship has found a key finding that psychological contract and employee retention are linked, which can help organizations formulate recommendations for employee retention. Organizations should consider using the psychological contract as a mediator between HR practices and employee retention. Due to the fact that this study has shown that HR practices such as recruitment and selection, performance appraisal, compensation and recognition, training and career development, work-life balance have an effect on psychological contract, managers and decision makers should ensure that these HR practices are not only deemed important by employees but are also transparent and easily understandable. This can be done by first being aware of their expectations, as HR practices can only be effective if it is seen valuable to the employees (Singh and Tarofder, 2020; Gaber and Fahim, 2018; Phuong and Takahashi, 2018; Tyagi and Agrawal, 2010; De Vos and Meganck, 2009; Hausknecht et a;., 2009; Steel et al., 2002).

In the same vein, this study also identifies HR practices as the signals towards psychological contract fulfilment that will lead to employee retention. Hence, managers have to be cautious about what promises and expectations they may create with their subordinates (Seopa et al., 2015). Due to the fact that psychological contracts can form from the recruitment stage, managers have to be careful about what promises and expectations they may create from the beginning of the employment relationship (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2000). Employers should also manage how promises are made to employees so that realistic perceptions are formed in the employment relationship. Since, there is a clear message in fulfilling the psychological contract of employees as the basis of retaining them, organizations should put effort in ensuring that promises made to employees and expectations are fulfilled and that these employees will reciprocate in remaining in the organization. HR practices when communicated to employees will help them better understand the organizational signals while simultaneously implying that the psychological contract has been fulfilled on the part of the employer (Sonnenberg et al., 2011). Efforts should also be placed in ensuring the HR practices that exist and are consistently communicated to all levels of the organization. Therefore, it is also vital for organizations, in particular their agents, such as the immediate managers and supervisors, to manage the expectations of the employees in order to facilitate positive outcomes from employees and at the same time reduce the negative repercussions resulting from breach of the psychological contract (Mensah, 2018; Zhao et al., 2007).

Furthermore, transparency in terms of communication is important so that employees are aware of the promises, business situations and other key factors that may affect the ability of organizations to fulfil their promises (Turnley et al., 2003). Hence it is important for managers to provide the opportunity for employees to communicate not only what they value but also on how the organization seeks to fulfil these expectations. This also shows the need to provide environments that are supportive of the employees' psychological contract needs (Seopa et al., 2015). Additionally, since expectations may change over time, expectations have to be monitored and re-aligned frequently, such as every 6 months (Dries and De Gieter, 2014). If an expectation was found to be unmet, managers would need to identify the reasons for this and communicate this with their subordinates. This would also mean that if there were a change to the employment relationship, employers would have to attempt to renegotiate the contract so that the contents of the psychological contract is reflective of the new conditions of employment. This is in line with previous research as employees tend to be more forgiving when employers explain why they are unable to meet certain promises (Middlemiss, 2011; Tyagi and Agrawal, 2010). Therefore, in order to reduce employee turnover, HR practices and its fulfillment i.e., the psychological contract have to be monitored regularly and addressed proactively instead of reactively to fulfil the needs and expectations of the employees.

This research also contributes to the understanding of small sized companies and also specifically in the event management industry. HR practices such as recruitment and selection, performance appraisal, compensation and recognition, training and career development as well as work-life balance were found to be essential in encouraging employee retention. What was also found was there was no significant difference between perceptions of both employees and employers regarding HR practices, which could be explained by the characteristics of SMEs being leaner and having more direct communication, higher work flexibility and latter hierarchy (Kickul, 2001).

To sum it all up, the psychological contract can be used as a framework to identify what are the expectations and needs of the employee. By fulfilling them, this must be clearly communicated to the employees so that they are aware of the met obligations and promises of the organization which will lead them to reciprocate accordingly. Hence the psychological contract is able to provide a useful framework in managing the employees expectations and engage in communication that is open (Herriot and Pemberton, 1996).

