



Workplace Flexibility and Prosocial Behaviour in the Public Sector in Delta State

OKPEVA TEGA OVONOMO¹ & B. CHIMA ONUOHA²

¹Doctoral Student, Department of Management, University of Port Harcourt

²Professor of Management, Department of Management, University of Port Harcourt

Abstract: *Prosocial Behavior in the work environment is influenced by the level of flexibility in the workplace, to ensure work life balance, there has to be a reasonable level of flexibility in the workplace in the public sector. Prosocial behaviour is concern for other people's rights, feelings and welfare underpins these behaviours. When workplace flexibility strategies are successful, they increase productivity, job satisfaction, employee well-being, which in turn boosts profitability and success in the competitive market Prosocial behavior exhibited amongst employee in the public sector in delta state, which is the area of study, is demonstrated through a system that allows the employees give appraisal to themselves through feed back reports, recognition etc. A formal and informal methods to acknowledge and appreciate the prosocial actions of employees within the sector by giving feedback, praise, recognition, bonuses or incentives. Workplace flexibility refers to a set of practices and policies that allow employees to have greater control over when, where, and how they work. It's a response to the changing nature of work and the recognition that one size does not fit all when it comes to employees' needs and preferences. Workplace flexibility can take various forms, including: Telecommuting, job sharing, flexible work hours.*

Keywords: *workplace flexibility, telecomputing, job sharing, flexible work hours, prosocial behaviour.*

Published by: Africa Research Corps Network (ARC�)

in Collaboration with: International Academic Journal for Global Research (iajgr) Publishing (USA)



Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

© 2023. OKPEVA TEGA OVONOMO & B. CHIMA ONUOHA. This is a research/review paper, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial 4.0 Unported License <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/3.0/>, permitting all non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Due to individual differences that exist amongst people, it is important that in the work environment, empathy for one another is of paramount concern to enhance productivity amongst workers. Prosocial actions are those taken with the intention to assist others. Concern for other people's rights, feelings and welfare underpins these behaviours. Empathy and compassion are

categorised as prosocial. Social scientists have long struggled to understand prosocial behavior. Researchers try to understand why people participate in helping activities that are expensive for the person doing the activity but helpful to others (Kendra Cherry 2022). Prosocial behavior includes a wide range of actions such as helping, sharing, comforting in the workplace, prosocial behavior can have a significant impact on team psychological safety, as well as positive indirect effects on employee's helping behaviors and task performance. Empathy is a strong motive in eliciting prosocial behaviors are "Voluntary actions that are intended to help or benefit another individual or group of individuals" (Eisenberg & Mussen, 1989). By fusing the concepts of personal psychological flexibility and prosocial conduct in work groups or the organization, ACT Curious emphasizes that prosocial at the place of work fosters efficient cooperative behavior in any group. When people decide to act in a way that benefits other people, work groups, or the company, this is referred to as prosocial conduct in the workplace. Prosocial behavior at work lead to greater productivity. Prosocial behavior at work includes helping others in their day-to-day work, sharing knowledge and ideas, volunteering for new roles, doing things behind the scenes to help other people excel, mentoring and selfless leadership.

However, the nature of workplace has great influence on the prosocial behavior of the workers. The workers tends to be more efficient and productive in a conducive environment where they are shown some level of affection. According to Peng Xiaoping et al. (2019), prosocial conduct can foster innovation at the corporate level and is advantageous to employees' working attitudes, performance, and career success. The best setting for assessing prosocial conduct in people is the workplace, particularly in the public sector. Empathy and care for the wellbeing of others have a role in prosocial conduct (Eisenberg and Miller 1987; Carlo et al 1996). Workplace flexibility embraces the idea that employees may be productive regardless of when or where they do their jobs. Instead of maintaining a fixed workplace environment or timetable, office flexibility accommodates individual needs and creates a better work-life balance and employee well-being.

Workplace flexibility is no longer seen as a passing trend but rather as a key component of desires for a healthy work-life balance, particularly among younger generations (Matos & Galinsky, 2014). The public sector looks to be at risk of losing the fight in the competition for highly skilled and highly educated individuals (Benest, 2008). States have committed to various coping measures in response to ongoing demographic and socioeconomic changes (Christensen & Schneider, 2011; Matz-Costa & Pitt-Catsouphes, 2009; Liebowitz, 2004) and the impending human capital crisis. For instance, in 2004, California became the first state to introduce a paid family leave policy (Appelbaum & Milkman, 2004; Rossin-Slater, Ruhm, & Waldfogel, 2013); Vermont legislated a process whereby employees can request flexible work arrangements for any reasons at least twice per year; and other states have their own workplace accommodation laws (Kulow, 2012). Studies have shown that workplace flexibility has not been well implemented and rarely transformed governmental institutions, but plays out at most on the margins (Kim & Wiggins, 2011; Lewis, 1997; Newman & Mathews, 1999). What causes flexibility in state workplaces is a subject that has yet to be resolved. And what distinguishes some from others? A distinction must be drawn between workplace flexibility and their access (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Glass & Finley, 2002; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999), according to previous research (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Hayman, 2009; Shockley & Allen, 2007). Offering workplace flexibility may be important, but it may not always be enough to bring about the desired changes. Positive results

