
Spring 2020

An Analysis of HR Leadership Within the Public and Private Sectors

STEPHANIE OAKLEY
soakley1997@gmail.com

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An Analysis of HR Leadership Within the Public and Private Sectors

Stephanie Oakley

Integrated Studies, Murray State University

BIS 437: Senior Project

G. Michael Barton, MBA, SPHR

April 11, 2020

Abstract

Human Resource leadership has always been a very important role in any organized business. The services offered by HR are embedded within organizational structure, employee recruitment, employee development/training, compensation/benefits, employee performance/disciplinary management among many others. These essential functions of HR provide a foundation for any organization that wants to be successful.

Although HR leadership in public and private sectors have similar regulations, their needs and functions can look very different. This project will look into the differences between the management of human resources between the public and private sectors of business within the United States. HR policy and procedure can look very different between the public government sector and private businesses due to laws, budgets and political environments. Taking a comprehensive look into the differences in HR management between the two can help determine ways to improve the HR functions mentioned above in both sectors.

Each entity can learn a lot about retaining good employees by looking at the avenues and methods each uses to recruit and select those employees. There are also many differences in the compensation and benefits offered by each of the entities. Variances in pay and other benefits can have a great effect on their ability to retain competent employees. Performance Management, employee training, and the ever-increasing technological advancements all play a statistical role in the success of organizations. In discussing all of these functions, we will review improvements and see what each sector can learn from the other.

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An Analysis of HR Leadership Within the Public and Private Sectors

By Stephanie Oakley

Introduction

Human Resources are the internal workings of any substantial company. This consists of the people who put things into motion and then keep those things in motion. The management of “people” resources is the embodiment of a well-lead organization. Human Resources, which refers to the employees as well as the department that manages them, was previously referred to as Personnel. Not only does human resource management help organize what the business structurally looks like, but it also hires, manages, trains, promotes and gives provision to the entire workforce of the business.

Successfully managing the people of any organization is the epitome of success for that organization. Dr. Kelman (2011) conducted substantial research in the public sector involving several government agencies. His lecture in the article gives the results of how the management of the agency’s agenda influences the failure or success from within.

The first study involved governmental agencies created under Bush and Clinton with specific agendas. The research involved looking at the agenda or mission of the organization and whether the leaders were successful or failed at achieving said mission. The overall difference noted between the successful and unsuccessful leadership was that the successful leaders wanted to be good managers, whereas the unsuccessful ones just wanted to institute the change being sought by the mission.

His second research listed in the article was in regards to crime agencies and their ability to collaborate information to make their communities safer. In this research, it is noted that good management in these agencies are ultimately what brought better outcomes. Collaboration and

change were important concepts in this study, but overall, Dr. Kelman believes that just knowing how to manage effectively in any of these organizations brings better outcomes and fulfills initiatives in the public sector. Is effective management the answer for private companies as well?

Ross & Savage (2013) describe public sector employment as anything within the realm of “the economy concerned with the provision, production, distribution and allocation of public goods and services” (p.3). This includes federal, state and municipal governments as well as education and healthcare. Comparing public and private sectors can be mundane in some areas and much like night and day in other areas.

Chun (et.al 2010) discusses the comparison between business versus government as not necessarily being at odds or in competition but having different goals. They state that profits and competition are business goals, while security, welfare and economic growth are government goals. Decision making in business is usually short-term and involves few people. Government decision making can take longer because of the many number of people and organizations that are involved in the process. This one simple aspect of business (decision making) is probably at the forefront of differences between private and public sector management.

For the purposes of this paper, most comparisons will be based between the public sector and private sector business that is not unionized. An active union changes the dynamic of human resource management and adds another level to the functions of HR. There will be a focused section on unionization. Before we discuss the similarities and differences in the HR functions of planning, recruiting, hiring, compensation, benefits, performance, promoting and training, let’s turn our focus briefly to the political environments of each sector.

Organizational Politics

Organizational politics exists wherever there is power and control. This is evident within both sectors of business and everywhere else in between. This subject alone has been at the forefront of study for many years, from political actions, conflict management, how employees perceive the political action and even the skills it takes to have such power and control. The skills must be evident in the person or people leading in order to be perceived as competent to lead in management (Drory & Gadot, 2010). Therefore, if the ability to lead politically is important for leaders in management, how much more important is it for Human Resources Management?

Drory & Gadot go on to discuss the attributes, both negative and positive, about how words such as “power” and “control” can be perceived. In their research they found this:

“A study conducted by Gandz and Murray (1980) found that employees usually consider organizational politics to be an unfair, evil, irrational and unhealthy behavior but at the same time as a necessary skill for those who want to get ahead and be promoted in the workplace.” (p.195)

They go on to say that being able to use political power and influence brings a special favoritism from superiors. Because of this, it has a negative impact on HR processes. If Human Resource managers are the ones in the mix of the favoritism, this brings an added layer of damage.

According to Kapoutsis & Thanos (2016):

”Political behavior refers to intentional acts from a broad repertoire that may include influence tactics, self-presentation, impression management, voice and helping behavior to manage (create, maintain, modify or abandon) the shared meanings of organizational situations so as to produce desired outcomes that would otherwise be unfeasible”

Because this explanation of political motivation is so grand, it can be all inclusive for both public and private environments. While it is assumed that the public sector might be ruled

by political agendas and will, politics is not merely a public sector ideology. Political behavior is a human agenda. We want what we want, whether it be for the good of others or the good of ourselves. So, it could be ascertained that the organizational goals are what drive the political environment of any company or agency, no matter if it be public or privately lead (Kapoutsis & Thanos, 2016).

Back to Drory and Gadot's study on the negative and positive implications of organizational politics, the same study that found employees viewing political action and influence negatively also believe that it is necessary to advance within an organization. There is evidence that the same political leadership can also help the organization as a whole succeed. While the behavior tears down the processes in HR, it can empower employees and leadership to carry out the mission and goals of the organization.

In regards to influential behavior affecting HR procedure, studies have shown that using this behavior in a positive concept (i.e. being assertive, rational and persuasive) versus in a negative demeanor (i.e. manipulative, coercive, unfair) has been deemed contributable and necessary. When these positive behaviors are used more frequently, there are better outcomes for human resource managers (Drory & Gadot, 2010).

There are still many more studies that have shown that politics in the workplace is most times debilitating in nature. Elbanna (2018) discusses political behavior within organizations for the purpose of decision-making. He wanted to prove that using political influence and ideals in decision making can be helpful in an organization. Although he did not prove it, he did show that when political behavior is used for the good of the organization, it led to faster decision making and success. This was based on private sector data. There are many more studies proving that

political behavior negatively affects decision making processes, which in itself can be a definitive factor in the differences between public and private business.

Laws and Regulations

Laws and regulations imposed on employers and employees have shaped the processes of human resource management. Every process is affected by a law or regulation and that is a never-ending cycle. It is important to understand the boundaries that are in place for employers to even begin the process of hiring.

While unionization has its own section in this analysis, unions have deeply shaped the management of employees and laws surrounding that. There is another term that sets itself apart from unionization and that is “at-will” employment. This term basically means that an employee or an employer can break the employment contract at any time for no real reason at all.

Regulations from government bodies contradict the at-will process. (Befort, 2001).

Pynes (2013) discusses a multitude of federal laws and regulations regarding employment. The Civil Rights Act of 1866 first introduced laws against racial discrimination in employment. It was the Civil Rights Act of 1964 that listed discriminatory prohibitions regarding “race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.” (pg. 71). From this legislation was birthed the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. The EEOC investigates discriminatory claims in the workplace and ensures that businesses comply with the law. If a certain religion, sex or national origin is required for the job, that employer does not have to comply.

Many other laws have come along the way, such as the Age Discrimination Act of 1967, which prevents employers from discriminating based on age when hiring, promoting, retaining, among other things. The Americans with Disabilities Act, which was revised over time, protects those with certain physical or mental impairments from discrimination, from the point that they

place an application through to retirement. The Family Medical Leave Act has requirements of employers that protect eligible employees through the birth or adoption of a child or a health crisis. All of these laws and many other regulations were created to protect. Human Resources must be mindful of them, not only through the recruiting process, but throughout each process of employment.

Workplace environment is also a steady issue that weathers age and era. The Occupational and Safety Health Act requires employers to comply with safety standards initiated by the government. With an increasing population with health issues, safety is an ever-growing topic in workplace compliance and legislation (Befort, 2001)

The Federal Employees Pay Comparability Act of 1990 not only has an impact on federal workers, but also retired workers and anyone receiving Social Security benefits. It mandates that every year, those working, retired or receiving those benefits receive what is called a COLA. This is a cost of living adjustment based on inflation annually (Purcell, 2010).