5.7 LIMITATIONS

In the current research, the writer acknowledges its limitations. One of them is the use of a cross-sectional design due to the time constraint given for the current research, yet relationships found in this study suggest causal direction. Firstly, cross-sectional designs restrict determination of causality even though finding may suggest so (Birtch et al., 2016, Kickul, 2002). These findings should be treated as inferences (Spector, 1981). Hence future research should include additional designs, such as longitudinal design to address such circumstances (Rodwell et al., 2015; Suazo, 2009; Chew and Chan, 2008; Zhao et al., 2007; Turnley et al., 2003). For instance, in a longitudinal design, it may be possible to observe if the psychological contract fulfilment or breach at a single point in time could be associated with negative outcomes. Hence, causal conclusions cannot be drawn at another later point, which was suggested by Phuong and Takahashi (2018) that psychological contract may change over time. This approach may provide more insightful findings as compared to a cross-sectional design in regard to unfulfilled psychological contracts pertaining to the policies and practices by the organization.

The current research model was also done in a specific industry in Malaysia, namely the Event Management industry, therefore findings may not be generalizable to other industries. Additionally, another important limitation is the number of respondents that participated in the current study. Given the topic of research, many companies were also reluctant to participate in the current study because some companies carried out the reduction of employees due to the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the industry. Many have hired part-time employees based on projects rather than have full-time employees to reduce overhead costs. Although the number of total respondents is above the minimum suggested number by Krejcie and Morgan (1970), Saunders et al. (2016), and Du and Wang (2016), a higher number of respondents will be statistically better as analyses used such as regression analysis is sensitive to numbers Malhotra, 2020; Pallant, 2020; Stevens, 1996).

Furthermore, the current research used compounded variables instead of investigating each dimension of HR practices. For example, all 5 dimensions of the HR practices were grouped into one variable and tested against psychological contract fulfilment and employee retention. The same goes for the psychological contract variable as well. Hence future research could separate and test the relationship between each dimension of the HR practice and psychological contract against employee retention.

Although the current study included the perspective of the employer, there may also be doubts about the ability for immediate supervisors or managers to report accurately on certain delivery of obligations or promises, even though the data presented were the perspectives of the managers instead of the details of the actual outcomes. Even though the views provided are from the supervisors or managers as the representatives of the organization, there's only so much they may know on what exactly is happening and what informal deals that may have been made.

Despite the limitations mentioned above, the current study extends the knowledge and understandings on the bilateral views of the psychological contract. This thesis paves way for the Event Management industry in general for understanding which HR practices have significant effect on employee's retention intentions as well as the role of the psychological contract.

5.8 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

As the current research uses a cross-sectional design, future studies should consider a longitudinal study which includes collecting data multiple times over a longer period of time to track the changes of the psychological contract. This will also be useful as the current research found to what extent has a certain perceived promise or obligation been fulfilled, but not how the response of reaction of the employee would change over time.

The current study was also carried out within the Event Management industry. Hence, further testing of the model is also needed, not only with a higher number of respondents or with more organizations within the industry, but also to include other industries to determine generalizability.

Although this study has utilized HR practices as the contents of the psychological contract, future studies should refine and validate the contents used in order to better understand the context within the employee-employer relationship. For example, this study focused more on what is provided by the organization and the gap between the perception of fulfilment between employee and employer. Only one factor or promise by the employee is studied, namely their intention to remain in the organization. Hence future studies could also include promises or obligations to be made by the employees and its fulfilment on their end.

This thesis studied the connection between HR practices and psychological contract, using HR practices as the contents of psychological contract, as compared to global measures. The psychological contract was also measured through different scores which may affect the validity of the scale. Therefore, future studies should consider using other measures for examining the psychological contract such as global measures, weighted measures or combination of all three measures.

The writer also recommends future research to extend the study of employee retention using the psychological contract by including other factors such as organizational culture, commitment, loyalty and other relevant variables. Future research could further elaborate on such connections and its use in the study of the psychological contract. Furthermore, the current conceptual framework used could also be adopted or modified to be used in a different context.