(i.e., improved performance, more dedication) can only be seen when employees have access to flexibility alternatives (Eaton, 2003; Richman, Civian, Shannon, Jeffrey Hill, & Brennan, 2008; Wood & de Menezes, 2008). More research points to the social construction, facilitation, and restriction of employees' access to workplace flexibility by their work setting (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Behson, 2002; Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002, 2004; Christensen & Schneider, 2011).

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

During the pandemic, it became necessary for the public sector to adopt flexible method of getting the job done. In order to improve the work-life balance of employee, it's important to adopt new strategies that can get the job remotely done. These strategies to be adopted are acquisition of modern technological equipment such as laptops, iPad, Andre phones and training of the workers to be able to adjust to working remotely. The public sector which were not exposed to the use of modern technology in getting the job done had challenges during the COVID-19.

According to Kelly, Moen, and Tranby (2011), Moen & Sweet (2004), and Roehling et al. (2001), the rigid and demanding workplace requirements that pay little attention to other needs in life are giving way to a more balanced perspective that emphasizes the harmony between work and life. This perspective calls for efforts to restructure the workplace to be more flexible and accommodating. Flexibility in working hours can improve work-life balance and employee satisfaction, but it can also have unfavorable impacts like isolation, stress, burnout, or overwork. People who work at various hours or places could feel distant from their coworkers, management, and the company. Additionally, managing their time and energy as well as drawing boundaries between their personal and professional lives may be challenging for them. Some workers cannot work without supervision, they need the guidance and direction of a superior in getting the job done.

LITERATURE REVIEW

SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY

Social Exchange theory was developed by Geory Homans, a sociologist. It first came to existence in Homans essay on "Social Behavior as Exchange", in 1958. Homan conducted a study on small groups, and he initially believed that any society, community or group was best seen as a "social system". To study that social system, it is first necessary to look at an individuals created. In the course of the study, of small groups, Homans saw the reward and punishments accorded to members of the group from the group and other members. He originated a framework of elements of social behavior such as interaction, sentiments and activities. These elements all had to be considered regarding a groups internal and external systems. He used this framework to study several groups, he was able to publish in his first book "The Human Group". Apart from Homans, other sociologists and other professionals have advanced social exchange theory. Instead of emphasizing behaviorism, Peter Michel Blau concentrated his theory on ideas like preferences, interests, indifference curves, and supply and demand. Modern interpretations of social exchange theory that emphasize power dynamics draw on both men and women.

According to the social exchange theory, people decide by weighing the benefits and drawbacks of a situation or course of action, whether consciously or unconsciously, with the goal of maximizing their reward. This theory focuses on interpersonal interactions; it is not intended to assess behavior or social change. The social exchange hypothesis states that a person will assess the benefits of a social contact against its costs. These expenses and benefits may be tangible, such as money, time, or a service. Intangibles such as effort, social acceptance, love, pride, humiliation, respect, opportunity, and power are another possibility. In a conversation or a relationship, everyone wants more than they provide. People leave relationships when the costs outweigh the benefits. But when a relationship offers sufficient benefits, they stay in it. People anticipate equity in exchange, which is another facet of social exchange theory. People are upset when they don't receive an equivalent compensation for the same expenditures they have incurred.

However, in social exchange theory, people tends to make comparisons often unconsciously. They compare their relationship to their expectations, previous similar relationships. But if someone doesn't have healthy relationships to compare to, they might continue to pursue unhealthy or unsafe relationships.

THE EMPATHY ALTRUISM HYPOTHESIS

The empathy-altruism hypothesis is a theory in social psychology that suggests that empathy leads to altruistic behavior. According to this hypothesis, individuals feel empathy for others in distress, and this emotional response motivates them to help, purely for the well-being of the other person, even when there is no apparent benefit to themselves. The empathy-altruism hypothesis states that feelings of empathy for another person produce an altruistic motivation to increase that person's welfare. The empathy- altruism hypothesis states that empathic concern produces altruistic motivation (Batson 1987, 2011). To understand this deceptively simple hypothesis, it is necessary to be clear about what is meant by both empathic concern and by altruistic motivation.