Along with federal and state mandates, cities themselves are creating employment law. Chilco & Phillis (2020) discuss Pittsburgh's ordinance for employers within their city limits. The city mandates that if an employer has 15 or more employees, they must provide forty annual hours of paid sick time to full-time (35 hour per week) employees. This is discussed in further detail in the compensation and benefit section.

Over the last century, there has been the creation of legal ramifications for just about every aspect of the management of human resources in the United States. From recruiting, hiring, orienting, placing, training to firing and even unemployment, how we manage people is forever evolving.

Planning and Job Analysis

Planning and analyzing for the organization are the first essential functions of Human Resources. Before the work is started, a plan must be in place for what that job will look like. What are the skills needed to do the job? What are the characteristics of the employee that will be performing the tasks? Even before those questions, what are the tasks that need to be carried out? This is where HR management works with either the board of a company or the council of a government agency to determine these answers.

Pynes (2013, p.40) explains that HR in the public sector has such a focus on compliance to a point of not keeping up with what is needed to be a strategic partner with the agency it is working within. While the private sector is diving into talent assessment and performance management, the public sector finds itself conforming to the rules of the time period. While regulations are important to protect each of us from discrimination like racism and ageism, investing in competent leadership and development is what drives the business forward.

Pynes goes on to discuss the differences in business ownership that can define HR's role as well. Privately owned businesses usually have a board of directors who work in conjunction with the CEO and other leadership of the company. They also usually have stockholders, and business decisions are made in order to satisfy the stockholders. Smaller businesses, while not having stockholders, are also driven by making money. Therefore, the relationship between HR and leadership has a dynamic of what is best for the business most often. While the mission of the business may be to serve their customers, the stockholders' needs are the ultimate goal.

In the public sector, most agencies or governments have elected officials, appointed council members, or a mixture of both. Their "stockholders" are the people or community they serve. Although making money gives the business livelihood, elected or appointed officials'

priority stance is to serve the people. Again, as with private companies, the goal of a public agency may be to serve a purpose, but “stockholders”, better known as “voters” are the ultimate agenda.

Another construct in the strategic planning of an organization that brings about complications is authority and how it is used. Alford & Greve (2017) discuss the differences in how managers approach strategy within the public and private sectors. In their data, they see a trend of public managers focusing on the process (who, what, when, where, why), whereas private sector managers focus on the “how” of the situation. This trend goes back decades. Alford & Greve go on to say that this is most likely due to each entity’s environment – “the private sector facing a market environment while the public sector deals with a more political environment.” (p.3)

Ownership and authority, while not exactly the same, have similar rationale when it comes to HR’s role in the planning of organizational structure and methods. The role of stockholders and environment are what create great differences in the public and private sectors. For instance, the market environment can be somewhat short-term, driving change more quickly than the political environment. Policy is a driving force in the public arena, which takes time and authority to implement. By the time new policy is accepted, implemented and in process within the public arena, the private market has moved on to a new endeavor.

Job analysis is another function that falls under planning. The Society for Human Resource Management describes job analysis as “the process of gathering, examining and interpreting data about a job’s tasks and responsibilities”. An analysis of the job includes determining its responsibilities, comparing it to other jobs, and specifying what skills and

knowledge are needed. This information leads to a job description. Each position within an organization should have a job description.

Job analysis not only guides human resources with knowledge to write the job description, but it also provides direction and commitment to the employee. In a study based within the Nigerian Airport Authority, Ibeto (2019) wanted to determine whether job analysis was helpful to improve the quality of service and commitment of employees. The study determined that job analysis was a positive influence in the improvement of quality in the service and provided better job satisfaction to more committed employees. Ibeto also determines that a huge issue within public sectors (especially in under developed countries) was that job analysis was non-existent in most cases. Without a proper job analysis, all of the other functions of HR are muddled. If the knowledge, skills and abilities are not determined for the job, how can HR hire the proper people? How can employees know that this is the right job for them or that they are really even qualified to do it?

Drory & Gadot (2010) discuss the relevance of organizational politics within the job planning and recruitment process. They stress the importance of making sure job roles and tasks are specific and detailed. Considerations must be made for the work and political environments while planning to hire or promote for a position. They state “When standards are clear and uncompromising, the likelihood of the development of ambiguity is low and organization politics becomes less dominant and less negatively influential in the process of human resource decisions” (p.196).

Recruiting and Selection

Recruiting and selection are HR functions essential for placing competent people in the jobs they have the skill and ability to perform, all the while hopefully enjoying themselves. No

pressure. Human resource recruitment involves advertising open positions, gathering a group of applicants that meet the qualifications and abilities of the job based on applications, and then selecting that person or persons by means of interviews, tests and background checks.

Chungyalpa (2016) covers six steps in the process once you have chosen from the stacks of resumes and applications. First is the preliminary interview. This step helps reduce the number of applicants with a first impression so to speak. Next, employment tests are useful to make sure the applicant is capable of performing basic functions or even personally compatible for the job. Third is an employment interview which allows those interviewing to learn more detail about the individual. Fourth through sixth involve a physical exam, final selection and placement. It all sounds cut and dry, but there are many laws and regulations that must be followed to make sure everyone has an equal opportunity.

The methods used for recruitment can affect your selection pool. Baltes (et.al 2017, p.608) discusses Age bias and states that recruiting minimally or too broad affects the selection pool significantly. The methods used for recruitment and even the wording used in the advertising of the job can bring about a bias in the selection pool and create a minimally diverse group to choose from. This lack of diversity can cause issue with regulations and laws if it is a consistent recruiting habit of that employer.

For an example in diversity within the hiring process (specifically interviewing), Lim (et.al 2006) states that developing strategies for interviewing people from other cultures than your own is vital to crossing cultural barriers within the workplace. In their study of Zaidi, an Algerian with six months experience in Australia, it was noted early in the process that his cultural experience was limited. So, the interviewer took the time to develop a relationship with him in order to make Zaidi more comfortable with the process.

Job descriptions play a crucial role in the recruiting process. Collier & Zhang (2016) make a good argument for reducing bias during the recruitment phase of hiring, stating that the way a job description is written can attract certain cultural groups or genders while detracting others. They state that “women and minorities are...more likely to think that they must meet every requirement listed on a job description” thus keeping those groups from even applying for the position. They claim that language and tone within the responsibilities and qualifications of the job can lean toward male applicants and that using gender bias tools when writing these job descriptions can help thwart gender bias. While this is good information for the writer of job descriptions, those seeking employment should also be taught certain unspoken rules like the fact that you do not have to meet all requirements to be chosen for a job.

Back to discussion at hand, the same recruiting methods exist for public and private organizations. SHRM.org lists several ideas for businesses to source employees: the company’s website, online agencies, social media, newspapers, internal referrals, etc. Osoian & Zaharie (2014) used data and analysis from questionnaire surveys to determine the methods of recruitment used in public and private organizations and the outcomes those methods achieved. They state that the methods used in recruiting competent people can determine the outcome of hiring the right people.

Their studies show that public sector methods for recruiting employees use less referrals from internal places, less self-referrals, and less job fairs. Many of the public sector job placements come from lateral internal transfers. Public organizations, however, use advertising, both internally and externally due to required regulations. Outcomes were difficult to analyze due to the lack of tracking that companies and organizations have within the recruitment process.

There was little to no data from this study tracking how many competent applicants were received based on the method of recruitment.

Another common difference in the public arena when it comes to selection for certain jobs is that some government positions are appointed by the elected officials. For instance, a Mayor and city council can create a job and appoint who will fill it all without even going through a human resource department or process. As long as the position and salary are approved by the elected officials, there is no regulation of how that person is selected. This aspect of government employment so to speak can sometimes create chaos when an elected official only fills that role for a short period. Once that elected official leaves, many times the appointed officials change with the new guard, bringing a completely new atmosphere and agenda to the business at hand.

Additionally, regarding recruiting within government entities, each division of government usually has its own human resource department along with its own job site for applications. For instance, the federal government uses www.usajobs.gov to converge all applicants into one database. There you can see listing of jobs currently open and apply directly through this site. There are jobs open to the general public as well as jobs open to current federal employees. Each agency has its own website for recruiting as well. In looking at www.cdc.gov, you can see that you need to be registered through www.usajobs.gov in order to apply.

The same can be found within state departments. For example, the state of Kentucky has its own website to apply for positions,

<https://kypersonnelcabinet.csod.com/ats/careersite/search.aspx?site=1&c=kypersonnelcabinet>.

Each agency has its own hiring processes and minimal HR staff that takes care of some of the

hands-on processes of HR, while the more generalized and broad duties are handled at the state level. This same concept can be found in larger private organizations.