5.9 CONCLUSION

The psychological contract offers an additional way to comprehend the attitudes and behaviours of employees. The conceptual framework proposed in the current research was empirically tested to examine how the psychological contract mediates the relationship between HR practices and employee retention. The findings show that the psychological contract fulfilment fully mediates the relationship between HR practices and employee retention. What was also found is that the HR practices are also positively related to psychological contract, hence HR practices can be seen to send messages to employees regarding the obligations of the employers, which in turn affects the psychological contract and later on their intention to remain in the organization. Therefore, by understanding the relationship between HR practices, psychological contract and employee retention, employers are able to manage the expectations of the employees in the employment relationship to illicit positive outcomes through the fulfilment of the psychological contract.

The organizations should also provide the opportunity to communicate the content and availability of the HR practices, as well as the information on how the organization attempts to fulfil their part of the psychological contract. It is important to incorporate the view of the employees when strategizing retention practices as these practices are only effective if it is valuable to employees. Furthermore, by identifying if there is a gap between the perceptions of the psychological contract between employee and employer, these gaps can be addressed in a timely and appropriate manner.

This study also contributes to the HRM literature by including an important tool in the field of psychology, namely psychological contract. Hence the current research links the fields of HRM as well as psychology to show that the fulfilment of the psychological contract can indeed be used as a tool of which HR practices impact the retention of employees. Additionally, the current study is also partially in line with the psychological contract model by Guest and Conway (2004) where the model suggests that HR practices influences the psychological contract, of which if fulfilled will result in employee retention. In the same vein, this thesis has resolved some gaps identified in literature, including contributing to the study of the psychological contract with the focus of its fulfilment, by taking a bilateral approach. The current study has also provided some valuable insights in regards to small sized companies as well as the Event Management industry.

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APPENDIX 1 – CONTENTS OF QUESTIONNAIRE (EMPLOYEE)

Insert Code here: ________________

	HR Practices				**Psychological Contract**			
SECTION 1: RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION "Recruitment and Selection" refers to the obtaining and evaluating potential candidates to be part of the company.	**Please indicate how important each item is to you.** 1 = not important 2 = somewhat not important 3 = important 4 = very important				**Please indicate the extent your company have provided each item listed below.** 1 = not provided at all 2 = slightly 3 = partially 4 = greatly			
Recruitment and Selection	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
1. A clear recruitment process 2. Recruit from external sources/outside the company 3. Recruit from internal sources/within the company 4. Better recruitment process than other companies 5. Select the right person for the right job 6. Proper procedures in the selection process 7. No chances of personal biasness when selecting employees 8. Fair and justifiable selection process								

	HR Practices				Psychological Contract			
SECTION 2: PERFORMANCE APPRAISALS "Performance appraisals" are evaluation or assessment methods for employee performance of tasks or job.	**Please indicate how important each item is to you.** 1 = not important 2 = somewhat important 3 = important 4 = very important				**Please indicate the extent your company have provided each item listed below.** 1 = not provided at all 2 = slightly 3 = partially 4 = greatly			
Performance Appraisals	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
1. Frequent formal appraisals 2. Frequent informal appraisals 3. Uses the results from the appraisals								

	HR Practices				Psychological Contract			
SECTION 3: COMPENSATION AND RECOGNITION "Compensation and Recognition" refers to all monetary and non- monetary rewards received in return for work.	**Please indicate how important each item is to you.** 1 = not important 2 = somewhat important 3 = important 4 = very important				**Please indicate the extent your company have provided each item listed below.** 1 = not provided at all 2 = slightly 3 = partially 4 = greatly			
Compensation and Recognition	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
1. Amount of pay that reflect the work done 2. Equal pay among with the same level/position 3. Equal pay for the same job in other companies within the same industry 4. Reward system that is fair and rewarding for people who accomplish company objectives 5. Reward system that recognizes people who contribute the most to the company								

