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HUMAN CAPITAL MANAGEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT – ITS THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

Nirali Pandit

Post-Doctoral Fellow, ICSSR at B.K. School of Professional and Management Studies, Gujarat University, India

ABSTRACT

The journey of the theories related to management of people begins with the terminologies that include personnel management, which moves on to human resource management, strategic human resource management, talent management and has finally halted at human capital management. It encompasses many evolutions resulting in changing practices and broad perspective. The current paper focuses on the expanded meaning of human capital. It digs into the theoretical foundations of human capital and human capital management practices that are adopted by the firm. In order to clarify the deeper meaning of human capital management, these practices have been deliberated upon from individual level focus as well as organizational level focus. Finally, the paper concludes with identifying gap related to human capital literature and link of human capital theory with management practices.

KEYWORDS: *Human Resource Management, Human Capital, Human Capital Management, Human Capital Management Practices, Human Capital Development*

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INTRODUCTION

The bygone days of personnel management starts around the 19th century, when the concept of officers of welfare had just begun. They used to be mostly females and perturbed about the protection of other females. Their establishment used to be a rebound to the brutality of conditions of the industry, along with burden coming via the wing of franchise, the impact of trade unions and the movement of labour, and the drive of workers, often Quakers, was known as ‘industrial betterment’. As it expanded, some stress arose between the aim of safeguarding morals of females & kids along with the requirement for more output.

This increasing role of personnel management with changing target of the organization towards more output resulted in employees being treated as a resource. Human Resource (Human Resource) is a product of the movement of human relations of the early 20th century, when scholars started writing down methods of building trade value by strategically managing of employees. This was initially manipulated by transactional work such as benefits administration and payroll, but because of global reach, consolidation of the company, advancing technology, and detailed research, HR then targeted strategical initiatives like acquisitions, mergers, talent management, succession plan, industrial and labour relations, and diversity and inclusion.

It was noticed that previously reviewed literature related to Human Resource Management (Sheth 1992) study takes Human Resource Management as a function that “covers all the conventional areas of personnel management and industrial relations and relatively new areas like communication, counselling, training and development and job enrichment”. In studies related to pooled interdependencies (Thompson 1967) and synergy realization (Porter 1985), it has been advised that “horizontal” human resource management practices such as personnel rotation between the departments or job profiles or trade units, few firm-wide role in hiring and training, promotion from inside, cross-business unit forums and meetings, and education in inter-relationship concepts can be of use in reducing the above organizational barriers to synergy-realization.

In the middle of incrementing growth and global reach, the effect & outcomes on Human Resource Management for companies working in the area at the base level seems to be acute & prevalent. The growth and global reach of companies in Asia with the transformation of Human Resource Management in the area were two sides of the same thing. As organisations in emerging economies grew at the pace of 20–50 % in turnover per annum, the capacity to retain, develop, attract and engage extraordinary skilled people to back the growth of the organisation while also giving a rise to their advantageous edges in services, innovation, or quality showed amongst the best challenges of business not just for Multinational Multinational Corporations, but also for locally private owned and state-owned firms (Yeung et al., 2008).

Systems of Human Resource Management were all similar to the Asian region, as multiple represented changes of the ones that were found in North America or Europe. Many Human Resource practices were also taken from the West Human Resource through Multinational Corporations of the West or Japan, media, of Western business and schools then broadcasted to locally operated firms (DiMaggio & Powell in 1983). As the Asian organisations got global in trade operations, they got more responsive to following(or copying) practices of Human Resource Management from the Multinational Corporations of the West or Japan or else getting pressure from other partners or the parent firms for adapting to more progressive or systematic practices in their current methods of managing people(Bjorkman & Lu, 2001).

But no previous research about Human Resource practices, defines Human Resource practice or philosophy that is open to the force of global convergency, (For example, “hard” tools like Human Resource systems of information, pay-for-performance compensation tool, training programs design, and selection tools) from such which prove to be more susceptible to differences and cultures of multiple countries(for example, those “soft” tools like performance management, coaching and mentoring, and people management styles).

However, economic, political and cultural differences influenced changes to suit the domestic conditions thus making them creatively original. Important trends around “*universalism* and *globalization*” (Rowley & Benson, 2004; Warner, 2002) also included use of Human Resource Management practices not seen before, few Human Resource functions renamed their personnel department to Human Resource department and firms made efforts to eventually convert those departments from “old-school personnel and administrative works” to “business-driven and strategic-oriented” Human Resource activities. (Zhu & Warner, 2004).

