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Research Paper

Examining the Influence of Demographics on Job Performance: A Study of Indian IT Professionals

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ABSTRACT

The present research explores the association of demographic characteristics such as gender, income, age, marital status, years of work experience, and the educational qualification with job performance of IT employees in India. Based on Human Capital Theory, Role Theory, Life-Span Developmental Theory, and Social Exchange Theory, study adopts the quantitative approach and was conducted through a survey using structured questionnaires administered to lower and middle management professionals working in top IT companies of India. The findings indicate that income, educational qualification, and work experience affect different aspects of job performance whereas gender, marital status and age have little or no significant influence. These findings argue for a fundamental shift in terms of how we conceptualize performance management, moving away from demographic based assumptions to being centered around individual competencies and the contextual factors involved. Transformational factors outlined are fairness in workplace practices and developmental interventions such as performance rewards, formal learning, and mentorship. The results provide HR practitioners and policy makers with insights into improving recruitment, training and performance appraisal methods. By investigating the role of demographic characteristics, the study provides a more nuanced view based on performance in terms of understanding of the workforce in the context of the rapidly changing Indian IT industry.

Keywords: *Employee Performance; Human Capital Theory; IT Professionals; Job Performance; Life-span Development Theory; Social Exchange Theory; Work Experience; Workplace Practices*

For many years job performance represented the focal point of organizational effectiveness, with direct implications for outcomes such as productivity, innovation, and competitive advantage (Campbell, 1990). The term performance, which was traditionally used as just an outcome of the job, is now considered a multi-dimensional concept encompassing task performance, contextual performance, and adaptability (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993; Sonnentag and Frese, 2002, 2021). Campbell's (1990) model illustrates this complexity by highlighting different dimensions of performance and the factors that influence it, such as knowledge, motivation, ability, and the organizational

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environment. In addition to this, Murphy's (1994) model also provides more specificity along some of these dimensions, including lessons such as downtime and destructive behaviors. Though there are solid theories that present good frameworks for measuring performance, aspects related to the impact of demographic variables like age, gender, education, years of work experience, income & marital status etc., on the job performance have been understudied, especially in the context of specific high-growth industries like information technology (IT). This sector, according to NASSCOM (2023), has also continuously employed more than 5.4 million people in the past 5 years, and has accounted for about 7.5% of the Indian GDP. The acceleration of the sector can be explained by international outsourcing patterns, strong performance, as well as the recent technologies including artificial intelligence (AI), Internet of Things (IoT), and cloud computing etc. India currently ranks 3rd globally in the installed base of cloud talent and 2nd in artificial intelligence and machine learning talent. In this changing context, additional requirements are technical skills as well as adaptability, resilience and social-emotional skills, which are very much in line with the task and contextual performance dimensions (Future of Jobs Report, 2023; Manyika et al., 2017). Despite the growing importance of the sector and changes in the nature of job performance, very few studies have attempted to investigate the role of demographic characteristics in the execution of job performance in the context of Indian IT professionals. Existing studies either general populations studies or are focused on variables, such as motivation and job satisfaction, which are not framed into a wide theoretical scope. There is a specific need to investigate how demographic characteristics like age, education, income and marital status affect task and contextual performance in this industry. This is especially important as the IT industry is rapidly changing, therefore, constant reskilling, upskilling and high levels of adaptability are needed.

Human Capital Theory (Becker, 1964) offers a basic explanation at the individual level where the investments in education and experience lead to increased knowledge and productivity. Ng and Feldman (2009) are in line with this perspective as they found that education level positively affects performance. Income likewise is a performance status indicator as well as an incentive. Similarly, Role Theory (Kahn et al., 1964) posits that gendered and marital societal expectations influence behavior and outcomes in the workplace and has been found to have implication for perceptions of competence and role conflict (Joshi et al., 2015). Life-Span Developmental Theory (Baltes, 1987) describes the role of age and experience in shaping cognitive, emotional, and social processes over the lifespan, which impact performance. For example, younger workers may be more adept at technical skills while older workers may bring superior judgement and problem-solving skills (Ng and Feldman, 2008). Lastly, Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964) emphasizes reciprocal workplace dynamics, suggesting that perceived fairness and recognition influence employee motivation and, consequently, performance outcomes.