	HR Practices				Psychological Contract			
SECTION 4: TRAINING AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT "Training and Career Development" refers to formal or informal events carried out by your company to enhance your skills and knowledge to carry out current and future work.	**Please indicate how important each item is to you.** 1 = not important 2 = somewhat important 3 = important 4 = very important				**Please indicate the extent your company have provided out each item listed below.** 1 = not provided at all 2 = slightly 3 = partially 4 = greatly			
Training and Career Development	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
1. Opportunity to go for training, courses and workshops 2. Opportunity to develop new skills and knowledge for their current job or possible jobs in the future 3. Coaching that supports my development 4. Support in planning my future development 5. Opportunity to work for another department 6. Opportunity to do another job within the company 7. Good career prospects 8. Given more responsibilities when I perform well at current tasks 9. Opportunity to get higher positions in the company								

	HR Practices				Psychological Contract			
SECTION 5: WORK-LIFE BALANCE	**Please indicate how important each item is to you.** 1 = not important 2 = somewhat important 3 = important 4 = very important				**Please indicate the extent your company have provided each item listed below.** 1 = not provided at all 2 = slightly 3 = partially 4 = greatly			
Work-life Balance	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
1. Given respect for personal situations 2. Opportunities for flexible working hours depending on personal needs 3. Opportunity to decide for myself when to go on leave 4. There is a flexible attitude regarding the connection between work and private life								

SECTION 6: EMPLOYEE RETENTION	**Please state your opinions regarding your intentions to remain in your company.** **1 = strongly disagree** **2 = disagree** **3 = agree** **4 = strongly agree**			
Retention	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
1. I do not intend to quit my job 2. It is unlikely that I will actively look for a new job next year 3. I am not thinking about quitting my job at the present time 4. If I am given an option again, I will choose to work for the current company				

SECTION 7: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Kindly complete the following information below for statistical purposes. Please mark the applicable blocks accordingly.

Gender:

a) Male
b) Female

Age Group:

a) Baby Boomers (1946 – 1964)
b) Gen X (1965 – 1976)
c) Gen Y (1977 – 1995)
d) Gen Z (1996 – present)

How many years are you employed with your current company?

a) Less than 6 months
b) Less than 1 year
c) Less than 2 years
d) Less than 3 years
e) Less than 4 years
f) Less than 5 years
g) More than 5 years

Prifysgol Cymru
Y Drindod Dewi Sant
University of Wales
Trinity Saint David

The Mediating Effects of Psychological Contract on the Human Resource Practices and Employee Retention Relationship - An Employee-Employer Perspective

The purpose of this study is for the thesis for Doctorate in Business Administration (DBA) of the researcher, Shaun Stephen to explore and analyze the factors of the psychological contract that will lead to the retention of employees in organizations, specifically in the Event Management industry.

Any information gathered will be used strictly for the purpose of this study and will not be shared with any other parties.

shaun.malaysia@gmail.com Switch account

Not shared

* Indicates required question

I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily. *

○ Yes

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason. *

○ Yes

I agree to take part in the above study. *

○ Yes

I confirm that I **do not** hold a supervisory/managerial role within my company *

○ Yes

Please key in reference code below. *

Your answer

What is important to you?

HR practices are important to retain employees. Please indicate how important you think each statement is to you

Please indicate how important each item is to you *

"Recruitment and Selection" refers to the obtaining and evaluating potential candidates to be part of the company.

	not important	somewhat not important	important	very important
A clear recruitment process	○	○	○	○
Recruit from external sources/outside the company	○	○	○	○
Recruit from internal sources/within the company	○	○	○	○
Better recruitment process than other companies	○	○	○	○
Select the right person for the right job	○	○	○	○
Proper procedures in the selection process	○	○	○	○
No chances of personal biasness when selecting employees	○	○	○	○
Fair and justifiable selection process	○	○	○	○

Please indicate how important each item is to you *

"Compensation and Recognition" refers to all monetary and non- monetary rewards received in return for work.

	not important	somewhat not important	important	very important
Amount of pay that reflect the work done	○	○	○	○
Equal pay among with the same level/position	○	○	○	○
Equal pay for the same job in other companies within the same industry	○	○	○	○
Rewards system that is fair and rewarding for people who accomplish company objectives	○	○	○	○
Reward system that recognizes people who contribute the most to the company	○	○	○	○

