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## Does the Organization–Employee Relationship Matter? Linking the Organization–Employee Relationship With Employee Well-Being and Performance

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## ORIGINAL ARTICLE

# Does the Organization–Employee Relationship Matter? Linking the Organization–Employee Relationship With Employee Well-Being and Performance

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## Abstract

The study examines the relationship between the organization–employee relationship (OER), well-being, and work performance of remote workers who were mandated to work from home because of the uncertainties and health risks brought about by the COVID-19 pandemic. This study focuses on the work performance of the employees contributed through positive psychological well-being and positive OERs. A comprehensive nationwide survey was undertaken, involving a sample size of 1289 full-time IT employees in India, with the objective of determining the impact of well-being on individual work performance. Results from the analyses indicate that though the employees with limited experience of work from home found it challenging during the initial stages of the pandemic, the positive OERs positively and significantly affected their well-being and overall work performance by helping them overcome the stress created by the pandemic.

**Keywords:** Organization–employee relationship, Well-being, Task performance, Contextual performance, Work performance, Partial least squares structural equation modelling, Indian IT sector, Remote workers

**JEL classification:** J50, M12, M54

## 1 Introduction

A disease that was caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 or SARS-CoV-2 hit India at the outset of 2020. In February 2020, the World Health Organization (WHO) officially designated it as COVID-19. The Indian government declared a nationwide lockdown of 21 days on March 24, 2020, and restricted the movement of 1.3 billion Indians to prevent the further spread of the virus (Pathak & Joshi, 2021). The IT industry also witnessed the adverse impact of the COVID-19 pandemic as, due to health concerns posed by the virus, companies were forced to make their employees work from home. Due to the lockdown, many companies with international clients encountered a huge loss in opportunities. In 2021,

when there was widespread expectation of returning to normalcy, the second wave hit the country in March 2021, causing unexpected casualties. The pandemic created a crisis in all aspects of organizational functioning. A crisis of any nature poses challenges to the fundamental beliefs, assumptions, structure, culture, and regular working conditions of organizations (Coombs, 2015; Weick, 1988), eventually threatening the overall organizational climate and performance and creating high public uncertainty (Kanupriya, 2020; Kim & Lee, 2020; Kovoov-Misra et al., 2000). COVID-19 emerged as a very unpredictable crisis, leaving worldwide businesses in volatility and uncertainty to an extent that to date, organizations are still struggling to recover and regain control (Hayes et al., 2020; Pathak & Joshi, 2021). Every disaster or crisis

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generates a high level of uncertainty for all organizational stakeholders, and employees are the worst affected as any kind of disturbance at the workplace adversely affects their subjective as well as psychological well-being (Bakker & Demerouti, 2018; Kim & Lee, 2020; Rikhi & Johar, 2021; Ulmer et al., 2015). One of the severe effects of the pandemic was seen on the psychological health of the employees as the nature of the virus, lockdown, social distancing norms, and remote working resulted in severe effects on individuals, mentally and socially (Kanupriya, 2020; Pan et al., 2020; Pathak & Joshi, 2021). However, as the pandemic has posed a serious threat to businesses and businesses are still struggling to survive and sustain themselves, the impact on the psychological health of employees has not received due consideration in the Indian context.

Most organizations have realized that in the current phase of uncertainty, the organization's survival and growth rely heavily on human capital (Pathak & Joshi, 2021). Extensive research has consistently demonstrated that the positive relationships between organizations and employees through creating an environment of trust, equality, mutual respect, and recognition play a significant role in fostering positive work-related attitudes, such as job satisfaction (Harrison et al., 2006), organizational citizenship behaviour (Den Heyer, 2024; Smidts et al., 2001), trust, workplace commitment, and employee well-being (Jo & Shim, 2005). Psychological well-being, in turn, enhances an individual's performance (Edwards & Steyn, 2008) and contributes to organizational productivity. The well-being and performance of employees are contingent upon the establishment of strong relationships between the organization and its employees. This is particularly true for remote workers, who encounter distinctive challenges such as communication gaps, indistinct work-life boundaries, and isolation. In the remote work model, employees' sense of belonging and job satisfaction can be considerably improved by consistent organizational support, which is achieved through clear communication, recognition, and mental health initiatives. Organizations that prioritize employee well-being by offering flexible work arrangements, providing essential technological support, and cultivating a culture of trust are more likely to maintain the motivation, engagement, and productivity of remote employees. Ultimately, a positive organizational relationship results in enhanced performance and long-term organizational success by not only reducing stress and burnout but also fostering innovation and collaboration (Harrison et al., 2006, Men & Sung, 2022). With the digitalization of the workplace, employees should get proper training and resources to per-