Despite the fact that these theoretical viewpoints provide insightful analysis, there is still a dearth of empirical implementation of them in the Indian IT sector. The majority of research on job performance is either sector-neutral or ignores the complex and interdependent effects of demographic factors on task and contextual performance. Furthermore, Western organizational contexts have frequently been given priority in the literature that has already been written, which restricts the applicability of the findings to culturally different contexts like India. Given the continuous digital transformation and changing skill requirements, there is a glaring research gap in the systematic examination of how demographic factors affect job performance in India's IT sector.

This study fills a gap by looking at how demographic variables relate to job performance, defined as task performance and contextual performance, among lower and middle management employees in top IT organizations in Delhi NCR and Chandigarh. Using Campbell's (1990) multidimensional model of job performance, the study combines ideas from Human Capital Theory, Role Theory, Life-Span Developmental Theory, and Social Exchange Theory. This approach offers a solid theoretical and evidence-based understanding of how demographic traits affect employee performance in the Indian IT industry. Because of the high risk of obsolescence among IT workers and the growing need for digital skills, this study adds to academic literature while also providing practical insights for organizational policy, talent management, and workforce development. Understanding how demographic variables affect performance can help organizations create more focused interventions, such as personalized training, inclusive HR practices, and fair reward systems.

Theoretical Underpinning: Job Performance and Demographic Variables

Job performance has long been a focal construct in organizational behavior and industrial-organizational psychology. It is typically defined as the extent to which an employee effectively executes the duties and responsibilities associated with their role (Campbell, 1990). Understanding the determinants of job performance is crucial for organizations seeking to enhance productivity and align employee efforts with strategic objectives. Among these determinants, demographic variables—such as age, gender, education, work experience, income, and marital status—have garnered increasing attention due to their influence on individual differences in workplace behavior and outcomes. Human capital theory is well suited as a foundational explanation of the effect of demographic characteristics on job performance. Based on Becker (1964), this theory states that every person invests in their education and in their experience because through these experiences and skills they improve their productivity and value for the labor market. Educational attainment has a direct effect on one's knowledgebase and cognitive abilities as it is likely that more educated individuals are more knowledgeable and skilled, causally leading to better job performance (Ng and Feldman, 2009). In the same way, income can be used as a measure for an outcome of increased productivity, and a driving force for continued high performance. Role Theory provides additional insight into the impact of societal role expectations, which, in my study, pertains to demographic roles like gender and marital status and their effect on behavior in the workplace. In this way Kahn et al. (1964) proposed that individuals incorporate social norms that are associated with their roles and which can influence behavior and performance within organizations. Issues such as gender roles will also determine attitudes toward competence, the availability of opportunities, and the roles that should be pursued. In other contexts, performance of the same job by men and women can differ based on a variety of factors including organizational culture, societal norms, and marital status (Joshi et al., 2015), all of which are likely to impinge on employee access to social support, work-family balance, and role conflict versus role congruence. In addressing the role of age and experience in job performance, the life-span perspective provides another useful approach to the problem.

Baltes (1987) defines human development as focused on continuous, lifelong processes in individuals that affect their physical, cognitive, and socioemotional functioning. Younger employees may have more up-to-date technical skills, as well as more flexibility, while older employees tend to possess vast amounts of tacit knowledge, judgment, and problem-solving abilities that are accumulated through experience (Ng and Feldman, 2008). These variations indicate that the influence of age and experience on performance is likely to be complex and

probably mediated by characteristics of the job and the broader organization of the work. The Social Exchange Theory also offers insights to shed light into the specific link between demographic characteristics and job performance. Arguing that work relationships are bi-directional, this theory posits that when employees feel that their qualifications and efforts are justifiably considered and compensated, they will react by developing higher levels of commitment resulting into excellent job performance. On the other hand, perceived inequity related to income, or level of education, for example, might result in disengagement or reduced motivation (Blau, 1964). Collectively, these theories highlight the role of demographic characteristics in affecting job performance through various processes such as human capital accumulation, social role internalization, life course development, and organizational exchange perceptions of fairness. Collectively all these perspectives draw a clear picture of how demographic characteristics influence employee behavior and performance, and serves to inform existing empirical studies as well as apply to organizational practice.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Job Performance (JP) and Age

Research on age and job performance reveals a complex, often curvilinear relationship rather than a simple decline with age. Many studies show performance remains stable or follows an inverted U-shape, peaking between ages 35 and 50 when experience, maturity, and cognitive capacity converge (Ng & Feldman, 2008; Heil, 1999; Skirbekk, 2004). While adaptability and learning new skills may decline with age, older workers excel in reliability, organizational citizenship, safety compliance, and task-specific knowledge (Ng & Feldman, 2008; Cole, 1979).