Please indicate how important each item is to you *

"Performance appraisals" are evaluation or assessment methods for employee performance of tasks or job.

	not important	somewhat not important	important	very important
Frequent formal appraisals	○	○	○	○
Frequent informal appraisals	○	○	○	○
Uses the results from the appraisals	○	○	○	○

Please indicate how important each item is to you *

"Training and Career Development" refers to formal or informal events carried out by your company to enhance your skills and knowledge to carry out current and future work.

	not important	somewhat not important	important	very important
Opportunity to go for training, courses and workshops	○	○	○	○
Opportunity to develop new skills and knowledge for their current job or possible jobs in the future	○	○	○	○
Coaching that supports employee's development	○	○	○	○
Support in planning employee's future development	○	○	○	○
Opportunity to work for another department	○	○	○	○
Opportunity to do another job within the company	○	○	○	○
Good career prospects	○	○	○	○
Given more responsibilities when employee perform well at current tasks	○	○	○	○
Opportunity to get higher positions in the company	○	○	○	○

Please indicate how important each item is to you *

Work-life Balance

	not important	somewhat not important	important	very important
Given respect for personal situations	○	○	○	○
Opportunities for flexible working hours depending on their personal needs	○	○	○	○
Opportunity to decide for themselves when to go on leave	○	○	○	○
There is a flexible attitude regarding the connection between work and private life	○	○	○	○

Promises fulfilled by your employer

Based on the HR practices earlier, how much have your employer fulfilled your promises?

Please indicate the extent your company has provided out each item listed below *

Recruitment and selection refers to the obtaining and evaluating potential candidates to be part of the company.

	not at all	slightly	partially	greatly
A clear recruitment process	○	○	○	○
Recruit from external sources/outside the company	○	○	○	○
Recruit from internal sources/within the company	○	○	○	○
The recruitment process is better than other companies	○	○	○	○
Select the right person for the right job	○	○	○	○
Proper procedures in the selection process	○	○	○	○
No chances of personal biasness when selecting the person	○	○	○	○
Fair and justifiable selection process	○	○	○	○

Please indicate the extent your company has provided out each item listed below *

Compensation and recognition refers to all monetary and non- monetary rewards received in return for work.

	not at all	slightly	partially	greatly
Amount of pay that reflect the work done	○	○	○	○
Equal pay among employees with the same level/position	○	○	○	○
Equal pay for the same job in other companies within the same industry	○	○	○	○
Rewards system that is fair and rewarding for people who accomplish company objectives	○	○	○	○
Reward system that recognizes people who contribute the most to the company	○	○	○	○

Please indicate the extent your company has provided out each item listed below *

Performance appraisals are evaluation or assessment methods for employee performance of tasks or job.

	not at all	slightly	partially	greatly
Frequent formal appraisals	○	○	○	○
Frequent informal appraisals	○	○	○	○
Uses the results from the appraisals	○	○	○	○

Please indicate the extent your company has provided out each item listed below *

Training and Career Development refers to formal or informal events carried out by your company to enhance your skills and knowledge to carry out current and future work.

	not at all	slightly	partially	greatly
Opportunity to go for training, courses and workshops	○	○	○	○
Opportunity to develop new skills and knowledge for their current job or possible jobs in the future	○	○	○	○
Coaching that supports their development	○	○	○	○
Support in planning employees' future development	○	○	○	○
Opportunity to work for another department	○	○	○	○
Opportunity to do another job within the company	○	○	○	○
Good career prospects	○	○	○	○
Given more responsibilities when perform well at their current tasks	○	○	○	○
Opportunity to get higher positions in the company	○	○	○	○

Please indicate the extent your company has provided out each item listed below *

Work-life balance

	not at all	slightly	partially	greatly
Given respect for personal situations	○	○	○	○
Opportunities for flexible working hours depending on their personal needs	○	○	○	○
Opportunity to decide for themselves when they want to go on leave	○	○	○	○
There is a flexible attitude regarding the connection between my work and private life.	○	○	○	○

Employee Retention

Please state your opinions regarding your intentions to remain in your company. *

	strongly disagree	disagree	agree	strongly agree
My employees do not intend to quit their jobs.	○	○	○	○
It is unlikely that there will actively look for a new job next year.	○	○	○	○
They are not thinking about quitting their job at the present time.	○	○	○	○
Ifgiven an option again, they choose to work for the company.	○	○	○	○

Demographic Details

Kindly complete the following information below for statistical purposes. Please mark the applicable blocks accordingly.

