

Volume 3 • Issue 1 • March 2024

GLIMS

Journal of Management

Review and Transformation



INSTITUTE OF MANAGEMENT, GURGAON

mrt.greatlakes.edu.in

Online ISSN: 2583-5076

GLIMS Journal of Management Review and Transformation is published biannually in March and September by Great Lakes Institute of Management, Gurgaon.

GLIMS Journal of Management Review and Transformation is hosted on our web-based online submission and peer review system. Please read the Manuscript Submission guidelines on the journal website (<https://mrt.greatlakes.edu.in/>), and then visit <https://peerreview.sagepub.com/mrt> to login and submit your article online. Manuscripts should be prepared in accordance with the 7th edition of the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*.

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Abstracting and Indexing: *GLIMS Journal of Management Review and Transformation* is indexed in J-Gate.

Change of Address: Four weeks' advance notice must be given when notifying change of address. Please send the old address label to ensure proper identification. Please specify the name of the journal and send change of address notification to customerservicejournals@sagepub.in

Printed and published by Samiran Baral on behalf of Great Lakes Institute of Management at Great Lakes Institute of Management Gurgaon, Bilaspur-Tauru Road, Bilaspur, Gurugram, Haryana 122413. Printed at Sai Printo Pack Pvt Ltd, A 102/4 Phase II, Okhla Industrial Area, New Delhi, Delhi 110020.

Editor: Preeti Goyal

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The journal is published by Great Lakes Institute of Management, Gurgaon, India. The aim of the journal is to attract articles that address issues the industry is currently facing. A special focus is on articles that provide innovative solutions to these issues. The journal articles not only are of interest to academics, but also, with their focus on relevance, should be of interest to policy makers, think tanks, government, corporate and multilateral institutions, professionals, and industry leaders. Manuscripts undergo a double-blind peer review process, and the journal follows all international journal publication norms. The journal is published with an open-access format so that it reaches the maximum readers. Journal Publishing Services for publication are powered by Sage Spectrum.

Aims and Scope

GLIMS Journal of Management Review and Transformation aims to publish scientific, empirical research on the theory, practice, and contemporary perspectives of management focusing on the problems, interest, and concerns of managers. It aims to explore interesting questions and phenomena in management, develop and/or test theory, replicate prior studies, and review and synthesize existing research.

Within its scope are all aspects of management related, but not limited, to strategy, entrepreneurship, innovation, information technology, digital business, analytics, artificial intelligence, machine learning, and policy and organizations, as well as all functional areas of business, such as organizational behavior, human resource management, accounting, finance, marketing, operations, data and analytics, and technology transformation.

This journal intends to publish a variety of articles including quantitative and qualitative empirical research articles and conceptual articles that provide novel perspectives on recent business phenomena. To achieve our aim of writing about business transformation, the journal will also include case studies and book review articles. It would also publish abstracts of PhDs that are relevant and in-line with the journal's objectives.

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Editorial

GLIMS Journal of Management
Review and Transformation

3(1) 7, 2024

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DOI: 10.1177/jmrt.241257577

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Welcome to Vol 3, issue 1 of *GLIMS Journal of Management Review and Transformation (JMRT)*. Since its inception two and a half years ago, GLIMS has established itself as a vital platform for scholarly discourse on the ever-changing management landscape. We are committed to publishing high-quality research that pushes the boundaries of knowledge and equips practitioners with the latest insights to navigate complex organisational realities.

This issue presents a selection of well-researched and insightful manuscripts, meticulously chosen through a rigorous review process. We are confident that this selection of articles will provide our readers with valuable insights and stimulate further exploration of contemporary management issues. *GLIMS JMRT* remains committed to catalysing meaningful dialogue and practical knowledge in the evolving world of business.

As we navigate through these thought-provoking contributions, it is evident that the pursuit of knowledge in management is both challenging and rewarding. We extend our heartfelt gratitude to the authors for their scholarly contributions and to our diligent reviewers for their invaluable feedback.

As always, we welcome your feedback and encourage submissions from scholars and practitioners who are passionate about advancing the field of management and driving positive change in organisations.

Dr. Akhter Mohiuddin Rather

Editor, GLIMS JMRT

Impact of Regional Economic Integration on Trade and Investment

GLIMS Journal of Management
Review and Transformation
3(1) 8–28, 2024

© The Author(s) 2024
DOI: 10.1177/jmrt.231222748
mrt.greatlakes.edu.in



Rinku Manocha¹ 

Abstract

Economies that have a negotiated regional trade agreement (RTA) are liberalising various economic norms among member nations (including trade, investment, environment and other strategic parameters) to strengthen long-term flows of goods, services and capital. Hence, numerous studies have been conducted to empirically examine the impact of regional integrations on trade and investment using various econometric tools and techniques. The present study was an attempt to state and identify the contribution of such studies. An insight into the existing literature depicted varied results; rather than: some studies stated that the regional economic integration is facilitating world trade and also supporting the flow of capital among member nations, whereas few studies depicted a non-collaborated association between RTA and trade/investment. Further, a review of the literature depicted that few RTAs still need to work towards enhancing the depth of trade and investment provision to further strengthen the flows of trade and investment in the years to come.

Keywords

Regional trade agreement, trade, investment, trade creation, trade diversion, investment creation, investment diversion

Received 16 September 2023; accepted 28 November 2023

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Introduction

Regional economic integration (REI) or regional trade agreement (RTA) is an agreement under the aegis of the WTO to liberalise and stimulate trade and trade-associated activities. RTAs have emerged as one of the most important wings of world trade and, hence, are becoming the backbone of multilateral trading mechanism world over. RTAs not only build and boost trade and trade-related activities but also strengthen and support channels that stimulate finance and investment among member economies.

An Upsurge in Regional Trade Agreement

An upsurge in the number of RTAs negotiated on the world map has supported the world as a global market for trade and investment to facilitate trade, reduce (and even remove) tariff (and non-tariff) barriers, stimulate finance and channels of investments and strengthen the free flow of goods, services and factors of production. Furthermore, new regional blocs with deeper provisions for liberalisation of trade and investment can be registered as reflectors of intra-regional growth of trade and investment flows have not only reflected trade *creation and diversion impacts* but also recorded a wave of *investment creation and diversion effects* for RTA-negotiating economies. Upsurges in RTA also indicate that economies within the bloc have an intent to come up with compatible policies and legislatures and build infrastructure that supports the flow of trade and capital movement among the members. Hence, new-generation RTAs are seen as an instrumental move to strengthen both trade and investment and are strongly motivated by the desire for more intra-bloc foreign direct investment (FDI) flows (Park & Park, 2008).

Impact of RTAs on Trade

While negotiating for a regional bloc, economies within the bloc come up with policies and measures to stimulate trade and to reduce/minimise trade barriers. Such an intent helps to stimulate trade and trade-related activities among the members of a trade agreement (RTA/insider-insider). Further, RTAs support reduction in tariff structures and, hence, encourage members within the bloc to expand the market size, search for better and competitive products, reduce trade and information cost and strengthen production and distribution networks. Hence, *trade creation* can be seen between members within RTAs (RTA/insider-insider). However, on account of tariff preference, RTA non-members (RTA/insider-outsider) lose the market even if the RTA/outsider economy is better equipped to produce cost-effective cheaper products. Tariff preference makes a member economy more lucrative to trade, and hence, *trade diversion impact* is registered.

Impact of RTAs on Investment

As discussed earlier, new-age RTAs are not only liberalising trade among the negotiating countries but also promoting flow of investments. Hence, assessing the impact of *investment creation* and *investment diversion* as a result of RTA formation also becomes a vital zone to study. Various domains of the underlying relationship between RTA and FDI can be illustrated as follows:

1. The first example can be associated with jumping effects. Prior to negotiating an RTA agreement, an economy, say X, has high trade barriers, and hence, a high cost of serving through the market is registered. In the given scenario, a foreign investor belonging to country Y intends to jump the existing tariff structure and establish foreign affiliations in the home country X, promoting horizontal FDI. However, the jumping effect can be seen only in case both the economies have a similar cost structure and consumer market to serve. Further, if both countries X and Y subsequently enter into an RTA and support a reduced tariff structure then trade *creation* impact is likely to be seen and dilution of jumping effect is bound to happen.
2. The above-mentioned impact can be registered in case the products offered in both economies are either similar or identical. However, in case the products offered and manufactured in both economies are heterogeneous (and not homogenous) and/or are manufactured via advantage of local factors of production then liberal trade channels cannot substitute investment with trade. Hence, horizontal FDI will still dominate and even get strengthened with liberal trade channels. The support for RTA formation on investment can be registered in such a case.
3. Further, RTA formation can strengthen international vertical integration effects in case the host country, say X, has labour abundance or technical know-how and the market is available in both economies X and Y. In such a scenario, a reduction in trade barriers and a strong compatible infrastructural and policies framework via the formation of RTA will boost FDI among members. An *investment creation* impact as a result of vertical integration can be seen.
4. Lastly, the era of 'new regionalism' has promoted 'deep integration' of economies that has strengthened both trade and investment channels. Hence, intra-bloc members (insider-insider) are supporting policies that reduce the transaction cost associated with homogenising legal setups and liberalising investment flows and institutional setups to reduce/minimise cross-border disputes. Further, new RTAs are formed with explicit investment policies and provisions that strengthen FDI flows among members of a bloc.

Diversion and Dilution Effect of FDI

In case the home and host economies find the members as a more attractive location for FDI investment and non-members as a less attractive or more cumbersome

destination for investment flows post the RTA formation, then RTA may promote FDI diversion. Hence, FDI from the source economy to non-member countries might decline as the host country within the bloc becomes a better destination for investment flows. Further, in case the bloc members propose to expand the existing RTA, entry of new members enlarges the bloc and hence relocation of investment towards more than one host takes place, leading to the FDI dilution effect.

Extended Market and Redistribution Effect of FDI

The formation of RTA promotes less trade tariff for the source country and enhances a larger market, promoting the extended market effect and also redistribution effect. However, the source country may sometimes lose horizontal FDI (as explained earlier in point 1) and may gain in terms of vertical FDI (point 2). Hence, the redistribution net gain or loss may depend on factors such as labour endowment, availability of investment opportunities and extended market size for each member economy.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are as follows:

- 1. To review the literature and study the impact of RTA on trade.
- 2. To review the literature and study the impact of RTA on investment.

Review of the Literature

As discussed, the present study chalks down the studies that empirically evaluated the impact of RTAs on trade and investment; therefore, we have divided our literature into two sub-divisions, namely impact of RTAs on trade (evaluating trade creation and trade diversion) and impact of RTAs on investment (examining investment creation and investment diversion) (see Figure 1).

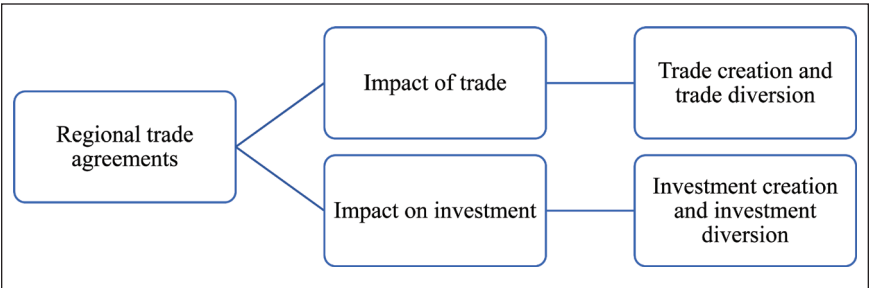


Figure 1. RTA, Trade, and Investment.

Studies Examining Trade Impact of RTAs

Numerous theoretical and empirical studies have investigated the growth of world trade in association with the proliferation of RTAs. Pioneer studies on RTA can be associated with Jacob Viner (1950) and Johnson (1960), who explained the economic effects of trade creation and trade diversion of an RTA.

Rahman et al. (2006) examined trade creation and trade diversion effects for few RTAs with major concern for South Asian Free Trade Area (SAFTA), using the augmented gravity model with country-pair-specific as well as year-specific fixed effects. The study incorporated traditional gravity variables such as gross domestic product (GDP), population, distance, common border and common language with export flow as dependent variables. For depreciation or appreciation of the domestic currency, the study incorporated the real exchange rate of dollars (EXCH) in terms of the domestic currency. A variable import–GDP ratio (IM/GDP) was taken as a proxy indicator of openness. Two dummy variables RTA_1 and RTA_2 were included, where RTA_1 is 1 when both exporting and importing countries are member nations of the same RTA at a given time, otherwise 0, whereas RTA_2 is 1 in case the exporting country is the member of an RTA at the given time, otherwise 0. RTA_1 measures the intra-bloc export creation (or export diversion) and RTA_2 measures the net export creation (or net diversion) for a particular member country. Another dummy variable, RTAC, was incorporated to see the impact of RTA on an individual member nation. The study found the coefficient of GDP for both countries are positive, and even common border, common language and import–GDP ratio demonstrate positive and significant coefficients. But distance and population variables have a negative impact on bilateral export flows. The growth of population in the exporting country had little effect on bilateral trade flows. The study stated that all member nations of SAFTA don't have equal results for trade creation and trade diversion. Bangladesh, Pakistan and India show positive signs for trade creation, but other member nations of SAPTA show negative export performance mainly due to structural limitations. However, the study indicated a significant rise in bilateral exports due to the openness of importing countries and found significant intra-bloc export creation in SAPTA and evidence of net export diversion in SAPTA using a gravity model. The study suggested a reduction in tariff (and non-tariff barriers) and changes in structural rigidities could lead to a substantial increase in intra–South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) trade.

Guilhot (2010) employed the panel data gravity model to assess the impact of three main east Asian trade agreements [Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), ASEAN–China and ASEAN–South Korea) over the period 1985–2007 to estimate the impact of intra-regional and extra-regional trade. The study incorporated 12 economies (10 ASEAN, South Korea and China) along with 22 main trading partners to determine the bilateral export flow. The study included GDP as an indicator of economic size, GDP per capita as an indicator of economic developments and geographical distance as a variable representing the impact on transportation cost. Apart from the above-said traditional variables, the study also

referred to relative distance measuring remoteness, and the variable was computed as the sum of the distance between exporting and importing countries divided by the GDP of importing countries. The variable compared the distance in relative terms with the alternative trading partners. To measure the nature of commodities traded, the study incorporated a gap in the economic development variable, that is, absolute difference between the GDP per capita of both the countries. For evaluating the impact of free trade agreement (FTA) (regional bias) in terms of trade creation and trade diversion, three regional indicator variables were taken. The first variable, *Fta*, measured intra-regional trade, where *Fta* was taken as 1 if both countries were part of the same regional bloc, otherwise 0. The second variable, *FtaX*, indicated the impact of an agreement on exports to rest of the world; therefore, *FtaX* was taken as 1 when the exporting country was not part of the agreement, otherwise 0. The last variable, *FtaM*, took the value 1 if the importing country was not part of an RTA, otherwise 0, so that the effects of imports on the rest of the world could be estimated. The GDP and GDP per capita for exporting and importing countries were found to be significant and positive. The variable difference in economic development was found to be positive, indicating the existence of inter-industrial trade between countries whose degree of development differed. The remoteness variable was found to be insignificant, implying an increasing distance from alternative trade partners has no impact on bilateral trade. The variable *Fta* had a positive coefficient and supported both intra-regional and extra-regional exports. But *FtaM* was significant and negative, implying import into ASEAN is less from rest of the world. The study suggested that the ASEAN Free Trade Area (AFTA) is more trade generating than trade diverting. The study found ASEAN to be supportive both for regionalism and for multilateral trade agreement. But the FTA, ASEAN–China and ASEAN–South Korea still did not support intra-regional trade and thus did not have impact on East Asian trade flows.

Akhter and Ghani (2010) used the gravity model based on cross-sectional and pooled data to measure the bilateral trade flows and trade effects for member and non-member countries for the period 2003–2008. The study covers the benefits of FTAs for SAARC countries. It explains the gravity model of trade equation, with bilateral trade flow as a dependent variable. For explaining the bilateral trade flow explanatory variables, GDP and GDP per capita have been incorporated for economic size as well as the distance for transportation cost. The variable tariff captures the trade cost. The dummy variable border captures whether the countries have a common border. Two other dummy variables, SAFTA and non-SAFTA, are taken to estimate the trade creation and trade diversion impact of SAFTA. The estimation of the cross-sectional data gives the variation in trade potential. GDP and GDP per capita are positive but less than proportional. The coefficient for distance is negative and statistically significant, indicating an increase in distance increases the transportation cost, leading to reduction in trade flow. The tariff variable indicating trade cost is negative and significant, indicating a rise in tariff deteriorates trade. The dummy variable SAFTA also has a negative coefficient, implying member countries divert trade. The RTA of SAFTA countries also has a negative coefficient for the non-SAFTA variable, indicating trade diversion for

non-member nations. The study suggests an upsurge in trade for SAFTA countries by bring changes in the economic conditions and growth of infrastructure. The estimation by pooled data provides similar results. However, trade volume and trade creation in the region can increase only if the major partners (Pakistan, India and Sri Lanka) sign RTAs. The study provides evidence of trade creation for Pakistan, India and Sri Lanka but trade diversion for other members.