Experience consistently predicts performance more than age itself (Avolio & Waldman, 1990). However, perceptual biases and stereotypes can disadvantage older workers despite comparable outcomes (Liden et al., 1996; Gordon & Arvey, 2004). Job complexity, structured training, and age-responsive HR practices mitigate declines and enhance engagement (Kooij et al., 2013). Age diversity impacts organizational performance variably, potentially boosting innovation but also increasing discrimination risks (Kunze et al., 2011). Overall, age alone does not determine performance; its effect is shaped by experience, task demands, perceptual biases, organizational support, and motivational factors (Skirbekk, 2008). Overall, these findings challenge the notion that aging inherently leads to reduced productivity. On the basis of above empirical research studies, following hypothesis has been proposed.

H_1: There is significant difference in Job Performance across different age groups of IT professionals.

Job Performance (JP) and Gender

Research on gender differences in job performance shows mixed findings, with evidence that men and women perform at similar levels but face different evaluation processes and career outcomes due to gender bias (Green et al., 2009; Roth et al., 2012). Women often receive lower performance ratings despite equal or superior performance, particularly in male-dominated workplaces, due to gender stereotypes and higher standards applied to them (Bowen et al., 2000; Heilman, 2004). This bias extends to leadership roles, where women face barriers such as the "backlash effect," unequal pay, and limited advancement despite demonstrated competence (Eagly et al., 2003).

Gendered evaluations also influence perceptions of skills: women often excel in emotional intelligence and interpersonal competencies but are undervalued in male-oriented industries that prioritize measurable productivity (Dhani & Sharma, 2017). Public service sectors and expatriate contexts reveal similar patterns, with women showing strong performance yet encountering bias and restricted opportunities (Bhatti et al., 2012). These biases contribute to systemic inequalities, reinforcing underrepresentation of women in senior leadership despite evidence of comparable or superior job performance (Bowen et al., 2000; Green et al., 2009; Kulich et al., 2011). In light of the results from the aforementioned empirical research, the following hypothesis has been developed.

H_2: There is significant difference in Job Performance of male and female IT professionals.

Job Performance (JP) and Income

Research indicates a complex relationship between job performance, income, and employee attitudes. Job performance is multidimensional, with only certain aspects significantly affecting earnings (Lee & Nagaraj, 1988). Performance-related pay (PRP) attracts higher-ability workers and increases productivity, leading to wage rises of 9% for men and 6% for women (Booth & Frank, 1999). Job attachment and income satisfaction positively influence performance, with income satisfaction having a stronger effect (Suhariyanto et al., 2023).

Compensation structures play a vital role in shaping productivity. Booth (1999) found PRP improves productivity, though gender differences reflect variations in monitoring costs. McCausland et al. (2005) observed that PRP raises job satisfaction for high-paid employees but reduces it for low-paid employees. Kurniawan (2024) also noted that promotions and bonuses strongly correlate with performance, though PRP can demotivate when perceived as unfair. Witt (1990) highlighted that equitable pay enhances satisfaction and performance, particularly for low-income workers. Jalagat (2016) further emphasized the reciprocal link between motivation and performance, suggesting a feedback loop driven by job satisfaction.

Remunerations motivate regardless of immediacy, with effects varying by skill level (Franceschelli et al., 2010). Wage differentials shape self-evaluation and performance, with higher-paid workers perceiving themselves as more skilled (Stewart, 1992). For low-wage workers, PRP enhances engagement and skill development (Koffarnus et al., 2013). Herpen et al. (2003) showed that PRP design directly affects satisfaction, motivation, and performance.

Overall, income—especially when linked to performance—plays a crucial role in job performance. However, its impact depends on sufficiency, fairness, and intrinsic motivation. Properly designed PRP schemes can enhance satisfaction, motivation, and productivity.

H_3: There is significant difference in Job Performance across different income groups of IT Professionals.