As companies in Asia grew rapidly and took rapidly hostile global aspirations (Yeung, 2004), the supposition of Human Resource functions to make a more proactive role also increased. The problems of managing talent were very critical while developing when demand for extraordinary talent had higher supply due to both rapid economic growth and few talent inventories in place (Goodall, Warner, & Lang, 2004). Additionally, shortage of talent possessing the necessary skills, knowledge, and experience, firms in Asian countries suffered the issues of employee mentality & mind-sets changing to be based on performance (rather than “egalitarian-oriented”), focussing on clients along with creating a better sense of integrity (rather than taking advantage of grey areas or unethical behaviours for short-term gains).

As companies in Asia kept on growing in both size and complexity, Human Resource employees had no other option than to change Human Resource activities from operational and administrative orientations to business and focus strategically to pay attention to key Human Resource challenges to manage and maintain talent and to create a performance-based culture. Both the forces of growth and globalization have great pace for changes in Human Resource Management in Asia at both country and corporate levels. For example, few studies about Chinese firms resulted in the equipping of career enhancement chances in locally owned private firms and Sino-foreign ventures were just like wholly foreign-owned companies, however more than that in state-owned firms (Gong and Song, 2008) and key Human Resource practices were qualified to increase the motivation & incentives of the people, that resulted in better financial performance in SOEs (Ngo et. al., 2008). Because the climate of organizations became a source of competitive sustainable advantage for companies, Human Resource managers in transitional Asian economies gave more weightage to management of the employee relations within their firms (Ying Zhu et. al., 2016). Thus, Human Resource Management is consistently evolving in Asian, in the transitional economies like Vietnam & China. This transformation of Human Resource Management is taking it ahead to the conceptualization of the term 'human capital' which has its base in the theory of economics, the terminology 'human capital management' is a recently evolved concept from human resource management.

MEANING OF HUMAN CAPITAL

In layman's terms, it is the total of each feature that sums the economic measure to an individual's product. It also involves a person's identity in the field of social skills, personality, work ethic, creativity, knowledge in specific areas and work skills in particular fields. All this adds up to find what an individual is able to produce in economic work, and by what they will be able to contribute to the economy. As societies are often taken by an interest in its importance and obtaining that value has become the only key focus in multiple countries around the world.

Managers often see the result of the business by how well they are able to assess, manage and maintain the human capital. If it happens well, their business shall prosper. If it does not, then their business shall be unable to face the competitors and might as well fail. To assess human capital for an organisation, one must begin with checking what all attributes are required to bring the expected result. For example, for a steel mill, physical strength and industriousness are key, but at an advertising agency, creativity and insightfulness are more valued. All of these are aspects of human capital that managers must consider while making hiring decisions.

Places where consumers have attained increasing importance in terms of knowledge about their likes and dislikes and communication, it portrays the technical skills, knowledge, creativity, and experience of the firm, gets highlighted, thus workers are taken as productive assets and not just high costing assets (Hendricks, 2002).

Human capital refers to knowledge, education, work competence, and psychometric evaluations (Namasivayam & Denizci, 2006). Features of human capital include creativity and innovation (Daft, 1998), knowledge and skill (Nerdrum and Erikson, 2001; Smith, 1910; Thomas et al., 1996; Bukowitz & Williams, 1999; Nonaka & Reinmoeller, 2000; Teece, 2000; Drucker, 1993; Bontis, 1998), value added (Armstrong, 2008), competitive advantage (Armstrong, 2008; Groves, 2002) and increasing customer satisfaction from the organization (Zeithmal, Berry, and Parasuraman, 1996; Yoon, & Suh, 2003; Gonzalez & Garazo, 2006).

MEANING OF HUMAN CAPITAL MANAGEMENT

"Human capital management process is planning, employee seeking, placement, employee satisfaction, maintaining reward, and retirement. This process involves some activities such as leadership, management practice, learning capacity, workforce optimization, knowledge accessibility and talent management. While, human resource activities like recruitment, selection, training and development, information system, collaboration go well with creating human capital activities."

It focuses on attracting, developing, motivating, and retaining people. It also includes organizational functions of attributes like performance appraisal, career management, training, reward and recruitment. Human capital management is also related with employee commitment, retention, talent management, learning and personal development, organizational learning, capability, transformation, leadership, employee engagement, performance management for making human capital to achieve organizational competitive advantages.