Lee and Shin (2006) cover 17 RTAs across the globe. The study employs the conventional gravity model of international trade with some standard gravity variable along with some additional variables. The average value of real bilateral trade has been taken as a dependent variable. The study quantitatively examines how much trade creation and trade diversion occur and what characteristics of member nations contribute to trade creation and trade diversion. The variables real GDP, population, distance, area of landmass, common border, common language and ex-colonial relations along with the year variable denoting a specific year have been incorporated to examine bilateral trade flow. In addition to the above, two more RTA dummy variables have been constructed, one for intra-bloc country trade creation, that is, RTA/creation (degree of trade creation), and another for trade among members and non-members, that is, RTA/diversion (degree of trade diversion). The results indicate distance with a negative and significant coefficient. The estimated coefficients for GDP, GDP per capita, common language dummy, common border dummy and common ex-colonial dummy variables are found to be positive. Positive GDP and GDP per capita indicate greater economic size leads to increase in trade. The estimated coefficients for both RTA/creation and RTA/diversion are found to be positive and statistically significant. This implies RTAs lead to trade creation but do not divert trade from the rest of the world in the sample study conducted. The results for both gravity-specific variables (random estimation and country-pair fixed effects) are nearly similar. The study suggests RTAs lead to global trade. The study also incorporates the hypothesis of 'natural trading partners' and states that the RTAs can improve welfare levels if member countries are considered 'natural trading partners'. 'Natural trading partners' are those which lead to reduction in transaction cost, and with these given criteria, the study identifies three characteristics for member nations that affect trade creation and trade diversion, that is, geographical distance, land border and common language. Therefore, the study invites six new variables with the given characteristics, that is, RTA/creatDis, RTA/divertDis, RTA/creatBorder, RTA/divertBorder, RTA/creatLang and RTA/divertLang. RTA/creatDis is found to be highly significant and negative, implying an increase in bilateral distance leads to a decline in bilateral trade. The dummy variables for RTA/creatBorder and RTA/creatLang are found to be significant and positive. But RTA/divertDist is negative and highly significant, indicating closer the member nation, smaller the trade diversion from rest of the world. RTA/divertLang is negative and highly significant, implying a common language between members contributes towards increasing trade diversion. In a nutshell, the study indicates RTAs involving natural trading partners located in proximity and sharing a common border create more trade but less trade diversion. In case RTAs have unnatural trading partners, they may

not fully create trade among members and even divert trade substantially. The study tries to support the hypothesis of 'natural trading' partners.

Afesorgbor et al. (2011) use the gravity model for 35 countries for the years 1995–2006 to estimate the impact of RTAs in Africa. Two major RTAs in Africa, Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) and Southern African Development Community (SADC), are major concerns of the study. The study also compares them with the benchmark of integration in the EU. A measure of overlapping multi-RTA membership of trading economies has been considered. The study considers groups of countries that are involved in RTAs and have a multi-membership nature. ECOWAS and SADC are therefore important RTAs under the study. The dependent variable is the total bilateral trade, and export has been taken as the measure of total bilateral trade. The explanatory variables are divided into two parts: controlling variables such as population, distance, land area, shared colonial relationship, common currency and GDP and variables of interest covering dummy variables for measuring the impact of each respective RTA and other dummy variables for multiple memberships. For RTAs, the dummy variable ECOWAS assumes value 1 if the home and host countries belong to the same regional bloc ECOWAS, otherwise 0. Similarly, dummy variables SADC and EU are taken for each trade bloc of SADC and EU, respectively. Dummy variable ECOWAS_EU is one where the home country belongs to ECOWAS and the host country belongs to EU. Similarly, dummy variables such as SADC_EU, EU_ECOWAS and EU_SADC are incorporated in the study. Another dummy variable multi_RTAs represents the number of RTAs the home and host countries belong to. Although for the gravity model pooled cross section, random effects, fixed effects and Hausman–Taylor estimators have been used, the results obtained by fixed effects are found to be valid, and therefore, the major section of the study applies fixed effects estimations. The results for controlling variables are overall significant and have expected signs. The results for variables of interest and dummy variables for African RTAs are positive and significant, but the impact for African RTAs is found to be less than that for the EU dummy variable largely due to the difference in the stage of integration. The ECOWAS dummy variable is positive and highly significant, but the results of SADC are found to be better than those for ECOWAS for intra-regional trade. SADC membership appears to be relatively stronger due to more diversified trade and tariff-free access to both primary and industrial goods. The impact of overlapping membership has a positive coefficient. The country pairs belonging to an additional RTA show an increase in trade. But the impact of overlapping membership for ECOWAS has been more significant and completely insignificant for SADC.

Jošić and Basic (2021) empirically evaluated the trade creation and trade diversion impact for Croatia's two regional trade agreements, namely Central European Free Trade Agreement (CEFTA) and the European Union using gravity specification. The study evaluated the benefits and drawbacks associated with these regional blocs. To empirically evaluate the impact of these blocs, Croatia's imports, exports and total trade flows with 180 trade partners were evaluated over the period 2000–2016 using cross-country panel regression via gravity specification with pooled OLS, fixed effects, random effects, robust Tobit and PPML

estimations. The result for random effects supported the positive impact of the Croatia–CEFTA bloc for trade creation in imports, exports and trade flows in aggregate. The outcome for Croatia–EU RTA depicted no significant effect for trade creation for imports, exports and total trade flows. Further, a trade diversion effect for imports and total trade flows was registered. Using the Tobit model, CEFTA depicted trade creation in imports, exports and total trade flows, whereas EU registered trade diversion for imports and total trade flows. Lastly, the robust PPML estimator found CEFTA members creating trade for imports, exports and total trade flows and EU members diverting trade for imports and exports and trade creation for total trade flows.

Vollrath and Hallahan (2009) conducted a study using panel data from 1975 to 2005 and gravity framework to empirically estimate whether RTAs create trade in agricultural countries belonging to a common reciprocal agreement. The study used panel data for mutual membership (member–member) and asymmetric membership (member–non-member) to estimate the gravity model. Export by the home country to the host country was taken as a dependent variable. The study covered the explanatory variable GDP to quantify the market size where the GDP of the exporting country indicated the potential supply of goods from that country and the GDP of the importing country captured the potential demand. Exporter–importer factor endowment ratio was measured by arable land and total labour. The distance between the home and the host country was taken to measure the transportation cost. Common border, common language and colonial heritage were taken as dummy variables. To capture the trade policies, two dummy variables, mutual membership (MA) and asymmetric membership (AA), were included. The mutual agreement (MA) index had the value 1 in case both the countries jointly belonged to the same RTA, otherwise 0. A positive coefficient of MA indicated bilateral trade between countries belonging to the same RTA. The asymmetric agreement index (AA) had the value 1 whenever the exporter was not the member of an RTA to which the importer belonged, otherwise 0. A negative but significant AA indicated a fall in the import by an RTA member from a non-member as a result of asymmetric membership. The study used the benchmark model (gravity model) and Heckman output equation for estimation. Both the methods generated similar estimations for the given coefficients. The coefficients for exporter income, importer income and factor endowment were found to be positive and statistically significant. The elasticity of importer income with respect to agricultural trade was found to be significant and indicated high food demand in the lower-middle income countries. Even, the elasticity of factor endowment with respect to agricultural trade was positive and captured the need for natural resources as a significant determinant of cross-border agricultural trade. Coefficients for variables such as landlockedness, common border, language similarity and colonial heritage were found to be statistically significant. The result of the study indicated that if both the trade policy variables (MA and AA) are part of the model then the statistical evidence shows that RTAs expand trade between member counties but show no evidence of trade contraction from non-members. However, later in the study, each of the two variables of trade policy (MA and AA) is treated individually as a part of separate equations. The results for only MA

estimation indicate an increase in bilateral trade between countries which belong to same RTAs, and estimation for only AA indicates that asymmetrical RTA membership lowers bilateral trade. However, the percentage increase in trade expansion among RTA members is more than the percentage fall in trade due to asymmetrical RTAs.

Singh (2021) evaluated the impacts on the India–ASEAN Free Trade Agreement (IAFTA) and estimated trade creation and trade diversion for the said trade agreement. The study employed gravity specification over the period 1996–2018 and incorporated multilateral resistance terms while examining the trade creation (diversion) impact. The study formed a panel data set of 45 economies that incorporated India, ASEAN-10 economies and top 34 Indian trading partners for the year 2018. The study found that IAFTA supports trade creation for total bilateral trade (in terms of exports and imports) and also that the import creation impact of IAFTA was more as compared to the export creation impact.

Taguchi (2015) explored the trade creation and diversion impact for ASEAN Plus One FTAs by employing the gravity model over the period 1993–2013. To address the endogeneity issue, the study employed panel-data estimation with fixed effects. The results depicted that the trade creation impact of ASEAN–China FTA (ACFTA) was stronger than those of ASEAN–Korea FTA (AKFTA) and ASEAN–Japan FTA (AJFTA). Further, the study also estimated that the trade diversion impacts were negative for ACFTA, AKFTA and AJFTA as per conventional results for diversion impact. The study stated that the larger trade creation impact of ACFTA can be attributed to the wider gap between the general tariff rate and the preferential tariff rate for ASEAN vis-a-vis China. The study supported the formation of RCEP to maximise the benefit of trade creation effect and minimise the diversion impact as inclusion of countries such as Korea, China and Japan as part of the ASEAN bloc will stimulate trade creation via unified preferential tariff rates.

Muhammad and Yucer (2010) conducted a study to find whether RTAs have trade creation or trade diversion impact. The study uses gravity model with 38 countries covering six RTAs [ANDEAN, Caribbean Community and Common Market (CARICOM), Central American Common Market (CACM), Latin American Integration Association (LAIA), Southern Common Market (MERCOSUR) and North American free trade agreement (NAFTA)] in the Western Hemisphere for the years 1986–2006. Export from the home to host country has been taken as a dependent variable. The study states three models. The first model covers the GDP of the exporting country, the GDP of the importing country and the distance and GRTA (a dummy variable) as independent variables. In the second model, all variables of the first model are incorporated except distance in order to avoid the bias caused due to possible omitted variables. Therefore, all country-pair characteristics (such as common language, common border, distance, landlockedness, etc.) are captured in a dyad (two individuals regarded as a pair) fixed variable in the second model. The third model is an addition to the second model, which instead of using an aggregate trade creation dummy variable uses 6 RTA-tc for each of the six RTA trade creation and 6 RTA-td to capture the trade diversion impact of all 6 RTAs individually. The result of the first model

indicates significant coefficients for GDP importer, GDP exporter, distance and membership of RTA (GRTA variable). The second model suggested positive and significant result for both importer and exporter GDP. RTA membership (GRTA) is found to be positive. Therefore, the study states the efficient of trade agreement in the region after controlling the dyad variables. In the third model, the individual impact of each RTA for trade creation and trade diversion is calculated. All coefficients of trade creation variables are found to be significant except for NAFTA and LAIA. The trade diversion coefficient of NAFTA is significant and negative. MERCOSUR is also trade diverting. But ANDEAN and CACM are not trade diverting, and they create trade with both members and non-members. LAIA, however, has a negative impact on trade between both members and non-members.

Handoyo et al. (2021) examined trade creation and trade diversion impacts of ASEAN Plus Six FTA over the period 2007–2017. The study examined the variables using the Poisson pseudo-maximum likelihood (PPML) approach via gravity estimation for 16 ASEAN Plus countries and 22 non-partners for a sample of 8 varied groups of products. The results for the study indicated that the ASEAN Plus Six formation has supported trade creation impact for primary goods, manufactured goods and natural resources-based commodities. Further, the results suggested that ASEAN Plus Six FTA has strengthened exports of manufactured commodities and primary goods to extra-FTA economies. Moreover, results for natural resources-based and primary products suggested significantly adverse effects for the years 2008, 2010 and 2016 largely due to product-specific trade shocks. Trade-related shocks for manufactured goods were found to be relatively less; hence, ASEAN Plus largely strengthened the intra-regional trade of manufactured products over the said sample period. A disaggregation of manufactured and non-manufactured products suggested intra-bloc and extra-bloc export creation for high- and low-tech goods and trade diversion of imports for low-tech manufactured products. For agricultural raw goods, the study suggested trade creation in exports for intra-bloc flows and trade creation in imports for extra-bloc flows.

Mattoo et al. (2022) stated that the number of preferential trade agreements have been negotiated in the recent past, and extended forms of the preferential trade area (PTA) can be seen that cover not only tariff reduction but also provision for investment, services, environment, competition and intellectual property rights. The study empirically evaluated the trade effects of deeper PTAs. The results for the study indicated that deeper agreements have better trade creation and significantly lesser trade diversion than shallow PTA agreements. Furthermore, the study stated that few provisions of deeper PTA support better public good aspect and boost trade even with non-member economies.

Asante and Stanley (2022) stated that the African region has low intra-regional trade, and efforts are been taken to boost trade within the continent. The objective of the study was to evaluate whether or not adopting a common currency will boost intra-regional trade in SACU and ECOWAS countries and whether countries within the blocs are over-trading or under-trading among themselves. The study adopted PPML estimates to examine the variables. The results found that GDP, GDP per capita and common colonial heritage stimulated trade in both

the blocs. Adopting a common currency might unleash trade potentials in both the blocs. The coefficient of distance depicted a negative sign for both the blocs, but exchange volatility depicted a positive impact on trade for the SACU bloc and a negative effect on the ECOWAS bloc. The result also depicted that economies in both the blocs were under-trading, but the SACU bloc had better trade potential than the ECOWAS bloc. The study suggested that the ECOWAS countries should achieve a nominal convergence for the common currency to unleash trade potential. Further, the study suggested the addition of more members to the SACU bloc to enhance trade potentials.

Studies Examining Investment Impact of RTAs

Similar to trade, an upsurge in the international capital flows can be seen. Numerous studies indicate RTAs may attract investments among member nations. The investment creation and diversion effects of RTAs have been estimated and examined by various studies.

Park and Park (2008) conducted an empirical study covering East Asia to quantitatively estimate the investment creation and investment diversion effects of RTAs by using the extended gravity model. The study covers domestic reforms as a commitment device for RTA membership. To examine the investment creation and investment diversion, the stock of FDI has been taken as a dependent variable and market size, skill (factor endowment), investment cost and trade cost as explanatory variables. The relationship among the members of the same RTA has been examined by using the RTA/insider variable, and similarly, the relationship between members of an RTA and non-members has been established by using the RTA/outsider variable. Other variables captured are common language, common border and ex-colonisation. For empirical estimation, the study examines both vertical and horizontal FDI by using the knowledge-capital model (model by Carr, Maskusen and Markus) covering both investment and trade cost. Horizontal FDI has been captured by market size, and vertical FDI has been explained by factor endowment variable. In the study, the domestic reform indicates the extent to which policies and regulations of member nations are suggestive of economic freedom covering size of government, legal structure, protection of property rights, access to sound money and international exchange and regulation. The parameter of RTA/insider-reform reflects the domestic reforms within a trading bloc, and the parameter of RTA/outsider-reform tells the reformatory effects for non-member nations. The study finds a significant positive coefficient for RTA membership, larger market size and better skilled labour towards FDI stock without causing investment diversion. As per the study, even lower trade cost, high trade dependence and reformatory measures attract more FDI. Domestic reform has been found to be stronger than RTA membership for investment creation. The study finds a complementary relation between trade and investment. The study not only supports the investment creation effects of RTA membership but also emphasises on the need for better investment environment for member nations to improve the inflow of FDI.

Yeyati et al. (2003) covers 20 Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) source countries to 60 OECD/non-OECD host countries from 1982 through 1998. The study empirically examines that RTAs can have a very important effect on FDI using the gravity model. The same FTA has been captured as integration variables to examine the tariff-jumping effects (horizontal FDI), international vertical integration (vertical FDI) and potential effects of investment provisions (investment environment). The study incorporates that the formation of FTA eliminates or reduces trade barriers and discourages horizontal FDI and the incentive to jump tariff barriers; the formation of FTA member countries takes advantage of the difference in factor endowment and support vertical FDI; such formation also encourages member countries to liberalise the environment which supplements investment flow along with the trade flow. The explanatory variable extended market host has been taken as a joint GDP of all countries to which the host country has tariff-free access due to common FTA. The extended market source variable takes account of the joint GDP of the source country and all countries that are FTA partners of the source country to capture diversion and dilution effects. The study also considers other variables such as common language, common border, past colonial links, distance, investment environment and GDP per capital. The study finds common FTA membership has a positive impact on bilateral FDI stock, and on an average, the FDI stock doubles as a result of FTA membership. An increase in the market size, better investment environment and more openness (trade/GDP) support FDI. Moreover, the study finds FDI and trade are complementary. However, the study finds lesser results for economies with closed international trade, less similar factor endowment and unattractive investment environment.