Job Performance (JP) and Work Experience

Research consistently shows a significant relationship between work experience and job performance. Experience enhances performance primarily through its effects on job knowledge and work sample performance (Schmidt et al., 1986; Quiñones et al., 1995). However, this relationship is not linear. McDaniel et al. (1988) emphasize that the strength of the correlation varies by job complexity and length of experience, with stronger effects observed for less cognitively demanding jobs and workers with low mean experience levels.

Experience contributes to skill mastery, problem solving, and higher performance over time (Ilham, 2022). Yet, the type of job and conditions of experience also matter. Motowidlo et al. (1994) argue that experience is more strongly tied to task performance, while contextual

performance is influenced by personality traits. Similarly, Avolio and Waldman (1990) note that job type moderates the experience–performance link. While generally positive, prior experience may sometimes hinder performance via socio-cognitive mechanisms, such as overreliance on outdated knowledge (Dokko et al., 2009). Tesluk et al. (1998) further highlight the multidimensional, dynamic nature of work experience.

Other studies underline the importance of moderators such as motivation, organizational context, and quality of experience. Sneed et al. (1987) found that quality of work experience predicts performance better than duration alone.

At the managerial and organizational level, early career experience shapes long-term success (McEnrue, 1988), and prior industry or management experience predicts firm performance (Dyke et al., 1992). Experience has also been shown to influence performance across sectors including SMEs, bureaucracies, and service industries (Simatupang et al., 2019).

Overall, work experience enhances job performance by building task-specific knowledge and skills, but its effects are moderated by individual, organizational, and contextual factors. Based on the findings of the aforementioned empirical studies, the following hypothesis has been formulated.

H_4: There is significant difference in Job Performance across the groups of IT professionals based on the work experience.

Job Performance (JP) and Educational Qualifications

The relationship between educational qualifications and job performance has been widely studied, yielding both supportive and divergent findings. Many studies confirm a positive influence of education on performance. Higher qualifications have been linked to improved task and contextual performance in tourism, academia, and administrative sectors (Rebeeca, 2024). In accounting, both academic and professional certifications enhance performance, particularly when combined with experience (Ishola et al., 2018). Broader meta-analyses also support that education improves task performance, citizenship behaviors, and reduces counterproductive work behaviors (Ng & Feldman, 2009). Education interacts positively with experience and training (Kotur & Anbazhagan, 2014) and can indirectly boost performance via job satisfaction (Tamara et al., 2024). Higher qualifications among leaders, such as school head teachers, have also been tied to organizational performance (Anwar et al., 2022).

Conversely, some evidence highlights inconsistent or negative effects. Overqualification and contextual misalignment may reduce performance-related behaviors (Ferris, 1982).

Overall, education enhances job performance when aligned with job requirements and supported by complementary factors, but its impact is moderated by individual, organizational, and contextual variables.

Grounded in the evidence provided by previous empirical studies, the following hypothesis is put forward **H_5: There is significant difference in Job Performance across different levels of educational qualifications of IT Professionals.**

Job Performance (JP) and Marital Status

Research on the relationship between marital status and job performance has produced mixed findings. Some studies show that married individuals often perform better at work,

receiving higher performance ratings and more promotions than single employees, particularly in military and similar contexts (Mehay & Bowman, 2005; Kol & Ryu, 2002). Meta-analytical evidence also indicates weak but positive correlations between marital status and job performance, partly explained by reduced family-to-work conflict (Chang & Bosco, 2021). Conversely, other research highlights negative outcomes. Married employees, particularly women, may experience marital stress, household demands, and family-to-work conflict that reduce performance (Aderemi, 2012). In some industries, such as IT, unmarried employees outperform married ones due to fewer family obligations (Padmanabhan & Magesh, 2016).

Importantly, marital satisfaction and quality of relationships appear to be more predictive of performance than marital status alone. Positive marital satisfaction enhances performance through reduced emotional exhaustion and increased engagement, moderated by family-support needs and self-efficacy (Sun et al., 2022). At the same time, workplace biases sometimes disadvantage married women compared to men (Jordan & Zitek, 2012). Overall, marital status influences job performance in complex ways, with effects varying across gender, context, and family dynamics. In light of the results from the aforementioned empirical research, the following hypothesis has been developed.

H_6: There is significant difference in Job Performance across different groups of IT professionals based on marital status.

