TESE DE DOUTORAMENTO

# HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT'S PRACTICES AND ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE: THE ROLE OF HIGH-PERFORMANCE HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES IN ENHANCING EMPLOYEES' READINESS FOR CHANGE. EVIDENCE FROM JORDANIAN BANKING SECTOR

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**ESCOLA DE DOUTORAMENTO INTERNACIONAL DA UNIVERSIDADE DE SANTIAGO DE COMPOSTELA**
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**DECLARACIÓN DO AUTOR/A DA TESE**

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Título da tese: Human resource management's practices and organizational change: the role of high-performance human resource management practices in enhancing employees' readiness for change. Evidence from Jordanian banking sector

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# EXTENDED SUMMARY

Rapid and continuous change in dynamic work environments has become the most important feature of this era, which has led to a massive increase in many organizations embracing organizational change initiatives in order to survive and remain competitive.

It has become increasingly imperative for business organizations to adopt continuous organizational change initiatives as organizations face a turbulent and competitive environment due to factors such as general instability, economic crises, innovations, and technological advances, mergers, downsizing, rapid growth, new business ventures, increasing customer focus, changing customer requirements, seizing opportunities, and new approaches to management and leadership (By, Kuipers, & Procter, 2018; By & Macleod, 2009; Kuipers et al., 2014; Madsen, Miller, & John, 2005). Globalization, in turn, has contributed to making the business environment subject to severe changes in terms of complexity and dynamism (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015).

Organizational change is an organization's response to significant pressures and forces resulting from an internal and external environment to increase value and improve corporate effectiveness (Mills, Dye, & Mills, 2009). Change is an alteration of core aspects of organization operations including goals, structure, technology, culture, leadership, and workforce of an organization (Ibid).

Mamin Ullah (2012) emphasized that it is necessary for organizations to make major changes that may affect their employees and operations to be competitive in the global business environment. Organizational change force organizations to develop new appropriate strategies, and in order for the organization to achieve or deliver the new strategy it will be necessary to design and implement changes in any or all aspects of human resource structures and systems (Mabey, Salaman, & Storey, 1998).

Although the rate of organizational change has increased, and despite the great importance that organizations attach to implementing change initiatives and projects, organizational change has proved to be very difficult to achieve. High rates of failure to achieve their ultimate goals became the dominant feature of organizational change initiatives (Burnes & Jackson, 2011; Kanter, Stein, & Jick, 1992; Kotter, 1996).

Changes in structural core elements namely mission, power structure, technology, and marketing strategy are always risky and increase the rate of failure and death of organizations (Hannan & Freeman, 1984). Thus, due to the difficulty of implementing change, and the risk related to failure, many organizations have become reluctant to initiate change projects.

Several researchers (e.g., Decker et al., 2012) agreed that HR-related barriers are the most prominent among the reasons for the failure of change in organizations. Inadequately addressing people-related issues (Kotter, 1995; Spiker & Lesser, 1995), employee attitudes (Keller & Aiken, 2009), and inadequate HRM practices, staff shortage, employee resistance (Mosadeghrad & Ansarian, 2014) are examples of HR-related reasons for failing to implement change initiatives.

HRM management can enhance organizational change success, by utilizing the proper practices. HRM can promote change utilizing various practices that ensure the organization obtains the trained, qualified, committed human resource, that possesses the required knowledge, skills, abilities (KSAs) and behaviors necessary to achieve change strategies (Mamin Ullah, 2012; Szamosi & Duxbury, 2002). Particularly, human resource management practices, such as high-performance human resource management (HPHRM) practices, can play an essential role in managing people and directing them towards implementing the organization's various strategies and achieving its goals, including change strategies.

High-performance human resource systems refer to a set of separate and interdependent human resource practices, designed to enhance employee abilities, motivation, and opportunity and thus contribute to improving organizational performance (Chang & Chen, 2011; Huselid, 1995; Vivek, 2018).

Since HR practices are linked to organizational outcomes through their influence on employee attitudes and behaviors (Huselid, 1995), high-performance human resource management can contribute to improving the results of organizational change and enhancing its success rates by creating and strengthening individuals' positive attitudes towards the organization, such as organizational commitment or towards the change process in particular, such as enhancing employees' readiness for change.

As individuals play a pivotal role in the implementation and success of various change initiatives, readiness for change is a critical construct in any of the change initiatives. Ready employees for change, show a proactive and positive attitude towards change, which can be translated into a willingness to support change (Vakola, 2014).

Therefore, understanding employee readiness for change would help to guide organizational managers in approaching changes and determining the best means of implementing these changes (Soumyaja, Kamlanabhan, & Bhattacharyya, 2015).

Various HRM policies and practices can enhance readiness for change, and these practices can also help promote high performance and commitment towards the change process (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015). Previous research has highlighted the key role of high-performance human resource management (HPHRM) practices in promoting organizational change, particularly employee readiness for change (Tummers et al., 2013). They note that employees could see these practices as benefits form their organization, reciprocating those benefits by being ready for change. Some HPHRM practices also can enhance employees' proactivity and vitality, which, in turn, would promote readiness for change (Tummers, Kruyen, Vijverberg, & Voesenek, 2013, 2015).

Although prior literature confirms that neglecting the critical role individuals play in change and the importance of readiness for change (e.g. Jones et al., 2005; Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015; Meirovich Gavriel et al., 2006; Rusly et al., 2012), there is still little empirical research about the antecedents of readiness for change.

Organizational change research has often analyzed change following a macro-level focus on systems. Micro-level perspective on change still needs additional research, considering the key importance of individuals in the success of change initiatives. Besides, many studies under a micro-perspective have examined the perceptions of managers, being necessary to analyze the perceptions of employees from all managerial levels.

With these considerations in mind, the main objective of this study is to develop and examine a framework for understanding how high-performance human resource management practices contribute to organizational change, particularly employees' readiness for change.

The proposed model examines the relationship between HPHRM practices and readiness for change. It also examines the relationship of these practices with organizational commitment also studying the effect of organizational commitment on employees' readiness for change.

Since the final goal of organizational change and readiness for change, in general, is to improve organizational performance, the proposed model also examines the role of readiness for change to increase employee performance. By improving the employees' performance, readiness for change can contribute to the organization's performance.

Finally, recognizing organizational culture's role in shaping the proposed relationships, the proposed model examines the moderating effect of hierarchy culture in the relationship between HPHRM practices and organizational commitment.

In order to take into consideration all the three components of organizational commitment identified by Allen & Meyer (1990b); Meyer & Allen (1991) in their three-component model of commitment, separately, we developed three sub-models. Each sub-model focuses on one of the three commitment profiles. The first sub-model took affective commitment into account; the second sub-model is concerned with continuance commitment and the normative commitment in the third sub-model.

On a more detailed level, Also, through this research, we sought to achieve a number of secondary goals:

1. Underline the pivotal role of employees in the implementation and success of changes initiatives and the role of HPHRM practices to promote employees readiness for change.
2. Identifying which HPHRM practices are more relevant to promote employees' readiness for change.
3. Understand how high-performance human resource management practices enhance employee commitment, identifying which HPHRM practices are more relevant to achieving promote organizational commitment

4. Examine the role of employees' commitment in promoting readiness for change, identifying the best commitment profiles in case of the Jordanian banking sector.
5. Examine the nature of the moderating influence of the hierarchical culture, which is the prevailing culture in Jordanian banks, on the relationship between high-performance human resource management practices and employees' commitment towards their organizations.
6. Understand if the role of HPHRM practices in promoting readiness for change and organizational commitment is in line with their impact in more developed Western countries.

The analysis that was conducted included the collection of primary data through a questionnaire distributed among the employees of the banks operating in Jordan from all administrative levels. The valid answers amounted to 510 responses.

Results with regard to the first sub-model show the following statistically significant relationships:

- Communication and clear job description, extensive training and participation HPHRM practices are positively related to affective commitment.
- Communication and clear job description and extensive training HPHRM practices have a positive relation with readiness for change.
- Results oriented appraisal HPHRM practices have a negative relation with readiness for change.
- Affective commitment is positively related to readiness for change.
- Readiness for change is positively related to individual performance.
- Hierarchy culture positively moderates the relationship between a) communication, clear job description, and b) participation HPHRM practices and Affective Commitment.

Results related to the second sub-model show the following statistically significant relationships:

- Communication and clear job description and extensive training HPHRM practices are positively related to continuance commitment.
- Selective staffing HPHRM practices are negatively related to continuance commitment.
- Communication and clear job description and extensive training HPHRM practices have a positive relation with readiness for change.
- Results oriented appraisal HPHRM practices have a negative relation with readiness for change.
- Continuance commitment is positively related to readiness for change.
- Readiness for change is positively related to individual performance.
- Hierarchy culture negatively moderates the relationship between a) communication, clear job description, b) selective staffing and c) extensive training HPRM practices and continuance commitment.

The results of sub-model 3 show the following statistically significant relationships:

- Communication and clear job description and extensive training HPHRM practices are positively related to normative commitment.
- Communication and clear job description have a positive relation with readiness for change.
- Results-oriented appraisal HPHRM practices have a negative relation with readiness for change.
- Normative commitment is positively related to readiness for change.
- Readiness for change is positively related to individual performance.

**Contributions of the study**

Considering the results of the empirical analysis, this study contributes to the literature on HRM, adding light on the relationship between

HPHRM practices and positive employee outcomes such as organizational commitment, readiness to change, and employee work performance on different prospects.

Our research emphasizes the important role of HPHRM practices for organizational change initiatives, and in particular for enhancing employee readiness for change.

Researchers have ignored the impact of HRM practices, specifically HPHRM practices, on promoting organizational change and in particular readiness for change. On the contrary, a tremendous amount of empirical research has concentrated on the effect from the opposite direction, examining the impact of various organizational change types on HRM, such as addressing the new roles of HRM practitioners imposed by change, and focusing on the effects of organizational change on different individual attitudes such as employee commitment, job satisfaction, performance, employees' desire to stay, leave, or withdrawal, absence, cynicism toward organizational change, openness to change, the stress of change, and many more topics.

Thus, one of the key contributions of this study is underlining the role of HRM to promote employees' readiness for change, particularly noting the importance of communication and clear job description and extensive training practices.

This thesis adds knowledge about the relationship between HPHRM practices and organizational commitment. Since the three types of commitment have a different nature, the results of our study found that HPHRM practices differ in the extent of their impact on the different components of commitment. While some of them positively affect affective commitment, they may not have the same effect on the continuance commitment or the normative commitment. Results show that practices such as communication and clear job description, and extensive training positively influence the three types of commitment, while the practices related to participation had a positive effect only in the case of affective commitment and did not have a beneficial effect in enhancing both of continuance and normative commitment.

Selective staffing practices did not have a statistically significant effect on affective and normative commitment, while their impact was negative on continuance commitment.

Results from this research could be useful to underline the role of some aspects related to employee perceptions of HRM practices, noting how issues of national culture could affect the success in achieving the goals related to these practices. Most of the used theories and research work in HRM research have been carried out in developed countries' contexts with western cultural work settings. Less research work has been conducted so far in developing countries (Andrew & Mohankumar, 2015; Bonaime, Gulen, & Ion, 2018; Sukirtharaj, 2018; Wan Rafaei Abdul Rahman, 2004). The results of research conducted in developed countries may not be applied or generalized in the case of a developing country context such as Jordan, which has different national cultures, norms, and values.

In this line, we found that communication, clear job description, and extensive training practices play a key role to promote both readiness for change and organizational commitment. On the contrary, the other considered practices have a limited effect on both constructs, in spite that prior literature underlines their importance in many studies in Western developed countries.

Results show that practices of results-oriented appraisal are negatively associated with readiness for change. Selective staffing practices are negatively related to continuance commitment as well.

The significant influence of nepotism or Favoritism (*wasta*) in Jordan's national culture could be a key factor to understanding these unexpected findings, being one of the characteristics that distinguish this region's culture from Western cultures. The Islamic culture could be also relevant for understanding some obtained findings, such as those regarding participation practices. Islamic culture forbids helping in any way in promoting usury, specifically noting the prohibition for those who write usury transactions or be a witness to them. Perception of HRM practices regarding the participation practice of banking employees following Islamic religion could be shaped by this Islamic principle.

The study also emphasizes the role of organizational commitment in producing employee readiness for change. Results indicated that all three types of commitment had a positive impact on the employees' readiness for change. However, in contrast to previous studies that view affective commitment to have the best results in generating positive attitudes among employees including readiness for change, our study found that the greater effect was due to continuance commitment.

This study also contributes to understand the relationship between readiness for change and employee performance. Results also show that employees' readiness for change enhances individual performance. This positive influence is strong and occurs in all three models, which high coefficients for the study context. Besides very few studies that examined the direct relationship between readiness for change and employee performance, this finding is interesting as it can be generalized to employees with any of the three commitment profiles.

Another interesting finding is that the hierarchical culture has a changing role as a moderator in the relationship between high-performance HPHRM practices and various organizational commitment components.

Theoretically, the hierarchical culture should negatively moderate the effect of HPHRM practices on organizational commitment. However, our results found moderation to be positive in the case of affective commitment, negative moderation with relation to continuance commitment, and non-significant within the normative commitment. This finding is interesting, as not many studies have examined this moderating effect considering the three types of commitment.

Finally, the study was conducted in Jordan, a developing country characterized by a culture with an Islamic religious, and tribal social structure background that is distinguished from the societies and cultures of the developed countries in Europe, USA, and the UK in where HRM theories are developed and formulated.

According to the researcher's knowledge, no similar study has been conducted previously, considering the studied variables, either at the level of the country of Jordan or the level of the Jordanian banking sector. Hence the studied country and sector fill a gap from prior research.

## Limitations and future research

Conducting our research in one country and sector opens the debate of the generalizability of our results. Although considering a non-studied country fills a research gap, future research should test this model in countries different from Jordan to analyze whether the obtained findings are also valid in different countries, and in other sectors and occupations where the considered variables would operate in a different way will be also interesting, as well. Considering that some of the obtained findings can be applied to other Middle East countries with similar Islamic and tribal cultural characteristics.

Due to the nature of the cross-section of the data collected to test the proposed model, the current study did not analyse the existence of causal relationships between the studied variables, such this study is a first step to analyse the proposed model, and among our interests will be the application of future research through the development of longitudinal designs to analyze causal relationships Among the variables under study, among the variables of the three models.

There is not a specific examination of mediating relationships in the proposed research model. The obtained findings suggest that the different types of commitment could play mediate between different HPHRM practices and readiness for change, and that readiness for change could also be a mediator between the types for commitment and individual performance. Future research is needed to confirm this point. In the future, it may be interesting to study the moderating role of other types of organizational culture in the relationship between HPHRM practices and commitment.

Future studies may consider expanding the considered research model to include other HPHRM practices to study their impact on different types of commitment, and employees' readiness for change. Investigating the moderating effect of the perceived procedural justice, especially in light of a strong presence of favoritism (*wasta*), perceived organizational support, or adding job satisfaction to the model could be interesting for future research.

The employees of all banks operating in Jordan were targeted as a unified sector, without distinguishing between these banks. In line with the results obtained, there may be differences in the relationship between the types of HRM practices and the types of commitment among employees, when considering whether the bank is a national commercial or a foreign commercial bank that applies practices according to European or American standards. Future research may consider conducting separate studies and separate analyses for each bank category. This analysis may be useful for identifying hidden nuances not seen in the current study.

# RESUMO ESTENDIDO

O cambio rápido e continuo nas contornas de traballo dinámicas converteuse na característica máis importante desta era, que levou a un aumento masivo de moitas organizacións que adoptan iniciativas de cambio organizacional para sobrevivir e seguir sendo competitivas.

Cada vez é máis necesario que as organizacións empresariais adopten iniciativas de cambio organizativo continuo, xa que as organizacións enfróntanse a unha contorna turbulenta e competitiva debido a factores como a inestabilidade xeral, as crises económicas, as innovacións e os avances tecnolóxicos, as fusións, as reducións de tamaño, o rápido crecemento, as novas empresas, o aumento da atención ao cliente, o cambio dos requisitos dos clientes, o aproveitamento das oportunidades e os novos enfoques de xestión e liderado (By, Kuipers, & Procter, 2018; By & Macleod, 2009; Kuipers et ao., 2014; Madsen, Miller, & John, 2005). A globalización, á súa vez, contribuíu a que a contorna empresarial se vexa sometida a fortes cambios en termos de complexidade e dinamismo (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015).

O cambio organizativo é a resposta das organizacións ás presións e forzas significativas resultantes dunha contorna interna e externa para aumentar o valor e mellorar a eficacia corporativa (Mills, Dye, & Mills, 2009). O cambio é unha alteración dos aspectos fundamentais do funcionamento da organización, incluídos os obxectivos, a estrutura, a tecnoloxía, a cultura, o liderado e o persoal dunha organización (Ibid). Mamin Ullah (2012) destacou que é necesario que as organizacións realicen cambios importantes que poidan afectar os seus empregados e operacións para ser competitivas na contorna empresarial global. O cambio organizativo obriga ás organizacións a desenvolver novas estratexias apropiadas, e para que a organización logre ou cumpra a nova estratexia, será necesario deseñar e aplicar cambios nalgún ou todos os aspectos das estruturas e sistemas de recursos humanos (Mabey, Salaman e Storey, 1998).

Aínda que o ritmo do cambio organizativo aumentou, e a pesar da gran importancia que as organizacións conceden á implementación de iniciativas e proxectos de cambio, o cambio organizativo demostrou ser moi difícil de conseguir. As altas taxas de fracaso na consecución dos seus obxectivos finais convertéronse na característica dominante das iniciativas de cambio organizacional (Burnes & Jackson, 2011; Kanter, Stein, & Jick, 1992; Kotter, 1996).

Os cambios nos elementos estruturais básicos, a saber, a misión, a estrutura de poder, a tecnoloxía e a estratexia de mercadotecnia, son sempre arriscados e aumentan a taxa de fracaso e morte das organizacións (Hannan e Freeman, 1984). Así, debido á dificultade de implementar o cambio e ao risco relacionado co fracaso, moitas organizacións volvéronse remisas a iniciar proxectos de cambio.

Varios investigadores (por exemplo, Decker et al., 2012) coincidiron en que as barreiras relacionadas cos RRHH son as máis destacadas entre as razóns do fracaso do cambio nas organizacións. O tratamento inadecuado das cuestións relacionadas coas persoas (Kotter, 1995; Spiker e Lesser, 1995), as actitudes dos empregados (Keller e Aiken, 2009) e as prácticas inadecuadas de xestión de recursos humanos, a escaseza de persoal e a resistencia dos empregados (Mosadeghrad e Ansarian, 2014) son exemplos de razóns relacionadas cos recursos humanos que impiden a aplicación das iniciativas de cambio.

A xestión dos recursos humanos pode mellorar o éxito do cambio organizativo, utilizando as prácticas adecuadas . A xestión dos recursos humanos pode promover o cambio utilizando diversas prácticas que garantan que a organización obteña os recursos humanos formados, cualificados e comprometidos, que posúan os coñecementos, as habilidades, as capacidades e os comportamentos necesarios para lograr as estratexias de cambio (Mamin Ullah, 2012; Szamosi & Duxbury, 2002). Particularmente, as prácticas de xestión de recursos humanos de alto rendemento (PXRHAR), poden desempeñar un papel esencial na xestión das persoas e na súa orientación cara á aplicación das distintas estratexias da organización e a consecución dos seus obxectivos, incluídas as estratexias de cambio.

Os sistemas de recursos humanos de alto rendemento refírense a un conxunto de prácticas de recursos humanos separadas e interdependentes, deseñadas para mellorar as capacidades, a motivación e a oportunidade dos empregados e, por tanto, contribuír a mellorar o rendemento da organización (Chang & Chen, 2011; Huselid, 1995; Vivek, 2018).

Dado que as prácticas de RRHH están vinculadas aos resultados organizativos a través da súa influencia nas actitudes e comportamentos dos empregados (Huselid, 1995), a xestión de recursos humanos de alto rendemento pode contribuír a mellorar os resultados do cambio organizativo e a aumentar os seus índices de éxito creando e reforzando as actitudes positivas dos individuos cara á organización, como o compromiso organizativo, ou cara ao proceso de cambio en particular, como a mellora da disposición dos empregados ao cambio.

Considerando que os individuos desempeñan un papel fundamental na implementación e o éxito de diversas iniciativas de cambio, a disposición ao cambio é un constructo crítico en calquera das iniciativas de cambio. Os empregados preparados para o cambio mostran unha actitude proactiva e positiva cara ao cambio, que pode traducirse nunha vontade de apoiar o cambio (Vakola, 2014).

Por tanto, comprender a disposición dos empregados para o cambio axudaría a orientar aos directivos das organizacións á hora de enfocar os cambios e determinar os mellores medios para implementarlos (Soumyaja, Kamlanabhan, & Bhattacharyya, 2015).

Diversas políticas e prácticas de xestión de recursos humanos poden mellorar a preparación para o cambio, e estas prácticas tamén poden axudar a promover un alto rendemento e compromiso cara ao proceso de cambio (Maheshwari e Vohra, 2015). Investigacións anteriores destacaron o papel crave das prácticas de xestión de recursos humanos de alto rendemento na promoción do cambio organizacional, en particular a preparación dos empregados para o cambio (Tummers et ao., 2013). Sinalan que os empregados poderían ver estas prácticas como beneficios da súa organización, correspondendo a eses beneficios ao estar preparados para o cambio. Algunhas prácticas de xestión de recursos humanos de alto rendemento tamén poden mellorar a proactividade e a vitalidade dos empregados, o que, á súa vez, promovería a disposición ao cambio (Tummers, Kruyen, Vijverberg e Voesenek, 2013, 2015).

Aínda que a literatura previa confirma que non se ten en conta o papel fundamental que desempeñan os individuos no cambio e a importancia da disposición ao cambio (por exemplo, Jones et ao., 2005; Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015; Meirovich Gavriel et ao., 2006; Rusly et ao., 2012), hai pouca investigación empírica sobre os antecedentes da disposición ao cambio. A investigación sobre o cambio organizativo analizou a miúdo o cambio seguindo un enfoque a nivel macro dos sistemas. A perspectiva do cambio a nivel micro aínda necesita máis investigación, tendo en conta a importancia crave dos individuos no éxito das iniciativas de cambio. Ademais, moitos estudos baixo unha perspectiva micro examinaron as percepcións dos directivos, sendo necesario analizar as percepcións dos empregados de todos os niveis directivos.

Tendo en conta estas consideracións, o obxectivo principal deste estudo é desenvolver e examinar un marco de análise para comprender como as prácticas de xestión de recursos humanos de alto rendemento contribúen ao cambio organizativo, en particular a disposición dos empregados ao cambio. O modelo proposto examina a relación directa entre as prácticas de recursos humanos de alto rendemento e a disposición ao cambio. Tamén examina a relación entre estas prácticas e o compromiso organizativo e estuda o efecto do compromiso organizativo na disposición ao cambio dos empregados.

Dado que o obxectivo final do cambio organizativo e da disposición ao cambio , é mellorar o rendemento da organización, o modelo proposto tamén examina o papel da disposición ao cambio para aumentar o rendemento dos empregados. Ao mellorar o rendemento dos empregados, a disposición ao cambio pode contribuír ao rendemento da organización.

Por último, recoñecendo o papel da cultura organizativa na configuración das relacións propostas, o modelo proposto examina o efecto moderador da cultura xerárquica na relación entre as prácticas de recursos humanos de alto rendemento e o compromiso organizativo.

Para ter en conta os tres compoñentes do compromiso organizativo identificados por Allen e Meyer (1990b); Meyer e Allen (1991) no seu modelo de tres compoñentes do compromiso, desenvolvemos por separado tres sub-modelos. Cada sub-modelo céntrase nun do tres perfiles de compromiso. O primeiro sub-modelo tivo en conta o compromiso afectivo; o segundo sub-modelo ocúpase do compromiso de continuidade e o compromiso normativo é considerado no terceiro sub-modelo.

As principais teorías utilizadas no desenvolvemento das hipóteses son a teoría dos recursos e capacidades (RBV), a teoría do intercambio social (SET), e o modelo capacidade- motivación-oportunidade (AMO) O modelo proposto foi testado en traballadores del sector bancario en Xordania

Nun nivel máis detallado, tamén, a través desta investigación, buscamos alcanzar unha serie de obxectivos secundarios:

1. Subliñar o papel fundamental dos empregados na aplicación e o éxito das iniciativas de cambio e o papel das PXRHAR para promover a disposición dos empregados ao cambio.
2. Identificar que PXRHAR son máis relevantes para promover a preparación dos empregados para o cambio.
3. Entender como as PXRHAR promoven a mellora do compromiso dos empregados, identificando que prácticas son máis relevantes para lograr promover o compromiso organizacional.
4. Examinar o papel do compromiso dos empregados na promoción da disposición ao cambio, identificando os mellores perfís de compromiso no caso do sector bancario xordano.
5. Examinar a natureza da influencia moderadora da cultura xerárquica, que é a cultura predominante nos bancos xordanos, na relación entre as prácticas de xestión de recursos humanos de alto rendemento e o compromiso dos empregados cara ás súas organizacións en xeral.
6. Entender se o rol das prácticas de recursos humanos de alto rendemento para promover disposición ao cambio e o compromiso organizativo está en liña co seu impacto nos países occidentais máis desenvolvidos.

A análise que levou a cabo incluíu a recompilación de datos primarios a través dun cuestionario distribuído entre os empregados dos bancos que operan en Xordania de todos os niveis administrativos. As respostas correctas ascenderon a 510.

Os resultados con respecto ao primeiro sub-modelo mostran as seguintes relacións estatisticamente significativas:

- As prácticas de recursos humanos de alto rendemento de comunicación e descrición clara do posto, formación ampla e participación están positivamente relacionadas co compromiso afectivo.
- As PXRHAR de comunicación e descrición clara do posto e formación ampla teñen unha relación positiva coa disposición ao cambio.
- As PXRHAR de avaliación orientada aos resultados teñen unha relación negativa coa disposición ao cambio.
- O compromiso afectivo está positivamente relacionado disposición ao cambio.
- A disposición ao cambio está positivamente relacionado co rendemento individual.
- A cultura xerárquica modera positivamente a relación entre as prácticas de a) comunicación e descrición clara dos postos de traballo e b) participación e o compromiso afectivo.

Os resultados relacionados co segundo sub-modelo mostran as seguintes relacións estatisticamente significativas:

- As PXRHAR de comunicación e descrición clara do posto de traballo e de formación ampla están positivamente relacionadas co compromiso de continuidade
- As prácticas de dotación selectiva están negativamente relacionadas co compromiso de continuidade.
- As PXRHAR de comunicación e descrición clara do posto e formación ampla teñen unha relación positiva coa disposición ao cambio.
- As prácticas de avaliación do persoal orientadas aos resultados teñen unha relación negativa coa disposición ao cambio.
- O compromiso de continuidade está positivamente relacionado coa disposición ao cambio.
- A disposición ao cambio está positivamente relacionada co rendemento individual.
- A cultura xerárquica modera negativamente a relación entre as prácticas de a) comunicación e claridade na descrición do

posto, b) dotación selectiva e c) a formación ampla e o compromiso de continuidade.

Os resultados do sub-modelo 3 mostran as seguintes relacións estatisticamente significativas:

- A comunicación e a descrición clara do posto de traballo e as prácticas formación ampla están positivamente relacionadas co compromiso normativo.
- A comunicación e a descrición clara do posto teñen unha relación positiva coa disposición ao cambio.
- As PXRHAR de avaliación orientada aos resultados teñen unha relación negativa coa disposición ao cambio.
- O compromiso normativo está positivamente relacionado coa disposición ao cambio.
- A disposición ao cambio está positivamente relacionada co rendemento individual.

## Contribucións da investigación

Tendo en conta os resultados da análise empírica, este estudo contribúe á literatura sobre xestión de recursos humanos proporcionando coñecemento sobre relación entre as PXRHAR e os resultados positivos dos empregados, como o compromiso organizativo, a disposición ao cambio e o rendemento laboral dos empregados.

A nosa investigación destaca o importante papel das PXRHAR para as iniciativas de cambio organizativo e, en particular, para mellorar a preparación dos empregados para o cambio.

A pesar do gran número de estudos que examinaron os antecedentes da disposición ao cambio dos empregados os estudos que examinaron a relación entre as prácticas de xestión de recursos humanos e a disposición para o cambio seguen sendo moi escasos.

Os investigadores ignoraron o impacto das prácticas de xestión de recursos humanos, especificamente as prácticas de xestión de recursos humanos de alto rendemento, na promoción do cambio organizacional e, en particular, na disposición ao cambio. Pola contra, unha enorme cantidade de investigacións empíricas concentráronse no efecto desde a dirección oposta, examinando o impacto de varios tipos de cambio organizacional na xestión de recursos humanos, como o tratamento das novas funcións dos profesionais de recursos humanos impostas polo cambio, centrándose tamén nos efectos do cambio organizacional en diferentes actitudes individuais como o compromiso dos empregados, a satisfacción no traballo, o rendemento, o desexo dos empregados de quedar, marcharse ou retirarse, o absentismo, o cinismo cara ao cambio organizacional, a apertura ao cambio, a tensión do cambio e moitos temas máis.

Por tanto, unha das principais contribucións deste estudo é subliñar o papel da xestión de recursos humanos para promover a preparación dos empregados para o cambio, sinalando en particular a importancia da comunicación e dunha clara descrición do posto de traballo e das prácticas de formación extensiva.

Esta tese engade tamén coñecementos sobre a relación entre as PXRHAR e o compromiso organizativo. Dado que o tres tipos de compromiso teñen unha natureza diferente, os resultados do noso estudo revelaron que as PXRHAR difiren no grao do seu impacto sobre os diferentes compoñentes do compromiso. Mentres que algunhas delas relaciónanse positivamente co compromiso afectivo, poden non ter o mesmo efecto sobre o compromiso de continuidade ou o compromiso normativo. Os resultados mostran que prácticas como a comunicación e a descrición clara do posto de traballo, así como a formación exhaustiva, inflúen positivamente no tres tipos de compromiso, mentres que as prácticas relacionadas coa participación só tiveron un efecto positivo no caso do compromiso afectivo e non tiveron un efecto beneficioso na mellora do compromiso de permanencia e do compromiso normativo.

As prácticas de dotación selectiva non tiveron un efecto estatisticamente significativo no compromiso afectivo e normativo, mentres que o seu impacto foi negativo no compromiso de permanencia.

Os resultados desta investigación poden ser útiles para destacar a importancia dalgúns aspectos relacionados coas percepcións dos empregados sobre as prácticas de xestión de recursos humanos, sinalando como as cuestións da cultura nacional poderían afectar o éxito na consecución dos obxectivos relacionados con estas prácticas. A maioría das teorías e traballos de investigación neste tema leváronse a cabo en contextos de países desenvolvidos con contornas laborais de cultura occidental. Ata agora realizáronse menos traballos de investigación en países en desenvolvemento (Andrew & Mohankumar, 2015; Bonaime, Gulen, & Ión, 2018; Sukirtharaj, 2018; Wan Rafaei Abdul Rahman, 2004). Os resultados das investigacións realizadas en países desenvolvidos poden non aplicarse ou xeneralizarse no caso do contexto dun país en desenvolvemento como Xordania, que ten culturas, normas e valores nacionais diferentes.

Neste senso, atopamos que a comunicación, a descrición clara do posto de traballo e as prácticas de formación ampla desempeñan un papel crave para promover tanto a disposición ao cambio como o compromiso organizativo. Pola contra, as demais prácticas consideradas teñen un efecto limitado sobre ambos os constructos, a pesar de que a literatura anterior subliña a súa importancia en moitos estudos de países occidentais desenvolvidos.

Os resultados mostran que as prácticas de avaliación orientada aos resultados asócianse negativamente coa disposición ao cambio. As prácticas de selección de persoal tamén están negativamente relacionadas co compromiso de continuidade.

A importante influencia do nepotismo ou favoritismo (*wasta*) na cultura nacional xordana podería ser un factor crave para entender estes achados inesperados, sendo unha das características que distinguen a cultura desta rexión das culturas occidentais. A cultura islámica tamén podería ser relevante para entender algúns resultados obtidos, como os relativos ás prácticas de participación. A cultura islámica prohibe axudar de calquera xeito a promover a usura, sinalando especificamente a prohibición para aqueles que escriban transaccións de usura ou sexan testemuñas das mesmas. A percepción das prácticas de xestión de recursos humanos en relación coas prácticas de participación dos empregados de banca que seguen a relixión islámica podería estar condicionada por este principio islámico.

O estudo tamén subliña o papel do compromiso organizativo na preparación dos empregados para o cambio. Os resultados indicaron que o tres tipos de compromiso tiveron un impacto positivo na disposición ao cambio dos empregados. Con todo, a diferenza dos estudos anteriores que consideran que o compromiso afectivo é o que mellores resultados ten á hora de xerar actitudes positivas entre os empregados, incluída a disposición ao cambio, o noso estudo descubriu que o maior efecto debíase ao compromiso de continuidade.

Este estudo tamén contribúe a comprender a relación entre a disposición ao cambio e o rendemento dos empregados. Os resultados tamén mostran que a disposición ao cambio dos empregados mellora o rendemento individual. Esta influencia positiva é forte e dáse no tres modelos, cuxos coeficientes son altos para o contexto do estudo. Ademais de que son moi poucos os estudos que examinan a relación directa entre a disposición ao cambio e o rendemento dos empregados, este achado é interesante, xa que pode xeneralizarse aos empregados con calquera do tres perfiles de compromiso.

Outro achado interesante é que a cultura xerárquica ten un papel cambiante como moderador na relación entre as PXRHAR e varios compoñentes do compromiso organizacional.

En teoría, a cultura xerárquica debería moderar negativamente o efecto das PXRHAR sobre o compromiso organizativo. Con todo, os nosos resultados atoparon unha moderación positiva no caso do compromiso afectivo, unha moderación negativa en relación co compromiso de permanencia e unha non significativa no compromiso normativo. Este resultado é interesante, xa que non hai moitos estudos que examinasen este efecto moderador considerando o tres tipos de compromiso.

Por último, o estudo levou a cabo en Xordania, un país en desenvolvemento caracterizado por unha cultura cun transfondo relixioso islámico e unha estrutura social tribal que se distingue das sociedades e culturas dos países desenvolvidos de Europa e EE.UU. nos que, maioritariamente, se desenvolven e formulan as teorías aplicadas no ámbito da xestión de recursos humanos.

Segundo o coñecemento do investigador, non se realizou anteriormente ningún estudo similar, tendo en conta as variables estudadas, nin a nivel do país de Xordania nin a nivel do sector bancario xordano. Por tanto, o país e o sector estudados enchen un baleiro da investigación anterior.

**Limitacións e liñas de investigación futuras**

A realización da nosa investigación nun só país e sector abre o debate da extensión dos nosos resultados. Aínda que o feito de considerar un país non estudado colma unha lagoa da investigación, as investigacións futuras deberían pór a proba este modelo en países diferentes de Xordania para analizar se as conclusións obtidas son tamén válidas noutros países. Tamén será interesante facelo noutros sectores e ocupacións nos que as variables consideradas operen de forma diferente, tendo en conta que algunhas das conclusións obtidas poden aplicarse a outros países de Oriente Medio con características culturais islámicas e tribais similares.

Debido á natureza transversal dos datos recollidos para probar o modelo proposto, o presente estudo non analizou a existencia de relacións causais entre as variables estudadas, polo que este estudo é un primeiro paso para analizar o modelo proposto. Entre os nosos intereses estará a aplicación de futuras investigacións empregando deseños lonxitudinais para analizar as relacións causais entre as variables en estudo.

No modelo de investigación proposto non hai un exame específico das relacións mediadoras. Os resultados obtidos suxiren que os diferentes tipos de compromiso poderían mediar entre as diferentes PXRHAR e a disposición ao cambio, e que a disposición ao cambio tamén podería ser un mediador entre os tipos de compromiso e o rendemento individual. Sen embargo, necesítanse investigacións futuras para confirmar este punto. No futuro, pode ser tamén interesante estudar o papel moderador doutros tipos de cultura organizativa na relación entre as PXRHAR e o compromiso.

En futuros estudos poderíase considerar a posibilidade de ampliar o modelo de investigación considerado para incluír outras PXRHAR coa fin de estudar o seu impacto nos diferentes tipos de compromiso, e a disposición dos empregados ao cambio. A investigación do efecto moderador da xustiza procedimental percibida, especialmente á luz dunha forte presenza de favoritismo (wasta), do apoio organizativo percibido, ou a adición da satisfacción laboral ao modelo poderían ser interesantes para futuras investigacións.

O obxectivo do traballo foron os empregados de todos os bancos que operan en Xordania como un sector unificado, sen distinguir entre estes bancos. De acordo cos resultados obtidos, pode haber diferenzas na relación entre os tipos de prácticas de xestión de recursos humanos e os tipos de compromiso entre os empregados, cando se considera se o banco é un banco comercial nacional ou un banco comercial estranxeiro que aplica prácticas de acordo coas normas europeas ou americanas, En futuras investigacións poderíase considerar a posibilidade de realizar estudos e análises separadas para cada categoría de banco. Esta análise pode ser útil para identificar matices ocultos que non ven no estudo actual.

# LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|---|---|
| ABJ | Association of Banks in Jordan |
| AI | Appreciative Inquiry |
| AMO | Ability motivation and opportunity theory |
| AVE | Average variance extracted |
| CA | Cronbach Alpha |
| CEO | Chief executive officer |
| CFA | Confirmatory factor analysis |
| CFF | Critical failure factors |
| CFI | Comparative fit index |
| CMIN | Chi-square equivalent in Confirmatory Factor Analysis |
| CR | Composite Reliability |
| DOS | Department of Statistics in Jordan |
| e-HR | Electronic human resources |
| e-training | Electronic training |
| GDP | Gross domestic product |
| H (number) | Hypothesis (number) |
| HC | Human capital |
| HPHRM | High-Performance Human Resource Management |
| HPHRMWS | High-Performance human resource management work Systems |
| HPWO | High-performance work organizations |

| | |
|---|---|
| HPWPs | High-performance work practices |
| HPWS | High-performance work System |
| HR | Human resources |
| HRD | Human resource development |
| HRM | Human resource management |
| I/O | Psychology/ Industrial and organizational psychology |
| IBM SPSS | Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Produced by International Business Machines Corporation |
| ICT | Information and communication technology |
| IFI | Incremental fit index |
| ILO | International Labour Office |
| IRFC | Individual readiness for change |
| IT | Information technology |
| IWP | Individual work performance |
| JIPA | Jordanian Institute of Public Administration |
| KSA | Knowledge, Skills, and Abilities |
| MNC | Multi-National Corporation |
| MOHE | Ministry of Higher Education & Scientific Research |
| OCB | Organizational citizenship behavior |
| OD | Organizational Development |
| PM | Personnel management |
| POS | Perceived Organizational Support |
| RBV | Resource-Based View |

| | |
|---|---|
| RMSEA | Root mean square error of approximation |
| ROI | Return on investment |
| SCA | Sustained competitive advantage |
| SET | Social Exchange Theory |
| SHRM | Strategic human resource management |
| SM | Strategic management |
| T&D | Training and development |
| TLI | Tucker-Lewis index |
| TQM | Total quality management |
| UK | United Kingdom |
| UN | United Nations |
| USA | United States of America |
| VRIN | Valuable, Rare, Imperfectly Imitable, and Non-substitutable |
| VRIO | Valuable, Rare, Imperfectly Imitable, and Organized |
| VUCA | Volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity of the world |
| WTO | World Trade Organization |
| WWI | World War I |
| WWII | World War II |

# ÍNDICE

# INTRODUCTION

**Research support**

The last few decades have testified a tremendous and vital development in the concepts and theories of Human Resource Management (HRM), and it has become one of the most critical pillars of business management. The concept of HRM has a firm conceptual basis formed from the behavioral sciences and Human Capital (HC) and industrial relations theories (Armstrong, 2011) . Efforts have been exerted to manage this resource based on scientific theories that have been assumed and developed through an enormous volume of research papers and studies in attempts to effectively exploit this resource to achieve strategies and business objectives.

HRM has turned from the traditional administrative role of personnel management (PM) towards a new concept and Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) arose in the mid-1970s (Tubey, Rotich, & Kurgat, 2015).

Armstrong (2011) described SHRM as an approach through which the organization uses integrated human resources strategies, policies and practices to achieve its goals. He notes that SHRM addresses widespread of organizational matters relating to changes in structure and culture, organizational effectiveness and performance, matching resources to future requirements, development of distinctive capabilities, knowledge management, and management of change.

SHRM should meet the current and future organization's needs of competences and the qualified Human Resources (HR). The concept of SHRM has been expanded in practice in business organizations, and

HRM function has taken its place as a strategic business partner working with their line management colleagues to ensure that the strategic and business goals of the organization are performed, and its values are set into practice. Business goals could include those related to organizational change.

Organizations are faced with a turbulent and competitive environment due to factors like the economic changes and crises, changing customers' demands, technological innovations, changing demographics, workforce diversity, talent shortage, increasing focus on customers and quality (By, Kuipers, & Procter, 2018; By & Macleod, 2009; Kuipers et al., 2014; Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015; Tummers, Kruyen, Vijverberg, & Voesenek, 2015). The emergence of globalization has also made the business environment undergo severe changes in terms of complexity and dynamism (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015).

Competitive global business environments and continuous technology innovation have resulted in a rapidly evolving business environment. To maintain the efficiency of organizations and increase their ability to respond and adapt to the business environment and the competitive market that imposes these changes and organizational change has become an essential activity (Mabey, Salaman, & Storey, 1998).

Organizational change is an organization's response to significant pressures and forces resulting from an internal and external environment to increase value and improve corporate effectiveness (Mills, Dye, & Mills, 2009). Change is an alteration of core aspects of organization operations including goals, structure, technology, culture, leadership, and workforce of an organization (Ibid). Holt, Armenakis, Feild, & Harris (2007), identified the process of implementing change successfully in three stages, a) readiness to change, b) adoption of the change, c) change institutionalization.

Organizations choose the option of organizational change in response to the great pressures and forces resulting from the internal and external environment to increase value and improve the effectiveness of the company, that may involve alteration of core aspects of organization operations including goals, structure, technology, culture, leadership, and workforce of an organization (Mills et al., 2009).

Mamin Ullah (2012) emphasized that it is necessary for organizations to make major changes that may affect their employees and operations to be competitive in the global business environment. Organizational change force organizations to develop new appropriate strategies, and in order for the organization to achieve or deliver the new strategy it will be necessary to design and implement changes in any or all aspects of human resource structures and systems (Mabey et al., 1998).

Thus, it has become imperative for organizations to continually align their strategies, policies and business practices in line with the changing requirements of the business environment, achieving long-term sustainability and overall organizational effectiveness. This means that organizations are constantly forced to actively embrace, implement and manage change (Bridges & Mitchell, 2000; Kanter, 1985; Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015).

Notwithstanding the growing need for organizations to manage change effectively, organizational change has proved to be very difficult to achieve. Literature on organizational change, (e.g., Burnes & Jackson, 2011; Kanter, 1992; Kotter, 1996) reveals that what distinguishes organizational change efforts is their low success rate. Approximately 70% of organizational change initiatives have failed to generate the intended outcomes and achieve their ultimate goals (Beer & Nohrian, 2000:133).