Jang (2011) covers the impact of bilateral trade agreement (FTA) on bilateral FDI and covers 30 OECD countries and 32 non-OECD countries between 1982 and 2005. The study uses the knowledge capital model for the theoretical frameset of variables to explain both horizontal FDI and vertical FDI, and it empirically explains the variables by applying the regression model. The outward FDI stock has been used as a dependent variable. The explanatory variable covers the sum of GDP of both the home and the host country used for economic size. The variable SIMI is used to measure the closeness of economic size between the two partner countries. Other dependent variables covered are skill differences, distance and trade openness. BIT, a dummy variable, is introduced, which is 1 if both countries have signed a bilateral investment treaty, otherwise 0. A similar dummy variable for the common FTA has been taken. Two variables covering skill difference are stated as a part of the regression equation. The first is DIST.ASK (the interaction of distance and skill difference), which covers vertical FDI with the extent of bilateral nearer. The second is GDP.ASK, which reflects vertical FDI along with the extent of bilateral nearness/proximity. Two more variables, Δ IST.FTA and Δ SK.FTA, reflecting the impact with FTA membership, are included. The study found statistically significant coefficients for market size (sum of GDP), BIT and openness. The coefficient for Δ SK.FTA is positive, signifying countries with difference in skill and are part of the same FTA attract more FDI. But the coefficient for Δ SK.GDP is negative and significant. The coefficients for SIMI.ASK, DIST.

Δ SK and Δ IST.FTA are statistically insignificant. The coefficients used for FTA are significant and show that bilateral FTA affects FDI negatively in the case of intra-OECD countries and positively in the case of extra-OECD countries. The negative coefficient for DIST.FTA shows that negative effects of FTA on FDI for intra-OECD countries increase with an increase in geographical distance. Similarly, effects of FTA on FDI in extra-OECD countries decrease as the geographical distance between two countries increase. The coefficient for Δ SK.FTA is statistically insignificant for intra-OECD country pairs, but there are positive effects of FTA on FDI in extra-OECD country pairs when the skill difference increases. Δ IST.FTA and DSK.FTA coefficients support that horizontal FDI dominates vertical FDI among developed countries (intra-OECD) while vertical FDI dominates horizontal FDI between developed and developing countries (extra-OECD).

Jaumotte (2004) conducted a study to investigate whether the market size of RTA is a determinant of FDI received by participating countries. The study covers a sample of 71 developing countries during the period 1980–1999 using the regression model. For the market size, the study covers both domestic and regional market size. The variable domestic market size is measured by the real GDP and its expected growth. The variable regional market size is measured as the sum of domestic market size plus market size of all countries of the common RTA. However, in case the country belongs to more than one RTA then the variable regional market size has been considered collectively for all the member nations belonging to multiple RTAs. These variables capture the extent of trade liberalisation and also the degree of integration. Agglomeration effect has been taken as another variable to capture the quality of infrastructure present in the member nation providing the incentive to locate FDI. To measure vertical FDI, labour cost and skill have been captured, and in order to measure investment/business climate (the additional cost of doing business in a foreign country), the financial index of the host country has been considered. The variable degree of openness has been taken to encompass the tariff-jumping effect of FDI and the stimulation of vertical FDI. The study designs the ‘domestic model’ regression equation first with independent variables such as domestic market size (GDP), real GDP growth, *education level* for factor endowment, *financial stability* measured by the financial risk index, quality of infrastructure captured by the number of TV per capita and openness captured by export/GDP. Later, it incorporates ‘regional model’ with independent variables such as regional market size (domestic size plus market size of all countries of common/multiple RTAs), average real growth rate in all partner countries of RTA clubbed together, gap between domestic and average RTA educational level, gap between financial stability and gap between infrastructure. The three variables education, financial stability and infrastructure cover locational advantages. The regional variables are added to the domestic model, and domestic market size is replaced by regional market size in the regional model. The findings of the domestic model show positive results for all independent variables covering education, financial stability and openness. The coefficient for infrastructure is found to be insignificant. But the growth of market size is significant, whereas the domestic market (GDP) is found to be insignificant. The findings of the regional

model are different from those of the domestic model. The regional market size coefficient is found to be positive. The gap between domestic and RTA education plus financial stability is found to be positive, implying that the partner RTA with better education and financial stability exerts a negative influence on FDI received by the home country. The average growth of the regional market has no significant impact, implying countries part of RTA are dynamic and therefore attract FDI. The calculated RTA market size has a significant and positive effect. Even the countries with relatively higher educated labour supply and financial stability tend to attract more FDI. The creation of RTA boosts competitions among member nations, leading to an improvement in their domestic investment climate to avail better returns of RTA formation. The study empirically found evidence of FDI diversion between RTA members and RTA non-members.

Medvedev (2006) empirically found the relationship between preferential trade liberalisation and net FDI inflows using a panel of 143 countries over the years 1980–2003. The study has been conducted on the basis of methods that remain consistent in the presence of panel-level heteroscedasticity and autocorrelation. The net FDI inflows have been taken as a dependent variable. The independent variables are classified under four categories, namely PTA effects, global effects, local effects and institutional effects. PTA effects cover the extended common market variable (PTAGDP) and expected PTA dummy variables to capture the potential link between preferential trade liberalisation and FDI. For countries with at least one PTA, PTAGDP has been taken as 0 prior to entering PTA and thereafter combined the GDP of all PTA members. In case a country is a member of more than one PTA, PTAGDP is the sum of GDP of all partners of various PTAs. In the case of extension or addition of a new country to an existing PTA, PTAGDP may include the GDP of such a country from the year of entry. For a country which is not part of any PTA, PTAGDP is taken as 0. In order to measure the global effects, the study considers two variables, global FDI (WLDFDI) and global growth variable (WLDGRO). Both variables have been taken as the world aggregate of WDI rather than the sum of all countries. For local factors, the study incorporates the level of GDP and its growth rate (GDPGRO), the outward orientation of the economy (openness, i.e., OPEN), the per capita income relative to US (GNIREL) and inflation (CPIGRO) as variables. The inflation level has been taken as a percentage change to the consumer price index for each country with CPI and 2000 as the base year. However, the GDP and GDP per capita have been taken to depict the impact of market size. Trade to openness has been taken to measure openness. The ratio of capita (GN_{Ipc} to GN_{Ipc} USA) has been taken to determine the relative per capita to US for each country in the sample. GDP growth rate for each country has been taken as the annual percentage change. The study also talks about the provisions signed under PTAs such as service sector liberalisation, mechanism for dispute settlement and access to larger market size, which has strengthened the investment climate. These ‘deeper integration’ provisions along with investment clause have influenced the liberalisation of investment for both incoming and outgoing FDI. The result of the study depicts a positive effect of GDP growth on FDI inflow, while the impact of inflation is negative but relatively insignificant. The coefficients of global variables, that is, world growth and world

FDI, depict faster growth in rest of the world as compared to the home country, which makes it less lucrative for investment, whereas the rising total world FDI tends to increase the net FDI inflow for an average host country. The size of the extended common market and proximity has a significant and positive impact on the net FDI inflow. Even signing of PTA (membership) is positively associated with a greater flow of the net FDI inflow. Overall, the result supports the hypothesis that deeper integration PTAs are more significantly associated with net FDI; therefore, FDI is the strongest for the period 1990–2000 when most ‘deep integration’ PTA agreements were signed.

Velde and Bezemer (2006) focus on the relation between regional integrations and foreign investment covering the real stock of UK and US in developing countries over the period 1980–2001. The study considers two significant variables along with other standard explanatory variables to explain the impact of regional grouping or RTAs on FDI. First is the impact of specific investment and trade provisions of RTAs on FDI, and the second is the variable named ‘black box’, that is, 0/1 (dummy or binary variable), which describes whether a country is a member of regional grouping or not. The study measures the trade and investment provisions over time. The investment index measures the investment provisions starting with 0 if not member, 1 if some investment provisions are present in the bloc, 2 for advance investment provisions, 3 if there is complete investment in the region and –1 if there are more restrictive provisions in the region. Similarly, the trade index has been taken ranging from 0 to 3 depending on the depth of trade rules for tariff reduction. The study also covers the standard explanatory variables such as GDP, membership, market size, human capital, inflation, infrastructure, etc. Later, the study also includes the interaction between RTA and the position of the country within the region to measure the difference in the impact of RTA with respect to each country within the bloc. The variable POSITION has been also divided into three categories. First, the POSITION variable captures the position of the host country in terms of real GDP of the host country to the largest economy in the region, the GDP per capita of the host country compared to the richest (productive) country in the region and the distance of the host country from the largest market in the region. Another dummy variable Region has been incorporated, where 1 is assigned if the country belongs to any regional developing country bloc. To capture the nature of region, 7 variables each for ANDEAN, ASEAN, CARICOM, Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA), MERCOSUR, NAFTA and SADC are taken. The result of the study found a positive and significant impact of variables such as infrastructure, education and membership of RTAs. The coefficients for regional and inflation variable are insignificant. The coefficient for nature of region is found to be positive and significant, implying countries attract FDI if they belong to one of these blocs. However, the formation of CARICOM, ASEAN, ANDEAN and NAFTA attracts more extra-regional FDI as compared to other regional blocs. Moreover, each country part of a bloc may not have a similar pull towards FDI. The impacts for investment and trade provisions are positive, but the magnitude is larger in case the countries have advanced or complete provisions for trade and investment. For POSITION variable, a country with a higher GDP (larger as compared to others in

the group) may attract more FDI. In case the POSITION refers to GDP per capita, countries with less GDP per capita may attract less FDI and countries with a larger distance from the largest economy in the regional grouping may attract less FDI. Therefore, the study suggests that countries with a large geographical size and geographically nearer to large economies can expect an increase in inward FDI as a result of joining RTAs.

Leshier and Miroudott (2006) quantify the investment provisions of various RTAs to find the impact on trade and investment flows. To estimate the impact on trade, the study uses OLS regression technique and robust standard error, and in order to examine the impact on investment, the study incorporates the tobit regression model. The various explanatory variables examined are distance, common border, colonial relationship, common language, GDP and exchange rate volatility. Apart from the above-said variables, the variables covering the substantive investment provisions and depth of investment provisions are also incorporated. The first dummy variable explains whether the country pair has an RTA with substantive investment coverage, and the variable also captures the degree to which substantive investment provisions explain trade and investment flows. The second dummy variable indicates whether the country pair is party to BIT protection and promotion provisions for member nations. The above-said variables are incorporated in the first regression model established in the study. However, the study modifies the first regression model and converts the binary (dummy) variables into aggregate indexes. The aggregate indexes are created by giving scores to each member nation depending on the depth of investment liberalisation based on consideration factors such as the most favoured nation treatment, national treatment, service sector, investment regulation and protection, etc. The variable measures the depth of investment provisions for each given RTA. Inclusion of index for investment protection is essential to strengthen the flow of trade and investment. The modified regression also includes a variable RTA to capture the trade investment and diversion impact as a result of entry into an RTA. The first section of the RTA variable explains the aggregate index in case both home and host countries are members of the same RTA, and the second and third sections of the RTA variable assume the aggregate index when only the home country is part of RTA or only the host country is part of RTA, respectively. The findings of the study show a positive and significant coefficient for distance, language and colonial relationship but a negative and significant coefficient for exchange rate volatility. For the trade model, the tariff variable is negative and significant, but for the investment model, the variable is found to have ambiguous effects on investment flows. For the trade model, joint GDP (explaining market size) is negative and significant but insignificant for investment model. Such results are probably due to fluctuation in the exchange rate, GDP per capita, population and GDP each year. Therefore, for such fluctuations, the study also incorporates the fixed effects specifications, and as a result the exchange rate and joint market size take significant signs and magnitude. The BIT dummy variable in the investment model has been also found to be insignificant mainly due to the nature of provisions covered under BIT which are more towards investment protection rather than investment liberalisation. The dummy variable indicating RTA with substantive investment provisions has a

significant and positive coefficient for both trade and investment models. Both for trade and investment models, even the index of investment provisions is found to be positive and significant. The study indicates that trade and investment are complementary and not substitutes. For the trade model, all three sections of the RTA variable are found to be significant and positive towards trade creation. But for the investment model, the coefficient for the RTA variable is ambiguous, where most of the home country RTA variables with the rest of the world are found to be positive (which indicates investment flow from other countries) and the RTA variable for both home and host countries is found to be positive (representing trade creation within a trade bloc). The results indicate that investment provisions are positively associated with trade and, to an even greater extent, investment flows. Further, we observe insignificant effects of bilateral investment treaties on investment flows, suggesting either substantive provisions in RTAs or a combination of substantive investment rules and provision and liberalising jointly make an impact on trade and FDI flows.

Baltagi et al. (2008) conducted an empirical study to estimate RTA effects on FDI covering European agreements between members of EU and 10 Central and Eastern European countries. The study applied the HAC estimator technique for testing. The explanatory variable SGDP, the sum of home and host country, captures the market size of both parent and host countries. The study also covers the difference in the market size and skill endowment to capture the horizontal and vertical FDI impact of RTA. It empirically found strong evidence for the impact of European agreements on bilateral FDI in Europe (RTA increases FDI by up to 78% among European countries). Moreover, the estimation found relocation of FDI from Western European countries to Eastern European countries flowing from Europe agreements.

Uttama (2021) stated that international investment agreements (IIAs) are an important aspect of new-age RTAs negotiated. The study talks about Regional Comprehensive Economic Partnership (RCEP) membership that covers extensive and rich investment agreement. The study empirically evaluates the impact of investment provisions as part of RCEP and its impact on the bilateral FDI on RCEP countries. Hence, the study evaluates investment creation and investment diversion on RCEP economies using panel data over the period 2009–2018 and employed Driscoll–Kraay standard errors estimation as an empirical tool. The results depict a positive and significant relationship between inward FDI and investment provisions in IIAs. Further, the study also depicts a positive and significant coefficient for investment protection and promotion provisions as part of bilateral investment treaties on the inward FDI for RCEP countries. The results also support that the ASEAN membership has led to the investment creation for RCEP economies.

Conclusion

The present study divided the RTA-associated literature into two categories, namely covering the impact of regional trade agreement on trade and the impact

of regional trade agreement on investment. The RTA-examining studies covered varied in terms of regional coverage, variables examined, time span, methodology applied and outcome derived. However, a significant number of the studies examined adjacent variables, historical variables, market size variable, economic development, infrastructure, trade cost, investment cost, tariff variable and RTA membership to ascertain the impact on trade and investment.

Most of the studies covering the impact of RTA on trade had varied results for intra-regional trade creation among member countries and for other explanatory variables empirically examined. Studies conducted by Lee and Shin (2005), Guilhot (2010), and Rahman et al. (2006) depicted a positive coefficient for GDP, GDP per capita and adjacent variables but a negative (and significant) coefficient for distance. The negative coefficient of distance depicted that an increase in transportation cost negatively affects trade. Further, talking about the trade creation and trade diversion variables for various regional blocs, few studies conducted in the region of South Asia did not depict a uniform result for the intra-SAARC bloc. Rahman et al. (2006) found a positive sign for intra-trade creation for India, Pakistan and Bangladesh but a negative coefficient for other countries. Similarly, Akhter and Ghani (2010) found trade diversion for both members and non-members, due to the structural limitations in the region. Few studies conducted for major African RTAs (ECOWAS and SADC) showed a positive coefficient for trade creation. Afesorgbor et al. (2011) stated that the trade creation coefficient was better for SADC as compared to ECOWAS. Another study conducted (in the region of Africa) by Lee and Shin (2006) found a positive coefficient for trade creation but no trade diversion was reported. However, the study stated that 'natural trading partners' (countries which lead to a reduction in transaction cost) create more trade and have less trade diversion. Further, Guilhot (2010) captured three major East Asian trade agreements (ASEAN, ASEAN–Korea and ASEAN–China) and found ASEAN trade agreement supporting both intra-regional and extra-regional trade, but the other two trade agreements had no positive coefficient for intra-regional trade. Muhammad and Yucer (2010) covered six RTAs in the Western Hemisphere and found trade creation for all RTAs except NAFTA and LAIA. For LAIA, the study found a negative impact on trade for both members and non-members.