METHODS

This research focused on executives employed in leading IT companies situated within the Delhi NCR (Delhi, Noida, and Gurugram) and the IT Park in Chandigarh. A two-phase sampling strategy was adopted. Initially, the Delhi NCR region was divided into multiple zones, from which four primary locations—Delhi, Noida, Gurugram, and IT Park Chandigarh—were selected to ensure broad representation. In the subsequent phase, ten top-performing IT firms were shortlisted based on criteria such as revenue generation and market capitalization. To maintain the confidentiality of participants, they were assured that their identities would not be disclosed. The survey was entirely voluntary, with no monetary compensation offered. A structured questionnaire was sent to 865 employees, out of which 508 fully completed and valid responses were obtained after filtering out incomplete or non-responsive entries. This resulted in an effective response rate of 58.72%. The study specifically targeted individuals in lower and middle management positions within the selected organizations. To evaluate job performance, encompassing both task and contextual performance, a 10-item scale adapted from Goodman and Svyantek (1999) and Çalişkan and Köroğlu (2022) was utilized. The scale is divided into two subdimensions: Task Performance (5 items) and Contextual Performance (5 items). Task Performance items included statements such as “I work in a planned and organized manner to complete assigned tasks fully and on time” and “I am eager to develop new skills relevant to my job.” Contextual Performance was assessed through items like “I support and motivate my colleagues to complete their work,” “I stand by my organization even in the face of internal or external criticism,” and “I take pride in being a member of this institution.” Respondents rated their agreement using a five-point Likert scale. The scale exhibited strong reliability, with a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.901, surpassing the acceptable benchmark of 0.7. Additionally, the study examined seven demographic factors: age, gender, monthly income, work experience, education level, and marital status.

Data Analysis

Before beginning data analysis, a preliminary assessment is conducted to ensure that the data is appropriate. To identify and extract unique components, we performed an exploratory factor analysis. The two-step statistical procedure outlined by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) was then applied. The first phase was testing the validity and reliability of the components that were retrieved from the measurement model using a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

Preliminary Analysis

The study employed an empirical research design employing primary data collected through a structured questionnaire. First, Microsoft Excel was used to organize the coded replies, and SPSS (Version 21) was used for analysis. The data set was found to be full with no missing values after a thorough data screening. Skewness and kurtosis were used for the normality assessment, and according to Garson (2012) recommended that, the values were always within ±2. All of the measurement items were put into a single, non-rotated factor in an exploratory factor analysis to see if the possibility of common method bias was present. There was no risk of CMB in the current study, as the one factor only explained 18.5% of the overall variation, which is less than the 50% threshold. Eight items were used to measure Job Performance (JP), and the results were validated in a broader model that also included Emotional Quotient (EQ), the Big Five Personality Traits, adversity quotient (AQ), and intelligence quotient (IQ). The dependability and uniqueness of JP were confirmed by the combined EFA and CFA across all constructs. The JP items in the EFA had strong loadings (> 0.5) and high internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.901$) on a single factor. Factors with an eigen value greater than one is retained for further analysis and the rest are dropped out. Eigen value is a measure used to explain the variance in variables as explained by the factor. With good convergent validity (CR = 0.939, AVE = 0.764) and discriminant validity with other dimensions in the model, CFA results further supported JP's uni-dimensionality.

JP is regarded as a verified, one-dimensional concept for the sake of this study, and any additional analysis will only focus on comparing JP differences with respect to demographic variables.

RESULTS

Descriptives and Inferential Statistics

Table 1: Job Performance (JP) across Gender

Variable	Group	N	Mean	SD	Test	Test Value (df)	p-value	Interpretation
Gender	Male	301	3.7880	0.54560	t-test	t (457) = -1.375	0.170	No significant difference
	Female	207	3.8540	0.52152				

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores between males and females. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in mean scores between males (M = 3.79, SD = 0.55) and females (M = 3.85, SD = 0.52); t (457) = -1.38, p = .170, 95% CI [-0.16, 0.03]. These results suggest that gender does not significantly influence the measured variable.

