

The Cost of Cost Reduction: An Integrative Review of Blended Workgroups

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ABSTRACT

Blended workgroups, comprising both standard and nonstandard employees, are increasingly used by organisations to reduce costs, however, evidence on their effectiveness has been mixed. This integrative review analyses 96 relevant empirical studies, and organises the findings along three themes: impacts at individual and organisational levels, theoretical perspectives explaining the mechanisms of workgroup dynamics, and contingency factors influencing benefits and costs. Our findings offer four key insights: the importance of composition, the need for a multi-perspective approach, the development of targeted management practices, and the significance of career lifecycle management, all of which have important managerial implications. We suggest five avenues for future research: integrating theoretical perspectives, addressing employee psychological well-being, considering contextual factors, examining temporal changes, and analysing the impact of gender dynamics.

Keywords: standard employee, nonstandard employee, blended workgroup, costs versus benefits, organisational effectiveness, review.

1. Introduction

In the late 20th century, firms began shifting from traditional employer-employee relationships to nonstandard work arrangements (Ashford et al., 2007; Cappelli, 1999; Cropanzano et al., 2023), leading to the emergence of blended workgroups. These workgroups combine various types of employees, such as part-time, full-time, temporary, permanent, or contract workers (Thompson & Mastracci, 2008).

Blended workgroups offer benefits like reduced labour costs and increased flexibility (Cappelli & Keller, 2013; De Cuyper et al., 2008; Spreitzer et al., 2017). However, they also raise concerns about potential hidden costs arising from differences in work arrangements, identities, and treatment among employee groups (Chattopadhyay & George, 2001; Eldor & Cappelli, 2021).

Over the past three decades, the adoption of blended workgroups within organisations has become an intriguing trend, capturing the attention of scholars and practitioners alike. This phenomenon has sparked a heated debate among researchers. Two camps of scholars hold contradictory views on the impact of blended workgroups on organisational performance and employee outcomes. On one hand, some scholars assert that adopting blended workgroups can improve a company's financial performance under certain circumstances (Gilley & Rasheed, 2000; Roca-Puig et al., 2012). For instance, temporary employees motivated by the prospect of obtaining permanent status may exhibit more extra-role behaviours (George et al., 2010; Moorman & Harland, 2002). Conversely, a greater number of studies indicate that utilising blended workgroups within organisations may lead to poor labour productivity (Zeytinoglu et al., 2017) and organisational performance (Sarina & Wright, 2015), and increased overall production costs (Rodríguez-Gutiérrez, 2007). Moreover, nonstandard employees may have lower levels of organisational attachment (Biggs & Swailes, 2006; Jung et al., 2018) and exhibit poorer in-role and

extra-role performance (Chambel & Castanheira, 2007; Chiu et al., 2015). Furthermore, the introduction of nonstandard employees within a workgroup can also create stress and burdens for standard employees (Banerjee et al., 2012; Bonet et al., 2022; Chattopadhyay & George, 2001).

Despite the existing research on blended workgroups, the lack of consensus and comprehensive analysis highlights significant gaps that need to be addressed. Previous literature reviews have explored various aspects of nonstandard work arrangements, such as the opportunities and challenges of research on nonstandard employment (Ashford et al., 2007), the psychological impact of temporary employment (De Cuyper et al., 2008), the influence of independent contractors on organisational effectiveness (Flinchbaugh et al., 2020), and the link between temporary agency work, job satisfaction, and mental health (Hünefeld et al., 2020; Virtanen et al., 2005). While these reviews have provided valuable insights into various aspects of nonstandard work arrangements, they have not sufficiently addressed the unique dynamics and challenges that arise when diverse types of nonstandard workers are integrated with standard employees in a blended workgroup. The absence of a comprehensive review synthesising research on blended workgroups across different nonstandard worker types has led to a fragmented body of knowledge.

This integrative literature review aims to address the gaps in existing research by thoroughly examining the effectiveness of blended workgroups. The study synthesises empirical evidence on the impacts of these diverse work arrangements at both individual and organizational levels, exploring work attitudes, behaviors, and performance outcomes. Moreover, through an exploration of various theoretical perspectives, the review seeks to clarify the dynamic nature of blended workgroups and identify key

contingency factors that influence their success or failure. The study further provides practical insights for management and proposes a research agenda to address current knowledge gaps.

The contribution of this review is threefold. First, we synthesise the mixed findings regarding the effectiveness of blended workgroups, highlighting the potential for cost savings and the introduction of valuable external resources, as well as the possible negative impacts on employee attitudes, behaviours, and overall organisational performance. Second, we identify the main theoretical perspectives and key factors used to explain the complex interplay of factors influencing the effectiveness of blended workgroups. Finally, we propose four key insights to guide practice in blended workgroups, and outline five avenues for future research to address current gaps and advance our understanding of the complex dynamics and outcomes associated with blended workgroups.

2. Defining blended workgroups

A blended workgroup is a group composed of a mixture of different organisational membership forms, often characterised by the presence of both permanent and temporary members (Chattopadhyay & George, 2001; Davis-Blake et al., 2003; George et al., 2012). It typically involves the collaborative participation of standard and nonstandard employees to achieve a specific objective (Clinton et al., 2021; MacDuffie, 2007). There are notable distinctions between standard and nonstandard employment, which determine the efficacy of the blending approach. In standard work arrangements, employees are generally hired on a long-term basis and required to adhere to a fixed schedule, typically amounting to 40 hours of work per week (Broschak et al., 2008; Chadwick & Flinchbaugh, 2016; Kalleberg, 2000). They are subject to the direct control and supervision of the organisation (Kalleberg et al., 2000), and benefits and remuneration are assured (George et al., 2012) as they primarily fulfil core roles within the

workgroup (Cappelli & Neumark, 2004). Conversely, in nonstandard work employment, the duration and administrative control are comparatively limited under short-term contracts (Ashford et al., 2007). Despite working on a part-time or flexible schedule (some temporary workers follow the same fixed schedule as standard workers), insurance and benefits are rarely provided by the organisation (van Eck et al., 2023) as they usually perform peripheral roles within the workgroup (with the exception of some outsourced workers undertaking core roles, e.g., external experts) (Vahle-Hinz, 2016).

The nuanced characteristics concerning the four distinct categorical features provide a suitable framework for literature coding. Specifically, a) contract terms reflect how employees enter into agreements with the responsible organisation, which simultaneously determine the extent of oversight; b) work modes indicate the duration and schedule of employment; c) work conditions demonstrate how employees are treated in terms of benefits and remuneration packages; and d) work divisions illustrate how and what tasks are assigned to different types of workers. Under these four distinct categorical features, employees within a blended workgroup can be further subdivided into pairs of staff portfolios (permanent vs temporal, full-time vs. part-time, regular vs contingent, internal vs outsourced). Consequently, based on the different emphases and attributes between standard and nonstandard employment within the blended workgroup, the literature can be coded according to these four categories. Overall, the composition of different types of employees under both standard and nonstandard arrangements can be considered a blended workgroup (see Figure 1).

< insert Figure 1 here >

3. Review methodology

3.1 Search strategy

We searched for English-language academic articles using Web of Science (WoS), Scopus, and ProQuest databases. Since the presence of certain nonstandard employees, such as temporary and part-time workers, is a prerequisite for blended workgroups, our literature search included topics related not only to the term “blended workgroup” but also to the terms “nonstandard employee”, “temporary worker”, and “employment externalisation”. A comprehensive overview of these terms is presented in Appendix 1.

To refine our search and focus on more relevant literature, we concentrated on journals classified in the Journal Citation Reports (JCR) in the fields of management, applied psychology, and industrial relations. We identified a total of 102 Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) journals for use in the literature search (see Appendix 2 for the journal list). As of 31 July 2023, our search yielded 855 articles from WoS, 65 from Scopus, and 1,061 from ProQuest. However, due to potential discrepancies in the search logic of different databases, 16 articles from Scopus and 507 from ProQuest did not meet the aforementioned journal selection criteria and were therefore omitted from the subsequent literature screening and analysis.

After removing 236 duplicates, 1,222 articles proceeded to the next screening stage. These studies encompassed various disciplines, such as organisational behaviour, human resource management (HRM), applied psychology, law, sociology, economics, and organisational strategies. The sample sources were geographically diverse, consisting of workers from North America, Europe, Asia, and Australia. Furthermore, these studies utilised a broad array of methodologies, including surveys, secondary data analysis, case studies, and field investigations.

3.2 Selection criteria

To be included in this review, studies must meet all of the following criteria simultaneously. Firstly (criterion 1), the study must investigate blended workgroups within a research context where standard and nonstandard employees coexist, emphasising the differences or interactions among the various categories of employees. Secondly (criterion 2), the study must focus on the impact of blended workgroups on organisational effectiveness. This includes not only the intrinsic characteristics of these groups, such as the effects of group heterogeneity and the ratio of nonstandard employees, but also the shifts in organisational effectiveness arising from the dynamics among employees with varying contractual or identity statuses. We posit that these factors collectively represent the multifaceted influence of blended workgroups on organisational effectiveness.

Drawing on the research of Hartnell et al. (2011), we employ four major indices of organisational effectiveness: standard and nonstandard employee attitudes, behaviours, operational performance, and financial performance. In this context, “organisations” specifically refers to companies that adopt blended workgroups. Thirdly (criterion 3), focusing on the effectiveness of blended workgroups, we exclude studies that solely examine the antecedents of utilising blended workgroups or the individual factors of choosing nonstandard work. Finally (criterion 4), conceptual and review articles are excluded from our analysis. The application of these stringent selection criteria guarantees that the studies incorporated in this review are closely aligned with our research objective. Furthermore, these studies offer a thorough and multifaceted insight into the influence of blended workgroups on the effectiveness of organisations.

3.3 Data coding and analysis

The initial search yielded 1,222 articles, which were first screened based on their titles and abstracts. Applying four predefined selection criteria, we identified 246 articles that potentially addressed the topic

of blended workgroups. These articles were then subjected to a more thorough screening by two authors, resulting in a final set of 96 articles that met all four criteria (see Figure 2 for the screening process flowchart). Two members of the author team carefully read and coded each of the 96 articles, extracting relevant information into a Microsoft Excel file. The coded variables included: author, publication year, journal title, study sample, study context, theoretical perspective, research method, variables utilised (outcomes, mediators, moderators), and empirical findings. Through iterative analysis and detailed discussions among members of the author team, the codes were further refined and categorised to ensure consistency and clarity in the data extraction process.