Further, studies examining the impact of RTAs on investment depicted non-uniform results for FDI creation and FDI diversion, but most of the investment-related studies suggested a positive coefficient for variables associated with a large market size (capturing horizontal FDI), better skill (capturing vertical FDI), openness and better investment environment. Park and Park (2008) supported lower trade cost and domestic reformatory measures for attracting FDI and treated reforms as a commitment device for RTA membership. Yeyati et al. (2003) found a positive impact of RTA on investment, but non satisfactory results were seen for economies with closed international trade, less similar factor endowment and unattractive investment environment. Further, Jang (2011) covered 30 OECD and 32 non-OECD countries and found horizontal FDI dominates vertical FDI for intra-OECD countries, while vertical FDI dominates horizontal FDI for extra-OECD countries. Jaumotte (2004) covered 71 developing countries with both

domestic and regional variables and found that RTAs lead to FDI creation among member nations and FDI diversion not only for RTA members but also for RTA non-members. Medvedev (2006) found stronger results of FDI creation over the period 1990–2000 (a period of deeper integration). Velde and Bezemer (2006) found a positive coefficient for all trade blocs, but each bloc depicted a different pull coefficient for FDI. Leshier and Miroudot (2006) found substantive investment provisions having a positive impact on intra-regional FDI, but bilateral investment treaty (BIT) variables were found to be insignificant.

An insight into the literature suggested that regional trade agreements are emerging as a commitment tool for trade and investment among member nations, hence supporting not only trade creation but also investment creation among various trade blocs on the world map. However, few RTAs still need to work towards enhancing the depth of trade and investment provision in order to witness a positive and significant coefficient for trade and investment creation.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The author declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship and/or publication of this article.

Funding

The author received no financial support for the research, authorship and/or publication of this article.

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Research on Impression Management: Current Progress and Future Possibilities

GLIMS Journal of Management
Review and Transformation
3(1) 29–40, 2024
© The Author(s) 2024
DOI: 10.1177/jmrt.241256305
mrt.greatlakes.edu.in



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Abstract

In recent years, impression management (IM) has garnered substantial scholarly attention, significantly enhancing our comprehension of various factors within organisational contexts. This is a systematic literature review (SLR) research on IM from 2016 to 2024, building on both foundational and recent research. IM involves intentionally influencing how others see us, which significantly affects both individual behaviour and the way organisations function. This review highlights the widespread role and implications of IM in workplaces. It looks at how IM techniques, organisational rules and gender stereotypes interact. Our review presents two major findings. First, we found a strong positive link between successful IM strategies and better organisational performance, showing the real benefits of skilled IM. Second, we noticed a complex connection between IM methods and employee satisfaction, pointing out the need to align IM practices with employee happiness. This SLR not only deepens our theoretical knowledge but also has practical applications for managers. It emphasises the importance of ethically managing IM to ensure authenticity and openness. Also, by pointing out missing pieces in the existing research, this review suggests new areas for future studies to investigate the changing trends and finer details of IM in modern organisational settings.

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Keywords

Impression management, inner value, self-presentation, social interaction, social recognition, group interaction

Received 29 April 2024; accepted 02 May 2024

Introduction

Impression management (IM) is prevalent in workplaces. The research on IM relates to SDG 5 (i.e., gender inequality), SDG 8 (i.e., decent work and economic growth) and SDG 10 (i.e., reduced inequality). IM is relevant for gender inequality (e.g., Sanaria, 2016), work and growth (e.g., Hon & Gamor, 2022) and reducing inequality (e.g., Hossain & Alam, 2023).

Bolino et al.'s (2016) examination of IM was a pivotal moment for the field, outlining nine key research questions and suggesting future research directions. This study aims to build on their foundation by reviewing the evolution of IM research from 2016 onwards. We delve into the subsequent literature, assessing how the inquiries posed by Bolino et al. have been addressed and spotlighting new themes that have emerged since their review. To our knowledge, this is the inaugural attempt to synthesise IM literature post 2016.

In our approach, we adopted a systematic literature review methodology, rigorously selecting top-tier studies published between 2016 and 2022. Our focus was narrowed to articles from journals on the FT50 list, ensuring a high standard of research quality. Through a keyword search targeting terms including 'impression management', 'self-promotion', 'exemplification', 'intimidation', 'ingratiation' and 'supplication', we identified 29 articles from FT50 journals. This article synthesises these contributions, spotlighting the forward leaps in IM studies and the emergent trends that are shaping the field.

IM, often interchanged with terms such as self-presentation or image management, is a fundamental element of social interaction, embodying the strategies people employ, both consciously and unconsciously, to influence others' perceptions of them. In an era where personal branding and social media are ubiquitous, comprehending the nuances of IM is increasingly pertinent. Despite substantial advancements in this field through cross-disciplinary research, the dynamic nature of communication technologies and societal norms continues to reshape the landscape, presenting new challenges and opportunities for effective IM.

This article aims to address a crucial research problem: Understanding how the field of IM has evolved in response to the challenges posed by technological advancements and changing social norms since Bolino et al.'s (2016) important review. Our objective is to synthesise the recent literature, assessing the extent to which the research questions proposed by Bolino et al. have been explored and identifying emerging themes that could inform future studies. To our knowledge, this represents the first comprehensive review of IM literature post-2016, aiming to fill a significant gap and offering a fresh perspective on how individuals and organisations can effectively navigate this complex domain. Through this work,

we seek to provide a robust framework for academics and practitioners alike, encouraging further research that can extend our understanding and application of IM strategies in contemporary settings.

Methodology

This section explains how we approached the review of IM research in top journals from 2016 to 2024. First, we identified the list of FT50 journals. Next, we accessed each journal’s homepage and searched for keywords (refer to Table 1). We found 29 articles through our search.

This methodology outlines the systematic approach we used to explore IM in scholarly publications. This approach helps ensure our study is reliable and provides valuable insights into academic publishing strategies.

Literature Review

In their comprehensive review, Bolino et al. (2016) delineated nine prospective pathways for future inquiry into the domain of IM, encapsulated within Table 3 of their publication. Herein, we spotlight studies from leading journals—those from FT50 journals—published from 2016 to 2024 that have ventured into some of these suggested domains.

Understanding Impression Management

IM is when a person tries to control how others see their behaviour, motives, morals, intelligence and other personal qualities (Lopes & Fletcher, 2004, pp. 747–748). Cantor et al. (1982) identified five main strategies for doing this: ingratiation to be liked, self-promotion to look competent, exemplification to show dedication, intimidation to seem powerful and supplication to appear needy.

Recent studies, like the one by McFarland et al. (2023), show that people’s reasons for managing impressions are partly driven by the chance of being judged in certain situations (like public behaviour or important events). They also found that how motivation for IM works can depend on the type of interactions at the

Table 1. Overview of Criteria and Description for Analysed Articles.

Criteria	Description
Time period	2016–2024
Journal rankings	FT50 list
Keywords	Impression management, self-promotion, exemplification, intimidation, ingratiation, supplication
Total articles from FT50 list	29

workplace, like whether interactions are immediate or anonymous, and whether they can be checked and remembered.

Research on the Impression Management of Creative Individuals

The focus has traditionally been on how others evaluate creative individuals, with less attention given to these individuals' implicit perceptions. However, studies like that of Katz et al. (2022) demonstrate that implicit intentions of creative people can predict behavioural intentions towards them, offering a nuanced understanding of creative individuals' impressions. This research underscores that perceivers can accurately and impactfully track relevant information about creativity at an implicit level, offering insights more precise and innovative than existing explicit measures.

First Impressions in the Digital Realm

Aversa et al. (2021) explored how digital giants like Uber and BlaBlaCar navigate market entry strategies using distinct categorisation tactics—incumbent-focused and economic versus emergent-focused and non-economic. Their study introduces 'category priming' as a method to direct stakeholders' attention towards or away from similarities shared with specific market categories, influencing first impressions in the digital marketplace.

Impression Management Over Environmental Concerns

In their analysis of Volkswagen's response to environmental challenges, Gaim et al. (2021) discuss how the allure of resolving paradoxes can lead to dysfunctional behaviour, where companies manage impressions rather than addressing the underlying issues. Their work adds to paradox theory by highlighting how striving for paradoxical goals can result in prioritising IM over achieving a genuine mastery of paradoxes.

These studies collectively advance our understanding of IM by addressing the queries posed by Bolino et al. (2016) and opening new avenues for research in this evolving field.

What IM Behaviours have been Identified?

Boiral (2016) delved into the tactics organisations utilise to showcase their responsibility towards biodiversity, highlighting the use of neutralisation techniques to legitimise their impacts. These techniques include the following:

- Proclaiming a net positive or neutral impact on biodiversity
- Denying significant impacts
- Distancing from the consequences of their actions
- Minimising their responsibilities

Kibler et al. (2017) explored IM strategies that entrepreneurs use post-venture failure to maintain social legitimacy. They discovered that attributing failure to external, unstable and uncontrollable factors was the most effective strategy.

Kibler et al. (2021) provided an analysis of venture failure narratives, creating a typology of five distinct IM strategies used by entrepreneurs in public statements: triumph, harmony, embrace, offset and show.

Graffin et al. (2016) investigated anticipatory IM through ‘impression offsetting’, a technique to mitigate negative market reactions to acquisitions by pre-emptively managing stakeholder expectations.

Ji and Yan (2022) examined the behavioural outcomes of engaging in counterproductive work behaviour, revealing its indirect promotion of pro-social rule-breaking through IM motives, with the relationship moderated by leader perception.

Sanchez-Ruiz et al. (2021) studied the effect of ingratiation tactics in entrepreneurial pitches on funding decisions, finding that while flattery and self-deprecation were detrimental, self-promotion and opinion conformity positively influenced funding outcomes.

Boiral (2016) again emphasised organisations’ strategic use of neutralisation techniques to manage stakeholder impressions on sensitive social issues like biodiversity, employing strategies to claim positive impacts or downplay responsibility.

Graffin et al. (2016) explored ‘impression offsetting’ as a sign of CEO confidence levels, suggesting that unrelated positive announcements around acquisition times could signal a CEO’s uncertainty about the value creation potential of the acquisition.

Roussy and Rodrigue (2018) highlighted IM techniques in internal auditing, showing how chief audit executives (CAEs) collaborate with managers to enhance the image of the audit function and management team.

Parker and Schmitz (2022) investigated the role of office design in Big Four accounting firms, suggesting that strategic design choices are aimed at managing client impressions and potentially affecting auditor independence and audit quality.

Jin et al. (2022) argued that firms use ‘strategic noise’ as an anticipatory and reactive form of IM to influence market reactions to certain events, adjusting their strategies based on initial market responses.

Gender Effects on Impression Management

India’s high power distance culture coupled with the traditionally low social status of women has spurred the emergence of a women’s movement in the country. Sanaria (2016) provided insights into the significant theoretical contributions regarding IM strategies employed by Indian women, drawing from social role theory and attitude towards gender stereotypes (ATGS).

The choice of IM strategies among Indian women is influenced by gender stereotypes, the nature of the job roles in terms of femininity and masculinity, and attitudes towards these stereotypes. In organisational contexts, aggressive IM techniques are usually discouraged. Indian women in male-dominated job roles who challenge gender stereotypes often find it difficult to navigate these

environments. As a result, they tend to use gentler, more subtle IM strategies, which is in line with the overall preference for indirect methods in India. In contrast, men often use more direct and assertive strategies.

In careers dominated by men, women sometimes feel out of place, which leads them to use specific IM tactics. A study by Cook et al. (2023) looked at how female stand-up comedians present themselves in different types of performance environments, comparing male-dominated settings to more gender-balanced ones. The findings showed that these women adjusted their presentations based on the gender composition of the setting, which supports the social identity-based impression management (SIM) theory by Robert. They showed more gender-typical behaviour in diverse settings and less so in male-dominated ones.

Culture and Impression Management

In India, a nation characterised by high power distance and traditionally low social status for women, an emerging women's movement has been making strides. Sanaria (2016) significantly contributed to understanding the IM strategies Indian women employ, leveraging social role theory and ATGS. The selection of IM strategies is shaped by gender stereotypes, the femininity or masculinity associated with a job role and attitudes toward gender stereotypes. Despite the general unacceptability of aggressive IM techniques in organisations, Indian women in masculine roles facing adverse gender stereotypes often struggle to adapt. They, along with the broader Indian populace, tend to favour softer, more subtle IM strategies, in contrast to the more direct approaches typically used by men.

Ward and Ravlin (2017) explore how international newcomers can increase their influence within workgroups. They introduce a cross-cultural IM framework that highlights how engaging behaviours can shape perceptions of the self, targets and context, providing a basis for leveraging diversity benefits in organisations.

Krieg and Robinson (2018) delved into the differences in IM tactics between the East and West, focusing on exemplification, self-promotion and ingratiation across Japan, Korea and the United States. The study found that Korean employees used all three strategies most frequently, followed by Americans, with Japanese employees using them the least. While American employees applied IM uniformly across all targets, Japanese and Korean employees varied their strategies based on the target, revealing cultural nuances in the application of IM strategies.

Other Themes

Impression Management and Entrepreneurs

Kibler et al. (2017) explored how entrepreneurs can use IM strategies to regain social legitimacy from stakeholders after a business failure. Through a conjoint experiment, they found that attributing failure to external, unpredictable factors beyond the entrepreneur's control was the most effective strategy for maintaining a positive public perception. This approach hinges on the understanding that

attributing failure to external, transient and uncontrollable factors can mitigate negative impressions.

A research by Bitektine (2011) revealed that the effect of causality on legitimacy judgements is significantly moderated by an evaluator's self-efficacy, with those possessing high self-efficacy more likely to attribute failure internally, aligning with theories of social cognition by Fiske (1993) and Bandura (2012).

Sanchez-Ruiz et al. (2021) analysed how entrepreneurs' use of ingratiation tactics in investor pitches affects funding outcomes. They differentiated between various tactics like flattery, self-deprecation, opinion conformity and self-promotion, concluding that while flattery and self-deprecation can deter investment, self-promotion and opinion conformity tend to positively influence funding decisions.

Kibler et al. (2021) investigated how entrepreneurs publicly communicate venture failures to maintain their professional reputation through IM. They identified five types of venture failure narratives—triumph, harmony, embrace, offset and show—each representing a unique approach to publicly framing failure.

Collewaerte et al. (2021) delved into the use of optimistic forecasts by non-founder CEOs as a post-investment IM technique to influence investors. They found that founder-CEOs, who have a stronger identification with their ventures, are less likely to present overly optimistic forecasts compared to non-founder CEOs, highlighting how commitment to the long-term relationship with investors influences the strategic communication of entrepreneurial forecasts.

Impression Management at Macro Organisation Level

The research examines the role of IM at the organisational level, highlighting different strategies organisations use to influence perceptions and maintain a favourable image.

Hayward and Fitza (2017) explored how organisations use precise earnings forecasts as an IM tool. They found that strategic leaders utilise these forecasts to project authority and control over the organisation's performance, particularly after setbacks. The study indicates that precise forecasts are a psychological tactic aimed at improving investor responses by presenting an optimistic outlook on the organisation's future.

Davison and Giovannoni (2023) investigated the use of visual artifacts as a means of IM, focusing on the Sieneese Biccherna panels. These historical artifacts demonstrate how imagery, calligraphy and heraldry were used to convey idealised and reassuring images of governance during complex times, serving as an early example of visual IM.

Roussy and Rodrigue (2018) analysed how CAEs employ IM techniques in their annual reports to audit committees. Through a case study, they revealed that CAEs use both macro and micro IM strategies to enhance the image of internal auditors and management teams, often collaborating with managers rather than strictly monitoring them. This study sheds light on IM practices within private reporting channels.

Parker and Schmitz (2022) examined how the Big Four accounting firms' office designs contribute to client relations, office efficiency and cost control.

Applying Goffman's theories, the study used historical and website analysis to show that modern office designs are strategically used to manage impressions with clients, aiming to create a front stage for professional services that enhances the firm's image, promotes auditor independence and ensures audit quality.

Other Themes Explored by Researchers

Researchers have delved into various aspects of IM techniques and their impacts. Busenbark et al. (2017) explored the use of foreshadowing by managers, a tactic that involves hinting at future strategic actions, such as acquisitions before they occur. They discovered that when managers foreshadowed upcoming acquisitions, it led to fewer analyst downgrades post-announcement, particularly in situations where analysts were uncertain about the firm's prospects. This strategy also increased the likelihood of successful acquisitions due to more favourable analyst responses.

Russell et al. (2018) investigated how the implementation of high-performance work practices (HPWPs) by line managers affects employee perceptions and outcomes. Applying IM theory, they suggested that the way these practices are executed by managers influences employees' impressions of their leadership styles. This effect is moderated by employees' affective states and attributional tendencies, making the impact of HPWPs on perceptions of leadership style somewhat unpredictable and dependent on the context of implementation and individual employee factors.