form organizational duties efficiently as they need to embrace digital tools (Nagel, 2020). In the past, researchers noted that a participatory culture, adaptable organizational structure, and equitable distribution of power are among the primary variables that enable favourable connections between organizations and employees (Grunig, 2002; Grunig et al., 1995). Positive and healthy OERs can assist employees in overcoming remote working stressors (Hayes et al., 2020; Men & Sung, 2022). However, in the Indian context, studies examining the association of OERs with employee well-being and performance are scarce, specifically for remote workers. Most studies in the Indian context have concentrated on the influence of employee well-being on organizational performance (Singh & Jha, 2022). This study aims to address the gap by examining the impact of OERs on employee well-being during the COVID-19 epidemic. The research also aims to investigate the impact of well-being on employees' performance as the demand of the workplace is to be more agile and flexible, and employees' well-being can foster innovation and creativity, leading to better performance (Edwards & Steyn, 2008; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). Despite the proposal of different dimensions, such as safety performance (Burke et al., 2002) and adaptive performance (Pulakos et al., 2000), three main areas of job performance have been proposed (Sackett & Lievens, 2008): task performance, contextual performance, and counterproductive work behaviour. These factors provide a broad and concise framework for measuring total job performance (Dalal et al., 2012). Therefore, this study utilized three dimensions of employee performance, that is, task performance, contextual performance, and counterproductive work behaviour (Ramos-Villagrasa et al., 2019), and Huang's (1997) four outcomes (trust, commitment, satisfaction, and control mutuality) to assess OERs due to their widespread acceptability and acknowledged importance in public relations research. Hence, the study addresses two primary inquiries: (i) How do the aspects of OERs impact the psychological well-being of employees? (ii) How does employees' well-being impact their performance?

This research is especially pertinent for Indian IT firms, where rapid digital transformation and changing work paradigms have heightened the necessity for strong OERs. The COVID-19 pandemic has transformed workplace dynamics, rendering employee well-being essential for maintaining productivity, innovation, and agility. This study examines the impact of organizational support on well-being and its subsequent effect on employee performance, offering practical recommendations for IT organizations to create policies that promote a healthier, more engaged

workforce. Enhancing well-being efforts may elevate employee satisfaction and retention while fostering innovation and efficiency, providing Indian IT companies with a competitive advantage in the global market.

## 2 Literature review

### 2.1 OERs

Research on the construct of OERs is increasing as an organization's relationships with its stakeholders, especially employees, is considered as one of the most significant intangible assets for an organization (Grunig & Grunig, 2013; Kang & Sung, 2017). Developing healthy relationships with various stakeholders can contribute towards organizational financial performance and business success (Men & Sung, 2022). The concept of OER is derived from organization–public ties, which pertain to the connection between an organization and its many publics (Grunig, 2002; Men, 2014; Men & Sung, 2022).

According to Broom et al. (2000), organization–public relationships refer to the various ways in which an organization interacts, transacts, exchanges, and establishes connections with its public. Another definition of OER describes it as the extent to which the organization and its employees have confidence in one another, derive satisfaction with each other, agree on the distribution of power, and dedicate themselves to one another (Huang & Kwok, 2013; Men & Sung, 2022). Huang (1997) presents the theory of relational outcomes in public relations. According to her, the quality of relationship can be evaluated on the basis of four relational outcomes:

- control mutuality: the extent of consensus among partners regarding who should choose relationship objectives and behavioural patterns (Stafford & Canary, 1991, p. 224). In other words, this component is the extent to which the sides of a relationship are satisfied with the level of control they enjoy in the relationship. Recognizing the presence of power disparity, Stafford and Canary proposed that both parties may concur that one or both have the capacity to affect the decision-making process. In other words, there must be mutual acknowledgement of varying degrees of symmetry. The principle of reciprocity can foster a quality connection despite unequal power dynamics (Grunig et al., 1995). Control mutuality is essential for interdependence and relational stability (Ni, 2007).
- trust: the degree of faith that both parties have in one another and their readiness to expose them-

selves to the other party. In the context of an organization, trust is described as the extent to which both the organization and its personnel demonstrate faith and confidence in each other, as well as their willingness to share personal information with one another (Hon & Grunig, 1999; Kim & Lee, 2020). Trust is the core in the understanding and building of OERs (Zeqiri, 2021). In the words of Grunig and Grunig (2013), trust can be defined as “the extent to which both management and publics express willingness to make themselves vulnerable to the behaviour of the other, with confidence that the other party will take its interests into account in making decisions” (p. 31). It is difficult to imagine the survival of an organization without trust as it impacts the organization both financially and non-financially (Paine, 2003; Zeqiri, 2021).

- commitment: the degree to which both parties feel and believe that the relationship is worth investing energy in to sustain and advance.
- satisfaction: the degree to which both parties feel positively about one another. Stafford and Canary (1991) examined this characteristic via the lens of social exchange theory, positing that a gratifying relationship is characterised by an equitable distribution of rewards, wherein relational benefits surpass costs (p. 225).