< insert Figure 2 here >

Based on the major indices of blended workgroup effectiveness mentioned above, we classified the 96 articles into four themes: standard employee attitudes and behaviours (19 articles), nonstandard employee attitudes and behaviours (61 articles), operational outcomes (7 articles), and financial outcomes (19 articles). We further synthesised the last two themes as organisational performance in the presentation of our findings. Table 1 presents our coding of the 96 articles, which include the contextual information (e.g., country and industry) for each study. Following this, we outline our model based on these findings (see Figure 3), which depicts the mechanisms of relevant mediators, outcomes, and moderators. We then discuss the implications of these findings.

< insert Table 1 here >

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4 Findings

We organise our findings along three main themes. First, we present a synthesis of the empirical evidence on the impacts of blended workgroups at both the individual and organisational levels. Next, we explore the theoretical perspectives that help explain the dynamic nature of these workgroups. Finally, we examine the contingency factors that determine whether the benefits or costs of blended workgroups are more likely to occur.

4.1 The impact of blended workgroups

Our review reveals evidence of blended workgroups' costs and benefits at individual and organisational levels in terms of work attitudes, behaviours, and performance.

4.1.1 Impact on standard employees

Attitudes towards the organisation and coworkers. The preponderance of evidence suggests that the presence of nonstandard employees within blended workgroups can exert an adverse influence on standard employees. Numerous studies have demonstrated that the inclusion of external co-workers has the potential to undermine the psychological bonds between the internal workforce and the organisation, resulting in a reduction in affective commitment, a reduction in workgroup identification, and a decrease in organisation-based self-esteem among standard workers (Barnett & Miner, 1992; Chattopadhyay & George, 2001; George, 2003; George et al., 2012; Pearce, 1993). Moreover, the inclusion of contingent workers within the workforce may weaken the allegiance of standard employees to the organisation (Banerjee et al., 2012; Davis-Blake et al., 2003).

Job Attitudes. The presence of contingent employees in a team can reduce the job security perceptions of standard employees, leading to lower job satisfaction (Banerjee et al., 2012). Furthermore, the increased responsibilities and reduced job security and opportunities resulting from workforce

blending can increase the likelihood of departure among standard employees (Bonet et al., 2022; Broschak & Davis-Blake, 2006; Davis-Blake et al., 2003; Kwon & van Jaarsveld, 2013).

In-role, extra-role, and deviant behaviours. The introduction of nonstandard employees can lead to emotional exhaustion and greater absenteeism among standard employees (O’Brady et al., 2023). Standard employees may also perform fewer in-role behaviours, such as deskilling (Håkansson & Isidorsson, 2012). Additionally, the perceived competitive threat can decrease standard employees’ extra-role behaviours, such as organisational citizenship behaviour, cooperation, helping behaviour, altruism, and orientation towards innovation (Broschak, 2006; Chattopadhyay & George, 2001; George et al., 2012; Pearce, 1993; Ruis-Moreno et al., 2012; Teresa Ortega-Egea et al., 2014).

4.1.2 *Impact on nonstandard employees*

Attitudes towards the organisation and coworkers. The reviewed research presents divergent findings regarding the attitudes and behaviours of nonstandard employees. Some studies suggest that nonstandard employees have a weaker relationship foundation with their supervisors and organisations, exhibiting lower levels of organisational commitment, trust, and self-esteem (Biggs & Swailes, 2006; Chattopadhyay & George, 2001; De Cuyper et al., 2008; Forde & Slater, 2006; Jung et al., 2018; Sarina & Wright, 2015; Svensson, 2012). However, other studies provide evidence to the contrary, suggesting that nonstandard employees may exhibit higher levels of organisational commitment under certain circumstances (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2007; De Cuyper et al., 2009).

Job attitudes. Research has shown that nonstandard employees, particularly those with long-term employment in the same work setting as permanent workers, are likely to exhibit poorer job satisfaction due to differential treatment (De Cuyper et al., 2008; de Jong et al., 2009; Forde & Slater, 2006; Goni-

Legaz & Ollo-Lopez, 2017; Park & Kang, 2017; Wickramasinghe & Chandrasekara, 2011). Temporary workers have also been found to report higher intentions to leave compared to permanent workers (Broschak & Davis-Blake, 2006; de Jong et al., 2009; Mauno et al., 2015). However, some studies have demonstrated that nonstandard employees are more likely to obtain job satisfaction and may even possess higher perceived employability than standard employees (Aletraris, 2010; De Cuyper & De Witte, 2007, 2010; De Cuyper et al., 2009; Flickinger et al., 2016; van den Tooren & de Jong, 2014; Wooden & Warren, 2004).

In-role, extra-role, and deviant behaviours. Nonstandard employment attributes may lead to poorer in-role behaviours, such as less work role involvement and worse work performance (Wickramasinghe & Chandrasekara, 2011; Wittmer & Martin, 2011). Nonstandard employees also tend to engage in fewer positive extra-role behaviours, such as organisational citizenship, customer-oriented service behaviours, innovative behaviours, and promotive voice behaviours (Broschak & Davis-Blake, 2006; Chiu et al., 2015; Johnson & Ashforth, 2008; Linn Van & Ang, 1998; Qian et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2023). Additionally, nonstandard employees have been found to exhibit higher levels of work alienation and deviant behaviours, such as counterproductive work behaviours (Liu et al., 2021; Lu et al., 2023; Rogers, 1995; Striler et al., 2021). However, some studies have provided evidence that nonstandard employees may exhibit better performance and higher resilience against an insecure work environment, making them less likely to engage in counterproductive work behaviours (De Cuyper et al., 2014; De Cuyper & De Witte, 2007; Ma et al., 2019).

4.1.3 *Impact on organisational performance*

Several studies have highlighted the potential drawbacks of relying heavily on these types of workers. Firstly, research has shown that a higher proportion of temporary staff is associated with reduced price-cost gap and technical efficiency (María Angeles & Sánchez, 2004; Rodríguez-Gutiérrez, 2007). This suggests that the use of temporary workers may hinder an organisation's ability to maximise its profit margins and optimise its production processes. Furthermore, the employment of part-time or temporary workers has been linked to lower productivity and profitability (Rodríguez-Gutiérrez, 2007; Zeytinoglu et al., 2017), as well as increased production costs (Rodríguez-Gutiérrez, 2007). These findings indicate that nonstandard employees may have a detrimental effect on the overall efficiency and output of an organisation.

In addition to the direct impact on productivity and profitability, the use of agency temporary staff can also have indirect consequences for organisational performance. Eldor and Cappelli (2021) suggest that the presence of temporary workers may erode the sense of identification and commitment among the regular workforce, potentially leading to a decline in service quality and sales.

However, the relationship between the intensity of using nonstandard workers and organisational performance is not entirely straightforward. Nielen and Schiersch (2014) found evidence of an inverse U-shaped relationship, indicating that the impact on firm competitiveness may vary depending on the proportion of temporary workers employed. Similarly, Chadwick and Flinchbaugh (2016) observed a nonlinear, inverted U-shaped relationship between the use of part-time workers and financial performance. Specifically, a small proportion of part-time workers can bring to an organisation (Feldman & Doeringhaus, 1992). However, as the number of part-time workers increases, interactions with standard workers can lead to conflicts, equity comparisons, and social categorisation (Broschak & Davis-

Blake, 2006; De Cuyper et al., 2008). These dynamics can have a negative impact on the motivation and productivity of both groups, ultimately affecting the organisation's performance (Chadwick & Flinchbaugh, 2016; George et al., 2012).

4.2 Theoretical perspectives on the dynamics of blended workgroups

Blending standard and nonstandard employees within a single workgroup can lead to various challenges and potential drawbacks that may ultimately hinder organisational performance. This section explores the theoretical perspectives to understand the mechanisms behind the costs and benefits of implementing blended workgroups.

4.2.1 Theories explaining the costs and challenges

Several theoretical perspectives from social psychology, organisational behaviour, and human resource management literature have been adopted to uncover the costs of implementing blended workgroups, which involve concepts such as social identity, intergroup conflict, social exchange, resource-based perspectives, stress theories, shedding light on intricate mechanisms behind blended workgroup effectiveness.

Social identity and self-categorisation theories. The natural identity differences between standard and nonstandard employees suggest that they belong to distinct social groups (Papinot, 2009), which may result in costs for organisations. Social identity theory and self-categorisation theory are commonly used to explain the cost effects of blended workgroups. The presence of nonstandard employees within a team can challenge the workplace identification of standard employees (Eldor & Cappelli, 2021; George et al., 2012; Johnson & Ashforth, 2008). On the other hand, nonstandard employees in blended

workgroups may experience a perceived lack of fairness (Clinton et al., 2021) and reduced social networks (Wilkin et al., 2018), which can negatively impact their work performance.

Intergroup conflict theories. Intergroup conflict is considered another crucial factor contributing to the costs of adopting blended workgroups. Theoretical perspectives such as realistic group conflict theory (von Hippel & Kalokerinos, 2012), partial exclusion theory (Chiu et al., 2015; Kwon & van Jaarsveld, 2013; Wittmer & Martin, 2011), minority-majority relation theory (Broschak & Davis-Blake, 2006), relative deprivation theory (Wang et al., 2023), and social comparison theory (Pearce, 1993) have been used to explain the tense relationships among employees in blended workgroups. These factors pose a high risk of triggering disruptive work attitudes and behaviours within a blended workgroup.

Social exchange and psychological contract theories. Social exchange theory and psychological contract theory are essential for explaining the cost effects of blended workgroups by revealing the process of invisible contract breach. An organisation's decision to employ a large proportion of nonstandard employees may undermine both types of employees' perceptions of the reciprocal exchange relationship with their organisations (Chadwick & Flinchbaugh, 2016; Way et al., 2010), potentially leading to a breach of the psychological contract (Jung et al., 2018; Kraimer et al., 2005) and resulting in reduced perceived organisational inducements (George et al., 2016). Consequently, the breakdown of social exchange relationships may reduce their autonomous efforts, diminish workgroup effectiveness, and ultimately impact firm performance.

Resource-based perspectives. Several studies have also discussed the cost mechanisms of adopting blended workgroups from a resource-based perspective, such as the theory of resources and capacities (Ruis-Moreno et al., 2012; Teresa Ortega-Egea et al., 2014), resource-based view (Gilley & Rasheed,

2000; Grimpe & Kaiser, 2010), and human capital theory (Roca-Puig et al., 2012; Rodríguez-Gutiérrez, 2007). A blended workforce, as a cost-reducing tool, may not be conducive to the acquisition and flow of knowledge, and to some extent, it diminishes the organisational human capital advantage, making it difficult to bring sustainable competitive advantages to the organisation.