Gender *

- ○ Female
- ○ Male

Your Age Group *

- ○ Baby Boomers (1946 – 1964)
- ○ Gen X (1965 – 1976)
- ○ Gen Y (1977 – 1995)
- ○ Gen Z (1996 – present)

How many years are you employed with your current company? *

- ○ Less than 6 months
- ○ Less than 1 year
- ○ Less than 2 years
- ○ Less than 3 years
- ○ Less than 4 years
- ○ Less than 5 years
- ○ More than 5 years

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APPENDIX 2 – CONTENTS OF QUESTIONNAIRE (EMPLOYER)

Insert Code here: ________________

	HR Practices				**Psychological Contract**			
SECTION 1: RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION "Recruitment and Selection" refers to the obtaining and evaluating potential candidates to be part of the company.	**Please indicate how important each item is to your employee.** 1 = not important 2 = somewhat important 3 = important 4 = very important				**Please indicate the extent you have provided each item listed below.** 1 = not provided at all 2 = slightly 3 = partially 4 = greatly			
Recruitment and Selection	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
1. A clear recruitment process 2. Recruit from external sources/outside the company 3. Recruit from internal sources/within the company 4. Better recruitment process than other companies 5. Select the right person for the right job 6. Proper procedures in the selection process 7. No chances of personal biasness when selecting employees 8. Fair and justifiable selection process								

	HR Practices				Psychological Contract			
SECTION 2: PERFORMANCE APPRAISALS "Performance appraisals" are evaluation or assessment methods for employee performance of tasks or job.	**Please indicate how important each item is to your employee.** 1 = not important 2 = somewhat important 3 = important 4 = very important				**Please indicate the extent you have provided each item listed below.** 1 = not provided at all 2 = slightly 3 = partially 4 = greatly			
Performance Appraisals	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
1. Frequent formal appraisals 2. Frequent informal appraisals 3. Uses the results from the appraisals								

	HR Practices				Psychological Contract			
SECTION 3: COMPENSATION AND RECOGNITION "Compensation and Recognition" refers to all monetary and non- monetary rewards received in return for work.	**Please indicate how important each item is to your employee.** 1 = not important 2 = somewhat important 3 = important 4 = very important				**Please indicate the extent you have provided each item listed below.** 1 = not provided at all 2 = slightly 3 = partially 4 = greatly			
Compensation and Recognition	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
1. Amount of pay that reflect the work done 2. Equal pay among with the same level/position 3. Equal pay for the same job in other companies within the same industry 4. Rewards system that is fair and rewarding for people who accomplish company objectives 5. Reward system that recognizes people who contribute the most to the company								

	HR Practices				Psychological Contract			
SECTION 4: TRAINING AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT "Training and Career Development" refers to formal or informal events carried out by your company to enhance your skills and knowledge to carry out current and future work.	**Please indicate how important each item is to your employee.** 1 = not important 2 = somewhat important 3 = important 4 = very important				**Please indicate the extent you have provided each item listed below.** 1 = not provided at all 2 = slightly 3 = partially 4 = greatly			
Training and Career Development	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
1. Opportunity to go for training, courses and workshops 2. Opportunity to develop new skills and knowledge for their current job or possible jobs in the future 3. Coaching that supports employee's development 4. Support in planning employee's future development 5. Opportunity to work for another department 6. Opportunity to do another job within the company 7. Good career prospects 8. Given more responsibilities when employee perform well at current tasks 9. Opportunity to get higher positions in the company								