Orientation and Onboarding

Human resources management normally has a defined and planned system for orientation of new employees. It is a continuation of recruitment and its process also has deep roots in retention. Orientation involves welcoming new employees and situating them to their new environment and culture within the organization. It is a time to learn the mission and policies of the organization as a whole and cover benefits. According to shrm.org time in orientation should focus on the following: mission, organizational chart, employee handbook, benefits, safety, administrative policies, and an overview of departments. This general information should apply to every new employee and sometimes starts before the employee is even hired, during the recruitment phase.

Onboarding goes deeper and is more personalized. Hillman (2010) defines onboarding as “a special, conscious effort to make a new employee quickly become a productive member of the organization, laying a solid foundation for a long-term relationship.” Much like a first impression, onboarding (first few weeks of employment) impresses an image on the new employee that could possibly last the life of the employment contract. Therefore, it is easy to say that impression can shorten or lengthen that employment time.

Creating an onboarding manual or process is key in providing a great first impression and foundation for new employees. Hillman also gives ten specific tips to pull off successful onboarding listed below:

1. Develop a short and longer-term plan for integrating the new employee into the organization.
2. Define the job accurately and completely.

3. Clarify the new employee's role within the department and organization.
4. Introduce the new hire – within and across functional teams.
5. Explain and provide documentation on standard operating policies and procedures. Make sure both references and coaching are readily available.
6. Provide a sequence of training and development opportunities to make the job easier and to enhance the employee's career path.
7. Clarify and provide documentation on emergency procedures as well as guidelines to empower employees where appropriate.
8. Help the new employee understand your unique campus mission, vision, and service culture as well as the employee's vital contribution to campus success.
9. Make the job manageable.
10. Clearly define performance standards and measurement. Identify formal evaluation milestones and, in addition, seize opportunities for frequent feedback.

Lavigna (2015) discusses the increasing difficulties of onboarding within the public sector. Due to increasing division within government and the public it serves, empowering and motivating employees takes special and unique response. Lavigna states that he believes that “the single biggest challenge facing government – at all levels and around the world – is attracting, developing, and retaining talent” (pg.38). He states and studies show that high employee engagement with the employer or agency brings better customer service, achievement of agency goals and better attendance and retention.

Compensation and Benefits

Much like employment law, there are many regulations on wages (how much a particular job pays) and hours (how much/when a person works). The Department of Labor describes The Fair Labor Standards Act as establishing “minimum wage, overtime pay, recordkeeping, and youth employment standards affecting employees in the private sector and in Federal, State, and local governments” (www.dol.gov). So it stands repeating that the private and public sectors must both adhere to these standards of compensation.

It is a common assumption that government employees, on average, make less in wages in comparable jobs than those employees in the private sector. However, a study of the suburbs of Chicago may have proven that a misconception. Desai and Hamman (1994) set out to prove or debunk some assumed inadequacies in smaller local governments, specifically in the areas of compensation, benefits, competency of hires, politics of hiring, recruitment, affirmative action, etc. Their study used a base of 60 percent of the smaller communities outside the city of Chicago. Their findings on compensation and benefits suggested that these smaller communities were able to keep on track with the private sector.

Condrey, Facer and Llorens (2012) elaborate on two methods of comparing pay between public and private sector organizations. The first method looks at the differences in pay at particular occupations between the two sectors. The second method of comparison details pay across human resource demographics such as age, gender, education, etc. The first method endorses the idea that the private sector pays more across occupational levels than the public sector. The second method, however, suggests that pay is comparably higher across demographics in the public sector than the private.

The US federal public pay system contains 15 grades of pay with a 30 percent range. The range may help explain why, on average, public employees are paid less than private employees when looking at occupations, especially in advanced fields requiring higher education. Explaining the second method could be as simple as the public sector retains employees for longer ranges due to other benefits, such as retirement pensions.

Almeida and Bovie (2009) also disagree with the suggestion that the public sector is on track with the private market. It is their belief that this is why the pension program allures some prospective employees. Their article focuses on the many benefits of a defined benefit (DB)

pension. The development of Social Security made obvious the need to have a means to take care of ourselves monetarily when we are older. Retirement plans like a DB pension were birthed for public employees from the idea of Social Security.

They believe that a DB pension plan has shown to be most cost effective for the public sector. Studies have shown its benefits from being fiscally responsible to being a preferred means of retirement by many public employees. It is beneficial (although debatable) to the tax payer and fiscal year because cash flow is delayed. It is beneficial to the employee because it has many benefits that a typical 401K or no retirement contribution at all in many private sector positions. It also, as said above, helps compensate the lower wages that public sector employees have compared to private sector.

Reilly (2013) discusses compensation in the public sector by way of retirement benefits. He also states that pension benefits make up for a lack in wage compensation in the public sector. He covers the debatable assumption that a pension is beneficial because the cost of retirement benefits has exceeded the inflow of funds due to cost of living increases and inflation. Many local governments and states have cut other needed public programs to financially cover for the shortfalls of the pension program. Reilly states that four aspects of reform will help this dilemma: transparency, shared pension costs, hybrid pension plans, and retirement security for others.

Transparency in pay and benefits can be a benefit if the information is used to make budgetary decisions for the future. His view of a shared pension is much like how private companies contribute to a 401k or 403b plan. Combining a hybrid system seems like a good idea, however, there is still an issue of lower pay in the public sector. While his views are noble and a

good start, the real issue with retirement pension plans is government spending within those funds on non-fund related activities, which is another debatable issue of its benefits.

David Lewin (2003) gives a history lesson of how and why the government developed a system of compensation based on the need for reform, the lowering of taxes and increase in competitive services. He gives examples of where such organized incentive systems of compensation are used. His studies show that incentive pay is preferred among employees and managers. His last analysis states that, while governments tend to use incentive pay in many of their jobs, the compensation doesn't amount to much compared to the total compensation, which will be discussed shortly regarding military positions.

The recession in the 1970's was a catalyst to incentive pay in many government-service jobs. Due to reductions in the workforce, many service jobs still had to be maintained, such as electric, sanitation and road work. This furthered the process of incentive pay within the public sector, giving incentives for working fewer workers and longer hours. Competition with the private sector has also helped encourage incentive pay as well as instability in tax revenues. More recently, a demand for better performance of employees and the services customers are receiving has promoted higher incentives in order to retain those employees and satisfy the customers.

The ability to retain employees in both sectors is directly related to compensation and benefits. Even the perception of the employee in regards to what they are being compensated in total is a determining factor in keeping those employees satisfied and on board. The United States military, for example, must continue to use compensatory motivation to recruit and retain employees, competing heavily with the private or civilian based sector. While the military gets a base pay for whatever rank or position they enlist into, there are also many other taxable and

non-taxable cash reimbursements that can be expected. They may receive a housing allowance that is not taxable. This is a guaranteed monthly payment regardless of whether it is all spent. They may also receive additional pay or bonuses for becoming specialized in a particular area or working in riskier areas or conditions (Perez & Jansen, 2018).

Also, according to Perez & Jansen, there are additional non-cash benefits that can add up, constituting 21% of their compensation. Aside from housing provided for them, education, and healthcare, there are a large assortment of amenities such as fitness memberships, golf and other recreational sites, as well as stores and exchanges that are of little or no cost to them. The healthcare they receive is all-inclusive for them and their families. They are also offered many deferred benefits such as retirement and healthcare that continue with them after their service.

Much like the private sector, the military is set up to recruit their employees with a nice base salary that increases over time, healthcare for them and their families, as well as a chance for some type of retirement. The key to retaining these military employees is helping them see all the additional benefits and bonuses that the private sector jobs do not offer normally. Perez and Jansen say the key to retaining these military members and making sure they enlist for prolonged amounts of time is to help them see their benefits package in total. Isn't this the way to retain ALL employees? It seems as though the public sector must work a little harder at making sure their employees recognize the benefits than the private sector.

Another issue with compensation in the public sector is brought to the forefront by Alexandre Mas (2017). Salaries of those in the public sector are often public knowledge. Mas dives into the idea that making salary knowledge available to the public can cause pay changes, but rarely helps effectively change policies or gain accountability. His studies have shown that making this compensation information available to the public can decrease salaries by 7 percent,

especially the higher-level positions. The response of the public is more responsible for this than the idea of making the government more accountable.

This practice is not common in the private sector. In fact, it is just the opposite, as employees are encouraged not to disclose their pay to other employees. Pay is a confidential matter in the private sector. Disclosing pay rates can lead to setting precedents that are very difficult to reverse, which in turn can cause employers to stifle pay raises. Accountability for these rates takes place internally within management and human resource leadership. Accountability for the pay rates within the public sector has the added level of being accountable to the public.