Empathy Concern

The most frequently reported potential basis of altruistic motivation has long been an other-oriented emotional response brought on by and consistent with the perceived welfare of a person in need. Pity, compassion, kindness, and sympathy are just a few of the titles given to this feeling that is focused on the welfare of others. It entails feeling with the other, not for the other. Empathy is the name given to this other-focused feeling in social psychology (Hoffman, 1975; Krebs, 1975; Stotland, 1969). We use the terms "empathic concern" in addition to "empathic emotion" to underline that the concern at issue is a reaction to another person's suffering. There are many different emotions that make up the constellation of empathy. It encompasses sentiments of pity, compassion, tenderness, sadness, grief, and sorrow as well as anger, upset, and distress. Fourth, empathetic concern is other-oriented in that it is motivated by feelings of worry for the other person, including feelings of sympathy, compassion, regret, discomfort, and concern. Although sympathy and compassion are intrinsically other-focused emotions, we can also experience grief, anguish, or concern that is not directed toward another person, such as when something negative occurs to ourselves directly. Feeling guilty or depressed, angry or

distressed, agitated or distressed, worried or saddened are all examples of these feelings that are both other- and self-oriented. This range of usage breeds uncertainty. The emotional distinction is not what makes the significant psychological distinction. The important psychological distinction is determined by the person whose wellbeing the emotion is focused on, not by the emotional label that is utilized. Is one unhappy, distressed, worried about the other, or is one feeling this way because of what has happened to them—possibly including the experience of witnessing another person suffer? The term "empathy" has recently been used to refer to a variety of occurrences other than the feeling-for describe events.

Altruistic Motivation

Altruism and egoism's motivating conceptions of "ultimate" focus on means-end relationships rather than a metaphysical first or ultimate cause or biological purpose. A final objective is a purpose unto itself. An auxiliary objective, on the other hand, serves as a stop along the path to an ultimate aim. Alternative paths to the ultimate goal will be sought if a hindrance to achieving an instrumental aim occurs. The motivational power will vanish if the ultimate objective is attained without achieving the instrumental goal. A aim that is ultimate cannot be avoided in this manner (Lewin, 1938). Unintended consequences are outcomes of an action—foreseen or unforeseen—that are not the purpose of the action. They have to be separated from both intermediate and long-term objectives. Egoism and altruism have many characteristics. Each makes reference to a state of motivation, each is concerned with the ultimate objective of this state of motivation, and for each, the ultimate objective is to improve someone's wellbeing. The framework for showing the significant variance is provided by these shared characteristics. Whose welfare—that of another or one's own—is the ultimate objective?

As a helpful action, not as a drive. Some academics ignore the question of motive, just equating generosity with expensive prosocial conduct. Developmental psychologists frequently use this term. Altruism has also been often used by evolutionary biologists to describe conduct that lowers an organism's reproductive fitness, or its capacity to pass on its genes to the next generation, in comparison to the reproductive fitness of one or more other species. According to this approach, evolutionary scientists may discuss altruism in a very broad genealogical range, encompassing social insects and humans (Alexander, 1987; Dawkins, 1976; Hamilton, 1964; Trivers, 1971; Wilson, 1975). However, as Sober and Wilson (1998) have noted, it is crucial to make a distinction between psychological and evolutionary benevolence. Behavior that lowers one's reproductive fitness is referred to as evolutionary altruism. Psychological altruism is motivation that has as its main objective enhancing the welfare of others. It is emphasized by Sober and Wilson that there is no required relationship between these two ideas. Psychological altruism cannot be produced just through evolutionary altruism. Psychological altruism is a topic covered by the empathy-altruism hypothesis.

THE ATKINSON FLEXIBLE FIRM MODEL

John Atkinson in 1984 developed the Atkinson flexible firm model. In addition to helping to create a framework for comprehending workplace flexibility, Atkinson's approach is significant in merging the various forms and aspects of flexibility (Atkinson 1984). The flexible firm model combines functional, numerical, and financial flexibility by using a workforce made up of core,

peripheral, and a number of other 'outside' workers who are not employees of the organization but provide their basic or essential services (Reilly 2001). According to Atkinson (Atkinson, 1984), the three main types of flexibility that successful firms should pursue are functional, numerical, and financial flexibility. Functional flexibility refers to an individual's capacity to handle a variety of tasks and transition between employment, such as through multi-skilling (Dilworth 1996). Employers can adapt to shifting workloads, production techniques, and technology with this strategy. Numerical flexibility is the ability to adjust staffing levels or the number of hours each employee works in response to shifts in demand (Dilworth 1996). Financial adaptability refers to a company's capacity to modify employee expenses in reaction to external labor market supply and demand. Financial flexibility facilitates the goals of functional and numerical flexibility (Dilworth 1996). It also entails a departure from uniform compensation structures. It is aimed towards performance-based systems that are more individually tailored.