Employees' trust, control mutuality, commitment, and satisfaction are indicators of an OER that contributes to the employee's favourable perception of the organization (Bruning & Lambe, 2002; Kim & Rhee, 2011). The existing literature clearly points towards a good relationship between each dimension of relationship quality and employee engagement. Employee satisfaction and trust are regarded as core components of quality relationships, and their influences on employee engagement are well-documented in organizational literature (e.g., Cartwright & Holmes, 2006; Harter et al., 2002). Shuck et al. (2013) found that employees with high engagement exhibit superior psychological well-being relative to those with low engagement levels. This indicates that engaged employees perceive a higher level of mutual control than their disengaged peers. In addition, individuals who see their organization or job as reflecting a mutual commitment are more likely to be motivated to do their job well.

### 2.2 Employee well-being

Technology changes overnight; therefore, the IT sector requires a more flexible approach, creativity, 24-hour work schedule for people and organizations

to be more productive (Panda & Rath, 2017; Pradhan & Hati, 2022). Such demanding work conditions generate work stress among the employees and hence, there is a rising attention among organizations for their employees' well-being (Bhui et al., 2016).

There is an abundance of studies on employee well-being in the field of organizational studies. Well-being is a multi-dimensional construct and has been defined as a state of positive psychological, physical, and emotional health and happiness (Pradhan & Hati, 2022). Ryan and Deci (2001) noted two perspectives of well-being, that is, eudemonic and hedonic. The hedonic perspective defines well-being as gaining happiness and avoiding pain, and the eudemonic perspective pertains to self-realization and explains well-being as realizing human potential power (Pradhan & Hati, 2022). In other words, well-being refers to the condition in which each employee is able to fully actualize their own potential, to work precisely, to deal with the life stressors, and to contribute towards society or the workplace (Stein & Sadana, 2014).

In the existing literature, there is heterogeneity in the definitions and dimensions of well-being (Parent-Lamarche & Marchand, 2019; Sirgy, 2019). Past research work has broadly divided well-being into two distinct components: context-free well-being and job-specific well-being (Pradhan & Hati, 2022; Zheng et al., 2015). Context-free well-being refers to a general sense of well-being that is not influenced by specific circumstances or job-related factors (Ryan & Deci, 2001), and job-specific well-being deals with the well-being of individuals with respect to their jobs, such as satisfaction with co-workers, recognition at work, autonomy, and so forth.

### 2.3 Employee performance

The pandemic has made flexible working arrangements and work from home a sought-after phenomenon (Cox, 2020). During such difficult times the performance of an individual is based more on the proper knowledge and usage of technology, internet connectivity, and collaboration in virtual teams (Gray & Suri, 2019). Employee work performance includes an employee's behaviour or efforts that contribute towards the efficiency and productivity of the organization (Koopman et al., 2014). Employees generally have more control over these actions and efforts as compared to the organization (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Employee work performance has gained research focus for quite some time as it is significant for both the employee and the organization. Employees' work performance determines not only their appraisal but also their overall career success and status in the organization (Varshney & Varshney,

2020). Competent employees get faster promotions and better career growth in comparison to their low-performing counterparts (Sun et al., 2012; Varshney & Varshney, 2020). Different researchers have proposed different measures to describe and analyse the work performance of individuals. The majority of researchers have concentrated their efforts on the in-role performance as an outcome variable measured either through self-rating or supervisor's rating while describing employees' work performance (Imran & Shahnawaz, 2020; Luthans et al., 2010). In accordance with Rotundo and Sackett (2002), we will outline each of these dimensions. The first is task performance, which refers to "behaviours that contribute to the production of a good or the provision of a service" (p. 67). It includes behaviours that vary across jobs, are most likely to be role-specific, and are usually included in job descriptions (Aguinis et al., 2013). Koopman et al. (2014) established an in-depth framework that covered task-performance measures such as the execution of work tasks, up-to-date knowledge retention, attention to precision and tidiness in work, planning and organization, and solving problems, among others. The second factor is contextual performance, commonly known as organizational citizenship behaviour. It is described as "behaviour that advances the organization's objectives by enhancing its social and psychological environment" (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002, pp. 67–68). It encompasses responsibilities beyond job functions, initiative, proactivity, collaboration, and excitement (Koopman et al., 2014). The contextual performance including extra-role performance, that is, commitment, citizenship behaviours, deviant workplace behaviour, and so forth, has not received much attention. The third component is counterproductive work behaviour, defined as "voluntary behaviour that detrimentally affects the organization's well-being" (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002, p. 69). It includes off-task behaviour, presenteeism, grievances, intentional task mis-execution, and privilege misuse, among other factors (Koopman et al., 2011). These aberrant behaviours are associated with adverse outcomes at both the individual (Aubé et al., 2009) and organizational (Rogers & Kelloway, 1997) levels. Despite the significant correlation between unproductive work behaviour and contextual performance, Dalal's (2005) meta-analysis revealed that each dimension possesses its distinct identity and domain. Given that work performance is a multifaceted construct that extends beyond mere task performance (Campbell, 1990; Sonnentag et al., 2008), all three aforementioned dimensions have been incorporated into the present research study.