Managing Impressions and Advancing Sustainable Development Goals

Effective IM strategies can significantly influence the advancement of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). By aligning personal or organisational portrayals with the ethos of sustainable development, entities can foster greater engagement and support for these global objectives (Callagher & Garnevska, 2023). This approach not only promotes awareness but also motivates collective action towards achieving sustainability targets.

Our focus within the SDGs is on Goal 5, which addresses gender inequality (Sanaria, 2016). Our discussion centres on the context of gender inequality in India, exploring the definitions and divisions of work considered masculine or feminine.

Additionally, we turn our attention to Goal 8, which promotes decent work and economic growth (Hon & Gamor, 2022). Within organisational settings, every individual aims to advance professionally and economically. Employing IM strategies can be instrumental in facilitating their growth, contributing not only to their personal development but also to broader economic progress within the organisation.

Furthermore, we extend our discussion to Goal 10, which focuses on reduced inequality (Hossain & Alam, 2023). The concept of IM has significant implications for addressing social inequalities within organisations. Through strategic self-presentation and communication, individuals and organisations can influence perceptions and change behaviours within their sphere of influence. This approach can be particularly effective in promoting equality, as it helps to reshape organisational cultures and practices that perpetuate disparities. By using IM consciously

and ethically, organisations can create more inclusive environments where diversity is valued and equality is advanced.

Future Research

Boiral (2016) suggests future research could delve into the credibility and legitimacy perceptions of neutralisation techniques. Jin et al. (2022) propose areas for future exploration, including the impact of event inconsistencies on IM effectiveness, how different contexts influence the reception of positive and negative news, the short-term versus long-term effects of IM tactics, and the impact of strategic noise in competitive M&A scenarios.

Future studies are encouraged to examine the role and effectiveness of ingratiation rhetoric, as highlighted by Sanchez-Ruiz et al. (2021), and to enhance the reliability and validity of research through multi-source measures, especially in counterproductive work behaviour studies, as suggested by Ji and Yan (2022).

Long (2021) points towards areas such as examining responses to various IM strategies such as exemplification, understanding supervisor attribution in employee ingratiation and exploring actors' perspectives on tactility and authenticity. Future research guided by SIM theory could explore how women manage gender identities in different organisational and social contexts, including the role of feminism in supporting women in unwelcoming situations, as discussed by Cook et al. (2023).

Further research could also investigate the dynamics and outcomes of entrepreneurs providing constructive forecasts to investors, exploring the existence and significance of causal paths within forecasting and IM, as mentioned by Collewaert et al. (2021). Additionally, future inquiries could probe into the learning processes of professional investors regarding earnings guidance precision and its potential as a precursor to earnings management, as suggested by Hayward and Fitza (2017).

Busenbark et al. (2017) advocate for research on managerial foreshadowing beyond acquisitions, while Den Hartog et al. (2004) and Russell et al. (2018) recommend considering individual differences that could influence impression formation, emphasising the need for a nuanced understanding of how personal characteristics affect perceptions of intent and leadership.

Conclusion

This review represents a significant advancement in the field of IM, enhancing our comprehension of how individuals strategically present themselves across different contexts. Researchers have carefully analysed and classified various tactics of IM, including self-promotion and ingratiation, providing a structured framework for understanding personal IM endeavours.

Research has delved into the nuanced behaviours associated with IM across diverse settings, from professional environments like job interviews to the digital

persona on social media platforms. This exploration has unearthed the motivations and techniques behind individuals' efforts to curate favourable perceptions among their peers.

Particularly, the impact of IM within creative processes, entrepreneurship and organisational behaviour has been a focal point of study. In creative fields, the interplay between IM and innovation has been examined, revealing how strategic self-presentation can foster or hinder creative collaboration and idea generation. Within the entrepreneurial landscape, the role of IM in garnering investment, forging partnerships and customer engagement has been highlighted, underscoring its significance in navigating the entrepreneurial journey successfully.

Moreover, the intricate dynamics of IM within organisational settings have been scrutinised, shedding light on how individuals manoeuvre their impressions to ascend professional hierarchies, secure leadership roles and wield influence. These studies offer insights into the social intricacies, power dynamics and the fabric of relationships within workplaces.

To conclude, the body of research on IM since 2016 has considerably advanced our comprehension of how individuals strategically navigate their social and professional worlds through IM. By investigating its application in creativity, entrepreneurship and organisational contexts, scholars have not only broadened the theoretical frameworks but also underscored the practical relevance of IM in shaping successful outcomes and dynamics in various spheres of life.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The authors declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship and/or publication of this article.

Funding

The authors received no financial support for the research, authorship and/or publication of this article.

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Employee Experience: An Evolving Concept

GLIMS Journal of Management
Review and Transformation
3(1) 41–46, 2024
© The Author(s) 2024
DOI: 10.1177/jmrt.241240886
mrt.greatlakes.edu.in



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Abstract

This conceptual article attempts to trace the conceptual evolution of employee experience over the years. The article focuses on the changes in employee experience in response to the changes in the nature of work and the workplace. This article may inspire future researchers to explore variations in employee experience, and the factors contributing to the same. Practitioners and organisations can benefit by understanding and managing employee experience based on the nature of work and the workplace. We hope these insights enable managers to accentuate the employee experience in organisations.

Keywords

Employee experience, alienation, engagement

Received 06 January 2023; accepted 26 February 2024

Introduction

Employee experience has always been important for organisations. This is reflected in recent research on employee experience (e.g., Farndale & Kelliher, 2013; Malik et al., 2022; Tucker, 2020). The work and workplace—two major contributors to employee experience—have been changing over the years (Nuvolari, 2019; Von Tunzelmann, 2003). This article traces how employee experience has been captured under different paradigms of the changing nature of

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work. It further attempts to identify the conceptual evolution (Boxenbaum & Jonsson, 2017; Mahoney & Deckop, 1986) of ‘Employee Experience, Alienation and Engagement’ (Welch, 2011), and prevent potential conceptual proliferation (Morrow, 1983; Nikolaidis, 2020).

Era of Alienation

The industrial revolution at the beginning of the 20th century led to the emergence of large organisations with a greater workforce performing specialised tasks (Nuvolari, 2019; Von Tunzelmann, 2003). The increased task specialisation led to the separation of the producer (i.e., worker) from the produce (i.e., work), leading to employees experiencing alienation (Blauner, 1964; Seeman, 1959).

It was largely the thinkers and researchers (e.g., Erikson, 1986; Goffman, 1957; Seeman, 1959) who were interested in and concerned about the employees experience in the workplace—which was largely reflected in the concept of alienation. The practitioners and organisations seemed less concerned—perhaps owing to the availability of slaves as workers, individual production-linked wages and utter disregard for the employee experience at the workplace.

Workplaces have conditions that alienate workers rather than engage them (Kanungo, 1979). Inability to engage in meaningful tasks results in emotional unavailability and apathy towards work (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Employees across sectors experience alienation (Gerth & Mills, 1946). The focus of employers in this era was on manual labour, and they did not care about the experience of employees. Alienation and involvement (i.e., engagement) impact the quality of experience at work (Kanungo, 1983).

Alienation comprises five dimensions: powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, isolation and self-estrangement (Seeman, 1959, 1967). These dimensions have been measured in various contexts (e.g., health care professionals) using different scales (Kartal, 2018; Marques et al., 2022; Rayce et al., 2018).

Era of Engagement

Towards the second half of the 20th century, manufacturing processes transitioned from being labour-intensive to leveraging managerial decision-making and collaboration (Von Tunzelmann, 2003). Many organisations had transitioned from production-based wages to time-based wages, necessitating increased productivity (Voth, 1996). Organisations needed employees to be more productive during work hours and to apply their whole selves to the workplace. In this era, practitioners and researchers were concerned about the (lack of) positive employee experience at the workplace—captured by the concept of employee engagement (Kahn, 1990).

Employee engagement is defined as ‘the harnessing of organization members’ selves to their work roles’ (Kahn, 1990, p. 694). This reflects the increasing expectations of organisations from employees to provide not only their bodies and

minds to their organisations, but also immerse their hearts in their work. The feeling of identification with the job was found to be lacking when employees were alienated from their work (Seeman, 1967). Employees who do not experience meaninglessness are more engaged in their work (Han et al., 2021). Meaningful tasks are a means of reinstating employee involvement and motivation for their work (Seeman, 1972).

Engagement is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Vigour encompasses having a resilient mind along with an energetic and unrelenting approach towards their work. Dedication involves being excited and experiencing pride towards one's tasks. Absorption can be described as being completely engrossed and involved in the tasks at hand without consideration of time (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Engagement can be associated with experiences at work and is predicted by positive emotions such as hope (Ouweneel et al., 2012). Engagement is a positive state of well-being and fulfilment (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). Engaged employees are emotionally attached to their organisation (Kompaso & Sridevi, 2010).

Era of Experience

The 21st century is marked by the age of information and technology. Technology has permeated all aspects of life, including work. The extensive use of technology has enabled employees to work from anywhere (i.e., no fixed workplace) at any time (i.e., no fixed work hours). Employee experience includes a gamut of feelings experienced by the employee towards their employer (Tucker, 2020). Employee experience focuses on daily interactions within the organisation, which includes tacit as well as practical experience of employees (Artusi & Bellini, 2022). Employee experience involves employees' perception, which includes their physical and psychological well-being obtained from their work (Kong et al., 2019).

Usage of technology and the resultant change in nature of work enabled the application of artificial intelligence (AI) in human resources (HR) practices to enhance employee experience (Malik et al., 2022; Pillai et al., 2024). Employee experience surveys, along with traditional engagement tools, are being used by practitioners across different sectors to achieve positive engagement outcomes (Tucker, 2020). The introduction of AI tools such as chatbot to enhance employee experience is an upcoming HR practice (Pillai et al., 2024). AI-assisted HRM applications are found to improve employee experience as well as enhance productivity (Malik et al., 2022).

Conceptual Evolution and Proliferation

Alienation and engagement are variations of the same core concept about employees' states of mind (Pati & Kumar, 2015). Alienation and engagement are two different perspectives on the same phenomenon (Kanungo, 1979, 1982, 1983, 1990; Mendonca & Kanungo, 1994; Sanaria, 2013). Researchers focused on

alienation at the beginning of the 20th century and engagement in the second half of the 20th century, owing to the changing nature of work and the workplace. Sociological and psychological influences in varied cultural contexts and different temporal eras have resulted in variations in research focus between alienation and engagement (Kanungo, 1979).

Employee experience is the employee's psychological perspective relating to employee engagement at work (Lemon, 2019). Employee engagement and alienation are found to measure empirically similar experiences (Pati & Kumar, 2015). Hence, employee engagement and alienation seem to represent negative and positive aspects of employee experience, which is a holistic perspective of the employees' perception regarding work (Artusi & Bellini, 2022).

Based on the above discussion, we suggest that the concepts of alienation and engagement are different ways of capturing negative and positive aspects of employee experience, respectively. Therefore, concepts of employee experience, alienation and engagement (Welch, 2011) seem to be a result of conceptual evolution (Boxenbaum & Jonsson, 2017; Mahoney & Deckop, 1986) across eras. Using these concepts in current times may lead to concept proliferation (Morrow, 1983; Nikolaidis, 2020).

Conclusion and Contribution

Researchers are attempting to revive earlier concepts (e.g., alienation and engagement) (Rathee & Sharma, 2019; Shantz et al., 2015). As an alternative, researchers can focus on the commonalities and differences amongst them to avoid proliferation (Morrow, 1983; Nikolaidis, 2020). This article may inspire future researchers to explore variations in employee experience, and factors contributing to the same. Practitioners and organisations can benefit from understanding and managing employee experience based on the nature of work and the workplace. We hope these insights enable managers to accentuate the employee experience in organisations.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The authors declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship and/or publication of this article.

Funding

The authors received no financial support for the research, authorship and/or publication of this article.

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The Essence of Psychological Ownership and Emotions in Adaptation of Digital Technologies

GLIMS Journal of Management
Review and Transformation
3(1) 47–59, 2024
© The Author(s) 2024
DOI: 10.1177/jmrt.241249544
mrt.greatlakes.edu.in



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Abstract

Technical advancements that are generating new products, services and markets, at a fast pace tend to meet modern consumer wants. Despite the fact that digital technologies are intangible, users of virtual environments form strong emotional bonds with their goods and frequently experience a sense of psychological ownership of these tools. These digital advances have substantially disrupted psychological ownership since they have replaced legal ownership with legal access rights to things, which has added value for consumers and firms. As a result, in depth study is needed in the field of psychological ownership since it would give more insights and implementable marketing strategies to organisations who wish to capitalise on psychological ownership's advantages in the digital age. The research presented in this study offers a fresh viewpoint on how consumers' emotions impact the psychological ownership of digital technologies. The theoretical explanation of the relationship between emotions and psychological ownership is provided in this study, which contends that both factors are essential to producing favourable results for digital enterprises. The research sums up by offering practical marketing tactics for firms looking to maintain the advantages of increased psychological ownership. Additionally, as potential areas for future research, this study calls on academics to do empirical research.

Keywords

Psychological ownership, emotions, digital technologies, consumer marketing

Received 09 February 2024; accepted 08 April 2024

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Introduction

As in modern times, technological innovations are rapidly changing the consumption pattern of goods and services wherein, consumption is evolving from legally owned private material goods to access-based usage in which people purchase temporary rights to use shared goods (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012; Eckhardt et al., 2019; Morewedge et al., 2021). The upcoming growth of trends in marketing like the digital sharing economy, digitisation of goods and services, disruptive technologies, access-based consumption of digital services for sustainable behaviour, ever-growing online era (Matzler et al., 2015; Morewedge et al., 2021; Peck & Luangrath, 2023) have put forward the new fashion for the future researchers to probe the psychological ownership aspect of these trends.

In the current scenario of digital advancements, consumer psychology has become a significant and productive topic of discussion and research in digital marketing. Customers' mental processes and decision-making processes are predicted by marketers using the concept of consumer psychology. The interaction that customers have with technology has evolved into an essential promise in today's the technology-mediated environment. New products, services and markets are being created as a result of the rapid innovation and advancement of digital technology (Morewedge et al., 2021). Both consumers and businesses gain enormous value from these developments.

Customers have a psychological sense of ownership over digital technologies like online music, films, e-books, online games, etc. According to Watkins and Molesworth (2012), researchers refer to new targets of psychological ownership, which are distinct to the digital realm when they use the term 'digital virtual products'. These include social media sites, online gaming consoles, online learning platforms, e-books, online shopping and many more. Also, according to consumer psychology, users of digital products and services experience a strong sense of psychological ownership over them (Kirk & Swain, 2018). Consumers feel as though they are the legal owners of these objects even when they are not (Watkins & Molesworth, 2012).

Customers' view that makes them believe to own the product is known as psychological ownership. These things could be tangible or intangible, physical or immaterial and legally possessed or not (Nijs et al., 2021). Customers frequently form close bonds with the items in their immediate environment and may even feel a sense of psychological ownership. The mental state in which consumers feel the target of possession is 'theirs' might thus be described as psychological ownership (Pierce et al., 2001). When consumers put their time and energy into a target (Kamleitner & Erki, 2013), exert control over a target (Peck et al., 2013), or get intimate knowledge of a target (Kirk et al., 2018), they begin to experience an attachment to the object.

Moreover, marketing literature has clearly demonstrated that emotions play a crucial role in affecting the minds of the customer because they have the power to bring about psychological and behavioural change (Kim et al., 2015). Psychological ownership is said to have both cognitive and affective components (Pierce et al., 2003). Positive motivating emotions including pleasure, hope, pride

and excitement are believed to encourage psychological ownership. Accordingly, psychological ownership is a result of individual emotions (Baumeister & Wangenheim, 2014). Today firms pay more attention to the emotional reactions towards a product that can elicit more than just its utilitarian advantages. As a result, through emotions, the consumer develops a strong psychological attachment to the product or service. Despite this, there is still little information about how emotions relate to psychological ownership in the digital world and business outcomes (Sinclair & Tinson, 2017).

Objective of the Study

The main objectives of the study are:

1. To propose a theoretical framework that explains the existence of psychological ownership in digital technologies.
2. To theoretically examine the role of emotions in enhancing the psychological ownership of digital products and services.

Review of Literature

Psychological Ownership

The concept of psychological ownership was first studied in the field of management at the beginning of the 21st century (Pierce et al., 2003, 2001). To better understand the relationship between customers and products, psychological ownership has recently flourished in marketing and is supposed to be essential in consumer behaviour (Jussila et al., 2015; Li & Atkinson, 2020; Peck & Shu, 2018).