Another source of compensation to study is the benefit of time off, whether it be personal, vacation, holidays or sick time. This benefit is usually at the forefront of a candidate's mind when determining whether to accept a position with a company. This benefit can oftentimes look very different between public and private entities. In many corporations and businesses, employees are given what's called paid time off. This one bucket of time includes sick, personal and vacation time. In most government agencies, especially local and state, their vacation and sick time are separated. Sick time can be used for the employee or if a child is sick.

Abay (et.al 2017) states this:

“Access to paid sick leave (PSL) varies widely across firm size, employment conditions industries, and occupations. In the U.S., 64% of workers in the private sector and 90% of workers in the public sector had PSL in 2016. Lower percentages were found in goods-producing industries, small-sized firms (1 to 99 employees), and construction, extraction, farming, fishing, and forestry occupations. The lowest percentages were found among part-time workers in the private sector (30%) and workers within the lowest 10% wage categories (27%).”

Smith & Schaefer (2011) analyze the statistics of rural workers' access to paid sick time off. Their analysis shows that 44% of people working in rural areas do not have access to at least

5 sick days a year. This compares to 38% of people in cities. In their studies, they also see a direct relationship between paid sick time and all other benefits, such as vacation time, insurance and retirement among other things. If there is a lack of any one of those other benefits, there is always a lack of paid sick time.

States like New York City are passing laws regulating the rights of employees to take time off for illness and be paid for it (Tsui et.al, 2017). There are economic advantages to this idea of paid sick time as a benefit. With an increase of older Americans in the workforce, their need for time off due to illness or health issues is greater. More older Americans in the workplace means less Americans that are withdrawing money from the Social Security Income, thus relieving the financial burden on the government if only for a little bit (Lester, 2011).

Abay (et.al 2017) goes on to discuss many more benefits of paid sick leave. It can defer turnover by 3-6% depending on the status of the employee. It can deter “presenteeism, defined as being present at the job but performing at a reduced capacity due to illness or injury.” The employee not being a hindrance to productivity and recovering quicker are secondary benefits of deterring presenteeism. Paid sick leave can also prevent workplace injury, as employees working while sick can be a liability to the company and those around them. A fourth benefit to paid time off that Abay discusses is the ability to use that time for preventative healthcare. A healthier workforce is a more productive workforce. The fifth and last benefit of giving employees pay while home sick is that it can prevent the spread of illness. The spread of illness in a workplace can cost the company productivity as well as additional healthcare expense. The propensity of employees to stay off work while sick is in direct correlation to having paid sick time to take.

State and local governments seem to provide not only more paid sick time, but also more paid vacation and holidays. For instance, the City of Madisonville Kentucky provides annually

12 paid holidays, 12 paid sick days and 10 paid vacation days for full-time employees who have been there for at least six months. That is 34 paid days off and that increases as the number of years increase. Part-time employees do not get any of those benefits.

The City of Pittsburgh recently passed an ordinance that was years in the making regarding paid sick time. It mandates that all businesses who employ fifteen or more employees (whether full or part-time) must make provisions for sick leave. Those employers must allow accrual of 40 hours of paid sick time per year, accruing based on one hour per thirty-five hours worked. If employers already provide more than the minimum accrual, this satisfies the ordinance. While these employers do not have to provide a pay out of this sick time at termination, they do have to allow for a rollover of a maximum of 40 hours annually to the following year (Chilco & Phillis, 2020). As you see, while these sick time laws have not made their way to our state and federal counterparts, they have integrated into our local system.

An analysis of private companies, both large and small (Ray et.al, 2013), shows that 23% of Americans have no paid vacation or holiday pay. The average vacation and holiday time for those that do have it in the private sector is 10 vacation and 6 holiday paid days. This being the average would make the minimum much less than the minimum for Madisonville's local government. In a long list of countries such as New Zealand, Australia and Japan, the United States is the only one that does not have policy mandating that employers provide such time off. That mandate in some of those countries can be as much as 30 or more days of paid vacation with some countries forcing employers to pay that vacation time at premium rates. It is safe to say that, while the government sector may give more paid time off on average in the United States, it does not mandate its businesses to do the same.

Performance Management

Pynes (2013) states that “an effective [performance] evaluation system can be used to assist agencies in accomplishing their missions” (p.304). A good performance evaluation can give much needed and strategic information to the employee and management. If an employee is struggling in an area, it can bring awareness for improvement. It can also bring about an increased motivation to continue doing a great job when employees are affirmed in this way. Evaluations can also lead to training and advancement opportunities which will be discussed in more detail later.

For management, evaluations that are in a structured format can provide information on who may need more training or who may be in line for more responsibility or even promotion. Evaluations can also be a tool to separate employees who are not performing the duties and responsibilities of the job. Evaluations are also used to streamline the compensation system.

A common issue within public or government-based employee evaluations is that pay is rarely based on these appraisals (Pynes, 2013). Pay and promotion are largely indicative of seniority, certifications or competitive testing. However, that seems to be changing as the public requires more accountability from agencies. Taxpayers are essentially the stakeholders in local government, and they are increasingly expecting more value for their stake. A taxpayer can be an individual or a business entity. Local governments tend to wane when it comes to consistency in performance measures. According to Kloot and Martin (2000), the key is to make sure the policies and measures are linked across all facets of the organization, giving the city council and/or mayor the ability to make strategic decisions.

It is found that performance in the public sector is imbedded in both management and political accountability. Managers within the organization, when held accountable for their budgets, are a good way to measure financial performance. City council and/or city administration are best held accountable for their performance by the public, especially during voting season. Satisfaction of the customers (citizens or local businesses) is a good way to measure performance in this scenario.

Alfred Ho (2011) discusses the advantages and disadvantages of performance-based budgeting (PBB) in the public sector. PBB has been established several times throughout the decades in America as being a relevant way to gauge where money should be spent in the public sector. According to the article, this type of budgeting can be very political and not take into consideration diversity. Studies have shown it can aid in evaluating what the public agency is doing well and what needs improvement.

One of the main issues of this type of budgeting in the public sector is that it is not completely relevant. At the end of the day, money will still be appropriated wherever it would have been regardless of the findings of performance measures. This is a core difference in private and public budgeting. While many other things, like policy and politics, drive budgeting decisions in the public sector, performance truly drives numbers in the private sector, making this type of budgeting more appealing in private business.

While local governments may use performance information for decision making and budgetary needs, the use of the information for policy changes is most often inconsistent. This inconsistency causes financial and service missteps. Melkers and Willoughby (2005) give great insight as to why measuring performance is so important to the success of any agency. One benefit of using this performance information is that it can encourage management to continue

performance improving efforts. If the information is not used consistently and changes made accordingly, this discourages managers from making those much-needed improvements. This performance information can also be used to tweak budget issues. Changes and improvements annually in performance can strategically affect the money coming in and going out of a department. The research of Melkers and Willoughby showed that communication across areas of government regarding performance greatly benefits budgetary issues and activities within departments.

Capelli & Tavis (2016) have a different perspective on performance appraisals. They state that appraising performance started around World War I within the U.S. Military, to get rid of those who did not cut it and keep those who rose to the status quo. This type of evaluation moved into the private business and eventually helped determine who was trainable for more responsibility. This also gave way to the merit-based system with the government that also became incorporated into private business. Appraisals were a way to determine monetary raises. Eventually, the way employees were rewarded monetarily was based on their evaluation rating.

According to Capelli & Tavis, this annual evaluation system has gone to the wayside in many large companies like GE and Dell. These companies see this system as looking at past performance instead of basing rewards on current or even future performance. Many have done away with the evaluation process and have implemented a system that operates in the current status of the employee. What needs improvement now? Who needs rewarding now in order to move to a higher plane of responsibility and training? While an annual performance evaluation looks back on the employee's accomplishments, a current look into the status of the employee keeps things in a future perspective of improvement and progression. Evaluation of performance is not a one-sided issue. It is not just to put people in rank and file hoping that they will be

motivated. If done properly, in whatever way necessary, it should lead to promote and train those employees who wish to progress and improve with the company or agency.

In the government setting, while the employees' annual raises are usually based on cost of living increases mandated by the State of Kentucky, there are usually not a lot of other ways to reward employees. Using an annual evaluation process along with desired rewards can bring value to the agency as a whole. Government entities commit to a merit system instead of a performance system. The merit system keeps things fair and in alignment, for the most part. It also keeps budgeting issues at bay and pensions within budget at retirement. Thompson (1979) points out that "failures of merit pay in private sector organizations have variously been attributed to a lack of commitment to pay for performance" (p. 122). We could dare say that the public system sees the same failures of merit pay.