However, Atkinson (Atkinson 1984) has offered a perfect model of the completely flexible organization. Such an organization would employ a core group of workers who were largely permanent in number. The core team would be made up of full-time employees who would carry out the important tasks and duties for the business (Atkinson 1984). The periphery groups are located close to the core workforce. Peripheral groupings come in two different varieties. Workers with permanent contracts who also have less career opportunities and less job security make up the first category of peripheral groups. Part-time employees, job sharers, and employees with short-term contracts make up the second category of peripheral groups (Atkinson, 1984). The flexible firm model alone is not sufficient to describe the changes that have been consistently observed and experienced in organizations, according to experiential study (Proctor et al. 1994). Researchers that have disputed Atkinson's approach have generally agreed that the theoretical distinction between core and peripheral employees appears to be unfounded (Proctor et al. 1994).

WORKPLACE FLEXIBILITY

Workplace flexibility refers to a set of practices and policies that allow employees to have greater control over when, where, and how they work. It's a response to the changing nature of work and the recognition that one size does not fit all when it comes to employees' needs and preferences. Workplace flexibility can take various forms, including:

Flexible Work Hours: Employees may have the option to adjust their start and end times, enabling them to accommodate personal commitments, commute during off-peak hours, or work when they are most productive.

Telecommuting or Remote Work: Employees can work from locations other than the traditional office, such as from home or a remote location. This can reduce commute times and expenses and improve work-life balance.

Flexibility in the workplace is viewed as a crucial characteristic of modern organizations. Organizations that lack flexibility in their working environment are simply at a greater risk of failure given the ongoing changes in the business sector. In addition to tactics centered on

modernization and knowledge of shifting market conditions, pressures from both local and international competition, significant financial events, and technological advancements have all influenced organizations to look for greater flexibility and productivity (Gilgeous 1997). When workplace flexibility strategies are successful, they increase productivity, job satisfaction, employee well-being, which in turn boosts profitability and success in the competitive market . Therefore, developing such strategies is crucial for any organization (Gilgeous 1997). When creating workplace strategies and attaining a company's long-term objectives, flexibility plays a significant role (Torrington et al. 2007). The study objectives are to examine the relationship between workplace flexibility and prosocial behavior in the public sector in Delta state, to place more emphasis on how it enhances employee recruitment and retention, to examine and discuss the advantages that workplace flexibility provides for both employers and employees as well as how it ultimately contributes to the success of any business. Based on this study, the article will highlight the value of creating a flexible workplace for everyone involved in the organization, including senior managers, shareholders, and directors, as well as the employment. and attentive to the client's requirements, which are constantly changing (Hill et al. 2008). According to studies, workplace flexibility reduces a company's vulnerability to internal and external risks. The investment in software and technology, which makes it even simpler for any organization to adapt to being flexible, is another crucial element in the success of a company (Nieman & Bennett 2006). The development of technology has had a significant impact on how businesses are conducted. With improved access to the internet, it has made carrying out jobs, activities, administration, and financial work more efficient and effective as well as less time-consuming.

Benefits of Workplace Flexibility

For the majority of organizations, having a flexible workplace is the key to future success. However, given the current business climate and the ongoing advancement of technology, is having a flexible work environment more advantageous than disadvantageous? How exactly can having a flexible workplace benefit both firms and employees? Dickens (2005) lists the following as advantages/benefits for employees:

Dickens (2005) states that for the employer, the benefits include the following:

- An increase in productivity: Working in a flexible workplace encourages employees and the majority of companies to be more efficient and productive in their work practices.
- An improvement in work-life balance: Many employees in today's huge corporations strive to fulfill both job and personal obligations. Flexibility in the workplace helps employees be more successful and efficient in both their personal and professional life.
- Improves job satisfaction for employees: As employees are more adaptable to meet their responsibilities and are motivated to work harder and more creatively, they become more confident and motivated to perform to the best of their abilities.
- Flexibility in the workplace demonstrates that the demands of the employees are taken into account, which in turn fosters employee loyalty, trust, and respect.
- Having a flexible workplace increases the retention of the permanent employees; organisations get to retain experienced and valuable employees. They become less likely to leave or search for work elsewhere.