The most common reason for failure to implement change was that people-related issues were not adequately addressed (Kotter, 1995; Spiker & Lesser, 1995), Wellins & Rick (1995) as cited in Chu (2003) asserted that many organizational change initiatives failed because the concentrations were on purposes rather than people who make them work.

Because change is initiated and performed by individuals in an organization, change cannot be performed if the employees are unwilling to support and participate in change initiatives (Samal, Patra, & Chatterjee, 2019). Organizations are required to have their employees be ready for organizational change to cope with changing conditions (Tummers, Kruyen, Vijverberg, & Voesenek, 2013).

As individuals play a pivotal role in the implementation and success of various change initiatives, readiness for change is a critical construct in any of the change initiatives. Ready employees for change, show a proactive and positive attitude towards change, which can be translated into a willingness to support change (Vakola, 2014).

Ignoring the essential role that individuals play in the change process and failing to pay adequate attention to individual readiness for change creates difficulties that lead to deficiencies and failure of change initiatives (Jones, Jimmieson, & Griffith, 2005). Therefore, understanding employee readiness for change would help to guide organizational managers in approaching changes and determining the best means of implementing these changes (Soumyaja, Kamlanabhan, & Bhattacharyya, 2015).

Human resource management can promote change utilizing various practices that ensure the organization obtains the trained, qualified, committed human resource, that possesses the required knowledge, skills, abilities (KSAs) and behaviors necessary to achieve change strategies (Mamin Ullah, 2012; Szamosi & Duxbury, 2002).

Since HR practices are linked to organizational outcomes through their influence on employee attitudes and behaviors (Huselid, 1995), HR function can promote organizational change by utilizing a specific set of HRM practices. HRM practices increase the KSAs of the employees, and empower and motivate them to utilize their KSAs for the benefit of the organization (Becker & Huselid, 1998).

Various HRM policies and practices can enhance readiness for change, and these practices can also help promote high performance and commitment towards the change process (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015). Previous research in the HRM literature has highlighted the key role of high-performance human resource management (HPHRM) practices in promoting organizational change, particularly employee readiness for change (Tummers et al., 2013). They note that employees could see these practices as benefits form their organization, reciprocating those benefits by being ready for change. Some HPHRM practices also can enhance employees' proactivity and vitality, which, in turn, would promote readiness for change (Tummers, Kruyen, Vijverberg, & Voesenek, 2013, 2015)

Although prior literature confirms that neglecting the critical role individuals play in change and the importance of readiness for change (e.g. Jones et al., 2005; Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015; Meirovich Gavriel et al., 2006; Rusly et al., 2012), there is still little empirical research about the antecedents of readiness for change.

Organizational change research has often analyzed change following a macro-level focus on systems (Iowa, Thoresen, Pucik, & Theresa, 1999). Micro-level perspective on change still needs additional research, considering the key importance of individuals in the success of change initiatives. Besides, many studies under a micro-perspective have examined the perceptions of managers, being necessary to analyze the perceptions of employees from all managerial levels.

Scholars have showed some interest in analyzing the impact of organizational change on HRM practices, examining how organizational change processes influence HR, in terms of changing their attitudes and behaviors ( e.g., Chen, Hou, & Fan (2009); Yousef (2017). On the contrary, prior research has largely ignored the analysis of the effect of human resource practices, and particularly, the effect of HPHRM practices in readiness for change. There is a need of examining the role of HPHRM practices in promoting readiness for change, adding light to the mediating mechanism which explain this relationship.

This need is higher in countries where research on organizational change and HRM is still scarce. Most of the studies considering antecedents of readiness for change, have been carried out in Western developed countries. Research in other socioeconomic and cultural contexts is still in it is initial stage. Particularly, HR researchers have not paid much attention in examining the antecedents of readiness for change in Arab countries, where some cultural issues such as Islamic religious, tribal and clan character could shape some antecedents by influencing organizational culture. In this line, Tsalits & Kismono (2019) underline that the effect of organizational culture on employees' readiness to change varies according  to the country in which the study was conducted.

Taking, these considerations into account, the main objective of the study is to develop and examine a framework for understanding how HPHRM practices contribute to organizational change and, particularly, employees' readiness for change.

For this purpose, a research model is proposed. The proposed model examines the direct influence of HPHRM practices on readiness for change, also examining their effect in organizational commitment and the influence of organizational commitment in readiness for change.

As the final goal for organizational change and readiness for change is improving organizational performance, the proposed model also examines the role of readiness for change to increase employees' performance. By enhancing employees' performance, readiness for change can contribute to organization's performance.

Finally, being aware of the role of organizational culture to shape the proposed relationships, the proposed model examines the moderating effect of hierarchy culture in the relationship between the HPHRM practices and organizational commitment.

In order to consider the three components of organizational commitment separately, we developed three sub-models. Each differs from the other two by focusing on one of the commitment profiles. The first sub-model took into account affective commitment, the continuance commitment in the second sub-model, and the normative commitment in the third sub-model.

Hence, the first sub-model included the variables of high-performance human resource management practices, affective commitment, individuals' readiness for change, individual performance, and hierarchical culture. The second and third sub-models tested the relationship between the same variables, but with the difference that the affective commitment was replaced by the continuance commitment in the second model and the normative commitment in the third model.

In our research, we chose Jordan as a country to conduct the study and particularly the banking sector in Jordan for the following reasons:

a) Previous research on the topic of this study was widely concentrated in the developed countries of Western Europe and the United States of America in addition to the United Kingdom. They are countries with a developed context in which modern management theories are formulated, tested, and verified far from countries with emerging economies and managerial practices.
b) The study model is based on a combination of variables related to the HPHRM practices and individuals' attitudes, which, in some cases, were previously investigated empirically. Nevertheless, to

the best of researcher's knowledge, this model has not been examined before, specifically in Jordan, the country under study.

The banking sector is a major sector of Jordan's economy. Hudairi, (2014) declared that looking at any country's economy including Jordan; the banking sector is considered one of the main pillars. According to the 38th Annual report of the Association of Banks In Jordan (ABJ) (2016), the sector of financial services, insurance, and real estate, and business services is the most crucial pillar of GDP as its contribution registered 20.5% of GDP at market prices in 2016. However, the economic weight of the Jordanian banking sector is not only illustrated by its compelling contribution to GDP, but it is also considered as one of the largest employers within the private sector. The total number of employees in all banks operating in Jordan was 21,262 at the end of 2019 working in 24 banks and 848 branches inside Jordan, in addition to having the biggest market capitalization in Amman Stock Exchange (Association of Banks In Jordan (ABJ), 2019).

Banks in Jordan like other business organizations are deeply influenced by the dynamic change in the business environment. Either to avoid a threat or to seize an opportunity, banks often adopt organizational change strategies, by restructuring, adding a major new service, developing the quality of services, technological change, creating new jobs or functions, canceling others, people change, and so on. Human resource managers and practitioners in these banks may not have sufficient time or the resources to use a wide set of HRM practices throughout the change process. Planning and prioritizing the use of HPHRM practices based on their potential impact and how critical these practices are for the achievement of the desired results will save time, costs, and efforts of HR practitioners.

On a more detailed level, this research contains many secondary objectives. We want to:

1. Underline the pivotal role of employees in the implementation and success of changes initiatives and the role of HPHRM practices to promote employees readiness for change.
2. Identifying which HPHRM practices are more relevant to promote employees' readiness for change.

3. Understand how high-performance human resource management practices enhance employee commitment, identifying which HPHRM practices are more relevant to achieving promote organizational commitment
5. Examine the role of employees' commitment in promoting readiness for change, identifying the best commitment profiles in case of the Jordanian banking sector.
6. Examine the nature of the moderating influence of the hierarchical culture, which is the prevailing culture in banks, on the relationship between high-performance human resource management practices and employees' commitment towards their organizations.
7. Understand if the role of HPHRM practices in promoting readiness for change and organizational commitment is in line with their impact in more developed Western countries.

In order to reach the desired objectives of the study, we collected data through an electronic questionnaire distributed through the Internet, in which we targeted the employees of banks operating in Jordan from all administrative levels, regardless of whether these banks are local Jordanian commercial banks, branches of foreign commercial banks operating in Jordan, local Islamic, or foreign Islamic banks. In order to deliver the questionnaire (electronic link) to the employees of the various banks, they have been contacted through the various social media sites and the pages of bank employee groups, e-mail, phone, and by direct personal contact by the researcher.

Conducting the bank employees was carried out one by one, regardless of the bank they work for, through the phone, email, direct messages on their personal accounts on social networking sites, as well as through the researcher's personal communication.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to examine the reliability and validity of the construct. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used to analyze structural relationships.

**Research structure**

This Ph.D. thesis is structured as follows:

Chapter I concentrates on clarifying the concepts of HR, HRM and HRM practices, exploring the evolution and development of HRM, the significance of HR and HRM, SHRM and Performance, and finally highlighting the reality of HRM in Jordan.

Chapter II focuses on the concept of the organizational change process, factors, and reasons of organizational change, discussing some issues related to the organizational change theories, models, and approaches to organizational change, change levels, failure and success of organizational change, the roles of employees in promoting organizational change and the understanding the readiness for change concept and importance.

Chapter III, in turn, centers, on readiness for change antecedents, theories to understand relationships among research's variables, research framework, and hypotheses development including all the proposed relationships between the constructs.

Chapter IV explains the research methodology, data analysis, and results of the current research. In this section, we highlighted the research methodology implemented to test our theoretical hypotheses with the collected data in an empirical study. In the beginning, we described the procedure of data collection and measurement of the construct, then discussed the questionnaire development and scale, then the statistical description of the data collected. at the second part, testing the conceptual models with CFA and SEM analysis, ending this chapter with results of the analysis for each conceptual sub-model.

Chapter V involves a detailed discussion, the limitations, and future research, and the conclusions, including practical and managerial implications.

# 1. HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

## 1.1. The concepts of Human Resource, Human Resource Management and Human Resource Management practices

### 1.1.1. Human Resource

Bryson, Ackermann, & Eden. (2007) defined resources in general as any assets on which the organization may rely to help it achieve its goals. Barney (1991) added that resources include all assets, capabilities, organization attributes, organizational processes, information, knowledge, etc. that are controlled by the organization and enable it to formulate and implement strategies that enhance its efficiency and effectiveness.

Organizations possess various kinds of resources. Scholars have proposed a variety of classifications for resource types. Fry, Stoner, & Hattwick (2004) divide resources into the people, physical materials, financial assets, and information. Hansen, Perry, & Reese (2004) divided the organization's resources into two general concepts: productive resources (which are needed for achieving goals) and administrative resources (which govern the use of productive resources). Bozeman & Straussman (1990) suggest three types: personnel resources, financial resources, and organizational structure. According to Russo & Fouts (1997) resources are physical assets and technologies, human resources and organizational capabilities, and the intangible resources of reputation and political acumen. Rainey & Paula Steinbauer (1999) suggested that resources are: financial, human, and technological resources. Gilley, Eggland, & Gilley (2002) classified resources as physical, financial, and human resources.

Regardless of the different resources' classifications, there is a consensus that the Human Resource is one of these essential resources.

As cited in Popescu (2016): the pioneering economist John R. Commons, was the first to coin the term "human resource" in his book "The Distribution of Wealth," in the year 1893. Popescu added, that in the 19th century and in order to resolve misunderstandings between employers and employees, "Human Resource" sections were created in some organizations and at the moment, the term (HR) has expanded to refer sometimes to the term "HRM" to replace the term personnel management (PM) as a description of the processes concerned with managing people in organizations.

The emergence of the term (Human Resource) and the beginnings of its extensive use were guided by Strategic Management researchers' efforts in the eighties of the last century to answer the essential question of how organizations achieve their competitive advantage.

O'riordan (2017) emphasized that this was particularly evident by Michael Porter, who sought to answer the above question, influenced by the economic theory that re-emerged strongly during this period, the resource-based view (RBV). O'riordan continued that the dominant thought about people management then was influenced by two prominent theories: First, personnel management approaches and initiatives must be consistent with the organization's overall strategy (Fombrun, Tichy, & Devanna, 1984). Second, that all the valuable, rare, and costly to imitate resources of the organization, especially the unique resource "Human Resource" can contribute to the achievement of competitive advantage. O'riordan said, adding that according to Boxall & Purcell (2016) this drove to the recognition of people as a "human capital advantage" and invest in them rather than consider them as a cost to be decreased. Oliver (2001) stated the strategic human resources management or the Human Capital[1] is mean of gaining competitive advantage through its people which is one of the most critical assets.

1 Human Capital expresses the human factor in the organization; the combined intelligence, skills,

Armstrong & Taylor (2014) claimed that an early reference to human resource was made by Bakke (1966) and again when (Armstrong, 1977) pointed out that the main resource in an enterprise was people[2].

Wright, McMahan, & McWilliams (1994:6) defined HR as "the pool of human capital under the firm's control in a direct employment relationship". Tracey in his Human Resources Glossary (2003: 322) defines HRs in two dimensions. He defined HR - contrasted with the material and financial resources of an organization as "The people that staff and operate an organization." He gave an example of the executives, managers, supervisors, engineers and scientists, technicians, administrative and clerical personnel, marketing and sales personnel, and hourly workers. The second dimension: " The organizational function that deals with the people who manage, produce, market, and sell the products and services of an organization." Gilley, Gilley, Quatro, & Dixon (2009) defined the human resource as the workers employed by an organization. It refers to the people who make up the workforce of an organization. Other terms sometimes are used include manpower, talent, labour, personnel, or people.

Boxall & Purcell (2016: 3,4) provide a different perspective to define human resources by declaring that Human Resources are" the characteristics that are intrinsic to human beings, which people can apply to the various tasks and challenges of their lives." They appended that human resources also include knowledge, skills, and energies that can be used in everyday roles, workforce power. Boxall and Purcell explained that underpinning or dynamic human characteristics include physical, emotional health, and intellectual abilities, personalities, and motivations, which constitute a whole set of assets and liabilities. Boxall and Purcell understand that Human Resources are not people themselves and that calling people "human resources" is a mistake made in many textbooks and dictionaries. They continued that people are independent agents who possess human resources, human resources are the talents people

and expertise that give the organization its distinctive character (Bontis, Dragonetti, Jacobsen, & Roos, 1999).

2 Human Resource Management (HRM) did not emerge in Na fully-fledged form until the 1980s through the US academic Charles Fombrun and his colleagues in the matching model, and Michael Beer and his colleagues in the Harvard framework (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014).

can deploy and develop at the workplace that they take it out with them when they leave the organization.

Although organizations lack the clear and straightforward means to measure the actual value that their human resource represents to their organizations, as opposed to Physical and financial resources (Gilley et al., 2002), there are claims among academics and managers that the human resource is the most valuable resource among the rest of the resources. Ulrich & Lake (1991) noted that HR, or employees, are the most critical resources a firm possesses because they underlie any organizational capability in the sense that organizations do not make decisions or allocate resources while people do. Guest, King, Conway, MIchie, & Shihan-Quinn (2001) stated that our employees are our most important asset. Drucker (2006) argued that the most valuable asset of the twenty-first century, for all types of organizations is knowledgeable workers and their productivity.

Boudreau & Ramstad (2007:4) stated that "no matter the term used to express the human resource: "the resource that lies within employees and how they are organized is increasingly recognized as critical to strategic success and competitive advantage". "People are the most important assets of an organization" and that" the importance of people in organizations is immense because it is the people that plan, design, implement, sustain and end an organization's life" (Senyucel, 2009: 10, 11). Schnider (1987) summarized up the significance of people in organizations by saying that "organizations are the people in them" and that people make the place.

Hence, in the recent few decades, academics and managers have concluded that people, not any other resources are the ones who make differentiation of any business, all the assets of any organization require the human resource to generate their value.

Considering people as the most crucial resource has led organizations and academics to develop and adopt a management approach to their human resources. An approach that recognizes the human resource as an investment rather than a cost to be reduced, which opened wide horizons for the development of the discipline of HRM.

### 1.1.2. Human Resource Management (HRM)

Many theorists and researchers see HRM as the heir and successor to personnel management (PM). Dunn & Stephens (1972:10) defined (PM) as "The process of attracting, holding, and motivating people involving all managers- line and staff".

HRM took its place in the management discipline that is concerned with the management of people, through a gradual evolution and transformation. Ulrich & Dulebohn (2015) claimed that the practice of HR had experienced significant transformation over the last three decades. This has included HR moving from being a lower level, administrative and maintenance-oriented function to operating in many organizations as a core business function and a strategic business partner.

The term HRM was subject to numerous research and discussions that dealt with its content, reality, philosophy, tools and practices, functions, importance, development etc. A widely accepted definition does not exist.

Graham (1978) claimed that the purpose of HRM is to ensure that the employer obtains the highest possible benefit from the employees' abilities, and the employees get both material and psychological rewards from their work.

DeCenzo, David & Robbins, Stephen (1996) noted that HRM is the part of the organization that is concerned with the "people" dimension of management. They added that the whole organization consists of people who serve the organization, and the organization develops their skills, motivating them to high levels of performance and ensuring that they maintain their commitment to the organization to achieve organizational objectives.

Paauwe & Boon (2009) defined the Human Resources Department, taking into consideration the activities as departments and units in organizations are typically responsible for a number of activities, including employee recruitment, training and development, performance appraisal, and rewarding (e.g., managing pay and benefit systems).

Gilley et al. (2009) described HRM as a dynamic and evolving practice used by leaders and managers throughout a firm to enhance productivity, quality, and effectiveness.

Table 1.1 includes some other definitions of HRM which may shed light on some facts and philosophy of HRM beginning with personnel management (PM).

**Table 1.1 Definitions of Human Resource Management**

| Source | Definition |
|---|---|
| (Storey, 1995: 5) | “Human resource management is a distinctive approach to employment management which seeks to achieve competitive advantage through the strategic deployment of a highly committed and capable workforce using an integrated array of cultural, structural and personnel techniques”. |
| (Boxall & Purcell, 2003: 1) | “All those activities associated with the management of employment relationships in the firm” |
| (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004: 679) | “HRM is a managerial perspective which argues the need to establish an integrated series of personnel policies to support organizational strategy”. |
| (Armstrong, 2006: 1) | “A strategic and coherent approach to the management of an organization’s most valued assets – the people working there who individually and collectively contribute to the achievement of its objectives”. |
| (Byars, and Rue, 2006: 4) | HRM are the “activities designed to provide for and coordinate the human resource of an organization”. |
| (Bratton & Gold, 2007: 7) | “A strategic approach to managing employment relations which emphasizes that leveraging people’s capabilities is vital to achieving competitive advantage, through a distinctive set of integrated employment policies, programs, and practices”. |
| (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart, & Wright, 2008: 4) | “HRM refers to the policies, practices, and systems that influence employees’ behavior, attitudes, and performance”. |
| (Paauwe & Boon, 2009:5) | “HRM is a commonly reflected description for a range of practices associated with managing work and employment relations.” |

| | |
|---|---|
| (Watson, 2010: 919) | "HRM is the managerial utilisation of the efforts, knowledge, capabilities and committed behaviours which people contribute to an authoritatively co-ordinated human enterprise as part of an employment exchange (or more temporary contractual arrangement) to carry out work tasks in a way which enables the enterprise to continue into the future". |
| (Dessler, 2013: 4) | "HRM is the process of acquiring, training, appraising, and compensating employees, and of attending to their labour relations, health and safety, and fairness concerns". |
| (Armstrong, 2016:7; Armstrong & Taylor, 2014: 9) | "Human resource management is a strategic, integrated and coherent approach to the employment, development and well-being of the people working in organisations". |
| (Boxall & Purcell, 2016: 7) | "Human resource management is the process through which management builds the workforce and tries to create the human performances that the organization needs". |

**Source:** Own elaboration

Despite researchers' efforts, a widely accepted definition does not exist. Therefore, definitions may sometimes be similar and sometimes different. For instance, some focus on the goals and objectives of HRM in their definitions and, other researchers and managers focus on the key functions and activities of HRM or different issues.

This variation in definitions may be due to more than one explanation:

- The domain of interest of the researcher and his academic or practical and professional background. So, part of them focus on the rights and safety of employees and the responsibilities of the organizations reflecting his interests in the legal aspect; some others defined it as a managerial perspective concentrating on the objectives and functions. The researcher may highlight incentives, motivation, and behavioural side in the definition he proposes if he is interested in the behavioural domain.
- The stages of evolution and transformation witnessed by the concept and discipline of people management and business administration science. Each stage of development and transformation of HRM was followed by modifications and redefinition of human resources management.

- The definition presented by the researcher is often a reflection of the managerial school that believes in its ideas and principles.

Some researchers were influenced by the ideas of the soft model of HRM[3]. They focused on the human side, showing employees as the most important resource in the work and source of competitive advantage, focusing on the needs of employees, motivation, rewards, etc. and the importance of commitment. On the other hand, those influenced by the hard model of HRM focused on resource side and stressed the rationality of strategic fit where human resource policies and practices are closely linked to the strategic goals of the organization and are coherent among themselves, and on performance management, performance appraisal and effective approach to managing individuals.

HRM has evolved and grown significantly in recent years, its importance is recognized by playing an essential role at various levels within organizations (Gray, 2007); its status and importance as a function are increasingly growing over time. This is accompanied by the introduction of new concerns and practices as they evolve to support organizations, implement their strategies and achieve their business objectives. Therefore, it is normal that there is a kind of disagreement on a comprehensive definition agreed upon by all researchers and specialists in human resources management.

With all the above considered, there is a consensus that the discipline and the function of HRM recognize people as a valuable resource rather than a property, and as an investment rather than a cost.

The shift in naming from personnel management to HRM, and the lack of consensus on a particular definition of HRM reflects the development of managerial thought prevailing in that period. It also reflects the philosophy of HRM and its perception of people in organizations. This perception has evolved from being a mere employee or a worker to be considered the most critical resource in the organization.

3 Hard and soft versions are two of the most broadly used models of HRM, these are based on opposing viewpoints of human nature and management control strategies, While the hard model is based on the concepts of strict strategic control and an economic model of man according to theory X, the soft model is based on control by commitment and theory Y (Truss, Gratton, Hope-Hailey, McGrovern, & Stiles, 1997).

Human resources management is a cross-cutting area of practices, complicated, prone to rapid development and change in both the business and the academic fields. HRM's philosophy, trends, activities, and practices vary according to the influences of internal and external business environments and the development of management science. It began with a modest start as a secondary administrative activity in organizations until it became a strategic function and vital to the success of institutions.

HRM aims mainly at providing organizations with the appropriate HR (skilful, qualified, committed competencies) to attain a sustainable competitive advantage. In addition to the above Armstrong & Taylor (2014) considered HRM as a philosophy on how to manage people, or how to improve organizational effectiveness through people with equal attention to the ethical dimension of treating people according to a set of moral values.

### 1.1.3. Human Resource Management Practices

HRM practices include activities, policies, and practices involved in planning, obtaining, developing, utilizing, evaluating, maintaining, and retaining the appropriate skills mix, and numbers of employees in order to accomplish organizational objectives (Appelbaum, 2001).

HRM practices are concerned with both the provision of proper personnel and the manner how people are managed. HRM practices thus form the basis for active employee participation in improving organizational performance, achieving the competitive advantage, and in the success and survival of organizations. Schuler & Jackson (1987) echoed this view by saying that organizations use the system of HRM practices to ensure the survival of the organizations and organization's members. Becker & Gerhart (1996; Lepak, Liao, Chung & Harden (2006); Schuler (1992) claimed that HR activities could be considered at several levels of analysis. Lepak et al.) 2006) pointed that these levels are in descending order, at the highest level of analysis there is the HR system that represents a program of multiple HR policies that are adopted to be internally consistent to achieve some comprehensive results. HR policies at the second level of consideration reflect an employee-focused program that influences the choice of HR practices, and at the lowest level, HR practices that contain a wide range of HR practices organizations may choose to manage employees, HR practices Indicate specific organizational procedures planned to achieve specific results. For example, a high-commitment HR system may include a number of connected policies to encourage employee commitment to their organization and increase their contribution to organizational performance such as selective staffing policies, comprehensive training and linking compensation to performance, HR policy may be a commitment to pay for performance policy, while a variety of different HR practices could be implemented to achieve this policy such as partial rate systems, profit sharing, and commissions (Lepak et al., 2006).

#### 1.1.3.1. Definition of HRM practices

HRM practices refer to organizational activities directed at managing the pool of human resources and ensuring that the resources are employed towards the fulfilment of organizational goals (Schuler & Jackson, 1987; Wright et al., 1994).

For Heneman III & Milanowski (2011) HRM practices are the activities that can perform the HR strategies and can be directed toward enhancing the HR's performance and improving its competencies, skills, and knowledge to achieve the strategic goals.

Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart, & Wright (2011) listed a number of such practices as work analysis and job design, attracting (recruitment) potential employees, choosing employees (selection), training and development of the employees, performance management, rewards and compensation, employee relations for creating a positive work environment, and supporting organization's strategy through HR planning and change management. They added that the organization works best when all these practices are well managed.

Schuler & MacMillan (1984) explained that the infrastructure requirements mean the HRM practices, which consist of those functions and activities essential for the effective management of an organization's HRs. They continued that the main objectives of these activities are to attract, motivate, and retain employees. Schuler & MacMillan (1984) considered HR planning, staffing, including recruitment, selection, and socialization, appraising, compensation, training and development, union-management relationships as key HRM practices. (Delery & Doty, 1996) added that when some HRM practices are successfully implemented, they would always contribute to improving organizational performance.

The researchers directed their research efforts towards finding appropriate human resource management practices that have the potential of improving and sustaining organizational performance. Researchers suggested practices like emphasizing on selecting employees on a basis commensurate with the company's culture, focusing on behaviour, attitude, and technical skills required by the job, compensation based on performance, and empowering the employee to enhance the team's work, among other practices (Ahmad & Schroeder, 2003).

Pfeffer (1994) identified a list of sixteen HRM practices, later the list was refined to seven HRM practices:

1. Employment security.
2. Extensive training.
3. High compensation contingent on organizational performance.
4. Reduction in status difference.
5. Selective hiring.
6. Self-managed teams and team working.
7. Sharing information.

Delery & Doty (1996) considered the following seven practices as a consistently strategic in nature practices: formal training system, internal career opportunities, profit sharing, appraisal measures, employment security, job definition, and voice mechanism.

In the context of talking about human resource practices, it is imperative to discuss the terms HRM policies, delivery of HRM and HRM systems to learn about the vital position of human resources practices.

Singar & Ramdsen, (1972) defined organizational policies as an organization's leading principles and a general course of action in which some practices are formulated and developed collectively, trying to reach particular objectives. (Armstrong, 2009) described HRM policies as an organization's attitude, expectations, and values guiding how individuals are treated and serve as a reference point for the development of organizational practices and in decision-making, adding that HRM policies result in equal treatment amid individuals. (Demo, Neiva, Nunes, & Rozzett (2012)this study aimed to validate the Human Resources Management Policies and Practices Scale (HRMPPS argue that HRM policies represent a theoretical and practical referential that has been created to facilitate the achievement of the goals and objectives of an organization, serving as a guide to thinking and acting for the HRM area.

Schuler & Jackson (1987) noted that HR practices can be seen as a system used by the organization to attract and recruit, motivate employees, and develop their abilities and retain them to ensure effective implementation and survival of the organization.

Armstrong (2010) claims that HRM is delivered through the organization's HR architecture, which comprises the HR system and the HR delivery model utilized by the HR function. Where Armstrong (2010) and Becker & Huselid (2006) view that HR systems consist of internally interrelated practices and support each other to achieve the goals of HRM, Armstrong (2010) continues to say that, taking into account the external and internal context that shapes the environment in which the organization operates, human resources systems are working to develop:

- HR strategies that define and indicate the direction HRM will take.
- HR policies, which, according to Armstrong, constitute lines and a guide for how to implement the principles, values, and strategies in different aspects of HRM.
- HR processes, in their entirety, form the procedures and methods used to implement HR strategies, plans, and policies and put them into practice.
- HR linked practices related to people management in the organization.
- HR programs that ensure implementation of HRM strategies, policies, and practices as per plans

HR systems or bundles of practices can be effective to influence organizational results. Delery & Doty (1996) provides that HRM practices are viewed as a set of internally consistent practices and policies that are designed and performed with the intent to assure that the organization's human capital contributes to organization's business objectives.

Lepak et al. (2006) believe that focusing on HR systems rather than the individual HR practices as a driver of individual and organizational performance is the most important feature of strategic HRM perspective and that the rationale for this perspective is about the rare use of practices in isolation from other practices so all practices in use should be studied without exception then the potential explanatory value of any practice is not neglected.

Delery (1998) confirms this view, stressing that the effectiveness of any human resource management practice depends on other practices being used. Lado & Wilson (1994); Minbaeva (2005), argue that organizations utilize bundles of HRM practices to facilitating the development of firm-specific competencies, generating organizational knowledge and creating complex social relations to sustain competitive advantage. Boon, Eckardt, Lepak, & Boselie (2018); Delery & Roumpi (2017); Lepak et al. (2006) also considered HRM practices as a system or a bundle of practices that collectively improves workforce's skills and motivations declaring that "The HRM's duties" is an agreed description by many HRM researchers for HRM practices.

However, Lepak et al. (2006) states that despite the popularity of the perspective of human resource practices systems, there is still a lack of consensus on what these systems are, what are the basic policies contained in these systems, as well as what practices can constitute each system to implement these policies and systems. Lepak et al. (2006) gave an example on HR systems as high-performance work systems HPWS (Huselid, 1995), high commitment (Arthur, 1992; Lepak & Snell, 2002), high involvement HR system (Lawler, 1992), sophisticated HR practices (Koch & McGrath, 1996) and human capital enhancing HR systems (Youndt et al., 1996), etc. that do not provide a clear agreement regarding about the fundamental policies to be included in these systems and the proper practices to carry out these policies and systems, and how do these systems influence the desired organizational outcomes.

#### 1.1.3.2. Factors affecting HRM practices

Human resource management practices that can be adopted by any organization are influenced by the difference in business and HRM strategies from one organization to another in addition to many internal and external factors.

Tiwari and Tiwari & Saxena (2012) summarize a number of external and internal factors affecting HR practices:

1. Internal Factors

- Organizations Size
- Organizational Structure
- Business strategy
- Human Resource Strategy
- History, Tradition, and past practices
- Top Management
- Line Management
- Organizational power and Politics
- Influence of Academic and Professional of HR stuff

For instance, with regard to the size of organizations, according to McPherson (2008), a large number of small companies do not apply formal HR practices in large organizations. Furthermore, in terms of HR strategy, according to Garavan, Wilson, Cross, & Carbery (2008), HR strategy is the central determining factor for the intensity and diversity of HR practices used, as the general rule is that HR practices are formed according to the HR strategy.

2. External Factors: Are pressures on organizations that in short run cannot be controlled and changed in an affirmative way (Kane & Palmer, 1995).

- Economic Changes
- Technological Changes
- National Culture
- Industry and Sector Characteristics
- Legislations and Regulations
- Actions of Competitors

- Action of Union

For example, economic changes have turned the focus of HRM practices from traditional topics such as internal selection and rewards to concepts such as globalization and international competition. On the other hand, technological changes affect the context of HRM, mainly due to a high degree of interaction between technology and HR and the way they are implemented. Defillippi (2002) endorses this statement by saying that technology changes the way we do business, the roles we do, and the interactions through which the work is done. Moreover, Chandrakumara & Sparrow (2004) found that culture had of critical importance in organizations 'choices in developing appropriate structures and systems for HR practices.

## 1.2. Evolution and development of HRM

There is no doubt that the management of people or personnel management as a practice began with the beginning of the existence of prehistoric human societies through the division of roles in these communities such as determining who will lead the tribe or assigning and dividing duties for the completion of animal hunting and agricultural works or food gathering. In the more primitive periods, skills and knowledge that were needed to provide tools, food, and shelter for survival had transferred from one human to another (Torraco, 2009).

Over time, and in shade of the dramatically changing trends of business in a competition-oriented environment, and through a process of theory building and testing of various concepts by academics, managers and practitioners, the concept related to managing people have changed his content and title (personnel management (PM), human resource management (HRM), strategic human resource management (SHRM). HRM becomes a vital variable for the efficient growth of any organization.

There is much to talk about (PM) in the Chinese, Roman, Pharaoh's civilizations, or other ancient civilizations. However, in this context focus will be on the recent periods that accompanied the emergence of philosophies and theories of modern administration science, which contributed in one way or another in the development and in forming the concepts. HRM, specifically, on the industrial revolution and the subsequent1800 ’s when major contributions were delivered to the development of the HRM[4].

Some of the most important events and milestones that influenced in the evolution and development of human resources management as practices and discipline are shown in the following sections, based upon a synthesis of available literature on human resources management (Chukwunonso, 2013; Gibbym, Zickar, Gibby, & Zickar, 2008; Haslinda, 2009; Jamrog & Overholt, 2004; Josephat, 2011; Kavanagh, Mohan, & Johnson, 2015; Mujahid, Sameen, Naz, Nazir, & Manzoor, 2014; Nankervis, Compton, Baird, & Coffy, 2011; Obedgiu, 2017; Richman, 2015; Taylor, 2011; Thite, Kavanagh, & Johnson, 2012; Tubey, Rotich, & Kurgat, 2015).

### 1.2.1. The industrial revolution and the period that followed revolution in the 1800’s

The industrial revolution was accompanied by the transition to large factories rather than cottage industries, the use of machinery, the expansion of employment of a large workforce, child labor, long working hours and poor working conditions. Other feature of this period was the rise of middle-level supervisors who often abused workers under their supervision to achieve maximum exploitation of workers, widening the gap between workers and supervisors; and consequently, the rise of labor unions to agitate for workers’ rights such like wages, diminishing the hours of labor, and improving working conditions. Thus, the personnel function expanded to include welfare and administration, mainly in the UK and USA.

Another impressive stage in the development of personnel management or human resources management was at the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the twentieth century.

One of the essential Milestones in this period was the emergence of the scientific management movement led by Frederick Taylor, the central thrust of scientific management was to maximize employee productivity (Thite et al., 2012). Taylor tried to regulate the relationship between

4 The Industrial Revolution created several challenges related to people, leading to a need for the management of these resources (York, 2005).

management and employees. Investigating for the best efficient use of the human capabilities in the production process, Taylor emphasized the importance of specialization, division of labor, training and economic incentives in the productivity of workers. Taylor called for the "scientific" selection and training of workers. He also established incentive systems that rewarded employees for meeting or exceeding performance measures. Although Taylor's goals were optimizing efficiency in manufacturing environments, his principles laid the groundwork for future HRM development.

### 1.2.2. World War I (WWI)

Along with the World War I (WWI), and in response to the need to rapidly assign new troops to duty, the discipline of Industrial psychology was crystallized. The theories of industrial and organizational psychology (I/O psychology), which is also known as occupational psychology, were used to develop a test by the American military personnel because they were interested in the emotional stability of new military recruits, leading to advancements in employment testing and selection (Gibbym et al., 2008).

Following the end of (WWI) and particularly after the year 1924 and influenced by results of the Hawthorne studies[5], greater emphasis was placed on the social and informal aspects of the workplace affecting worker productivity. Increasing the job satisfaction of workers is cited as means to increase their productivity. There has been an upsurge in motivation practices, with various attempts at employee satisfaction such as better wages and good working conditions.

### 1.2.3. Pre-World War II (WWII)

At this stage of time, the personnel function (the precursor of the term HRM) was primarily concerned with record keeping of employee information by maintaining health records, working hours and pay roll.

5 Hawthorne studies are considered as the root of the movement of human relations that was formed and developed in the subsequent period.

During this period, "scientific management" and it's time and motion studies[6] to discover the best use of human capabilities in production process, was the prevailing management philosophy. The work was divided into pieces, and the number of tasks to be completed during an average workday. This formed the basis of piece-rate pay systems, which were seen as the most efficient way to motivate employees. At this point of history all employment terms and conditions were left to the employers and owners of the firms.

#### 1.2.4. World War II- the beginning of the sixties of the twentieth century (1945 – 1960)

This period witnessed developments in various managerial practices, which had an impact on the development of the function of personnel management.

During the World War II, the focus was on recruitment and selection and later on training, improving morale and motivation, discipline, health and safety and payment policies. This meant that a personnel department had to be established with skilled staff. The war created a large demand for recruitment of large numbers of individuals including soldiers and employees in various military and industrial occupations that support the war machine. There was a critical need to establish and develop a kind of job description and classification systems to classify people around different professional groups to improve recruitment and selection procedures (Mujahid et al., 2014).

The basis for such systems was the job description that defines the tasks, duties, and responsibilities of any individual a who held the job. Job description has also become the basis for the development of compensation systems and provide the reference for performance evaluation and termination programs.

6 "Motion and time" is one of the productivity improvement techniques based on scientific analysis designed to determine the best way to perform a repetitive task and measure the time spent by the average worker to complete the certain task in a fixed workplace. Time study, originated by Taylor, motion study, developed by the Gilbreths, in the early days greater use was made of time study than motion study (Barners, 1980).

Contrary to what the School of Scientific Management promoted, the human relations movement, led by Elton Mayo, focused on improving productivity through various motivation techniques. This managerial school began to utilize social and psychological factors as a means of motivation in addition to the use of monetary incentives. As a result, there was a keen interest in employee productivity through various stimulation techniques. This period saw the emergence of compensation and evaluation strategies, job analysis and job descriptions, which were reflected in improved recruitment and selection practices.

The human relations philosophy and labour relations were the dominant concerns of HRM in the 1940s and 1950s. The increasing interest in employee welfare and official recognition of trade unions, the enactment of several labour laws in many countries, and the evolution of collective bargaining for increased employee welfare, was among the most important characteristic of this period and had an impact on the development of human resources management (personnel management) until that moment.

### 1.2.5. The period 1960 – 1980

In the United States of America, significant events paved the way for the evolution of the discipline of personnel management. Civil rights movement and labor unions have been very active during this period. Leading to enacting many labor laws, the Occupational Health and Safety Act, Pension Rights Act, and the most significant law of that period was the Civil Rights Act (1964). The Civil Rights Act (1964) eliminated all shapes of discrimination, improved working conditions, and ushered in equal employment opportunity. All that led to the evolving of the personnel function to include recruitment, labor relations, training, compensations and benefits, and government relations divisions.

The development in the field of computer technology has dramatically influenced various managerial areas including personnel management. Computer technology has found its way into use in personnel management systems such as payroll, inventory, accounts, and record keeping[7].

7 The first HRM software Comprehensive Occupational Data Analysis Program (CODAP) was developed in the USA for job descriptions and assigning roles (Tubey et al., 2015).

The distinguishing feature of this period was the transition from Personnel Management (PM) to Human Resources Management (HRM). One of the most notable features that characterized working in HRM during this period was the extensive use of computers and the evolution of HR information systems. Information systems like e-recruitment, online shortlisting of applicants, psychometric training, payroll systems, employment data, recruitment administration, pre-employment checks, save time and ensure a massive amount of information to make decisions.

### 1.2.6. The period 1980-early 1990s (Cost-Effectiveness Era).

Because of the concentration of organizations to encourage the productivity, this period saw an expansion in workplaces automation, shift from employee management to employee development and involvement, emphasis on efficiency and effectiveness by adopting the technology, emergence of employee return on investment debate, and the rise of hard and soft HRM approaches.

The hard approach influenced by the Scientific Management school, maintains managing the human resource in a rational way; it emphasizes the quantitative, calculative, and business strategic aspects. By contrast, the soft approach based on the principles of the human-relations school emphasizes communication, motivation, and leadership.

**Figure 1.1:** Historical Evolution of HRM

| **Role of HRM** | |
|---|---|
| **Early 20th Century** | **21st Century** |
| Caretaker | Strategic partner |

| | |
|---|---|
| Employee focus<br>Records | Cost effectiveness<br>Employee development |

**Source:** (Thite et al., 2012: 7)

### 1.2.7. The post-1990s, era of technological advancement and advent of strategic human resource management (SHRM)

An epoch of dynamic change and rapid technological development, it has been characterized by technological revolutions at all levels and fields, especially in the areas of computer and communications, which led to the globalization of economies, competition, and markets. The enormous pressures caused by globalization have fuelled competition among organizations and competition for resources, including human resources, markets and for inventing all new and valuable goods, services, and technologies.

All these developments and others have put pressure on organizations to increase efficiency, and to adopt various organizational changes in type or size to improve their competitiveness and survival in the markets.

Concerning the field of HRM, by the beginning of 1990s, the importance of linking HRM with the strategic goals and objectives was the foundation for the transition of HRM towards Strategic HRM. Strategic HRM emerged after the recognition of the importance of human resources and intellectual capital.

From the strategic HRM perspective, HRM began to play a vital role in organizations as a strategic business partner. In addition to that competition raged on attracting, employing, developing, and retaining talented employees has created a new term known as talent management and as a result of this intense competition to attract, recruit, develop and retain distinctive human resources the so - called "war for talent" was coined for the first time in 1998 when McKinsey & Company, an America's management-consulting firm, published their report declaring that "better talent is worth fighting for" (Beechler & Woodward, 2009; Chambers, Foulon, Handfield-Jones, Hankin, & Michaels III, 1998).

The 1990s and beyond were marked by the rapid and remarkable development of information and communications technology (ICT). This was compounded by the increasing reliance of human resources management on technology, which developed new concepts and applications as a result like electronic human resources (e-HR), e-training and telecommuting.

Environmental forces and the quest for knowledge of better ways of acquiring and utilizing labor played the vital role in the evolution and development of human resource management seeking for the best practices of people management and employee management techniques and methods.

The purpose of the continuous development was to improve efficiency in the production and service delivery processes, reduce costs, and to ensure sustained availability of competent staff in the organization

### 1.2.8. New developments in the second millennial

After the dominance of the term strategic management of human resources (SHRM) approach to (HRM) domain in the past thirty years, a more recent approach to HRM that seeks to link HRM with sustainability has arisen. The new approach has been named as sustainable human resources management (sustainable HRM).

The literature on (sustainable HRM) has developed during the past decade, and it represents the efforts to grapple with the connection between HRM practices and outcomes beyond financial outcomes. This approach explicitly acknowledges the impact HRM policies have on both human and financial outcomes.

Unlike the emphasis of the SHRM approach, this approach acknowledges the influence of HRM practices in furthering a more extensive range of outcomes (Kramar, 2014).

These outcomes could be:

- Human outcomes: the impacts on individuals or groups in an organization.
- Social outcomes: the impacts on groups of people and the relationships between people.
- Ecological and environmental outcomes.

- Acknowledgment of the possibility of negative impacts on human, social, and ecological and environmental outcomes.

This more recent approach has been labelled as sustainable human resource management (sustainable HRM). Kramar (2014) described sustainable HRM as the next approach beyond the SHRM.

## 1.3. Why Human Resource and Human Resource Management are significant for organizations?

In the journey made over the past few decades, Human Resources Management has been evolved and become a key player and an important practice of managing organizations and the decisive factor in their success and survival.