	HR Practices				Psychological Contract			
SECTION 5: WORK-LIFE BALANCE	**Please indicate how important each item is to your employee.** 1 = not important 2 = somewhat important 3 = important 4 = very important				**Please indicate the extent you have provided each item listed below.** 1 = not provided at all 2 = slightly 3 = partially 4 = greatly			
Work-life Balance	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
1. Give respect for personal situations 2. Opportunities for flexible working hours depending on their personal needs 3. Opportunity to decide for themselves when to go on leave 4. There is a flexible attitude regarding the connection between work and private life								

SECTION 6: EMPLOYEE RETENTION	Please state your opinions regarding your intentions to remain in your company. 1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3 = agree 4 = strongly agree			
Retention	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
1. My employee do not intend to quit their job 2. It is unlikely that my employee will actively look for a new job next year 3. My employee is not thinking about quitting their job at the present time 4. If he/she is given an option again, my employee will choose to work for the current company.				

SECTION 7: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Kindly complete the following information below for statistical purposes. Please mark the applicable blocks accordingly.

Gender:

c) Male
d) Female

Age Group:

e) Baby Boomers (1946 – 1964)
f) Gen X (1965 – 1976)
g) Gen Y (1977 – 1995)
h) Gen Z (1996 – present)

How many years are you employed with your current company?

h) Less than 6 months
i) Less than 1 year
j) Less than 2 years
k) Less than 3 years
l) Less than 4 years
m) Less than 5 years
n) More than 5 years

Prifysgol Cymru
Y Drindod Dewi Sant
University of Wales
Trinity Saint David

Psychological Contract for Employee Retention

The purpose of this study is for the thesis for Doctorate in Business Administration (DBA) of the researcher, Shaun Stephen to explore and analyze the factors of the psychological contract that will lead to the retention of employees in organizations, specifically in the Event Management industry.

Any information gathered will be used strictly for the purpose of this study and will not be shared with any other parties. Do note that there are NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS because it is all based on your own views. So do answer the questions as honest as possible.

shaun.malaysia@gmail.com Switch account

Not shared

* Indicates required question

I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily. *

○ Yes

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason. *

○ Yes

I agree to take part in the above study. *

○ Yes

I confirm that I hold a supervisory/managerial role within my company *

○ Yes

As the results of the research will be matched according to your subordinates, a reference number is required. Please key in the reference number below. *

Your answer

What is important to your employees?

HR practices are important to retain employees. Please indicate how important you think each statement is to your employees.

Please indicate how important each item is to your employee *

"Recruitment and Selection" refers to the obtaining and evaluating potential candidates to be part of the company.

	not important	somewhat not important	important	very important
A clear recruitment process	○	○	○	○
Recruit from external sources/outside the company	○	○	○	○
Recruit from internal sources/within the company	○	○	○	○
Better recruitment process than other companies	○	○	○	○
Select the right person for the right job	○	○	○	○
Proper procedures in the selection process	○	○	○	○
No chances of personal biasness when selecting employees	○	○	○	○
Fair and justifiable selection process	○	○	○	○

Please indicate how important each item is to your employee *

"Compensation and Recognition" refers to all monetary and non- monetary rewards received in return for work.

	not important	somewhat not important	important	very important
Amount of pay that reflect the work done	○	○	○	○
Equal pay among with the same level/position	○	○	○	○
Equal pay for the same job in other companies within the same industry	○	○	○	○
Rewards system that is fair and rewarding for people who accomplish company objectives	○	○	○	○
Reward system that recognizes people who contribute the most to the company	○	○	○	○

Please indicate how important each item is to your employee *

"Performance appraisals" are evaluation or assessment methods for employee performance of tasks or job.

	not important	somewhat not important	important	very important
Frequent formal appraisals	○	○	○	○
Frequent informal appraisals	○	○	○	○
Uses the results from the appraisals	○	○	○	○

Please indicate how important each item is to your employee *

"Training and Career Development" refers to formal or informal events carried out by your company to enhance your skills and knowledge to carry out current and future work.