Psychological ownership has mostly been studied in relation to consumer behaviour. According to (Pierce et al., 2001, 2003), psychological ownership is a cognitive-affective mental state in which a consumer feels a sense of ownership for a target object that is viewed as separate from actual legal possession. Psychological ownership refers to a relationship or a feeling of 'It is mine!' between a consumer and a target of ownership, such as an object, an idea, or even another person. This sensation towards an object is 'experienced as having a close connection with the self' (Pierce et al., 2003). The essential part of this perception is that even though a customer does not legally own an item, place, or idea, they still have a strong bond with it (Nijs et al., 2021; Shaw et al., 2012; Verkuyten & Martinovic, 2017). Also, it has been observed that consumers will value and utilise things more effectively if they perceive ownership of the resource or object (Peck et al., 2020).

Digital firms believe that psychological ownership is linked to their future performance since it appears to be a desirable commodity to retain and capture virtual consumers (Jusiila et al., 2015; Morewedge et al., 2021). Researchers proposed

that feeling that you own something virtually increases your level of admiration, intimacy and liking for that digital product or service (Kamleitner, 2015; Kirmani et al., 1999; Peck & Shu, 2009). Investment of time and effort in digital platforms and the products and services therein the customer results in the culmination of a bond with these digital products, which fosters sentiments of attachment. Despite the notion of who they are and which group they belong to, digital customers develop an attachment to the object of ownership (Dittmar, 1992; Kirk & Swain, 2018; Pierce et al., 2001). Customers therefore do not hesitate to refer to the desired virtual item as 'theirs'.

Emotions

Nowadays, customers experience emotional attachment and a sense of ownership for goods they do not truly own but just think they do. In recent decades, there has been growing interest in the effects of emotion on customer behaviour and organisations (Elfenbein & Shirako, 2016). Emotions are a type of conscious mental reaction that manifests as intense feelings, usually toward a particular object and are frequently accompanied by physical, psychological and behavioural changes. Due to their relationship with the cognitive aspect (Dolcos et al., 2011; Vanneste et al., 2021), psychological aspect (Bartley, 2018), social aspect (Evans & Morgan, 2006; Hannula, 2012), and affective aspect (Skillmathing et al., 2020), customer emotions have drawn researchers' attention. The customer's interaction with technology is now a focus of this interest in emotions (Cho & Heron, 2015). Increasing our knowledge of emotions can help us comprehend how they interact with and are influenced by technological factors, which may enable us to make wiser judgments about the success of an organisation.

Emotions have a crucial role in psychological ownership, which consists of both affective and cognitive elements (Pierce et al., 2003). Customers' feelings and emotions toward the target thing result in the target object becoming psychologically owned. Psychological ownership is influenced by emotions such as arousal, happiness, weirdness and pride (Kirk & Swain, 2018). In their experimental investigation, Shu and Peck (2011) discovered that emotions whether happy or sad had a substantial impact on customer's positive affective reactions to the experimental object. They also proposed that emotions had a major role in customer's feelings of psychological ownership (Pekrun et al., 2011).

Researches show the psychological arousal of consumers varies frequently, greatly, and is easily influenced, especially by the digital world. According to Watkins and Molesworth's (2012) consumers who often interact with virtual worlds, slowly get attached to their virtual belongings. However, scholars further argued that these consumers experience the pleasure of bond with digital goods but occasionally they come across weirdness as a result of their intense attachment to something that is not physically present. In line with this, Kirk and Swain (2018) assumed that customers also had a strong feeling of loss and suffering when the digital assets they connect with, were lost due to technical difficulties. As a result, they also try to protect their virtual possessions through careful

backups. So, interestingly, customers come across arousal and weirdness to be so attached to virtual goods, when customers recognised that they do not legally own these digital possessions (Kirk & Swain, 2018). The study of Kirk and Swain (2018) has, therefore, provided suggestions to the researchers for further exploration of the effect of several emotions towards psychological ownership. Additionally, it has been suggested that pride and happiness, as significant feelings, have a connection to psychological ownership. While hubristic pride amplifies the impact of psychological ownership on outcomes like economic valuation and word-of-mouth, genuine pride functions as an antecedent of psychological ownership (Kirk & Swain, 2015). However, the relationship between psychological ownership and various emotions in online user-generated content has not yet been fully explored (Kirk & Swain, 2018; Sinclair & Tinson, 2017).

Theoretical Framework

Psychological Ownership Theory

Pierce et al. (2003) attempted to explain the psychological state of ownership using the psychological ownership theory, which offers in-depth explanations of the phenomenon. As Pierce et al. (2003) asserted, 'the meaning and emotion associated with my or mine and our' are manifestations of the sense of ownership. The concept of psychological ownership depicts a connection between the customer and the product. The customer's possessive feelings about items extend beyond the idea of legal possession and are in particular, psychological in origin. Customers' possessions both tangible and intangible are emotional objects (Belk, 1989).

Researchers have identified psychological ownership's motivations, including efficacy and effectivity, self-identity, having a home and stimulation (Jussila, 2015), which give the idea of psychological ownership in rationality. According to Beggan (1991), Dittmar (1992), Pierce et al. (2003), the customer starts to exert control over the product when they are successful in their endeavours to experience desire and the growth of ownership. Customers are thus encouraged to investigate their digital environment, associate, gather with it, interact with it, and think about its significance. The customer tends to see the target as their own and merge with their expanded self as they starts to control, deeply comprehend and become entirely engrossed in the thing (Dittmar, 1992; Pierce et al., 2003). According to Duncan and Hoffman (1981), when a customer feels a sense of ownership of a product and finds a safe environment to operate in, there is a fusion between the self and the thing. By engaging in these behaviours, a psychological ownership of the specific good or service is created.

Also Astryan and Oh (2008) and Jussila (2015) have demonstrated a number of psychological ownership antecedents, such as exercising control, getting to know something well, investing in oneself, and many more, which have shown the intended consequences for both customers and businesses. According to studies (Belk, 1988; Furby, 1978), a customer's level of control over an item makes it feel more like a part of them and fosters feelings of ownership of that item. Kirk and

Swain (2015) propose that technological control and interactivity foster the development of psychological ownership in the digital environment. Further, as customers become intimately familiar with certain products and link themselves with them, emotions of ownership develop in both the physical and digital worlds (Kirk & Swain, 2018; Pierce et al., 2001). Last but not least, according to Rochberg-Halton (1981), a person should establish sentiments of ownership for a particular thing by investing time, ideas and talents, as well as physical, psychological and intellectual energies into it. In line with this, Kirk and Swain (2018) found that digital customers make an effort, to engage with the virtual world, and invest in it in order to mentally own the product.

The dimensions of psychological ownership, such as self-efficacy, self-identity, belongingness, accountability, autonomy, responsibility and territoriality, have also been organised by researchers and serve as the cornerstone of the psychological ownership theory. Psychological ownership was initially based on the three qualities of self-efficacy, self-identity and belongingness by Pierce et al. (2001). However, after a thorough examination of the literature, the construct has since been expanded by the division and classification of the psychological ownership dimensions as either promotion-oriented or prevention-oriented (Avey et al., 2009; Olckers, 2013). Because of this, psychological ownership is a multi-dimensional construct that includes self-efficacy, self-identity, belongingness, accountability, autonomy and responsibility as positive or promotion-oriented dimensions and territoriality as a negative or prevention-oriented dimension that influences how much psychological ownership is felt.

The theory of psychological ownership, which is most relevant to digital technologies for the establishment of psychological ownership, contends that specific characteristics of the ownership object are necessary for consumers to be able to experience a sense of ownership (Pierce et al., 2003). More importantly, ownership focuses on the requirement to satiate psychological ownership motives in digital consumers. To meet the self-identity purpose, they must, in other words, be appealing and relevant to the self. They must also be open, available, affordable and accessible so that users can establish a sense of place or home within the confines of the digital world (Kirk & Swain, 2018). According to Baxter et al. (2015) and Norman (2013), conceivable interactions with digital commodities and their use based on the characteristics of the object and the user are necessary for psychological ownership to endure. The three paths to psychological ownership controlling an ownership target, getting to know a target well, or investing oneself in a target are also perceived as stimulating and facilitating having a place or feeling at home (Pierce et al., 2003; Pierce & Jussila, 2011). Therefore, a digital technology's affordances are its features that enable users to complete specific activities and take specific actions. As a result, users' abilities to feel a sense of ownership over a digital goal are both limited and increased by digital affordances (Kirk & Swain, 2018). On the contrary, some researchers also have suggested that keeping other things aside, consumers experience lower psychological ownership for digital products due to lower perceptions of control than physical products and thus have pointed towards the need for further exploration and research in the concerned area (Atasoy & Morewedge, 2018).

Entity Theory of Intelligence

According to Molden and Dweck's (2005) Entity Theory of Intelligence, customers may come to believe that their intellect and abilities are inborn traits they possess and cannot be altered, increased, or lessened. Customers, who are acknowledged and rewarded for their characteristics rather than their accomplishments, grow to believe in themselves and experience emotions like pride, happiness, power, security and confidence. By demonstrating the importance of emotions in promoting psychological ownership, this theory serves as the foundation for the suggested theoretical framework. In contrast to young customers who are born with the traits of technological advancements and feel at ease with technology like online gaming, music, online shopping, digital transactions, education, etc., it is typically observed that elderly customers who are unfamiliar with the technological world have developed the feeling that the technological world is not their cup of tea. Therefore, it shows that the entity theory of intelligence has roots for the germination of emotions to lead towards psychological ownership via the dimension of self-efficacy, self-identity and more (Mullins & Sabherwal, 2020; Puche et al., 2016). Emotions can thus be employed to increase the customer's psychological ownership of intangible goods and services in the digital sphere via the entity theory of intelligence. Thus, a particular motivational style that has a direct impact on a consumer's feelings and emotions is supported by the idea that emerges from the entity theory of intelligence.

Incremental Theory of Intelligence

Additionally, the incremental theory of intelligence (Molden & Dweck, 2005) claims that intellect and other attributes are acquired via effort and experience. According to this notion, intellect is changeable and may be developed with effort and time. Therefore, through an incremental theory of intelligence, customers who are recognised for their effort develop cravings and emotions like ambition, pride, excitement, passion and anxiety, which can lead to the development of psychological ownership. For instance, the young generation of today is at ease with technology because they have a close relationship with it and put a lot of effort into learning about and staying in tune with technological advancements every day. These are the customers with growth mindsets (Lee et al., 2012). Similarly, digital consumers who believe in increasing their capacity through rigorous efforts have emotions like excitement, energetic feelings and happiness that again pop-up dimensions of psychological ownership, that is, self-identity, belongingness, accountability, etc. Therefore, this indicates that the incremental theory of intelligence has a foundation of developing emotions leading towards psychological ownership through its various dimensions like belongingness, accountability, etc. As a result, they have become psychologically accustomed to it and feel at ease with it. According to the current study, businesses can use the basis of this theory to plant the seeds of psychological ownership for the target objects in the brains of their clients.

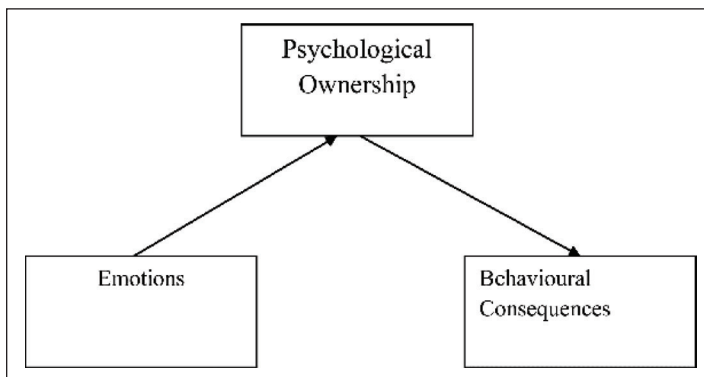


Figure 1. Conceptual Model.

Source: Conceptual model through literature review.

Furthermore, studies have demonstrated that consumer support for incremental versus entity theories of intelligence reliably predicts whether or not a customer in a difficult situation would persevere (Molden & Dweck, 2005). The present study's foundation is thus provided by these implicit theories of intelligence, which also have consequences for how emotions and beliefs are handled and processed. It makes feel worthless for businesses to invest time and effort in such customers if they think intelligence or ability is fixed. However, if one's intelligence or skill is thought to be a sign of diligent effort, it indicates the need to continue making attempts and go forward. As a result, customers may exhibit a more optimistic attitude and perform better (Blackwell et al., 2007), which is advantageous for businesses.

Hence, these theories pose the fundamental base to achieve the objectives of the current study, that is, to propose a theoretical framework that explains the existence of psychological ownership in digital technologies and to theoretically examine the role of emotions in enhancing the psychological ownership for digital products and services (Figure 1).

Discussion and Implications

It is necessary to look at how digital technologies are affecting customers because they have altered the interaction between consumers and their goods. Technology advancements have replaced the models in which people are legal owners of private material goods with access-based consumption models. Here under the new consumption model, customers temporarily purchase the right to utilise shared, experienced products (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012; Eckhardt et al., 2019; Morewedge et al., 2021; Rifkin, 2001). Therefore, this research study aimed to comprehend how customer behaviour is impacted by the expansion of digital technology, which in turn influences digital firms. The theoretical framework is

applicable more generally to areas with significant use of digital technology, and it is instructive and suggestive for managers working to draw and keep customers in these brand-new digital environments.

Further, due to the widespread adoption of digital technology, consumer consumption and behavioural patterns have also changed significantly, creating both a threat and an opportunity for the online sector. Since psychological ownership is a valuable asset for digital firms since it has value-enhancing results, modern digital enterprises must transform risks and cultivate new chances for creating psychological ownership among customers (Morewedge et al., 2021).

Also, how consumer emotions are connected in the virtual world needs thorough investigation in the context of psychological ownership. The relationship between psychological ownership and emotions had not been fully explained in the marketing literature, (Watkins, 2016), and it seemed vague in the context of digital virtual goods, such as e-books, music, games and digital content. Customers tend to be more positively affected by things towards which they feel an emotional connection, such as happiness, arousal, pride, etc., (Schultz & Schultz, 1989). Because people value their relationship with the object and wish to preserve it, experiencing this emotional bond with the target online objects can also lead to certain psychological behaviours. Therefore, it becomes crucial in the current online era to research the impact of various emotions on perceived ownership of virtual commodities which was made fruitful via this study.

The study also theoretically shows how emotions can strengthen a customer's sense of psychological ownership over the online space, which would have a good knock-on effect on digital businesses. In order to better understand how emotions affect psychological ownership and how their worth may be increased for businesses, the study would be helpful to marketers and digital firms. In order to get the intended results for the businesses, it would assist them in developing efficient ways to acquire, manage and cultivate psychological ownership of the customers.

Emotions of consumers shown in advertising, build a connection between the customer and the firm. This emotional connection results in long-term customer commitment and loyalty to the businesses. Emotions also work well in the digital realm to foster deeper connections between users and virtual technology, creating a sense of psychological ownership over the desired goods. Therefore, this study provides managers with how to create positioned methods for marketing products that might generate profit from utilising customers' emotions to create psychologically favoured goods and services.

The study significantly adds to the body of marketing literature. In order to explain the relationship between psychological ownership and emotions in the context of digital technologies, the study has presented a theoretical framework based on psychological ownership theory, entity theory of intelligence and incremental theory of intelligence. This framework could aid firms in formulating better strategies for their future success paths.

This study will be important for digital firms and marketers since it will help in the development of customer satisfaction and retention tactics that leverage

psychological ownership. Additionally, in the modern internet era, psychological ownership and emotions are equally important for understanding client behaviour. As a result, the study provided necessary insights into how emotions can improve psychological ownership in the setting of digital technology.

Future Research and Conclusion

Despite the significant effort put forth, there are still loopholes and gaps in this study that need to be filled by scholars and researchers as future research opportunities. The theoretical framework only provides conceptual support to the existence of psychological ownership in digital technologies and it also shows the impact of emotions in enhancing psychological ownership. Further, customers' feelings and psychology may differ across countries or depending on their demographic profile as well. Therefore, empirical research in this area is advised, with a potential focus on demographic or cultural differences. To better understand psychological ownership as a comprehensive concept, additional constructs may be examined with emotions.

Thus, it is clear that the emergence of new digital technologies has ushered in a new era of digital consumption, which is putting tremendous pressure on the industry's enterprises. However, it is also widely accepted and recognised that psychological ownership is a significant asset for the company because it can result in a number of outcomes that increase value. As a result, the current study will aid digital businesses in this regard by assisting them in understanding emotions and significant aspects of psychological ownership that will help the organisations in reaching favourable outcomes.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The authors declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship and/or publication of this article.

Funding

The authors received no financial support for the research, authorship and/or publication of this article.

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What are the Factors that Influence Non-conformists Not to Conform to Group Norms?