Stress theories and job demands-resources model. Stress theories, such as the cognitive theory of stress and the conservation of resources theory, propose that nonstandard employees may exhibit more deviant behaviours due to maladaptively coping with identity strain (Lu et al., 2023; Mauno et al., 2015; Striler et al., 2021). O’Brady et al. (2023) drew from the job demands-resources model and suggested that low job quality accomplished by nonstandard employees can increase job demands among standard employees within a blended workgroup, which gives rise to dissatisfaction, burnout, and absenteeism on both sides.

Other theoretical frameworks. A limited number of studies have been conducted based on various other theoretical frameworks, such as cognitive processing theory (Qian et al., 2020), the unfolding model of turnover (Bonet et al., 2022), situational leadership theory (Svensson et al., 2015), dual labour market theory, strategic HRM theory (Liu et al., 2021; Park & Kang, 2017), the attraction-selection-attrition hypothesis (Llorens-Montes et al., 2013), and strategic choice theory (Zeytinoglu et al., 2017). These diverse theoretical perspectives contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the multifaceted cost mechanisms associated with blended workgroup effectiveness.

4.2.2 *Theories explaining the benefits and opportunities*

Several theoretical frameworks help explain the dynamics and advantages of these diverse work arrangements, including psychological contract theory, work stress theory, the expectancy-value model, and social identity theory.

Psychological contract theory. Psychological contract theory is a concept that relates to the unwritten expectations and obligations that employees and employers have towards each other. In blended workgroups, nonstandard employees, such as temporary workers, may have different expectations and requirements compared to standard employees (Flickinger et al., 2016). Temporary employees tend to have transactional psychological contracts, focusing on short-term, specific, and monetisable aspects of the employment relationship, while permanent employees often have more relational psychological contracts (Flickinger et al., 2016). Nonstandard employees are more likely to achieve psychological contract fulfilment (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2007; van den Tooren & de Jong, 2014), leading to reduced job insecurity (De Cuyper et al., 2009; Ma et al., 2019) and better performance. When organisations implement outcome-oriented strategies in their HRM practices, nonstandard employees are more likely to be motivated rather than offended (Schmidt et al., 2018).

Work stress theory and the expectancy-value model. Work stress theory focuses on the causes and consequences of work-related stress. In blended workgroups, nonstandard employees may experience lower levels of stress compared to standard employees, contributing to their job satisfaction and motivation (Aletraris, 2010). Stress may not always negatively impact temporary employees; instead, it can motivate them to work harder to secure permanent employment (De Cuyper et al., 2014). Moreover, temporary employees are less likely to perceive job insecurity as unpredictable and uncontrollable (De Cuyper et al., 2009), which can help alleviate job dissatisfaction.

The expectancy-value model, which suggests that an individual's behaviour is a function of their expectations about the outcomes of their behaviour and the value they place on those outcomes, explains why nonstandard employees are more likely to use impression management strategies to secure better job opportunities (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2010). According to this model, the motivation for impression management is determined by goal relevance, goal value, and the discrepancy between current and desired images. For temporary workers, securing a permanent job offer is highly relevant to their goals, holds significant value, and aligns with their desired self-image. Consequently, they are more motivated to engage in impression management strategies compared to permanent workers.

Social identity theory. Social identity theory proposes that an individual's sense of self is based on their membership in social groups. In blended workgroups, this theory helps explain how shared project identity among external and internal employees can lead to similar knowledge sharing behaviours (Nesheim & Smith, 2015). This finding emphasises the importance of fostering a shared identity within the workgroup to promote collaboration and knowledge sharing, regardless of an employee's employment status.

4.3 Contingency factors

The literature reveals several contingency factors at the individual, job, and organisational levels that can moderate the impact of blended workgroups consisting of both standard and nonstandard employees. These contingencies determine when and under what conditions blended arrangements are most effective.

4.3.1 Individual-level contingencies

Demographic characteristics represent key individual contingencies influencing experiences in blended groups. For example, research indicates gender differences, with women reporting higher levels of satisfaction with temporary employment compared to men (Aletraris, 2010). This suggests gender may shape how different employee categories perceive and respond to blended arrangements. Prior work experiences, for example having a history of nonstandard work or layoffs, also act as contingencies that reduce job insecurity and foster better in-role performance when encountering mixed workgroups (Clinton et al., 2011; Torke & Schyns, 2007). As nonstandard workers gain greater tenure within an organisation, the development of affective-based trust grows over time, representing another temporal contingency (Qin et al., 2023).

More importantly, the underlying motives behind pursuing nonstandard employment, whether voluntary or involuntary, emerge as powerful contingency factors. Standard employees tend to view voluntary temporary staff much more positively and are subsequently more willing to cooperate and help those who have chosen such arrangements (von Hippel & Kalokerinos, 2012). In contrast, they may be more resistant to those forced into nonstandard roles involuntarily. On the nonstandard side, those with stepping-stone motives of using the role as a career pathway exhibit reduced negative reactions to perceived injustice (de Jong & Schalk, 2010) and a greater propensity to voluntarily engage in extra-role behaviours that benefit the organisation (George et al., 2010; Moorman & Harland, 2002). These differing motives fundamentally shape attitudes and behaviours within blended groups.

4.3.2 Job-level contingencies

The nature of job designs represents a central contingency factor at this level. Several studies highlight that minimising interdependence between standard and nonstandard employees' roles, or even

physically segregating them, can mitigate potential in-group tensions and relational conflicts inherent in blended arrangements (Broschak & Davis-Blake, 2006). However, other research counters that decreasing homogeneity and similarity in the tasks and duties between different employee types can actually enhance fairness perceptions and foster more altruistic, cooperative behaviours along with better overall group performance (Clinton et al., 2021). Providing greater autonomy and resources, while limiting excessive demands, for nonstandard workers can serve as an effective buffer against the negative effects often associated with contingent work arrangements (Vahle-Hinz, 2016).

4.3.3 *Organisational-level contingencies*

At the organisational level, boundaries around mobility and career progression represent critical contingency factors. If high-performing nonstandard employees are indiscriminately promoted into standard roles without proper interventions, research warns it can severely deteriorate relationships and cohesion in blended groups (Barnett & Miner, 1992; Broschak & Davis-Blake, 2006). To address this contingency, scholars propose practices like eliminating direct job competition between employee types (Wilkin et al., 2018), balancing upward mobility opportunities (George et al., 2012), and critically, implementing informal social integration initiatives to facilitate positive interactions across different employee categories (Eldor & Cappelli, 2021).

Moreover, the overarching organisational philosophy and approach to human resource management represents a key contingency shaping blended group effectiveness. For standard employees, studies indicate high-involvement HR systems that empower individuals and foster investment in human capital tend to create more positive experiences in mixed arrangements compared to performance-focused or labour cost reduction strategies (Kwon & van Jaarsveld, 2013). Conversely, for nonstandard workers,

providing targeted social support via developmental HR practices (Buch et al., 2010; Koene & van Riemsdijk, 2005; Kuvaas et al., 2013; Slattery et al., 2008; Smith et al., 2022), training (Chambel & Castanheira, 2012; Chambel et al., 2015; Scheel et al., 2014; Song et al., 2013), flexibility policies (Chen et al., 2019) and opportunities for permanent employment (Battisti & Vallanti, 2013; Boswell et al., 2012) can facilitate their integration, commitment and performance in blended settings.

Finally, the research identifies overarching boundary conditions influencing if and when blended group arrangements actually contribute positively to firm performance outcomes. These include the levels of external versus internal labour flexibility already present (Roca-Puig et al., 2008), with external flexibility from contingent workers mainly enhancing performance in contexts of low internal flexibility. Environmental dynamism and volatility also act as contingencies, with blended groups more beneficial in turbulent contexts (Gilley & Rasheed, 2000). In addition, firm size and the extent to which nonstandard employees are utilised represent contingency factors, as smaller firms leveraging high levels of temporary workers may see diminished returns on human capital compared to larger firms making more judicious use of contingent labour (Roca-Puig et al., 2012). High turnover of nonstandard employees can harm performance, yet the mobility of highly experienced nonstandard workers may paradoxically benefit organisations (De Stefano et al., 2018).

5 Discussion

Our integrative review offers several key insights for management and suggests a research agenda to guide future studies in this field. To begin with, we discuss four insights that can inform practice in blended workgroups. We then outline five directions for future research aimed at filling gaps in the literature and advancing our knowledge.

5.1 Key insights from our literature review

Based on our findings, we propose four key insights into these increasingly prevalent work arrangements. They encompass the importance of workgroup composition, the need for a multi-perspective approach, the development of targeted management practices, and the significance of career lifecycle management. These insights offer important managerial implications.

First, our review highlights the importance of considering both the mixed composition of standard and nonstandard employees within teams and the increasing proportion of temporary workers. Researchers have investigated variables such as work-status dissimilarity (Chattopadhyay & George, 2001), employment arrangement heterogeneity (Broschak & Davis-Blake, 2006), and the proportion of temporary workers (Chadwick & Flinchbaugh, 2016; Eldor & Cappelli, 2021; George et al., 2012) to understand their impact on blended workgroup outcomes. The presence of nonstandard employees and their proportion within blended workgroups can significantly impact various outcomes, such as trust, attitudes, job satisfaction, work performance, and turnover intentions (Aletraris, 2010; Banerjee et al., 2012; Chambel & Castanheira, 2007; Davis-Blake et al., 2003; Forde & Slater, 2006; Pearce, 1993). Given the significance of these factors in shaping the effectiveness of blended workgroups, organisations should carefully consider the ratio of standard and nonstandard employees within teams to optimise collaboration and minimise potential negative effects on team dynamics.

Second, while blended workgroups can save on basic resources, they may create hidden psychological costs. To fully understand their effectiveness, we propose a multi-perspective approach that considers structural, comparative, and identity-related factors. From a structural perspective, the number and ratio of employee types within a blended workgroup can influence cooperation and

performance (Broschak & Davis-Blake, 2006; Clinton et al., 2021). The comparative perspective reveals that discrepancies in treatment between standard and nonstandard employees can lead to conflicts and higher organisational costs (Barnett & Miner, 1992; Wang et al., 2023). Finally, the identity perspective suggests that the division of roles in blended workgroups can affect how employees build their identity and cope with threats and pressures (Clinton et al., 2021; Eldor & Cappelli, 2021; George et al., 2012; Johnson & Ashforth, 2008; Wilkin et al., 2018). Recognising the multifaceted nature of blended workgroups, managers should adopt a holistic view when assessing the effectiveness of blended workgroups by considering structural, comparative, and identity-related factors, and addressing any hidden psychological costs associated with blended workgroups.