The Resource-Based View managerial theory (RBV) was one of the most important milestones of the growing importance of the HR and HRM. RBV's concepts were derived from both organizational economics and strategic management when the RBV attempted to answer a central question about why some organizations excel in organizational performance over other similar organizations. These attempts took place while other classical economic theories could not explain these differences (Jay B. Barney & Arikan, 2001).

RBV theory focuses attention on an organization's internal resources as means of obtaining a competitive advantage. Competitive advantage is the capability or a set of capabilities, resource, or resources that give the organization a competitive edge over its competitors, leading to increased performance (Wiggins & Ruefli, 2002).

A primary assumption of the resource-based view is that organizations compete based on their resources and capabilities (Peteraf & Bergen, 2003). This theory argued that the internal strategic resources any organization possess are the means of achieving a sustainable competitive advantage.

Three basic types of resources can provide this competitive advantage (Jay B. Barney, 1991):

- Physical capital resources.

- Organizational capital resources, as the firm's structure and HR systems.
- Human capital resources which include things like the skills, judgment, and intelligence of the firm's employees.

For those resources to be potential sources of sustainable competitive advantage, they must conform to four standards of being Valuable, Rare, Imperfectly Imitable, or costly to imitate and Non-substitutable - now generally known as VRIN criteria or VRIN framework (Barney, 1991; Talaja, 2012). Then Barney (1991) improved the framework from VRIN to VRIO by adding the question: "Is a company "Organized" to exploit these resources?" if the organization meets this additional criterion and the resource has VRIO characteristics, then this resource can enable the organization to obtain and sustain a competitive advantage. HRM can play a significant role in assuring that the firm's HR satisfy those principles by creating an environment that presents knowledge, motivation, and engagement which would be hard for rivals to imitate (Afiouni, 2007; Agarwal, 2001; Luftman & Kempaiah, 2007).

Poole (1999) claimed that sustained competitive advantage is distinct from the concept of competitive advantage. Within the resource-based view, a sustained competitive advantage exists only when other firms are incapable of duplicating the benefits of a competitive advantage, and a competitive advantage is not considered sustained until all efforts by competitors to duplicate the advantage that has ceased.

The RBV theory drew attention to the importance of the organization's internal resources as a means of obtaining a competitive advantage and prompted researchers to pay attention to human resource or human capital derived from HR and to consider it as the most valuable resource and the essential source of achieving sustainable competitive advantage.

Thus, many academic researchers have applied the resource-based view to understanding the role of HR to produce competitive advantage in organizations. For example, Wright et al. (1994) and Boxall (1996) used the RBV framework to examine how a firm's HR can be a source of sustainable competitive advantage. Bouguesri, Benabou & Tabeti (2013) supported this trend by saying that among most of the organizations, there is a growing view towards HR as a critical resource that can gain a competitive advantage. Memon, Mangi, & Rohra (2009) mentioned that Human Capital which is all the competencies of the people within an organization is acknowledged as the most crucial element of competitive advantage in most organizations. They added that human capital can be measured and managed effectively if the company know how it contributes to their success.

Different academics and researchers like Caldwell (2001); Greer (1995); Porter (1980) have also underlined that HRM is a necessary function to gain a competitive advantage for organizations.

In the competitive advantage context, there is a divergence of views on HR as a source of competitive advantage. Schuler & MacMillan (1984) and Ulrich (1991) provided a perspective that emphasizes on HR practices being the source of competitive advantage[8]. They assume that HR can create value for the firm and that HR practices are the source of sustained competitive advantage. At the same time, Wright et al. (1994) opposes this view presenting a human resource-oriented perspective asserting that human resources are the source of competitive advantage rather than HR practices. They argued that since a resource in order to be a source of competitive advantage it must be valuable, rare, inimitable, and non-substitutable. Although HR practices are valuable, they can be easily imitated and, therefore, they cannot be a source of sustainable competitive advantage. Therefore, the source of sustainable competitive advantage lies in the HRs themselves, not in the practices used to attract, use and retain the HR.

The importance of HRM can be explained because of its direct link to the employees[9] of the organizations which is consistent with the Resource-Based View (RBV). As HRM practices are implemented to ensure that the human capital of the organization contributes to the achievement of

8 Kepes & Delery (2007) state that the source of the competitive advantage lies in HRM systems, rather than individual HRM practices, adding that this premise is one of the most important is a characteristic of SHRM and that internally coherent and internally compatible HR systems generate positive impacts on organizational results.

9 The goals of HRM policy as identified by Caldwell (2001) involves managing people as assets that are fundamental to the organization's competitive advantage , aligning HRM policies with business policies and corporate strategy, and developing a close fit of HR policies, procedures and systems with one another.

its business objectives (Delery & Doty, 1996), they play a relevant role to achieve competitive advantage.

Researchers' studies on HRM have concluded that HR practices can play an important role in developing the human assets that provide competitive advantage. Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright (2010) claimed that because the competition is getting worse to worst in the business world HRM is the sole factor that provides an organization with a competitive advantage.

Lado & Wilson (1994) explored the potential for HR practices to be a source of competitive advantage. The importance of HR increased because knowledge became the most crucial element of gaining competitive advantage (Grant, 1996).

## 1.4. Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) and Performance

### 1.4.1. Introduction

The dynamic and rapid change in the business environment and the intensification of competition in globalized markets forced organizations to resort to business strategies that would enable them to maximize their competitiveness and improve their performance, resulting in increased attention to HRM.

Since the early 1980s, organizations began to pay more considerable attention to the human element as the most critical resource and how this resource should be managed. Therefore, has been a transformation from personnel management to HRM, the role of HRM department was no longer limited to the traditional role of implementation what is passed by senior management in relation to the employees of the organization and has begun to play a strategic role that serves the overall strategy of the organization. By this period (SHRM) has evolved as a field of management practice and an area of research.

Alleyne, Greenidge, Corbin, Alleyne, & Devonish (2008); Nolan (2002) added that by the growth of market-based competition, the growing interest in SHRM had developed mainly as a result of the erosion of the importance of other traditional competitive advantage's sources that companies have been able to rely on. Because the issue of allocating and utilizing scarce resources is a strategic matter within the organizations; hence, the management of human resource has been admitted from a strategic perspective by many investigators (Gunnigle, Turner, & Morley, 1998; Sisson & Marginson, 1995).

The traditional role of HRM is no longer sufficient to achieve excellence and competitive advantage, so it was imperative that HRM takes on a strategic dimension and play a strategic role. This strategic role differs from the traditional role and makes HRM more capable of adapting to the rapid changing business environments and to support the achievement of the organization's strategic objectives. This strategic role is what called SHRM.

Armstrong (2011) believes that the concepts of strategy (Strategic Management) and HRM are the basis for strategic SHRM. He built this idea by citing Wright & McMahan's (1992) declaring that HRM attempted to integrate with strategic management process through the development of a new discipline of strategic human resources management. Boxall (1996) described SHRM as an interface for HRM and strategic management.

The emergence of SHRM as a new area of research was due to the idea that the HR of the organization could play a strategic role in its success (Allen & Wright, 2006). Delery & Doty (1996) noted that the desire of researchers to express the importance of HR practices for organizational performance contributed to the emergence of this field of research. Boxall, (1998) and Boxall & Purcell (2000) described this emerging field as an intersection of HRM and strategic management literature.

### 1.4.2. Definition and nature of Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM)

Guest (1989) believes that the most significant feature of SHRM that distinguishes it from traditional human resource management is the integration of human resources management with strategic decision-making processes that control organizational efforts to adapt to the environment.

Globalization, competition and continuous change in the market and technology are among the main reasons for the transforming into the SHRM (Beer, 1997). At the other hand Schuler & Jackson (2005) believe that, the term "SHRM" is generally used among human resource practitioners to refer to the belief that HRM practices should promote organizational performance, at least financially.

However, there has been a significant debate in the literature over the definition and the meaning of the term SHRM (Boxall & Purcell, 2000; Boxall, Purcell, & Wright, 2007). This opinion was confirmed by both Budhwar & Aryee (2008) who said that the field of SHRM is still evolving, and there is insufficient agreement among scientists about an agreeable definition.

Many researchers agreed (e.g., Chang & Huang, 2005; Dulebohn, Ferris, & Stodd, 1995; Huselid, Jackson, & Schuler, 1997; Mabey, Salaman, & Storey, 1998; Miller, 1989; Wright, 1998) that the concept of strategic human resources management is based on the view that human resources are a valuable asset. They underline that SHRM is the development and implementation of a comprehensive HR plan that seeks to gain a sustainable competitive advantage through an integrated and consistent set of HR practices that complement and enhance the overall business strategy of the organization.

Other definition like given by Mello (2011); Pinnamaneni, Xu & Findley (2015); Pynes (2004); Wright & McMahan (1992) stressed that linking the HRM in an organization to its strategy enables the organization to achieve its strategic goals. Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) involves the development of a constant, aligned set of strategies, practices, and policies to promote the accomplishment of the organization's strategic objectives (Mello, 2002). Delery & Doty (1996); Fombrun et al. (1984); Huselid (1995); Snell, Shadur & Wright (2001) added that aligning the organization's HR practices to the overall strategy leads to higher performance.

Allen & Wright (2006) remarked that there have been efforts to tie HRM with the overall strategy of the organization, as proposed in Walker's (1980) book, Human Resource Planning, that the organization's strategy should be taken into account when developing human resources plans. Fombrun et al. (1984) added that organizations need HRM practices suiting their strategy. Moreover, HRM practices must be effectively integrated with all phases of the strategic planning process (Becker & Huselid, 2006; Combs, Liu, Hall, & Ketchen, 2006).

Guest (1987, 1991) and Legge (1989) believe that the primary policy objective of human resources management is strategic integration, which means the organization's ability to integrate human resources management issues into its strategic business plans.

Based on this strategic perspective, many researchers believe that the most critical feature of human resources management is attached to strategic integration, which requires the commitment of people to the senior management vision. Later researchers such as Beer, Spector, Lawrence, Mills, & Walton (1984) suggested that HRM should be viewed more generally and that the focus should be on the overall HR system rather than on individual HR practices. Which drew attention that it is important to focus on aligning human resource practices with each other to working together as whole system in an integrated and coherent way to achieve strategic organizational objectives. Sisson (1990) emphasizes that addition to integration with business planning, human resources policies must integrate with each other.

This harmonization or integration is called horizontal alignment or fit. Likewise, Delery (1998) and Ichniowski, Kochan, Levine, Olson & Strauss (1996) remarked, the effectiveness of any HRM practice depends on the other practices in place when all HRM practices fit in a consistent system, the effect of that system on performance will be greater than the sum of the effects of each singular practice. As a driver of individual and organizational performance SHRM research is distinguished by the focus on HRM practices as systems, rather than singular HR practices (Lepak et al., 2006).

Armstrong (2011) summed up many views on the definition of strategic human resources management, saying that SHRM is a general concept of how to implement integration or "fit" between human resources and business strategies, to enable the organization to achieve its objectives, in a long-term vision of human resources planning, and how to formulate and implement coherent human resources strategies.

Based on what is being highlighted in the literature, the strategic perspective of human resource management is a future-oriented process concerned with the long-term planning of human resources management, by forming and implementing HR programs which aims at addressing business needs and directly contribute to the enhancing individual and organizational performance and achieving competitive advantage to achieve organization's strategical business objectives. This is achieved by creating a vertical and horizontal bi-dimensional relationship of organization strategy and HRM (Boxall & Purcell, 2008; Schuler & Jackson, 1987; Soomro & Shamsi, 2018) represented in two types of alignment or "fit", where the term fit implies the degree of consistency of one component with the other component (Wright & Snell, 1998):

1. *Vertical alignment* "fit" that integrates HRM Strategies and practices into organizations business strategy.
2. *Horizontal alignment* "fit" that integrates HR strategies and practices with each other as a coherent system as well as between HRM strategies and other departments strategies to promote the implementation of the organization's strategy and the achievement of organizational objectives.

The Strategic perspective of HRM is based on the integration between the organizational objectives and HRM objectives, considering the impact of both internal and external environment on the formulation of the organizational overall strategy and objectives and HR strategies. Organizational objectives represent the inputs to the HRM planning process.

### 1.4.3. The impact of Strategic Human Resource Management over Performance

The most distinctive characteristic of human resources management is that the assumption that improved performance in organizations is achieved by people, thus when utilizing the appropriate HR policies and practices, HRM will impact on firm performance (Guest, 1997).

Burma (2014) explained that the emergence of HRM in the 1980s caused managerial researchers to investigate the link between the management of people and performance. AL-Damoe, Yazam, & Ahmed (2012) claimed that one of the distinctive features of HRM is that better performance is achieved through the people in the organization. Peter & Waterman (1982) added that the way in which the organizations manage its peoples can influence its performance.

Since the mid-1990s, and because performance of organizations is one of the primary HR goals (Paauwe, Guest, & Wright, 2013), and due to the increasing research evidence that point to the vital role HR systems can play in making organizations more effective and enabling them to achieve competitive advantage (Becker & Huselid, 1998), many HRM research has been undertaken to study the HRM-Performance linkage (Gardner, Moynihan, Park, & Wright, 2001).

Dyer & Reeves (1995) affirmed that in linking HRM and performance, there are three examples of outcomes:

1. Outcomes related to human resources such as individual and group performance, absenteeism, and turnover.
2. Organization-related outcomes, such as productivity, efficiency, client satisfaction, quality, and service.
3. Accounting or financial outcomes such as profits, return on assets, or return on invested capital.

They added that the HR and organizational outcomes are closely related to HR practices adopted by the organization, compared to financial outcomes that are not directly affected by HR practices.

Armstrong & Taylor (2012) quoted Guest (1997:268) as saying that any theory of interpreting organizational performance should be based on three propositions:

1. HR practices can have a direct impact on employee-related characteristics such as commitment, engagement, motivation, and skills.
2. When those employees' characteristics exist, organizational performance is likely to improve in terms of quality and productivity and contribute to high levels of customer service.
3. As a consequence of these improvements in organizational performance, the organization's financial outcomes will improve.

Guest (1997) emphasizes this view claiming that performance cannot be simply defined and conceived, and that it is better to use the concept of “outcomes” rather than performance.

From a theoretical point of view, many theories related to human resources management in some respects had attempted to explain the causal relationship and the mechanism through which the impact of HRM on the performance of employees.

Strategic contingency theory, Ability motivation and opportunity theory (AMO), Expectancy theory, motivational theories, behavioral theories, as well as and the widely accepted theory among researchers the Resources Based View theory (RBV) are examples on these theories.

Trying to demystify the causal relationship between human resources management and performance, various of HRM empirical researchers have been conducted to read the HRM-Performance relation (Gardner et al., 2001). So, a large amount of literature has also linked different HRM practices to performance in organizations, and there has been a growing interest among HRM practitioners and researchers in HRM practices. The effective management of human resources had become increasingly recognized as an important factor for organizational success (Guest, 2011; Schuler & Jackson, 2014). Researchers became increasingly interested in applying research that explores a range of HRM practices and behaviors, in an effort to ascertain how HRM can contribute to enhancing organizational performance (Guest, 2011).

When it comes to the importance of HR and HRM, the literature of HRM has generally focused on the relation between HRM and more than one aspect of performance and performance outcomes in organizations.

Researchers have gone into exploring the relationship between HRM with the organizational and individual performance in general. For instance, Boselie, Paauwe, & Jansen (2001); Chand & Katou (2007); Combs et al. (2006); Guest (2002); Hauff, Alewell, & Hansen (2014); Joseph & Dai (2009); Osman, Ho, & Galang (2011); Peter & Waterman (1982); Pfeffer (1994) concluded that HRM plays an important role in improving and enhancing organizational performance.

Other researchers went to discuss the relation with different performance outcomes as well as employees productivity (Barnuti, 2004;

Boselie & Van der Wiele, 2002; Cully, Woodland, O'Reilly, & Dix, 1999; Soomro, Gilal, & Jatoi, 2011), organizational flexibility, cost-effectiveness, short-run responsiveness and long-run agility (Boxall & Purcell, 2003), financial Performance (Huselid, 1995; Hyde, Richard, & Holden, 2008; Ngo, Lau, & Foley, 2008) developing organizational capabilities (Ulrich & Lake, 1990) and many other variables that in general considered as a means of enhancing and improving performance in organizations.

Most of these studies pointed to the positive impact of HRM practices, systems, or bundles either directly on performance or on the outcomes related to performance, for instance: productivity and quality (Guest, Michie, Sheehan, Conway, & Metochi, 2000; MacDuffie, 1995); accounting profits (Delery & Doty, 1996); turnover and profitability (Guthrie, 2001); turnover and productivity and financial performance (Huselid, 1995); profitability and productivity (Patterson, West, Lawthom, & Nickell, 1997) etc.

Despite the vast mass of literature that enshrines the positive impact of human resources management on performance, this did not prevent some voices that were skeptical about the existence of this relationship and its nature or those which assume that there is some exaggeration when talking about the extent of this positive influence, through research papers that showed doubts about the link or even denied it[10].

Wall & Wood (2005) debate that the assumption that HR initiatives will inevitably lead to increased performance is a premature proposition, while Guest, Michie, Conway, & Sheehan (2003) assumed that when applying stricter assumptions, the correlation will be slightly between HRM and performance. Similarly, (Wright & Gardner, 2003) claim that HRM has a week impact on performance.

The ambiguity surrounding the causal relationship continued even though an enormous number of studies stressed the existence of a statistically significant relationship between HRM and performance and called this ambiguity the term black box.

When addressing the written literature related to SHRM and its positive relationship with performance, Savaneviciene & Stankeviciute (2010)

10 See Savaneviciene & Stankeviciute (2010).

divided the researchers who believe in the existence of this relationship two main categories

1. Investigators who suggested that there is an indirect relationship between human resources management and performance, such as (Guest et al., 2003; Wall & Wood, 2005; Wright & Gardner, 2003). Those researchers believe that a lot of research is still pending to reveal the ambiguity (black box) that surrounds this relation and that the mediation mechanism, that links HRM to performance is still opaque.
2. Researchers who believe in the existence of a direct relationship: The most obvious feature of SHRM field is diversity (Boxall & Purcell, 2000), and it lacks a central approach, research literature in SHRM delivers a variety of perspectives to reveal and express the value and effectiveness of HRM to organizational performance.

They can be summarized along four perspectives: Brewster (1995, 1999); Budhwar & Aryee (2008); Delery & Doty (1996); Jackson, Schuler, & Rivero (1989); Katou & Budhwar (2006, 2007) summarized them within three major perspectives: the universalistic, contingency configurational and the contextual approach. Martín-Alcázar, Romero-Fernández & Sánchez-Gardey (2005) added the Contextual approach as a fourth approach. Still, the adoption of the approaches of SHRM can alter depending on the organizational outcomes (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014).

In their view, Martín-Alcázar et al. (2005) argue that these four theoretical methods represent four different approaches to address the same research question and that each of them focuses on a specific dimension of SHRM. Literature in has also presented a number of perspectives to explain and express the impact of HRM practices on organizational performance.

#### 1.4.3.1. Universalistic approach: best practices approach

The Universalistic Perspective is a simple approach in its interpretation of SHRM.

In universalistic approach, HRM is recognized through a number of theories that attempt to define the “best practices” of HRM, such as the theories developed by Arthur (1994); Huselid (1995); Osterman (1994); Pfeffer (1994). Universalistic approach assumes a linear relationship between variables that can extend to all populations and that some practices of HRM outperform other practices in their impact on performance. It also assumes that a specific set of HR practices will lead to high institutional performance. So, it is imperative for organizations to adopt these best practices (Delery & Doty, 1996).

Best practices should be applied despite context, culture, or organization (Nataraja & Alamri, 2016). Delery & Doty (1996) proposed that if successfully implemented certain HRM practices will always contribute to higher organizational performance.

Universalistic theorists have focuses mainly on analyzing the impact of certain individual HRM policies and practices on organizational performance (Gooderham, Parry, & Ringdal, 2008). Nevertheless, Martín-Alcázar et al., (2005), noted that there are universalistic approaches in which researchers combined more than one human resource management practice, as in the case of the originating of high-performance. (Becker & Gerhart, (1996); Osterman, (1994); Pfeffer, (1994) confirm this view by saying that in such a case and in contrast to other approaches, the universalistic perspective analyzes the contribution of these human resource management practices to performance only from an additional point of view without examining the integrity or coherence of these practices. For example, Guthrie (2001) examined the use of high-involvement work practices that can improve organizational competitiveness, and Guest et al., (2003) identified 48 individual HRM practices derived from the high-commitment' HRM literature. Another example is the human resource management practices that are included in the High-performance work System (HPWS) approach proposed by Huselid (1995).

So, it is becoming familiar within the universalistic approach to group or combine practices in order to build more coherent explanations of the HRM-performance link (Gooderham et al., 2008).

#### 1.4.3.2. Contingency approach: Best fit approach

The contingency perspective highlights the fit between HRM policies and strategies other aspects of the organization, especially organizational strategy "vertical fit" (Delery & Doty, 1996).

Criticism of the Universalistic approach, that it does not take into account the context of the firm, led Delery & Doty (1996) to adopt contingency theory that explicitly rejected the Universalistic approach (Gooderham et al., 2008). Thus, the contingency perspective assumes that the relationship between independent variables (HRM practices) and dependent variables (performance) will vary according various external and internal factors including the business sector, nature of work, general firm strategy, location, and organization size level of unionization moreover, the external influence of market conditions (Gooderham et al., 2008; Iqbal, 2019).

In the same context, (Schuler & Jackson, 1987) argue that the organization's human resources management practices must be consistent with key aspects of the organization and for such practices to be effective. This implies that HRM policies follow business strategies in managing business performance (Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 1992; Huselid, 1995; Schuler & Jackson, 1987; Youndt et al., 1996).

In other words, SHRM practices must be in line and fit with all other internal and external aspects of the company, in order to gain results (Elliott, 2003). Martín-Alcázar et al. (2005) asserted that a central principle of the contingency approach is that HRM practices can only have a positive impact on performance if these practices were consistent with the organization's strategy. This implies that HRM policies follow business strategies in managing business performance (Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 1992; Huselid, 1995; Schuler & Jackson, 1987; Youndt et al., 1996).

Boxall & Purcell (2000) and Bamberger & Meshoulam (2000) argued that the term best fit school is about those investigators who hold different points of view and claim that the HRM strategy-performance link is applicable exclusively under high external fit conditions.

The contingency approach is divided into three different main models (Armstrong, 2008; Armstrong & Taylor, 2014; Beardwell, Holden, & Claydon, 2004):

1. Life cycle model. The life cycle of any organization is divided into four phases: start-up, growth, maturity, and regression phase (Armstrong, 2008; Armstrong & Taylor, 2014; Beardwell et al., 2004). Strategies adopted by HRM will be affected by each phase of the organization's life cycle and should be consistent with the requirements of this phase (Beardwell et al., 2004).
2. Competitive strategy model. In this model, the HRM strategy is influenced by the company's competitive advantage strategy in the market, which differs in its requirements because it may be one of three models of competitive strategies:

    - Innovation: The organization's Innovation strategy is focused on being unique regarding one or more of innovation output: process, product, marketing, and organizational strategies (Hervas - Oliver, Sempere - Ripoll, & Boronat - Moll, 2014).
    - Quality: Providing quality goods and services to customers.
    - Cost leadership: Provide the best possible product with the lowest production costs possible.

3. Strategic configuration model (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). The strategic configuration is similar to the competitive strategy model in terms of its interest in competitive advantage but uses a different approach. In this model, the organization will develop its human resource strategies according to one of four different business strategies (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014):

    - Prospectors: Work in an innovative market developing new technology, or products, and services.
    - Defenders: Operating in a more stable and predictable environment.
    - Analysers: A combination of both: prospector and defender.
    - Reactors: Work in an unexpected and changing environment and they react according to market circumstances

According to Iqbal (2019) one of the strengths that characterize the contingency approach its integrative nature, which enables the organization to make optimal choices among different practices to ensure the best fit with the different circumstances and thus could yield the best outcome and minimize the risk of loss of opportunity cost. The contingency approach is more complicated than the universalistic approach because the organization need to analyze its business-sector and environment before performing its strategy (Wan-Jing & Huang, 2005).

#### 1.4.3.3. Configurational approach

The Configurational perspective assumes that the effect of HRM practices on performance is moderated by interactions between the individual HRM practice variables, which means HRM practices have a complementary relationship with each other so they "fit together", building performance-enhancing synergies (Kaufman, 2010). MacDuffie (1995) argues that the main argument behind the configurational approach is that the impact of human resources management on organizational performance depends on the selection of an effective combination of human resources management practices, this combination is usually called human resources management bundles.

In order to maximize the performance of the Organization, this requires the adoption of a coherent bundle of HRM practices and that the impact of the HR Practice Package on performance involves complex interactions between these practices and outcomes (Arthur, 1994; Gooderham et al., 2008; MacDuffie, 1995). Such bundles of complementary practices are held to produce substantially greater performance effects than individual HRM practices (Ichniowski et al., 1996).

The Configurational perspective says that the effect of HRM practices on performance is moderated by interactions between the individual HRM practice variables, which means HRM practices have a complementary relationship with each other so they "fit together", building performance-enhancing synergies (Kaufman, 2010).

In more detail, Martín-Alcázar et al. (2005) argue that configurational bundles must not be confused with universalistic bundles or systems because while the configurational bundle consists of interrelated, integrated practices, the universalistic bundles include single practices combined in an additive way. Gooderham et al. (2008) disagreed, arguing that this definition is too simplistic and may not always correspond to actuality. They added for example, Huselid (1995) bundles cannot be interpreted as an additive in their construction, consequently, universalistic bundling and configurational bundling represent approaches that are so relevant that it is problematic and difficult to distinguish between them and that bundles of HR practices combined configurationally may be more problematic to be distinguished. Gooderham et al. (2008) summarized the idea declaring that universalistic bundling and configurational bundling represent closely related approaches that are problematic to distinguish but the configurational approach involves more complex types of HRM systems than existed in universalistic approaches. Gooderham et al. (2008) added that combining HR practices in a way that improves internal coherence is a better approach to that of simply adding individual practices.

The configuration perspective represents an internal and external consensus between business strategy, human resource strategy, and organization's external environment, which means that business strategies and HRM strategies interact according to organizational circumstances in determining business performance (Arthur, 1994; Delery & Doty, 1996).

#### 1.4.3.4. Contextual approach[11]

The contextual perspective introduces a major shift in SHRM's analysis point of view.

Some authors claims that it is essential to expand the concept of SHRM so as to offer an explanation, of its influence on the external and the organizational context in which managerial decisions are made in addition to how it can reinforce the achievement of business goals.

By introducing a descriptive and global explanation through a broader model, suitable to different environments incorporating all geographical

11 See Martín-Alcázar et al. (2005).

and industrial contexts. It can be described as a reconsideration of the relation connecting the SHRM system to its context.

The importance of environmental factors was also restated through the inclusion of traditionally underestimated variables, such as the influence of trade unions or public administrations or social and institutional adjustment.

HRM Strategies in this perspective are not only explained over its impact on performance but extends to other internal aspects of the organization as well as the external environment. This requires reconsideration of three aspects of SHR:

The nature of HR: The HRM function is no longer the exclusive responsibility of HR professionals but has been extended to the rest of the managers, especially at the line-managers.

The level of analysis: The contextual approach proposes a broader scope of analysis that integrates human resources with the environment in which they exist. Many studies have focused on the national context, for example, the European context, as well as conducting comparative studies on the impact of different national environments.

The actors who participate in the human resource function: Based on the strategic importance of what Schuler & Jackson (2000:2229) termed "multiple stakeholder framework", a wider range of internal and external stakeholders is being taken into account when formulating and implementing HR strategies (Jackson & Schuler, 1995; Tyson, 1997).

Thus, to maintain the organization's position in the long term, mutuality of interests is considered as a necessary requisite (Brewster, 1995).

When comparing the contextual perspective with the three previous perspectives that share, in a broad sense, the same theoretical bases, the contextual model has a different starting point. Based on reconsideration of The SHRM framework involves criticism of many rational and normative theory assumptions. On the contrary, their theoretical basis is much closer to the scope of an industrial relationship (Brewster, 1993, 1995, 1999; Sparrow & Hiltrop, 1994).

## 1.5. HRM in Jordan

There is less literature on HRM in either Jordan or other Arab countries than in the rest of the world (Al-Athari & Zairi, 2002; Aladwan, Ramudu, & Fish, 2011; Altarawneh & Altarawmneh, 2009; Bhanugopan, Aladwan, & Fish, 2013).

Budhwar & Mellahi (2006) described the available HRM research in the Middle East context as insufficient to help draw a comprehensive picture. Afiouni, Karam, & El-Hajj (2013) using several search procedures to identify and collect published studies particularly exploring HRM in the Arab Middle East region, found only 59 relevant articles that addressed general management issues or pure organizational behavior. They noted that a total of 23 articles published started from the 1990s until the year 2006.

Khaled Aladwan, Bhanugopan, & Alan Fish (2014); Bhanugopan et al.( 2013) claimed that 1) the limited volume of research available on HRM practices in Jordanian organizations, and 2) these studies are not based on empirical facts and tend to narrate in nature reduces the possibility of gathering rich information content from them.

Describing the reality of the management of human resources in Jordan, some research perceives that even though most of the companies in Jordan have personnel or HR departments at their headquarters (Branine & Analoui, 2006; Madanat & Khasawneh, 2018) the regular role of the HRM department does not exceed the administration of employees' files from recruitment until retirement or leave (Afana, 2004; Branine & Analoui, 2006).

Newman & Nollen (1996) assume that variations between national cultures impose differences in management practices. The national culture of Jordan can have an effect on the role of HRM department and HRM practices (Newman & Nollen, 1996). The national culture affects the organizational culture through the pressures imposed by the external environment on the organizations and the mentality and habits of the members of the organization (Abbasi, Tarhini, Elyas, & Shah, 2015; Al-Busaidi, Olfman, Ryan, & Leroy, 2010). Hence, the policies and practices of HRM in Jordan, as in any other country, are very significantly influenced by the national cultural values prevailing in the country (Aladwan et al., 2014; Obeidat et al., 2016; Reiche, Yih-teen, & Quintanilla, 2012).

To better understand the nature of a particular human resources management context in different countries, there should be greater awareness of the diverse and unique configurations of national factors such as the cultural organizational and business environment that impinge on HRM in cross-national settings and to acknowledge the influence of cross-national HRM differences Budhwar & Mellahi, (2006). HRM in Jordan as well in the other Arab countries is remarkably influenced by essential factors like culture[12], religion, social intermediation, national and global politics (Madanat & Khasawneh, 2018).

In the case of Jordan, it is also necessary to study the possible impact of transitional foreign management in the recently privatized companies and foreign investments on local human resources practices, and in the banking sector through branches of foreign banks operating in Jordan.

Therefore, some of the characteristics and the nature of HRM in Jordan can be highlighted by discussing some of the factors influencing the Jordanian business environment that have a significant impact on the adoption of various human resource practices. Aladwan et al. (2011) noted that Jordan's demographic, economic and social situation profiles are among these factors.

### 1.5.1. Country profile

#### 1.5.1.1. Demographic and social background

Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan as an official name or Jordan is a semi-arid, small country, that is located in an important strategic location in the Middle East at the crossroads of what Christians, Muslims and Jews call the Holy Land. (Aladwan et al., 2011; BBC, 2018).

Jordan shares borders with Iraq to the northeast, Saudi Arabia to the east and south, West Bank and Israel to the west, Syria to the north and a short coastline on the Red Sea of 26 kilometres to the south. The country

12 The theme of culture will be discussed later.

has an area of 89,318 square kilometres (Hassan & Al-Saci, 2004; United Nations Development Program, 2015; United Nations Jordan, 2018).

Most Jordanian land is desert, only about 5% of Jordan's land mass is considered arable, Jordan ranks as the second water-deficit country in the world (Bataineh & Zecca, 2016; Namrouqa, 2014).

The population of Jordan is about 9.798 million, 60.4 % of them are between the 15- 59 years, and 5.5 % are over the age of sixty, about 6.6 million are Jordanians and 2.9 million non-Jordanians. 90.3 % of the population live in urban[13] areas; 4.119.500 (42%) of the population are accommodated in the capital city of Amman, which has an area of 7,579 Km2 and a population density of 543.5 person per Km2 (Department of Statistics in Jordan (DoS), 2016; United Nations Jordan, 2018).

With regard to social reality, Jordan has a tribal[14] structured society that is directly related to the historical shape of the country (Sa'ad Ali, 2016)the second part discusses Erich Fromm's particular approach to psychoanalysis. Fromm was the first to reformulate in his psychoanalytic approach the idea of an ethic of the virtues. With his theory of character (and of social character. Tribes preceded the emergence of Christianity and Islam (Rowland, 2009). Yet the tribal nature of society strongly influences the social, and economic environment and the political life of Jordan (Branine & Analoui, 2006; Rowland, 2009; Sharp, 2012).

As such, tribalism tends to rely heavily on family, clan and tribal relationships in the conduct of many economic, social and political spheres, also, it plays an influential role in the nomination, recruitment, selection for jobs, and deployment of employees.

In the efforts to improve Jordan's business climate[15], Jordan's political leaders have themselves put the fight against the use of wasta[16]. Favoritism

13 «Urban» as were defined in the 2015 census includes Settlements of (5000) population or more(DOS in Jordan, 2016).

14 Tribalism does not mean the traditional image of travelers who live in the desert. Rather, it refers to an intangible emotion that involves a varying degree of loyalty to the tribe, as well as a feeling of belonging to a particular social group (Rowland, 2009).

15 Business climate: is the set of factors that shape the decision of local and foreign firms to begin business in a particular country, among these factors lie the aspects of its governance such like the control of corruption (Hassan & Al-Saci, 2004).

16 Loewe et al. (2007:3) defined the term wasta as: "favoritism which is based on preferential treatment of relatives, friends, and neighbors or other acquaintances which is a widespread

or wasta means "connection" to influence business practices in general and to select employees (Branine & Analoui, 2006; El-Said & Harrigan, 2009; Loewe et al., 2007).

In 2005, King Abdullah II, king of Jordan inaugurated an initiative to curb corruption in which he mentioned wasta as a form of corruption. As a consequence, the government drafted an anti-corruption law in and initiated a 'National Agenda', which stresses the need for public sector reforms as a means for business promotion.

In the culture of the majority of Middle Eastern, the combination of religion and nationality is considered a form of identification. Over the course of several centuries, the synthesized identity has influenced the sense of belonging, the political lifestyle, and the communal cohesion of these countries' peoples (Abuznaid, 2006).

Religion greatly and directly affects human behaviour, social relations and social interactions, its influence may extend to the political and educational system of any society (Abuznaid, 2006). Religion often has an integral influence on the way most people live and work (Hashim, 2009).

Hashim (2009) assumes that the religious foundations of human resource management strategies are not often highlighted in the literature despite their importance.

In recent days management scholars have shown an increasing concern in religion and management. This shows growing evidence that religious beliefs and values have direct and indirect effects on a wide range of behaviours in the workplace such as job satisfaction, leadership styles and effectiveness, ethical behaviour in the workplace, and recruitment practices (Mellahi & Budhwar, 2010).

The religion of Islam, the religion of most of the Jordanian people, plays an important role in influencing values and trends prevailing in the community. Studies conducted on Muslim managers and staff indicate that management practices are strongly influenced by their religious beliefs and religious principles (Abuznaid, 2006; Ali, 2009; Ali & Al-Owaihan, 2008; Bouma, Haidar, Nyland, & Smith, 2003; Mellahi & Budhwar, 2010; Randeree & El Faramawy, 2011).Hashim (2009) concluded that Islamic

pattern of social interaction in many parts of the world".

principles have important implications for human resource management practices such as recruitment, conflict management and layoffs.

There has been little research on Islamic human resources management so far (Mellahi & Budhwar, 2010; Tayeb, 1997). Existing studies have generally focused on describing the decision-making methods in Islam which emphasize consultation, and the fundamental values of Islam that include the principles of honesty, trust, Justice, fairness in dealing with staff, teamwork, cooperation, perfection, and excellence.

Researchers on Islamic HRM have also discussed the growing gap between normative Islamic core values and reality in the workplace in Islamic countries (Abuznaid, 2009; Ali, 2010; Mellahi & Budhwar, 2010). Hashim (2009) believes that it is imperative for a Muslim businessman to be guided by the commandments of God and his conscience as a person to conduct legitimate business towards others, on the other hand, employees will appreciate this approach because it suits their beliefs. However Branine & Pollard (2010) illustrate that there is a gap between the Islamic management theory and the actual reality of the management being practiced in the Arab countries which is informed and deeply influenced by non-Islamic traditional and national cultural values and norms on the one hand and by the Western management on the other hand, rather than the Islamic principles derived from the Holy Quran (words of God) and the Hadith (words of the Prophet Mohamed).

Mellahi & Budhwar (2010) assert that more research is needed to gain a broader understanding of the role of Islamic culture, values, and norms in the workplace. Branine & Pollard (2010) supported this idea, adding that a better understanding of Islamic management principles and the importance of their relevance in Arab countries will help in better management along with continued benefits from western management. Furthermore, Non-Muslim HR practitioners will benefit from familiarizing themselves with the Islamic human resource management perspective so that they have a better understanding of the acceptable behaviors expected of their Muslim employees in the workplace (Hashim, 2009).

### 1.5.1.2. Economic background

Jordan is an upper middle-income country, with limited agricultural land and natural resources, potash and phosphate are the main export commodities (United Nations Jordan, 2018).

One of the smallest in the Middle East, Jordan's economy is a generally private- owned, with small size enterprises (Aladwan et al., 2011; Branine & Analoui, 2006).

In the absence of a strong industrial development, the services sector leads the economy and makes up to more than 70% of gross domestic product (GDP) and more than 75% of jobs. As one of the most open economies in the region, Jordan is fully integrated with its neighbors through trade, foreign direct investment, remittances, and tourism (DOS in Jordan, 2016; United Nations Jordan, 2018).

The country has devolved from being a poor rural economy to a relatively modern urban economy, with all free market institutions (Branine & Analoui, 2006).

During the first decade of the 2000s, King Abdallah II (king of Jordan) executed important economic reforms, such as privatizing state-owned establishments and expanding foreign trade that attracted foreign investment and contributed to average annual economic growth of 8% for 2004 through 2008,

Over the past decade for the years 2010 to 2017 Jordan has experienced weak economic growth due to global economic slowdown and regional turbulence which has led to a decline in economic activity to slowdown contributed to slower growth averaging to about 2.5% during this period (Wallace & Timofeev, 2016). At the same time the country continued to face many barriers and challenges such as reliance on energy imports and high dependency on grants, declining remittances from Gulf economies, regional tensions in surrounding areas and the continuous waves of refugees from Iraq and Syria[17]. The closing of border crossings with those countries for years has become a burden on the Jordanian economy through widening trade deficit and weakening investor confidence (The

17 Based on the Jordanian government's estimates, the direct cost of Syrian refugees for the Jordanian government since 2011 to 2016 was about $4.2 billion (Sharp, 2017).

World Bank In Jordan, 2018; United Nations Development Program, 2015).

Alshoubaki & Harris (2018) noted that the small size of Jordan and the lack of economic and natural resources have exacerbated the living conditions for the refugees and the hosting community.

Rising unemployment rate persist, amounting to an average of 15.3% in 2016 according to (DOS in Jordan, 2016)[18], and poverty [19] are additional threats to economic and social stability.

In order to enhance the investment climate and ease of doing business and to create appropriate conditions for public-private partnerships, over the past decade, Jordan has pursued structural reforms in the sectors of health and education as well as privatization and liberalization, the government has also introduced social protection systems, and reformed subsidies and tax systems (The World Bank In Jordan, 2018).

Jordan adopted several economic reforms and enacted a number of legislations in its quest to improve efficiency and competitiveness in different sectors of the economy and to increase the level of private investments and to encourage foreign direct investments in Jordan (Branine & Analoui, 2006).

A privatization process started in the 1980s. Then significant sales of public-sector institutions were made in the late 1990s. Several state-owned enterprises have been sold to foreigner investors who have restructured and downsized a number of these privatized enterprises. The cut off a large number of employees has exacerbated the already critical unemployment issue (Branine & Analoui, 2006).

Although the privatization of public institutions has often been accompanied by a reduction in employees in a society that is suffering from high unemployment rates, privatization has had positive effects in introducing reforms on the various human resources activities in these institutions.

18 According to the The World Bank In Jordan (2018), the unemployment rate has increased to %18.4 in the first quarter of 2018 compared to %18.2 in the first quarter of 2017.

19 Poverty is the individual's inability to meet the essential basic needs that assure a decent life which include: food, clothing, housing, healthcare, education, and transportation. Official figures estimate that 14.4 % of the population in Jordan lived below the national annual poverty line for 2010, and poverty line was determined at 813.7 J.D. / individual during 2010 (DOS in Jordan, 2015).

Jordan worked on extending its trade links with countries such as the USA, the European Union countries, Japan and the other Arab countries (Branine & Analoui, 2006) and, in the year 2000, Jordan became a member of the World Trade Organisation (WTO) (World Trade Organization, 2001).

Although these developments, Jordan has experienced during the last 15 years, an increase in poverty, unemployment, inequality, nepotism, low productivity, corruption in public institutions, and volatile economic growth (El-Said & Harrigan, 2009). Although economic reforms have not been matched by adequate social and political reforms to meet the demands of the free-market economy, the recent economic reforms have led to significant changes in both the employment relationships and in HRM (Branine & Analoui, 2006).

### 1.5.2. Some of the Implications of Jordan profile's context on HRM practices.

Human resource practices in Jordan are affected -as in many countries in the region- by the prevailing national culture and the tribal structure that characterizes the Jordanian society and the fact that many of the businesses are predominantly family- owned. Also, many scholars (e.g., Budhwar & Fadzil, 2000; Robertson, Al-Habib, Al-Khatib, & Lanoue, 2001; Rosen, 2002); highlighted the extensive influence of Islamic principles, Islamic values and Islamic work ethics on HRM in Islamic countries.

Findings of Al-Husan & James (2003) study is a good example of positive effects on HRM in Jordan. In two case studies, two French multinationals used expatriates and training and development to propose and support a process of cultural reform in both companies they had acquired under the Jordanian government's privatization program. In both cases, which displayed many similarities, the mechanisms of cultural change had been widely employed, aiming to support the intended organizational reforms.

The central object of the reforms being advanced was to make the acquired companies more business- and target-orientated and, to this end, incorporated initiatives to improve selection and appraisal procedures, establish closer links between pay and performance, and introduce more devolved and decentralized management structures.

Besides, expatriates were being widely used to develop and implement desired reforms, training and development were being actively used to induce supportive attitudinal changes.

Another case study conducted in Jordan on three companies that were privatized and sold to different French companies, Al-Husan & James (2009) remarked that despite the different methods and mechanisms used in each of the three companies, a wide range of changes have been made to current HRM activities, including reforms in terms of specific identification of several HR activities investigated in the research in addition to a broad implementation of structural, cultural and environmental reformations introduced.