GLIMS Journal of Management
Review and Transformation
3(1) 60–79, 2024

© The Author(s) 2024
DOI: 10.1177/jmrt.241241884
mrt.greatlakes.edu.in



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Abstract

This article aims to study the factors that influence non-conformists not to conform to group norms. In the literature about non-conformity, most of the discussion is on how non-conformists influence the world. The key factors contributing to non-conformity are not yet known. To investigate the factors, qualitative research study was used for a sample size of 20 participants with more than 5 years of work experience from various industries. In light of this possibility, this research uses a grounded theory approach to explore the factors that trigger non-conformists not to conform to group norms. This article lays a foundation for the motivation factors behind non-conformists. The study's findings revealed 13 factors that emerged as the factors that trigger non-conformists not to conform to group norms.

Keywords

Non-conformity, groups, norms, non-conformist

Received 25 January 2024; accepted 8 March 2024

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Introduction

Throughout history, the advancement of human society has often relied on non-conformists who bring innovative and progressive ideas to their group (Grant, 2016; Sunstein, 2019; Wolf & Zuckerman, 2012). Unsurprisingly, non-conformists are often excluded, underappreciated and punished (e.g., Chudek & Henrich, 2011; Grant, 2016; Henrich & Henrich, 2007; Lewis & Sherman, 2010; Marques et al., 2001; Riesman et al., 1950; Tomasello, 2016). In his seminal work on conformity, Asch (1956) demonstrated that individuals may agree with majorities even under conditions where the majority favours an incorrect option. Such conformity has been explained by the individuals' wish to meet the expectations of others, to avoid sanctions or even punishment for deviance, or to create a sense of belonging. Majority influence however is not only successful due to such normative pressures, but also because individuals accept high consensus as evidence about the 'objective' reality (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955) or as social proof (Cialdini, 1993). They agree with the majority position because high consensus serves as a cue to what is likely to be correct or, in other words, represents the 'objective consensus' (Mackie, 1987).

While Imhoff and Erb (2009) argue that uniqueness seeking blocks majority influence, there might be other factors contributing to non-conformity. Moreover, certain individuals challenge prevailing norms within the organisation by taking initiatives that lead to significant and impactful transformations. In this qualitative inquiry, the study aims to comprehend the motivating factors underlying non-conformists' decision not to adhere to group norms.

Groups, Norms, Conformity and Non-conformity

Groups have been an important focus of many studies in literature. This is because of the recognition of the importance of groups as a relevant unit of analysis for the study of organisations.

In history, research on groups and group processes started in the 1930s when Sherif, Newcomb and Lewin started work on such varied topics as social norms, leadership and group decision-making (Cartwright & Zander, 1968). Further development of this happened in the late 1940s and 1950s on cooperation and competition, group structure, social power, conformity and group task performance and problem-solving (Paulus, 1980). The influence of groups on individual behaviour is now, perhaps, taken for granted.

Groups are composed of individuals. Groups have their own identity and characteristics, separate from the identity of their members. This implies that the individuals in a group exhibit behaviours, values, attitudes, or other identifiable patterns that are similar or acceptable to the other group members. This is referred to as 'conformity', and is an important construct necessary for the identification

and categorisation of individuals into 'Groups', without 'conformity', it is difficult to think of groups.

Conformity is defined as 'some behavioral or attitudinal change that occurs as a result of some real or imagined group pressure' (Asch, 1952, as cited in Kiesler, 1969; Berg & Bass, 1961, as cited in Kiesler, 1969; Brown, 1965; Homans, 1961, as cited in Kiesler, 1969; Krech et al., 1962, as cited in Kiesler, 1969; Secord & Backman, 1964; Walker & Heyns, 1962).

Conformity is behaviour 'intended to fulfill normative group expectations as these expectations are perceived by the individual' (Wills, 1965, p. 376). On the contrary, non-conformity is 'behavior which is intended to facilitate the attainment of some goal other than that of fulfilling perceived normative group expectations' (Wills, 1965, p. 378).

Literature refers to this normative group expectation as a norm. Sherif (1936), as cited in McMahan and Kacmar (1991), defines norms as the 'customs, traditions, rules, values, fashions, and any other criteria of conduct which are standardised as a consequence of contact with individuals'. Other scholars refer to norms as the 'acceptable standards of behavior within a group that are shared by the group's members' (Robbins, 1989).

Norms can effectively control certain social situations as well as individual and group behaviours. While controlling these, norms also impact the environment of other individuals, in addition to impacting the enactment of the environment for an individual or group. The evolution and influence of norms have been established through various studies (Abrams et al., 2003; Asch, 1965; Back, 1965; Bartel & Saavedra, 2000; Coch & French, 1965; Festinger et al., 1965; Jetter et al., 2002; Sherif, 1965; Smith & Bell, 1994). The term 'norms' is generally used to refer to 'group norms', and 'norms' are supposed to be a group-level entity in the existing research (Bettenhausen & Murnighan, 1985; Feldman, 1984; Heywood & Aas, 1999; Hoffman, 1957; Kiesler, 1963; Munroe et al., 1999; Persson, 1976; Sanaria, 2004; Sheehan, 1979).

Based on the direction of the individual towards or against the group norms, individuals can be categorised into conformist individuals and non-conformist individuals. In general, conformist individuals are willing to conform to the organisational and group norms and practice more readily than non-conformist individual.

Methods

Procedures

To investigate and understand the factors that influence (conditions that trigger) non-conformists not to conform to group norms. More specifically, the study was aimed at analysing the underlying factors that affect non-conformists not to conform to group norms from an organisation point of view.

To understand the underlying reasoning of the non-conformist, we used qualitative research, particularly the grounded theory approach.

Sampling Procedure

Participants for the research study were chosen using purposive sampling as the goal of purposive sampling is to sample cases/participants strategically.

To explore the answers to the research question, an interview-based research study was conducted. The sample size for the study comprised 20 participants with more than 5 years of work experience, comprising of 16 males and 4 females. Demographics details of the participants are included in Table 1. Interviews were conducted at informal locations at the convenience of the interviewee. Interviews were conducted during the year 2017–2018. The researcher acted as an interviewer during the study.

This study aimed to gain a deeper understanding of participants’ views on factors that influence non-conformists not to conform to group norms. Corporate professionals from different industries are chosen for this study to ensure different perspectives are taken into consideration. So overall perspective or experience is considered. Thus, we attempted to design a study from which the results of a representative sample could be generalised to a larger population.

The same set of questions were asked in the same sequence to all respondents.

Table 1. Demographic Details of Participants.

Interview Reference	Sex	Age	Working Industry	Experience
A1	M	32	IT	7
A2	F	28	IT	5
A3	M	31	Pharmaceutical	8
A4	M	35	Education	10
A5	M	29	Telecommunications	6
A6	M	28	IT	7
A7	F	26	IT	5
A8	M	30	Entertainment	7
A9	M	33	Construction	12
A10	F	27	Media	6
A11	M	34	Manufacturing	11
A12	M	32	IT	9
A13	M	29	IT	8
A14	M	31	Electronics	7
A15	F	30	IT	7
A16	M	28	Hospitality	5
A17	M	34	Consultation	9
A18	M	28	Education	4
A19	M	33	Hospitality	9
A20	M	35	Pharmaceutical	11

Interview Procedure

For the study, interviewees chose to complete the interview face-to-face or over the telephone, whichever was most convenient. Telephone interviews were used alongside face-to-face interviews on the well-defended assumption that both are valuable forms of collecting qualitative data (Cachia & Millward, 2011). One member of the research team carried out the interviews, which lasted approximately 30 min and were recorded to allow for *verbatim* transcription. Not all interviews were recorded; most of them were transcribed.

Interview Protocol

Interview questions were divided into two main sections:

Section 1: ‘Your perception/opinion,’ general, non-intrusive, questions such as: ‘In your own words, how would you describe non-conformist individuals.’

The purpose of the questions in this section was single fold, to ease the participant into the interview process (King, 2004).

Section 2: ‘Specific incident from an organisational point of view about non-conformist individual not conforming to group norms.

Section 3: What are the factors that influence non-conformists not to conform to group norms?

The purpose of the questions in this section was two-fold; first, to let the participant present the real-life experience and to understand the underlying reason/motive during the interview process (King, 2004).

Throughout the interview, open-ended questions were encouraged, and reflexive, descriptive, and lengthy answers were recorded.

During the process of interview analysis, many safeguards were taken to ensure that the results reflected the participant’s perspective. Following the phenomenological tradition, the epoch was sought through bracketing of personal knowledge and experience by categorising experiences into three different tables. In addition, the transcribed interviews were considered interpretive constructions (Kvale, 1996).

The rich interview material was then transcribed and evaluated by a second researcher (corporate professional) not involved in the present study who is familiar with the literature on non-conformity to maintain objectivity and avoid bias with qualitative data analysis.

Qualitative Analysis

Reliability and Validity

The first set of analyses investigated from the 20 transcribed interviews conducted were sufficient in providing a rich insight into our research question. One by one, the first 10 interviews resulted in a wealth of new themes. These themes were enriched and developed through the following interviews, and thematic saturation was reached around the 16th interview, as new themes did not appear after this point. This approach is supported by Kvale (1996), who noted that the number of interviews in current studies is generally around 15 ± 10 .

Thus, transcription conventions that made the interview stay as 'alive' as possible and best conveyed the original interview situation were chosen. Rather than forcing the data into predetermined categories arising from the interview guide, we allowed thematic categories to develop out of the data. Furthermore, participants' terms were used in the written interpretations and meaning condensations. Interpretation was carried out at the level of the informant's self-understanding, and no attempt was made to find abstract meanings in participants' statements.

During the process, we kept detailed field notes of impressions, questions and ideas and met weekly to discuss these ideas and detailed process journal.

During coding, to ensure that the interpretation of the data was reliable, three corporate professionals who have an understanding of the organisational behaviour literature were requested to examine and interpret the data to ensure reliability after discussions with the reviewer were complete, the researcher then conducted a final read of the data to determine that the codes represented were those that were a good fit for the data.

Data Analysis

The recursive analysis process was used by reading through all the transcripts to get a sense of the data as a whole. Codes and themes were developed during subsequent readings of transcripts. As emerging themes were developed, we reread transcripts to ensure that the codes and themes represented the whole of the data. The primary way in which reliability was enhanced was by carefully documenting all procedures.

The data collected were analysed first through an analysis of interview transcripts. During the stages of interview transcription and analysis, clear procedural guidelines were set up and followed for each interview. The interviews provided a sound basis for interpretation, as each interview is transcribed in the form of written communication making it possible to transcribe each interview *verbatim*.

For the qualitative analysis, we used the induction process by 'the systematic examination of similarities within and across cases to develop concepts, ideas, or theories' (Pascale, 2011, p. 53).

Many grounded theorists work with open coding in a process of ‘breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualizing and categorizing data’ (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 61).

Interview transcripts were analysed through the categorisation process proposed by the grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This inductive approach is quite similar to the qualitative content analysis process: emergence of relevant categories, development of a categorisation framework grounded in the data, reorganisation of this framework according to the information obtained, etc. The study by Charmaz (2011) makes clear that grounded theory is inductive at its core and will proceed with analysis by comparing data with data (developing codes), comparing data and codes (developing tentative categories), and developing categories into overarching concepts that are compared with (other) theoretical concepts.

In this study, the author of the article was involved in constructing the interview guide as well as in analysing and interpreting the statements.

At the end of the categorisation process, data from the transcriptions were classified into three specific categories based on the narrative of the story and emotion. The categorisation is presented in the following tables: Positive Emotion (Table 2), Negative Emotion (Table 3), and Neutral Emotion (Table 4). Consolidated codes from the three categories of emotions have been listed in Table 5, derived from the primary data conversion.

The three categories are shown in the flow chart in Figure 1.

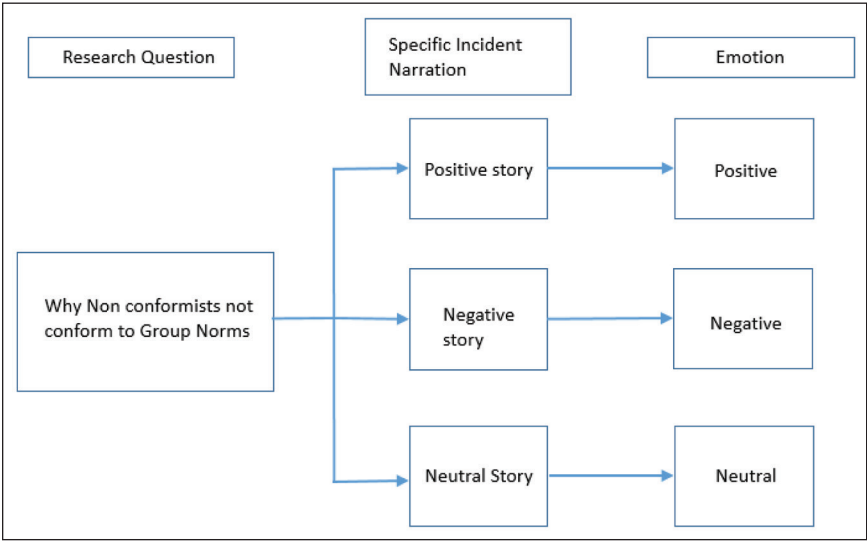


Figure 1. Classification of Nonconformity Story Narrations into Three Different Categories.

Stage 1: Conversion of Interview Material to Themes and Codes

Specific Incident Narrations

Table 2. Positive Emotion.

Interview Reference	Specific Incident Narration	Interpretation (Thematic Code)	Emotion
A6	Greg (name changed) after spending 12 fruitful years at the firm quit after seeing the interests of the client were being side-lined for the interest of the firm's profits and growth. Here, the NCI now conforms due to the moral high ground he's taking as he believes his culture and morals have changed over time and after a point when it starts affecting his pride, it leads to his non-conformance and in this case his resignation.	Moral: holding or manifesting high principles for proper conduct	Positive
A9	Non-conformists have a wide spectrum of reasons ranging from irrational rebels to altruistic behaviour; needless to say, society and the behavioural implications of those around them play a vital role in non-conformity some of the reasons are: (1) Driven by a deep sense of justice	Justice: The quality of being just; righteousness, equitableness, or moral rightness: to uphold the justice of a cause Unique: Being the only one of its kind	Positive
A10	(2) Need to stand out in a crowd to be perceived as unique Even though he would be unemployed in going against the decision of the top management, he believed what was right for the safety of the employees and labour workers on the shaft floor and took the decision rightly which at the end of the day benefits the whole organisation.	Belief: a principle, proposition, idea accepted as true	Positive
A11	A teetotaler who views alcohol consumption as a violation of religious norms shall never conform to drinking even if he is amidst a group of chain smokers and drinkers as he attaches himself with a greater sense of purpose in not doing those.	Great sense of purpose (able to find meaning)	Positive
A12	Self-principle is very important for any person to abide by in the organisation or else it will all be a herd of cows led by one man. We need to speak out of our minds and tell what is going so wrong in there. It takes a lot of courage to stick to what you feel is right and stand for it no matter how many people oppose you for not being part of the group. She believed in her conscience and did not let her values or integrity get compromised. Even though she knew she would be unemployed she believed in what was right and took the decision of leaving the company. The sense of belief in oneself is very important. Being under pressure did not let her give up on her moral beliefs.	Self-principle and courage Moral beliefs	Positive

(Table 2 continued)

(Table 2 continued)

Interview Reference	Specific Incident Narration	Interpretation (Thematic Code)	Emotion
	In my point of view, the non-conformist will not conform to group norms under pressure because I think it is all in their belief to stand for what is right or wrong. They believe in ethics, moral values, integrity, a set of rules that gives them a sense of direction. Asserting their individuality and independence.	Belief in ethics, moral values, integrity, set of rules that give them a sense of direction	Positive
A13	Conforming to certain group norms limits or restricts you in many possible aspects. A non-conformist wants to live a life of his own where he has the liberty to follow his/her dream. He stood for what he believed in and was not ready to change his beliefs just to conform to social beliefs. They believe in knowledge perspective theory and have full faith in their knowledge and its applications.	Individuality and independence Liberty to follow his dreams (independence) Strong belief	Positive Positive Positive
A14	NC people do not believe in being in a herd of sheep and do what their group decides, but raise a voice for truth and belief. Does things differently from the majority of people, not for the sake of being different and special but because they prefer to do so. NC people have priority for their matter, no wonder how different it could be from group norms. They perform better and more creatively, only when they work on their topic, irrespective of its differentiation or specialty in nature. Their performance is enhanced by working on their perception. They comply with the sense-making theory and affirm their decisions till they make sense. Concluding that non-conformist would stick to his/her ideas, as per their perception, even though the whole group has their idea, until and unless he/she believes his point of view to be true and viable. If a person dares to face the consequences by not conforming to the group, whatever happens, he/she will stick to their idea.	Faith in themselves Truth and belief Individual preferences Sense-making	Positive Positive Positive Positive
A16	For non-conformists, conformity seems to be in opposition to creativity, innovation, change and progress. For example, scientists arguably value unconventional thinking. A scientist is expected to come up with new ideas and challenge existing theories. Are they conforming to the dominant practices of their group?	Belief, truth and viable Strong conviction Unconventional thinking to create, innovate and progress	Positive Positive Positive

Table 3. Negative Emotion.