Third, our review emphasises the complexity of issues faced by nonstandard employees and the need for targeted management practices. By categorising employees based on their employment type, organisations can develop differentiated strategies for standard and nonstandard employees. For standard employees, these strategies include high-involvement work approaches (Kwon & van Jaarsveld, 2013), HR practices (Schmidt et al., 2018), investment HR systems (Way et al., 2010), and hiring nonstandard employees for anticipatory support (de Jong, 2014). For nonstandard employees, strategies include enhanced social support (Lapalme et al., 2009; Lowry et al., 2002), HRM development practices (Buch et al., 2010; Koene & van Riemsdijk, 2005; Kuvaas et al., 2013; Slattery et al., 2008; Smith et al., 2022), training (Chambel & Castanheira, 2012; Chambel et al., 2015; Scheel et al., 2014; Song et al., 2013), flexibility support (Chen et al., 2019), and opportunities for permanent employment (Battisti & Vallanti, 2013; Boswell et al., 2012).

Fourth, our review highlights the importance of career lifecycle management in addressing the diverse needs and motivations of employees in blended workgroups. Individual-level moderators, such as demographic variables, personal characteristics, attitudes, and motives for nonstandard employment, can impact the effectiveness of blended workgroups (Aletraris, 2010; Clinton et al., 2011; Torka & Schyns, 2007; von Hippel & Kalokerinos, 2012). Organisations can support employees at different career stages through regular career development discussions, tailored training programs, and mentoring initiatives, thereby fostering a more harmonious and effective blended workgroup environment.

Despite the insights provided by our review, significant challenges remain in developing a comprehensive understanding of blended workgroup effectiveness. These challenges include asymmetrical effects on standard and nonstandard employees, research limitations due to the short-term nature of nonstandard employment, and inconsistent employee classification systems (e.g., ICSE-18). To address these challenges and advance our understanding of blended workgroup effectiveness, a well-defined research agenda is essential to navigate the complexities, guide future studies, and unlock new insights.

5.2 A research agenda

Our review suggests five avenues for future research to advance our understanding of blended workgroup dynamics and outcomes: a) integration of theoretical perspectives, b) psychological costs, c) the role of context in shaping blended workgroup dynamics, d) changes over time, and e) the impact of gender on blended workgroup dynamics. Table 2 presents detailed suggestions on the theoretical perspectives and example research questions.

< insert Table 2 here >

5.2.1 Research avenue 1: Integrating theoretical perspectives

The debate on blended workgroup effectiveness remains unresolved despite extensive research on the topic. It is essential for future research to: a) integrate findings from various theories; b) bridge the gap between individual and organisational outcomes; c) explore group dynamics and typological perspectives; and d) optimise blended workgroup structures to maximise benefits and minimise costs.

First, despite abundant research on the topic, there is still a need for the integration of theoretical findings on blended workgroups. Future research should integrate findings from different perspectives, such as the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), the resource-based view (Barney, 1991), and human capital theory (Lepak & Snell, 1999), to consider both the resource-saving benefits and potential resource loss associated with incorporating nonstandard employees into an organisation.

Second, the current body of research on blended workgroups is somewhat disjointed, with studies focusing on either individual or organisational levels in isolation. There is a scarcity of robust theoretical underpinnings to determine whether employees' psychological well-being can have far-reaching consequences for both teams and organisations. Adopting a cross-level approach may provide fresh perspectives and warrants further exploration. Moreover, studies on internal and external employees are also relatively disconnected (Roca-Puig et al., 2008), lacking a holistic understanding of how these groups interact and influence one another. The group dynamics perspective (Smith, 1987) may help bridge this gap by investigating the impact of relationship networks within blended workgroups.

Third, studies often discuss different types of nonstandard employees separately. However, it is important to recognise that the same influence mechanism may not operate consistently across all categories of nonstandard employees within a blended workgroup (van Vuuren et al., 2020; Wooden &

Warren, 2004). Future research may draw from the typological perspective in psychology (Bem, 1983) to explore the similarities and distinctions among various types of nonstandard employees to better understand their unique characteristics and how they interact within blended workgroups.

Finally, the hybrid nature of blended workgroups requires additional consideration from future researchers. To optimise the advantages and reduce the drawbacks of blended workgroups, several factors must be taken into account, such as determining the suitable ratio of nonstandard employees, selecting the appropriate categories of employees, and assigning team pairs effectively. Furthermore, researchers should investigate various team characteristics, including team size, member fluidity, types of employees, task allocation, and skill level, to gain a comprehensive understanding of how these factors influence the dynamics and performance of blended workgroups.

5.2.2 Research avenue 2: Addressing psychological costs

Employee psychological costs, such as mental health and well-being, are often overlooked in the management of blended workgroups and deserve more research attention (Bernhard-Oettel et al., 2013; De Cuyper et al., 2008). Future research should focus on three key areas: a) comparative studies on psychological well-being, b) spillover effects and social comparison processes, and c) group dynamics and interpersonal relationships.

First, comparative studies on mental health and well-being between temporary and permanent employees within blended workgroups are essential to better understand the unique challenges faced by each group. Researchers should investigate how job insecurity, lack of control over work processes, poor social protection, low income, and lack of benefits associated with temporary work contribute to negative psychological outcomes (Bernhard-Oettel et al., 2013). Drawing from theories such as conservation of

resources, psychological contracts, decent work, job insecurity and deprivation (Allan et al., 2021), future studies could examine how blended workgroups affect the psychological well-being of both temporary and permanent workers.

Second, future research should examine how the presence of temporary workers in blended workgroups may influence the well-being of permanent employees through processes such as job insecurity spillover, social comparison, or perceived inequity (Allan et al., 2021). Researchers should investigate the mechanisms underlying these spillover effects and social comparison processes, considering factors such as stress, burnout, and emotional injury (Vahle-Hinz, 2016), to offer targeted interventions that promote positive interactions and mitigate potential negative consequences within these diverse teams.

Third, exploring the interpersonal dynamics within blended workgroups is crucial to understanding the well-being experienced by both temporary and permanent employees. Future research should focus on factors such as trust, cohesion, and collaboration between temporary and permanent employees (Broschak & Davis-Blake, 2006; Qin et al., 2023; Svensson, 2012), and investigate how these dynamics may be influenced by differences in job security, control over work, and access to resources. As temporary workers often have less control over their work compared to permanent workers (Bernhard-Oettel et al., 2013), future studies should explore how organisations can foster positive interpersonal dynamics and support the well-being of all employees, regardless of their employment status, by addressing these control disparities.

5.2.3 *Research avenue 3: Exploring social contextual factors*

Future research should consider the interplay between social contextual factors that influence the effectiveness of blended workgroups. Exploring country-specific indicators, cultural background, adaptability, and the blending of both employment status and cultural backgrounds can provide valuable insights into the challenges and opportunities presented by these evolving work arrangements.

First, drawing from social cognitive theory, which posits that individuals' cognitions and behaviours are shaped by their environment and that they can respond differently to their surroundings based on their distinct characteristics and social roles (Bandura, 1986), future research should explore how various economic and legislative indicators across countries impact the working conditions of blended workgroup members. Factors such as unemployment rates, market demand for nonstandard employment arrangements (Scheel et al., 2014), and laws and regulations governing the rights and interests of nonstandard employees (Kassinis & Stavrou, 2013) can significantly influence employees' attitudes towards work and reflect societal acceptance of nonstandard employment modes. Additionally, the prevalence of blended employment in certain industries, such as manufacturing and services, may contribute to variations in the effectiveness of blended workgroups and the conditions of nonstandard employees across different sectors.

Second, the cultural backdrop in which blended workgroups operate can also shape the dynamics and effectiveness of these teams. Future research should investigate how a country's "cultural inertia" and its treatment of standard and nonstandard employees may impose new demands on the capabilities of blended workgroup members. For instance, in collectivist cultures that prioritise interpersonal relationships (*guanxi*) and non-conflictual resolutions (Ohbuchi & Fukushima, 1999), collaboration within blended workgroups may be facilitated. However, this cultural context may also require

nonstandard employees to adhere to group norms and potentially subordinate their personal interests when confronted with conflicts stemming from inconsistent individual and organisational goals and demands (Triandis, 2001).

Finally, an aspect that has been largely overlooked in previous research is the blending of not only employment status but also cultural backgrounds within a single workgroup. Future studies should explore this intersection, as discrepancies in laws, regulations, cultural customs, and even body language can create barriers for members of a blended workgroup to adapt to one another, compounding the challenges already faced by standard and nonstandard employees as they acclimatise to working together. Researchers may find it valuable to consider cultural distance as a moderating factor when examining the quality of interactions in blended workgroups composed of individuals from diverse cultural backgrounds.

5.2.4 Research avenue 4: Examining the temporal changes

It is essential to understand how blended workgroups evolve and mature over time, as the dynamics within these diverse teams can significantly impact their effectiveness and the well-being of their members. We suggest that future research should focus on examining the changes that occur in three key areas: the adaptability and inclusiveness of standard workers, the evolving career expectations and identity of nonstandard workers, and the role of job crafting in shaping the blended workgroup experience.

First, regardless of the volatile and dynamic characteristics of nonstandard employees, their working attitudes and behaviours are likely to evolve over time. As individuals interact with their external environment, they continually gather information to construct, interpret, and modify their cognitive

structures and expectancies in order to adapt to their surroundings (Bandura, 1986; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978; Vroom, 1964). Consequently, standard workers may demonstrate increased flexibility and adaptability whilst also displaying inclusiveness and engaging in closer collaboration with their nonstandard counterparts. Future research should investigate the factors that contribute to these changes in attitudes and behaviours, as well as explore the strategies that organisations can employ to support and facilitate the successful integration and collaboration between standard and nonstandard employees within blended workgroups.

Second, it remains uncertain whether nonstandard workers will adjust their career expectations over time and strive for boundaryless careers, which emphasise enhanced employability and enable employees to achieve continuous employment across various organisations (Arthur et al., 2005) as a personal goal, supplanting traditional career advancement or long-term employment guarantees. Nonstandard employees may gradually develop a new occupational identity, increasingly recognising and accepting their status as nonstandard workers, which allows them to find fulfilment and a sense of belonging in their new role. Future research should explore the evolution of nonstandard workers' career expectations and aspirations, as well as investigate the process of occupational identity formation among this population within blended workgroups.

Finally, future research may focus on job crafting among both standard and nonstandard employees, as this may be the key to mitigating negative outcomes and embracing the potential of blended workgroups. Goal-setting theory also emphasises that individual goals may need to be adjusted in response to changes in situations and conditions over time (Locke & Latham, 1990). By focusing on job

crafting, researchers can explore how employees in blended workgroups can proactively shape their work experiences to foster a more positive and productive work environment.

5.2.5 Research avenue 5: Uncovering the impact of gender roles and stereotypes

Gender plays a significant role in shaping the dynamics and performance of blended workgroups, yet the literature exploring this aspect remains limited. Future research should delve deeper into the influence of gender roles, stereotypes, and the unique attributes and needs of gendered groups within these diverse teams.