The reason the private sector does not use a merit system is because they find more success in performance when they reward it with some type of payment. While facing tight budget constraints and making sure those budget numbers have longevity within pension programs, government entities must find creative ways to reward employees for good performance.

Objectives for a good evaluation system will bring clarity and consistency to an employee's job and their managers, whether in the private or public sector. Condrey (2012) says it best:

"Job analyses inform employees about what is expected from them and remind supervisors what their employees are being asked to do. The specific evaluation factors used in an appraisal instrument are then designed to measure the performance of the tasks indicated by the job analysis." (p. 566)

When employees and their superiors know what's expected of them, the basis of a good evaluation system can be developed. Once a local government agency has developed the items expected and ranked them accordingly, there should be a system of rewards attached. Since substantial annual performance raises are not an option in many small agencies, a bonus system of some sort could be developed.

A key to a good evaluation system is determining what motivates employees in each area of service. Pynes (2013) defines motivation as “the desire within a person causing that person to act” (p. 306). Pynes also explains the Equity Theory (p. 310), stating that employees will easily exchange getting a certain pay or benefit for an outcome they perceive worth what the employer desires. Competent performance is the desire and it is hard to achieve without being willing to exchange it for a compensatory and tangible benefit. Coming up with innovative ways to compensate for performance will allow a government entity to be more competitive in recruiting and retaining good performing employees.

Training and Promotion

According to Rothwell & Whiteford (2011), “training is a short-term change effort intended to equip individuals with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes they need to do their jobs” (p.149). They see training initially as a way for employers to make sure employees meet minimum requirements or as a step after a promotion. Training can also help minimize unemployment and improve productivity. It is used by managers to keep employees up-to-date and change behaviors and attitudes. They also discuss development as more of a long-term training that has a purpose of advancing employees in their jobs and enhancing the way they do their jobs.

Pynes (2013) states that a list of training objectives must be determined to develop the best training program. An assessment of what knowledge, skills and abilities are needed when the employees are fully trained is necessary (p. 279). This list of needed abilities and skills are pertinent in knowing what type of training to develop. A list of current employee's education background will also be helpful in developing the type of training.

Lots of issues have an effect on the use of training and development, as these can wax and wane. The state of the economy can put a damper on an employer's willingness to financially sustain training of its employees. The resources needed to provide training can also increase or decrease its existence. Government policy and regulations can also be a driving force in whether training and development are catalysts for change within the workplace. Ultimately, no matter the reason, training and development are a means to an end result of some kind (Rothwell & Whiteford, 2011).

Technology and its overwhelming and constant cost has an enormous effect on training and development. Within government agencies, that cost must usually be justified. Regarding technological training costs, Condrey (2012) states that "given the rapid changes in technology, these costs will recur" indefinitely (p.11). Recurring technology costs must first be planned for in the budget. Of course, a public agency wants their employees to be highly skilled, but the cost must be weighed and figured into the scene. Thompson (1979) even states that "the ever-changing global economy, dramatic technological change, and increased expectations about government performance demand a new attention to the complex set of public service skills and capacity" (p. 522). Taxpayers expect innovative techniques and superior performance for their needs. In order to keep up with that ideology, agencies must make sure they are constantly effective in their training of employees and updating that as needed.

Rothwell & Whiteford offers six categories of training in the workplace. The first off-the-job training, which is training that takes place at a site that is not near the workplace. There is near-the-job training, which takes place away from the work site to sway distraction, but close enough to not interrupt daily work. On-the-job training takes place with the help of other co-workers to gain knowledge in real-time with real equipment and procedures. They state that this involves 90% of training occurrence. Apprenticeships and internships fall into this category. Cross-training involves teaching employees how to do multiple levels of a job even though they may only be responsible for part of it. Blended learning can be any duplication of these sources of training. Last, E-learning uses any type of electronic instruction to teach policies, procedures or other skills and abilities.

Training and development are important in the retention of competent employees. It is important for employee morale and gives them a sense of ownership, but it is also very expensive for an employer to do. Rothwell & Whiteford give some great statistics on how much cost goes into training and developing employees from a 2007 report. A more current report from <https://www.td.org/insights/atd-releases-2016-state-of-the-industry-report> states the following:

- In 2015, the cost on average was \$1,252 per employee for training.
- The average amount of training per employee was 33.5 hours.
- Learning per hour cost \$82.
- Most training was done in the areas of managing, compliance, and processes.
- 49% of training hours were with face-to face instructors in a classroom.

Training employees is a large investment of time, money and resources for every employer. Intellectual capital within the human capital of the workplace, while an investment, is also a valuable asset. (Rothwell & Whiteford, 2011).

Training and developing current employees should be a planned venture from the beginning. Pynes (2013) states that the main reason for having a plan to train and develop employees is due to the constant changes occurring in our cultures, business practice, and technology. Change is an inevitable force and a constant. In order for employees to be prepared for change, employers must have plans in place to train them.

Torraco (2016) states that training and development came about due to the increase in the need for education. Job skills were first needed for surviving the elements. Then those skills were progressive into a learning of deeper meaning and insight. Technology on multiple levels have developed those skills even further. With each level remains a need for training and development of newly acquired skills and abilities. Which is why many corporate employers find importance in teaching employees the entire work system instead of a single work process. The more employees understand the workflow as part of the entire process, the more valuable these employees are.

A large influx of training occurred after World War II, when the government agencies (public sector) connected with private production organizations, training millions to strengthen and increase military mechanical needs. This was called “Training within industry” and helped bring about collaboration to produce an effective and competent workforce. This ultimately helped the public sector realize the importance of training development, leading to the establishment of the Association for Talent Development. This also led to what is currently known as the G.I. Bill, helping millions of soldiers return to civilian life with jobs skills and training, among other things. Training that involves collaboration among business and government seems to always lead to progress for its citizens (Torraco, 2016).

Torraco goes on to discuss the Instructional Systems Development (ISD) model as being a catalyst for integrating different types of training methods. There are five phases in this training model that have withstood the test of time and technological advances: Analyze, design, develop, implement and evaluate. The application of this model has helped create innovative ways to teach and train in the workplace, even when everything around us is changing.

Torraco also discusses the financial value of training employees. He states that “Human capital theory provided the basis for the perspective that training is an investment in employees and productivity rather than a cost” (p.4). Even in times of financial instability, it seems that having and keeping a trained workforce is worth the expense. The lack of research and inability to prove the return-on-investment in training is what makes this perspective a moot point oftentimes.

There is no doubt that training and developing employees is valuable to the employee themselves. Méndez & Sepúlveda (2016) compares lots of data regarding employee training and how it effects compensation in the public and private sectors. Using data from an eight-year span in the United States, it is determined that employer provided training has a positive impact on wages in both sectors. The private sector, landing at a 2% increase, is not as influenced by this training as the public sector, with a 6% increase. Across the data, average pay with training is more than average pay without it.

Using an equation, the data also suggests that, when an employee receives training and transfers into an opposing sector of employment, that training has a positive effect on their hire wages. In the United States, the portability benefit of training transfers similarly from public to private and vice versa. The question that may not be answered here is what are the reasons behind training that improves pay? Is it merely increased competency and productivity? Could

it be that training provides new connections and business relationships not previously of benefit? Another study would need to take place for that determination (Méndez & Sepúlveda, 2016).

When we consider promotions within both private and public sector, we can assume that the process is very similar. However, promotion within the public sector can have underlying factors of a politically partisan nature. Drory & Gadot (2010) state that organizations “reward their members when they further the interests of the organization” (p.199). When a city or state government is under the direction of one party or another, this can undoubtedly direct the promotion process. Those who are compliant with the influencing authorities receive the promotions.

Labor Unions and Organized Labor

According to the Oxford dictionary, a trade union is “an organized association of workers in a trade, group of trades, or profession, formed to protect and further their rights and interests.” Collective bargaining is defined as “a process that obligates management and union representatives to negotiate in good faith in an attempt to reach an agreement concerning issues that affect employees” (Pynes p.342, 2013). This legal process first began in the private sector and then used in the public sector once established.

The first legal ramifications of collective bargaining began with the National Labor Relations Act of 1935 that created the National Labor Relations Board. This act helped expound on unfair labor practices and the NLRB enforced the act. The Labor Management Relations Act passed in 1947, which amended the NLRA to further expound unfair union practices.

Jurisdictional standards is a term used to determine the NLRB’s power or reaching boundary

over the flow of commerce in the midst of a labor relations issue. All of this applies to the private sector and excludes the federal, state and local government (Pynes,2013).