- Minimizes absence and turnover: A flexible workplace decreases the stress level of employees, stress that is often caused by trying to meet their job and family commitments at the same time. Flexibility enables them to develop a greater sense of well-being, and look forward to going to work each day.
- With workplace flexibility, organizational resources are matched more closely with customer/product demand.
- A flexible workplace attracts highly qualified expertise that become keen to share their experience and knowledge in the company.
- A flexible workplace results to greater profits and a higher market share, due to the hard work and dedication of its employees.
- Employers get to save in recruitment costs, and minimize the fixed labor costs, such as office space, fuel, etc.
- Of course, to every advantage, there is always a disadvantage. The major disadvantages of flexible patterns are the following (Stredwick & Ellis 2005):
- Often, there is a need of a specialized management team for the flexible workforce in organizations.
- Training costs often increase when implementing workplace flexibility.
- There is an increase in complexity in administration.
- Communication also gets affected; it tends to become difficult because of the segmentation of the workforce.
- Workplace flexibility often creates tension amongst the diverse categories of workers due to uneven treatment in terms of pay.
- Workplace flexibility increases job insecurity, especially for the part-time workers.

REMOTE WORK

Remote arrangements became common place during the COVID-19 and became vital tools for the continued functioning of society, the economy and all levels of government. These agreements made it possible for businesses to continue operating, for thousands of workers to maintain their employment, and for the public sector to keep supplying residents with necessary products and services. The epidemic has significantly altered how public sector workers conduct their business, particularly in the federal government where a wide range of positions don't necessitate direct contact with the general people. Remote work is an attribute of flexible working condition where an employee can work from any location using technology to stay connected. The Delta State government has embrace the global trend where the application of modern technology is now currently been utilized to get the job done. Through telecommuting, employees can be able to adjust to the current work-life balance. Telecommuting is working from a location other than the office, often their homes using technology to be connected. With the COVID-19 pandemic, research on telecommuting entered a new dimension. Despite research addressing new ways of working in the public sector during the last twenty years, it has been cautious about implementing telecommuting, but the COVID-19 pandemic forced it to implement telecommuting too. The experiences gained by employees in public sector organizations during COVID-19 represent a valuable resource for public sector organizations to engage in organization. Telecommuting is a form of work that aims to provide flexibility and also leads to the dissolution

of traditional spatial, temporal or organizational boundaries of work. The International Labor Organization describes telecommuting as employees who use ICT tools to perform their work at home or in another location out-side of the employers' premises, and that telecommuting lends itself particularly to those occupations where work can be carried out autonomously, with little direct supervision and where worker scan be managed based on results. Telecommuting has been denied as regular work using ICT done at a location other than the ordinary flexible place of work, and distinguished between: (i) full-time at home; (ii) commuting-based work undertaken partially at home; (iii) mobile work at a variety of locations other than home or the ordinary workplace so the worker flexibly moves around flexibly while still being in real-time communication and able to access the facilities they need, and (iv) work in telecentres (shared work-spaces) as alternative, normally suburban-based, locations closer to where the teleworker lives (Noella.et.al 2021).

JOB SHARING

Job sharing in the workplace enhances flexibility that allows two or more employees to share the responsibilities of a single full-time position. It provides employees with the opportunity to balance work and personal life commitments, while also allowing organizations to retain valuable talent and promote diversity and inclusion. Here are some references and citations related to job sharing as a dimension of workplace flexibility. Jennifer (2023) suggested that Companies may use the tactic of job sharing to distribute the duties of a role among numerous team members. You may get ready to work together in a way that helps you, your job share partner, and your company to thrive by understanding how job sharing works and its advantages. The option to design a flexible work schedule is one of the most important advantages job sharing offers to employees. By splitting up the work between two persons, you can finish your project faster. It also makes scheduling time off from work simpler since you are certain that your partner will take care of your duties while you are gone and that you will return the favor.

Job sharing, according to Bliss and Thornton (2010), allows two employees to complete the duties of a full-time job by trading shifts. This was created to address the problem of occupations that couldn't be split into two part-time ones. It enables businesses to continue to employ people full-time while still utilizing their skills (Gliss, 2000). According to Branine (2003), job sharing enables two individuals to switch off between different tasks. Each employee works half-time, so one may come in in the morning and the other might come in in the afternoon. The staff must, however, possess complimentary talents (Kossek & Lee, 2005). The advantage of using this type of flexibility is that it allows employers to draw into employees' abilities and expertise in a single position. sharing knowledge; relieving staff while they are gone; People who job share are still able to work full-time (Miller, 2007). Finding a compatible spouse is the biggest challenge. The arrangement could not function if the job sharers are not compatible. The issue of overhead expenditures is also brought up by staff salary, training expenses, office supplies, and equipment. This structure may make managers uneasy since it gives them more supervisory responsibilities. In certain industries, job sharing is not particularly frequent. Only 11.1% and 15.8% of respondents to Miller's 2007 poll of the Counsellor Education Forum reported having ever shared a job. Its expense, managers' difficulties in oversight, difficulties in hiring and retaining responsibility are some of the factors contributing to its unpopularity.

PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

Prosocial behavior has been used as a term since the 1970s and is the antonym of antisocial behavior. Prosocial behavior builds relationships and helps the society function effectively. According to Eisenberg and Mussen (1988), it can be defined as voluntary actions that are intended to help or benefit another individual or group of individuals. Dave Cornell (2023) posited that Prosocial behavior refers to actions that are intended to help others without expecting anything in return. These behaviors can be motivated by empathy, moral values, or a desire for social Approval. Prosocial behavior is a voluntary act that is meant to benefit the needs of another person, group, or society. The requirements of the individual receiving assistance may be crucial, emotional, or resource-related. Therefore, being prosocial can assist someone in achieving a goal, meeting an emotional need, or providing a crucial resource. The act must be performed without thought of gaining any reward. This is important because when we perform an action in exchange for a benefit, it ceases to be totally prosocial and, in some ways, it ceases to be entirely voluntary. Prosocial behavior comes in many forms. It has been an integral part of human civilizations for thousands of years. Even interspecies rescues have recorded instances of prosocial behavior. People can perform acts of kindness that range from assisting the elderly with their shopping to spending hours helping a buddy load large items onto a truck. The desire to assist others remains the same. One individual, a group of people, or even an entire culture might be seen as those others. In psychology, prosocial behaviors are moral rather than immoral actions that promote social cohesion and harmony.

Prosocial actions are ones that aim to benefit others. Concern for the rights, sentiments, and welfare of others underpins these activities. Prosocial behaviors involve caring about other people and empathetic feelings. A wide range of behaviors are categorized as prosocial behavior, including assisting, sharing, consoling, and collaborating. Social scientists first used the phrase in the 1970s as an alternative to the term "antisocial behavior."

Benefits of Prosocial Behavior

In addition to the obvious good that prosocial actions do for their recipients, these behaviors can have a range of beneficial effects for the "helper":

Effects on mood: Studies have revealed that prosocial activity increases a person's likelihood of feeling happier.¹ Additionally, helping others makes people less likely to have bad emotions.

Benefits of social support: Having social support might be essential for getting through challenging situations. According to research, social support may significantly benefit a variety of areas of wellbeing, including lowering the risk of depression, alcohol use, and loneliness.²

impacts on lowering stress: Studies have shown that prosocial conduct reduces the damaging emotional impacts of stress.¹ Perhaps one of the best ways to lessen the effects of stress in your life is to help others.

Types of Prosocial Behavior

While prosocial behavior is often presented as a single, uniform dimension, some research suggests that there are different types. These types are distinguished based on why they are produced and include:

Proactive: These are prosocial actions that serve self-benefitting purposes.

Reactive: These are actions that are performed in response to individual needs.

Altruistic: These include actions that are meant to help others without any expectations of personal gain.

Additionally, research suggests that these various prosocial acts are frequently motivated by various causes. Proactive prosocial behavior, for instance, was found to frequently be driven by status-related objectives and popularity within a group. On the other hand, altruistic prosocial acts were more closely associated with being liked by peers and attaining common objectives. Through a system that enables the employees to evaluate themselves through feedback reports, recognition, etc., prosocial conduct among public sector employees in the study's focus region of Delta State is proven. Giving feedback, kudos, recognition, bonuses, or incentives to employees who have demonstrated prosocial behavior within the industry is one way, both official and informal, to show your appreciation for their efforts.

OBSERVATION

People learn through observational learning by seeing others and then copying or modeling what they do or say. As a result, models are people or things that exhibit the mimicked behavior (Bandura, 1985). Prosocial conduct can occasionally have an impact on people, especially in the public sector where employees can easily interact with one another at work. In the natural sciences, observation is the act or instance of observing or experiencing something, as well as the gathering of data from a primary source, according to Wikipedia. Observation of living things makes use of the senses. Using scientific tools to perceive and record data is another way that observation may be used in science. A workplace observation's goal is to spot safe behaviors, promote them, and get rid of hazardous ones. A manager or other skilled worker should do a safety observation. Management must be dedicated to having a proactive safety policy that works, and staff must take part in inspections and observations.