### 3 Hypothesis development

COVID-19 changed the organizational settings overnight. With the enforcement of lockdowns and of social distancing as a new norm, organizations were forced to push their employees to work from home (Cox, 2020). Except for a few essential workers whose jobs required their physical presence, such as in healthcare, sanitation, and so forth, the remaining workforce shifted some or all of their work home (Rigotti et al., 2020). One positive aspect of working from home is that employees are able to complete important tasks from home without an urgent need to come to the office (Hayes et al., 2020). However, working from home adversely impacts many aspects of organizational work, including the quality of communication between an employer and employees, quality of supervision, creativity among employees, employees' commitment, and team relations (Degbey & Einola, 2020; Hayes et al., 2020; McAlpine, 2018). Therefore, it is significant for any company to strengthen positive OERs for maintaining healthy long-term relations with the employees. Employees have trust in the management, and the supervisors are likely to be satisfied with their jobs with a high level of commitment (Hayes et al., 2020; Pillai et al., 1999), as employees feel happy to work with a stable, trustworthy, and learning-oriented organization (Degbey & Einola, 2020). To support the above assertion, we draw on the self-determination theory of motivation (SDT), which is defined by people's ability to make choices and exercise control over their lives in order to promote psychological health and well-being (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci & Ryan, 2008). SDT is categorized into three types of psychological needs: autonomy, relatedness, and competence. These psychological needs are considered to be the basis for one's happiness and satisfaction. Following SDT, employees who are satisfied and happy with their lives show more commitment toward their organizations. Therefore, we propose that:

*H1: Trust positively influences employee well-being during the pandemic.*

A growth-driven organization gives employees a sense of security, which further develops positive organizational commitment among employees, fostering long-term relationships with the organization (Chen et al., 2006; Zeqiri, 2021). However, a traditional, authoritarian organization with less or no delegation negatively affects the quality of OERs (Kim & Lee, 2020). In a bureaucratic firm, employees do not get an opportunity to share their opinions with the management, leading to the perception of high power

imbalance and increased job dissatisfaction (Men, 2014). However, open channels of communication, participative decision making, employee empowerment, and collaboration pave the way for control mutuality, which in turn increases the satisfaction and commitment levels of employees (Degbey & Einola, 2020; Pathak & Joshi, 2021). Therefore, based on available literature, we propose that:

*H2: Control mutuality positively influences employee well-being during the pandemic.*

Previous research work suggests that positive OERs can significantly reduce work-related stress (Schaubroeck & Fink, 1998) and increase the probability of positive work-related outcomes (Moyle & Parkes, 1999). Positive and healthy relations between organizations and employees create a positive impact on employees' work-related attitudes. This includes satisfaction with the job, employee engagement, and organizational commitment (Charlwood, 2015). With the threats imposed by the pandemic, organizations are not only focusing on exploring means to offer more autonomy to its people but also on enhancing their quality of life by providing them the flexibility to carry their organizational and family roles parallelly, which further contributes towards employees' well-being (Azarbouyeh & Naini, 2014; Wight & Raley, 2009). Hence, we propose that:

*H3: Commitment positively influences employee well-being during the pandemic.*

While most companies toiled hard to provide desired flexibility to the employees, reduce costs and focused more on increasing the efficiency of the organization, few companies provided their employees with the necessary equipment for the smooth transition of work from office to home (Liu et al., 2022). While working from home one needs proper internet connectivity and power backup. Many companies have reimbursed employees for monthly wi-fi expenses and have also extended monetary support to purchase essentials for work from home such as chairs, tables, headphones, and so forth. The commitment shown by the organizations to their employees during the COVID-19 pandemic not only helped them boost employees' morale but also increased their dedication to work and the workplace (Patil & Gopalakrishnan, 2020). The quality of the relationships employees share with their organizations creates a healthy work environment and a sense of being recognized and valued by the employer, increasing employees' belongingness towards the workplace (Bakker & Demerouti, 2018; Guest, 2017; Sirgy, 2019). The degree to which an organization provides flexibility and requisite resources to its employees to perform

the job effectively helps in enhancing work-life quality, which has a direct association with the employees' well-being (Van De Voorde et al., 2016). Therefore, we propose that:

*H4: Satisfaction positively influences employee well-being during the pandemic.*

The relationship between employee well-being and efficiency has been widely studied (Fisher, 2003; Fredrickson, 2004). According to Ryan and Deci (2004), if workers feel satisfied with their work and find it interesting, they feel intrinsically motivated to perform the job, which results in good performance. Wright and Cropanzano (2000) found that psychological well-being has a positive impact on employees' performance. Conceptualizing job satisfaction as an estimate of employee well-being, past researchers have found a positive correlation between well-being and task performance (Harrison et al., 2006; Judge et al., 2001). Also, a positive and significant association between well-being and contextual performance has been traced in previous research work (Edwards & Steyn, 2008; Harrison et al., 2006). Zelenski et al. (2008) utilized the broaden-and-build theory to explain the positive association between employees' well-being and performance. The theory asserts that the positive effect improves the quality of actions by improving one's thinking ability and enhancing innovation and creativity, which further helps in building and maintaining positive interpersonal relationships, thereby increasing the overall performance of the individual. Therefore, it can be said that well-being may positively influence the performance of employees by helping them gather more resources and put desirable efforts into an organization for goal accomplishment. Thus, we propose that:

*H5: Employee well-being positively influences employees' task performance during the pandemic.*

*H6: Employee well-being positively influences employees' contextual performance during the pandemic.*

*H7: Employee well-being negatively influences employees' counterproductive work behaviour during the pandemic.*

## 4 Sampling and population

The current study utilized quantitative research methods to acquire primary data using a self-administered questionnaire. The inquiries were administered using a Google Forms online survey to a total of 1490 full-time employees of Micro Focus India Private Limited, IBM India Private Limited, NIIT Technologies, and Wipro Limited working in

different locations across India following the purposive sampling method (Schutt, 2018). The selection of the respondents was based on a screening question on whether they had the necessary experience of working from home during the COVID-19 epidemic. Specifically, the responses were received in July–October 2023. The HR managers of all four organizations had been contacted, and we explained the purpose of the research; by obtaining consent, the questionnaire was circulated to respondents. The questionnaire employed many sets of questions that targeted the eight distinct constructs necessary for testing the hypothesis. Upon receiving the completed questionnaire, an initial screening was conducted to assess the reliability and consistency of the responses. A total of 1289 replies were deemed valid and then utilized for analysis. The minimum sample size necessary for PLS-SEM is determined by the maximum number of arrowheads pointing toward a latent variable in the PLS path model. This number should be at least 10 (Hair et al., 2017). The model depicted in Fig. 1 exhibits a maximum of four arrows directed toward the latent variable of well-being, which is essential for achieving the desired sample size.

A total of 1289 respondents participated in the primary survey and provided their opinions. Almost 76 percent of the employees were male, while only 24 percent were female. Around 74 percent of respondents worked as middle-level managers, while the remaining 26 percent worked as senior managers in different domains. Almost every respondent had a minimum of 3 years of working experience. As far as age is concerned, around 66 percent of the respondents fell in the age group 25–35 years, while only 10 percent of the respondents were found to be in the age bracket above 45 years.

### 4.1 Research questionnaire

OERs were measured using Hon and Grunig's (1999) and Grunig and Huang's (2000) measures, which originated from Huang's (1997) four-dimensions measure. The scale includes trust (6 items), control mutuality (5 items), commitment (5 items), and satisfaction (5 items). All items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

For individual work performance, this study used the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ) 1.0 (Koopman et al., 2014). The questionnaire includes task performance (5 items), contextual performance (8 items), and counterproductive work behaviour (5 items). All items were measured on a 5-point rating scale.

The index of psychological well-being at work (IPWBW) developed by [Dagenais-Desmarais and Savoie \(2012\)](#) was used to measure well-being. The scale has five subdimensions: interpersonal fit at work (5 items), thriving at work (5 items), feeling of competency at work (5 items), perceived recognition at work (5 items), and desire for involvement at work (5 items). All five dimensions were rated on a 6-point Likert scale, from disagree (1) to completely agree (6).

#### 4.2 Data analysis technique

Unsatisfactory responses were discarded, and the exploratory factor analysis method was used for analysing the valid responses. Measurements of the reliability and discriminant validity of the various constructs were performed. Prior to measurement model specification, the measurement items were reviewed for the requisite normality. The values of skewness were found to be in the range of  $-1.61$  to  $-0.39$ , and the kurtosis range was  $-0.78$  to  $3.09$ , which provides evidence that the data were appropriately distributed for structural model analysis ([Curran et al., 1996](#)). The PLS-SEM algorithm was used for conducting path analysis for the purpose of hypothesis testing. The PLS-SEM method generally delivers a similar outcome for small and large sample sizes and does not require the distributional assumptions of other statistical methods ([Hair et al., 2017](#)). The software Smart PLS 3.2.9 was used to conduct path analysis of primary data. The bootstrapping procedure ( $n = 4000$  resamples) was used to estimate the model. This procedure selects subsamples randomly and replaces them from original dataset. The process goes on repeatedly until a substantial number of random samples is created ([Hair et al., 2017](#)). The discriminant validity was measured by using the Fornell & Larcker and heterotrait–monotrait ratio methods.

## 5 Results

The standard loading of various scale items was used for measuring the reliability of the scale. As per

the standard loadings, one scale item from satisfaction, contextual performance, and counterproductive work behaviour, namely, ST4, CP7, and CBW2, was found to be less than the threshold value of  $.70$  ([Laroche et al., 2001](#)). Similarly, for the well-being construct, four items, namely, WB4, WB5, WB21, and WB23, were found to be below the threshold limit. So, all these items were discarded from further analysis. The standard loadings for all other items under each construct were found to be greater than that of  $.7$  and were all suitable for further analysis.