First, the literature on how gender influences dynamics and performance within blended workgroups remains limited. Although our review includes studies touching upon gender (Aletraris, 2010; Bartoll & Ramos, 2020), the conclusions drawn from this research are tentative. Historical gender roles, where women are often seen as unpaid homemakers and caregivers while men are perceived as the primary breadwinners (Eagly & Wood, 1999), exacerbate the disadvantaged position of female workers in the workplace, especially when they are temporary workers. Drawing from equity theory (Adams, 1963) and critical feminist perspectives (Fox, 1987), future research should investigate how gender stereotypes may predispose female temporary workers to discrimination and unfair treatment in the workplace (Heilman & Eagly, 2008).

Second, the unique attributes and needs of gendered groups, particularly among women, require focused consideration. The dual pressures of contributing to household income and assuming primary caregiving responsibilities, often coupled with lower salary expectations compared to men (Schweitzer et al., 2014), lead some married women to seek more flexible work arrangements and less work pressure (Scandura & Lankau, 1997). This suggests that female temporary workers may exhibit different attitudes

and behaviours towards work compared to their male counterparts and other female permanent employees. Future research should explore the distinct experiences, motivations, and challenges faced by female temporary workers within blended workgroups, and investigate how these factors influence their work-related attitudes, behaviours, and overall well-being.

Finally, the specialised requirements of these groups demand customised attention and accommodations, highlighting a significant research gap. By examining the interaction of gender with other demographic factors (such as age and socio-cultural background) and workgroup structures, future studies can provide a deeper understanding of the complex impact of gender on the performance and well-being of individuals and organisations within blended workgroups.

6 Conclusion

This integrative literature review offers a thorough analysis of the effectiveness of blended workgroups, exploring the costs and benefits of this practice, the theoretical perspectives that explain the mechanisms of its effects, and the contingency factors that influence its outcomes. Our findings reveal that blended workgroups have a mixed impact on employee attitudes, behaviours, and organisational performance, underscoring the need to consider multiple perspectives and be aware of potential hidden costs. Our review identifies four key insights for managing blended workgroups effectively: a) optimising employee composition, b) adopting a multifaceted approach, c) tailoring management practices for nonstandard employees, and d) leveraging career lifecycle management to reduce conflicts and enhance harmony. We propose five avenues for future research: a) integrating theoretical perspectives, b) addressing the psychological costs, c) accounting for contextual influences, d) examining changes over time, and e) understanding the impact of gender dynamics.

A significant contribution of this review is reconciling conflicting perspectives on blended workgroup effectiveness, covering primary theoretical lenses such as social identity, social exchange, job insecurity, and psychological contract theories. It identifies key factors such as employee composition and contextual factors in shaping blended workgroup outcomes. As organisations increasingly adopt nonstandard work arrangements, effective blended workgroup management becomes paramount. This review enhances understanding of blended workgroup costs and benefits, and offers evidence-based guidance for practitioners and a foundation for future research.

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Table 1 Summary of reviewed articles

Citation	Study Sample	Study Context		Theoretical Perspective	Method	Findings
		Country	Industry			
Standard employee attitudes and behaviours						
<i>Attitude to organisation and coworkers</i>						
Banerjee et al. (2012)	Standard	Britain	Multiple	N/A	Quantitative	Negative
Broschak and Davis-Blake (2006)	Standard & Part-time & Temporary	U.S.	Financial services	Minority-group relations theory	Quantitative	Negative
Chattopadhyay and George (2001)	Standard & Temporary	Australia	Manufacturing	Social identity theory	Quantitative	Negative
Davis-Blake et al. (2003)	Standard	U.S.	Multiple	N/A	Quantitative	Negative
George (2003)	Standard	U.S.	Research laboratory, Manufacturing & Retails	N/A	Quantitative	Negative
George et al. (2012)	Standard	Australia	Public	Social identity theory, Self-categorisation theory	Quantitative	Negative
George et al. (2016)	Standard	Australia	Public	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Negative
Pearce (1993)	Standard	U.S.	Manufacturing	Social comparison theory	Quantitative	Negative
Sarina and Wright (2015)	Standard & Nonstandard & Firms	Australia	Aviation	N/A	Qualitative	Negative
<i>Job attitudes</i>						
Banerjee et al. (2012)	Standard	Britain	Multiple	N/A	Quantitative	Negative
Bonet et al. (2022)	Standard	Spain	Computer software	Unfolding model of turnover	Quantitative	Negative
Broschak and Davis-Blake (2006)	Standard & Part-time & Temporary	U.S.	Financial services	Minority-group relations theory	Quantitative	Negative
Davis-Blake et al. (2003)	Standard	U.S.	Multiple	N/A	Quantitative	Negative

Citation	Study Sample	Study Context		Theoretical Perspective	Method	Findings
		Country	Industry			
Kwon and van Jaarsveld (2013)	Standard	U.S. & Canada	Services	Partial inclusion theory	Quantitative	Negative
Way et al. (2010)	Standard	Canada	Multiple	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Depends on externalisation motives
<i>Job mobility</i>						
Barnett and Miner (1992)	Standard	Multiple	Multiple	N/A	Quantitative	Depends on the job level
<i>In-role, extra- role and deviant behaviours</i>						
Broschak and Davis-Blake (2006)	Standard & Part-time & Temporary	U.S.	Financial services	Minority-group relations theory	Quantitative	Negative
Chattopadhyay and George (2001)	Standard & Temporary	Australia	Manufacturing	Social identity theory	Quantitative	Negative
George et al. (2012)	Standard	Australia	Public	Social identity theory, Self-categorisation theory	Quantitative	Negative
Håkansson and Isidorsson (2012)	Standard	Sweden	Multiple	N/A	Qualitative	Negative
Kraimer et al. (2005)	Standard	Southeast	Manufacturing	Psychological contract theory, Social cognition theory	Quantitative	Depends on job security
Pearce (1993)	Standard	U.S.	Manufacturing	Social comparison theory	Quantitative	Negative
O'Brady et al. (2023)	Standard	U.S.	Telecommunications	Job demands-resources model	Mixed Methods	Negative
Ruiz Moreno et al. (2012)	Standard	Spain	Multiple	The theory of resources and capacities	Quantitative	Negative
Teresa Ortega-Egea et al. (2014)	Standard	Spanish	Multiple	The theory of resources and capabilities	Quantitative	Negative
von Hippel and Kalokerinos (2012)	Standard	U.S.	Multiple	Realistic group conflict theory	Quantitative	Depends on temp types and feelings of threat

Citation	Study Sample	Study Context		Theoretical Perspective	Method	Findings
		Country	Industry			
Way et al. (2010)	Standard	Canada	Multiple	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Depends on externalisation motives
Nonstandard employee attitudes and behaviours						
<i>Attitude to organisation and coworkers</i>						
Biggs and Swailes (2006)	Temporary agency vs. Standard	Britain	Multiple	N/A	Mixed Methods	Negative
Chambel and Castanheira (2012)	Temporary agency	Portugal	Industry	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Depends on training
Chambel et al. (2015)	Temporary agency	Portugal	Industry	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Depends on training
Chattopadhyay and George (2001)	Standard & Temporary	Australia	Manufacturing	Social identity theory	Quantitative	Negative
Clinton et al. (2011)	Temporary	Multiple (Europe)	Multiple	Expectancy theory	Quantitative	Depends on previous experiences
De Cuyper and De Witte (2007)	Temporary vs. Standard	Belgium	Multiple	Psychological contract theory	Quantitative	Positive
De Cuyper et al. (2008)	Temporary vs. Standard	Belgium & Germany	Multiple	Psychological contract theory	Quantitative	Negative
De Cuyper et al. (2009)	Fixed-term contract vs. Temporary agency vs. Standard	Belgium	Multiple	Work stress theory, Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Positive
de Jong and Schalk (2010)	Temporary	Netherlands	Multiple	Coping theory	Quantitative	Depends on motives
Forde and Slater (2006)	Temporary agency	Britain	Multiple	N/A	Quantitative	Negative
Geary (1992)	Temporary	U.S.	Electronics	N/A	Qualitative	Negative
Jung et al. (2018)	Temporary agency	Korea	Aviation	Psychological contract theory	Quantitative	Negative
Lapalme et al. (2009)	Temporary agency	Canada	Finance	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Depends on perceived supports

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Citation	Study Sample	Study Context		Theoretical Perspective	Method	Findings
		Country	Industry			
Lowry et al. (2002)	Contingent	Australia	Hospitality	N/A	Mixed Methods	Depends on perceived supports
Sarina and Wright (2015)	Standard & Nonstandard & Firms	Australia	Aviation	N/A	Qualitative	Negative
Slattery et al. (2008)	Temporary agency	U.S.	Multiple	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Depends on HR development practices
Svensson (2012)	Temporary agency vs. Standard	Sweden	Multiple	N/A	Quantitative	Negative
Svensson et al. (2015)	Temporary agency vs. Standard	Sweden	Public	Situational leadership theory	Quantitative	Negative
Toms and Biggs (2014)	Temporary agency	UK	Multiple	N/A	Qualitative	Depends on motives
Job attitudes						
Aletraris (2010)	Temporary agency vs. Standard	Australia	Multiple	Work stress theory	Quantitative	Positive
Bernhard-Oettel et al. (2013)	Temporary	Multiple (Europe)	Multiple	Self-determination theory, Control theory	Quantitative	Depends on motives
Broschak and Davis-Blake (2006)	Standard & Part-time & Temporary	U.S.	Financial services	Minority-group relations theory	Quantitative	Negative
Boswell et al. (2012)	Temporary agency	U.S.	Government	Status characteristics theory, Social categorisation theory	Quantitative	Depends on perceived employment status
Chambel and Castanheira (2012)	Temporary agency	Portugal	Industry	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Depends on training
Clinton et al. (2011)	Temporary	Multiple (Europe)	Multiple	Expectancy theory	Quantitative	Depends on previous experiences
De Cuyper and De Witte (2007)	Temporary vs. Standard	Belgium	Multiple	Psychological contract theory	Quantitative	Positive