The federal government's labor relations, mostly in executive offices, are covered by The Civil Service Reform Act of 1978. Many other government agencies, such as the FBI, CIA and even the US Postal Service, were not included in this Act. The NLRA now governs the US Postal Service under The Postal Reorganization Act of 1976. The main difference for postal employees is they have no right to strike. Much like the NLRB, the Federal Labor Relations Authority was created in 2011 to oversee labor relations issues for federal employees under the authority of the CSRA. Bargaining for federal employees has more restrictions than any other government employees, in regards to wages, benefits and political activities, among other things. They also are not allowed to strike. State government employees are most times confined to their own state laws regarding bargaining (Pynes, 2013).

The Labor Management Relations Act is responsible for determining the appropriate bargaining unit, which is the employees that are being represented by a union representative. Then the representative for that union can be placed. The LMRA also excludes management from that unit being representative. The policies of the business are highly influenced by management; therefore, management is not included within the unit being represented. Pynes also discusses confidential employees, or employees that have access to labor relations information, such as human resources. Such employees are also excluded from being represented in the bargaining unit. Other bargaining units are sometimes separated from other units. For example, police officers and firefighters oftentimes fall under state statutes for creation of bargaining units due to public safety.

Procedures for union representation and membership are determined by the Labor-Management Relations Act. Union representation can be achieved by either a formal certified election or by merely being voluntarily recognized by the employer. A formal certified election usually follows the denial of the employer voluntarily recognizing the union. A union only needs 51% of the votes to be that unit's representative. Once considered a Union Shop, employees who are hired within the appropriate bargaining unit are required to join the union. This prevents employees from not paying dues, but benefiting from the representation. Federal government employers are prohibitive of union shops. An agency shop requires all employees within the unit represented to pay dues, even if they are not a member of the union. This does not apply to "right-to-work" states, in which the states do not allow such practice. (Pynes, 2013).

Collective bargaining conventionally is categorized into three types: mandatory, permissive, and illegal. Mandatory topics include things like working conditions, salaries, and fringe benefits. For government employees, it is somewhat restrictive. States have their own requirements while bargaining over wages is prohibited for federal employees. Permissive topics are items that the union or the company may choose to bargain over. Examples of these are insurance and retirement benefits, disciplinary procedures or even grievances. Sometimes, there can be a gray area between mandatory items and permissive items. For instance, with teachers in the public education system, class size can be a bargaining issue. Its status as permissive would have to be decided on a case-by-case basis since this could be a working condition issue. Illegal topics include things like employment standards, job qualifications or organizational structure. Most times, illegal topics are handled through legislation (Pynes, 2013).

Anzia & Moe (2015) state below, regarding public sector unions:

“Public sector unions represent interests that arise from civil society, but from inside the government – to influence government itself. Their core interests are the job interests of public employees, which arise inevitably wherever government exists. How successfully and powerfully these job interests get organized can vary considerably across contexts, of course. Union density is much higher in local and state governments than in the federal government and much higher for some public occupations – teachers, firefighters, police officers – than others.” (p.3)

While bargaining within the public sector is needed as much as within the private sector, there are consequences there that are not necessarily seen in private business. Unions influenced government policy and procedure even before they were introduced historically to the public sector. Once a unit such as teachers, firefighters or police officers begin bargaining, the cost of government goes up. Since government is mostly funded by taxpayers, this brings another level to bargaining that is rarely studied or discussed. Not only are there monetary costs of this, but also costs to political interest as a whole. It can bring a whole new level of power and influence to unions when interests such as gun control, abortion policy or the environment are introduced. Therefore, as Anzia & Moe (2015) point out, public sector unions not only gain power with the ability to organize, but also through politics.

Anzia & Moe also highlight the bargaining power of public sector unions and the deceptive cost. They can use fringe benefits like insurance and retirement because those have delayed cost to the government and taxpayers. They do not affect cash flow immediately, which helps that cost stay off the radar. As a matter of fact, according to the studies in this article, “When it comes to health benefits for police and fire protection employees, cities with collective bargaining are spending 15 to 25% more than cities without collective bargaining” (p.12). This kind of bargaining helps their members while also helping the political environment. Because unions have millions of members and highly contribute to political campaigns, their well-defined organization makes them extremely important in the political process. However,

again, due to the public's higher understanding and intuition of wages, unions have much more influence on benefits of public sector employees.

Matsa (2010) also discusses this aspect from the private sector point of view. The higher a company's available cash or immediate assets, the easier it is to make wages a bargaining tool. This aspect of financial bargaining power goes both way: either to benefit the company or benefit the employees via their union. Financial decisions are deeply influenced by the impact they will have on negotiations, specifically regarding wages, since they are at the helm of where liquid assets are used.

Moe (2009) confirms the power of public sector unions in a different light. He states that political action among these unions is so important because the government is the sustenance of these employees, and moreover, all citizens. He goes on to say that when the unions win and change the rules, those rules oftentimes become a part of legislation for the entire population or have a profound effect on the structure of government. The power that those units gain by organizing has a fundamental effect on governmental policies and procedures, sometimes to a fault.

Terry Moe goes on to look specifically at the unionization of educators across America and its consequences. Basically, what his research suggests is that when bargaining contracts enter the scenario of education, it puts restrictions on the profession, which limits the success of the students, more specifically, minority students. The restrictions that unions bring, such as lighter evaluation methods, prohibiting certain duties, requiring less course preparation, among other things, are sometimes contradictory to the needs of the students for academic success. When things like seniority override quality in different areas, teachers are not working in areas that will bring the supreme goal of the job – academic success of students.

Moe (2009) goes on to give the contrasting observation of this data. A request in bargaining for smaller classrooms is an obvious benefit to students. Higher quality teachers may be drawn to better benefits and wages, thus being an advantage for academics. Higher quality teachers can also mean less turnover and absenteeism, which is advantageous for the entire community.

What Terry Moe concludes in his research is that when government employees organize and bargain, it is many times at the expense of the community they serve and the taxpayers that fund it. Bargaining brings about a self-serving way. Of course, a contract's objective is to serve the people for which it is being written. This can be in spite of the detrimental effects it can have on the community they serve.

Collective bargaining has many effects on human resource management and the function that it serves. A German study on five years of data suggests that the decline of collective bargaining also resulted in detrimental effects to the gender wage gap and negative wage growth overall (Antonczyk et.al.,2010).

Verma (2017) studies the effects (both positive and negative) of unions on management and human resource policy. She states that there are two processes that give unions an edge on management. First, the sheer ability to organize members is a statement to the company that they want higher wages and benefits for their members. Then the interaction between the union and the company itself brings greater communication and better outcomes for its members. Verma states that the union's "demand for fairness leads the union to get into almost every area of day-to-day managerial decision-making at the workplace level" (p.3). It is as if the union is a branch of the human resource department.

As discussed before within the public sector, the private sector also has detrimental consequences when unions enter the scene with requests for higher wages and benefits. If a business is already performing at a certain level, an increase in wages brings about a need to lower resources or quality. Verma says this is called the price effect economically. Because an area like wages is increasing, productivity and output can suffer if there is no plan to buffer those effects.

Verma also discusses the voice effect. Any managerial decision that has an effect on workplace conditions will inherently be discussed with the union representation. When unions engage with management to discuss any of these decisions or policies that affect their membership, it will either end with the union exhibiting its power or result in a give and take negotiation. The power of an organized union and its voice are both influential in how much that union can accomplish for its members. There is evidence that the power of the union is more influential than its voice. Better said, if the union does not exhibit much power, the voice of its leadership is also hindered.

What Farber and Western found from their work in 2002 was a steady decline in union membership over three decades. While they suspected it to be due to lack of interest in and ability of unions as a whole, this was not the case. They found that unions declined because employment in union shops declined as a whole, where employment in nonunion shops increased. In the private sector, it seems that unionization leads to higher wages, but lower employment numbers over time. Similarly, Ross & Savage (2013) see the decline of unionization as a result of globalization.

Organizational Performance

There is a lot of research and still much to be researched when it comes to an organization's performance, whether it be public or privately owned. With this research of performance as a whole, we must also look at how the organization handles conflict resolution with its employees and customers, organizational culture, and diversity. All of these issues are human resource management concerns.

Diversity

Choi & Rainey (2010) look into workplace diversity and its effect on organizational performance by studying federal agencies. Affirmative Action and Equal Opportunity regulations cause the public sector to be more prone to have diversity in the workplace. Managing diversity has seen both positive and negative effects. Positive effects of diversity in the workplace include more perspectives that bring about better solutions, new ideas and efficient problem solving. Some negatives regarding diverse groups of employees include more time spent on conflict resolution, low levels of decision making, and less integrated communication. Choi & Rainey did extensive research on the "short-term consequences of diversity that influence the long-term outcomes of diversity" (p.110).