[Table 1](#) shows the reliability statistics for different constructs. The reliability of the different constructs was measured by the values of Cronbach's alpha, rho\_A, composite reliability, and average variance extracted. The values of Cronbach's alpha, rho\_A, and composite reliability were used for measuring the internal consistency of the constructs, and all values were found to be above  $.7$ , fulfilling the condition of the internal consistency of different constructs used in primary study ([Hair et al., 2017](#); [Wong, 2013](#)). For validating the condition of convergent validity of the constructs, the values of average variance extracted were calculated for all constructs and were found to be above  $.5$ , which confirms convergent validity for the constructs ([Fornell & Larcker, 1981](#); [Hair et al., 2017](#)).

[Table 2](#) shows the discriminant validity of the constructs used in the collection of primary data. The discriminant validity was measured by using Fornell and Larcker's (1981) criterion. [Table 2](#) reveals that the value of the AVE for each of the constructs is above  $.7$ , which is acceptable.

[Table 3](#) shows the discriminant validity of the scale by using the HTMT criterion. As per the results all the values of HTMT ratios for all the constructs are below  $.9$ , which suggests that the condition of no multicollinearity among the latent constructs is fulfilled. The results indicated that discriminant validity was established for the study, which indicates that each construct in the model is unique ([Fornell & Larcker, 1981](#); [Hair et al., 2017](#); [Wong, 2013](#)).

Table 1. Reliability and validity statistics for different constructs.

|                                  | Cronbach's alpha | rho_A | Composite reliability | Average variance extracted (AVE) |
|----------------------------------|------------------|-------|-----------------------|----------------------------------|
| Trust                            | .942             | .821  | .947                  | .783                             |
| Control mutuality                | .918             | .933  | .936                  | .677                             |
| Commitment                       | .902             | .966  | .916                  | .686                             |
| Satisfaction                     | .907             | .910  | .935                  | .784                             |
| Well-being                       | .880             | .899  | .919                  | .740                             |
| Task performance                 | .927             | .930  | .945                  | .774                             |
| Contextual performance           | .897             | .807  | .906                  | .659                             |
| Counterproductive work behaviour | .973             | .975  | .975                  | .650                             |



Table 2. Discriminant validity of the scale.

| Fornell–Larcker criterion        |             |                   |             |              |             |                  |                        |                                  |
|----------------------------------|-------------|-------------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|------------------|------------------------|----------------------------------|
|                                  | Trust       | Control mutuality | Commitment  | Satisfaction | Well-being  | Task performance | Contextual performance | Counterproductive work behaviour |
| Trust                            | <b>.885</b> |                   |             |              |             |                  |                        |                                  |
| Control mutuality                | .079        | <b>.823</b>       |             |              |             |                  |                        |                                  |
| Commitment                       | .096        | .132              | <b>.828</b> |              |             |                  |                        |                                  |
| Satisfaction                     | .143        | .430              | .175        | <b>.885</b>  |             |                  |                        |                                  |
| Well-being                       | .029        | .653              | .124        | .628         | <b>.860</b> |                  |                        |                                  |
| Task performance                 | .089        | .851              | .068        | .493         | .754        | <b>.880</b>      |                        |                                  |
| Contextual performance           | .461        | –.043             | .096        | .123         | .119        | .098             | <b>.812</b>            |                                  |
| Counterproductive work behaviour | .069        | .812              | .120        | .569         | .765        | .896             | .123                   | <b>.806</b>                      |

Table 3. Discriminant validity of the scale.

| Heterotrait–monotrait ratio (HTMT) |       |                   |            |              |            |                  |                        |                                  |
|------------------------------------|-------|-------------------|------------|--------------|------------|------------------|------------------------|----------------------------------|
|                                    | Trust | Control mutuality | Commitment | Satisfaction | Well-being | Task performance | Contextual performance | Counterproductive work behaviour |
| Trust                              |       |                   |            |              |            |                  |                        |                                  |
| Control mutuality                  | .576  |                   |            |              |            |                  |                        |                                  |
| Commitment                         | .455  | .636              |            |              |            |                  |                        |                                  |
| Satisfaction                       | .561  | .764              | .588       |              |            |                  |                        |                                  |
| Well-being                         | .668  | .710              | .524       | .722         |            |                  |                        |                                  |
| Task performance                   | .771  | .815              | .675       | .536         | .822       |                  |                        |                                  |
| Contextual performance             | .683  | .774              | .729       | .605         | .502       | .579             |                        |                                  |
| Counterproductive work behaviour   | .696  | .845              | .613       | .606         | .814       | .734             | .506                   |                                  |

Fig. 1 shows the path model for the study. The model reveals that trust, control mutuality, commitment, and satisfaction explain 58.7 percent of the variance in well-being. Well-being explains 80.2, 65.9, and 32.4 percent of the variance in task performance, contextual performance, and counterproductive work behaviour, respectively.