	not important	somewhat not important	important	very important
Opportunity to go for training, courses and workshops	○	○	○	○
Opportunity to develop new skills and knowledge for their current job or possible jobs in the future	○	○	○	○
Coaching that supports employee's development	○	○	○	○
Support in planning employee's future development	○	○	○	○
Opportunity to work for another department	○	○	○	○
Opportunity to do another job within the company	○	○	○	○
Good career prospects	○	○	○	○
Given more responsibilities when employee perform well at current tasks	○	○	○	○
Opportunity to get higher positions in the company	○	○	○	○

Please indicate how important each item is to your employee *

Work-life Balance

	not important	somewhat not important	important	very important
Given respect for personal situations	○	○	○	○
Opportunities for flexible working hours depending on their personal needs	○	○	○	○
Opportunity to decide for themselves when to go on leave	○	○	○	○
There is a flexible attitude regarding the connection between work and private life	○	○	○	○

Promises fulfilled by you.

Based on the HR practices earlier, how much have you fulfilled your promises to your employees?

Please indicate the extent you provided each item listed below *

Recruitment and selection refers to the obtaining and evaluating potential candidates to be part of the company.

	not at all	slightly	partially	greatly
A clear recruitment process	○	○	○	○
Recruit from external sources/outside the company	○	○	○	○
Recruit from internal sources/within the company	○	○	○	○
The recruitment process is better than other companies	○	○	○	○
Select the right person for the right job	○	○	○	○
Proper procedures in the selection process	○	○	○	○
No chances of personal biasness when selecting the person	○	○	○	○
Fair and justifiable selection process	○	○	○	○

Please indicate the extent you provided each item listed below *

Compensation and recognition refers to all monetary and non- monetary rewards received in return for work.

	not at all	slightly	partially	greatly
Amount of pay that reflect the work done	○	○	○	○
Equal pay among employees with the same level/position	○	○	○	○
Equal pay for the same job in other companies within the same industry	○	○	○	○
Rewards system that is fair and rewarding for people who accomplish company objectives	○	○	○	○
Reward system that recognizes people who contribute the most to the company	○	○	○	○

Please indicate the extent you provided each item listed below *

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	not at all	slightly	partially	greatly
Opportunity to go for training, courses and workshops	○	○	○	○
Opportunity to develop new skills and knowledge for their current job or possible jobs in the future	○	○	○	○
Coaching that supports their development	○	○	○	○
Support in planning employees' future development	○	○	○	○
Opportunity to work for another department	○	○	○	○
Opportunity to do another job within the company	○	○	○	○
Good career prospects	○	○	○	○
Given more responsibilities when perform well at their current tasks	○	○	○	○
Opportunity to get higher positions in the company	○	○	○	○

Please indicate the extent you provided/carried out each item listed below *

Performance appraisals are evaluation or assessment methods for employee performance of tasks or job.

	not at all	slightly	partially	greatly
Frequent formal appraisals	○	○	○	○
Frequent informal appraisals	○	○	○	○
Uses the results from the appraisals	○	○	○	○

Please indicate the extent you provided each item listed below *

Work-life balance

	not at all	slightly	partially	greatly
Given respect for personal situations	○	○	○	○
Opportunities for flexible working hours depending on their personal needs	○	○	○	○
Opportunity to decide for themselves when they want to go on leave	○	○	○	○
There is a flexible attitude regarding the connection between my work and private life.	○	○	○	○

Employee Retention

Please state your opinions regarding your employees intentions to remain in your company. *

	strongly disagree	disagree	agree	strongly agree
My employees do not intend to quit their jobs.	○	○	○	○
It is unlikely that there will actively look for a new job next year.	○	○	○	○
They are not thinking about quitting their job at the present time.	○	○	○	○
If given an option again, they choose to work for the company.	○	○	○	○

Demographic Details

Kindly complete the following information below for statistical purposes. Please mark the applicable blocks accordingly.

Gender *

- ○ Female
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Your Age Group *

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- ○ Gen Y (1977 – 1995)
- ○ Gen Z (1996 – present)

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- ○ Less than 3 years
- ○ Less than 4 years
- ○ Less than 5 years
- ○ More than 5 years

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