Examples of the reforms and changes implemented by the new French administrations that affected different aspects of HRM practices and functions in one or more of the three companies included in the research of Al-Husan & James (2009):

- HR Function's Role and structure: the creation of HR division with a strategic role, the appointment of new HR director and assignment of Members of the board, more decentralization to line managers, and the use of budgetary controls and targets.
- Usage of expatriates: appointment of several French board members, including the general manager, chief officers, members of the operating committee, heads of divisions in addition to a number of middle managers in the three companies.
- Recruitment and selection methods: Selection on the principle of potential, qualifications, and experience and giving Priority to internal promotion.
- Design and use of performance appraisal: Assessment of performance against targets. Limits placed on the percentage of staff achieving top ratings.
- Training and Development (T&D): Increase in T&D programs, and overseas T&D for high potential, and introduction of succession planning.

- Payment systems: Individual performance-related payment systems were introduced through an affiliate rewards scheme.
- Workforce communication and consultation: Improvement of a two-way Communication, trade union representation, and strengthen consultation with existing unions.

1.5.2.1. Favoritism or (*Wasta*)

There is an implicit understanding that the tribal social structure of the Arab states, including Jordan, has resulted in widespread use of social network relations characterized by Favoritism (wasta in Arabic )(Branine & Analoui, 2006; El-Said & Harrigan, 2009; Loewe et al., 2007).

Loewe et al. (2007) added that in Jordan, numerous businesspeople rely on “Favouritism or Wasta” rather than on their ability to compete or on their legitimate rights. The banking sector could be one exception. Ali (2016)the second part discusses Erich Fromm’s particular approach to psychoanalysis. Fromm was the first to reformulate in his psychoanalytic approach the idea of an ethic of the virtues. With his theory of character (and of social character notes that in the banking sector not all roles are open to the influence of tribalism and social relations or Favouritism where the potential negative impact on the organization poses a very high risk. Hence, decision makers feel able to resist even strong tribal and clan pressures.

Al-Rasheed (2001) claims that because many organizations from different sectors are family-owned, and many employees are selected based on their relationship with the owners or managers of the organization. Therefore, recruitment tends to be among members of their extended family or tribe (Ali, Raidén, & Kirk, 2017; Branine & Analoui, 2006).

Selection and recruitment process tend to neglect merit, competence or qualifications principles required in job candidates (Aladwan et al., 2014; Budhwar & Mellahi, 2006b). As a consequence, job descriptions are not relied on in recruitment and selection. Although job analysis is conducted, and job descriptions are often produced, it seems that job descriptions are produced as part of the personnel-administration process to satisfy bureaucratic needs (Branine & Analoui, 2006).

This proposes issues concerning equal opportunities and fairness in employment and selection. Missing the opportunity for organizations to select and employ competencies and distinctive talents is reflected negatively on productivity, effectivity, efficiency, and ability to achieve competitive advantage.

#### 1.5.2.2. National training plan and unemployment rates

Jordan has a growing interest in education and training. It has 10 public universities, 21 privet and regional universities, and 51 community colleges (Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research (Ministry of Higher Education & Scientific Research (MOHE), 2018).

In addition to several private training institutes and centers, training units in some ministries provide training to public and private-sector employees in different activities to assist them to cope with the requirements of their tasks (Branine & Analoui, 2006).

In order to meet the challenges required by the process of economic reform at the national and international levels, the Jordanian Institute of Public Administration (JIPA) presented two programs:

1. The national training plan aimed to prepare public sector employees for these challenges and to be more aware of the requirements of a free-market economy.
2. Career and Training Paths Project to set a continuous training culture in the public-sector enterprises. It made training a prerequisite for career development and progress (Branine & Analoui, 2006). both programs were comprehensive, that included employees at all levels.

The increasing number of graduates looking for jobs coincided with the rise in unemployment rates, which made it almost impossible to obtain employment in the state without post-secondary education (Reiter, 2002). As a result, university education has begun to become a prerequisite for employment, forcing Jordanians to start considering university education as a necessary step to ensure good livings.

Because the number of jobs available for high skill workers has remained almost stagnant while the number of youths pursuing university degrees continues to grow, the number of unemployed graduates is growing (International Labour Office (ILO), 2013).

About 40,000 university students graduate every year, but only 30% of the newly generated jobs are filled by those graduates (El-Rayyes, 2014; Khader, 2010). As a result, 22.7 % of university graduates are unemployed by the end of 2017 and 53.6 among secondary school graduates according to the latest survey of (Department of Statistics (DOS) in Jordan, 2018).

The increase in unemployment rates, especially among high-skilled and university graduates has led to a rise in the supply of labor. This fact and the increase of poverty and the slowdown in the economy, have affected the policies and practices of compensations and rewards[20] and led to decrease in wages offered by different employers[21] with the exception of cases that require the recruitment of qualified and distinguished skills or talents.

On the other hand, the abundant supply in the labor market increases the competencies and brings together the talent available to various organizations for recruitment and selection. The increase in supply of competencies and talents is reflected in lower wage rates, which in turn motivates individuals to seek better jobs and tend to leave organizations when they get a better financial offer.

Altarawmneh, Al-Kilani, Altarawmneh & Al-Kilani (2010) stressed in their study that despite the significant investment in HR practices in the Jordanian hotel sector, employees' intention to stay or leave depends in large mainly on financial factors, he attributed this to the lack of appropriate compensation and rewards policies and practices. (Aladwan et al., 2014) supported this claim by saying that reward and benefits practice is highly used in Jordanian organizations, but not in an effective manner.

It is generally believed that in developing countries multinational companies have better HRM systems when compared to the local companies,

20 The connection between inflation and unemployment was first introduced in 1958 by Phillips who observed a negative relationship between unemployment and money wage growth in the short run in the UK (Dritsaki & Dritsaki, 2013).

21 To be applied to all Jordanian employees and workers covered by the provisions of the Labor Law No. 8 of 1996 and its amendments ((Al-Husan & James, 2003; Branine & Analoui, 2006) says that the government always determines and controls the minimum levels of wages within the different Jordanian sectors.

and they are considered as better places for work (Duarte, 2001; Taylor, Beechler, & Napier, 1996). Warner (2004) argues that national organizations in Jordan are still very far from applying the concept of HRM as is perceived internationally.

#### 1.5.2.3. Higher number of multinational organizations and privatization of public institutions

After the accession of Jordan to the World Trade Organization (WTO) in addition to the adoption of many economic reforms like privatization of some government institutions that brought foreign investment, the number of multinational organizations operating in Jordan has increased, which in turn introduced new concepts in HRM, including the introduction of new methods of compensation and rewards (Branine & Analoui, 2006).

AL-Husan (2004) concluded in a study conducted on three French Multi-National Corporations (MNCs) in privatized Jordanian companies that a wide range of reforms have been undertaken in all aspects of previously existing HRM policies that have been investigated like: staffing, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, rewards, communication and consulting that this process occurs in the context of particular national frameworks. Other alternative rewards have been presented in addition to improving existing appraisal and selection procedures, establish closer linkages between pay and performance to make the acquired companies more business- and target-orientated (Al-Husan & James, 2003). Branine & Analoui (2006) verified these findings, asserting that the latest economic reforms have brought foreign investment, accompanying with new ideas about compensations and rewarding, that Links reward systems with employee's performance and productivity to align the Jordanian compensation and reward systems with the international standers.

In the Jordanian multinational hotels, foreign HR managers and CEOs were the first to take the initiative to improve new HR programs (Altarawmneh et al., 2010), and irregular rewards have been offered in order to recruit and motivate and retain skilled, knowledgeable and talented employees (Al-Husan & James, 2003).

## 2. ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

the rapid change in a highly competitive, increasingly complex continuously evolving, interconnected, and unpredictable business environment (Liebhart & Garcia-Lorenzo, 2010) resulting from technological, economic, political and social changes has become the most important feature of the business context of the twenty-first century. Change is a normal and natural response to changing internal and external environments circumstances (Leifer, 1989).

There has been no time in history that has experienced this amount of change, which is occurring very quickly, affecting many people, and that in the short time, companies that were considered essential elements in our youth, may become extinct or reinvented completely, and nowadays, with the focus on speed the time lag between idea and implementation should be zero (Annunzio, 2001).

In light of rapid change, organizations need to recognize the environment in which they operate, and which is characterized by being an uncertain and unpredictable environment. As a result of globalization, the rapid pace of technological and digital changes, the developing and differing expectations of the workforce, demographic change, and the increasing competition for survival in the workplace, Jones, Firth, Hannibal & Ogunseyin (2019) added that organizations need to find ways to successfully navigate through the complexity and ambiguity of continuous change and to demonstrate that they are up the challenge of moving quickly and adapting continuously and successfully to keep pace with that.

The decision to change something comes from internal reasons as a result of the needs of the company itself, and external environment factors, such as competitive pressure. Whether the reason for change comes from the internal or the external environment, the goal of all changes is to produce some improvement and advancement in a specific area, consequently, companies should determine, where, and when they would like to be when the change actually happens (Ján & Timková Veronika, 2017). Hammer & Champy (1993:33) declared that change had become "pervasive and persistent". They discribed chang as the »normality«. Ledez (2008) who understands change as the natural life cycle of man, nature, and business also pointed out that change would never come to end, and it is ongoing.

Organizations become obligated to embrace organizational change in "VUCA"[22] periods in order to adapt to new circumstances so "change calls for change" and leads to social complexity being brought into the organization's system (García & Berrio, 2019). They added that under the conditions of volatility, complexity, uncertainty, and ambiguity, new organizational paradigms are required. Senge et al. (1999) understand that influenced by changes in the environment organizations require adaptation of internal processes. Therefore, organizational change has become the only thing constant in the management of modern organizations and the survival secret of these organizations.

Organizations must cope with and adapt to the increasingly complicated and unpredictable technological, economic, cultural, and political changes (Cumming & Worley, 2009).

With the aim of avoiding risks in the business environment or to exploit looming opportunities, organizations implement organizational change. The most prominent feature of the pace of change is that it is very fast and of fundamental importance. Organizations are currently facing highly volatile and dynamic environments, and this, in turn, forces them to change the way they are managed (Rocha et al., 2015).

22 VUCA is the acronym that describes the complex reality the nowadays world living in. The (VUCA) concept was firstly used by the U.S. Army War College to express the volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity of the world that arose following the end of the Cold War, and referred to as the «new normal» (Romero, López, & Bravo, 2018) as cited in (García & Berrio, 2019).

Burnes (2009) found that the importance of change had increased dramatically. This view was supported by a global survey conducted by McKinsey & Company (2008) in which they concluded that only through constant change could organizations hope to survive. Modern organizations are constantly seeking to adapt to the volatile external and internal business environment, in order to be able to compete and expand in the contemporary market (Halkos, 2012). Mamin Ullah (2012) confirmed this view by saying that to remain competitive in this global business world, organizations often find it necessary to undertake major changes that affect their processes and people. Therefore, change management is seen as a permanent business function to improve efficiency and keep organizations adaptable to the competitive marketplace.

The actual added value that organizations derive from organizational change is the enhancement of their ability to bring about change in the organization's strategy, organization structure, identity, operation or HRs as sources to improve the organization's performance (Vithessonthi, 2007).

Nowadays, the changing environment heavily affects the organizational processes that are characterized as open systems, where managers strive to adapt to these changes and to mitigate the effects of them at the same time.

Organizational change can be conceptualized in studies in terms of its two dimensions (Barnett & Carroll, 1995):

1. *Change process*: the process demonstrates how change occurs. in addition to examining factors such as the way the transformation occurs, speed, the sequence of actions, communication system, decision-making, the resistance encountered, etc.is the second dimension of organizational change the Process analysis.
2. *The content of change*: the content represents what is actually being changed in the organization. Analysing the content of organizational change is performed by comparing the organization before and after the change to find the actual variation in the organization at the second point of time. Major content changes consist of transformations that affect significant changes in one structural element or those that involve more than one structural element.

These specific changes may be internal, such as: technological, structural, and strategic as well as the change in people (Robbins & Coulter, 2016). If organizations fail to catch the fast train of change, their fate will fade and die, and the only way for many organizations to ensure competitive advantage, survive and succeed is change, or extinction, and death. In the context of change, it becomes imperative that organizations develop their capability to adapt and channel change to their advantage. Dey (2017) stated that saying the survival of the fittest revolves around organizations 'ability to adapt to the dynamic changing environment and adapt to new competitive realities, in short, it is about "agility".

The concepts of change and change management became very common in business nowadays. However, the question is what do the organizational change process, organizational change, and change management mean?

## 2.1. Organizational Change process

Burke (2008:23) argues that the change process relates to "How the change is planned, launched, more fully implemented, and once into implementation, sustained". The process of change has been found to vary dramatically among two different perspectives, where "implementing the change" like when one executive demands the change, versus and "adapting the change" as in the case of front-line operators who may be doubtful about the need (adaptation) of change (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

Tichy & Devanna (1990) suggested in descriptive research that transformation of an organization results from a process, that involves a sequence of phases:

- Identifying the need for change.
- Building a new vision.
- Institutionalizing the change.

Kanter (1992:297) asserted that change involves "crystallization of new possibilities" based on the reconceptualized patterns in the organization. Kanter views these possibilities as: the new policies, behaviours, patterns, methodologies, products, or market ideas moreover, change involves the reconceptualization of old patterns or designing and constructing new ones, to produce new, more productive actions.

After reviewing the literature on the organizational change process, Whelan-Berry & Somerville (2010) summarized several "steps of the organizational change process" that change models have in-common and agreed to be mentioned or referred to in many successful organizational change initiatives. Their study started from the seminal work of Lewin (1951) to include several subsequent step-based models for organizational change:

1. **Establishing a clear compelling vision**: change models typically emphasize the significance of identifying the reason (vision) for the change, creating a related sense of urgency, and specifying and communicating that reason or vision. This vision demonstrates how the desired state, or outcomes of the organization will be after the change. Kotter (1995) notes that an easy to communicate vision that appeals to multiple stakeholders is essential in every successful transformation.
2. **Moving the change to the group and individual level**. "The need to manage the transition" (Cummings & Worley, 2004), or "cascade the change throughout the organization" (Kotter, 1996; 1999). This implies that the change vision proceeds to the group and individual levels of the organization, and becomes more clearly understood across different sections, teams, and departments.
3. **Adoption of change by individual employees**. This is achieved in the context of groups, teams, or departments, where the variation in what does vision means to each of them is based on their specific work. Cameron & Quinn (1999) assume that for a successful organizational change, individual employees must change their attitudes, values, and behaviours in order.
4. **Sustaining the momentum to change implementation**. Change efforts often under-resourced, which may delay or hinder the implementation of change, which may lead to the failure of the change initiatives. Thus, in order for change initiatives not to fail due to the urgency of daily operations or the lack of attention, they must receive adequate attention and resources. Group level and

individual level change models identify the need for sustaining a change by continuing the new behaviour.
5. **The institutionalization of change**. This was originally defined as a “re-freezing” according to Lewin (1951) as change initiatives and related outcomes must be institutionalized to ensure that the desired change results become part of the organization’s culture, ongoing processes, and operations.

### 2.1.1. Definitions of change and Organizational Change

It is difficult to define the term “change” due to the broad spectrum of change and its heterogeneous nature (Garg & Singh, 2006). Leifer (1989) perceives change as a normal and natural response to internal and/or external variable, uncertain conditions. According to Burnes (2004b), change is a lasting feature of organizational life, even at the strategic or the operational level.

Kanter, Stein & Jick (1992) defined change as the process of analyzing the past to elicit the present actions required for the future. Dawson (1994) argued that change in organization refers to any alteration in activities or task. Change is the movement away from a present state toward a future state (George & Jones, 1996). Rocha et al. (2015) understand that change can be explained as a quest for sustaining and developing competitiveness, productivity, and innovation in terms of uncertain markets.

The term ‘change’ is used to refer to a discrete episodic changes system that occurs in one or more domains of the organization like structure, technology, and people (Romanelli & Tushman, 1994).

whether it is within individuals or within organizations, change is complex, constant, increasing in pace, ever-present, open-ended and comes in many shapes and sizes, change is something that exists in all individuals, all organizations, and in all sectors (By, 2005).

Jones (2013:273) defined organizational change as “the process by which organizations move from their present state to some desired future state to increase their effectiveness”. Halkos (2012:2) defined organizational change, as “The actions that have to be taken by management in order to better respond to the broader socio-economic environment, through the turnabout of structures, behaviors and processes, aiming to the development and advancement of an organization". Organizational change was also described as alterations of the current work routines and strategies that affect the whole organization (Herold, Fedor, Caldwell, & Liu, 2008).

Barnett & Carroll (1995) consider that definition the organizational change involves the transformation of an organization between two points in time.

Hussain et al. (2018) illustrated that when specifying organizational change, it refers to the representation of "the movement of an organization from a current (known state) to an (unknown) desired future state". Hussain et al. (2018) went on to explain what preceded that a state of uncertainty envelops the future of change, and that change may affect the values of people, their adaptation capabilities and competencies, which therefore may lead the organization's employees to not support the change unless they are convinced of the current situation. The main goal of any organizational change initiative's is to achieve a new state in which the organization can use its resources efficiently and get the complete advantage of its capabilities to enhance the ability to create value and its competitive advantage (Jones, Jimmieson, & Griffith, 2005).

Kurt Lewin[23] was the first in publishing a significant paper addressing organizational change through drawing a linear process step from a psychological perspective, particularly the influence on the people involved in the change and overcoming inertia and resistance to change (Cameron & Green, 2009).

Although the first theoretical studies on the subject date back to the 50s, organizational changes were not perceived as separate processes in organizations and did not have an effective structured approach until the 80's of the twentieth century when organizational change management was seen as a discipline expressed in practical and theoretical terms and applied broadly in private organizations in the United States (Tudor, 2014).

Garg & Singh (2006) distinguished between two types of change: "organizational change" the change connected to the noticeable changes in

23 A number of important organizational change models will be addressed under «Organizational Change Models».

the organization where efforts are made in various areas like strategy, structure, system, technology, culture, etc. and "individual change", the change in the individual's attitudes, vision, and target in the organization.

As a result, organizational change is a complex continuous process with unintended or intended outcomes (Sofat, Kiran, & Kaushik, 2015), and organizations focus on active management of the change process and the change associated outcomes (Alvesson, 2002; Pettigrew, Woodman, & Cameron, 2001).

Organizational change theory underlined the importance of the effective alignment and fit between people, organizational structures, and culture; and the needed changes to set a drastic move towards a desired future state with better effectiveness (Jones et al., 2005).

Mosadeghrad & Ansarian (2014) asserted that to improve performance, enhance efficiency, and reduce operating costs, managers continually implement organizational change programs such as mergers, acquisitions, restructuring, reengineering, downsizing, and total quality management (TQM).

#### 2.1.2. Types of organizational change:24

Eccles (1994) identified six common organizational change contexts describing all of them as inherent and challenging for most organizations:

- ***Takeover change***: involves a change in management members.
- ***Injection change***: implies a change in the top senior manager or the CEO.
- ***Succession change***: when the top management layer is succeeded by a current organization's members who are promoted when the existent management members retire or move on.

24 After an extensive review of the literature on organizational change, By (2005) categorized the main types of change that organizations can undergo under three main categories: change characterized by the rate of occurrence: (discontinuous change, incremental change, smooth incremental change, bumpy incremental change, continuous change, continuous incremental change and punctuated equilibrium change), change characterized by how it comes about (planned change, emergent change, contingency or situational change and change by Choice) and change characterized by Scale (fine-tuning, incremental adjustment, modular transformation and corporate transformation).

- ***Renovation change***: represents the planned change process launched by management,
- ***Partnership change***: the decisions for change are shared across the spectrum of organizational players.
- ***Catalytic change***: when an agency, usually a set of advisors or consultants, intervenes on behalf of one or more stakeholders, in most cases on behalf of the management.

From the point of view of Nadler & Nadler (1997) organizational change falls under four different categories:

- The incremental or continuous change: an orderly progression of change, and a step-by-step continuous improvement that is exacted as time and growth progress.
- The radical or discontinuous change: the complex, wide-range changes caused by major shifts in the external environment, this type of change requires radical departures in approach and strategy, which often leads to a comprehensive overhaul of the organization.
- The anticipatory change: this type of change occurs in preparation for predicted environmental changes and the absence of anticipated threat.
- Reactive changes: in opposite to anticipatory changes, reactive changes are responses to threats opportunities and competition in the environment.

Ezeh, Obiora, & Madu (2016) assumed that organizations can adopt the implementation of the following different types of organizational change:

- Incremental change: that all efficient and effective organizations continuous efforts to improve the fit among the organization's components
- Fundamental change: implementing a standards-based approach that requires fundamental transformations in the organization.
- Transformational changes: a type of change when the organization rethinks its mission, activities, culture, and critical success elements.

- Transitional changes: to develop the organization slowly by the initiation of mergers, new technologies, or processes.

Change in terms of scale: in addition to the previous classifications, another classification distinguished different types of change based on the magnitude of change and the extent to which it covers all the different sections and departments of the organization or its strategies for radical change. Dunphy & Stace (1993), as cited in By (2005), classified change defined by scale into four different characteristics:

1. ***Fine-tuning*****:** also known as convergent change, it is usually manifested at a departmental or divisional level of the organization. According to Dunphy & Stace (1993), the purpose of fine-tuning is to develop personnel suited to the current strategy, linking mechanisms and create specialist units to increase volume and attention to cost and quality, and refine policies, methods, and procedures. Furthermore, the fine-tuning should foster both individual and group commitment to the excellence of departments and the organization's mission, clarify established roles, and promote confidence in accepted beliefs, norms, and myths (Dunphy & Stace, 1993).
2. ***Incremental adjustment*****:** Involves distinct modifications to organizational strategies and management processes, though incremental adjustment does not include radical change (Senior, 2002).
3. ***Modular transformation*****:** Modular transformation is a major shift of one or more departments or divisions within the organization. Unlike the incremental adjustment, modular transformation change can be radical, but it focuses on the part of an organization rather than the whole organization (Senior, 2002).
4. ***Corporate transformation*****:** Corporate transformation involves broad and radical alterations in business strategies (Dunphy & Stace, 1993). Dunphy & Stace (1993) presented reorganization, revision of interaction patterns, reformed organizational mission, and core values, and altered power and status as examples for this type of change.

Choi (2011) reported that understanding the dimensions of the organizational change process, change leader, or HR managers lead employees toward the change process and reveal problems and alternative paths to solutions. In his view, these four dimensions are: readiness for change, commitment to change, openness to change, and cynicism about organizational change.

According to Nilakant & Ramnarayan (2003) there are eight important organizational change levers for a change process in an organization, these levers are inferred by two central questions regarding two important aspects of organized change:

1. **What will be changed?** or "the content of change", which is determined by four primary content areas "levers": Technology, Quality, Marketing, and Cost. Any changes in these four content areas "levers" will be accomplished by a change in three "contextual areas": the structure, strategy, and HRM practices known as the context for change. The context for change will also result in facilitating change in the four content areas. The Leadership change area is the most important and the foundation on which change is built and considered as the primary driver of change. These together compose the crucial eight levers for a change process which are Technology, Marketing, Quality, Cost, Strategy, Structure, Managing People, and Leadership. These 8 levers are interrelated dimensions of change.
2. **How is the change made?** Or (the process of change), which is the question that most organizational change models focus and discuss.

### 2.1.3. Definition of Change Management

Several definitions of change management were presented by different researchers. Change management was defined by Moran & Brightman (2001:111) as "the process of continually renewing an organization's direction, structure, and capabilities to serve the ever-changing needs of external and internal customers". Change management can be seen as the process an organization applies to: a) identify new demands and/or restrictions placed by the external environment on them; b) identify the nature of strategic and operational initiatives required to enhance organizational performance, and c) to develop, implement, and evaluate appropriate initiatives (Recardo, 1995). Table 2.1 contains more definitions.

**Table 2.1. Definitions of Change Management**

| Source | Definition |
|---|---|
| (Recardo, 1995: 5) | "Change management is the process an organization uses to: identify new demands and/or constraints that the external environment places on them, identify the type of strategic and operational initiatives needed to maximize organizational performance, and design, implement, and evaluate appropriate initiatives". |
| (Moran & Brightman (2001: 111) | "A continuous process of renewing the direction, structure, and capabilities of the organization to address the ever-changing needs of the external and internal customers". |
| Cook & Macaulay 2004: 1) | "Change management is the daily bread of today's organizations, where technological advancement, extensive rate of competition, globalization, and many other factors govern the way organizations operate and change". |
| Nelson & Aaron (2005) as cited in (Voehl et al. 2016: 4) | "A disciplined framework for driving business outcomes through behavioral change". |
| (Garg & Singh, 2006:46) | "Change management is the effective management of a business-change" they extended that to successfully implement the required processes and needed technology for the organizational change; the executive leaders, managers, and front-line employees must work in a team". |
| (Benedict, 2007: vii) | "Change management is the formal process for organizational change including a systematic approach and application of knowledge. It leads the "people side" of major change within an organization to successfully implement new processes, products and business strategies while minimizing negative outcomes". |
| Jones (2013:32) | "Organization change is the process by which organizations redesign their structures and cultures to move from their present state to some desired future state to increase their effectiveness". |

| Source | Definition |
|---|---|
| Malek & Yazdanifard (2012:152) | "Change management "is a systematic approach that helps organizations and individuals cope with change and its effects", "it is an essential process that facilitates organizations to apply new strategies". |
| Kotter (2011: 1, 2) | "Change management, is the term refers to a set of basic tools or structures intended to keep any change effort under control". change management, which is a set of processes and a set of tools and a set of mechanisms that are designed to make sure that when you do try to make some changes, A, it doesn't get out of control, and B, the number of problems associated with it—you know, rebellion among the ranks, bleeding of cash that you can't afford–doesn't happen. So, it is a way of making a big change and keeping it, in a sense, under control". |
| Voehl et al. (2016: 6) | "Change management is the process, tools, and techniques for managing the change side to achieve the desired business outcomes". |
| Inukshuk ECM Institute (2016) | "Change management is defined as: tactical business approaches using tools, methods, methodologies, and models that support transitioning of people from a current state to a desired future state". |
| Al-ali, Singh, Al-Nahyan, & Sohal (2017: 723) | "Change management entails a systematic approach to managing change that deals with people and resources taking into consideration certain factors". |
| Ján & Timková Veronika (2017: 7) | "Change management is a systematic approach that assists organizations and individuals to cope with change and its consequences". |
| Hussain et al. (2018: 123) | "Change management refers to the explanation of the movement of an organization from a current known state to an unknown desired future state". |
| El-Dirani, Hussein, & Hejase (2019: 2) | "Change management means defining and adopting corporate strategies, structures, procedures, and technologies to deal with change stemming from internal and external conditions". |

| Source | Definition |
|---|---|
| Vlados (2019: 230) | "Change management processes are the forms and ways to design,<br>implement, control, evaluate, and assimilate changes". |

*Source: author's own elaboration.*

Benedict (2007)[25] claimed that change management aims to deal with change arising from internal and external circumstances by leading the "people side" within an organization to successfully implement new business processes, products, and business strategies while minimizing negative consequences. Nelson & Aaron (2005) explained that managing change includes managing the impact of new business processes, changes in the organizational structure or cultural changes within an organization, applying effective predictive practices, and reducing resistance is an inherent challenge. Austin (2015) added that change management can be implemented in situations such as beginning a new internal process, downsizing, or adding new technology.

In the essence of the strategic dimension, (Burnes, 2004b), Rieley & Clarkson (2001) state that it is impossible to separate organizational change from organizational strategy, or vice versa.

The discipline of change management is related to both pure and industrial psychology because it deals primarily with the human aspect of change (Sofat et al., 2015). Tamilarasu (2012) suggests that change management involves at least three different aspects, including: adapting to change, controlling, and effecting a change.

By the type of change, Teczke, Sansyzbayevna Bespayeva, & Olzhabayevna Bugubayeva (2017) distinguished between two radically opposite approaches to management:

25 In the 1990s, as a result of the development of new technologies, organizational change management spread and became a necessity for all organizations that were forced to search for more effective models, methods, and theoretical means to facilitate change and reduce costs. Thus, dissatisfied senior corporate leaders, with the results of implemented change processes from top to bottom, created a new position within the organization of a leader responsible for organizational change, especially for managing HR issues. The management of organizational change since 2000, was extensively admitted and become a core competency of managers and leaders.

1. *Revolutionary*: The revolutionary "reengineering approach" provides for a fundamental change in processes, calling into question the established foundations and, methods to achieve the optimum situation.
2. *Evolutionary*: The evolutionary approach is based on systemic improvement aimed at increasing the efficiency of the company by changing the established norms and values, it is based on the modification of the structures and processes underlying the organization's activities and involves changes that occur within the organizational development.

Change management, according to Szamosi & Duxbury (2002), became an integral component of life and a constant occurrence in most organizations. Organizational changes hold a significant result on the efficiency, competitiveness, growth, and survival of any organization (Ján & Timková Veronika, 2017). The importance of change management is becoming increasingly critical. According to Senior (2002), organizational change management has become a highly needed managerial skill, while Graetz (2000) argues that the primary task of contemporary management is to lead organizational change due to the accelerated deregulation of globalization, the speedy pace of technological innovation, changing in demographics and social trends, and other changes in business environments. As a result of the consensus that organizations are facing increasing levels of change, the ability to manage organizational change has thus become vital organizational competence (Cooper & Jackson, 1997; Dawson, 2003; Dunphy, Griffiths and Benn, 2003; Kotter, 1996).

Effective change management enables high-tech organizations to gain the following competitive advantages (Teczke et al., 2017):

1. Create a unified organizational approach to change, by establishing all processes, using necessary tools, and forming a unified system of goals.
2. Reducing resistance to change, which leads to avoiding a decrease in productivity and avoiding conflicts.
3. Sustaining and consisting of changes, accelerating learning, and the ability to enhance the processes of introducing changes and developing the organizational development strategy continuously.

The importance of organizational change, the expansion of its fields and forms, and the difficulty of achieving it successfully have led to a continuation of the debate over the past two decades in particular on how best to manage change (Dawson, 2003; Kotter, 1996; Michael Beer & Nitin Nohria, 2000; Stickland, 1998). Even in the absence of consensus on a framework for managing change, there is a consensus among specialists and researchers on two fundamental points. Firstly, the pace of change in business environment was not so tremendous at any time earlier. The other is that change may result from various internal and external factors and can be developed in different shapes, types, frames, and sizes (By, 2005).

### 2.1.4. Organizational change Areas

Environment changes and changing the organization's strategy require managers to analyze the fitness and relevance of their current structure with the new environmental conditions or to serve the new strategy (Jones, 2013). Considering the literature of change, it was found that to ensure the success of organizations and their survival and continuity, organizations resort to adopting changes in various fields. Garg & Singh (2006) highlights that the goal of organizational change, in general, is to make processes and products in the organization more effective.

Organizational changes frequently occur, and come in many forms and shapes, for example, a new leader, implementation of a new strategy or savings program, restructuring, initiation of a new information system, or a new management process (Dunphy & Stace, 1993). Barnat (2014) continues that although change can be brought about to virtually any part of an organization, significant changes or innovation usually involve making alterations and changing strategy and in one or more of these key organizational components, technology, structure, human resources, and culture. Majority of organizational change initiatives involve implementing new management practices, adapting new technologies, or changing corporate culture (Cameron & Green, 2012; Leppitt, 2006)I propose a model that links a change agent's self-awareness and reflexivity, his or her sensemaking of common sense perspectives related to planned change, and buy-in among organization stakeholders. The case is made for change agents to pay close attention to common sense perspectives because they can become the basis for particular problematic ambivalence and diminished change buy-in among stakeholders in the organization. This paper aims to address these - Conceptual and theoretical rationales for the model are offered. Examples from the psychological and organizational theory literatures provide support for the various elements of the model. Findings - Common sense perspectives should be factored into the diagnosis of the organization. Self-awareness, reflexivity, and sensemaking are all forms of social awareness that are necessary to engage stakeholders on matters of common sense. Research implications - Four research areas are identified. First, social and cultural contextual influences on common sense require clarification. Second, if resistance is multidimensional, how are dimensions influenced by common sense? Third, what group level of the organization (e.g., individual, group, organization. The selection of these change initiatives is defined by the context of the change, the type of change required, organizational culture, configuration of teams, and employee personalities (Cameron & Green, 2012)I propose a model that links a change agent's self-awareness and reflexivity, his or her sensemaking of common sense perspectives related to planned change, and buy-in among organization stakeholders. The case is made for change agents to pay close attention to common sense perspectives because they can become the basis for particular problematic ambivalence and diminished change buy-in among stakeholders in the organization. This paper aims to address these - Conceptual and theoretical rationales for the model are offered. Examples from the psychological and organizational theory literatures provide support for the various elements of the model. Findings - Common sense perspectives should be factored into the diagnosis of the organization. Self-awareness, reflexivity, and sensemaking are all forms of social awareness that are necessary to engage stakeholders on matters of common sense. Research implications - Four research areas are identified. First, social and cultural contextual influences on common sense require clarification. Second, if resistance is multidimensional, how are dimensions influenced by common sense? Third, what group level of the organization (e.g., individual, group, organization.

Organizational change includes changes in the organizational structure, individuals or jobs that affect what people do at work, how people perform their tasks, and their responsibilities, and accountabilities (Loo, Lee, & Low, 2017). Smith (2002), after examining the results of 49 studies on major change projects found that the areas of organizational changes were: strategy development (3 projects), restructuring and downsizing (9 projects), technology change (5 projects), mixed change efforts (1 project), TQM driven change (5 projects), mergers and acquisitions (9 projects), reengineering and process design (7 projects), software development and installation (6 projects), business expansion (1 project), and cultural change (3 projects).

Organizational change types have been linked to changes occurring in different areas such as technology, structure, system, strategy, people, culture etc. All these areas are explained below (Garg & Singh, 2006):

1. ***Technology*****:** Technology is concerned with design and layout of production facilities, product mix, type and mix of machines and equipment, inventing new materials, flow of data and sharing of information, automation, using computer software and hardware, monitoring, and controlling of production processes, maintenance, and simulation of operations and facilities and others. Technology change is a two-stage process. In the first stage, the organization makes the decision of adopting new technology. This is followed by modification and adjustment of the labor force in the second stage.
2. ***Organizational systems*****:** This area of change is involved, on the one hand, with working systems related to production, maintenance, marketing, sales, material procurement, information technology, inspection, quality, etc. and their interconnection on the other. Changing both technology and systems together can be implemented in a "re-engineering" to achieve success.
3. ***Organizational structure*****:** The structure area includes hierarchical levels, span of control, administration, cadres, manpower utilization, communication, coordination, integration, learning, etc. (Garg, 2007; Garg & Singh, 2006)[26]. Jones (2013) intimated that

26 Organizations have various structures based on the optimal coordination of interactions amongst

to improve organizational effectiveness by "Restructuring" process or changing the structure in a company may involve alteration in any structural variables like authority relationships, degree of centralization, coordination mechanisms, job design, etc. this process represents one of the most common kinds of the restructuring effort[27]. Restructuring efforts are unpopular among employees and managers alike. Employees are afraid to be re-laid out from work, and managers who fear to lose their empires and power, as there are new and more effective ways to structure tasks and role relationships (Jones, 2013).

4. ***People or the "Human Resource":*** Garg & Singh (2006) claim that change in people refers to changes in employee attitudes, perceptions, expectations, or behavior, this area of organizational change is associated with managing the individual's mindset, vision, objectives, attitude, developing skills, motivation, resistance to change, coordination, and the impact of group dynamics on the whole change process. Organizations must continuously determine the most effective method of organizing, motivating, acquiring, and utilizing the skills of its HR that represent the distinctive competencies of an organization, and holds the skills and abilities of its employees (Jones, 2013).

   In detail, Jones (2013) mentioned the usual types of organizational change efforts directed at people or HRs as:

   a) Any new investment in training and development activities aimed at providing employees with new skills and abilities.
   b) Socialization employees in the organizational culture to enable them to learn the new routine upon which organizational performance depends.

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multiple activities. Organizational structures are designed based on several levels, individuals' authorities, and responsibilities. Robbins (2001) determined the structure's elements as: chain of command, work specialization, span of control, authority and responsibility, centralization and decentralization, and departmentalization

27 Jones added that re-engineering is also closely related to restructuring and that the restructuring process in practice, the transition to a more efficient organizational structure, leads to dispensing with the employees of the organization unless the organization is substantially growing so that it can accommodate staff elsewhere in the organization.

c) Change the norms and values prevailing in the organization to motivate the diverse and multicultural workforce.
d) Continuous examination of how the promotion and reward systems work in a diverse workforce.
e) To change the formation of the senior management team to promote organizational learning and decision-making. People's dimension of change requires a committed workplace to organizational objectives, targets, and vision, also it requires proper education, training for the manpower, performance evaluation systems and a reward system that supports and supports continuous developments (Garg & Singh, 2006).

5. ***Organizational Culture*:** culture includes work environment, individuals' behavior, group behavior, and team spirit, flexibility, management commitment, belongingness, leadership and interpersonal relationship in an organization (Garg & Singh, 2006). From the point of view of Cameron & Quinn (2011), they perceive that the changes in organizational culture must be compatible with the business culture by complying with three factors: the purpose so the new cultural structure must fulfill the business activity), the criterion for evaluating the current and required levels of organizational culture, and Practice and enforceability on the ground, which indicates that what is required can be achieved within a certain time period. An organization can exploit its human and functional resources to take advantage of technological opportunities by design of organizational structure and culture (Jones, 2013). Jones went on to state that structure and culture changes that take place at all levels of the organization may involve, for example changing the routines employees use to greet customers, changing relationships of workgroups, enhancing the integration between organization's divisions, and changing organization's culture by changing the top-management team.

## 2.2. Why organizational change occurs? Factors and reasons of change

Discussion of the causes of change in the organization is one of the important aspects of this research because it is closely and directly related to change management, and to enhancing the success of change.

Employees' perceptions about the reasons behind the organization's decision to adopt the change option, and the direction that the change should take, may enhance the employee's understanding of the change process as a whole and raise his readiness for change and reduce rates of resistance to change.

Change management is the means by which the workers are led towards adopting the changes that are designed by those responsible for change in the organization in order to achieve the objectives of the change initiative. From the point view of (Hiatt & Creasey, 2012), change management is the bridge between solutions and results.

The extreme change in both internal and external business environments required organizations to strive to adapt and apply new technologies and processes and individuals to constantly develop their skills and knowledge. Technological development, new patterns of globalization, mergers and acquisitions, corporate restructuring as well as social and political factors and legislation are among the main reasons affecting modern organizations and impose change on them. The constant change of supply and demand, the creation or abolition of new methods and the development of new products and services, makes the operation of markets an ever-changing and dynamic system.

Bartlett & Ghoshal (1998) identify the main sources of these changes in: globalization and removal of trade barriers, intensification of international competition, liberalization of financial markets, deregulation and privatization of state monopoly enterprises, growth and integration of regional trade blocs, developments in information technology; and convergence in transnational demand patterns. Stewart & Hadjian (1993) and Hitt, Ireland, & Hoskisson (2007), as cited in Cumming & Worley (2009), supposed that the three essential trends of: globalization, information technology, and managerial innovation, shape the change in organizations.

Furthermore, Cumming & Worley (2009) emphasized that information technology (IT) is reshaping the prevalent business models by changing methods of performing work, and how to use knowledge. Finally, Cumming & Worley (2009) pointed to managerial innovation as presenting new organizational forms, such as strategic alliances, networks, and virtual corporations that provided organizations with unusual ways to think about how to produce goods and deliver services.

Tetenbaum (1998) believes that the shift from the industrial age to the information age led to a change in the nature of the workplace, the worker, and work in a world he described as a new, nonlinear world of work. Tetenbaum (1998) listed six characteristics of the 21st Century as factors that are liable for the changes occurring in the modern world in general as well as in context in which organizations operate and must now contend with namely:

1. ***New technologies*****:** the new technologies of the info media industries like communications, computers, and consumer electronics, increased consumer power, and productivity, efficiency, acceleration of production.
2. ***Globalization*****:** which has appeared in a more interconnected world than ever before through the transmission of information, money, and commodities across the world.
3. ***competition:*** globalization and technology which together fueled competition and pushed companies to compete fiercely for market share and promoted the rise and fall of market leaders.
4. ***New change processes and practices*****:** that are now more dynamic and rapid, than ever before in known history. Changes are happening at a geometric rate now and the disequilibrium created is unprecedented in history. Organizations must be sufficiently agile to meet new demands Discussion of the causes of change in the organization is one of the important aspects of this research because it is closely and directly related to change management, and to enhancing the success of change.

5. ***Speed:*** the dramatic increase in technological development speed was reflected in the acceleration of business, so product life cycles are measured nowadays in months, instead of years. Likewise, it is reflected in the lives of people, most of whom feel that they must run as quickly as possible just to keep staying in place.
6. ***Complexity and paradox*:** all these changes resulted in such increasing complexities, and thus have increased the difficulty and hardship of managers' daily work searching for certainty and type solutions in order to achieve the ideals of stability and order for their organizations.

Nadler (1988) concluded that change can occur as a consequence of either internal or external factors or a combination of both. The decision to change something comes from internal factors as a result of the needs of the company itself, or from the external environment, such as competitive pressure (Ján & Timková Veronika, 2017). They added that whether the cause for change originates from the internal or the external environment, the goal of all changes is to bring some development and progress in a particular area, consequently, organizations must rethink it over and estimate whether the change is really required, and should define their position, where and when they would like to be when the change really occurs. Lunenburg (2010) believes that the internal factors that are the ones that generate and present change from within the organization may include local business policies, employment policies, people problems, and administrative processes. External factors that cause change mainly include laws and government regulations, political and social events, production and operations, the marketplace, labor market technology, as well as internationalization of business (Pfeffer, 1994).

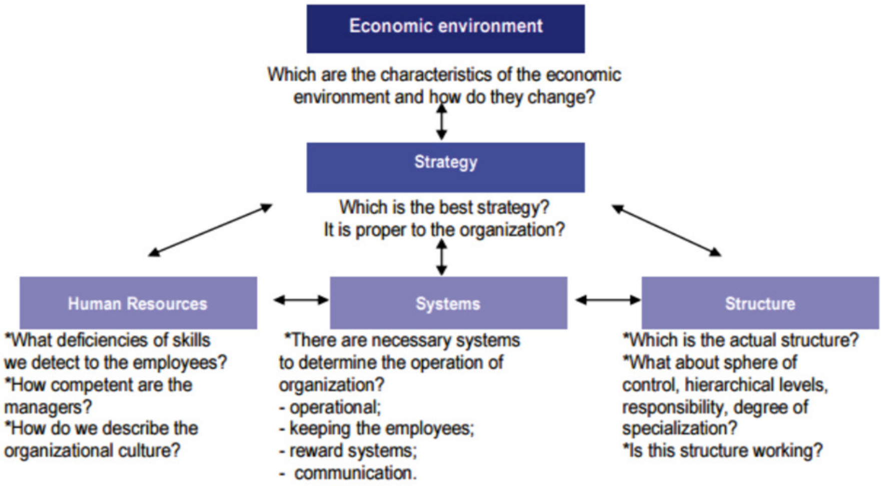
Answering to the question, "where does the change come from?" Pichault & Schoenaers (2003) claimed that the change may be the result of:

1. An internal structure mutation.
2. The employment of major strategic decisions.
3. The adaptation to the environment's changes.