Workplace observation is a method of learning and evaluating skills, behaviors and conditions in the work environment. It can be used for various purposes, such as identifying and reinforcing safe behavior, eliminating unsafe behaviors, conducting a training needs assessment, resolving an employee complaint, or ensuring quality production. Workplace observation can be performed by supervisor, a trainer, a co-worker or an external evaluator. Once you make the decision to pay attention to what makes others happy and irritates them, you can build positive relationships with everyone at work. The work setting is when having good observational skills is crucial. Utilizing all five of your senses to notice, evaluate, and remember your environment is known as observation talent. Because it teaches you to be observant of the little things in life, this practice is frequently

linked to mindfulness. Communication, emotional intelligence, critical thinking, and attention to detail are some examples of observation skills.

Examples of Observation Skills

Observation skills are dependent on several other abilities and attributes, such as:

Communication

The capacity to attentively listen is perhaps one of the most crucial components of good communication. When you have this ability, you can pay attention to the person speaking, understand what they're saying, and answer in a suitable and considerate way. By observing the speaker's verbal and nonverbal clues, such as voice tone and facial expressions, you may do this. You may participate in the discussion and remember its specifics as a consequence without having to ask the speaker to repeat anything. Active listening makes your verbal and written communication more accurate in addition to enhancing your interpersonal connections and talents.

Emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence is a talent that involves being able to assess and control your own emotions as well as identify and understand the emotions of others. Although connecting with others and forming lasting connections is this skill's main advantage, it also serves as a potent instrument for observation. Understanding people's emotional states can help you decide how to engage with and react to those around you.

Critical thinking

Your capacity for critical thought greatly affects your capacity for observation. It takes objectivity to see problems and create workable solutions while using critical thinking, which is the capacity to examine context and evidence to fully comprehend a topic or situation.

Attention to detail

The capacity to approach and complete tasks with correctness and thoroughness is known as attention to detail. This ability is essential for good observation since it enables you to notice minute things and modify your behavior accordingly. It also plays a significant part in productivity.

CONCLUSION

This study conveys that workplace flexibility can enhance the prosocial behavior in the public sector in Delta State as the government has provided every necessary technology to the employees to ensure that the employees don't need to be at the work environment to get the job done. However, it is necessary for every employee to embrace this work-life balance to ensure efficiency in service delivery and ensure that everyone is carried along. Empathy and compassion are the attributes of prosocial behaviour, in the workplace and observation is a means of learning and evaluating skills, behaviours and conditions in the work environment. The Pandemic expose the public sectors to the adoption of the current trend of globalization in the world. The Delta

State government, after the pandemic made available to employees a conducive working environment by building a modern secretariat to accommodate the training of employees to be acquitted with the modern technologies and to ensure flexibility at the workplace. The Researcher observed a more accommodating nature of employees in the public sector, as a result of the present working environment

However, the fact that workplace flexibility is now included into every entrepreneurial activity worldwide makes it such an irreversible trend in organizations. All senior managers of organizations around the world who are still unfamiliar with the concept should absolutely be advised to acquaint themselves and gather as much knowledge as they can before starting to adopt it in their workplace. It is a master tool for having a strong workforce. The reality is still based on the fact that time has changed over the past decades, the corporate world and industries have changed, and we are now observing how the proliferation of flexible working is changing the business landscape, even though there are still some "traditional" companies that have enjoyed corporate success for many years without having workplace flexibility.

REFERENCES

- Appelbaum, E., & Milkman, R. (2004). Paid family leave in California: New research findings. University of California Institute for Labor and Employment. Berkeley, CA: University of California Institute for Labor and Employment. Retrieved from <https://escholarship.org/uc/item/7nd169hs>
- Baughman, R., DiNardi, D., & Holtz-Eakin, D. (2003). Productivity and wage effects of "family-friendly" fringe benefits. *International Journal of Manpower*, 24, 247-259.
- Beauregard, T. A., & Henry, L. C. (2009). Making the link between work-life balance practices and organizational performance. *Human Resource Management Review*, 19, 9-22.
- Behson, S. J. (2002). Which dominates? The relative importance of work-family organizational support and general organizational context on employee outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 61, 53-72.
- Benest, F. (2008). Retaining and growing talent: Strategies to create organizational "Stickiness." *Public Management*, 90(9), 20-24.
- Blair-Loy, M., & Wharton, A. S. (2002). Employees' use of work-family policies and the workplace social context. *Social Forces*, 80, 813-845.
- Blau, P.M (1964). Exchange and power in social life. Transaction Publishers
- Blair-Loy, M., & Wharton, A. S. (2004). Organizational commitment and constraints on work-family policy use: Corporate flexibility policies in a global firm. *Sociological Perspectives*, 47, 2
- Bliss, W., & Thornton, G. R. (2010). Managing flexible work arrangements. Retrieved from <http://www.shrm.org/TemplatesTools/Toolkits/Pages/ManagingFlexibleWorkArrangements.aspx>

Branine, M. (2003). Part time work and job sharing in health care: Is the NHS a family friendly employer? *Journal of Health Organization and Management*, 17(1), 53-68.