Due to the desire of individuals leaning toward socialization with similar peer groups, Choi & Rainey suspect that "higher levels of workforce diversity will decrease organizational performance" (p.111) based on the similarity-attraction theory. Social-integration says that individuals look for similar people to communicate with, thus, hindering communication and socialization with others that are different. However, learning how to sufficiently manage these aspects plays a favorable part in organizational performance. This is another hypothesis the article studies.

They discovered that racial diversity seemed to be the only factor that negatively affected performance, while gender diversity was favorable. They looked at how employees perceived their management and complaints regarding Equal Opportunity Employment to determine whether effectively managing this diversity helped. The management of racial diversity showed significant positive and negative effects according to the measurement of perception and complaints. Other types of diversity had no bearing one way or the other. The data did show that any effective management of diversity carried out over a long period of time did have favorable results. In total, “The findings suggest that the effects of diversity management can enhance or even reverse the main impacts of diversity on organizational outcomes” (Choi & Rainey, 2010, p.116). While the public sector fairs well in requiring diversity through its regulations, it does not always understand or fair well in managing it.

Organizational Culture

Choi & Rainey (2010) discuss organizational culture as being the values and patterns displayed by its members. These patterns of behavior become the normal atmosphere of the organization. This can affect performance simply by having a diverse workforce in itself. Having a workplace atmosphere that emphasizes results breeds competition. Competition can have constructive effect on performance, but adding diversity may hinder that performance. Diversity meeting competitiveness can be counter-productive, but Choi & Rainey believe that being results oriented will still improve performance. The results of this study were inconclusive except for age diversity. The higher the age diversity, the greater influence showing competition was favorable for organizational performance. Therefore, this is saying a culture of competitive results improves organizational performance if there is high age diversity.

Torraco (2016) discusses Schein's theory regarding organizational culture (p.8). Schein "believed that only when trying to change an organization does one begin to understand it more fully." If a business observes a need for change, sometimes this is the point that they understand how they have gotten where they are – by the culture they have created.

The culture of an organization can oftentimes be determined by its social structure and the processes that are consequential of that structure. As Ostroff (et.al, 2012) points out, that organizational culture influences "turnover, job satisfaction, job performance, citizenship, safety, customer satisfaction, service quality, and organizational level indicators of effectiveness" (p.643). If the atmosphere of a workplace can influence all the pertinent items significant to human resource leadership, it should be the first thing evaluated.

Ostroff (et.al, 2012) also points out that culture is not an immediate thing. It is time dependent and is developed by a pattern of behaviors and consequences. It is basically the habits of the employees of an organization. Public sector culture can be perceived in different ways depending on the type of business that is being performed. For example, employee morale is oftentimes proven to be low among public sector employees. Arunchand & Ramanathan (2013) point out in their studies that this is more than likely due to the rigid and procedural role that the public sector plays. Many times, public sector employees are performing a task mandated instead of performing an innovative service.

Conflict Resolution

Conflict is described by the Merriam-Webster dictionary as an "antagonistic state or action, as of divergent ideas, interests, or persons." Conflict exists in everything that we do, whether it be personal or business. Conflict is also no stranger to neither public nor private entities. How conflict is managed plays a significant role in the success of that entity.

Spaho (2013) explains that conflict arises in the workplace due to differing of opinions or ideas. Conflict must be managed correctly or it can lead to a breakdown in communication. Communication is key to all human interactions and is also a key figure in organizational success. According to Spaho, there are four types of organizational communication: downward (management to department), upward (department to management) , horizontal (department to department) and diagonal (one level to a different level). Spaho also explains four types of conflict within the workplace.

- Vertical conflict takes place when a supervisor micro-manages the employee.
- Horizontal conflict involves employees in the same area with the same status.
- Line staff conflict occurs when production employees and support staff have a disagreement. This usually occurs within the same department.
- Role conflict happens when there is a miscommunication in purpose of a job duty or assignment.

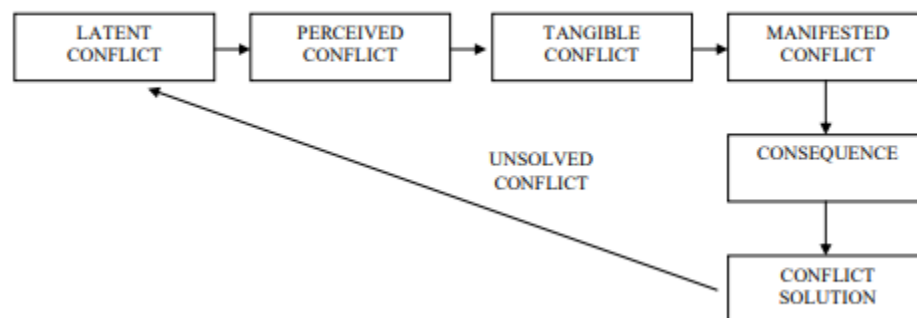
There are also differences in personal and organizational conflict. Personal conflict can include bad perception of behavior, communication errors, distrust, and personal dislikes. Organizational conflict might involve influence of or dependence on others, specializations of expertise, scarce resources, compensation, and neglect. No matter the reasoning for conflict, it can always have a positive or negative effect.

Wilmot & Hocker (2018) explain that the root of conflict usually lies in a struggle for power or authority over a situation. Using the examples from Spaho regarding personal conflict, if distrust creates conflict, it is usually because the person who is not trusted has an ability or authority to make decisions that affect others. If there were no power in the balance, then distrust would simply be a thought process. In organizational conflict, if scarce resources create conflict,

the power struggle of competition to get those resources would be the conduit. Power and authority are usually what is at stake in most any type of conflict.

Louis R. Pondy's stages of conflict process are discussed by Spaho (2013). He discusses the different ways that conflict can be managed at each level. A model of this process is seen below:

Figure 2. Conflict process according to Pondy's model



Source: Adapted from Gonan Božac et al, 2008

The latent stage consists of sources of conflict that are not necessarily seen. They may be unaware or hidden within a contrast in goals or scarce resources. At this stage, even those involved in the process may not be consciously aware of the issues. In the perception stage, eyes are opened to all involved in this process. The awareness may be through a misunderstanding that gets resolved in this stage or the latent conflict brings about more conflict that needs to be handled. At this stage of conflict when there is not a simple solution, both entities involved in the process begin to make this personal and “tangible”. In the manifestation stage, if not already resolved, everyone involved deals with the issues in their own ways that they have learned to understand and combat conflict. As you see in the figure above, the final consequential stage either brings resolution or takes them back to the latent stage (Spaho, 2013).

Wilmot & Hocker (2018) devote an entire chapter of their book to conflict styles, as discussed in Pondy's manifestation stage. Individuals have different ways in handling conflict situations. These evolve within a person's background, past experiences, continual learning and personality. Let us look at The Rahim model which gives five conflict styles. Of these five styles, our background and personality can be prone to just one style or it can fluctuate, determined by the situation or time that has passed.

Avoiding.

Those practicing the avoidance style of conflict resolution may joke about the issue, change the topic all together, or deny that the problem even exists. While this style seems timid, that is not always the case. Avoidance can be an aggressive tactic if the party practicing it has the most power in the situation. Avoidance also does not mean that the parties are unaware of the conflict, nor will the conflict be resolved by ignoring it. Advantages to this style include the ability to have time to ponder on an important issue, being able to ignore an insignificant problem, or simply providing a safe space in a dangerous situation. Disadvantages in using this style are that it can seem cold or uncaring and it can also allow time for others' anger to grow in the crisis (Wilmot & Hocker, 2018).

Spaho (2013) calls the avoidance style a passive style. However, Wilmot & Hocker go on to describe a couple of behaviors of those who chose this style, which are a more aggressive approach. Some choose to avoid by criticizing their conflict opponent, which deflects any ownership of the problem onto the other person. Then, there are some who chose to postpone the problem, recognizing it in the open, but not allowing anything to proceed further, giving false hope to the others involved.

Dominating.

Wilmot & Hocker (2018) describe the dominating style as being “characterized by aggressive and uncooperative behavior – pursuing your own concerns at the expense of another” (p.163). With domination, the goal is to “win” whatever argument or conflict that is at stake. Within this style, there can be differences in the personality of the one using this style. For instance, they can be aggressive, in an attempt to destroy the other side, or they can be assertive, verbally expressing themselves in a competitive and non-threatening way. Advantages of this style are especially regarded when quick decision making is needed. Dominating can also show others that you are committed to a solution. The disadvantages of a dominating style can be relationally damaging. It can also cause the other parties to go in a defensive mode or even resort to manipulating the situation. This style can also lead to even worse scenarios involving bullying, coercion and harassment, which are deeper human resource issues that need handling.