Citation	Study Sample	Study Context		Theoretical Perspective	Method	Findings
		Country	Industry			
De Cuyper and De Witte (2010)	Temporary vs. Standard	Belgium	Education	Expectancy value model	Quantitative	Positive
De Cuyper et al. (2008)	Temporary vs. Standard	Belgium & Germany	Multiple	Psychological contract theory	Quantitative	Negative
De Cuyper et al. (2009)	Fixed-term contract vs. Temporary agency vs. Standard	Belgium	Multiple	Work stress theory, Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Positive
de Jong et al. (2009)	Temporary vs. Standard	Netherlands	Multiple	Psychological contract theory	Quantitative	Negative
de Jong and Schalk (2010)	Temporary	Netherlands	Multiple	Coping theory	Quantitative	Depends on motives
Ellingson (1998)	Temporary agency	U.S.	Multiple	N/A	Quantitative	Depends on motives
Flickinger et al. (2016)	Temporary agency vs. Standard	Germany	Multiple	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Positive
Forde and Slater (2006)	Temporary agency	Britain	Multiple	N/A	Quantitative	Negative
Goni-Legaz and Ollo-Lopez (2017)	Temporary vs. Standard	Multiple (Europe)	Multiple	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Negative
Lowry et al. (2002)	Contingent	Australia	Hospitality	N/A	Mixed Methods	Depends on perceived supports
Mauno et al. (2015)	Temporary vs. Standard	Finland	Education	Conservation of resources theory	Quantitative	Negative
Park and Kang (2017)	Nonstandard vs. Standard	Korea	Multiple	Dual labour market theory	Quantitative	Negative
Schmidt et al. (2018)	Temporary vs. Permanent part-time vs. Permanent full-time	Canada	Tourism & Hospitality	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Depends on HRM practices
Slattery et al. (2008)	Temporary agency	U.S.	Multiple	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Depends on HR development practices

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Citation	Study Sample	Study Context		Theoretical Perspective	Method	Findings
		Country	Industry			
Smith et al. (2022)	Contingent	U.S.	Multiple	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Depends on HR development practices
Toms and Biggs (2014)	Temporary agency	UK	Multiple	N/A	Qualitative	Depends on motives
Torka and Schyns (2007)	Temp agency	Netherlands	Manufacturing	Satisfaction theory	Qualitative	Depends on previous experiences
van den Tooren and de Jong (2014)	Temporary vs. Standard	Multiple (Europe)	Multiple	Psychological contract theory	Quantitative	Positive
Wickramasinghe and Chandrasekara (2011)	Long-term contingent vs. Standard	Sri Lanka	Manufacturing	N/A	Quantitative	Negative
Wooden and Warren (2004)	Nonstandard	Australia	Multiple	N/A	Quantitative	Positive
<i>Job insecurity</i>						
Clinton et al. (2011)	Temporary	Multiple (Europe)	Multiple	Expectancy theory	Quantitative	Depends on previous experiences
de Jong (2014)	Temporary vs. Standard	Multiple (Europe)	Multiple	N/A	Quantitative	Depends on externalisation motives
Toms and Biggs (2014)	Temporary agency	UK	Multiple	N/A	Qualitative	Depends on motives
<i>In-role, extra-role and deviant behaviours</i>						
Blatt (2008)	Temporary (knowledge)	U.S.	Multiple	N/A	Qualitative	Depends on interpersonal experience
Broschak and Davis-Blake (2006)	Standard & Part-time, and Temporary	U.S.	Financial services	Minority-group relations theory	Quantitative	Negative
Buch et al. (2010)	Temporary agency	Norway	Multiple	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Depends on HR development practices
Chambel and Castanheira (2006)	Temporary agency vs. Standard	Portugal	Manufacturing & Telecommunications	Psychological contract theory	Quantitative	Depends on temp types

Citation	Study Sample	Study Context		Theoretical Perspective	Method	Findings
		Country	Industry			
	Direct-hire temporary vs. Standard					
Chambel and Castanheira (2007)	Temporary vs. Standard	Portugal	Manufacturing & Services	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Depends on motives
Chattopadhyay and George (2001)	Internal & Temporary	Australia	Manufacturing	Social identity theory	Quantitative	Negative
Clinton et al. (2011)	Temporary	Multiple (Europe)	Multiple	Expectancy theory	Quantitative	Depends on previous experiences
Chiu et al. (2015)	Temporary vs. Standard	Taiwan	Services	Partial exclusion theory	Quantitative	Negative
De Cuyper and De Witte (2007)	Temporary vs. Standard	Belgium	Multiple	Psychological contract theory	Quantitative	Positive
De Cuyper et al. (2014)	Temporary vs. Standard	Portugal	Multiple	N/A	Quantitative	Positive
de Jong and Schalk (2010)	Temporary	Netherlands	Multiple	Coping theory	Quantitative	Depends on motives
Ellingson (1998)	Temporary agency	U.S.	Multiple	N/A	Quantitative	Depends on motives
George et al. (2010)	Temporary agency	U.S.	Multiple	Congruence theory models	Quantitative	Depends on motives
Koene and van Riemsdijk (2005)	Temporary agency	Netherlands	Retails	Strategic HRM theory	Quantitative	Depends on HRM practices
Kuvaas et al. (2013)	Temporary agency	Norway	Multiple	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Depends on HR development practices
Johnson and Ashforth (2008)	Limited-term contract vs. Standard	Canada	Services	Social identity theory	Quantitative	Negative
Lapalme et al. (2009)	Temporary agency	Canada	Finance	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Depends on perceived supports
Liu et al. (2020)	Temporary vs. Standard	China	Air transportation	Strategic HRM theory	Quantitative	Negative
Linn Van and Ang (1998)	Contingent vs. Standard	Singapore	Services	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Negative

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Citation	Study Sample	Study Context		Theoretical Perspective	Method	Findings
		Country	Industry			
Lu et al. (2022)	Temporary vs. Standard	China	Air transportation	Cognitive theory of stress	Quantitative	Negative
Ma et al. (2019)	Temporary vs. Standard	China	Air transportation	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Positive
Moorman and Harland (2002)	Temporary agency	U.S.	Multiple	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Depends on motives
Qian et al. (2020)	Temporary vs. Standard	China	Hospital	Cognitive processing theory	Quantitative	Negative
Qin et al. (2023)	Outsourced	China	Technology service	N/A	Quantitative	Negative
Rogers (1995)	Temporary	U.S.	Multiple	N/A	Qualitative	Negative
Scheel et al. (2014)	Temporary vs. Standard	Multiple (Europe)	Multiple	N/A	Quantitative	Depends on training
Smith et al. (2022)	Contingent	U.S.	Multiple	Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Depends on HR development practices
Song et al. (2013)	Temporary agency vs. Standard	Korea	Services	N/A	Quantitative	Depends on training
Striler et al. (2021)	Temporary	U.S.	Multiple	Conservation of resources theory	Quantitative	Negative
Vahle-Hinz (2016)	Nonstandard	Germany	Multiple	Job demand-control model	Quantitative	Depends on task- and employment-related demand and resource
van Vuuren et al. (2020)	Nonstandard vs. Standard	Netherlands	Multiple	N/A	Quantitative	Depends on nonstandard worker types
Wang et al. (2023)	Outsourced	China	Technology service	Relative deprivation theory	Quantitative	Negative
Wickramasinghe and Chandrasekara (2011)	Long-term contingent vs. Permanent	Sri Lanka	Manufacturing	N/A	Quantitative	Negative
Wittmer and Martin (2011)	Part-time vs. Standard	U.S.	Multiple	Partial inclusion theory	Quantitative	Negative

Organisational operational performance

Firm climate

Citation	Study Sample	Study Context		Theoretical Perspective	Method	Findings
		Country	Industry			
Llorens-Montes et al. (2013)	Standard	Spain	Multiple	Attraction-selection-attrition hypothesis	Quantitative	Negative
Group effectiveness						
Clinton et al. (2021)	Teams: Temporary agency & Standard	Indonesia	Oil	Social identity theory	Quantitative	Negative
Wilkin et al. (2018)	Teams: Temporary & Standard	Multiple (Europe)	Multiple	Social identity theory	Quantitative	Negative
Knowledge sharing						
Nesheim and Smith (2015)	Outsourced vs. Standard	Norway	Oil and gas	Social identity theory	Quantitative	Positive
Organisational innovation						
Chen et al. (2019)	Firms: Contingent & Standard	Taiwan	Manufacturing	Strategic human resource (HR) flexibility model	Quantitative	Depends on HRM practices in flexibility
Grimpe and Kaiser (2010)	Firms: Outsourcing & Standard	Germany	Manufacturing & Services	Resource-based view	Quantitative	Inverse U-shaped
Safety						
Kochan et al. (1994)	Firms: Contingent & Standard	U.S.	Petrochemical	N/A	Qualitative	Negative
Firm performance						
Financial performance						
Chadwick and Flinchbaugh (2016)	Firms: Part-time & Standard	U.S.	Multiple	Equity theory, Social exchange theory	Quantitative	Inverse U-shaped
De Stefano et al. (2018)	Point of sale: Temporary & Standard	Italy	Food & Beverage services	Context-emergent turnover theory, Capacity theory of collective turnover	Quantitative	Depends on the planned turnover and experience level of temporary workers
Eldor and Cappelli (2021)	Store: Temporary	Israel	Retail	Social identity theory	Quantitative	Negative

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Citation	Study Sample	Study Context		Theoretical Perspective	Method	Findings
		Country	Industry			
	agency & Standard			Self-categorisation theory		
Gilley and Rasheed (2000)	Firms: Outsourced & Standard	U.S.	Manufacturing	The resource-based view	Quantitative	Depends on organisational strategy and environmental dynamism
Maria Angeles and Sanchez (2004)	Firms: Temporary & Standard	Spain	Manufacturing	N/A	Quantitative	Negative
Roca-Puig et al. (2012)	Firms: Temporary & Standard	Spanish	Multiple	Human capital theory	Quantitative	Depends on organisational size
Rodríguez-Gutiérrez (2007)	Firms: Temporary & Standard	Spain	Manufacturing	Human capital theory	Quantitative	Negative
Sarina and Wright (2015)	Standard & Nonstandard & Firms	Australia	Aviation	N/A	Qualitative	Negative
Zeytinoglu et al. (2017)	Firms: Part-time & Temporary & Standard	Canada	Multiple	Strategic choice theory	Quantitative	Negative
<i>Firm productivity</i>						
Battisti and Vallanti (2013)	Firms: Temporary & Standard	Italy	Industry	N/A	Quantitative	Depends on the conversion rate of jobs from temporary to permanent
Roca-Puig et al. (2008)	Firms: Temporary & Standard	Spain	Multiple	N/A	Quantitative	Depends on internal flexibility
Rodríguez-Gutiérrez (2007)	Firms: Temporary & Standard	Spain	Manufacturing	Human capital theory	Quantitative	Negative
Zeytinoglu et al. (2017)	Firms: Part-time & Temporary & Standard	Canada	Multiple	Strategic choice theory	Quantitative	Negative
<i>Labour costs</i>						

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Citation	Study Sample	Study Context		Theoretical Perspective	Method	Findings
		Country	Industry			
Nielen and Schiersch (2014)	Firms: Temporary agency & Standard	Germany	Manufacturing	N/A	Quantitative	Inverse U-shaped
Rodríguez-Gutiérrez (2007)	Firms: Temporary & Standard	Spain	Manufacturing	Human capital theory	Quantitative	Negative

Note. Table headings in bold reflect four key organisational effectiveness indicators: standard and nonstandard employee attitudes and behaviours (including attitudes towards the organisation and coworkers, job attitudes, in-role, extra-role, and deviant behaviours), operational performance (covering firm climate, group effectiveness, knowledge sharing, innovation, and safety), and financial performance (encompassing financial outcomes, productivity, and labour costs).