It has been called as "a strategic approach to people management that focuses on the issues that are critical to an organization's success" and "the possession of knowledge, applied experience, organizational technology, customer relationships and professional skills that gives a company with a competitive edge in the market"(Hartley & Robey, 2005).

THEORETICAL FOUNDATION FOR HUMAN CAPITAL AND HUMAN CAPITAL MANAGEMENT

Literature related to human capital has been reviewed from various angles. Human capital literature was found to focus at an **individual level (micro-foundational level)** that studied the knowledge, skills, abilities and other characteristics (KSAOs) of an individual that can add up to organizational level capabilities. Another dimension studied in human capital literature was how **collective/organisational-level practices affect** micro-level human capital (Aryee et al 2016, Eldor and Harpaz 2016).

INDIVIDUAL LEVEL FOCUS

Even though the skills & knowledge are attributes in human beings, they have not been recognized as capital always. Only in the latter half of the previous century they were recorded as a kind of capital.

Schultz (1961) debated that both - knowledge and skills are a "form of capital." he defined human capital as "a set of knowledge, skills, and abilities that are inside the individual and that are used by him/her."

Furthermore, Becker (1964) created the human capital theory that can be traced in macro-economic development theory too (Mincer 1962b, Becker 1993) and was found to be based on neoliberalism (Gershon, 2011), and classical liberal thinking (Martin, 2000). Neoliberalism idealises a worker as autonomous in such a way that it can be managed and used as a business, classical liberalism also recognized the same as a human resource, subject to particular forms of employment while macroeconomic development theory proposes labour not just as one of the factors of production (Mincer 1962b, Becker 1993), but that factor of production that is also contributing to growth of the economy (Schultz 1961). Thus, human capital theory says that people's capacities of learning and grasping are comparable values along with other resources involved in the production of goods and services (Lucas 1990) and also that the adoption of neoliberal ideas will result in zeroing the distinctions between the person as a professional human resource and the person as a private person (Brown, 2006; Foucault, 2009; Mirowski, 2013). So, human capital theory was also found to be built on Foucault's (2007, 2008) focuses on "neoliberal government" and on the creation of such works in particular by sociologists such as Rose (1999,

2007) and Dean (1995, 1999). The theory defines workers that are managing their lives and selves as human capital on their own, i.e., as resources that are aligned with corporate values of activity, self-control and constant improvements. Thus, as per human capital theory, the traditional distinction (made by "neoliberal mentalities and techniques of government in the developed world") between leisure & work, between professional skills and personalities, lifestyles have started to fade so that the person has become a kind of capital that must be managed on their own for the sake of their employability.

Thus, HC theory says that "people who invest in education and training (Becker, 1964) will improvise their skill level and be more productive than those who are less skilled, and it also fuels the idea that employees' knowledge and skills can be improved through investment in education or training, that is, learning" (Grant 1996a, Hatch and Dyer 2004). Irrespective of who invests in education, training, development and learning, benefits are generally enjoyed by both the employee and the organization (Becker 1964). However, the organization generally seeks incentives to invest in employee development in the form of employee retention and may be nil employee turnovers, post training (Pigou, 1912). Here is where Becker (1964) also says that human capital is not replaceable because the training gained is generally firm specific, which cannot be duplicated in another organization format. For the new format, a new type of training will be required by employees. And for general skills, the employee himself/herself invests in learning and development, so that they become high on employability. Thus, individuals would have the correct incentives to improvise their skills because, in competitive markets, they are the only beneficiaries of the improvements in their productivity (Acemoglu and Pisces 1999). All in all, the idea is that employees pay for general training and learning opportunities as an investment with anticipation that it will generate higher future wages, irrespective of the firm they are working in. While, firms generally invest in firm-specific training to keep their investments safe and limited to their own firms.