They added, though, that there may be reciprocal relationships between the different poles, so strategic decisions can be greatly influenced by environmental changes and then lead to structural adjustments.

Elearn, (2007) illustrates that there should be dissatisfaction with how things work behind any change. Every change should bring something new, better, and more efficient (Ján & Timková Veronika, 2017). Figure 2-1 describes an organizational transformation process (Clarke, 2004:37); In: (Bold, 2010).

**Fig. 2-1 - How to organize for a change.**




**Source:** Clarke (2004:37) In: Bold (2010)

The economic environment which is known for its instability is the inducement for change. Instability is a driving force behind changes (Ján & Timková Veronika, 2017).

Weiss, (2003:56) as cited in (Bold, 2010) described Factors like "Human Resources", "systems", "structure" like plates that rotate on top of the sticks, where there is always the danger and a threatening to fall requiring a quick trick to keep its position.

Organizations need to consider the reasons behind the change, and when implementing the change, attention should be sought on models or approaches that ensure a successful change in that organization.

Organizations must produce fundamental changes in vision, mission, and strategy, and the necessary change to fully integrate employees' and organizational goals (Nadler & Shaw, 1995). Burke (1982) assumes that change should drive greater organizational effectiveness through better use of resources, and the change should provide more employee participation in the decision making that affects them and working conditions.

## 2.3. Organizational Change Theories and Models

In general, the change is a process that requires a sequence of steps and activities, and rarely a one-piece task (Ján & Timková Veronika, 2017). Organizational change involves extensive literature that has grown since Lewin proposed his three-stage change model in 1951, which influenced much future research, as many conceptual models were developed to help understand organizational change (Gustafson et al., 2003).

Cummings & Worley (2014) asserted that theories of planned change describe the activities that must take place to initiate and implement organizational change as well as the different stages through which planned change can be made in organizations and explain the temporal process of applying Organizational Development (OD)[28] methods to help members of the organization manage change.

Models and theories of managing planned change in an organization have been proposed to enable managers and leaders in charge of organizational change to monitor, evaluate and plan changes to quickly respond to the internal or external environment and predict the pattern of change by individuals, technology, products and markets (Van Ossten, 2006).

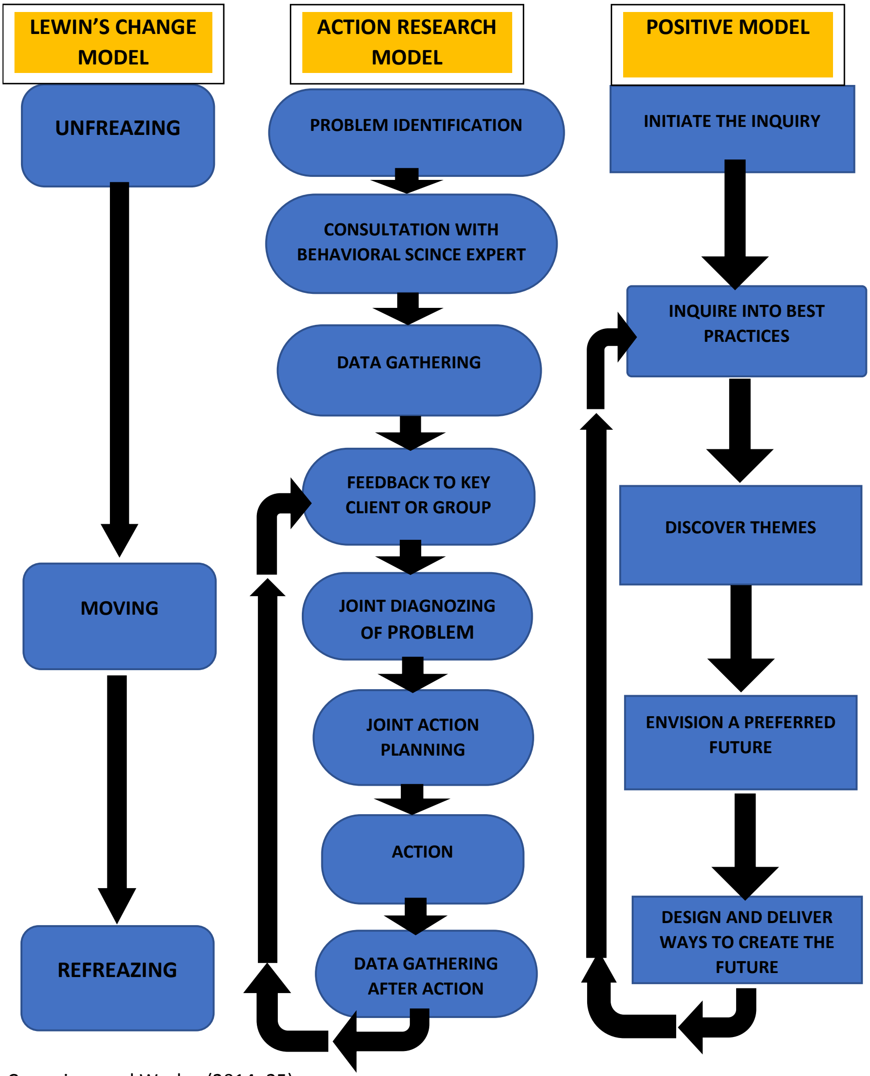
Cummings & Worley (2014) and Hussain et al. (2018) classified theories on organizational change that represent different views on the stages through which planned change occurs in organizations that have received much attention (Figure 2.2) into three main theories :

28 Burke & Bradford (12 :2005) described Organizational Development (OD) as: "Based on (1) a set of values, largely humanistic; (2) application of the behavioral sciences; and (3) open systems theory, Organization Development is a systemwide process of planned change aimed toward improving overall organization effectiveness by way of enhanced congruence of such key organization dimensions as external environment, mission, strategy, leadership, culture, structure, information and reward systems, and work policies and procedures".

1. Lewin's Change Model.
2. The Action Research Model.
3. The Positive Model.

Bamford & Forrester (2003) asserted that planned change can be analyzed by a construct such as Lewin's (1951) "action research" model, in addition to the famous Lewin's (1958)'s "three-step model" which describes the three stages of freezing, unfreezing, and refreezing.

**Figure 2:**2 Comparison of Planned Change Models




Cummings and Worley (2014: 25).

### 2.3.1. Lewin's Change Model

One of the earliest models of planned change was provided by Kurt Lewin (Lewin, 1947) who conceived of change as a modification of those forces that maintain the status quo and the forces pushing for change for keeping a system's behavior stable. In this model, change can be brought about in the quasi-stationary equilibrium stage, either by increasing the striving forces for change or reducing the forces that maintain the status quo or by combining both forces.

Kurt Lewin's three-stage theory of change is usually referred to as Unfreeze, Change (or Transition), Freeze or (Refreeze) stages. Hence, according to Lewin (1952 in Eldrod II & Tippett, 2002, and Petrescu, 2010) a successful change project must, therefore, involve these three steps.

#### 2.3.1.1. The first stage: Unfreeze

This stage focuses on the readiness for change and involves reaching a point of understanding among individuals that change is necessary. In this stage, people are moved from a state of unwillingness to change to be ready and willing to take the first step, because the more people feel that change is needed, the more urgent it is, the more motivated they are to execute the change. The phase of unfreezing is one of the most critical phases to understand in the world of change we live in today.

#### 2.3.1.2. Stage Two: Change (Transition)

Once people had been "unfrozen", the second stage begins when making the required changes. This stage often comes with great difficulties because people are overwhelmed by a feeling of uncertainty or even fear. At this stage, people learn about the changes and often need the time to understand and work with them.

#### 2.3.1.3. The third stage: Freezing or (Refreezing)

While Kurt Lewin refers to this stage as freezing, many researchers refer to it as "refreezing". In this stage, individuals are taken from the second "state of transition" to a stable and productive state. This stage, which may take some time, includes stabilization. Once the changes are made and the changes are accepted, the changes, in turn, become the new norm, people form new relationships and become comfortable with their routines.

Lewins' model of change emphasizes the necessity to discard old behavior, structures, processes, and culture to successfully adopting the new approaches (Bamford & Forrester, 2003). Several authors have, therefore, developed Lewin's three-step model in an effort to make it more practical (Bamford & Forrester, 2003), as they viewed the three-stage model as being relatively broad (Eldrod II & Tippett, 2002). The subsequent period witnessed considerable efforts made by many researchers to build on Lewin's general model by introducing more detail models to make it more practical (Bamford & Forrester, 2003)[29].

### 2.3.2. The Action Research Model

It is generally admitted that Kurt Lewin began constructed a theory of action research in the mid-1940s in the USA (Hampshire, 2000; Masters, 1995). In the UK, the research approach developed by the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations in the late 1940s has since been named action research (Hart & Bond, 1995; Holter & Schwartz-Barcott, 1993). Both Lewin and the Tavistock Institute implemented action research to resolve industry problems (Hampshire, 2000). This theory described action research as proceeding in a spiral of steps "a spiral of cycles of self-reflection", each of which is composed of planning, action, evaluating of action's results "observing, reflecting", re-planning (and so on) " (Kemmis, McTaggart, & Nixon, 2014: 9). Lewin proposed that to "understand and change certain social practices, social scientists have to include practitioners from the real social world in all phases of inquiry" (McKernan, 1991: 10). The development of action research theory by Lewin made it an acceptable inquiry method (Ibid).

29 For instance, Lippitt, Watson, and Westley arranged Lewin's model into seven steps (Lippitt, Watson, & Westley, 1958 as cited in Cummings & Worley, 2014). Kotter's (1996) eight-stage model has been identified as one of the most well-known approaches to organizational transformation and as a vision of the process of change (Mento et al., 2002). Other relevant approaches include Bullock & Batten"s 1985 four-phase model, and ten commandments on how to plan a change process (Kanter et al., 1992).

Action Research is based on solving organizational problems through an effective approach that incorporates systematic and rational analysis, an approach that thoroughly determines the information, hypothesis, and action in all sections also the assessment of the actions executed for solving the problem (Burnes, 1996; Gayef, 2014).

Burnes (1996) notes that action research is a process that includes:

- Regular collecting of research data about a continuous system concerning some goals or objectives or the need for this system.
- Feeding this data back into the system.
- Taking action by changing the selected variables within the system based on data and assumptions.
- Evaluating the results of the procedures by collecting more data.

Action research was originally developed to have a dual focus on change and knowledge-generating, moreover it has been adjusted to Organizational Development (OD) efforts in which the major emphasis is on planned change (French, 1969; Frohman, Sashkin, & Kavanagh, 1976) as cited in (Cummings & Worley, 2014).

The action research aimed to implement change and create new knowledge (McNiff, 1988; Whyte, 1991). Susman & Evered (1978); Shani & Bushe (1987) as cited in Cummings & Worley (2014) affirmed this view of point detailing that action research essentially aimed both at helping specific organizations implement planned change and at developing more general knowledge that can be applied to other settings.

Lewin's early definition of action research included practitioners in a cyclical process of four stages: plan, act, observe and reflect (Hampshire, 2000). More recent definitions of action research designate that it has plenty of characteristics such as: focusing on change and improvement, the involvement of practitioners in the research process, action research is educational for the involved people (Hampshire, 2000), it pays attention to questions that arise from practice, it is characterized as a cyclical process of data collection, feedback and reflecting, and action research is a process that generates knowledge.

The action research model lays great emphasis on data gathering, diagnosis preceding to action planning and implementation, also on the assessment of results after the action (Cummings & Worley, 2014).

Furthermore, it focuses on the planned change as a cyclical process involving joint activities between organization members and OD and planned change practitioners, and involves several steps that overlap and interact while practicing (Ibid):

1. ***Problem identification***. When a problem or more appears in the organization. And this problem can be solved with the help of the OD practitioner.
2. ***Consultation of a behavioral science expert***. During the initial contact, the OD practitioner and the client carefully assess each other. The practitioner must share his own normative, developmental theory with the client from the beginning to establish an open and collaborative atmosphere.
3. ***Collecting data and preliminary diagnosis***. It involves gathering and analyzing relevant information to determine the underlying causes of organizational problems.
4. ***Feedback to the main client or group.*** Feedback helps to define the weaknesses and strengths of the organization or unit under study.
5. ***Joint diagnosis of the problem.*** Members discuss feedback and explore with the OD practitioner whether they want to work on specific issues. High importance is attached to establishing a common frame of reference in the client-consultant relationship. When the client accepts the prescription, there will be no wrong diagnosis, and subsequent steps are facilitated.
6. ***Joint action planning.*** The organizational development practitioner and client members jointly agree on problem diagnosis, actions to be used, and the intervention time.
7. ***Action.*** This stage represents the actual change in the organization from one organizational state to another.
8. ***Collecting data after the action.*** Following action implementation, data must be collected again to measure and determine the effects of the action and feed the results back to the organization. This, in turn, may lead to re-diagnosis and new procedures and actions in a cyclical process.

Pettit (2010) believes that action research presents an alternative approach to implement changes in knowledge, policy, and practice.

According to Pettit (2010), to be effective and inclusive, action research requires qualified facilitators with special skills such as the ability to pay attention to the personal and group processes of reflection and action while taking into account the complex dynamics of power and participation.

### 2.3.3. The Positive Model.

In a departure from Lewin's model and the Action Research process, the third model of change, the Positive Model, focuses on the organization's problems and how they can be solved to function better. Hence, this model is oriented to what the organization is doing right and helps organization employees to understand their organization when working at its best to adopt those capabilities in order to achieve better results. It seeks to build on positive opportunities that can lead to extraordinary performance ( Cummings & Worley, 2014).

The positive approach to change is also supported by a considerable volume of research on expectation effects. It assumes that people tend to act in ways that make their expectations occur (Cooperrider, 1990; Eden, 1988). Thus, considering this model, positive expectations about the organization can create an expectation that stimulates and directs people's behavior toward making those beliefs happen ( Cummings & Worley, 2014).

The positive model of planned change, drawing heavily on Appreciative Inquiry (AI), comprises five phases ( Cummings & Worley, 2014):

1. **Initiation of the Inquiry:** To determine the subject of change. It emphasizes members' involvement to identify what organizational issue the members have the most energy to address; for example, members can choose to look for customer satisfaction cases or product developments that bring new quick ideas to market. The more real and vital the focus of research to the members, the more positive this process of change itself will be.
2. **Inquire into Best Practices:** Gathering information about the best that exists in the organization. Where the members of the organization conduct interview with each other to tell stories about

the innovation they have personally participated, and then these stories are grouped together to create a pool of information that describes the organization as an innovative system.

3. **Discover the Themes:** The themes are the basis for moving from "what is" to "what could be". In this phase, members examine both the big and small stories to identify a collection of themes that represent common dimensions of people's experiences. All of the underlying mechanisms that helped establish and support the themes must be identified and described.
4. **Envision a Preferred Future:** Translating vision into a statement "of what should be". Members examine the identified themes, challenge the status quo, and describe a compelling future. Building on the organization's successful past, members collectively envision the organization's future and develop "possibility propositions" statements that link the organization's current best practices with ideal future organizing possibilities. Based on these possibilities, the organization's members define the related stakeholders and crucial organization processes that should be aligned to support the emergence of the envisioned future.
5. **Design and Deliver Ways to Create the Future**: In the final phase, plans and activities are drawn up to achieve the vision. Members implement changes, assess results, and make necessary adjustments while moving the organization toward the vision and sustain "what will be". The process continues with renewed conversations about the best of what is there.

This approach to change aligns with a growing movement in the social sciences called "positive organizational scholarship," which focuses on positive dynamics in organizations that lead to extraordinary outcomes (Cameron & Quinn, 2003).

## 2.4. Approaches to Organizational Change

There is no single clear, practical, and widely accepted approach to organizational change management that explains the changes that organizations need to make and how to implement them (Burnes, 2004b).

Bamford & Forrester (2003); Cummings & Worley (2004); Dawson (1994); Kaminski (2000); Kanter et al. (1992); Pettigrew (2000); Stace & Dunphy (2001) affirm organizational change literature normally includes studies of the planned and emergent approaches as the most dominant approaches to organizational change management.

Woodman, Pasmore, & Shani (2009) described planned changes as formal and the emergency change as less formal, they went on saying that a comprehensive understanding of organizational change can only be achieved when attention is given to both types of organizational change.

According to Weick & Quinn (1999) change in organizations is either an "incidental" occasional change that it occurs at manageable intervals and can be controlled and planned or, a continuous that "never start because it never stops", this type is difficult to manage and plan (Weick & Quinn, 1999).

By (2005: 373), classified change types when change characterized by "how it comes about" into four different types of change: the planned change, the emergent change, the contingency change, and the choice change. By (2005) also proposed that change characterized by how it comes about was the most common among other ways like change characterized by the rate of occurrence, how it comes about and by scale. Even though there are many various approaches to organizational change and several methods of categorizing them, there is a consensus that planned and emergent approaches are the two dominant ones (Burnes, 2004a).

### 2.4.1. Planned Change Approach

Harigopal (2006); Stouten, Rousseau, & De Cremer (2018) define planned organizational change as intended activities that take an organization from its present state to a desired state in the future.

The planned approach to organizational change attempts to explain the process that brings about change and emphasizes the importance of understanding the different states which an organization will have to operate through to move from an undesirable state to an identified desired state (Eldrod II & Tippett, 2002). Planned Change approach that is often pointed to as the "best developed, documented and supported approach to change. It prevailed in both the theory and practice of change management from the late forties to the early eighties of the last century (Burnes, 2000).

The main goal of planned organizational change is to enhance the organization's capability of creating value and to raise returns to its stakeholders through finding innovative or improved ways for utilizing organizational resources and capabilities to (Beer, 1980; Jones, 2013; Porras & Silvers, 1991). Bamford & Forrester (2003)claimed that the planned change approach that is based primarily on Kurt Lewin's work has dominated the theory and the practice of change management for the last 50 years.

Researchers and authors who studied organizational change from Lewin's 1951 perspective define the planned change as the transition from one fixed state to another through a sequence of pre-planned steps (Bamford & Forrester, 2003; R. W. Woodman et al., 2009). Therefore, it must be systematically analyzable and can be deliberately designed, initiated, and realized (Livne-Tarandach & Bartunek, 2009).

Later, resembling approaches have been developed when many researchers built on Lewin's to suggest their planned change model such as (Cummings & Huse's (1989) eight-phase model, and Bullock & Batten (1985) four-phase model (Bamford & Forrester, 2003). This results in the emergent of a number of planned change models that present a general set of sequential steps to be followed when adopting different organizational change initiatives.

In an inclusive review an of planned change theory, Porras & Robertson (1992) concluded that planned change activities should be guided by information about:

1. What organizational features to be changed?
2. What are the intended outcomes of making these changes?
3. What are the causal mechanisms to achieve those outcomes?
4. The contingencies upon which successful change depends.

Cummings & Worley (2009) express their underlying view that although most of the planned change models define a general set of pre-designed steps to be applicable to most of the change efforts, the change activities can vary depending on various factors such as the magnitude of the change, the degree of organization of the client system, and whether the change is being handled in local or international settings. Cummings & Worley concluded that, consequently, the stages of planned change should vary according to circumstances, and that more effort must be directed towards studying the situational factors that may require modification of the general stages of the intended change, which in turn will lead to generating a wide range of planned change models, each model will be oriented towards a specific set of situational conditions.

On what the planned change aims, Cummings & Worley (2014) believe that the theories of planned change aim to increase the effectiveness of the organization by describing the activities required to modify strategies, structures, and processes. The turbulent and unpredictable environment that accompanied the oil shocks of the 1970s and the growing Japan's competitive strength and other conditions contributed to clarifying the weaknesses of the planned change approach, Thus, many critical voices began to arise, especially in the early 1980s, questioned the efficacy and relevance of existing approaches (Burnes, 2000). So, despite the expansion of modelling for the planned organizational change process, it was subject to some criticism from many authors who do not see it as the appropriate approach that fits with the dynamic change in circumstances and conditions of the business environment.

Firstly, Burnes (1996, 2004b); Senior (2002) intimated that the planned organizational change approach's emphasis is on incremental and small-scale change. Hence it is not appropriate to situations that necessitate rapid and transformational change.

Second, researchers have pointed out that the planned change neglects environmental that are incompatible with planned change initiatives, emphasizing the role of internal and external influences as "drivers" of organizational change in systems theory (Livne-Tarandach & Bartunek, 2009). This is especially true in our increasingly complex, interconnected, and global corporate world (Liebhart & Garcia-Lorenzo, 2010).

Planned change approach has also been criticized because change cannot be performed from one stable state to another, (Garvin, 1994) as cited in (Bamford & Forrester, 2003). Schein (1985) criticized planned change because it emphasizes the isolated change and its inability to incorporate radical change (Bamford & Forrester, 2003).

Both Dawson (1994) and Hatch & Cunliffe (2006) criticized the planned change because it focuses on group involvement and trial and error testing, which makes the planned change slow and static which makes the planned change from their point of view proper only for times of stability, not for conditions of dynamic interrelatedness and complexity. Another criticism raised by processualists is that change cannot be a series of discrete and pre-identified events, on the contrary, change is a continuous open-ended process where it is often not possible to determine the accuracy of the final state of change (Burnes, 1996, 2004b; Livne-Tarandach & Bartunek, 2009; Weick, 2000). Liebhart & Garcia-Lorenzo (2010) added that the way in which people interact necessarily leads to unpredictable outcomes and difficulties in forecasting and thus difficulty in planning in advance the path that change initiatives will take.

Another issue that critics take against planned change is that planned change pre-supposes that all stakeholders share the same understanding and well-being about the change process, and they share the desire to implement the change process, or at least they do not have the ability to resist change (Bamford & Forrester, 2003). This pre-assumption neglects resistance to change, politics in organizations and conflict, or assumes the possibility of conflict being overridden or easily resolved (Burnes, 1996).

### 2.4.2. Emergent Change Approach

The emerging approach[30] is a relatively new concept of organizational change that emerged when researchers began to criticize a planned change approach. Therefore, this approach evolved in an attempt to address shortcomings in the planned approach and to respond to criticisms levelled at it.

The emerging change occurs when people re-perform routine actions and deal with contingencies, breakdowns, and opportunities in daily work (Weick, 2000). Therefore, emergent change was described as unpredictable, often unintentional, can come from anywhere, involving

30 It is often referred to as the emergent change model, although it has been named by several different other names, such as Organizational Learning or Continuous Improvement (Burnes, 1996). The emerging approach tends to see change driven from the bottom up rather than driven from the top-down (Bamford & Forrester, 2003; Burnes, 2004 ,1996b).

relatively informal self-organizing (Weick & Quinn, 1999). Weick (2000: 237) added that "Emergent change consists of ongoing accommodations, adaptations, and alterations that produce fundamental change without a priori intentions to do so".

Dawson (1994) emphasizes that, in today's business environment, one-dimensional change interventions are likely to generate only short-term results and heighten instability rather than reduce it. Therefore, change must be connected to various factors like developments in markets, management control systems, work organization, and the shifting nature of organizational relationships and boundaries.

Burnes (2006: 363) understands that the occurrence of the change is "real-time" and thus it promotes continuous alignment with the environment, continuous learning, and strategy formulation.

As a natural system, organizations need to operate under its environment conditions away from much stability and control, otherwise, the organization will become unresponsive to its environment and decline (Stacey, 2001).

Emergent change theories emphasize the processual nature of organizing, hence the way the people interact leads to unpredictable consequences, difficulties in predicting, and pre-change planning which might lead to changes needed in directions the company had not considered before (Liebhart & Garcia-Lorenzo, 2010). They suggested that as sequence change interventions need to go beyond Kurt Lewin's episodic change model "unfreeze, change, and refreeze model" to include notions of emergence, emergent developments, and self-organization.

The emergent approach suggests that the tremendous speed with which a change is characterized is greater than the ability of senior managers to identify, plan, and implement the necessary organizational responses (Kanter et al., 1992).

Therefore, change cannot simply be a series of linear events within a certain period of time, rather change is an ongoing and open-ended process of adapting to changing conditions (Burnes, 1996; P. Dawson, 1994). Both of external and internal environment conditions which are characterized by uncertainty, makes the emergent approach more relevant than the planned approach (Bamford & Forrester, 2003).

For organizations to succeed in dealing with complexity and uncertainty in the environment, they need to become open learning systems where the basis for strategy development and change is the way in which the company as a whole acquires, interprets and processes information related to the environment (Dunphy & Stace, 1993).(Burnes, 1996) argues that successful change depends on reaching an understanding of the complexity of the issues involved and defining the extent of options available, rather than on detailed plans and expectations. He points out that those who adopt the processual perspective among the advocates of the emergent model, assert that there can be no simple prescription for successfully managing organizational transformations, due to temporal and contextual factors.

In a similar line, By (2005) asserted that the emerging approach to organizational change pays much attention to change readiness and facilitating change rather than presenting specific, pre-planned steps for each change project and initiative.

Several advocates of the emergent approach have suggested models of sequences of actions that organizations should comply with, offering more practical guidance to organizations and managers (By 2005). These include the ten Commandments for executing change (Kanter et al., 1992); the eight-stage process for successful organizational transformation (Kotter, 1996), and (Luecke"s (2003) seven steps model.

Weick (2000: 255) as cited in Liebhart & Garcia-Lorenzo (2010), argued that the benefits of emergent change are:

- Sensitivity to local contingencies.
- Suitability for on-line real-time experimentation, learning, and sense-making, comprehensibility, and manageability.
- Likelihood of satisfying needs of autonomy, control, and expression. Proneness to swift implementation, resistance to unravelling.
- Ability to exploit existing tacit knowledge.
- Tightened and shortened feedback loops from results to action.

Like the planned approach to change, the emergent approach has not escaped criticism. One such criticism is that the emergent approach consists of a diverse set of models whose proponents agree criticizing the planned approach to organizational change, and while they are more united in their doubts about the planned approach to change, they are not unanimous in offering an agreed alternative (Bamford & Forrester, 2003; Dawson, 1994).

Bamford & Forrester (2003) added that emergent change perspective supporters have a more united stance against planned change than their agreement on a specific alternative approach because they come from a wide variety of backdrops, and each suggests its own distinct view on how to manage organizational change.

Several recent research projects have been undertaken with the aim of understanding the interplay between planned and emerging change (Liebhart & Garcia-Lorenzo, 2010). Beer & Nohria (2000) advocate the concurrent use of planned and emerging processes of change. Burnes (2004a) assumed that over the past twenty years, the emerging approach appears to have replaced the planned approach as the most appropriate. However, the notion that planned and emerging changes compete, not complement, is a controversial issue. Burnes (2004a) concluded that organizations need to avoid looking for a "best way" approach to change and instead seek to determine the most appropriate approach for both types of changes they wish to make, according to the organization's context. (Wilson, 1992) pointed out that a shift from emergent models of change to planned ones has steadily occurred over the past two decades.

Change as well as models or approaches to change come in all shapes and sizes, so the debate between the two planned and emerging approaches to change can be viewed as an approach that seeks to address different situational variables (contingencies), rather than seeing the debate as a clash between two fundamentally opposing systems of ideas, the planned model is best suited to relatively stable and predictable situations where change can be driven from top down, on the other hand, an emergent model is directed at fast-moving dynamic and unpredictable situations where it is impractical, if not impossible, to drive change from the top (Burnes, 1996).

### 2.4.3. Contingency Change and Choice change

#### 2.4.3.1. Contingency Change Approach

Choosing the most relevant approach for the type of change being undertaken and the circumstances in which it is being tackled is an important factor in achieving successful change (Bamford & Forrester, 2003).

Dunphy & Stace (1993) argue that because organizations operate in ever-changing environments and because there is a set of methods of change that organizations can pursue and adopt, it is no longer possible to view the planned change and emerging change approaches as the entire spectrum of change events.

Based on the foregoing, Dunphy & Stace (1993: 905) added that managers and consultants need a model that is essentially a "situational" or "contingency model, indicating how to diversify change strategies in organizations to reach the "optimum fit" with the changing environment and support the "best way for each organization" approach instead of the "best way for all" approach. The contingency approach to change is based on the theory that the structure and performance of any organization depend on the situational variables the organization faces (Dunphy & Stace, 1993).

To provide managers with clear guidelines for deciding the most appropriate structure for their organizations in order to achieve the best achievable performance, contingency theory was based on a number of classic studies on organization structure and performance carried out in the 1960s. Since then, it has been utilized in a wide variety of topics and situations and proved as a theory to be highly influential (Burnes, 1996). Dunphy & Stace (1993) assumed that because there are no two identical organizations, and because the two organizations will certainly not face the same variables, therefore, their structures and operations may be different.

Burnes (1996) states that Dunphy & Stace (1993), suggested that there is more than one approach to change and that they called for a model of change that reflects the fact that organizations operate under different situations after Kanter et al. (1992) introduced two more approaches to change :

1. “Bold Strokes”: Major and fast change initiatives that are imposed on the organization in a directive rather than a participative manner from top-down.
2. “Long Marches”: Change initiatives that involve a complete series of local (incremental) small-scale changes, that have a little overall effect in the short term but can transform an organization over the long term. Burnes commented on those models by saying that “long marches “ can be seen as complementary to the emergent model of change, but bold strokes fit neither the emergent nor planned approaches, but this point merely reinforces Dunphy & Stace’s (1993) thought that if a model of change must offer an equally wide range of approaches to change, to be applicable to the widely differing and dynamic circumstances under which organizations operate.

Burnes (1996) suggested that despite its popularity, contingency theory has attracted significant criticisms, and these include the difficulty in relating structure to performance, the difficulty in identifying key situational variables, such as environment, technology, and size. Burnes (1996) added that another difficulty in applying the contingency model to change which stems from being so prescriptive is that the contingency model, like other models, ignores the difficulty organizations may face in adopting a new approach to change, that by being so prescriptive, the literature of change neglect these difficulties. On the other hand, Burnes (1996) asserted that and from the point of view of applying a contingency approach to organizational change the managers remain virtual prisoners to of organizational contingencies and emergencies when making decisions about the structure.

#### 2.4.3.2. Choice change approach

Burnes (1996) opposes the contingency approach by stating that the organization does not necessarily have to adapt to the external environment, advocating for a “choice” approach by asserting that managers of organizations who are desirous to maintain or promote a particular managerial style may have an advantage in the significant degree of choice and influence over the structure and the situational variables.

By adopting a choice approach, organizations will have the ability to choose to influence their situations. Then managers will not be captives for organizational contingencies when making their decisions about the structure, and instead of the organization having few options, and instead of forcing organizations to change their internal practices to accommodate external variables, organizations can then exercise some options regarding these problems and dilemmas. Even if choice change approach is called organizational selection, strategic choice, or design space, senior managers can exercise a high degree of freedom in choice and influence the environment in which they work, the technology used, and even the size of the organization (Ibid).

Perrow (1983), in Burnes (1996), went further asserting that technology is chosen and designed to maintain and strengthen existing organization's structures and power relations within the organization rather than the other way around.

After reviewing the two main models of change – the planned and emergent - approaches then discussing the merits of adopting a contingency model of change, Burnes (1996) argued that all of these approaches tend to argue that their approach is the "one best way" for all organizations to manage change and that the contingency model only seeks to replace one set of prescriptions with another without offering a real choice. Burnes (1996) concluded by calling for a recognition that organizations do have real choices in what to change and how they change it, and that instead of the idea that there can be a "one best way," organizations may seek to replace prescription with choice.

## 2.5. Change Levels

Just as the introduction of change into the organization may be in a variety of ways or different shapes and components such as - implementing new technologies, employing new people, or setting new organizational structures, policies, or procedures; change also comes in various degrees (O'Hara, Watson, & Kavan, 1999).

Change management may be distinguished into different levels. Whelan-berry, Gordon, & Hinings (2003) and Whelan-Berry & Somerville (2010) consider three levels: organizational- level change management, group-level or team-level change management and individual-level change management.

Organizational change initiatives typically involve implementing and adopting change initiatives at the group-level, across locations, departments, or teams, and at the individual level change (Whelan-berry et al., 2003). Thus, the organizational-level change process essentially includes the group and the individual-level change processes (Ibid).

Major organizational change cannot be accomplished without adopting specific groups and individuals level changes such as adopting different work routines or processes and various models, frameworks, or values to guide their actions, so it is imperative to understand the group and the individual changes that occur as a component of organizational change processes (Whelan-berry et al., 2003). Miles (1997) asserted that the purpose of organizational transformation initiatives is to spread the change throughout the organization and have the change cascade from the organizational level to the group and then to the individual level.

From other perspective Petrochenkov (2019) and (Prosci, 2000a) distinguish between individual change management level, organizational/ initiative change management level and enterprise change management and level.

### 2.5.1. Individual Change Management Level

Individual change management depends on psychology and neuroscience disciplines to apply actionable frameworks to individual change (Prosci, 2000a). Organizational change management concerns first identifying the groups and people who will need to change due to the change project and how they will need to change (Petrochenkov, 2019).

While organizational change takes place across multiple levels, at some point, the majority - if not all - of organizational change initiatives inherently involve change at the individual level; that is, a change occurs in the employees' behaviors, values, or frameworks and underlie and shape their work for the organization (Whelan-Berry & Somerville, 2010).

Individual change management requires the understanding of how people experience change, what they need to change successfully, and knowing what will help people secure a successful transition: what messages do people need to hear when and from whom, when the optimal time to teach someone a new skill is, how to coach people to demonstrate new behaviors, and what makes changes "stick" in someone's work (Prosci, 2000b).

After studying how individuals experience and are influenced in times of change, Prosci developed a goal-oriented change management model "ADKAR Model" for individual change; ADKAR Model presents five tangible and concrete outcomes that people need to achieve for lasting change (Prosci, 2000b):

- Awareness of the need for change.
- Desire to support the change.
- Knowledge of how to change.
- Ability to demonstrate skills and behaviors.
- Reinforcement: to make the change stick.

Whelan-berry et al. (2003) commented that although Lewin describes his three-stages model of change as a systems model, it is now viewed as a model of individual change, and according to similar three-stage models of change developed by other researchers[31], changes occur at the individual level but are greatly influenced by organizational culture and norms.

Even though Management literature has described different aspects of change at the individual level such as "the cognitive shift that occurs in the second-order or radical change (Bartunek, 1984), the relationship between personality characteristics and their change (Iowa, Thoresen, Pucik, & Theresa, 1999), the cognitive and emotional aspects of individual change (George & Jones, 2001), and the effect of individual reactions to change at the individual and group level (Hunter, MacDuffie, & Doucet, 2002)" (Whelan-berry et al., 2003:190). The literature has not

31 For a summary, see Kanter et al. (1992).

fully specified how does the process of individual change takes place (Whelan-berry et al., 2003).

While change happens at the individual level, it is often impossible for a project team to manage change on a person-by-person basis (Petrochenkov, 2019).

### 2.5.2. Organizational / Initiative (project) Change Management Level

Organizational change is a nonlinear, complex process (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Coghlan, 2000; Doyle, Claydon, & Buchanan, 2000). It is often impossible for a project team to manage change on a person-by-person basis while change is occurring at the individual level, organizational change management or initiative determines actions and steps to be taken at the project level to support hundreds or thousands of individuals who will affected by the change project (Prosci, 2000a).

The principal focus of the organizational change management's activities should be driving successful individual transitions, at the beginning organizational change management includes identifying the people and groups who will be subject to change as a result of the project, and how they will need to change, followed by creating a customized plan to ensure that influenced individuals get the awareness, leadership, training and coaching they lack in order to successfully change (Prosci, 2000a). Organizational change management is a complementary part of managing a project, while project management ensures the design, development, and delivery of your project solution, change management ensures that your project solution is embraced, adopted and used effectively (Ibid).

Typically, organizational change initiatives require the adoption and implementation of change initiatives across locations, divisions, departments, or teams "group-level" change, as well as at the individual level change. Thus, the organizational-level change process inherently involves the group and the individual change processes.

Whelan-berry et al. (2003) argued, that significant organizational change cannot happen without particular individuals and groups changing, that is, without individual employees, and groups adopting different work routines or processes and different models, frameworks, or values to guide their actions. Therefore, it is crucial to understand the individual, and the group change processes that occur as part of organizational change processes[32].

### 2.5.3. Enterprise Change Management Level

An enterprise capability to manage organizational change means to embed the effective change management in the organization's structures, roles, projects, processes, and leadership competencies (Prosci, 2000a). This capability is considered one of the core competencies that provide competitive differentiation and the ability to adapt to an ever-changing world effectively (Petrochenkov, 2019; Prosci, 2000a).

Inukshuk ECM Institute (2016) defined Enterprise Change Management as "a permanent and comprehensive organizational design platform that improves business performance by enabling strategic execution of change management across an enterprise with quantifiable results".

Change management processes are applied effectively and consistently to initiatives, as leaders possess the required skills to guide their teams through change, and the employees know what they must demand to be successful (Prosci, 2000a).

Inukshuk ECM Institute (2016) claimed that the definition of change management that focuses on moving people from the current state to the desired future state using tools, methods, methodologies, and models, applies to both levels of change management, whether it is at the project management level (organization or initiative level) or the enterprise level.

32 Katz & Kahn (1978) commented on the role of the group in organizational change, stating that a change in one part of the system will thus lead to change in the whole system. Whelan-berry et al. (2003) added that for an organization, this means that any change affecting the department, team, or group can affect the rest of the organization. The remarked that groups can be a source of pressure to conform to changes or to acquire new knowledge and that depends on the nature of the specific group, and in particular, the degree of interconnectedness between group members, groups can also inspire change at the individual level by increasing individual's learning and commitment to what he learned.

In this case, adds Inukshuk ECM Institute (2016), what both levels have in common is that they both have a beginning (present state) and an end (future desirable state), and will use a variety of tools, methodologies, and approaches along the way, and what sets them apart from each other is that the project ends as soon as the project outputs are completed, unlike the enterprise-level change that is concerned with the change in the sense that it is a continuous, pervasive and imperative case that improves business performance by enabling the strategic implementation of change management across the organization.

The ultimate result of enterprise change management capability is that individuals embrace change faster and more effectively, then the organizations can respond to market changes, embrace strategic initiatives, and adopt new technology more quickly with less impact on productivity. It requires a strategic approach to embed change management across an organization (Prosci, 2000a).

## 2.6. Failure and success of Organizational Change

### 2.6.1. Reasons for planned efforts to fail

The literature examining organizational change management provides compelling evidence of difficulty in implementing change.

The change process performs within a series of phases, and in this process, organizations collide with various types of obstacles and barriers, critical mistakes in any of the phases can have a destructive impact, slowing momentum and nullifying hard-won gains (Kotter, 1995).

High levels of failure to implement organizational change initiatives in achieving their ultimate goals are the dominant feature of organizational change processes.

Since Greiner (1967) estimated failure rates in change initiatives and projects at 73%, this rate has not improved despite studies, standards, approaches, and ideas to finding the best ways and practices to promote the success of organizational change. In a review of the literature on change, Burnes (2009) found that the importance of change had increased dramatically.

Literature on organizational change for instance, Bernard Burnes & Jackson (2011); Kanter et al. (1992); Kotter (1996) reveals that one of the most remarkable aspects of organizational change efforts is their low success rate. Several studies claimed that approximately 70% of organizational change initiatives failed to produce the intended outcomes (Beer & Nohria, 2000; Burnes & Jackson, 2011). Beer & Nohria (2000), and Meaney & Pung (2008) asserted that drawing on recent statistics, only one-third of organizational change efforts were judged successful by their leaders.

Other studies have reported that the failure rate is very high, and that there is substantial evidence that some 70% - 80% or higher of all change initiatives fail (Beer & Nohria, 2000; Stickland, 1998; Styhre, 2002). A global survey conducted by McKinsey & Company (2008) found that, the rate of successful change has decreased considerably, and that about two-thirds of all change initiatives had failed. Meaney & Pung (2008) came to similar conclusions.

Empirical findings from Burnes (2009); Senturia, Flees & Maceda (2008); Smith (2002); Tarokh, Sharifi & Nazem (2008) supported the claim that more organizational change initiatives have failed than have succeeded. Ptak & Schragenheim (2000), as cited in Wong et al., (2005) estimated that the failure rates that are not delivering an appropriate return on investment (ROI) which were predetermined at the project approval stage range from 60 to 90. Although, they still assume that failure rates are very high, Candido & Santos (2008) defend that actual failure rates might be somewhat lower than stated because of the large amount of perception and estimation studies.

Although this failure rate seems to be surprisingly high or exaggerated, many survey results are corroborating this claim to such as Kanter et al. (1992), Kotter (1996), Smith (2002, 2003) or Burnes (2009). Thus, Burnes & Jackson (2011) say that organizations encounter a classic paradox that change is inevitable, but at the same time most change initiatives fail. Consequently, there have been attempts by researchers to identify obstacles that must be overcome in order to successfully implement organizational change programs and to assist organizations in better planning designs and strategies for organizational change (Mosadeghrad & Ansarian, 2014).

In their theory of structural inertia, Hannan & Freeman (1984) arranged a descending hierarchical list of four of the most fundamental structural change aspects. At the top, the mission is followed by the authority structure, then the technology, and finally, the marketing strategy. They believe that change in these core-structural elements is fraught with risks and increases in the rate of failure and death of organizations, whereas change affecting non-core aspects does not involve the same amount of risk, on the contrary, it may reduce the risk of failure or death of organizations.

Opinions varied about the high levels and reasons behind the failure of many change initiatives. Burnes (2004b) states that low success rates are due to the lack of a central theoretical framework on how to implement and manage change. Doyle (2002) argued that current theories and practices related to managing organizational change are governed by unchallenged assumptions about the nature of present organizational change management.

Vecchio & Appelbaum (1995) classified the specific factors that contribute most to the success and failure of organizational change efforts, as essentially environmental, structural, or management-oriented factors. Keller & Aiken (2009) stated that the poor success rate for managing organizational change is caused by two main factors, respectively, employee attitudes and managers' behavior.

To help organizations plan better organizational changes and strategies, and to enable the leaders of organizational change to develop effective strategies, researchers are striving to identify obstacles to get a better understanding of why such organizational change programs fail so frequently to overcome those obstacles in order to enhance the chances of achieving desired outcomes by implementing organizational change programs successfully.

Different authors have underlined different reasons for planned change efforts to fail (please, see Table 2.2).

**Table 2.2. Reasons for planned change efforts to fail**

| Author | Reasons for change to fail |
|---|---|
| Kotter (1995) | Kotter named eight reasons for planned change efforts to fail, these include:<br>1. Failure to establish adequate urgency to change.<br>2. Failure to create a sufficiently powerful guiding coalition.<br>3. Missing communicated vision.<br>4. Blocked communicated vision.<br>5. Under-communicated vision.<br>6. Failure to create short term wins.<br>7. Declaring victory too early.<br>8. Not to anchor the changes in the organization's culture. |
| Decker et al. (2012) | They summarized the critical failure factors (CFFs) into four categories[33]:<br>1. Process CFFs.<br>2. Organizational CFFs.<br>3. People CFFs.<br>4. Communication culture CFFs. |
| Mosadeghrad & Ansarian (2014) | The ten most frequently mentioned factors that inhibit the successful implementation of organizational change in descending order, according to the number of times they were mentioned in the literature:<br>1. Insufficient education and training.<br>2. Insufficient employees' involvement.<br>3. Insufficient support from top management.<br>4. Weak management and leadership.<br>5. Lack of an appropriate organizational culture.<br>6. Insufficient resources.<br>7. Ineffective and poor communication.<br>8. Lack of a plan for change.<br>9. Lack of customer focus.<br>10. Weak monitoring and measurement system. |

**Source: author's own elaboration.**

In reviewing the most notable obstacles and factors that lead to the failure of the implementation of planned change initiatives, the focus in the literature is on the factors and influences emanating from the internal environment of the organization. Decker et al. (2012) said that he did not take into account the effects of the external events which, in their view, could have a more significant impact than other "internal"

33 Decker et al. (2012) have developed a classification at least 60 internal critical failure factors (CFF). Then they summarized and grouped the CFFs they drew into four categories. Failure of implementation was defined either as a new strategy or project formulated and not implemented or has been implemented but with poor results.