Job Performance (JP) across Monthly Income group

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA Test for Job Performance (JP) by different Monthly Income groups

Income Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	p	Post Hoc (Tukey HSD)
Low	149	3.38	0.238	314.287	0.000	1 vs 2: p = 0.000 1 vs 3: p = 0.000
Mid	220	3.84	0.261			2 vs 1: p = 0.000 2 vs 3: p = 0.000
High	139	4.20	0.343			3 vs 1: p = 0.000 3 vs 2: p = 0.000
Total	508	3.80	0.419			

ANOVA revealed significant differences in job performance across income levels, F(2, 505) = 314.29, p < 0.001. Tukey's HSD showed that middle-income (M = 3.84, SD = 0.26) and high-income groups (M = 4.20, SD = 0.34) scored significantly higher than low-income (M = 3.38, SD = 0.24), with high-income outperforming middle-income employees.

Job Performance (JP) across employees of different experience groups

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics, ANOVA, and Tukey HSD Post-Hoc Test for Job Performance (JP) by different experience groups

Work Experience	N	Mean JP	Std. Deviation	ANOVA: F	Sig. (p)	Tukey Comparison (I vs J)	Mean Diff.	p-adj	Significant
0–3 Years	183	3.30	0.187			1 vs 2	-0.504	.000	Yes
				1098.65	.000	1 vs 3	-0.998	.000	Yes
3–6 Years	168	3.81	0.193			2 vs 1	0.504	.000	Yes
						2 vs 3	-0.493	.000	Yes
>6 Years	157	4.30	0.210			3 vs 1	0.998	.000	Yes
						3 vs 2	0.493	.000	Yes
Total	508	3.78	0.453						

In Table 3, ANOVA results showed significant differences in job performance across work experience groups, F (2, 506) = 1098.65, p < .001. Tukey's HSD revealed employees with 3–6 years' experience performed better than those with 0–3 years (mean diff. = 0.504, p < .001), while employees with over 6 years outperformed both 0–3 years (0.998, p < .001) and 3–6 years (0.493, p < .001). Overall, job performance increased with experience.

Job Performance (JP) of employees across different educational qualification groups

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA Test for Job Performance (JP) by Educational Qualification

Education	N	Mean	SD	95% CI for Mean	F	p	Post Hoc (Tukey HSD)
Graduate	196	3.493	0.2751	[3.454, 3.532]	198.045	0.000	1 vs 2: p = 0.0001 vs 3: p = 0.000
Postgraduate	262	3.914	0.2957	[3.878, 3.950]			2 vs 1: p = 0.0002 vs 3: p = 0.000
Professional	50	4.284	0.3291	[4.190, 4.378]			3 vs 1: p = 0.0003 vs 2: p = 0.000
Total	509	3.787	0.3883	[3.754, 3.821]			

Table 4 presents ANOVA results showing significant differences in job performance across educational qualifications, F (2, 506) = 198.05, p < .001. Tukey's HSD revealed postgraduates (M = 3.91, SD = 0.30) scored higher than graduates (M = 3.49, SD = 0.28), p < .001, while professionals (M = 4.28, SD = 0.33) outperformed both groups, p < .001. Overall, higher qualifications were associated with higher job performance.

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics and T-test for Job Performance (JP) by Marital Status Group

Variable	Group	N	Mean	SD	Test	Test Value (df)	p-value
Marital Status	Married	257	3.82	0.52	t-test	t (506) = 0.35	0.727
	Unmarried	251	3.80	0.56			

An independent samples t-test showed no significant difference in job performance between married and unmarried individuals, t(506) = 0.35, p = 0.727. The mean difference (0.017) was not statistically significant, with a 95% CI [−0.077, 0.111]. Thus, marital status had no substantial effect on job performance in this sample.

Table 6. Descriptive Statistics, ANOVA for Job Performance (JP) by Age Group

Age Category	N	Mean	SD	95% CI Lower-Upper
Below 30	308	3.84	0.56	3.78- 3.90
30–50	148	3.75	0.51	3.67-3.83
Above 50	52	3.81	0.48	3.68-3.94
Total	508	3.81	0.54	3.76-3.86
F=1.410	**P=0.245**			

A one-way ANOVA showed no significant differences in job performance across age groups, F(2, 505) = 1.41, p = .245. Mean scores were similar: Below 30 (M = 3.84, SD = 0.56), 30–50 (M = 3.75, SD = 0.51), and Above 50 (M = 3.81, SD = 0.48). The overall mean was 3.81 (SD = 0.54), indicating age had no significant effect.