Table 2 Summary of future research avenues

Future research avenues	Theoretical perspectives	Examples of research questions
Research avenue 1: Integrating theoretical perspectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Individual resource perspective: e.g., COR ● Organisational resource perspective: e.g., RBV; HCT ● Cross-level perspective: e.g., Strategic HRM theory ● Group Dynamics Perspective ● Typological Perspective 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What is the process of gaining and losing for standard and non-standard employees, and organisations within a blended workgroup? ● How do individual-level outcomes of employees aggregate to influence organisational-level performance? And how do an organisation's employment strategies create a trickle-down effect on individual-level outcomes of employees? ● How do the two types of employees, standard and non-standard, interact with each other? ● How does the type of non-standard employee affect the effectiveness of blended workgroups? ● How should an organisation set the ratio for a blended workgroup to achieve the highest performance or other outcomes?
Research avenue 2: Addressing psychological costs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● COR ● Job demands-resources (JD-R) model ● Social comparison theory ● Equity theory ● Social exchange theory ● Psychological contract theory 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What resources are crucial for maintaining the mental health of temporary and permanent employees in blended workgroups? ● How do job demands and resources vary between temporary and permanent employees in blended workgroups, and how does this affect their mental health? ● How does the presence of temporary workers in blended workgroups affect the well-being of permanent employees through social comparison? ● How do perceptions of inequity between temporary and permanent employees in blended workgroups affect their mental health? ● What factors help or hinder positive social relationships between temporary and permanent employees in blended workgroups? ● How do the psychological contracts of temporary and permanent employees in blended workgroups differ, and how does breaching these contracts impact their mental health?
Research avenue 3: Exploring the social contextual factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Social cognitive theory ● Cultural difference perspective 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● How do cultural values impact blended workgroups across countries and what does this mean for multinational organisations? ● How does cultural distance affect communication and collaboration in blended workgroups, and how can organisations promote cross-cultural integration? ● How do industry norms shape the experiences of non-standard employees in blended workgroups, and what are the implications for their well-being?

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Future research avenues	Theoretical perspectives	Examples of research questions
Research avenue 4: Examining the temporal changes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Social cognitive theory ● Expectancy theory ● Boundaryless career theory ● Goal-setting theory 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● How do cultural factors influence the behaviour of employees in blended workgroups, and how can managers utilise these factors for effective teamwork? ● How do cultural backgrounds intersect with other identities in blended workgroups, and what are the implications for diversity and inclusion? ● How does working in a blended workgroup affect job crafting strategies and career choices for temporary and permanent employees? ● How do job crafting behaviours change over time for temporary and permanent employees in blended workgroups, and what influences these changes? ● How does the duration of temporary employment in blended workgroups impact job crafting behaviours and employee well-being, performance, and employability? ● To what extent do temporary employees in blended workgroups use job crafting to cope with job insecurity and transition to permanent employment, and how successful are these efforts? ● How will the increasing prevalence of blended workgroups shape work, employment relationships, and career paths for temporary and permanent employees, and what role will job crafting play?
Research avenue 5: Uncovering the impact of gender roles and stereotypes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Equity theory ● Critical feminism theory ● Expectancy theory 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What organisational policies can promote gender equality and support women, especially those in temporary roles, in blended workgroups? ● How do gender-based differences in work expectations affect temporary and permanent employees in blended workgroups, and how can these differences be managed? ● How do gender, race, and employment status intersect in blended workgroups, and what does this mean for creating inclusive workplaces? ● How do organisational cultures that value gender diversity impact the effectiveness of employees in blended workgroups, and how can these cultures be fostered? ● How do societal norms regarding gender roles influence blended workgroups, and how can these norms be challenged?

Note. COR = Conservation of Resources; RBV = Resource Basic View; HCT = Human Capital Theory; HRM = Human Resource Management.

BLENDED WORKGROUP
A blended workgroup combines standard and nonstandard employees to accomplish a specific task collectively