Interview Reference	Specific Incident Narration	Interpretation (Thematic Code)	Emotion
A1	According to me the non-conformity of the guy was a lack of knowledge about the project, an ego to accept the group decisions, overconfidence.	Ego	Negative
A3	It can be due to a bitter experience. Can be because of his perception. He may have thought that this operation system would reduce his profits. Fear factor/fear of failure. He might have feared that this kind of big customer is tough to handle. Change/diversion from the regular process. For him, this kind of costing system is different from his usual system. He may not be able to execute correctly. Trust issues. In this case, if there are any malpractices then it will be a huge loss for the distributor. If proper measures are not taken and no regular checks are done, new problems will arise.	Bitter past experience False perception Fear Resistance to change Mistrust	Negative Negative Negative Negative Negative
A4	Therefore, being a non-conformist (development manager) was dictated by the need to produce results, pressure to deliver, unethical and low moral baseline.	Pressure to deliver (psychological stress)	Negative
A5	I was very disappointed by this incident as I was still on a probation period and was not aware of all the compliance and culture of the bank, and on the other hand I was responsible for bank money and compliance. After this incident, they started ignoring me. I tried a lot to convince them that this is unethical and we all could be in trouble.	Unethical: not morally correct Low-moral people do not follow principles of proper conduct Unethical: not morally correct	Negative Negative Negative
A6	Hence the easiest way to make this presence felt would be to not conform. (Here the individual's cognitive response is CI, but behaviourally non-conforms.) When the individual is biased and hungry for power, as default he non-conforms.	Hungry for power (To make their presence felt by pride and position, they will not conform.)	Negative

(Table 3 continued)

(Table 3 continued)

Interview Reference	Specific Incident Narration	Interpretation (Thematic Code)	Emotion
A8	The IP manager of Airtel manager that was not agreeing with me in the beginning had a valid reasons from his end because he might have felt that: - It was a pressure situation and the project had a fast start.	Pressure to deliver	Negative
	His way of planning was router-wise, mine was BSC-wise, and so was something new for him, which he did not want to experiment with to avoid risks.	Resistance to change	Negative
A8	Non-conformists have a wide spectrum of reasons ranging from irrational rebels to altruistic behaviour; needless to say, society and the behavioural implications of those around them play a vital role in non-conformity. Some of the reasons are: (1) Need to dominate either in a conversation or action (2) Psychological inclination to non-conform due to deep-set trauma or behavioural erraticism	Dominant in conversation or action (sense of superiority) Trauma deeply distressing or disturbing experience.	Negative Negative
A11	Non-conforming to groups under pressure by some people can be because of one of the four reasons. 1. Sense of superiority (Ego). 2. Lack of adaptability. 3. Lacking a sense of fear of intended/unintended consequences or a tendency to face challenges come what may.	Ego Resistance to change Fear	Negative Negative Negative
	4. Improper environmental influences in the childhood. 5. Culture and ethics.	Uncertainty Bitter experience Ethics: Moral principles that govern a person's behaviour or the conducting of an activity	Negative Negative Negative

A15	Of the majority of the non-conformists I have seen to date, most of them either had a turbulent childhood (separated parents, utter poverty) which made them think and be independent from a very young age	Bitter experience	Negative
	People who feel superior to others (physically, monetarily, mentally and spiritually) also do not conform to rules and look down upon the members of other groups. These people when made the leaders of their respective groups often tend to be poor listeners and drive the group through their non-conformist ideas.	Sense of superiority	Negative
	People who tend to spend most of their lives in the same place often lack adaptability and become non-conformists because of their own biases and prejudices.	Resistance to change	Negative
	Culture and ethics also play an important role in making non-conformists not conform to group norms, which they may see as culturally wrong or morally unethical.	Culture and ethics	Negative
	A) Parental pressure.	Childhood pressure influences have an impact on non-conformists	Negative
A16	B) Experience from past: Cheated in walks of life, trust issues, suspicious of everyone and everything. He tends to believe everything around him is a conspiracy against him.	Bitter experience	Negative
	C) Misuse of power/authority/seniority.	Power of position and pride	Negative
	A sense of superiority (ego) mainly comes when a person stays at a company for a long time and has a lot of experience.	Sense of superiority	Negative
	Lack of adaptability when they get exposed to the comfort zone. Lacking a sense of fear of intended/unintended consequences or a tendency to face challenges come what may.	Resistance to change or accept others Fear	Negative Negative
A17	Egoistic and a person with high self-esteem can be a non-conformist. Because they want to be a leader.	Egoistic and high self-esteem	Negative

Table 4. Neutral Emotion.

Interview Reference	Specific Incident Narration	Interpretation (Thematic Code)	Emotion
A2	Everyone gives bribes. Everyone gets things done under the towel. Mr A could have just done the same and kept the job or even gotten a promotion or hike. But for Mr A, it was about his culture and his ethics. It was on whether he would compromise his values for the benefit of the organisation and he found that he could not.	Individual nature and ethics	Neutral
	As per my analysis of various case studies, I have found that one of the biggest reasons for a non-conformist not to conform to a group norm is because his norms do not match with the group norms.	Individual norms	Neutral
A13	For that person, his values of not taking alcohol are more important than consuming it.	Individual values	Neutral
	An arrogant person will not conform to anyone or anything because of his traits	Personality trait	Neutral
	To conclude a non-conform individual may react to a situation depending on his psychological state or his behavioural state.	Psychological state	Neutral
A14	A non-conform person is different because he might value situations in a different manner than others.	Point of view or value	Neutral
	She could have sat quiet, but rather moved against the common decision of their group of sexually abused employees and complained, as it was a matter of truth.	Truth	Neutral

Stage 2: Interpreting the Interview Recordings/Transcribed Interview with Three Corporate Professionals and the Factors Which they Consider the Factors of Non-conformity

In this study, the author requested three corporate professionals with prior work experience who understand the literature of the study to analyse the interview material to interpret the meaning and mention the code.

Overall, 100 codes were received from 3 corporate professionals.

Table 5. Consolidated Qualitative Themes, Tabulated by Emotions (Positive, Negative and Neutral).

Three Different types of Categories (Factors) Evolved from Primary Data Conversion			
	Category A	Category B	Category C
S No.	<i>Positive</i>	<i>Negative</i>	<i>Neutral</i>
1	Own belief system and morals	Lack of knowledge	Culture and ethics
2	Past behaviours	Ego	Individual norms
3	Moral principles	Overconfidence	Perception
4	Independence	Bitter past experiences	Culture and ethics
5	Authentic	False perception	Moral benefits
6	Driven by a deep sense of justice (Quality of being just righteousness, equitableness, justice of care	Fear	Integrity
7	Unique	Resistance to change	Individual values
8	Great sense of purpose	Do not trust	Personality trait
9	Self-principle and courage	Unethical	Psychological state
10	Individuality and independence	Hungry for power	Point of view
11	Liberty to follow their dreams	Pressure to deliver	Individual preferences
12	Faith in themselves	Doubt on others' strength (Do not believe and they will not confirm)	Uncertainty
13	Truth and belief	Sense of superiority	
14	Sense-making	Trauma, a deep disturbing experience	
15	Vision is clear	Physical inclination	
16	Integrity and loyalty	Erratic (Unpredictability in Behaviour)	
17	Unconventional thinking to create, innovate and progress	Illogical and orthodox	
18		Parental pressure	
19		Miss use of authority (Power of position & pride)	
20		Lack of understanding	
21		Egoistic and high self-esteem	

Stage 3: Consolidating the Themes, Codes and Endorsement of Each Factor Developed by Three Corporate Professionals and a Researcher

After receiving the codes, three corporate professionals along with the researcher categorised how many times each factor is considered as the factor for non-conformity.

Table 6 shows the thematic groupings and top 13 endorsed factors of corporate professionals and authors.

Table 6. Top 13 Factors Emerged from Data Analysis.

Top 13 Factors from the Data Analysis			
No.	Factors	Endorsement with Corporate Professionals and Authors	Number of Times Endorsed by Corporate Professionals and Researchers of the Study
1	Own belief system and morals	CP 1 (A 12), CP 2 (A 5), CP 2 (A 6) Researcher 1 (A 6, A 10, A 12, A 13, A 14)	8
2	Bitter past experiences	CP 3 (A 6), CP 2 (A 1), CP 2 (A 12), CP 2 (A 15) Researcher 1 (A 3, A 11, A 15)	7
3	Individual culture and ethics	CP 1 (A 10), CP 3 (A 2), CP 3 (A 6), CP 3 (A 11), Researcher 1 (A 2, A 6, A 11)	7
4	Egoistic and high self-esteem	CP 1 (A 5), CP 3 (A 6), CP 2 (A 2) Researcher 1 A (1,11,17)	6
5	Uncertainty	CP 2 (A 2), Researcher 1 (A 11, A 16, A 17)	4
6	Fear	CP 2 (A 6), Researcher 1 (A 3, A 11, A 16)	4
7	Driven by a deep sense of justice (Quality of being just righteousness, equitableness, justice of care	CP 3 (A 12), CP 3 (A 14), Researcher 1 (A 9)	3
8	Uniqueness	CP 1 (A 11), CP 3 (A 17), Researcher 1 (A 9)	3
9	Perception	CP 2 (A 4), Researcher 1 (A 3)	2
10	Ethics and morals	CP 3 (A 6), CP 2 (A 13)	2
11	Individual personality	CP 2 (A 9), CP 2 (A 11)	2
12	Sense of superiority	CP 2 (A 7), CP 2 (A 14)	2
13	Unconventional thinking to create, innovate and progress	CP 2 (A 2), Researcher 1 (A 16)	2

Notes: CP: Corporate Professional (CP 1, CP 2, CP 3); A: Interview reference; Researcher: Author of the study.

Findings

Based on thorough qualitative inquiry using a grounded theory approach, this study found that three categories emerged from the data based on the experiences of the individual not to conform to group norms. The three categories are classified

based on the emotions these individuals experienced when they encountered pressure to conform in the organisational context. The classification is based on positive, negative and neutral emotions (Tables 2–4). As discussed in the tables, first, the underlying motivation not to conform to group norms when individuals experience positive emotion is based on their belief system and moral principles; these individuals are driven by a deep sense of justice and a great sense of purpose and their unconventional thinking to create, innovate and progress propels them not to conform to group norms. These individuals have strong faith in themselves and dare to challenge the status quo and drive for positive change.

Second, when individuals experience negative emotions, they are less likely to conform to group groups. Data revealed that when individuals go through bitter past experiences they are hooked on their own emotions and hold false perceptions about the group practices and they are less likely to conform to group norms. These individuals do not trust and because of their egoistic nature and their lack of empathy to understand, these characteristics make these individuals less likely to conform to group norms.

Third, when individuals experience neutral emotions (neither positive nor negative), they may be less likely to conform because of the influence of culture and ethical practices one follows; these certainly can influence the way an individual thinks and acts and may lead to non-conformity with the group norms.

Finally, the researcher along with three corporate professionals analysed the data and marked the codes based on the analysis, and after analysis 13 key factors have been ranked based on their repeated mention of the reason for non-conformity. Among several factors why individuals do not conform to group norms presented in Tables 2–4, factors presented in Table 6 are the key factors that lead to non-conformity.

These findings will hopefully aid in future theory building and development of non-conformity, non-conformists and organisation transformation.

Practical Implications

In organisations, decision-making at the individual level/group level is important to achieve a goal. Few individuals conform and few others do not. In a few instances, the non-conformist viewpoint is abandoned and considered of the least importance; however, individuals who raise voice are turned to bring about constructive change in the organisation (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). On the one hand, it is important for human resource managers, Supervisor/Group members, to conduct regular organisational culture and climate audits to understand employees' perceptions of socially acceptable behaviours.

Analysing their viewpoints and underlying reasons for non-conformity can help the organisation at a group level. If the underlying factor for non-conformity is due to unconventional thinking and desire to grow and innovate, a Sense of purpose for the greater good, and holding moral values/Ethical values which play vital role for the positive organisational change.

This in turn helps for the growth of the Individual and positively contributes to the group. Organisations will also benefit from increasing their innovation levels.

Innovation is mainly driven by non-conformists, who defy the existing practices and Norms, envision a different solution from the status quo and successfully implement a new solution despite all the resistance from existing vested interests in the organisation. This article helps novice leaders understand their own and others' motivations for non-conformance and the factors influencing their behaviours. This provides a useful approach to dealing with non-conformist individuals to achieve desirable results in the organisation. This article is also relevant for entrepreneurs as well as social and political leaders. This article categorises, integrates, and extends our knowledge about non-conformists. This is useful for future researchers and practitioners to identify knowledge gaps and address organisational transformational challenges.

Conclusion

Non-conformity is important because it can profoundly impact the organisation and its members. Although numerous research studies have investigated the impact of non-conformity on groups and organisations, the underlying factors that lead to non-conformity are unclear. In particular, this article identifies certain underlying factors for non-conformity to bring about a positive change in organisations, for example, factors such as good intentions to create, to innovate, a sense of purpose for the greater good, appreciation of individual uniqueness and considering moral and ethical values. Second, non-conformity can also occur because of the sense of superiority, ego and false beliefs, which would then have negative effects on the growth of the organisation. This study provides factors leading to non-conformity in organisations by identifying new lines of inquiry and providing important managerial insights into effectively managing workplace norms, a highly important and relevant topic for organisations today. Hope this article will help inspire more valuable and critical research to better understand how non-conformity impacts in different organisational contexts and how organisations respond to non-conformity to foster a better workplace with more effective people and performance.

Future Recommendations

Future studies can consider how the above-mentioned 13 individual variables affect non-conformity at various instances at the organisational level and its impact at a group and individual level. Future work should examine how these factors impact various industries. Future research could enhance the article's scope by better understanding non-conformity factors in a different context. Finally, future works investigating these paths will deepen our understanding of non-conformity, and would also open new research avenues.

Limitations

The qualitative research relies on the interpretation of researcher, which introduces subjectivity and the potential for bias. While efforts have been made to mitigate

subjectivity bias, it is possible that some level of subjectivity bias remains in the study.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The author declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

Funding

The author received no financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

Appendix A

Interview Protocol, Follow-up Session

The following questions were posed to the interviewee:

- Question 1.** ‘Your perception/opinion’, general, nonintrusive, questions such as: ‘In your own words, how would you describe non-conformist individuals?’
- Question 2.** ‘Specific incident from an organisational point of view about non-conformist individual not conforming to group norms.’
- Question 3.** What are the factors that influence non-conformists not to conform to group norms?

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- The journal does not consider a paper that has been published elsewhere or that is under submission to another publisher. Authors must attest to this at the time of submission. It is also the author's responsibility to disclose any potential conflict of interest regarding their submitted papers.
- Authors will be provided with a copyright form once the contribution is accepted for publication. The submission will be considered as final only after the filled-in and signed copyright form is received.

Basic formatting of the manuscripts

- Empirical research should be approximately 8000–9000 words without tables, figures and references. Conceptual paper should be 6000 words approximately. Book review should be approximately 2000 words. For more detail on the different article types and the number of words allowed, please see the submission guidelines on the journal website. All research papers must be accompanied by an abstract of upto 200 words and 6–8 keywords. Full institutional affiliation and email addresses of the authors must be provided in all the papers. In case there are more than two authors, then the corresponding author's postal address details as well as email should be clearly mentioned in the article.

Spelling and numerical usages

- British spellings be used throughout; universal 's' in '-ise' and '-isation' words.
- Spell out numbers from one to nine, 10 and above to remain in figures. However, for exact measurements use only figures (e.g. 3 km, 9%). Please use 'thirteenth' instead of '13th century'; use '1960s' instead of 'nineteen sixties'.

Quotations, notes, tables and figures

- Use single quotes throughout. Double quotes only used within single quotes. Spellings of words in quotations should not be changed.
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- Tables and figures must be cited in the text, and indicated by number separately (Table 1), not by placement (see Table below). Source details for figures and tables should be mentioned irrespective of whether or not they require permissions.
- All photographs and scanned images should have a resolution of minimum 300 dpi and 1500 pixels, and their format should be TIFF or JPEG. Due permissions should be taken for copyright-protected photographs/images.

References and their text citations:

- References and their citations should be given in accordance with APA 7th edition.
- Please ensure that all references mentioned in the reference list are cited in the text and vice versa.

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