DISCUSSION

The findings maintain that gender, marital status, and age do not have a statistical relationship with performance at work whereas income, work experience, and educational qualification had a significant impact. The first major finding of this study is that gender and marital status did not have a significant effect on job performance. Performance by both male and female workers and those who were married and unmarried was similar. The pattern of results was as would be expected from prior literature that does not find performance to be dependent on an individual's gender. For example, Green et al. (2009) and Roth et al. (2012) found no significant difference in the overall performance between male and female employees. Along similar lines, Kulik et al. (2011) underscored that gender differences in performance evaluations often result from bias rather than from actual differences in performance.

The study also supports the aforementioned finding, indicating that organizational mandates in support of gender equality or non- discrimination may be well received and effectively implemented in the current sample. Similarly, there was no significant difference in job performance between married and unmarried employees as observed by Chang and Bosco (2021). Some studies, like those by Kol and Ryu (2002), have suggested that married

employees might perform better due to reduced family-to-work conflict, but our study did not find this trend. Perhaps the discrepancy exists because the sample in the current study does not perceive such aspects of the family conditions as relevant, given the specific contexts of work environment or family dynamics. The predictive relationship between marital stress and performance was not moderated by gender in the present sample, whereas Aderemi (2012) reported reduced performance in relation to marital stress only among married women. This inconsistency may be due to variations in both the nature of the work and the balance of marital roles between settings. The impacts of income levels and work experience on job performance among employees were all statistically significant in this study. Employees who were more experience and who made more money had performance scores that were much lower. These latter results are in line with Becker's (1993) human capital theory, posits that as individuals acquire knowledge and skills while accumulating experience, they become more efficient and able to deliver better performance on the job. In the same line, studies by McCausland et al (2005) and Booth (1999) have demonstrated that higher income, particularly if linked to productivity-based compensation, can act as a strong inducer to increase productivity and better performance by employees.

Regarding work experience, the results of the current study are consistent with McDaniel et al. (1988) and Schmidt et al. (1986) argument that work experience is able to increase job performance by fostering skills and job knowledge. On top of that, there were clear distinctions in job performance between types of educational credentials, as professional degrees were associated with better job performance skills than post graduates or graduates. This result lends support to the previous findings by Judge et al. (2007), that proposed that education strengthens general knowledge, problem solving, and critical thinking skills, all of which ultimately will increase performance at work. Kurniawan (2024) study represents a good example, where is demonstrated how those who better adapt to complex tasks and environments display better job performances particularly those more educated. These results are in contrast to Sneed et al. (1987) who indicated that performance may not be positively linked to education in particular job-related context. Also, as Beyer et al. (2002) insisted that real world experience and local knowledge might be valued over degrees in certain sectors of the economy, with access to jobs that require technical, rather than educational, skills. Interestingly, no marginal effects were found for job performance at any of the tree age groups, which may mean that employees across all age categories tend to perform similarly. This finding is inconsistent with some prior evidence for age-related differences in job performance. For example, Skirbekk (2004) have stated that older workers outperform younger workers because their experience and knowledge have built up over time. Conversely, our work is more in line with that of Ng and Feldman (2008) and Warr (2020) who have concluded that age has no influence on job performance if contextual factors, such as adaptability, continual training, and support in the work environment, are taken into account. Kanfer and Ackerman (2004) also highlighted that performance decrements associated with aging are frequently overestimated because, older workers can stay competitive by adjusting their skills to new technologies and new work environments. Such findings support the reversal of stereotypes concerning job performance and age and indicate that organization should promote an atmosphere of work supportive of continuous knowledge acquisition and flexibility regardless the age of the employee.

Implications

One of the key takeaways from this study is the lack of significant effects of demographic variables, such as gender, age, and marital status, on performance. This is in contrast with traditional understandings but is in sync with modern caveats from challenging and

supporting literature where organizational capability, willingness, or work situation is more crucial than entrenched personal characteristics. For organizations, this illustrates the need to give equal access to performance evaluation, training and promotion to all of their employees regardless of their gender, marital status and age. This is in line with the importance of keeping non- discrimination and inclusive policies within the organizations to prevent fusion of exclusion and the positive outcomes of having employees with higher morale and a sense of association with a fair and diverse culture. The implications of income as a strong predictor of job performance for compensation management are clear. Such positive behaviors could be encouraged by organizations through the implementation or expansion of pay for performance systems and higher salaries to reward high performers and to increase productivity.