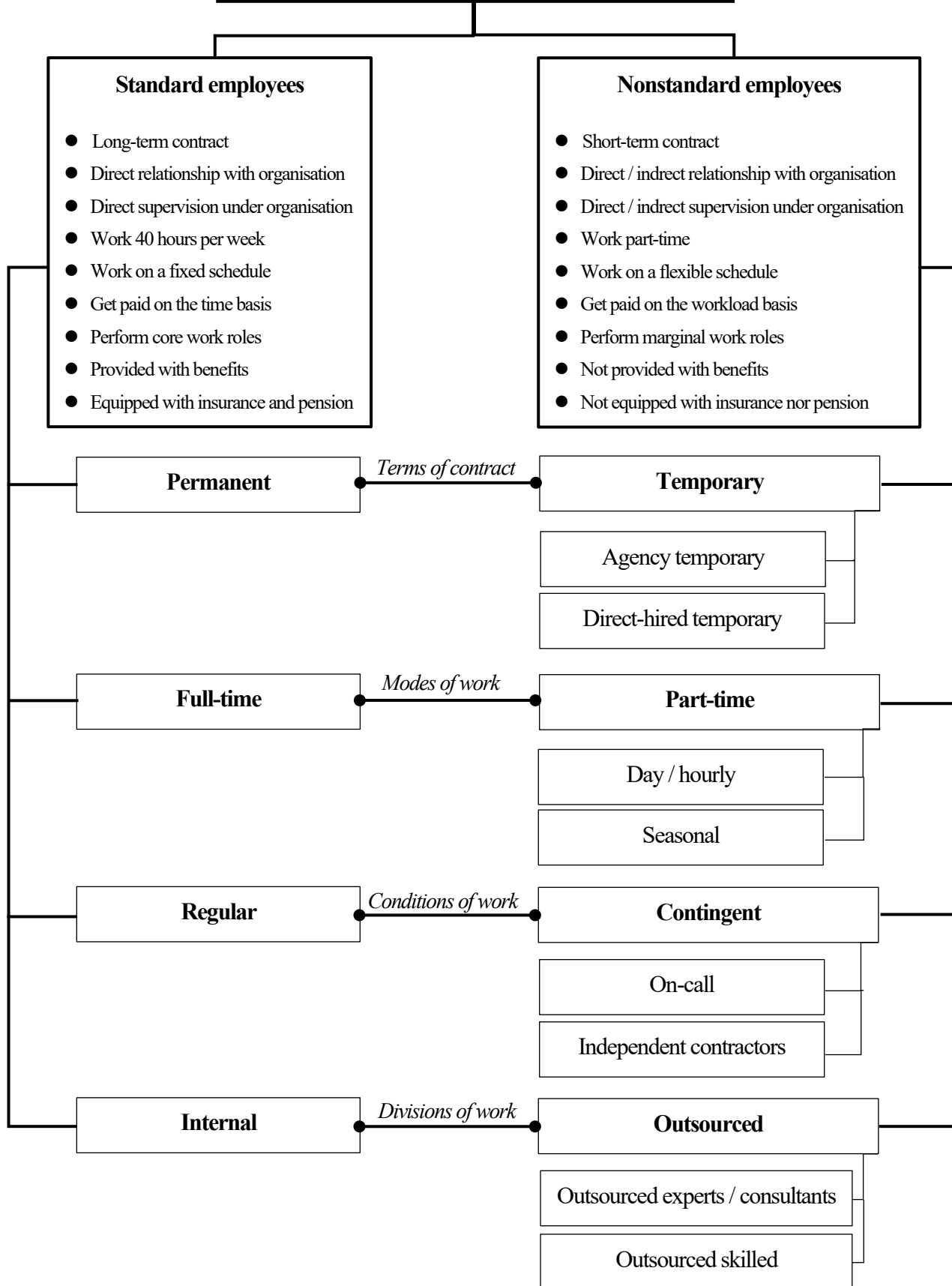


Figure 1. Comparison of standard and nonstandard employees in blended workgroups

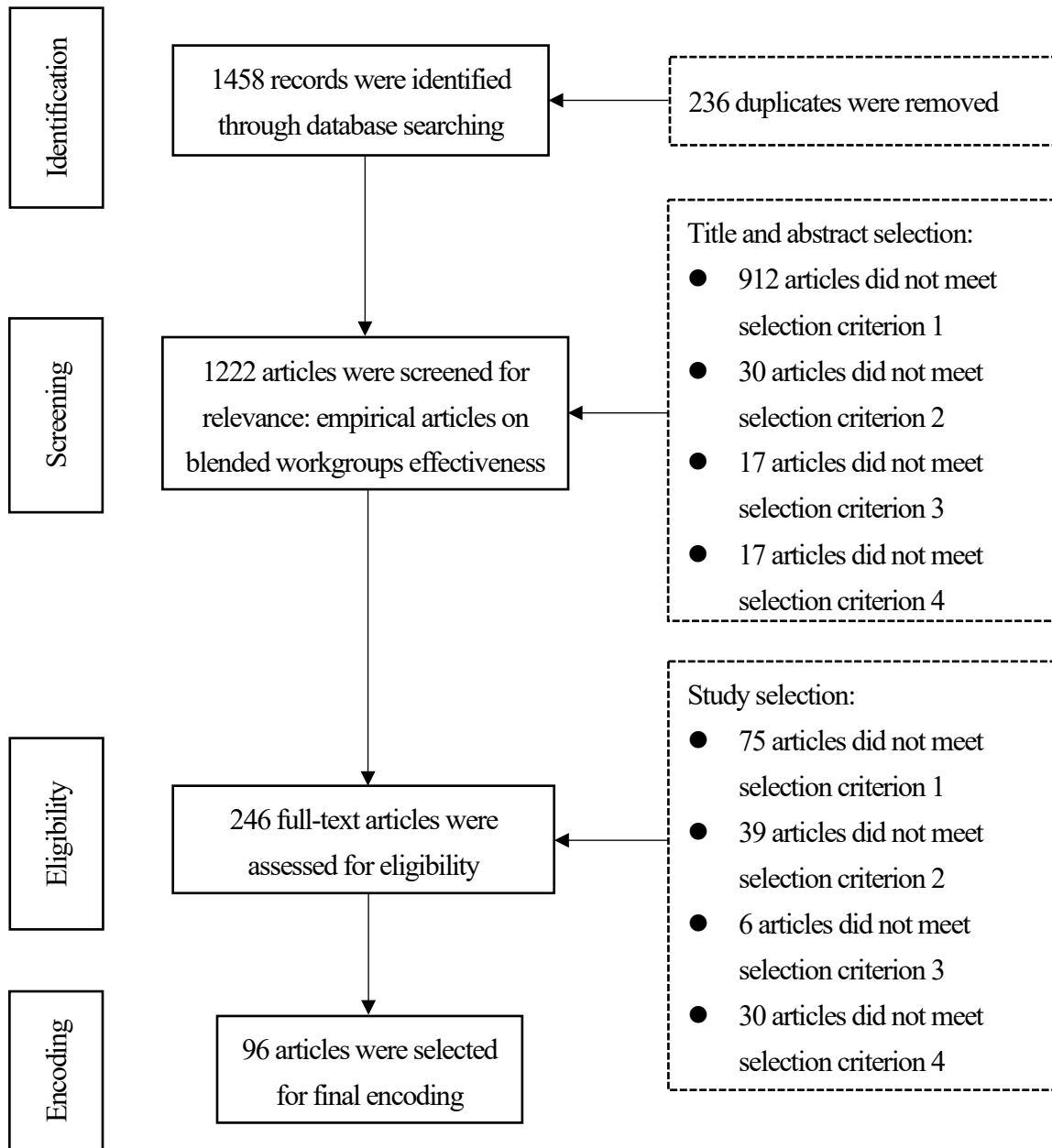
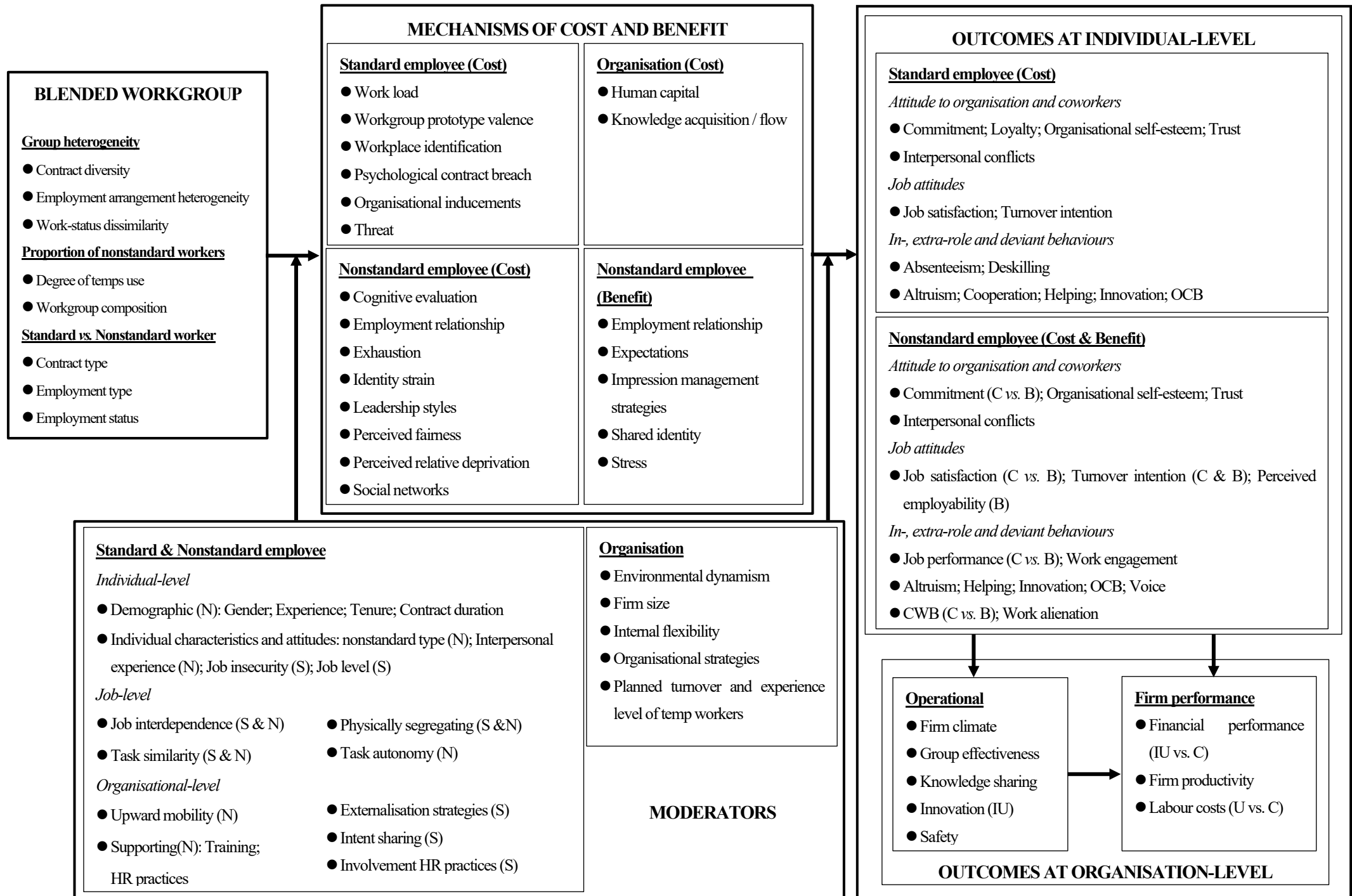


Figure 2. Literature search and selection process

Figure 3. A model of mediators, outcomes, and moderators of blended workgroups



Notes: C, B, IU, U, N, and S in parentheses stand for Cost, Beneficial, Inverse U-shaped, U-shaped, Standard, and Non-standard. "A vs. B" means multiple results were found for that variable in blended workgroups. Unannotated variables in "Outcomes" only show negative effects. "A & B" means the moderating variable can moderate the mechanisms of blended workgroups for both standard and non-standard employees.

Appendix 1. Main terms used for literature search

The main terms used were “blended workgroup” OR “blended workforce” OR “workgroup blending” OR “workforce blending” OR “hybrid employment” OR “nonstandard worker” OR “nonstandard employee” OR “nonstandard employment” OR “nonstandard work” OR “nonstandard workforce” OR “standard workforce” OR “standard employee” OR “standard worker” OR “temporary worker” OR “temporary employee” OR “temporary employment” OR “temporary agency work” OR “temporary agency job” OR “temporary agency worker” OR “temps” OR “contract worker” OR “contract employee” OR “contingent worker” OR “contingent employee” OR “contingent work” OR “seasonal worker” OR “seasonal employee” OR “agency worker” OR “agency employee” OR “atypical worker” OR “atypical employee” OR “outsourcing” OR “flexible staffing arrangements” OR “informal employment contract” OR “flexible labor resources” OR “external labor flexibility” OR “multi-employer environment” OR “employment externalisation” OR “temporary work” OR “full-time worker” OR “part-time worker” OR “full-time employee” OR “part-time employee” OR “contingent workforce” OR “seasonal workforce” OR “work externalisation”.

Appendix 2. Journals used for review

No.	Journal Title
1	Academy of Management Annals
2	Academy of Management Discoveries
3	Academy of Management Journal
4	Academy of Management Learning & Education
5	Academy of Management Perspectives
6	Academy of Management Review
7	Administrative Science Quarterly
8	Annual Review of Organisational Psychology and Organisational Behavior
9	Applied Psychology-An International Review
10	Applied Psychology-Health and Well Being
11	Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources
12	Asia Pacific Journal of Management
13	Australian Journal of Management
14	British Journal of Industrial Relations
15	British Journal of Management
16	California Management Review
17	Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences
18	Career Development International
19	Career Development Quarterly
20	Chinese Management Studies
21	Culture and Organisation
22	Economic and Labor Relations Review
23	Employee Relations
24	European Journal of Industrial Relations
25	European Journal of Psychological Assessment
26	European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology

- 27 European Management Journal
- 28 European Review of Applied Psychology
- 29 Gender In Management
- 30 Gender Work and Organisation
- 31 German Journal of Human Resource Management
- 32 Group & Organisation Management
- 33 Group Decision and Negotiation
- 34 Harvard Business Review
- 35 Human Factors
- 36 Human Performance
- 37 Human Relations
- 38 Human Resource Development Quarterly
- 39 Human Resource Development Review
- 40 Human Resource Management
- 41 Human Resource Management Journal
- 42 Human Resource Management Review
- 43 Human Resources for Health
- 44 Ilr Review
- 45 Industrial and Organisational Psychology-Perspectives on Science and Practice
- 46 Industrial Relations
- 47 International Journal for Educational and Vocational Guidance
- 48 International Journal of Human Resource Management
- 49 International Journal of Manpower
- 50 International Journal of Selection and Assessment
- 51 International Journal of Stress Management
- 52 International Labor Review
- 53 Journal of Applied Behavioral Science
- 54 Journal of Applied Psychology

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- 55 Journal of Behavioral Decision Making
- 56 Journal of Business and Psychology
- 57 Journal of Career Assessment
- 58 Journal of Career Development
- 59 Journal of Human Resources
- 60 Journal of Industrial Relations
- 61 Journal of International Business Studies
- 62 Journal of Labor Economics
- 63 Journal of Labor Research
- 64 Journal of Leadership & Organisational Studies
- 65 Journal of Management
- 66 Journal of Management & Organisation
- 67 Journal of Management Studies
- 68 Journal of Managerial Psychology
- 69 Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology
- 70 Journal of Occupational Health Psychology
- 71 Journal of Organisational Behavior
- 72 Journal of Organisational Behavior Management
- 73 Journal of Organisational Change Management
- 74 Journal of Personnel Psychology
- 75 Journal of Vocational Behavior
- 76 Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology
- 77 Leadership
- 78 Leadership & Organisation Development Journal
- 79 Leadership Quarterly
- 80 Management and Organisation Review
- 81 Mit Sloan Management Review
- 82 Monthly Labor Review

(Continued on next page)

- 83 Negotiation and Conflict Management Research
- 84 Negotiation Journal
- 85 Nonprofit Management & Leadership
- 86 Organisation
- 87 Organisation Science
- 88 Organisation Studies
- 89 Organisational Behavior and Human Decision Processes
- 90 Organisational Dynamics
- 91 Organisational Psychology Review
- 92 Organisational Research Methods
- 93 Personnel Psychology
- 94 Personnel Review
- 95 Public Personnel Management
- 96 Review of Industrial Organisation
- 97 Small Group Research
- 98 Stress and Health
- 99 Work Aging and Retirement
- 100 Work and Occupations
- 101 Work and Stress
- 102 Work Employment and Society

Note. The journals were sorted alphabetically from A to Z.



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