Table 4 shows the results of bootstrapping ( $n = 4000$ ) for testing the hypothesis. As per the  $p$ -values and  $t$  statistics, H1, H2, H3, H5, H6, and H7 are supported as the  $p$ -values were found to be .000, .003, .000, .001, .003, .000, and .000, respectively. The results indicate that trust, control mutuality, commitment, and satisfaction have a positive impact on employee well-being. Also, employee well-being has a positive impact on task and contextual performance, while well-being of employees has been a negative impact on counterproductive work behaviour of employee during the crisis.

Table 5 shows the model fit summary. As per the table, the value of standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) was found to be 0.076, which is below the threshold limit of 0.080, which shows goodness of fit for the model (Henseler et al., 2015; Hu & Bentler, 1999). Also, the value of the normed fit index (NFI) was found to be .923, which is close to 1 and shows the model is well fitted (Lohmöller, 1989).

## 6 Discussion and implications

To the best of our knowledge, in the Indian context, there are no studies examining the relationship between OERs and employees' performance (Kang & Sung, 2019; Men, 2014). Previous studies have been conducted to either examine OERs with respect to internal and crisis communication or to analyse the role of OERs in employee engagement (Kang & Sung, 2017; Men, 2014). The present research work has been an attempt to find the indirect impact of the OERs in IT companies on the individual performance of remote workers through well-being. The results show that the performance of employees in an organization relies equally on the quality of OERs as well as their well-being. According to the results, trust, control mutuality, commitment, and satisfaction of the employees of IT firms are significantly associated with their well-being (Degbey & Einola, 2020; Men, 2012; Zegiri, 2020). In line with SDT, we have found that employees' well-being is an outcome of the fulfilment of their needs by the job they are performing in the organization and have considered recognition, supervisory support, autonomy, feedback, and career growth as the key indicators or antecedents for their well-being (Dessen & Paz, 2010; Kundi et al., 2021; Soraggi & Paschoal, 2011).

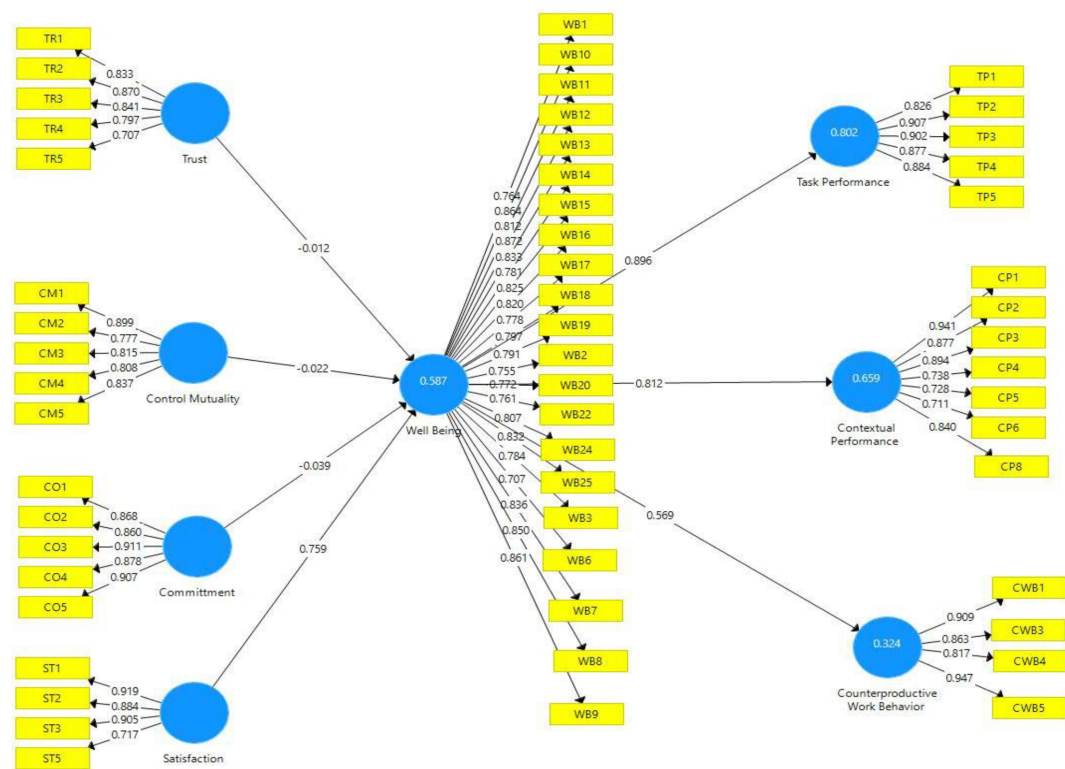


Fig. 1. Structural model for hypothesis testing (PLS path model).