(CFFs) considered in their study and that the impact of external events is a significant additional variable that must be studied.

Kotter hypothesized these impediments based on the eight-stage model he introduced for the success of change that has been identified as one of the most well-known approaches to organizational transformation and as a vision of the process of change (Mento, Jones, & Dirndorfer, 2002), the most compelling formula for success in change management (Phelan, 2005) and the mainstream wisdom for managing change (Nitta, Wrobel, Howard, & Jimmerson-Eddings, 2009).

Mosadeghrad & Ansarian (2014) found after they classified the 55 barriers that prevented the success of the change program into five categories and arranged them in descending order according to the number of times mentioned in the literature:

1. Human resource barriers were the most frequent among the other categories in analyzed studies among all groups.
2. Strategic barriers.
3. Contextual barriers.
4. Procedural barriers.
5. Structural barriers.

### 2.6.2. Human Resource barriers and change management

Researchers have noted the relevance of human resource barriers to organizational change. Those obstacles that are related to the human resource factor "human resource barriers" are such as inadequate human resource management practices, staff shortage, employee resistance to the change, etc. and were the most frequently mentioned reason for failure of change management among other categories (Mosadeghrad & Ansarian, 2014). Some of the human resource barriers are included in the Table (2.3).

**Table 2.3. Human resource barriers to organizational change**

| Author | Human resource barriers to organizational change |
|---|---|
| Mosadeghrad & Ansarian (2014) | Lack of employee involvement and participation. |
| | Lack of employee commitment. |
| | Lack of employee motivation and satisfaction. |
| | Lack of employee interest. |
| | High employee turnover. |
| | Employees' resistance to change. |
| | Low employee education level. |
| | Employee shortage, increased workload. |
| | Lack of training and education. |
| | Incompetent employees. |
| | Inadequate empowerment at all levels. |
| | Lack of recognition and reward for success. |
| | Fear of losing job. |
| | Lack of union cooperation. |

**Source:** elaborated from Mosadeghrad & Ansarian, (2014:194)

Kotter (1995), and Spiker & Lesser (1995) declared that inadequately addressing people-related issues, was one of the most frequently cited reasons in organizational change literature for failing to implement change initiatives. Nguyen & Kleiner (2003) determined that since a high percentage of organizational change efforts result in failing to achieve their ultimate goals, the focus on how employees think, feel, and act during these transformative times must add beneficial insights to employers. Although it is understood that people are the primary factor in bringing about change, Linstone & Mitroff (1994) believe that people represent the most challenging, and difficult element to deal with. Wellins & Rick (1995) as cited in Chu (2003) made a similar observation that many organizational change initiatives failed because the concentration was on purposes rather than people who make them work. Tudor (2014) emphasizes the consensus of experts that the most important aspect of managing organizational change, which can lead to project success or failure, is the human resources of the organization. Tudor explained this claim by saying that any approach ignores the human aspects are more likely to fail.

Thus, HRM practices can enhance success in implementing organizational change initiatives, by dealing with employees utilizing practices that are strictly related to change success, especially from the point view of employees, which may raise their commitment to the process of change and thus to enhancing success rates in implementing these strategies and achieving their goals. Particularly, HRM practices could a play a key role in promoting readiness to change.

Researchers generally agree that employee resistance is one of the main reasons change initiatives fail (Edmonds, 2011; Ford, Ford, & D'Amelio, 2008; Kotter, 1995; Lines, Sullivan, Smithwick, & Mischung, 2015; Waldersee & Griffiths, 1996). In order for change initiatives to be successfully implemented, those responsible for implementing change must understand that the role of employees is extremely important and employee reactions to change must be managed as an important part of the change project.

The early uses of the concept of resistance to change can be traced back to Lewin's (1947) three-stage model, which stipulated the existence of driving forces seeking either to bring about change or to resist it (Lines et al., 2015).

Resistance to change is a frequently covered topic in the change management literature (Cummings & Worley, 2004; Senior & Swailes, 2010). Garg & Singh (2006) believe that it is a truth that people do not like or favor change since the change disturbs the status quo, adds fear and problems into the daily lives, and demands changes in behavior, and that poorly managed organization results in a 'force' that slows down or even stops the change process.

In the literature of change more than one definition of resistance to change was presented according to different perspectives. For example, Zaltman & Duncan (1977) defined resistance as individuals' attempts to maintain the status quo when pressure exists to change it. Whereas Ansoff (1988) describes resistance as a multifaceted phenomenon, which causes delays, additional cost and instability to the strategic change process.

Hultman (1998), as cited in (Hultman & Hultman (2018), defines resistance as a state of mind that reflects an unreceptiveness or unwillingness to change. Franklin & Aguenza (2016) defined resistance to change as the actions taken by individuals or groups that understand a change as a threat.

Because the change forces employees to change their daily routines, gain new knowledge, and face peaks in workload, this can lead the employees to resist additional changes, burnout, and turnover (Rush, Schoel, & Barnard, 1995).

Resistance to change is generally viewed as a "collateral damage" of change endeavors (Pieterse, Caniëls, & Homan, 2012), and may have many different appearances, ranging from foot-dragging, withdrawal, sabotaging materials, and whistleblowing (Carr & Brower, 2000), to strikes, working to rule, and symbolic sabotage (Fleming & Spicer, 2003). Menon & Prabhu (1996) added that resistance to change is expressed in behaviors that attempt to delay, discredit, or prevent the change's implementation; Hence, people try to defend themselves from the influences of change through complaints, staying absent, deliberate slowdown, and sabotage.

Cummings & Worley, (2009) categorized resistance to change along three dimensions:

1. **Technical Resistance**: results from the habit of focusing on following the established procedures and maintaining the status quo.
2. **Political Resistance**: Resistance arises when change threatens key stakeholders, such as senior executives.
3. **Cultural Resistance**: take the form of systems and procedures that reinforce the status quo and foster conformity with existing values, norms, and assumptions about how things should be done.

On the other hand, some HRM practices could promote readiness to change.

Individuals' readiness for organizational change is closely related to the concept of "unfreezing" phase proposed by Lewin (1947) (Cummings & Worley, 2014). Individual readiness for organizational change reflects the concept of unfreezing (Choi & Ruona, 2010) and is critical to successful change implementation Armenakis, Harris, & Mossholder (1993); Choi

& Ruona (2010); Holt, Armenakis, Feild & Harris (2007). Many of the causes of change failure were linked to “people” and their readiness to change.

### 2.7. The roles of employees in promoting Organizational Change: the importance of Readiness for change.

Change cannot be performed in an organization if the employees are unwilling to support and participate in change initiatives (Samal, Patra, & Chatterjee, 2019). ” First and foremost, change is initiated and carried out by individuals in organizations” (Porras & Robertson, 1992 as cited in George & Jones, 2001: 420), “Organizations change and operate only through their members”(George & Jones, 2001:420). This applies even to the most collective activities that occur in organizations, which is nothing but the result of some merging of the activities of individual members of the organization (George & Jones, 2001).

Successful change will persist over the long term only when individuals alter their on-the-job behaviors in appropriate ways (George & Jones, 2001; Porras & Robertson, 1992). Many change efforts fail because change leaders often underestimate the central role individuals play in the change process (Choi, 2011)[34].

The literature on organizational change has largely been dominated by a macro-system-oriented focus. Accordingly, many scholars have advocated a more person-centered approach to studying organizational change (Soumyaja & Bhattacharyya, 2015).

Researchers who adopted a micro-level perspective on organizational change have put the emphasis on the role of individuals in implementing changes (Armenakis, Harris, & Mossholder, 1993; George & Jones, 2001; Greenhalgh, et al., 2004; Hall & Hord, 1987; Porras & Robertson, 1992). The main idea behind this perspective lies in considering the change in

34 Supporting the idea, Choi & Ruona, (2011) claimed that some researchers (Greenhalgh, Robert, Macfarlane, Bate, & Kyriakidou, 2004; Hall & Hord, 1987; Isabella, 1990; Löwstedt, 1993) have empirically demonstrated that individuals are actors who actively explain and respond to what is happening in their environments and that they are not just passive recipients of organizational change.

the individual organizational member's behavior as the core of organizational change (Porras & Robertson, 1992).

At the employee level and during change's implementations, individuals may develop positive or negative attitudes[35], beliefs, and intentions towards the organizational change implementation (Shah, Irani, & Sharif, 2017). Individuals develop feelings about change processes by making assumptions about the processes, evaluating them trying to find meanings (Choi & Ruona, 2011). Individuals make assumptions about the process of change in an effort to understand the new environment and draw conclusions about its possible outcomes (Ford, Ford, & Amelio, 2008; Gioia, Thomas, Clark, & Chittipeddi, 1994). Similarly, Rogers, (1983, 2003), Hall & Hord, (1987) concluded that, when people are faced with a change, they develop varying intensity concerns or make decisions concerning its adoption at different points in the change process across change stages.

Individuals' attitudes towards organizational change implementation affect their day-to-day job performance and determine how successful and effective it is (Zakaria & Abdullah, 2018). Cunningham et al., (2002); Jones, Jimmieson, & Griffith, (2005); Meyer, Srinivas, Lal, & Topolnytsky, (2007) and Weeks, Roberts, Chonko, & Jones, (2004) have also concluded that individuals' attitudes toward change initiatives influence their behavioral support for change processes.

In this line, prior research has shown that individuals' attitudes toward organizational change significantly impact change implementation and, therefore, are critical for any change initiatives to be successful (Choi & Ruona, 2011). Jones et al., (2005) revealed that when individuals demonstrate a higher level of readiness in the early stage of change implementation, they'll be more likely to change their behaviors to support the change initiative in the post-implementation phase, and the successful implementation of organizational change and performance are determined by the willingness to adopt change (Zakaria & Abdullah, 2018). If employees are not ready for change, this it cannot occur. Organizational change cannot be implemented effectively without change recipients'

35 Attitude refers to how favorably or unfavorably or how positively or negatively in general one views some object of judgment (Petty & Wegener, 1998). Attitudes toward organizational change can be defined as the individual's overall favorable or unfavorable - positive or negative- judgment regarding the implemented organizational change initiative (Lines, 2005).

willingness to change and support the proposed organizational change initiative (Vakola, 2013) .

According to the scholars, ignoring the essential role the individuals play in the change process and failing to pay adequate attention to individual readiness for change (IRFC) creates difficulties that lead to deficiencies and failure to implement many change initiatives such as knowledge management (Rusly, Corner, & Sun, 2012), total quality management (Meirovich Gavriel, Galante, & Kanat-Maymon., 2006), and management information systems (Jones et al., 2005). Therefore, members of organizations can be the means of achieving success in implementing the change or a barrier to its success (Swaffin-smith, Barnes, & Townsend, 2002).

Wittig (2012:27) points out three closely related factors influencing employees' reactions "acceptance of or resistance" during change processes; and explaining much of employees' reactions, more than other factors arise during organizational change:

1. Employees' emotions and awareness.
2. Communication.
3. Employee participation in the decision-making process.

Therefore, it is necessary to shift attention toward a more comprehensive change system and to present a more correct and comprehensive vision to include employees' attitudes towards change and not be limited to the term resistance to change because these attitudes may contain rich information regarding the implementation of change and the fostering of positive attitudes such as readiness for change can enhance the success of organizational change initiatives.

Armenakis, Harris, & Feild (1999) assumed that the "creation of readiness" process is a proactive and positive alternative to the organizational change's traditional views where "reducing resistance" was the primary focus. Vakola (2014) supports this idea by stating that an individual who is ready for change exhibits a proactive and positive attitude towards change, that can be translated into willingness to support change and confidence in success in change. Vakola adds that preparation for action and support usually depends on whether the perceived benefits of change outweigh the expected risks as everyone perceives the importance of change differently. Individuals who perceive that a workplace change affects them more directly, experience more stress, and consequently may develop negative attitudes toward change (Ashford, 1988).

## 2.8. Understanding the readiness for change concept

Holt, Armenakis, Feild, & Harris (2007), Armenakis & Harris (2002) and Armenakis et al. (1993) identified the process of implementing change successfully in three stages, namely:

1. Readiness to change.
2. Adoption of the change.
3. Change institutionalization.

Therefore, understanding employee readiness to change could help as a guide to organizational managers while they approach changes and determine the best mode of implementing these changes ( Soumyaja et al., 2015)

In times of change, employees are engaged in information seeking, meaning ascription, and assumption making, trying to understand the new environment and draw conclusions about its possible consequences (Ford et al., 2008; Gioia et al., 1994). They begin in developing expectations, assumptions, and impressions regarding: 1) the need for organizational change, 2) the extent to which these changes are likely to have positive repercussions on them as individuals and on the entire organization, these expectations, assumptions, and impressions constitutes individual readiness in the context of organizational change are (Choi, 2011).

The research of individual readiness for change has primarily emerged in the past decade in the Human Resource Development (HRD) and management ( Madsen, Miller, & John, 2005).

Choi (2011) and Madsen et al. (2005) claimed that the term readiness for change is originally attributed to studies that have been published on individual readiness in the health , psychology, and medicine literature (e.g., Block & Keller, 1998; Joe, Simpson, & Broome, 1998; Morera et al., 1998; Prochaska, Redding, & Evers, 1997). These studies usually focus on issues related to physical and psychological health, such as quitting harmful health behaviors like smoking and drug use, and initiating positive behaviors like exercise, weight control and eating nutritional meals (S. Madsen et al., 2005).

Whereas Walinga, (2008) went further by asserting that readiness is rooted in the early research on organizational change dating back to Schein & Bennis, (1965). In this context the term readiness is related to the extent to which the individual believes that change at the individual level is needed and whether he or she has the capacity to change(Choi & Ruona, 2010) (Choi, 2011).

### 2.8.1. Definition of readiness for change

There is little agreement in defining and conceptualizing the term readiness for change due to its abstract nature, which has resulted in multiple definitions (Fowler, 1998; Walinga, 2008;. Weiner, Amick, & Lee, 2008). The literature on readiness for change indicates a sort of "conceptual confusion " as many researchers disagree about defining and measuring the concept. This "conceptual confusion " is shown by the number of terms that are employed to capture the construct, including, openness, attitudes toward change, re˜ceptivity, commitment (Stevens, 2013).

Researchers have also described various forms of readiness with some overlap in meaning (Kabukye, Keizer, & Cornet, 2020), including a) core readiness (need, motivational). b) technological readiness (infrastructural). c) societal readiness. d) engagement readiness, and 5) learning readiness.[36] Besides, little empirical research has concentrated on this construct to understand better its impact on successful organizational change (Rusly et al., 2012).

Scholars have defined individual readiness for organizational change in slightly different ways (Choi, 2011). Rafferty, Jimmieson, & Armenakis (2013) claimed that the most commonly cited study about readiness for change was presented by Armenakis et al. (1993).

Armenakis et al. (1993: 681- 683) stated that "Readiness is similar to Lewin's (1951) concept of unfreezing. It is reflected in organizational members' beliefs, attitudes, and intentions regarding the extent to which changes are needed and the organization's capacity to successfully make

36 The relative importance of each of these forms of readiness varies depending on the organizational contexts (Afrizal et al., 2019; Kabukye et al., 2020; Khoja et al., 2007).

those changes." They added that it is a "cognitive precursor to the behavior of either resistance to, or support for, a change effort." Readiness is "a mindset that exists among employees during the implementation of organizational changes". Armenakis & Fredenberger, (1997: 144) added that it comprises beliefs, attitudes, and intentions of change targeted members concerning the need for and capability of implementing organizational change.

Moreover, the readiness to change reflects the extent of the cognitive and emotional tendency of individuals to accept and adopt a specific plan to purposefully change the status quo and move forward (Wang, Olivier, & Chen, 2020). Rafferty et al. (2013) affirmed that although a range of other definitions have been developed, it is clear that the later definitions of readiness for change were largely drawn from the original work of Armenakis et al. (1993). Table 2.4 contain relevant definitions of readiness for change.

**Table 2.4. Definitions of Readiness for change**

| Source | Definition |
|---|---|
| **Armenakis et al. (1993: 681- 683)** | "Readiness, which is similar to Lewin's (1951) concept of unfreezing, is reflected in organizational members' beliefs, attitudes, and intentions regarding the extent to which changes are needed and the organization's capacity to successfully make those changes." It is "cognitive precursor to the behavior of either resistance to, or support for, a change effort." Readiness is "a mindset that exists among employees during the implementation of organizational changes.". |
| **Backer (1995: 22-24)** | "Individual readiness for change is involved with people's beliefs, attitudes, and intentions regarding the extent to which changes are needed and their perception of individual and organizational capacity to successfully make those changes. Readiness is a state of mind about the need. It is the cognitive precursor to behaviors of either resistance or support."[37] |

37 Readiness for change is not a fixed element of individuals or systems. It may vary due to changing external or internal circumstance, the type of change being introduced, or the characteristics of potential adopters and change agents. Thus, interventions to enhance readiness are possible. Change can occur under conditions of low readiness, of course, but behavioral science research indicates that the probability of success is reduced when low readiness leads to low motivation to change or to active resistance explained Backer (24-1995:22).

| Source | Definition |
|---|---|
| **Armenakis & Fredenberger, (1997: 144)** | "It comprises beliefs, attitudes and intentions of change target members regarding the need for and capability of implementing organizational change". |
| **Eby et al. (2000: 422)** | "An individual's perception of the extent to which the organization is perceived to be ready to take on large-scale change. Individual readiness for organizational change is about the belief that the changes are "both necessary and likely to be successful". |
| **Eby et al. (2000: 422)** | "Readiness refers to "an individual's perception of a specific facet of his or her work environment-the extent to which the organization is perceived to be ready for change". |
| **Cunningham et al. (2002: 377)** | "Readiness involves "a demonstrable need for change, a sense of one's ability to successfully accomplish change (self-efficacy) and an opportunity to participate in the change process". |
| **Bernerth, (2004: 40)** | "Readiness is more than understanding the change, readiness is more than believing in the change, readiness is a collection of thoughts and intentions toward the specific change effort". |
| **Jones et al., (2005: 326)** | "The notion of readiness for change can be defined as the extent to which employees hold positive views about the need for organizational change (i.e., change acceptance), as well as the extent to which employees believe that such changes are likely to have positive implications for themselves and the wider organization" |
| **Holt et al. (2007:235)** | "Readiness for change is "the extent to which an individual or individuals are cognitively and emotionally inclined to accept, embrace, and adopt a particular plan to purposefully alter the status quo". |
| **Holt et al. (2007:242)** | "Readiness for change is a multidimensional construct influenced by beliefs among employees that (a) they are capable of implementing a proposed change (i.e., change-specific efficacy), (b) the proposed change is appropriate for the organization (i.e., appropriateness), (c) the leaders are committed to the proposed change (i.e., management support), and ((d) the proposed change is beneficial to organizational members (i.e., personal valence)". |
| **Weiner (2009: 68)** | "Organizational readiness for change refers to organizational members' change commitment and self-efficacy to implement organizational change". |
| **Wang et al. (2020:6)** | "Individual Readiness for change implies" A state of being both psychological and behaviorally prepared to take action (i.e., willing, and able), including organizational members' change commitment and change efficacy to implement organizational change.". |

**Source:** author's own elaboration

In an extensive review of the readiness for change literature, Weiner et al. (2008) found that there were two broad approaches to how authors describe readiness:

- In the first approach, researchers described readiness in psychological terms by emphasizing the attitudes, beliefs, and intentions of the organization's members. Those researchers equalized readiness with the preparation stage. This approach assumes that behavior change occurs in five stages: pre-contemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, and maintenance.
- In the second approach, readiness was described in structural terms. Researchers taking the structural approach crafted their own unique conceptions of readiness: they emphasized organizational capabilities and resources mentioned as readiness indicators.

From other perspective, Holt et al. (2007) identified four facets of readiness for change including:

1. The change process: the steps and strategies followed during the implementation of the change.
2. The content change: the specific initiative that is being implemented.
3. Organizational context including the conditions and environment under which staff work, for example, dynamic, learning organizational culture, financial and human resource capacity.
4. Attributes of individuals affected by change, for example, their skills, biases and preconceptions.

In addition, Bouckenooghe, Devos, & Broeck (2009) defined three elements that together compose readiness for change:

1. An emotional element, which refers to how individuals feel about the change being introduced.
2. A cognitive element: the beliefs and thoughts people believe about the change outcomes.
3. An intentional element: refers to the efforts and energy organizational members are willing to strive in the change process.

### 2.8.2. Levels of Readiness for Change

The concept of readiness is interesting because employees' reactions to change play an important role in every organizational change (Jean M Bartunek, Rousseau, Rudolph, & Depalma, 2006; Oreg, Vakola, & Armenakis, 2011). Readiness for the change is created and enhanced through nurturing individuals' willingness and ability to move into a new state arising from the change event (Rusly et al., 2012).

Although organizational readiness is widely used in the change literature, some researchers didn't not take into account the various levels of readiness for change (Samal et al., 2019). However, a multi-level approach is necessary to understand the different levels of readiness for change within an organization that occurs at the organizational, group, and individual levels.

The literature indicates that readiness for change occurs at least two levels: the individual and the organizational levels (Walinga, 2008). Other authors note that readiness is a "multi-level, multi-faceted construct" it can be present at the individual, group, unit, department, or organizational levels ( Weiner, 2009). For any change program, it is importance of differentiate between three levels of readiness for change (Vakola, 2013):

1. Individual readiness (Micro level).
2. Group readiness for change (Meso level).
3. Organizational readiness for change (Macro-level).

#### 2.8.2.1. Individual-Level readiness for change (Micro-level)

The micro-level perspective on change focuses on individual readiness for change, which implies a state of being prepared both psychologically and behaviorally to take action (i.e., willing and able), including individuals' change commitment and also change efficacy to implement organizational change (Wang et al., 2020;. Weiner, 2009).

Changes in the internal or external organizational environment require a response that usually involves organizational change, which triggers the need for individual change (Walinga, 2008). Change processes encompass three phases: a) preparation for change, b) adoption of change and c) institutionalization of change (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Lewin, 1947). Readiness for change must be created from the beginning preparation phase in order to enhance employees' acceptance of change (Rusly et al., 2012). Individual readiness for change precedes change implementation, it includes the process by which members of the organization's beliefs and attitudes about change are changed.

Holt et al. (2007) determined that individual readiness for change consists of four dimensions:

1. *Accuracy*: The extent to which individuals feel that change is desirable by the organization and that the change will benefit the organization.
2. *Management support*: the extent to which individuals in the organization feel that the senior leaders support the current changes.
3. *Change efficacy*: the extent of individuals' confidence in their ability to perform an excellent and successful job.
4. *Personal rewards*: a measure of whether the performed changes can benefit these individuals.

Because on the individual level personal beliefs and behaviors play a crucial role in organizational change, this requires an understanding of the cognitive and emotional processes that occur during the change (Moffett, McAdam, & Parkinson, 2002; Walinga, 2008). Describing the individual as ready for change means that the individual's display of a proactive and positive attitude makes him confident in the success of the change initiative and ready to support this initiative. Moreover, both the resistance and the positive or negative attitudes towards change are considered as a variable that results from the individual's high or low readiness for change (Vakola, 2013). On a micro level, readiness can be identified and improved by change agent selection processes, employee training and development programs, and performance evaluations, to name a few (Ibid).

Individuals are ready for change when they understand, believe, and intend to change due to perceived need, and they have confidence in the organization's support for change and in the ability of the individual and group to make the change successful. Hence, individual readiness revolves around the individual's belief that change is necessary and that the individual possesses the ability to change. Individual readiness for change is one of the most significant factors involved in the employees' fundamental support for change initiatives (Armenakis et al., 1999, 1993).

Prior research has paid attention to the role of individual readiness for change to promote organizational change, also examining enabling factors of readiness for change. By (2007) confirmed the relationship between the level of individual readiness for change and the successful management of change. Armenakis et al. (1993) considered that the low level of readiness for change among individuals is the main reason for the failure that organizations face in successfully implementing change. Kirrane, Lennon, Connor, & Fu (2017) claimed that employees 'perception and level of readiness for change is one of the most important reasons for employees' resistance to change.

Researchers also argue that individual readiness for change (i.e. attitude towards change) has a significant positive impact on the successful implementation of organizational change (Haffar, Al-karaghouli, & Ghoneim, 2014). Moreover, overlooking the essential role of individuals in the change process, produce a failure or difficulties in implementing change initiatives (Armenakis et al., 1993; Clegg & Walsh, 2004; Holt et al., 2007; Jones et al., 2005; Sikh, 2011; Weeks, Helms, & Ettkin, 1995).

Afrizal et al. (2019) in their literature review on the critical success aspects related to readiness in implementing new systems in the health care sector, they classified the enabling factors of individual readiness into two major categories:

1. *Individual psychological factors*: consist of elements which may reflect individual beliefs regarding a change to new technology, identifying problems, and the level of agreement with the implemented changes.
2. *Individual structural fact*ors: Structural factors are related to an individual's ability to adapt to new technology.

Oreg, Vakola, & Armenakis (2011) asserted that dispositional traits, such as openness to change, positive affectivity, self-efficacy, self-esteem, and locus of control, were observed to function as antecedents of readiness for change in the context of organizational change.

#### 2.8.2.2. Group-Level readiness for change (Meso level)

Group readiness to change is based-on the collective perceptions and beliefs of the members that: change is needed, the organization has the ability to cope with change effectively, the perceived group benefits from change outcomes, and that the group has the ability to cope with requirements of change (Peterson & Baker, 2015; Vakola, 2013).

Change management literature offers many insights to overwhelm group resistance and prepare teams for accepting organizational change, such as getting teams' members directly involved in understanding the need for change, understanding their own situation, involving teams' members in the process of decision-making, and creating ownership of the design and implementation phase (Cummings, 2004).

At the group level " meso level", for a high readiness, change interventions could create and promote favorable group norms through in-group identification to facilitate change implementation (Vakola, 2013), change interventions should focus on creating and maintaining a positive effect among group members when adopting organizational change initiatives (Samal et al., 2019).

#### 2.8.2.3. Organization-Level readiness for change (Macro-level)

At the organizational level, readiness to change refers to the existing structure, systems, process, culture, and leadership commitment that may foster or disrupts change initiatives (Samal et al., 2019). At this level, changes have often been recognized with a macro, systems-oriented focus (Choi & Ruona, 2011; Wang et al., 2020). Readiness for change from an institutional perspective was defined as a comprehensive attitude that is influenced by the content (what), process (how), context (where), and the individuals involved (who) ( Holt et al., 2007).

Organizational readiness for change is a shared psychological state in which individuals feel committed and confident in their collective abilities to implementing an organizational change; the commitment of individuals is affected by their attitudes toward changes (Wang et al., 2020).

Afrizal et al. (2019) classified the enabling factors of organizational readiness into two major categories:

1. *Organizational psycholo*gical: The psychological aspect is associated with organizational members' beliefs regarding their commitment and efficacy.
2. *Organizational structural factors*: the structural aspect is associated with policies, human and material resources, and communication networks.

At the organization level or "macro level", readiness should be incorporated into the strategic plan to enable the organizations to earn flexibility and adaptability, furthermore, an environment of trust is essential to be built to formulate positive attitudes toward organizational change (Vakola, 2013). Organizational readiness for change, in addition to being multi-level, is multifaceted and refers explicitly to organizational members' change commitment and efficacy to implement organizational change (Weiner, 2009). This definition understands the term "readiness," as the psychological and behavioral readiness for taking action (i.e., desire and ability); it is also similar to the notion of change commitment that refers to organizational members' shared resolve to proceed with the actions involved in change implementation( ibid).

Although at a theoretical level these three levels are distinguished, in practice some researchers consider different levels of readiness for change when measuring the construct.

#### 2.8.3. Readiness for change and the unfreezing stage.

The term readiness is referred and based conceptually on the unfreezing phase (Armenakis et al., 1993; Backer, 1995; Eby, Adams, Russell, & Gaby, 2000). Schein (1979: 144) said that" the reason so many change efforts run into resistance or outright failure is usually directly traceable to their not providing for an effective unfreezing process before attempting a change induction". Unfreezing represents the first part of the change cycle in the Lewin's model (Backer, 1995). Choi & Ruona (2011) assert that, the unfreezing phase includes the process by which the organizational members' attitudes and beliefs about change are altered in a way that makes them perceive those changes are necessary and likely to be successful.

The foundation for readiness as a construct has been embedded within several theoretical models of the change process through which organizations and individuals move through these stages (Holt et al., 2007). For instance, in Lewin's three-stage model of change, there is a need to create readiness by 'unfreezing' existing mind-sets and creating motivation for change (Wang et al., 2020).

Wang, Olivier, & Chen (2020) claimed that many organizational change models confirm the importance of the unfreezing phase to create readiness for change through such stages as building momentum, warm-up or defrosting activities, or gaining buy-in to the change effort. Models presented by Armenakis et al. (1993); Choi & A Ruona (2011); Kotter (1996); Schein (1996). Similarly, Armenskis & Harris (2002) illustrated three organizational change phases: readiness, adoption, and institutionalization. In a similar vein, Fullan's (2007) model of the change process include the initiation, implementation, and institutionalization phases.

When Schein (1996) further explored Lewin's three-stage model, he viewed the unfreezing as a process of creating readiness to change and motivation through: a) disconfirmation of the validity of the status quo, b) the induction of anxiety about survival, c) creating psychological safety. Schein (1996) explained that employees would form their own attitudes regarding the change based on those tripartite processes that have been created. This means to get the change recipient to accept the information, feel the survival anxiety, and become motivated to change through creating a balance between the amount of threat produced by disconfirming data with sufficient psychological safety. Through those processes, organizational members' beliefs and attitudes about a change can be adjusted, until they perceive the changes as necessitated and expected to be successful (Armenakis et al., 1993). And in this consideration, individuals' attitudes toward a specific organizational change can be a measure to evaluate how successfully the unfreezing process has been achieved.

More recently, researchers have proposed several constructs that reflect the concept of unfreezing; These constructs are similar in that they all reflect an individual's overall positive or negative evaluative judgment of a specific change initiative, including the readiness for change, commitment to change, openness to change, and cynicism about organizational change (Choi & Ruona, 2013).

The readiness for change can thus be understood as an indication of how effectively the step unfreezing has been achieved. The failure to provide an effective unfreezing process prior to attempting to induce change is the direct reason why many change efforts face resistance or outright failure (Kotter, 1995,1996; Schein, 1979, 1987, 1999). Beer (1980) supports this idea by claiming that failure to analyze and feel issues of readiness can lead to an abortive OD process.

# 3. RESEARCH FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

## 3.1. Readiness for change Antecedents

Scholars interested in readiness for change discussed different factors and conditions that stimulate change readiness: from the contextual factors to individual characteristics of employees (Detert, Schroeder, & Mauriel, 2000; Johansson, Astrom, Kauffeldt, Helldin, & Carlstrom, 2014; Rafferty et al., 2013), and process factors (Bouckenooghe & Devos, 2007; Soumyaja, Kamalanabhan, & Bhattacharyya, 2018; Soumyaja et al., 2015).

Individual factors are the characteristics of those being asked to change. Structural factors are circumstances under which the change is occurring ( Holt & Vardaman, 2013).

From their point of view Bouckenooghe & Devos (2007); Soumyaja, Kamalanabhan, & Bhattacharyya (2018); Soumyaja et al. (2015), and Soumyaja & Bhattacharyya (2011), factors that affect readiness for change can fall into three categories :

***Contextual factors:*** the situational opportunities and constraints that influence the organizational behavior (Johns, 2006). The contexe tual elements affecting readiness for change comprise two sets of factors (Bouckenooghe & Devos, 2007): a) external context factors associated with conditions outside the organization and b) internal context factors:

elements that are situated at the organizational level, at the group, or work unit level (Burke & Litwin, 1992).

***Process Factors:*** The way how specific change is implemented (ex., support of top management and participation in decision making, quality of communications.

***Individual (Personality factors): or Individual differences*****:** the impact of the individual characteristics in coping with organizational change, such as locus of control, creative and practical intelligence as individual factors. Desplaces (2005) explained that individual perceptions to change (ex. perceived work setting regarding the change, perceived organizational support for change, self-efficacy regarding the change, perceived organizational membership readiness for change) are key determinates of individual readiness and behavior for change.

Rafferty et al. (2013) divides the antecedents of readiness for change into:

1. ***External organizational pressures***: such as industry changes. Technological change, governmental regulations modifications, professional group memberships. Rafferty added that there is a dearth of study of these factors and that the focus of the research is on the other two species.
2. ***Internal context enabler:*** such as change participation, communication processes, leadership processes.
3. ***Personal characteristics and group composition characteristics***: They consist of cognitive beliefs about change.

Researchers' interest in studying readiness for change as one of the foremost vital drivers for various organizational change initiatives' success is relatively recent compared to their prior interest which was concentrated on the resistance of organizational change. Researchers used to view resistance to change as the main reason for the failure of change initiatives to reach their ultimate goals. More recently, researchers' attention began to shift towards the employees' various positive attitudes, and in their forefront, a significant focus on readiness for change. Considerable practical and theoretical research has been conducted and implemented targeting readiness for change to search for the essential factors and drivers that could enhance and raise readiness for change, whether at the individual or organizational level.

Much of this research and studies focused on some factors such as organizational and individual commitment in general, or by addressing one of the three types of commitment such as affective, continuous or normative commitment, job satisfaction, organizational culture. Researchers also investigated employee perceptions regarding to aspects related to the context of change in the organization, such as the perceived organizational support for change, type of leadership, etc., (Table 3.1).

**Table 3.1 Antecedents of readiness for change**

| Antecedent | Authors |
|---|---|
| **Contextual factors** | |
| Organizational climate | (Douglas, Muturi, Douglas, & Ochieng, 2017; Motland, 2018) |
| Organizational culture and Organizational Culture Types | (Adil, 2014; Detert et al., 2000; Dhingra & Punia, 2016; Haffar et al., 2014; Hanpachern, Morgan, & Griego, 1998; Heracleous, 2001; Jones et al., 2005; Rafferty et al., 2013; Samal et al., 2019; Tsalits & Kismono, 2019; Vakola, 2013) |
| Organizational Structure | (Benzer, Charns, Hamdan, & Afable, 2017) |
| Decision latitude | (Cunningham et al., 2002) |
| History of change | (Bouckenooghe & Devos, 2007; Soumyaja et al., 2015) |
| Job knowledge and skills | (Hanpachern et al., 1998) |
| Job Satisfaction | (Claiborne, Auerbach, Lawrence, & Schudrich, 2013; McNabb & Sepic, 1995; Vakola, 2014) |
| Effective Job Performance | (McNabb & Sepic, 1995) |
| Management-leadership relationships | (Hanpachern et al., 1998) |
| Organizational Commitment, Employee Commitment | (Ahmad et al., 2017; Al-Abrrow & Abrishamkar, 2013; Kwahk, Lee., & Lee, 2008; Kwahk & Kim, 2008; Madsen et al., 2005; Nordin, 2011; Santhidran, Chandran, & Borromeo, 2013; Soumyaja et al., 2015) |
| Organizational Justice | (Arnéguy, Ohana, & Stinglhamber, 2018) |
| Organizational Learning | (Sanaei, 2014) |
| Participation at work | (Eby et al., 2000; Jones et al., 2005) |

| Antecedent | Authors |
|---|---|
| Participation in decision-making related to change project | (Armenakis et al., 1993; Armenakis et al., 2011; Bouckenooghe & Devos, 2007; Bouckenooghe, Devos, & Broeck, 2009; Fedor, Caldwell, & Herold, 2006; Holt & Vardaman, 2013; Motland, 2018; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006; Rafferty et al., 2013; Vakola, 2013) |
| Social relations in the workplace | (Hanpachern et al., 1998; R. A. Jones et al., 2005; S. Madsen et al., 2005) |
| Perceived work setting regarding change | (Desplaces, 2005) |
| Supervisor and Peer relations | (Sikh, 2011) |
| Risk taking reward orientation | (Bouckenooghe & Devos, 2007) |
| Trust in Leadership | (Bouckenooghe & Devos, 2007; Bouckenooghe et al., 2009) |
| **Process factors** | |
| Normative-reeducative change strategies | (Choi & A Ruona, 2011) |
| Communicating information about change, Communication quality | (Ahmad, Ismail, Rani, & Wahab, 2017; Armenakis et al., 2011; Bouckenooghe et al., 2009; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006; Rafferty et al., 2013; Whelan-berry et al., 2003) |
| Leadership, leadership behavior | (Al-Hussami et al., 2018; Beer, 1980; Gelaidan et al., 2018; Nordin, 2011; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006; Rafferty et al., 2013; Sanchez-burks & Huy, 2009; Todd , 1999)) |
| Policies supporting change | (Eby et al., 2000; McNabb & Sepic, 1995; Rafferty & Simons, 2006) |
| Perceived Organizational support, for change | (Al-Hussami, Hammad, & Alsoleihat, 2018; Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Arnéguy, Ohana, & Stinglhamber, 2018; Beer, 1980; Gigliotti et al., 2018; Holt et al., 2007; Holt & Vardaman, 2013; Kotter, 1996; Motland, 2018; Wulandari, Ginting, & Hasnida, 2020) |
| Support by supervisors and top management | (Bouckenooghe & Devos, 2007; Bouckenooghe et al., 2009) |
| Attitude by top management | (Bouckenooghe et al., 2009) |
| **Individual factors** | |
| Self-efficacy regarding change | (Cunningham et al., 2002; Desplaces, 2005; Kwahk et al., 2008; Rafferty & Simons, 2006) |
| Change support behavior | (Rafferty & Minbashian, 2018) |

| Antecedent | Authors |
|---|---|
| Employees' belief in the organizational ability to accommodate changing situations | (Eby et al., 2000; R. A. Jones et al., 2005) |
| Employee engagement | ( Mangundjaya, 2012; Wulandari et al., 2020) |
| Employees' positive perceptions of the company's Human resource Management Practices (Career development, compensations, and communications) | (Goksoy, 2014) |
| Emotional intelligence | (Gelaidan et al., 2018) |
| Individuals' beliefs about change | (Rafferty & Minbashian, 2018) |
| Individual's perceptions of the change benefits | (Prochaska et al., 1994) |
| Perceived organizational membership readiness for change | (Desplaces, 2005) |
| Creative behavior and | (Soumyaja et al., 2015) |
| Perceived personal competence | (Kwahk et al., 2008; wahk & Kim, 2008) |
| Locus of control | (Bouckenooghe & Devos, 2007) |

Source: author's own elaboration

However, researchers have pointed out that there are many important topics related to readiness for change antecedents that which have not been previously studied. In organizational change research, the focus has often been at the organizational level in a macro-level focus on systems (Iowa et al., 1999). Although some researchers also adopted a micro-level perspective on change and focused more on the role of individuals in implementing changes, this aspect still needs further research and exploration due to the importance of the central role that individuals play in the success of change initiatives.

Despite the consensus in the literature of organizational change management and HRM that one of the critical reasons for the failure of change initiatives, empirical studies had neglected the human element and the role that employees can play in the success of organizational change initiatives, empirical studies have largely ignored the impact of HRM practices, and particularly, High-Performance HRM practices on enhancing organizational change in general, and particularly, readiness for change.

Organizational changes involve and affect people and have significant implications for HRM and raise important issues for HR. With reference to the literature, many studies have been interested in the impact of organizational change on various aspects of HRM.

Researchers have focused on addressing these effects by focusing on either the environmental forces or studying the various organizational change processes and their implications on HR, and the impact of change on attitudes and behavior dimensions, such as commitment (e.g. Chen, Hou, & Fan, 2009; Elias, 2009; Gomes, 2009; Yousef, 2017), job satisfaction ( ex. Akhtar & Rong, 2015; Chen et al., 2009; Gomes, 2009; Gupta & Singla, 2016; Hayajneh et al., 2021; Rozanna, Adam, & Majid, 2019; Yousef, 2017), performance ( e.g. Chen et al., 2009; Greve, 1998; Kansal & Singh, 2016; Lewis, 1994; Rozanna et al., 2019), cynicism toward organizational change ( e.g. Albrecht, 2008; Cindy, Neubert, & Xiang, 2007), openness to change( e.g. Axtell et al., 2002), creativity ( ex. Chen et al., 2009), innovation (e.g. Hage, 1999), job involvement (e.g. Khalid, 2011; Morgan & Zeffane, 2003), employee stress ( e.g. Dahl, 2011; Hayajneh et al., 2021; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006), Turn over and intention to leave (e.g. Akhtar & Rong, 2015; Appelbaum et al., 2008; Babalola, Stouten, & Euwema, 2016; Bauer & Bender, 2004; Raza, Khan, & Mujtaba, 2018).

However, on the contrary, studies that examine how HRM practices affect the success of organizational change or readiness for change are still very scarce.

In addition, most of the studies considering antecedents of readiness for change, have been implemented in the context of developed countries in Europe and the United States of America, excluding middle east and Asian countries. A country like Jordan and the neighboring Arab countries that differ in their national culture from Western countries, as the majority of Jordanians embrace the Islamic religion and the society is dominated by tribal and clan character, it is very likely that the results of those studies conducted on individual readiness for change in the Jordanian context differ from those conducted in western societies and environments.

In addition, Tsalits & Kismono (2019), referring to Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, (2010), has claimed that the influence of organizational culture types on individuals' readiness to change varies according to the country in which the study was conducted due to differences in national cultural characteristics for each country. The influence of the national culture on the organizational culture is shown by the restrictions imposed on organizations by the external environment, mentality, and norms of the organization members (Abbasi et al., 2015). Hence, is also interesting to examine the role of organizational culture in the context of readiness for change and its antecedents.

This research analyzes the role of different potential antecedents of individuals' readiness for change, examining the impact of High-Performance HRM practices (HPHRM practices) on individual readiness for change. Besides, considering the direct effects of HPHRM practices on individual readiness for change, the proposed research model (Figure 3.1) considers employee commitment as mediating mechanism between HPHRM practices and individual readiness for change.