These systems must be carefully designed to not have negative implications for poor working individuals, as some research suggests that they might. This issue can also relate to the previous point concerning the importance of experience which has been found here as a determinant of job performance and shows that the importance of this factor across a structured career development path that allows workers to advance in their careers. HR managers should promote mentoring, job-rotation and hands-on experience among the least skilled. Formal education emerged as a significant predictor of job performance, indicating increasing formal education levels as related to better outcomes among workers. This is indicative that education should be a key focus in the recruiting process and that continual learning and development should be available for current employees. Providing resources at the individual level through sponsored tuition for further educational degrees or professional certifications may not only provide a boost to the performance of individual employees but, collective efficacy as well. The lack of a significant relationship between age and job performance indicates that age-related stereotypes should not inform talent-management decisions. Workplaces should choose to evaluate employees based on their adaptability, learning abilities and performance records rather than their age. This could serve as an incentive to encourage a more age-inclusive work environment, and to help keep older workers who maintain productivity in the workplace.

The overall results suggest a movement away from demographic-based inferences and toward an examination of employees more as whole individuals when considering and managing performance. Through understanding the unique combination of motivation, experience, education and fairness, organizations can begin to align their human capital plans to overall performance strategy, which will enable more effective management of our workforce in a way that is consistent with the needs and expectations of organizations and sustainable competitive advantage.

CONCLUSION

The study provides valuable insights into the complex relationship between demographic factors and job performance. More specifically, whereas demographics such as gender, marriage status, and age seemed to not have a significant effect in their performance among participants of the sample, income, years of work experience, and educational attainment were found as important predictors of job success. These results support a larger set of findings in the literature regarding the importance of human capital development, performance-based compensation, and formal education in shaping employee performance. The positive relationship between income and performance indicates that financial rewards can contribute to employee efforts toward achieving organizational goals and the relationship between years of work experience. The lack of significant interaction by gender

and marital status reinforces the need for companies to establish performance evaluation mechanisms that are unbiased, in that they provide equal opportunities for professional progress and acknowledgment in the organization regardless of gender or marital status. Lastly, the research indicates that organizational executives and human resource professionals should focus on experience rewarding strategies, salary structure congruence with performance goals, and career advancement and learning support. Also, integrating this knowledge into human resources policy can develop inclusive cultures, engage employees and create sustainable sources of competitive advantage in many organizational settings. In general, these findings offer ideas for the creation of performance- contingent talent management and reward systems.

Limitations and Future Research

Despite its valuable insights, the present study is not without limitations. Firstly, its cross-sectional design restricts causal interpretations, making it difficult to determine the directionality of the observed relationships. Secondly, the subjective nature of the self-reported measures used may bias the present findings due to social desirability, or, the subjectivity inherent to self-reports. Thirdly, the sample may be not very varied in terms of the kind of industry, geography- location, or culture of the organization; therefore, it also limits the findings in terms of generalizability. Fourth, other relevant demographic variables such as ethnicity, occupation, level of employment, family and/or children, or personality were not analyzed. Plus "missing variables" under the control of the organization or the leader but not measured could explain the relationship between demographics and performance or act as moderators of it. This study is also limited by not including qualitative information, which could have enhanced the ability to learn from the statistical patterns. In addition, characterizing variables such as education and experience in a static manner neglects the dynamic nature of the process of developing skills throughout the life course.

Future research should consider longitudinal designs to establish causal relationships between demographic variables and job performance. A larger and more diverse sample in terms of industries, job roles, and geographies provides for a valid expansion of the sample size. It is also possible that the addition of some qualitative component such as interviews or focus groups would provide a more detailed description of how individual experience, and context influence performance outcomes. Future research should also explore other potential moderators including, but not limited to, ethnicity, job level, personality characteristics, family obligations, etc. that could possibly impact the relationship between demographics and job performance. Organizational support, leadership style, and employee motivation as moderating or mediating factors would provide a more complete perspective on what affects performance. In addition to this, more dynamical assessments, investigating the growing effect of ongoing learning and skill development upon it over time, should be taken into consideration. Cross-cultural comparisons should help external validity by highlighting the extent to which cultural norms and workplace practices influence the significance of demographics on performance.

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Conflict of Interest

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