However, all these past researches related to the management of people and human capital theory, have declined to consider experience (despite its importance for employers) as a measure of human capital (Oliveira and Da Costa, 2014). There is hardly any clarity found on the role of informal training/informal learning that employees gain by experimenting on the job (Barron et. al., 2007). Further, the original human capital theory also ignores the role of non-cognitive (behaviours, mindsets, attitudes, learning strategies and social skills) abilities or skills that can affect the output of human capital. For example, "an individual may be cognitively strong, but if they do not have the resolve to attend training sessions within the organisation, they will never be able to use their full potential. In this sense, factors such as self-efficacy, grit, motivation, self-control, resilience, optimism, hope and the ability to work with others become imperative to the success of employees in organisations" (Heckman and Rubinstein 2001, Luthans et al 2007, 2008, Avey et al 2010a, West et al 2016). Additionally, the calculation of non-cognitive abilities is becoming a major issue within firms as well (Avey et al 2010b). Kanfer's 1990 publication says, "The 3 types of noncognitive Knowledge, Skills, Abilities and Other characteristics are personality, values, and interests comprise such personal characteristics as conscientiousness and preferences for multiple educational majors and professional occupations. Noncognitive KSAOs are stable through adulthood and, as a result, exert a lifelong impact on the types of situations and experiences one decides to engage in and the kinds of social relationships one develops and maintains."

Thus, from a theoretical point of view, Becker's theory emphasised on education and training, human capital theory on general and firm-specific training, Spence (1973) on unobserved ability of workers or unobserved attributes of the job candidate (Weiss, 1995), Schultz (1961) and Nelson and Phelps (1966) on capacity to adapt in changing environments, and so on. For example, Schultz, and Nelson and Phelps propose that the HC of the workforce is a crucial factor facilitating the adoption of new and more productive technologies.

Contemporary literature at the micro-foundational level of human capital discusses the role of employee training (Schmidt 2007, Jones et al 2012, Bapna et al 2013), opportunities for learning (Armstrong 2014, Davim 2014) and career management (Gaffney 2005) in the development of human capital. Contextual factors at organizational level surrounding human capital include positive psychological capital (Badran and Youssef-Morgan 2015, Luthans et al 2008) and employee engagement (Byrne 2015), strategies for attracting, deploying and retaining talent. Thus firms investing in employee training, opportunities for learning, employee development and career management, improving non-cognitive abilities (Kautz et al 2014), employee motivation (Elliot and Covington 2001) and employee engagement (Maslach et al 1997, Schaufeli et al 2002), employee creativity (Eldor and Harpaz 2016) and employee innovation (Antons and Pillar 2015), talent management (Dowell 2010) in the form of internal recruitment and employee succession (Fuller and Huber 1998), external recruitment (Hatch and Dyer 2004, Ready and Conger 2007, Collings 2009, Taylor 2014), talent development and deployment (Benson et al 2004, Taylor 2014), talent retention and reward (Hagen Porter 2011, Cascio 2006) are the aspects reviewed as contemporary literature at micro-foundational level of human capital.

Some relevant studies measured the impact and antecedents of HC on employee and firm performance. For example, Rich et al (2010) measure the impact of employee engagement on task performance and employee citizenship behaviour.

ORGANIZATIONAL LEVEL FOCUS

Munro (2012), Fleming and Spicer (2004) and Maravelias (2015) refer that “All the theories at individual level suggest that Human Capital (HC) have a key role in contemporary HC theory. But, it is also imperative to note that individual-level change initiatives such as employee empowerment and flexibility play a key role in overall organisational change. And recently these individual-level initiatives have also started to be applied within management and organisation studies. So, it is necessary to review how individual-level constructs can link to unit-level resources.”

Management practices in firms are becoming parts of a new form of managerial control of workers that concern not just employees’ work but their life as well, treated as potential human capital. The main focus of human capital theory is to impact of unit-level resources on best practices and competitive advantage (Hatch and Dyer 2004, Ployhart et al 2014 and Brymer et al 2014). Human capital theory covers the Resource Based View (RBV) of the firm (Penrose 1959, Barney 1991), capability and Dynamic Capability View (DCV) of the firm (Priem and Butler 2001, Mahoney and Kor 2015, Subramaniam and Youndt 2005) and also the Knowledge Based View (KBV) of the firm (Kogut and Zander 1992, Cohen and Levinthal 1990, Grant 1996a, Spender 1996), which basically ascertains how human capital is conceptualised alongside social and organizational (structural) capital (Ployhart et al 2014). So, these perspectives interweave to potentially create a knowledge advantage for organizations.

Human capital at firm level relates to leadership, talent management, firm structure, firm culture and change management. While, dynamic capability view (DCV) perspective (Schultz 1961, Nelson and Phillips 1966) relate to change management and role of leadership in firms, the knowledge-based view (KBV) has a strong focus on the role of organisational climate and structure. Both these perspectives together facilitate human capital development and competitive advantage.

RBV is said to bring competitive advantage to the firm through its valuable, rare, imperfectly imitable resources.