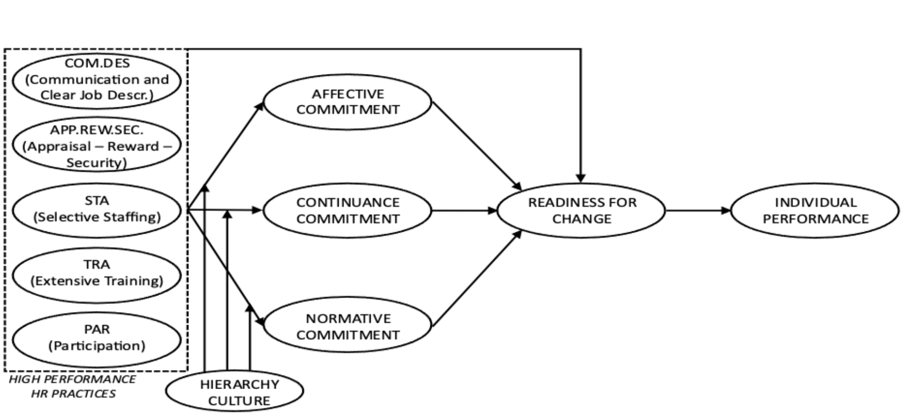
Although some studies have examined the relationship between employee commitment and readiness for change (e.g., Al-Abrrow & Abrishamkar, 2013; Al-Hussami et al., 2018; Nordin, 2012; Qureshi & Waseem, 2018), most of the researchers did not consider all of affective, continuance and normative commitment in their research (e.g., Ahmad et al., 2017; Mahendrati & Mangundjaya, 2020; Mangundjaya, 2013; McKay, Kuntz, & Näswall, 2013; Rochmi, & Hidayat, 2019; Sangroengrob, 2018; Soumyaja et al., 2015; Thien, 2019). However, as three types of commitment have a different nature, it is interesting to find out if they play the same role as mediating mechanisms between HRM and readiness for change.

Considering a sub-model for every type of commitment and different HPHRM practices will also allow us to check if this potential mediating role of a particular type of commitment works for all the considered practices or, on the contrary, only for some of them. We think that this is particularly interesting from a managerial perspective, as managers will obtain information about what HPHRM practices and type of commitment produces employee readiness for change.

As organizational change is intended to contribute to organizations success, the proposed research model also adds a performance construct as a final result of the proposed model. We consider individual performance as an outcome of readiness for change because it represents the ultimate results of positive employees' reactions to HR practices and contributes to achieving organizational effectiveness (Chung & Pak, 2020; Schuler & Jackson, 1987). As readiness for change is the change related construct selected for this research, we are interested in finding out if employees' readiness for change contributes to improve their individual performance. Finally, hierarchy organizational culture is considered a potential moderator of the relationship between HPHRM practices and readiness for change.

The proposed model is tested in a sample of bank employees in Jordan. Considering a non-studied country and sector, contributes to fill another literature gap.

**Figure (3.1) Research Model**



## 3.2. Theories to understand relationships among research's variables

### 3.2.1. Resource-Based View (RBV)

In 1984, building on the work of Penrose (1959), Birger Wernerfelt in his article: a Resource –Based view of the firm (1984) formulated the Resource-Based View (RBV). Other researchers such as Barney (1996); Rumelt (1984) and others worked to develop and build on this theory (Burvill, Jones-Evans, & Rowlands, 2018; Dunford, Snell, & Wright, 2001).

RBV is a powerful analytical tool that can be used to explain the variation in competition between firms because it assumes that organizations can develop and maintain competitive advantage only by generating value in a way that is rare and complicated for other competitors to imitate (Jaap Paauwe, 2004; Peteraf, 1993; Saa-Perez & Garcia-Falcon, 2002).

One of the essential things put forward in this field was what Barney (1991) suggested for the specific characteristics of sustainable competitive advantage, which marked the beginning of the popularizing of the theory of RBV in the literature of the strategy and then to become the theory most used in the literature of SHRM. Barney (1991) suggested that valuable, rare, inimitable, and nonsubstitutable resources will provide sustainable competitive advantage sources (Wright et al., 2001). These resources cannot be easily copied, bought, or transferred, and simultaneously, they add value to a firm while being rare (Barney, 2001).

The general idea behind RBV is that companies can be conceptualized as bundles of resources and that some aspects of them can only be internally developed, giving the ability for the organization to differentiate positively from its competitors (Barney, 1991; Grant, 1991; Wernerfelt, 1984). Furthermore, the organization's success is determined decisively by its specific and unique potential. Thus, internal resources, including the most crucial resource, human resources, rather than external condis tions, are regarded as the main factors for the organization's performance and success[38].

38 Saa-Perez & Garcia-Falcon )2002) supports this by asserting that from the RBV approach, it can be considered that human resources, or human capital, in which human resource management

In strategy literature, the RBV has been instrumental in developing the SHRM field because it has turned researchers' emphasis away from external factors toward organizations' internal resources as sources of competitive advantage (Hoskisson, Hitt, Wan, & Yiu, 1999), contributing in the increasing acceptance and recognition of HR as a source of competitive advantage. Moreover, the RBV contributed to legitimizing HR specialists and researchers' claims stating the strategic importance of the HR "people" to organizations' success and increased interest in organization's HR in the strategic literature (Wright et al., 2001) strengthening the HRM departments' position to assume an important position among the central departments of any organization.

According to the RBV, HR achieves a competitive advantage when: a) creating human process advantage by implementing good HR practices and b) by creating Human capital advantage by hiring and developing more capable people. For this to be achieved, the competitive advantage must be derived from strategic capability and fit, and the HR are valuable, rare, imperfectly imitable, and non-substitutable (Armstrong, 2010). Considering the resource-based view, organizations can rely on HRM practices to achieve competitive advantage by creating and building an organization's own scarce and valuable HR by adopting practices for various coherent human resource strategies and practices (Collins & Smith, 2006).

In line with Human capital (HC) theory, the resource-based view also emphasizes that investment in people increases their value to the firm. It proposes that sustainable competitive advantage is attained when the firm has an inimitable HR pool that cannot be substituted by its rivals (Armstrong, 2010). Delery & Shaw (2001) asserted that there is general recognition that Human capital can be a source of competitive advantage and that the most direct influence on the company's human capital is through the HRM, they added that the complicated nature of a coherent HRM practices system enhances the inimitability of this system.

HR advantage is achieved by a combination of HC advantage, emerging from employing people with competitively valuable knowledge and

invests, has the potential to create superior performance and thus HRM provides an important perspective for organizational success.

skills, and Human process advantage, which results from the establishment of highly evolved inimitable processes within the organization (P. F. Boxall, 1996, 1999). Therefore, HR advantage which is the superiority of one organization's labor-management over another's, can be considered as the product of its human capital and human process advantages (Armstrong, 2010).

As cited in Wright et al. (2001), there were two different opinions regarding HRM concerning the RBV. The first is what Wright, McMahan, & McWilliams (1994), proposed considering the HR (i.e., the human capital "HC" pool: a highly skilled and highly motivated workforce) had a more significant potential to constitute a source of sustainable competitive advantage than HR practices (those HR tools used to manage the HC pool). Wright et al., (1994) added that the HC pool must have both high levels of skill and a willingness (i.e., motivation) to display productive behavior in order to constitute a source of competitive advantage.

In contrast, the other opinion Lado & Wilson (1994) proposed was that organization's HR practices could provide a source of sustainable competitive advantage. Lado & Wilson (1994) suggested that HR systems (as opposed to singular practices) can be unique, synergistic, and causally ambiguous in how those systems enhance an organization's competencies and thus could be inimitable.

From this view, the HR system is considered an asset that creates value when that system is appropriately developed and embedded into the organization's operating systems to enhance its capabilities[39] (Becker and Gerhart,1996).

A deeply embedded HR system in the organization is a too complex system to be imitated because it is difficult to identify the precise mechanisms by which HR practices interact and create value also because the system is an organizational capability that is spread across many people in the firm (Saa-Perez & Garcia-Falcon, 2002). Moreover, those HR systems consist of developed overtime policies and cannot merely be imitated or purchased by competitors (Ibid).

39 A capability is something a firm is able to perform, which stems from resources and routines upon which the firm can draw" (Hart & Dowell, 2011, p. 2)

HRM can be effective in the success of an organizational change strategies. Strategic HRM can produce the HR strategic advantage, that develops the organization's strategic capability through creating strategic fit between resources and opportunities, gaining added value from effective deployment of resources, and developing managers who can think and plan strategically to enable the achievement of strategic business objectives (Armstrong, 2010).

The RBV theory is considered a relevant point for this study because it is the essential theory on which the concept of HRM is built. Relying on the RBV theory, it is possible to implement various organizational strategies, including change strategies, and achieve the organizations' strategic goals. HRM practices and systems are the tools organizations use to manage this resource and influence its performance. In times of change, HRM practices are utilized to influence employee attitudes and behaviors towards maximizing performance and achieving desired results by changing individuals' beliefs, intentions, and attitudes. Human resource management practices can enhance individuals' commitment and then raise levels of individuals' readiness for organizational change and enhance their performance during change.

Determining critical HRM practices relevant to readiness for change based on the perspectives of a wide range of the employees in the same organization also raises the specificity and importance of these practices to the organization itself, giving it the advantage of scarcity and making it more difficult to imitate by competitors. Thus, it increases the value of these practices as a valuable resource for the organization. This is consistent with what Hoopes, Madsen, & Walker (2003); Lepak & Snell (1999) have argued that scarcity matters only if the resource is valuable and if competitors cannot imitate the resource.

#### 3.2.2. Social Exchange Theory (SET)

The connection between the organization and its employees can be visualized as "involving economic and social exchange" (Snape & Redman, 2010:1224). Social exchange theory presents a rationale for defining how HPHRM practices affects employees outcomes (Zhang et al., 2019).

An economic exchange is a short-term contract (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994) that exclusively involves a specific contractual relationship, which requires only a certain performance of contractual obligations, and does not expect performance beyond the detailed contractual terms (Vu, Nguyen, & Le, 2020). Social exchange, unlike economic exchange, is based on norms of reciprocity and imperfectly specific terms (Blau, 1964).

Social exchange is a long-term contract (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994), and a long-term socio-emotional exchange relation. It is distinguished by the mutual trust, obligation, and commitment between the organization and its employees (Colquitt et al., 2014). Contracts create obligations and requirements for the parties involved to do or not do something and that social exchange can be viewed as a type of social contract (Rousseau & Parks, 1993). Social contracts are interdependent and depend on the actions of the counterparty involved in this contract (Blau, 1964).

Social exchange theory shows that the discretionary benefits contributed from an exchange partner will be returned back by the other party in a discretionary way in the longer term (Blau, 1964; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The contribution to the organization may be deferred to the long-term future, and trust is a major component. The party who first performed the favor must trust the other party will be returned the favor in the future (Blau, 1964). Usually, the offer of an individual to give a favor is little at the beginning (Blau, 1964); until the trust between the two parties is established and deepened so that the first party is reassured that he will receive a return in exchange for this favor. This theory's main principle is the obligation imposed by one party on the other by providing rewarding services; the other party pays back benefits to the first party to release himself/herself from this obligation (Blau, 1964).

According to the theory, social exchange term is referred to as voluntary acts performed by both parties. The motivation to participate in those voluntary actions comes from the expectation of returns from other parties involved in social exchange. In addition to generating the expectations of receiving a return for the favor provided by any of the parties of the social exchange relationship, involving in this relationship also generates a certain degree of commitment from the party that received the favor towards the relationship that was created between the two parties (Blau, 1964) and both parties try to sustain it.

To achieve a successful social exchange relation, the two parties may be subject to some rules and conditions that affect the process of social exchange: the social context in which the exchange takes place, the stage in the development of the relationship and the nature of the relationship between the exchange partners, the nature of the transactions' benefits in addition to the costs incurred by the parties to the relationship (Blau, 1964)

The social exchange may occur under reciprocity[40] and/or negotiated rules to reach beneficial results (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

The reciprocity rule is one of the repayments and exchange rules. According to Cropanzano & Mitchell (2005), it may include:

a) *Reciprocity as an interdependent exchange*: the process begins when at least one of the participating parties initiates a "move", and the other reciprocates; Then, many new rounds of exchange follow. Once the process begins, each consequence can generate a continuously self-reinforcing cycle, making it difficult to be organized into separate steps.

*Reciprocity as a folk belief*: This notion includes the sense that over time all reciprocal exchanges will be fairly equilibrated, functional members in terms of help will receive what they deserve, and unhelpful members will receive punishment (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Malinowski, 1932).

*Reciprocity as a norm and individual orientation*: the idea is that reciprocity is a cultural mandate where all members should follow the reciprocity rules, or they will be finally punished (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Malinowski, 1932). In this case, reciprocity rules should be obeyed by all society members as an obligation (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Regarding the negotiated rules, when the parties are involved in social exchange, they negotiate the rules of the exchange expecting to achieve a satisfactory agreement that both parties (Emerson, 1976).

40 The norm of reciprocity is based on a notion that any act of kindness should be returned, being a significant principle of any community or society (Gouldner, 1960). The concept could be defined as "a behavioral response to perceived kindness and unkindness, where kindness comprises both distributional fairness as well as fairness intentions" (Falk & Fischbacher, 294 :2006).

The social exchange perspective gives a conceptual framework to explain how employee perceptions of HRM system are related to employee behaviors (Vu et al., 2020) . In the relationship between organization and individual, social exchange generates an expectation that the employee will contribute to his organization because of the benefits offered (Blau, 1964).

HRM practices may be perceived as an input into the social exchange process (Snape & Redman, 2010). According to the social exchange theory employees view HPHRM practices as benefits derived from their organization and therefore, reciprocate those benefits by engaging in task performance and extra-role performance or Organizational Citizenship Behavior" (OCB)[41] (Zhang et al., 2019)[42].

Many researchers (e.g., Guzzo & Noonan, 1994) have suggested that employees perceive HR practices as "signals" from management, which communicate the organizations' expectations and intentions to their employees (García-Chas, Neira-Fontela, & Varela-Neira, 2016; Ostroff & Bowen, 2000). García-Chas et al., 2016) provided examples of those signals being communicated to employees: employment security indicates to the employees that the organization is interested in maintaining a long-term relationship with them, training indicates that the organization is willing to invest in its employees, and promotion opportunities also imply to employees that the organization recognizes and values their contributions. Takeuchi et al. (2007) added that rigorous recruiting and selecting procedures may indicate that the organization values its employees highly, and employees may view empowerment in decision-making, high wages, and extensive benefits as recognition of their value to the organization; also rigorous training, which is an organizational investment in the employees may be considered a commitment towards them and indicates that the employee is considered important to the survival and success of the organization.

41 Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB): is defined as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 4 :1988).

42 In this line, Zhang et al. (2019) confirms that high-performance human resource systems HPWS will enhance the social exchange relationship between organizations and their employees.

When employees understand HR practices as expressing investment, appreciation, and recognition, they will start to perceive themselves in a social exchange, rather than a purely mercantile relationship (Shore & Shore, 1995). Employees who receive the organizations' long-term investment through HPHRM practices feel obligated to repay with discretionary role behaviors (Gong, Chang, & Cheung, 2010; Shaw, Dineen, Fang, & Vellella, 2009; Sun, Aryee, & Law, 2007). When employees receive socio-emotional and economic benefits from their organizations, they will return discretionary role behaviors to the organization (Vu et al., 2020). Hannah & Iverson (2004) explained that employees view HRM practices as representing a "personal" commitment by the organization towards them, so they then repay it back to their organizations through positive attitudes and behavior.

HPHR systems, including selective staffing, extensive training, result-oriented appraisal, incentive reward, internal mobility, clear job description, employee security, and participation, provides employees with multiple social resources such as recognition, appreciation, prestige, growth and empowerment, fairness, which foster social exchange relationship with employees (Vu et al., 2020). Takeuchi et al. (2007) asserted that HPHRM systems, reflects the investment of the organization in developing its employees, and these practices communicate a message to the employees about organizations' intentions to develop and sustain long-term relationships with them. Using HRM practices, such as participative decision-making, flexible job design, and performance-based compensation demonstrates organizations' trust and recognition of their employees (Liao et al., 2009).

Given what social exchange theory suggests, it is likely that those employees with a high level of social exchange will reciprocate the beneficial treatment with the organization by engaging in a number behaviors valued by the organization, such as task performance and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (Zhang et al., 2019). Previous studies (e.g., Shore et al., 2006; Song, Tsui, & Law, 2009) .

HPHRM practices, if effectively implemented, are also likely to lead employees to perceive that a supportive environment distinguishes the exchange relationship with the organization based on investments in employee skills, unbiased performance feedback, availability of attractive and fair compensation and rewards systems, and performance appreciation and motivation, and mutual efforts toward meaningful goals (which the employees may have participated in developing (Wright et al., 2003).

Employees perceive HPHRM practices as an expression of trust, recognition, and investment, all of which refer to social exchange relationships. Thus, the social exchange can act as a potential generator of the employees' sense of commitment to the organization through which HPHRM practices influence employee performance and behavior.

#### 3.2.3. Ability, Motivation and Opportunity (AMO) theory

The AMO theory is a framework that is often employed in HRM disciplines when discussing an individuals' work performance (Siemsen, Roth, & Balasubramanian, 2008). It has been adopted extensively in HRM research to justify the complex connection between how people are managed and subsequent performance outcomes (Kellner, Cafferkey, & Townsend, 2019; Marin-Garcia & Tomas, 2016).

Since its emergence, numerous articles exploring the HRM-performance linkage utilized the AMO theoretical framework either explicitly or implicitly (Marin-Garcia & Tomas, 2016). The framework has been developed theoretically and examined empirically. AMO theory gives insights into performance improvements and knowledge sharing (Turner & Pennington III, 2015).

The foundations of the AMO model are based on two streams of psychology theories: a) industrial psychology, which views performance as the result of employees' selection and the training they receive, and b) social psychology, which views motivation as the fundamentals principle in generating performance. One of the first to draw these two performance elements together was Vroom, (1964), then Campbell et al. (1970) was the first reference to introduces, briefly, the formula's opportunity element (Kellner et al., 2019).

Bailey (1993) was the first to present the AMO as a framework, in which he suggested that, to ensure the employee's discretionary effort, three elements must be in place : 1) employees must have the necessary skills, 2) they need the appropriate motivation, and 3) employers must offer them the opportunity to participate (Appelbaum et al., 2000). Thus, the commonly repeated view is that some combination of an individual's ability (A), motivation (M), and opportunities (O) would result in a measure of an individual's performance (P) which is expressed as (AMO = P) (Kellner et al., 2019).

Bos-Nehles et al. (2013) stress the importance of the ability dimension claiming that without ability neither motivation nor opportunity will add much to performance, even though both dimensions are extremely important. Ability-enhancing practices intend to buy skills and/or enhance the existing employees' skills (Ma Prieto & Pérez-Santana, 2014).

Affording people the means to attain their goals motivates them (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). Motivation deals with an employees' willingness to perform, which can be reinforced by two types of motivation, extrinsic or intrinsic motivation (Marin-Garcia & Tomas, 2016). Through an employment relationship with an organization, employees obtain the two kinds of organizational rewards, which refer to financial and non-financial benefits (Bratton & Gold, 1994; Malhotra, Budhwar, & Prowse, 2007). Money obtained from the working relationship is an extrinsic reward that satisfies employees' basic and higher-level needs; simultaneously, work also provides intrinsic rewards related to responsibility, achievement, and the opportunity to use and develop skills (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014).

The opportunity to perform is the work structure and environment that provide the employees with the necessary support and avenues for expression (Armstrong & Brown, 2019). Providing employees with opportunities often leads to an increase in their confidence because they use greater autonomy in performing their tasks (Jiang, Lepak, Hu, & Baer, 2012; S. M. Obeidat, Mitchell, & Bray, 2016). Opportunity to perform (O) relates to the individual's surrounding non-controllable forces that may include many circumstantial variables, these opportunities either enable or constrain the individual's work performance (Blumberg & Pringle, 1982). Opportunity to perform is often described as situational or operational constraints (Bendoly & Hur, 2007; Mathieu, Tannenbaum, & Salas, 1992).

Although the opportunity is to support the role of motivation and ability in performance, in many work situations, motivated and capable persons may either be inhibited or prevented from successfully fulfilling their tasks due to situational constraints that are beyond their control (Peters & O'connor, 1980). Ford, Quinones, Sego, & Sorra (1992) found that lack of opportunity to perform is associated with performance decrements.

#### 3.2.3.1. AMO theory and Human Resource Management

The AMO framework provides a detailed description of how HRM practices affect organizational performance by influencing the three aspects of employees' ability, motivation, and opportunities.

This model also explains the mechanism by how HRM systems affect outcomes at the individual level (Appelbaum & Wohl, 2000; Schuler & Jackson, 1987). Based on AMO model, individuals perform better if they possess the Ability, Motivation, and the work environment provides them with the opportunity to participate (Boselie, 2010; Boxall & Purcell, 2003).

Human resource management researchers applied the AMO framework by assuming that relevant HRM practices affect an individual's ability, motivation, and opportunity, leading to performance-related outcomes (Kellner et al., 2019). Moreover, the AMO model can also be used to understand the behavioral processes between HRM initiatives and potential performance improvements (Purcell, Hutchinson, Kinnie, Rayton, & Swart, 2003).

##### *3.2.3.1.1. The Ability-enhancing dimension*

The ability-enhancing dimension represents the level of investment in HRM practices intended to enhance employees' Knowledge, Skills, and Abilities (KSA) (Wright, Kehoe, 2008).. Ability is defined here as the HRM-related competencies required to implement HRM practices successfully on work (Bos-Nehles et al., 2013). Ability-enhancing HR practices may positively influence individual performance (Subramony, 2009). Those practices are devised to help individuals perform their tasks effectively (Jiang et al., 2012).

Ability-enhancing HR practices often involve selective staffing, job rotation, and extensive training and development programs (Delaney & Huselid, 1996; Jiang et al., 2012). Staffing and training practices directly influence employees' ability to perform by advancing their KSA inventory (Katou & Budhwar, 2010). Boon, Belschak, Hartog, & Pijnenburg (2014) affirmed that continuous training and development increases task-related knowledge, skills, and abilities. Competence can be developed through HRM practices like continuous and systematic training in (Bos-Nehles et al., 2013).

Delery & Doty (1996) propose two HRM systems that intend to enhance employees' abilities:

- **Buy-Oriented System**: this type of system aims to enhance employees' abilities by implementing a set of HRM practices like sophisticated recruitment methods and rigorous selection techniques to acquire new skills required to perform the organization's needed tasks.
- **The Make-Oriented System**: that focuses on imparting skills to the organization's existing employees by training and development practices.

##### *3.2.3.1.2. The Motivation-enhancing dimension*

The motivation-enhancing dimension represents the level of investment in HRM practices functioning to increased motivation employee behavior (Wright, Kehoe, 2008),

Motivation-enhancing HR practices such as rigorous compensation systems and formal performance appraisal (Gardner et al., 2001) offer signals to individuals regarding what is expected of them in their jobs, and in return, how their contributions to the organization are rewarded (Chung & Pak, 2020). Motivation-enhancing HR practices are frequently adopted to improve individuals' efforts to achieve their jobs' particular goals (Delery & Shaw, 2001; Jiang, Takeuchi, & Lepak, 2013).

Individuals often tend to make behavioral decisions closely connected to reward schemes (Jiang et al., 2012). O'Halloran (2012) asserted that such reward schemes significantly enhance employees' productivity and decrease turnover. The result obtained from aggregating the appropriate behaviors among individuals will be an adequately implemented organization's strategy, leading to the expected organizational results (Chung & Pak, 2020).

Ur Rahman & Ahmad (2015) concluded that with the provision of incentives, employees would feel they are being treated fairly by the organization and respond positively by enhancing their performance. Performance appraisal also is a feedback mechanism for employees. It increases motivation (Meadows & Pike, 2010).

##### *3.2.3.1.3. The Opportunity-enhancing dimension*

The Opportunity-enhancing dimension is related to HR practices that provide the employees with opportunities to participate in making substantive decisions about the work and organizational outcomes (Obeidat et al., 2016; Tsai, 2006; Wright & Kehoe, 2008). Opportunity is the employees' work context that equips them with the proper support and means to implement express themselves such as the opportunity to participate (Boxall & Purcell, 2003).

The opportunity-enhancing HR practices may include participation, employee involvement in decision-making, job and team autonomy, and decentralization (Lepak et al., 2006; Vermeeren, 2015).

Reviewing the literature for opportunity enhancing variables, Kellner et al. (2019) reported that some practices appeared morethan a time in the literature, such as teamwork, social networks, autonomy, communication, employee surveys, information sharing, involvement in decision-making and participation. Information sharing practices help align employees' behavior with the organization's policies and regulations, which help them perform their required tasks (Marks, Mirvis, Hackett, & Grady, 1986; Meadows & Pike, 2010; Obeidat et al., 2016). Job design in the flexible work arrangements increases employees` learning and collaboration (Jiang et al., 2012). Practices contributing to the opportunity dimension, for instance, quality circles or team working, consider the work environment and individual characteristics (Marin-Garcia & Tomas, 2016).

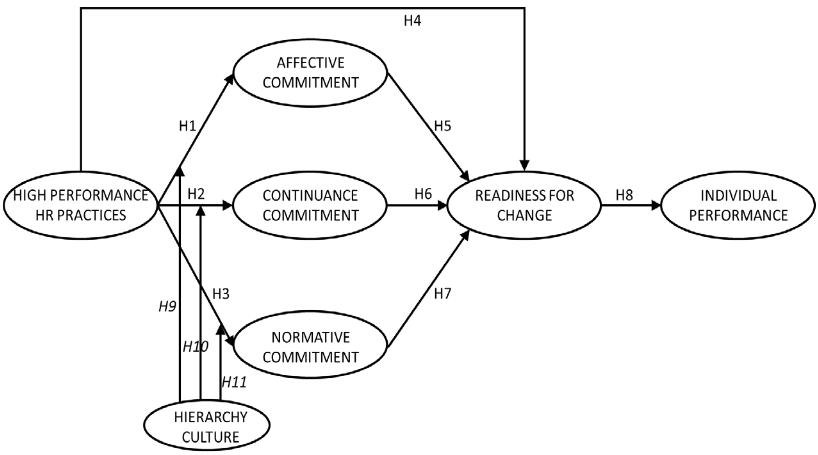
The AMO framework provides the basis for understanding the strategic value of HPHRM (Luna-Arocas & Camps, 2008). According to the systems approach, employing an appropriate combination of different HRM practices rather than individual practices to ensures the enhancement of all three components of the AMO model can ultimately lead to high employee performance (Delery & Roumpi, 2017).

Besides, HPHRM practices fit with the AMO model as they can be described along three dimensions: ability-enhancing practices, motivation-enhancing practices, and opportunity-enhancing practices. As HPHRM enhance the employees' ability, motivation, and opportunity to contribute to the organizational performance, these three dimensions broadly represent the field of HPHRM (Obeidat et al., 2016).

## 3.3. Hypotheses development

In the current section, we explain the dependencies we propose between the variables considered in this research. Figure 3.2 presents our conceptual model, summarizing our research hypotheses.

**Figure 3.2 Conceptual Model Research Framework: graphical description**




*Source: author's own elaboration.*

### 3.3.1. Hypotheses development: HPHRM practices and Organizational Commitment

#### 3.3.1.1. High Performance Human Resource Practices

In their exploration of the relationship between HRM and employee performance, some researchers in SHRM focused particularly on the High-Performance Human Resource practices for their significant contribution to organizational effectiveness (Huang, Ahlstrom, Lee, & Chen, 2016). Those HR practices that SHRM theorists consider performance enhancing are known as High-Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) (Huselid, 1995).

Ashton & Sung (2002) define HPWPs as the practices adopt by HR managers to improve employee performance in organizations. High-performance work practices are a set of employee management practices that positively influence employees‘ attitudes, motivation, and performance (Sels et al., 2006 as cited in Patel & Conklin, 2012).

Moreover, High-Performance Work Systems (HPWS) is a term used to refer to a set of those separate high-performance HR practices, designed to work interconnectedly to improve individual and organizational performance by enhancing employee competencies, motivation, and opportunities for contribution (Chang & Chen, 2011; Datta, Guthrie, & Wright, 2005; Huselid, 1995; Lepak, Liao, Chung, & Harden, 2006; Vivek, 2018; Wright & Snell, 1991).

Evans & Davis (2005) defined HPWS as an integrated system of HR practices that are internally and externally consistent; the internal alignment exists among HR practices while external alignment is with the organizational strategy.

High-performance work systems are the strategy adopted by the organization to manage the employment relationship. They consist of a specific set of practices that aim to increase employee productivity by maximizing their competencies, motivation, communication, participation, involvement, and flexibility (Vivek, 2018).

Delery & Shaw (2001); Evans & Davis (2005); Guthrie (2001) reported that the dominant views of HPWS are closely aligned with research on high-performance management practices and highly participatory work practices, and indeed, scholars frequently note that different naming preferences are frequently used interchangeably to denote the same phenomena of interest (i.e., the HR practice system rather than isolated practices). Zacharatos, Barling, & Iverson (2005), noted that HPWS is broader than both the high-commitment and high-involvement HR systems approaches and that it includes the elements of both. High-performance management can be synonymous with high commitment and high involvement management (Wood & Wall, 2007). High-performance management refers to the important features of all three approaches (Gupta & Singh, 2010).

As cited in Timiyo (2014), researchers have declared more than one term that has the same meaning, including HPWS ( Huselid & Rau, 1997; Patel & Conklin, 2012; Ramsay, Scholarios, & Harley, 2000), high commitment management (HCM) (Purcell, 1999), progressive HRM practices (PHRMP) (Delaney & Huselid, 1996), and also the term high-performance work organizations (HPWOs) (Kalleberg, Marsden, Reynolds, & Knoke, 2006).

In this research, the term of HPHRM practices will be used to denote other concepts interchangeably, such as High-Performance Work Systems (HPWS), High-Involvement Practices, and High-Commitment Practices, except in cases where it is necessary to refer to a particular concept of them.

HPHRM practices are consistent practices that enhance employees' skills, participation in decision making, and motivation to put forth their effort (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Sun et al., 2007). HPHRM practices ultimately result in superior indicators of firm performance and sustainable competitive advantage (Way, 2002)[43]. According to Sun et al., (2007), HPHRM practices are a combination of single practices that collectively affect organizational performance.

Wright, Gardner, Moynihan, & Allen (2005) concluded that HR practices such as effective work design/structure, training and development, and motivation, will influence employees' behavior positively, this will,

43 As we pointed out in chapter 1, the relationships between HRM and organizational performance have been discussed and described from different perspectives: Contingency perspective: (best fit approach), Universalistic perspective (best practice approach), Configurational perspective (Delery & Doty, 1996), or Contextual approach (Martín-Alcázar et al., 2005).

in turn, enhance organizations' overall performance in the form of an improvement in sales and profits.

According to some SHRM practitioners, HPHRM practices increase the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) of the employees, and empower and motivate them to utilize their KSAs for the benefit of the organization (Becker & Huselid., 1998; Delery & Shaw, 2001). Aryee, Walumbwa, Seidu, & Otaye (2012) underlined those systems of HPHRM is designed to enhance employees' competence, motivation, and commitment.

Several researchers gave great importance to HPHRM practices by focusing on the outcomes and consequences of adopting such practices and systems. They conclude that HPHRM practices are associated with many desirable outcomes among employees, such as enhanced job, operational, or financial performance, labor productivity, and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (Dyer & Reeves, 1995; Gupta & Singh, 2010; Guthrie, 2001; Huselid, 1995; Jiang et al., 2013; Kehoe & Wright, 2010; Patel & Conklin, 2012; Sun et al., 2007; Tang & Tang, 2012; Thang et al., 2010; Vu et al., 2020; Wright et al., 2003), various employee attitude and behaviors like increased organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Ang et al., 2013; Becker et al., 1997; Dyer & Reeves, 1995; Fabiet al., 2015; García-Chas, Neira-Fontela, & Varela-Neira, 2016; Gürbüz, 2009; Kehoe & Wright, 2010; Korffet al., 2017; Lai et al., 2017; Macky & Boxall, 2007; Mao et al., 2013; Messersmith et al, 2011; Takeuchi, 2009; Thang et al., 2010) and employees' turnover and intentions to stay or leave ( Becker et al., 1997; Dyer & Reeves, 1995; García-Chas, Neira-Fontela, & Castro-Casal, 2014; Huselid, 1995; Thang et al., 2010).

The HPHRM practices brings people, work, technology, and information together in a way that optimizes the consensus of fit among them in order to produce high performance in terms of the effective response to customer requirements and other environmental requirements and opportunities (Nadler, Gerstein, & Shaw, 1992).

From a theoretical perspective the challenge is to determine which SHRM practices should be included or excluded to achieve the desired strategic goals. Although researchers generally agree on HPHRM systems, there are still disagreements and conflicting perceptions about the specific HR practices that exist for the different HPHRM systems

(Godard, 2004; Paré & Tremblay, 2007; Wright & Boswell, 2002; Pestonjee & Mehta, 2016 ) . In addition, the intermediating mechanisms through which High-Performance HRM practices contribute to organizational performance and underlying this relationship remain a black box (Macky & Boxall, 2008; Ramsay et al., 2000; Youndt, 2000). Ferris, Arthur, Kaplan, Harrell-cook, & Frink (1998) noted a paucity of research aimed at providing a systematic explanation of how HRMSs specifically work to influence the effectiveness of an organization and how the effects occur.

#### 3.3.1.2. Practices included in high performance work systems.

Although there is increasing evidence about the effect of HPHRM practices on organizational performance, there is a great variety and difference in HR practices that were addressed in these studies (Combs et al., 2006). Different researchers have considered different practices.

Boxall & Macky (2009) asserted that there is great difficulty identifying the HPHRM variable components as these management practices that make up systems of HPHRM practices are subject to a confusing set of definitions and assertions, as Wood's (1999) review indicates. Timiyo (2014) claimed that the difference in practices is due, in one of its causes, to the difference in the SHRM perspective that scholars take to reveal and express the value effectiveness and the impact of HRM practices on organizational performance. Thus, scholars' proponents of the universalistic, contingency, or configurational perspectives identified different types of HPHRM practices.

Bamberger & Meshoulam (2000) as cited in Sun et al. (2007) argued that SHRM researchers used either a resource-based approach or a control-based approach to investigate HPHRM practices. The difference between the two views is that while the resource-based approach focuses on HR practices relates to internal employee development, such as career path, training, and development (Delery & Doty, 1996; Sun et al., 2007), the control-based approach, concentrates on high-performance HR practices related to monitoring and directing employees performance (Snell, 1992).

Bamberger & Meshoulam (2000) argued that neither approach adequately captures the realm of HR practices thus, both approaches should be incorporated as orthogonal dimensions of high-performance HR practices measure. The two approaches are shown in three main HR subsystems (Sun et al., 2007):

- People flow, includes staffing, employee mobility, employee training.
- Appraisal and rewards, includes performance appraisal, compensation, and benefits.
- Employment relations includes job design and participation.

According to Vivek, (2018), HPHRM system is a multidimensional construct, and the definition of its components dimensions always comes from the studying of four sub-functions components: a) selection, b) training, c) evaluation and d) compensation.

Bamberger & Meshoulam (2000); Sun et al. (2007) suggested that an integrated measure of HPHRM practices should assess selective staffing, extensive skills training, results-oriented appraisal, extensive and open-ended rewards, guaranteed job security, broad job description, broad career paths, promotion from within, flexible job assignment, and encouragement of participation.

Other researchers have also noted that practices of HPHRM system should include strict selective staffing, extensive training and development, performance-based evaluation, and incentivized compensations contribution (Chang & Chen, 2011; Datta et al., 2005; Huselid, 1995; Lepak et al., 2006; Wright & Snell, 1991) as cited in (Vivek, 2018).

According to Sun et al., (2007), HPHRM practices, such as intensive skills training, job security provision, results-oriented appraisal, promotion from within, and broad career paths, indicate the organization's intention to build a long-term exchange relationship with employees. Moreover, high-performing HR practices reinforce employees' shared perceptions of a supportive organizational environment which in turn stimulates discretionary behaviors that contribute to organizational performance.

Evans & Davis (2005) classified seven different categories of Human Resource Practices Comprising systems of HPHRM practices, namely:

- ***Staffing practices*****:** Extensiveness of procedures to evaluate relevant knowledge, skills, and abilities for job fit and organization fit for extent selective screening and assessment of technical and interpersonal skills.
- ***Self-managed team practices***: like employee participation programs and teams with task and decision-making authority.
- ***Decentralized decision-making practices***: like authority to make decisions, less well-defined tasks, participative management, and employee involvement.
- ***Training practices***: like training for both new hires and experienced employees, training for current and future skills, and cross-training.
- ***Flexible work assignments***: job enrichment, job rotation (rotation across teams), and ability to perform +1 job.
- ***Communication***: like explaining the business strategy, employee suggestion systems, and access to all operating results levels.
- ***Compensation***: like Profit and gain sharing, employee ownership, and performance-contingent pay.

The HPHRM practices mentioned in the various researches included many aspects through which these practices can have an impact on the HR to perform behaviors consistent with organizational goals; a commonality of HRM practices in high-performance approach focuses on developing workforce skills and ability, increasing employees' motivation for discretional effort, and providing employees with the opportunity to fully utilize their knowledge, skills and other attributes in their jobs (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Combs et al., 2006; Guest, 1997; Vu et al., 2020) to perform the required behaviors consistent with organizational goals.

It is important to emphasize that the context in which companies operate and some features of the organization are relevant in order for systems of HPHRM practices to function well. Practices of HPHRM systems may differ for various reasons related to the context in which such practices are applied. In particular, some researchers have noted that some contextual factors and characteristics of the country such as the culture of the country, the type of industry, the legal and social-cultural environment, or the size of the organization can influence the outcomes of HR practices.

Boselie, Paauwe, & Jansen (2001) noted that some practices considered as high performing in the United States are considered to be related to institutional requirements elsewhere. For instance, the employee grievance procedure, which Huselid (1995) recognizes as a high-performance indicator in the USA, is only a legal requirement in the UK and does not distinguish superior performers (Boxall & Macky, 2009). They explained that the further away researchers are from focusing on the American context, the socio-cultural differences must be internalized in HPWS practices.

In a multicultural study of firms operating in the US and China, Liang, Marler, & Cui (2012) discovered that the cost/benefit analysis of adopting HPHRM practices in China differs from that of the United States, and they explain the reason as a result of differences in the differences in the socio-cultural, political and economic variables of each country.

Legal differences are among the most direct aspects of social and cultural diversity, and support the assumptions about diversity in practices(-Boxall & Macky, 2009). As a result of cultural diversity, some practices that might work well in the Anglo-American world may be understood quite differently, and less positively, in less individual cultures or other more hierarchical cultures (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997).

Patel & Conklin (2012) discovered that group culture acts to mediate the effect of labor turnover also, organizational culture produces a dual effect on firms ‘performance. It may act as a predominant factor in either trying to facilitate or hinder small business enterprises operating in the UK from gaining competitive advantage.

Kalleberg et al. (2006) found that differences exist in the adoption of HPHRM practices among the three types of profit-making, non-profit making, and the public sector firms in the USA.

The effectiveness of HPHRM practices and the level of business turnover and productivity may vary among organizations according to their size. Larger organizations may present better opportunities in the internal labor market, which may lead to lower levels of voluntary turnover

(Patel & Conklin, 2012). The likelihood of using HPHRM practices may increase with the organization size (Guthrie, 2001).

An important contextual factor that deserves attention is the industry context (Batt, 2002; Datta et al., 2005). Differences in adopted HPHRM practices may be attributed also to the nature of the organization's business and its effect on employees. Employees in service organizations will benefit more from HPHRM practices because they have more discretion than their manufacturing employees (Rosenthal, Hill, & Peccei, 1997). In addition to the fact that because service employees are closer to customers, the effects of HPHRM practices on employee behavior should directly affect the quality (Batt, 2002). Datta et al. (2005) found that the effects of HPHRM practices on labor productivity were greater in industries with low capital intensity or high growth rates. Those likely to be services industries where customer contact is common and discretionary behavior is higher (Combs et al., 2006).

Any assertion that there is some kind of general agreement on best practice systems, or that there is a certain set of self-evidently highly performing practices, is clearly wrong and untenable (Bryson, Forth, & Kirby, 2005; Marchington & Grugulis, 2000; Wood, 1999).

#### 3.3.1.3. High Performance Human Resource Practices and Organizational Commitment

Much attention has recently been paid to studying commitment to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990b; Becker, 1992; Brown, 1996), because of the researchers' belief that commitment among employees will definitely result to increased organizational effectiveness and productivity (Fiorito, Bozeman, Young, & Meurs, 2007; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Moreover, High-Commitment HR systems such as the high commitment practices that develop psychological links between organizational and employees' goals are endeavored to enhance employees' commitment to achieving organizational goals by being trustful and discrete (Arthur, 1994).

Psychology literature perspective that has extensively studied commitment, described it as the psychological attachment and loyalty of an employee to an organization (Luo & Qiao, 2020). Organizational commitment is the state of employees' commitment to achieving the organization's goals; it involves levels of employee identification, involvement, and loyalty (Caught & Shadur, 2000). It is described as the employee who "stays with the organization through thick and thin, attends work regularly, puts in a full day (and maybe more), protects company assets, shares company goals, and so on" (Meyer & Allen, 1997: 3).

Notwithstanding the progress in understanding the concept of commitment, theoretical debates persist over the nature of the concept and how to apply it in an organizational context (Brown, 1996).

Meyer and Allen (1991) asserted that previous organizational commitment literature, distinguished between two main approaches, the attitudinal and behavioral commitment:

1. ***The attitudinal approach*** research has been directed broadly at identifying the antecedent conditions that contribute to enhancing commitment and the behavioral consequences of this commitment. It focuses on the process by which people begin to reflect on their relationship to the organization. It is a mindset in which individuals consider the extent to which their values and goals align with the organization's values and goals.
2. ***Behavioral approach***, investigations have focused essentially on identifying the conditions under which a behavior, once presented, tends to be repeated and on the consequences of such behavior on attitude change. behavioral commitment is related to how individuals become locked into a particular organization and how they deal with this problem.

In their commitment model, Meyer & Allen (1991) incorporated both the attitudinal and behavioral approaches and the integral relationship between them to expand upon the concept of organizational commitment as a "mindset, or psychological state" (i.e. feelings and/or beliefs related to the employee's relationship with the organization); This psychological state should not be limited only to the unity of the value and goals; Instead, it can reflect a desire, a need and/or an obligation to maintain membership in the organization.

Meyer & Allen (1984) initially proposed that a distinction should be made between two components of organizational commitment, the affective and the continuance commitment. Later (Allen & Meyer, 1990b) proposed a third distinguishable component of commitment, the normative commitment (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Hence, going beyond distinguishing between behavioral and attitudinal commitment, Allen & Meyer (1990b); Meyer & Allen (1991) reconceptualized the concept of commitment proposing a three-components model where commitment, as a psychological state, contains at least three separable components. Meyer & Allen (1991) claimed that organizational commitment can be divided into three main components: normative, affective, and continuous commitment, which are the three types of organizational commitment covered in this study. Each component is seen as evolving as a function of different antecedents and to have different implications on the on-job behavior.

In 1997, Meyer and Allen defined in more details the three proposed organizational commitment types (affective, continuance, and the normative commitments).