Table 4. Results of hypothesis testing.

|                                                | Original sample (O) | Sample mean (M) | Standard deviation (SD) | t statistics ( O/SD ) | p-values | Findings     |
|------------------------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|----------|--------------|
| Trust -> Well-being                            | .461                | .460            | 0.063                   | 7.212                 | .000     | H1 supported |
| Control mutuality -> Well-being                | .410                | .402            | 0.134                   | 2.995                 | .003     | H2 supported |
| Commitment -> Well-being                       | .601                | .600            | 0.107                   | 5.556                 | .000     | H3 supported |
| Satisfaction -> Well-being                     | .812                | .815            | 0.030                   | 26.847                | .001     | H4 supported |
| Well-being -> Task performance                 | .569                | .570            | 0.070                   | 8.164                 | .003     | H5 supported |
| Well-being -> Contextual performance           | .896                | .897            | 0.025                   | 35.220                | .000     | H6 supported |
| Well-being -> Counterproductive work behaviour | .625                | .635            | 0.056                   | 10.940                | .000     | H7 supported |

Table 5. Model fit summary.

| Fit summary |                 |                 |
|-------------|-----------------|-----------------|
|             | Saturated model | Estimated model |
| SRMR        | 0.076           | 0.075           |
| d_ ULS      | 10.818          | 11.964          |
| d_ G        | 14.470          | 14.660          |
| Chi-square  | 6294.271        | 6356.426        |
| NFI         | .923            | .918            |

The present study has found that organizational factors such as trust, participation in decision making, and good workplace relationships influence employees’ cognitions and affect (Zhong et al., 2016), further contributing towards increased innovative behaviour and productivity. Employees’ belief in the organization’s trustworthiness contributes to organizational

citizenship behaviour (Richter & Näswall, 2019). Unhealthy workplace relationships create extra pressure, leading to employee burnout, which can have severe adverse effects on the employees’ performance and overall organizational productivity. Therefore, positive OERs, based on trust, commitment, satisfaction, and mutual control may foster positive attitudinal changes resulting in increased well-being, which further contributes towards high performance and increased organizational citizenship behaviours among employees (Heffernan & Dundon, 2016; Veld & Alfes, 2017).

From a practical perspective, in the current business turbulence where uncertainty has taken over strategic planning of the companies and businesses are struggling to find ways to bounce back with major reliance on support from employees, the OER becomes even

more important to ensure the mental well-being of the workers so that they can contribute more towards the speedy recovery of the business. Positive and long-term relationships with the employees will not only help organizations to get a committed workforce but will also help in generating a conducive environment of trust, further contributing towards innovation and productivity (Orchiston & Higham, 2016; Pathak & Joshi, 2021). A satisfied and committed workforce can help organizations overcome the crisis created by COVID-19. Also, from a managerial perspective, the study has highlighted the need for businesses to understand the significance of framing policies and practices that ensure employees' well-being as a healthy mind only can bring in creativity and performance at a workplace (Biggio & Cortese, 2013; Purkiss & Rossi, 2007). With the changed workplace settings, employees are facing various challenges with respect to maintaining work-life balance, and healthy relationships with the organization will help them overcome the challenges posed by the pandemic (Fang et al., 2021; Pathak & Joshi, 2021). Organizations should focus on framing policies that emphasize employee participation and creating opportunities for the employee's career growth and overall development. The study asserts that employees whose relationship with the company is based on trust are likely to remain committed to their organization and become brand ambassadors for their organization, creating positive word of mouth. Hence, the organizations can capitalize on strong OERs to create a happy, satisfied, and performing workforce, which will further help them to strive and thrive and overcome adversities (Fang et al., 2021; Zhong et al., 2016).

## 7 Theoretical contributions

The study's results have numerous implications for efficient OER management. Positive OERs have significant strategic significance for organizations. The study's findings indicate that the substantial favourable impact of OERs on psychological well-being and employee performance implies that the management of relationships with employees influences overall management effectiveness. Therefore, organizational managers must implement diverse relationship-building tactics in their interactions with employees, as shown by numerous pieces of research (Kang & Sung, 2019; Men & Sung, 2022).

This study also responds to requests for research aimed at elucidating the impact of psychological well-being on employee performance (Huang et al., 2016) and contributes to an expanding corpus of literature that affirms the significance of psychological well-being in fostering work-related attitudes and behaviours (Devonish, 2016; Hewett et al., 2018; Ismail

et al., 2019). Moreover, we have expanded the literature on the OER, psychological well-being, and employee performance, emphasizing that the OER and psychological well-being are a significant precursor to employee performance, thereby corroborating prior research by Kundi et al. (2021) regarding the relationship between psychological well-being and job performance.

## 8 Limitations

This study has a few limitations. Firstly, we assessed our research variables by a self-report survey conducted at a singular time point, which could potentially lead to common method bias. We employed several procedural remedies to alleviate the risk of common technique bias (Podsakoff et al., 2012), ensuring that it was unlikely to affect our study. Future studies should gather data at various time intervals to mitigate the risk of bias. The study's sample comprised employees from various IT organizations in India, characterized by diverse demographic and occupational backgrounds; therefore, the generalizability of our findings to other industries or sectors remains to be determined. Subsequent investigations ought to evaluate our study model across other industries and demographic groups. Future research may examine the moderating or mediating function of employee psychological well-being in the relationship between OER and job performance.

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