Obliging.

The obliging style is seen as kind and accommodating. The dictionary describes accommodate as “to provide sufficient space.” The obliging individual sets aside their own wants and desires to provide a space for the good of the other parties involved. They see yielding their own needs to the needs of the group as a way to resolve the issue. An advantage of using this style can be keeping things harmonious and reasonable, especially if it is a losing battle anyway. Using this style can also bring about a perception of not having a lot of power or credibility if it is used often. It can also be perceived as a suggestion that one does not really care about the issue at hand, somewhat dismissing it as unimportant (Wilmot & Hocker, 2018).

Compromising.

The compromising style involves cooperation from both sides, willing to give and take. It should be noted that neither side has absolute power, or the need to compromise would not exist. Compromise advantages often revolve around failure of other styles to work. If there is a quick need to balance power, even perceptively, this style works well. It also takes account the desires of all parties involved, leaving a sense of rational and sensible process. It becomes disadvantageous when the parties lose sight of the gains and focus on the losses. It is also easier and quicker to compromise than it is to form a thoughtful and creative solution and can cause delays in true reform. (Wilmot & Hocker, 2018).

Integrating.

Also known as collaborating, the integrating style is the one that is most engaging for all parties. It not only takes into account the relationships and goals for all involved, but its main focus is to solve the problem. Collaborating is basically reaching across the table during a conflict to work together for a solution. It brings creative concepts and cooperation in hopes to responsible, new results. Its advantages are obviously new ideas, respect for all involved, and a renewed strength in the relationships. However, integrating styles can evolve into manipulating habits. It can also fall on deaf ears if only one party is using this style to solve the problem, making the hard work of finding a solution unproductive (Wilmot & Hocker, 2018). It can also be very time consuming and can be damaging when interacting parties have differences in values (Spaho, 2013).

Disciplinary Process

Dzimbiri (2017) describes discipline as correcting bad behavior with punishments and appreciating good behavior with rewards. Whether a public agency, a private organization or a small business, organizations are usually made up of groups of individuals or even groups of

teams, all managed by a hierarchy of management. These individuals (and even each team or department) have their own personalities and perceptions of the world that they bring to work every day. Management must have an effective and consistent way to deter and/or correct bad behavior individually and for the team, while rewarding good behavior if for nothing but the sake of leading by example.

The purpose of a disciplinary process is to learn behavior that lines up with the goals and mission of the organization. Employees, when first hired, come into a new environment and are hopefully given a good orientation into the needs, mission and goals of the organization. They are given the regulations and rules to abide by with a sense of why these are important for the success of the individual and the organization. If there are habits that negatively correlate to the job they are doing or the business model as a whole, then the purpose of a disciplinary process would be to teach that employee a new behavior. If used properly, it can improve work performance and give the employee a sense of ownership of their own productivity (Dzimhiri, 2017).

Disciplinary action should only take place after the employees are aware of the consequences of the actions. It should not be a process that begins immediately. Dzimhiri gives some guideline on how to proceed with discipline in the workplace. This is outlined below:

1. It must be private, not given publicly.
2. It must maintain management hierarchy, with immediate supervisor administering it in an encouraging and useful way.
3. The behavior should be the focus, not the individual.
4. It should be carried out as soon as possible after the infraction occurs.
5. It must be consistent across the spectrum of the organization.

6. There should be a standard carried out that cannot be manipulated when managing different employees and situations.
7. The immediate supervisor is responsible for the disciplinary process and for maintaining a good work environment after the action is taken.

Within an organization carrying out disciplinary action, there is something called organizational justice. According to Dzimbiri, there are three types: distributive, procedural and interactional. The procedures must be fair, they must be distributed fairly and they must be communicated in a dignified and effective way in order to be relevant and provide for a positive work environment with higher job satisfaction.

Dzimbiri points out many areas in the workplace that are cause for the disciplinary process: Negligence, unreliability, insubordination, obstructing other people's rights, theft, and safety infractions. Most infractions of anything covered under the rules and regulations of an organization will fall under these areas. There are steps within disciplinary action, making this a procedural process. It is suggested, to change behavior and limit legal ramifications, that the first steps of the process be a verbal warning and then a written warning. If this does not initiate changed behavior, further action can proceed.

Dzimbiri researched and studied the Civil Service of Malawi. The research is pertinent to the process because it involved a diverse workforce, bringing many perceptions and beliefs to the pool of information. It is also a good look at disciplinary action within a public sector. He first looks at the problems of the agency. The employees as well as the agency management had a long list of infractions within the organization. Employees listed some common items such as insubordination, absenteeism, drunkenness and theft, as well as things like supervisory issues,

lack of motivation and job dissatisfaction. The agency listed problems similar to the employees adding bribery and failure to care for public property.

Absenteeism, negligence and theft can all be too common in the public arena. These all require a deep commitment to the job being performed. Employees claiming that there are no incentives to work hard can claim these three infractions as their self-absorbed incentives. Job dissatisfaction and lack of motivation can lead to taking advantage of things that are not necessarily up for the taking. Then, when these things happen, there is no consistent consequence by supervisors, due to some of those supervisors committing their own theft, negligence and absenteeism. So, not only are their multiple issues occurring, but they are all very cyclical (Dzimbiri, 2017).

Dzimbiri noted that the disciplinary process within the agency seemed standard, with a verbal warning and then a more formal written letter. In most human resource files, he found that few had any procedural affects after the written warning. This makes the case that most of these issues had no follow up, bringing no improvement or consequence to the problem. The other problem he found was that the written warnings were issued by Human Resources, and not the immediate supervisor.

Not only were the processes flawed, but the perception of the employees differed within the organization as well. There were complaints of the process taking too long, which undermines the authority of supervisors. This also eludes to being unfair because many who received consequences or even dismissals months after their infractions had forgotten what they did in the first place. There were also accusations that the agency is biased toward some and their actions are politically motivated. Unfortunately, what the employees are learning from their

disciplinary process is that their employer and supervisors are consistent, but unfair (Dzimbiri, 2017).

While creating a code of conduct is easy from the construct of basic laws and regulations, it can lead to deeper discussion when the job duties become more advanced and/or hazardous. In a study of North Carolina disciplinary cases, McGuinness (2010) describes “just cause” within the realm of disciplinary actions truly satisfying the circumstances. Sometimes, the rules that are in place do not justify the consequences enforced. As he states below:

“Just cause, like justice itself, is not susceptible of precise definition It is a flexible concept, embodying notions of equity and fairness, that can only be determined upon an examination of the facts and circumstances of each individual case” (p.341).

With public service comes public risk. Public employment brings about risks that sometimes antagonize normal disciplinary action. Special individual circumstances can require a deeper look into what is a fair and just reprimand. Just cause seems to be in direct competition with at-will employment practices (McGuinness, 2010).

He states that developing a standard for justifying the reasons for disciplinary action within the state’s employment system has many benefits:

1. It can discourage or ward off political backlash.
2. It can increase employee morale.
3. It prevents unreasonable discipline or control by the state.
4. It encourages supervisors and human resources management to be just and consistent.

Just Cause Law in the state of North Carolina requires several things. The state employer must provide the employee with a warning of the consequences of an action. The employer’s rule or regulation must be in relation to the employee’s expected job performance in direct relation to

the business. The employer must make sure the employee was in violation of the rule before administering discipline. Any attempt to carry out an inquiry on the employee should be fair and objective. The rule at hand must be applied to all employees consistently. The employee's service record and seriousness of offence must be considered when applying the disciplinary process (McGuinness, 2010). This type of disciplinary system is an added layer in government employment that usually migrates to the private arena through new laws and regulations over time.

Conclusion

As discussed, there are many aspects and functions of human resource management. What that management consists of truly depends on multiple factors of the business including size, political environment, legal regulations, labor organization, diversity and culture. The purpose of human resource management can also depend on the nature of the business, whether it be government agencies, public safety, education, private corporations, nonprofit organizations and small business.

In reference to organizational politics, it was determined that both public and private business have their share of interrelated and external politics. The difference may lie within the outcomes. Laws and regulations affect both arenas, however, these are oftentimes spawned by government regulation and administered in the private sector. While the functions of job planning, recruiting, onboarding, compensation, benefits, performance and training may all look different in both realms, many times, it is due to size and type of business rather than sector. Both sectors have their fair share of issues when it comes to diversity, culture, conflict resolution and discipline. It is safe to say that each agency or company, whether public or private, should

engage their human resource department with each of these aspects to be an all-encompassed, healthy employer for the people.

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