Christensen, K., & Schneider, B. (2011). Making a case for workplace flexibility. *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 638, 6-20.

Cook, K. S., & Emerson, R. M. (1978). Power, equity and commitment in exchange networks. *American Sociological Review*, 63(6), 597-606.

Cook and Emerson's research extended the theory to address power dynamics and commitment within exchange networks.

Eisenberg, N. (1992). *The caring child* (Vol. 28). Harvard University Press.

Eisenberg, N., & Mussen, P. H. (1989). *The roots of prosocial behavior in children*. Cambridge University Press.

Learning, S. (2003). Altruism and prosocial behavior. 5, *Personality and Social Psychology*, 463

Homans, G. C. (1958). Social behavior as exchange. *American Journal of Sociology*, 63(6), 597-606.

George Homans' work on the social exchange process significantly contributed to the development of Social Exchange Theory.

Peter Blau's book discusses the role of power and exchange in social interactions, further expanding upon the principles of Social Exchange Theory.

Kim, J., & Wiggins, M. E. (2011). Family-friendly human resource policy: Is it still working in the public sector? *Public Administration Review*, 71, 728-739.

Kodz, J., Harper, H., & Dench, S. (2002). *Work-life balance: Beyond the rhetoric*. Brighton: Institute for Employment Studies.

Kossek, E. E., Lautsch, B. A., & Eaton, S. C. (2006). Telecommuting, control, and boundary management: Correlates of policy use and practice, job control, and work-family effectiveness. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 68(2), 347-367

Kulow, M. D. (2012). Legislating a Family-Friendly Workplace: Should It Be Done in the United States. *Nw. JL & Soc. Pol'y*, 7(1), 88-115.

Lewis, S. (2001). Restructuring workplace cultures: The ultimate work-family challenge? *Women in Management Review*, 16, 21-29.

Lewin, K (1938). The conceptual representation and measurement of psychological forces. *Duke University Contributions to Psychological Theory*, 1, 4, 247.

Liebowitz, J. (2004). *Addressing the human capital crisis in the federal government: A knowledge management perspective*. London: Routledge.

Lonti, Z., & Verma, A. (2003). The determinants of flexibility and innovation in the government workplace: Recent evidence from Canada. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 13, 283-309.

Matos, K., & Galinsky, E. (2014). *2014 National Study of Employers*. New York, NY: Families and Work Institute.

Matz-Costa, C., & Pitt-Catsouphes, M. (2009). Workplace flexibility as an organizational response to the aging of the workforce: A comparison of nonprofit and for-profit organizations. *Journal of Social Service Research*, 36, 68-88

Miller, S. (2007). Study attempts to dispel five myths of job sharing. Retrieved from http://www.shrm.org/Publications/HRNews/Pages/XMS_021497.aspx

Raskirat Kaur (2019). A review on prosocial Behavior: Social psychology. *Regional Institute of Management and Technology*. DOI: 10.13140/RG.2.2.35397.91360.

Rossin-Slater, M., Ruhm, C. J., & Waldfogel, J. (2013). The effects of California's paid family leave program on mothers' leave-taking and subsequent labor market outcomes. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 32, 224-245.

Saltzstein, A. L., Ting, Y., & Saltzstein, G. H. (2002). Work-family balance and job satisfaction: The impact of family-friendly policies on attitudes of federal government employees. *Public Administration Review*, 61, 452-467.

Shockley, K. M., & Allen, T. D. (2007). When flexibility helps: Another look at the availability of flexible work arrangements and work-family conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 71, 479-493.

Sober, E & Wilson. D.S. (1998) *Unto others: The evolution and psychology of unselfish behavior*. Harvard University Press. *American Psychological Association*.

Kelley, H. H., & Thibaut, J. W. (1978). *Interpersonal relations: A theory of interdependence*. Wiley.

Cherry, K. (2022). Article on the Basics of Prosocial Behavior. Behavioral psychology. *Verywell mind online journal*.

Thibaut, J. W., & Kelley, H. H. (1959). *The social psychology of groups*. Wiley. This seminal work by Thibaut and Kelley laid the foundation for Social Exchange Theory by introducing concepts like Comparison Level and Comparison Level for Alternatives