DCV helps the firm to gain competitive advantage by having employees equipped with experiential knowledge, systems and routines, capabilities, shared knowledge of the firm's employees collectively, trust within the members and the firm's organisational culture, and knowledge about the key factors and stakeholders of the firm. It can be gained through increased skill diversity and flexibility **(**Eisenhardt et. al., 2010), ('agility-based' metrics)**.** Dynamic capabilities can be developed with developing problem-solving skills, investments in on-the-job training that enhances employee knowledge.

KBV covers intellectual capital, social capital, structural capital and innovation capital. KBV encourages competitive advantage through absolute (communication) and indirect (application) knowledge, inviting interactions among people for knowledge-sharing and creation, create knowledge routines, combining of complex and co-ordinated patterns of behaviour, share best practices through indirect knowledge, knowledge creation by congregation and transfiguration of that knowledge (social processes) and create the spiral of knowledge. KBV, and its subset, IC, place great emphasis on the creation, combining and measurement of intangible knowledge assets (Grant 1996a, Nonaka and Takeuchi 1995, Edvinsson and Malone 1997). It is a good fit for the principles of HC management (Becker 1975) and the conditions necessary for the development of firm-specific capabilities (Mahoney and Kor 2015).

Nonaka (2007) brings importance about that "new knowledge always starts with the individual, with examples involving an employee who has years of experience to come up with a new process innovation, or a manager's intuition about market trends which results in the development of a new product concept (absorptive capacity (knowledge-creation and problem-solving, ability to value, assimilate and apply new knowledge)). This idea is then shared amongst employees and management (social capital) and, if the idea is worthy enough, it is implemented throughout the organisation (structural capital). Employees gather more knowledge by job rotation and crossing internal social network boundaries."

Absorptive capacity (intellectual capital) can be calculated by organisation's past records of R&D Investments (Cohen and Levinthal 1990, Nicholls-Nixon and Woo 2003, Kor and Mahoney 2005), employee experience, employee on-the-job training record, past R&D expenditures and opportunities for internal and external learning, opportunities for job rotation, decision-making, cross-functional collaboration and knowledge-sharing (for example the number of cross-functional teams) (Jansen et al 2005, Hsu and Wang 2010, Vidal-Salazar et al 2012).

Opportunities for learning may involve working with big team and star employees, calculating the number of internal and external workshops employees attend annually, while the job rotation may involve the number of times an employee has taken part in new job roles (Nonaka 2007).

Organisational results can be calculated by the number of employee suggestions successfully implemented (Tucker and Singer 2012).

Human capital targets on how knowledge is made; social capital plays a role on spreading (social capital) of knowledge while structural capital uses knowledge to create systems and high performance. Tortoriello (2015) discovered that an organisation's social networks can be used to help facilitate employees' absorptive capacity.

Similarly, Grigoroiou and Rothaermel (2014) found that "companies with integrators and connectors (that is, relational stars) in the network have a knowledge advantage to the quantity and quality of innovative outputs. The involvement of integrators and connectors (social networkers) in the firm's internal networks is necessary for firm innovation. It encourages a climate of collaboration and knowledge-sharing at the organisational level. Smith (2006) finds that commitment-based Human Resource practices (for example training, compensation and selection) are positively related to organisational social climates of trust, co-operation. These measures are related to the firm's capacity to change and combine knowledge, which in turn increased sales growth and revenue from latest products and services. Donate et al (2016) finds that the using interrelated, collaborative Human Resource Management practices, like work autonomy, empowerment, broad job design, teamwork and group-oriented incentives, are related to a company's level of social capital. Politis (2003) said that it is important to make a climate of trust amongst employees for knowledge acquisition. The measurement of this trust level among employees is very necessary, and corporate leadership also has a major role to play in it. Srivastava et al (2006) and Liu and DeFrank (2013) finds that constructive leadership, such as transformational and empowering leadership, can lead to an innovation climate, which increases subordinate knowledge-sharing."

In fact, employee-level human capital initiatives also help unit-level resources and capabilities (RBV and DCV), to use competitive advantage.

Structural capital (diversity and equality management systems-DEMS) uses knowledge to develop systems and high performance.

For example, developing a culture of diversity and equality by diversity training and monitoring, recruitment, pay and promotion across minority or other disadvantaged groups leads to innovation. It is because in an equal workplace, employees from different races communicate with each other regularly, and interaction barriers are eliminated, resulting in greater knowledge-sharing, or that employees from different cultural backgrounds can give new ideas based on their own experiences (Armstrong et al 2010). Cox (2001) recommended that a diverse firm can have more success in attracting talented employees and finds that the effective management of diversity can create a competitive advantage based on the factors of cost, the recruitment of these employees, creativity and innovation, market success and organisational flexibility. Structural capital involves team structures (Han et al 2014) that provides HC, social capital, knowledge-sharing and creativity. Team structures are now present in many organisations as they spread knowledge assimilation and combination, knowledge-sharing, knowledge application and, the creation of social capital (Liu 2014). Team-based structures enable knowledge co-specialisation and the creation of indirect knowledge (Campbell et al 2014). According to Al-Alawi et al (2007), who tested the critical success factors of knowledge-sharing, increasing the level of participation in decision-making and decreasing the boundaries between organisational levels can enable vertical information flow, thus, a flat structure is best for knowledge-sharing.

Innovation capital (technology) is of utmost importance to competitive advantage (Toh 2014). Innovation capital explains how R&D activities can cause an employee's grasping capacity (Kor and Mahoney 2005). Knowledge transformation, organisational databases and data depositories can play a key role in the internalisation of new knowledge (Nonaka and Takeuchi's 1995). Use of internet telecommunications also helps the interactions of human and social capital; for example, a company's intranet platform can help in knowledge-sharing (Chu and Chu 2011). Applications (apps) are also being used to track employee psychological states, thereby aiding HC well-being (Barsade and O'Neill 2016) and there are apps also facilitating e-learning and self-directed learning (Stephan et al 2016). Use of technology has taken control over daily tasks can also have implications for worker interaction and job roles. Augmenting the current organisational knowledge base can facilitate the development of HC (employee knowledge) and the creation of new patents (organisational knowledge) (Breitzman 2009).

Thus, the resource-based view (RBV) and dynamic capability perspectives (DCV) highlights the need for the growing focus on human capital in the firm performance and competitive advantage. The theory of dynamic capabilities (DCT) marks the importance of employee adaption and being able to respond to constantly evolving customer and industry demands in times of uncertainty and strategic change. Knowledge-based perspective (KBV) highlights that it is imperative for management to look at the interactions between human, social and structural capital along with innovation capital.

Thus, Human Capital Management (HCM) is an approach to employee staffing that takes people as assets (human capital) whose current value can be measured and whose future value can be increased through investment. Human resource is a general term used to represent the people element within organizations. The question is how to translate human resources into human capital and finally into human investment. It can be said that Human Capital is a well employed human resource that is engaged in meaningful, worthwhile work and delivers some level of desired productivity.

CONCLUSIONS

Meaningfully, human capital plays an imperative role in the development of people, resulting in a better life and income, increasing knowledge, skill, and product capacities, economic growth and reducing poverty (Pasban, 2016). Since employees and individuals have used human capital to their job, they get their investment reward from human capital through salary, benefits, job satisfaction, and more learning opportunities along with promotion. These achievements allow families and governments to invest a large part of their resources in education and training human force.

Human capital theory origin only discussed how individual-level KSAOs form unit-level resources (Ployhart and Moliterno 2011). But it ignored the link between individual-level HC and firm-level capabilities. It does not answer how does job rotation impact operating flexibility? How does employee creativity/innovation impact sustainability performance? What human metrics are employed within lean organisations, agile organisations, innovative organisations and sustainability-focused organisations? Further, there is no past work related to results that examine which firms are employing lean operating strategies, service strategies, or innovation strategies in order to identify the utilisation of HC metrics or how HC initiatives can impact organisational performance over time (longitudinal perspective).

Examining how unit-level resources impact human capital development also has limited research. Areas related to - how does technology (structural capital) enable human and social capital or is e-learning technology aiding employees in their development, or is technology actually replacing employees in certain industries or how is technology aiding HC measurement or are apps useful in measuring aspects of employees' day-to-day routines is under-researched.

One more gap in the literature concerns the use of teams as enablers of human and social capital in the pursuit of organisational outcomes. More research is needed in the areas of cultural diversity and equality in the make-up of teams or employing team leadership as a control variable in studies relating to team creativity.

Other gap related to human capital literature is role of job design in employee engagement and employee retention, role of human capital in organizational change and adaptation, examining human capital to link employee health and employee well-being to firm performance. Thus, there is a lot more space for contribution towards human capital management and its development.

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