1. ***Affective or moral commitment:*** This type of commitment is achieved when individuals fully embrace the organization's goals and values; they are emotionally involved in the organization and feel personally responsible for its level of success. Those individuals usually display positive work attitudes, a desire to stay with the organization, and high levels of performance (Meyer & Allen, 1997). It can be defined as "a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one's role in relation to goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth" (Buchanan, 1974: 533).
2 Continuance commitment or calculative: continuance commitment occurs when individuals bind their continued relationship with the organization based on what they receive from the organization in return for their efforts and also based on what they would lose if they were to leave (i.e., pay, benefits, and associations) (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Those individuals only do their best when the rewards match their expectations (Ibid). Continuance

commitment is focused on cost-based orientation, being defined as "a structural phenomenon which occurs as a result of individual-organizational transactions and alterations in side bets or investments over time" (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972: 556). It can be described as a cost-benefit analysis where the lower the costs and the higher are the benefits of staying, the longer employee will stay with the organization.

3 ***Normative commitment***: It is the commitment that emerges from the obligation, duty, and moral responsibility the employee feels towards the organization. Individuals' Commitment and their persistence with the organization in this type of commitment is determined based on expected standards of behavior or social norms (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Those individuals value obedience, cautiousness, and formality. They tend to display the same attitudes and behaviors as those with affective commitment (Ibid).

Those types are better-called components, seeing that, employees could experience all the three components in the variation of the extent during the duration of employee-organization relationships (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Zangaro, (2001) pointed to an additional type of commitment that is unlike the previous three kinds of commitment that lead to higher performance. This suggested type is the alienative commitment, it occurs when individuals feel they have little or no control or influence and want to leave their jobs. Those employees usually show low levels of performance (Ibid).

Meyer & Allen (1997) claimed that each commitment component differs from the rest of the others in outcomes individuals exhibit to their organizations. For example, affective commitment leads to emotional attachment to the organization and a great willingness to contribute meaningfully to the organization and support its goals and objectives. It leads to higher in-role job performance, less absenteeism, and a greater willingness to engage in extra-role citizenship behaviors (Meyer & Allen, 1997: 24). Employee affective commitment also has a positive effect on altruistic behaviors towards specific members of the organization and generalized compliance with organizational norms and rules (Organ & Ryan, 1995).

In a different way, and in the case of continuous commitment, employees stay within the organization simply because leaving would lead to higher costs. These employees bounded by continuous commitment are additive performers and are less likely to engage in additional role behaviors (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Normative commitment motivates employees to behave correctly and to do what is right. However, in this type of commitment, the developed attachment to the organization is very modest compared to affective commitment, as normative commitment lacks enthusiasm and involvement. It sometimes results in resentment concerning their feeling of indebtedness or obligation towards the organization they work for (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

The three components of the organizational commitment can vary in their impact on variables considered to be correlated, and consequences of organizational commitment such as turnover or turnover intentions, on the job-behavior, attendance, job performance, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and employee health and well-being (Meyer et al., 2002). Therefore, this study will cover all of the three components of the organizational commitment to exploring any differences that may characterize the role each of the components plays.

HPHRM practices enhances employee skills, knowledge, and ability (KSA) to perform, motivates employees by providing recognition, and grants opportunities for employees to participate in decisions (Lepak et al., 2006). As a result, and according to the literature on Social Exchange Theory (SET) (Blau, 1964), employees reciprocate positively by working harder and becoming more committed to their organizations (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996).

Social exchange theory assumes that discretionary benefits contributed from an exchange partner will be returned back by the other party in a discretionary way in the longer term (Blau, 1964; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Social exchange theory hold the notion that individuals seek favorable outcomes relative to their inputs (Cook, Molm, & Yamagishi, 1993). Thus in a relationship like the employment relationship, social exchange theory implies that individuals become bound to return benefits or services to their partners in the exchange (Blau, 1964).

Some authors explain how perceptions of HRM practices could produce social exchange. Guzzo & Noonan (1994) have suggested that employees perceive HRM practices as "signals" from management, which communicate the organizations' expectations and intentions to their employees (García-Chas et al., 2016; Ostroff & Bowen, 2000). In this line, García-Chas et al. (2016) claimed that HPHRM practices like employment security, training and development, and promotion opportunities might communicate positive signals to the employees that the organization values the employees and invests in them. Takeuchi, Lepak, Wang, & Takeuchi (2007) added that HRM, such as rigorous recruiting and selection, training, empowerment in decision-making, high wages, and extensive benefits, may indicate the same message. When employees perceive HRM practices as investment, appreciation, and recognition, they will start to see themselves in a social exchange rather than a purely mercantile relationship (Shore & Shore, 1995).

Constant with the social exchange theory, the extent employees perceive that employers value their contributions and care about their wellbeing, that is Perceived Organizational Support[44], (POS) specifically, addresses the organization's commitment (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990). Anchored on this perspective, HRM practices can be viewed as tangible concrete programs intended at producing employee commitment, as they function as communication from the organization to their employees (Guzzo & Noonan, 1994). Benson & Lawler (2003) suggested that employees will have a more substantial commitment to their organizations when they perceive their organizations are genuinely committed towards their welfare[45]. Shore & Shore (1995) identified two key types of HRM practices that are related to POS:

44 Aiming to explain the development of employee commitment to an organization, Eisenberger et al. (501 :1986) proposed that " the employees develop global beliefs concerning the amount to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their wellbeing". They refer to those global beliefs as the perceived organizational support (POS).

45 By adopting a social exchange framework, , Eisenberger et al. (1986) argued that such beliefs underlie employees' thoughts concerning their organizations' commitment toward them (POS), which contribute to the employees' commitment to their organizations. Thus, high levels of POS create feelings of obligation to be committed to their organizations and a feeling of obligation to

- ***Discretionary practices*** (discretionary organizational investment): practices that imply an organization's investment in an employee, such as time off for education and formal and informal training and development (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997).
- ***Organizational recognition***: such as salary increases and promoting to a higher position that could be the most salient to an employee because this promotion is typically linked with a salary increase (Wayne et al., 1997).

The effective implementation of High-performance HR practices is likely to lead employees to perceive that a supportive environment distinguishes the exchange relationship with the organization based on investments in the employees (Wright, Gardner, & Moynihan, 2003).

Those perceptions are to get the employees will likely feel committed to the organization's goals and thus, seek to show a greater commitment to securing and the employee-employer relationship and maintain its sustainability (Blau, 1964).

The psychological contract[46] focuses primarily on the employment relationship between the two parties, the employer and the employee, at the individual level (Guest, 2004).

Fox (1974) provided an analysis of employment relations involving the psychological contract. Fox used the norm of reciprocity as a central concept and demonstrates the potential of the psychological contract to analyze employment relationships.

Kalleberg & Rogues (2000) pointed out that the idea of psychological contracts has proven to be of great use in understanding employment relations because most of these relations are implicit or unwritten, and many of their essential aspects are based on perceptions; thus, the two parties may have different perceptions about employment relations.

Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Tripoli (1997) investigated exchange relations from the employer's perspective, they postulated four types of exchange relations that could be pursued by employers, which they called

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respond to their organizations' commitment by involving themselves in behaviors that support organizational goals.

46 psychological contract is "the set of reciprocals but unwritten expectations that exist between individual employees and their employers" (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014).

overinvestment (in employees), underinvestment, mutual investment, and quasi-spot contracts. Tsui et al. (1997) found that the overinvestment in employees and the mutual benefits led to better employee attitudes and behavior.

AMO theory proposes that inducements are not limited to monetary rewards offered by the organization but could be in the form of a set of practices that work in addition to motivating employees to develop their abilities and provide them with the appropriate opportunity to participate and perform, such as training, development, participation and other practices.

Numerous studies have verified the relationship between HRM practices and organizational commitment. They have found that HRM practices such as performance evaluation, benefits, training, and development pay for performance, fair wages, job security, flexible work schedules, opportunities for career advancement produce organizational commitment. Some of them are focused on organizational commitment construct, without distinguishing among the three types of commitment ( e.g., Appelbaum et al., 2000; Meyer & Smith, 2000; Şendoğdu, Kocabacak, & Güven, 2013; Shahnawaz & Juyal, 2006).

Meyer & Smith (2000) underlined that different studies have examined the commitment as a potential outcome variable of specific HRM practices showing the links between commitment and practices concerning recruitment (e.g., Premack & Wanous, 1985), training (e.g., Saks, 1995), assessment and promotion (e.g., Robertson, Iles, Gratton, & Sharpley, 1991), employee ownership (e.g., Buchko, 1993), socialization (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1990a; Ashforth & Saks, 1996), and benefits (e.g., Grover & Crooker, 1995).

Ogilvie (1986) asserted that employees' perceptions of two HRM practices, the fairness of promotions and accuracy of the merit rating system, contributed to the prediction of organizational commitment. Gaertner & Nollen (1989) affirmed that both actual and perceived HRM practices, including internal promotion, training opportunities, and employment security, were related to employees' commitment.

Chen (2005) found a correlation between perceptions of employees, toward HRM practices and organizational commitment. Shahnawaz

& Juyal (2006) concluded that various HRM practices were significant predictors of organizational commitment. The results of Jawaad, Amir, Bashir, & Hasan (2019) concluded that HRM practices adopted by firms varied in their effect on organizational commitment between direct and mediated relationships. Kinicki, Carson, & Bohlander (1992) found that differ in the quality of two companies' HRM practices is related to differences in employees' commitment- related work attitudes.

Some authors focused on the effect that the implementing HRM practices in general on one type of commitment. For instance, Scheible & Bastos (2013); Conway & Monks (2008) found a strong and positive influence employees' perceptions of HRM practices have on affective commitment.

Some other researchers have also examined the impact of high-performance human resource management practices on the affective commitment; Mao, Song, & Han (2013) found that employee perspectives of systems of HPHRM practices including comprehensive recruitment and selection, incentive compensation, performance-management, training related to organization's goals, and extensive employee involvement have a positive effect on affective commitment, suggesting that employees' attitudes can be improved by integrating effective high-performance work systems in the working environment.

Wu & Chaturvedi (2009) when explored the link between systems of HPHRM practices and employee attitudes, they found that systems of HPHRM practices (including selectivity, comprehensive training, performance appraisals, internal career opportunities, incentive pay, and empowerment practices) displays a direct and positive relationship with affective commitment at the individual level. Zhang, Fan, & Zhu (2014) findings supported the perspective that systems of HPHRM practices elicit positive employee attitudes towards HPHRM practices.

Meyer & Smith (2000) examined the relations between employees' perceptions of HRM practices within four areas: training, performance appraisal, benefits, and career development, and the three different forms of commitment, affective and normative commitment correlated significantly with employees' evaluation of all HRM practices.

Gellatly, Hunter, Currie, & Irving (2009) examined how employee perceptions of three different HRM practices categories (development-oriented, reward-oriented, and stability-oriented HRM practices) were associated with the likelihood of categorical profiles created by combining varying levels of two commitment components that consist of affective and continuance commitment. They found that affective commitment positively correlated with the three categories of development-oriented, reward-oriented, and stability-oriented practices and that continuance commitment was related positively to stability-oriented practices and negatively with both reward-oriented and development-oriented HRM practices.

Bal, Bozkurt, & Ertemsir (2014) found a significant relationship between HRM practices and employees' organizational commitment in general. HRM practices except compensation and rewards had a significant positive relationship with affective and normative commitment. Coffie, Boateng, & Coffie (2018) found a positive relationship between the implementation of HRM practices and the three components of organizational commitment in the banking sector in Ghana. The primary HRM practices that had a significant positive impact on the employees' affective commitment and normative commitment were training and development, performance-based pay, rewards recognition, and communication and information sharing. Recruitment and selection, performance appraisal, rewards and recognition, communication, and information sharing were related to continuance commitment.

Based on previous studies that confirm the positive effect that HRM practices and, in particular HPHRM practices, have on organizational commitment, and considering all the arguments described above, the following hypothesis is stated:

Hypothesis 1: *High Performance Human Resource Practices are positively related to Affective Commitment.*

Hypothesis 2: *High Performance Human Resource Practices are positively related to Continuance Commitment.*

Hypothesis 3: *High Performance Human Resource Practices are positively related to Normative Commitment.*

### 3.3.2. Hypotheses development: High Performance Human Resource Practices and Readiness for Change.

Managing employee attitude towards change with more readiness and less resistance is a primary plan for any change effort (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015). As there exists a strong association between HRM practices and employee behavior (Mossholder, Richardson, & Settoon, 2011), HR function can become an important change enabler within the organization (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015).

Researchers have focused on different attitudinal constructs that express employees' attitudes towards organizational change that act to enhance employees' acceptance and support organizational change initiatives, such as readiness for change, openness to change, commitment to change, and cynicism about organizational change (Choi & Ruona, 2010). Individuals' attitudes toward organizational change have real impact on change implementation and, therefore, are certainly critical for any change initiatives to be successful (Ibid).

SET theory can be used to understand the relationship between high performance human resource practices and employees' readiness for change. The social exchange perspective explains how employee perceptions of the HRM system are related to their behaviors[47] (Vu et al., 2020).

Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa (1986) proposed that employees develop beliefs regarding how the organization values their contributions and cares about their wellbeing. HRM practices may be perceived as an input into the social exchange process (Snape & Redman, 2010). When employees view HPHRM practices as benefits received from their organization, they reciprocate those benefits by engaging various positive attitudes ( Zhang et al., 2019). Employees who receive the organizations' long-term investment through HPHRM practices feel obligated to repay with discretionary role behaviors (Gong et al., 2010; Shaw et al., 2009; Sun et al., 2007; Vu et al., 2020). Readiness for change can be a part of that exchange, as employees could repay with discretionary role behaviors and those behaviors could include readiness for change.

47 For more details, see the title Supporting Theories - The Social-Exchange Theory (SET).

In addition, various studies have used other approaches for explaining the relationship between HPHRM practices and readiness to change, including:

1. ***Proactivity and vitality*** Tummers, Kruyen, Vijverberg, & Voesenek, (2013, 2015) assume that readiness for change can be achieved through vitality and proactivity and, that to adapt successfully to changing circumstances, it is important for employees to feel vital and be proactive so they will be able to help implement the proposed organizational changes. They note that certain experienced HPHRM practices are particularly effective for improving proactivity and vitality and, in turn, readiness for change.
   Organizations can foster proactivity and vitality using specific HR tools (e.g., training and development, feedback, autonomy, participation, and teamwork) (Ibid). Tummers et al. (2013) also suggest that readiness for change can be reached by approaching employees more actively utilizing HRM instruments. They affirm that readiness for change is enhanced by showing management support for the proposed change and capabilities to clearly communicate the proposed change's content (e.g., Armenakis et al. (1993); Cinite, Duxbury, & Higgins (2009). Jones et al. (2005) stated that focusing on cohesion and morale through enhancing training and development, open communication, and participation in decision-making leads to employees' realization of the values of strong human relationships in their departments, thus leading to higher levels of readiness for change.
2. ***Communications:*** Several scholars maintained that communication of the proposed change is the principal mechanism for causing organizational members willing and ready for change (Armenakis & Harris, 2002; Bernerth, 2004; Miller, Johnson, & Grau, 1994; Vakola, 2014). Communication is the main tool to cause organization members willing and ready for change, if the communication quality is poorly managed, people tend to be more cynical about the change process (Wardani et al., 2020).
   Bommer, Rich, & Rubin (2005) perceived that organization's clear and timely articulation of the vision behind the change is essential

in order to develop a felt need for change among its members. Employees who received useful, timely, and relevant information about organizational change perceived the change more positively and were more willing to keep pace with and support the change process (Hameed, Khan, Sabharwal, Arain, & Hameed, 2017; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). Persuasive media can be used to inform employees that change is necessary, must be achieved quickly and that we can make it, this message can be sent personally, or in written form (Armenakis & Fredenberger, 1997).

Using the classic three-step model of Lewin, Memon, Shah, & Khoso (2020) examined the role of communication for change in developing readiness for change and concluded that change communication practices creates an environment of trust that leads to employee readiness for change. Hameed et al., (2017) also underlines that involved communication play a positive role in developing employees' readiness for change.

As it decreases the uncertainty of the process, communication generate openness to change and other positive attitudes toward change (Bordia, Hobman, Jones, Gallois, & Callan, 2004). Maheshwari & Vohra (2015), suggested that because HR managers have complete information about employees, they can play a major role in designing and adopting communication systems. HR practices launched to establish trustful atmosphere and collaboration through open communication will produce positive employee perception, promoting readiness for change.

3. ***Employees participation :*** The extent to which employees are supported to participate in the change process is a fundamental dimension of this process (Holt et al., 2007). The opportunity to contribute and participate in an organizational change and enabling people to be heard and to express their concerns, has been considered an essential factor in creating positive beliefs to change (Achele, 2018); It is also an important tool for enabling the employees to understand, manage and learn how to apply components of the change. They will be more likely to feel positive about a decision in which they played a part (Ibid). Employees must

believe that their opinions are being heard, respected, and carefully considered (Reichers, Wanous, & Austin, 1997).

It is believed that encouraging employees to participate and enlisting their contributions consistently and sincerely enhances their commitment and performance, reduces their resistance to change, and makes them more willing to accept even unfavorable decisions (Bouckenooghe & Devos, 2007; Greenberg, 1987; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). Wanberg & Banas (2000) found that the high levels of participation were connected to beliefs that change would be beneficial for an organization. Latham, Winters, & Locke (1994); Macy, Peterson, & Norton (1989) emphasized the effect of participation on self-efficacy.

A number of researchers are of the view that participation contributes to the development of a positive attitude towards change (e.g., Eby et al., 2000; Rafferty & Simons, 2006; Terry & Callan, 1997), and to increase employees' acceptance of the change (e.g., Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Cunningham et al., 2002; Holt et al., 2007; Oreg et al., 2011). Several studies showed that engaging employees in decision-making procedures also enhances their work involvement and perceived level of self-control (e.g., Shirom, 2011; Tummers et al., 2013). Higher levels of participation resulted in a more positive view of the changes and in the view that the changes would be beneficial (Wanberg & Banas, 2000). Tummers et al. (2013) claimed that higher levels of perceived participation in decision-making stimulates proactive behavior and vitality, and thus readiness for organizational change.

The importance of communication and employees participation is also remarked by other scholars. Rafferty et al. (2013) point out that some research has focused on what they categorized as the internal context enablers of readiness for change, such as change participation as an indicator of an aspect of employee openness towards change and employee acceptance of the change (e.g., Wanberg & Banas, 2000). Other antecedents include effective communication with employees during change (e.g., Bordia, Hobman, Jones, Gallois, & Callan, 2004; Schweiger & DeNisi, 1991) and HRM practices intend to improve communication with employees. Hence, the effective HRM communication practices can be an enabler of employees' readiness for change.

Human Resource practices initiated to train employees continuously can play an important role in facilitating training and providing learning opportunities to employees which will create positive employee perception (Maheshwari & Vohra, 2015). In change processes, training enhances an organization's readiness for change, and booster training may be required to help in sustaining all aspects of change readiness over time (von Treuer et al., 2020).

Considering all the arguments described above, the following hypothesis could be stated:

Hypothesis 4: *High Performance Human Resource Practices are positively related to Readiness for Change.*

#### 3.3.3. Hypotheses development: Organizational commitment and readiness for change

Change theorists have acknowledged that commitment, in general, is an essential component of effective implementation of organizational change by featuring it prominently in models of the implementation process (e.g. Armenakis, Harris, & Field, 1999; Klein & Sorra, 1996). Particularly, researchers have noted that employees reach greater readiness for change when they feel committed to their organizations (Madsen et al., 2005; McKay et al., 2013).

Meyer & Herscovitch (2001) provided a general definition of commitment that can be adapted to any workplace commitment scenario. They note that "Commitment is a force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets" (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001: 301). They discussed that commitment's "core essence" should be the same despite the target of that commitment, and such commitment can be distinguished from exchange-based forms of motivations and the target relevant attitudes, commitment can influence behavior even in the absence of positive attitudes or extrinsic motivations.

Committed employees have a great desire to stay as members of the organization (Mathews & Shepherd, 2002). A committed employee will feel very attached to his organization and voluntarily adapt to the organization's values and will always be ready for any organizational changes that the organization adopts (Ahmad et al., 2017).

Cook & Wall, 1980) explained that there are three primary components of organizational commitment:

a) ***Identification***: employees' feeling of connection and pride in their organization. According to Joo (2010) commitment reflects the psychological bond an individual identifies with an organization.
b) ***Involvement***: how an employee perceives the contribution he/she makes to the organization and how they feel about it. It also includes an employee's effort for the organization (beyond personal gain) and their willingness to help despite additional demands of time or work.
c) ***Loyalty to the company***, usually determined by the employee's intentions to leave or stay, mainly if another organization offers him additional compensation. For some authors, commitment, can essentially appear as loyalty to the organization ( Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974; Steinhaus & Perry, 1996).

Loyalty to the organization influences employees' acceptance of the goals of the organization, also increasing employees willingness to make great efforts out of his desire to remain as a member of the organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Loyal employees are dedicated and have a strong acceptance and belief in the organization's goals and values (Mathews & Shepherd, 2002; Zangaro, 2001), including those related to change.

Employees' willingness to help their organization and loyalty inherent to committed employees make that committed employees display a readiness to exert significant effort on behalf of their organizations (Mathews & Shepherd, 2002).

In this line, in those organizations where the employees felt loyal, involved, and identified (i.e., committed) to their organizations, perceived higher readiness levels were found (Madsen et al., 2005). Madsen et al. (2005) suggested that increasing identification, involvement, and loyalty can influence readiness levels or in other words, employee readiness for change levels would be heightened when increasing organizational commitment. Herscovitch & Meyer (2002) argued that employees could feel bound to support organizational change either because they want to, and / or because they have to, and / or they ought to do so. These mindsets could be measured and distinguished from one other and from other mindsets related to other types of workplace commitment (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

Any form of commitment obligates the individual to the behaviors specified within the terms of this commitment. These behaviors include all forms of support the organization requires from employees (Meyer et al., 2007), including organizational change.

Since commitment is related to individuals' attitudes, beliefs, and intentions (Armenakis et al., 1993), and those individuals may differ in the motives and reasons behind their commitment to their organizations, the type of commitment will vary accordingly. Because readiness reflects the extent to which individuals are cognitively and emotionally inclined to accept, embrace, and intentionally adopt a particular plan to change the status quo (Holt et al., 2007), individuals' willingness to adopt change plans and strategies and their readiness to change can be influenced by the type of individual's commitment to their organizations.

According to Herscovitch & Meyer (2002), all three forms of organizational commitment would relate positively to compliance with the requirements for organizational change. Meyer et al. (2007) discussed this point, asserting that employees who have a strong affective commitment believe in the change and desire to contribute to its success; also, employees with strong normative commitment feel a sense of obligation to support the change and willing to do more than what is required of them, even if it means a kind of personal sacrifice. Moreover, they commented that employees with strong continuous commitment whose commitment to the change is based primarily on the perceived cost of failing to support the change will feel they should do a little more than is required (Ibid).

In terms of readiness for change, the type of commitment is relevant to explain readiness for change. In their general theory of workplace commitment, Meyer & Herscovitch (2001) argued that affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuous commitment must all interact in order to influence behavior; the effects of this interaction would be reflected in different behavior patterns for employees who will have different commitment profiles.

Meyer & Herscovitch (2001) suggested that non-discretionary behavior may differ for different profile groups. The probability of the behavior would be very high if one form of commitment were strong. In contrast, and unlike non-discretionary behavior, the likelihood of employees engaging in discretionary behavior will be high when affective commitment and/ or normative commitment is strong (Ibid). Herscovitch & Meyer (2002) found that the complete three forms of commitment were positively related to individuals willing to do what is minimally required by the organization for change implementation (i.e., compliance).

Although there have been assertions that behaviors related to organizational work such as commitment (e.g., Meyer, 2002; Meyer & Allen, 1988) are a fundamental construct in understanding organizational readiness for change, there has not been much empirical work testing the relationship between them (Nordin, 2011).

Meyer et al. (2007) underline the role of affective and normative commitment as employees with strong affective and normative commitment are likely to see value in their course of action; hence they are willing to do whatever is required to benefit the target of that action (e.g., organizational change initiative). Madsen et al. (2005) concluded that organizational commitment was strongly linked and positively related to perceived readiness for organizational change. In their study, Al-Abrrow & Abrishamkar (2013) examined the relationship between organizational commitment and readiness for change , among the full-time employees in three universities in Iraq. They found statistically significant positive relationships between the overall organizational commitment and overall readiness for organizational change, also between affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment, and readiness for organizational change. The strongest relationship in this study was between affective commitment and readiness for change (Ibid).

During organizational change programs, Sukirtharaj (2018), in his study, applied some individual and situational factors to examine employees' attitudes and behaviors in some government schools in Sri Lanka; found that the overall employee's commitment was statistically significant and positively related to the readiness for organizational change, and it was also found that each element of the employee's commitment to the organization was statistically significant and positively related to the readiness for change ( Ibid).

Nordin (2011) investigated the relationships of organizational commitment, emotional intelligence, and leadership behavior in influencing organizational readiness for change. Affective and normative commitment were found to be linked positively to organizational readiness for change (Nordin, 2011).

Qureshi & Waseem (2018) conducted a study among teaching and non-teaching staff of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in Karachi to examine the impact of employees' organizational commitment on readiness for change during the change process. The study concluded that affective commitment and continuance commitment significantly influence readiness for change.

McKay et al. (2013) explored the relationships between perceptions of change-related (affective commitment to a changing organization, adequacy of change-related communications, and the opportunity for participation in change); and change readiness and resistance among employees of some changing organizations in New Zealand and Australia. They found that affective organizational commitment was positively related to readiness for change (appropriateness, management support, self-efficacy, and personal valence). Also, affective commitment was directly related to lower intention to resist the change (Ibid).

Madsen et al., (2005) also claimed that some studies have found possible indirect correlations and connected organizational commitment and organizational readiness for change. Some researchers (e.g., Good, Page, & Young, 1996; Goulet & Singh, 2002; Tompson & Werner, 1997; Yoon & Thye, 2002; Zangaro, 2001) have found links between organizational commitment and variables like organizational support, job satisfaction and job involvement, and loyalty, all of which have expressed a possible indirect relationship, with readiness for change. Some other evidence suggested that affective commitment could play an essential role in organizational change acceptance (e.g., Iverson, 1996; Yousef, 2000) as cited in McKay et al. (2013).

In the light of all the arguments described above, the following hypothesis could be stated:

*Hypothesis 5: Affective Commitment is positively related to Readiness for Change.*

*Hypothesis 6: Continuance Commitment is positively related to Readiness for Change.*

*Hypothesis 7: Normative Commitment is positively related to Readiness for Change.*

### 3.3.4. Hypotheses development: Readiness for organizational change and individual work performance

During the last 40 years, the meaning of work performance in the field of organizational behavior has changed (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007). Although individual work performance has been a major topic for researchers over the past century (Koopmans et al., 2011), and despite a great deal of research on performance, it is embodied in a variety of separate and disconnected literature, each using its own set of combinations and theoretical lenses (Carpini, Parker, & Griffin, 2017; Koopmans et al., 2011).

Individual job performance, is defined as " behavior that is relevant to the goals of the organization and can be measured in terms of the level of the individual's contribution to those goals" (Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993). This definition imposes three concepts (Koopmans et al., 2011): a) work performance is multidimensional; b) work performance is determined in terms of behavior, not results and c) work performance is limited to those behaviors related to organizational goals. According to Viswesvaran, (2002) job performance is an abstract, latent construct that cannot be directly indicated or measured. It is made up of multiple dimensions, which in turn consist of indicators that can be measured directly (Koopmans et al., 2011).

Traditionally, evaluation of individual work performance has been based on the proficiency with which the individual performs the tasks defined in his or her job description (Griffin et al., 2007). Thus, a "well-specified job" was to include all the behaviors that contributed to organizational goal achievement in an individual's job description (Murphy & Jackson, 1999). Accordingly, effectiveness can then be evaluated, which is the outcomes achieved by carrying out these specific job behaviors (Campbell et al., 1993).

Two major changes in the nature of work and organizations namely increased interdependence and uncertainty in work systems (Howard, 1995), have affected traditional views of individual work performance (Ilgen & Pulakos, 1999).

As Campbell et al. (1993) and Murphy & Jackson (1999) explained, those early methods of doing work did not consider the full range of behaviors that contribute to effectiveness when systems are uncertain and interconnected. In response to this limitation, and to bridge this gap, new constructs have been introduced that include an expanded set of responsibilities such as citizenship performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and proactivity (M. A. Griffin et al., 2007).

Rotundo & Sackett (2002) claim that what is now prevalent in the performance literature are partially overlapping constructs. Griffin et al. (2007) adds that currently, there is no specific theoretical framework for distinguishing and integrating the different constructs that describe the individual performance and its association with effectiveness.

Examples that can be given about some of the main structures and currently in use frameworks and approaches that deal with the field of performance aspects and the work performance are: performance and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), job role behavior, career role behavior, innovator role behavior, team role behavior, organization role behavior (Welbourne, Johnson, & Erez, 1998), general proactive behavior, and the context-specific proactive behavior (Crant, 2000). Furthermore, Rotundo & Sackett (2002) identified three groups of behaviors that make up the domain of job performance, those behaviors include task performance, citizenship performance, and counterproductive performance, and Johnson (2003), suggested task performance, citizenship performance, and adaptive performance.

Pradhan (2017) classified employees' performance into three types: 1) task performance (performance described in the job description and employment contract), 2) adaptive performance (performance associated with the dynamic work situation, like technological changes), and 3) contextual performance (performance related to sustaining and developing prosocial or helping behavior).

Griffin et al. (2007) claims that no one of the different performance models embodies the spectrum of recent performance constructs or presents the rationale for defining the various dimensions or linking them to the context where work is performed. They developed a new work role model, suggesting that the context shapes and constrains the valued behaviors in organizations. Griffin et al. (2007) also identified uncertainty and interdependence as pervasive features of context the organizations must manage to be effective; these contextual features determine the types of valued behaviors in organizations.

Given the distinction between formalized and emergent roles, Griffin et al. (2007) identify three different work role performance subdimensions:

- ***Proficiency*****:** the extent to which an individual meets the role requirements that can be formalized, proficiency can be assessed when the work role requirements are formalized, and the judgments can be made against a clear standard.
- ***Adaptivity*****:** the extent to which the individual may adapt to changes in work roles or work system.
- ***Proactivity*****:** the extent to which the individual takes a self-directed action to anticipate or initiate change in the work roles or work system.

Pradhan (2017) urged that readiness for change aims essentially to increase employees' performance, which in turn enhances the organization's performance. Imam, Abbasi, Muneer, & Qadri (2013) declared that the most proximal result of all the change-related ability or readiness for change is likely to be effective implementation and better performance; therefore, readiness for change can predict performance (Lee & Lee, 2018; Lehman, Greener, & Simpson, 2002; Rafferty et al., 2013).

The consideration of some features of nowadays business environments such as competitive intensity, uncertainty and need of adaptation makes possible to understand the relationship between readiness and individual performance.

In many business contexts, technologies and customers' demands evolutes fast. Product life cycles tend to be shorter than years ago, supervisors place complex demands on employees and competitors are an emerging threat (Ceptureanu, 2016).

As competitiveness increases, uncertainty increases as well. Under intensive competition jobs, roles and tasks need to change quickly over time, making necessary employees be ready to adapt their roles and tasks to face uncertainty and competitiveness challenges (Carballo-Penela, Varela, & Bande, 2019). Employees ready for change are in a good position to deal with these challenges. Being ready for change can involve employees are in a better position than other colleagues to assume changes involved in activities such as exploring new markets, finding new ways of differentiation or innovating in products and processes (Auh & Menguc, 2005) usually required for having a good performance in competitive and uncertain environments. From this perspective, readiness for change can enhance employee's performance.

Particularly, the literature underlines readiness for change enhances individual performance when implementing change strategy or regarding organizational change issues. Some scholars have highlighted the role of readiness for change in enhancing employees' performance during change process. Readiness for change is related to the mindsets, beliefs, and attitudes of individuals towards change initiatives and their intentions towards supporting, participating, and performing in implementing change. This readiness does not come without the presence of motives, and the availability of abilities, and the opportunity for individuals to participate in the various stages of change. In line with the AMO theory, employees who feel a greater degree of readiness for change will perform better when implementing the change strategy.

Readiness for change involves altering the individuals' mindsets and convincing them about the necessity of change and the ability of their organization to implement it (Chrisanty, Gunawan, Wijayanti, & Soetjipto, 2021) and about confidence in the employee's own abilities or self-efficacy (Vakola, 2014).

Holt et al., (2007) defined readiness as employee's trust that they are able to implement the proposed changes (self-efficacy). Employees ready for change also believe that these changes are appropriate for the organization (appropriateness), that top management commits to these changes (management support), also believing that the proposed changes are to give advantage to organization's members (personal benefit). Employees ready for change also believe that such changes are expected to have positive implications for themselves and their wider organization (Chrisanty et al., 2021; Jones et al., 2005; Kwahk et al., 2008). This mindset forms the first two pillars of the AMO theory of Abilities and motivation. The ready individuals for change therefore will accept, embrace, and adopt changes plan (Asbari & Novitasari, 2020).

The employee who is ready for change realizes the importance of the change, the extent of its urgency to the organization, the importance of his role in this process, and the benefits that will result from this change, this will motivate this employee to perform what is required of him in the change initiative, also generating the motivation and the opportunity to participate in the change and to perform the role assigned to him in the change process (Chrisanty et al., 2021).

Chrisanty et al., (2021) claimed that readiness impacts individual performance, indicating that when employees recognize change as advantageous for them, and the risks associated with change are agreeable, this improves their efficacy to implement change and leads to better performance. As cited in Chrisanty et al., (2021), Helmy, Adawiyah, & Setyawati (2020) also emphasized that those employees whose organizations prepared them well to deal with change are ensured about the benefits and the risks of change, they are confident that their organization will help them overcome challenges and obstacles that may impede their performance (Chrisanty et al., 2021).

Furthermore, Weiner, (2009) claimed that readiness for change includes change efficacy and change commitment, which is essentially related to ability and willingness to implement change. In other words, readiness for change will encourage employees to implement change which ultimately leads to their increased performance added (Chrisanty et al., 2021).Moreover ready employees for change who are confident that their organization will help them to overcome challenges and obstacles which will assume risks which could enhance their performance.

Reviewing the antecedents and consequences of readiness for change in literature, Rafferty et al. (2013) identified job performance, as a key outcomes likely to result from individual readiness for change. When employees realize their organization is ready for change, they believe that it will support them to implement the change that ultimately increases their performance (Chrisanty et al., 2021). This is consistent with the findings of Weeks, Roberts, Chonko, & Jones (2004) who asserted that employees' (sales managers) perceptions about organization's readiness for change influence their level of performance. If employees realize that the organization fosters an environment that supports change efforts, they will be more willing to take risks and adopt change strategies that may increase their performance. Conversely, if they realize that the organization does not foster a supportive environment for change efforts, employees will be less willing to take risks and embrace change that may harm their performance.

Weeks et al.,(2004) found a positive and significant relationship between organizational readiness for change in sales organizations and job performance as they found that employees are likely to show higher performance when they feel their organizations are ready to implement change. Weeks et al.,(2004) added that employees' perception of their organization's readiness for change was significantly and positively related to the level of their own job performance. They explained these results claiming that the sales manager who perceives that his organization promotes an environment that supports change efforts will be more willing to take risks and adopt change strategies that may increase their performance. However, if they perceive that the organization does not foster an environment that supports change efforts, they will be less willing to take risks and embrace the change they view as probably hurting their performance.

In a study conducted in 468 branches of a state-owned bank in Indonesia, Chrisanty et al. (2021), investigated the influence of readiness for change on employees' performance in terms of: a) task performance (performance related to job description and employment contract), b) adaptive performance (performance related to dynamic work situation, such as technological changes), and c) contextual performance

(performance related to maintaining and developing prosocial or helping behavior). They concludes that readiness for change positively affects employees' performance, highlighting that readiness for change leads the employees to better performance, particularly task and contextual performances. Chrisanty et al. (2021) explained this relation, indicating that when employees recognize change as advantageous for them and the risks associated with change are agreeable, they are committed to change by improving their efficacy to implement change that leads to better performance.

Asbari, Hidayat, & Purwanto, (2021) investigated the effect of readiness for change on employees' performance in the Indonesian chemical industry. The results of this study confirmed that readiness for change and transformational leadership had a significant effect on employee performance. Besides readiness for change has a positively mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee performance.

Novitasari, Sasono, & Asbari (2020) concluded that readiness to change has a positive and significant effect on the employee performance of the packaging industry in Tangerang. They also found that readiness for change positively mediates on the relationship between work-family conflict and employee performance.

Furthermore, with similar results, readiness for change positively and significantly influenced employee performance and affected the relationship between transformational leadership and employee performance as a partial mediator (Novitasari, 2021).

In the light of all the arguments described above the following hypothesis is presented:

*Hypothesis 8: Readiness for Change is positively related to individual performance.*

### 3.3.5. Hypotheses development: The moderating effect of Organizational Hierarchical Culture on the relationship Between High Performance Human Resource Practice and Individual commitment

The literature on organizational culture reveals that a majority of writers believe that the concept of culture attributes to the shared values, underlying assumptions, expectations, and definitions that characterize organizations and their members (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). According to Deshpande & Webster, (1989:4) organizational culture is "the pattern of shared values and beliefs that help individuals understand organizational functioning and thus provide them with the norms for behavior in the organization".

Organizational culture guides the behavior appropriate to each context of the organization (Pinto da Silva et al 2018). Moreover, organizational culture explains why does a certain behavior occur (Trice & Beyer, 1993).

Schein (1992) proposed a model of organizational culture that consists of three different layers: 1) the underlying assumptions, 2) the values, and 3) the norms of behavior.

On a fundamental basis, employees' thoughts and behavior are guided and directed by the underlying assumptions (Kluckhohn, & Strodtbeck, 1961).

Values refer to employees' shared ideals concerning work behavior and outcomes (Campbell & Göritz, 2013). Those values guide how the employees daily act through standards (Stackman, Pinder, & Connor, 2000). Norms of behavior that employees share at their workplace manifest these values in implicit and explicit rules of accepted behavior (Campbell & Göritz, 2013). underlying assumptions form the basis of the values, and the values, in turn, influence employees' behavior through the norms explained Campbell & Göritz (2013)

O'reilly & Chatman (1996) believe that organizational culture is a system of shared values and norms that define how to feel and behave, where the norms define what is essential, while the shared values define the proper attitudes and behaviors for organizational members. They explained that organizational culture within groups and organizations represents a social control system that can influence members' focus of attention, shape their explanations of events, and guide members' attitudes and behavior.

These values and attitudes implied by the organizational culture are instilled through various practices and policies, such as HRM practices (Wei, Liu, & Herndon, 2011). Along with this understanding, the organizational culture influences the implementation of HRM practices by forming the mindset and shaping employees' behavior; the effective implementation of HRM is influenced by employees' mentality and attitudes derived from what the organization's culture implies and emphasizes (Ibid).

According to Becker & Saks (1996), HR has to be in tune with the uncertainties and ambiguities encountered in organizational change processes as well as sensitive to employees' emotional encounters throughout the change. As the success of organizational change and culture to support the change is reliant mainly on employees' attitude (Kotter, 1995; Martin, Jones, & Callan, 2006); HR function should build a comprehensive strategy to develop HR practices that create a supportive culture (Liebowitz, 2010), that in turn creates positive employee perception during change (Weber & Weber, 2001).

Quinn & Rohrbaugh (1981, 1983) and Cameron & Quinn (2006), suggested four types of culture which reflect mainly the relations among employees:

1. *The* ***Clan culture***: refers to a friendly and "cozy" working environment, the working force is sensed as an extended family and the superiors as mentors; the employees are display a high job and organization commitment and friendly relations.
2. *The* ***Adhocracy type***: this type of culture is described as innovation and risk-taking, and a highly creative and dynamic working environment.
3. *The* ***Market culture***: organizations with market culture strive to be highly competitive, while winning is the "glue" that keeps the employees and the organization together.
4. *The* ***Hierarchical culture***: this culture is well coordinated, governed by formal rules and policies.

Cameron & Quinn (2006) described the hierarchical culture as a formalized and structured culture, where managers excel at organization and coordination, and the tasks are managed based on definite procedures; hence, the conduct is more mature, stable, and cautious. Tseng (2011) added that such organizations usually tend not to take high risks or accept revolutions.

It usually consists of previously prescribed procedures and strict rules and routines that govern the employee behavior (Ogbeibu, Senadjki, & Gaskin, 2018). Acar & Acar (2012); Naranjo-Valencia, Jimenez-Jimenez, & Sanz-Valle (2017) conclude that the hierarchy Organizational culture is recognized for its bureaucratic values, which usually are unsupportive of employee creativity.

Organizations with hierarchical culture are typically based on control and power; they are stable, careful and mature, work is organized and systematic, organizations with a high bureaucracy are hierarchical, solid, cautious, power-oriented, established, regulated, structured, and procedural (Wallach, 1983).

They are also characterized by difficulty conveying information across managerial levels and isolating the information at higher levels, less flexibility, and more rigidity (Wei et al., 2011; Zaltman, 1979).

Cameron & Quinn (2006), affirmed that organizations with a dominant hierarchical culture endeavor stability and performance and seeks to maintain control, those organizations also have an internal focus to maintain an efficient smooth operation and dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low cost. Cameron & Quinn (2011) claimed that the core values of hierarchy culture focus on maintaining an efficient, speedy, consistent, steady flow of products or services.

Stability, reliability, and efficiency are fundamental in banks and credit institutions, as the application of formal rules and policies is essential in bank management as well as in customer-bank transactions to minimize the risk of mistake conduction. Under hierarchical cultures environments, each employee's authority and responsibilities are clearly defined, a definite rank of authority is established, and strict policies are applied (Belias & Koustelios, 2014).

Hence, banking industry has traditionally been dominated by companies characterized as clan and hierarchy-type organizations, existing multiple hierarchical levels, tightly integrated, highly regulated and controlled, and an old-boy network (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Like the profile of standardized parts producer, most banks have a mirror image of that profile is dominated by a hierarchy culture, with the adhocracy culture as the second most dominant (Ibid).

Al-Abdullat & Dababneh (2018) point out that although the development of organizational culture in Jordanian banks is still not stable or efficient, the hierarchy culture had the highest level in banks of Jordan, while the adhocracy culture had the lowest level in the context of organizational culture.

In the Saudi Arabian Banking Sector, Aldhuwaihi et al. (2012) found that the employees perceived the market type to be the most dominant culture and the hierarchical type to be the next dominant culture in their banks. Similarly, Chiloane-Tsoka (2013) claimed that although the First National Bank of Namibia has adopted all the four types of organizational culture, the dominant organizational culture in the Namibian bank was a hierarchical culture.

In randomly selected Greek banking and credit institutions, Belias & Koustelios (2013); Belias, Koustelios, Vairaktarakis, & Sdrolias (2015) found that the present dominant organizational culture of the institutions is a hierarchical culture, although employees preferred the clan type. The hierarchical culture is the typical type of culture for banks while adhocracy is usually the second type of culture found in Greek financial institutions (Belias & Koustelios, 2013; Belias et al., 2015).

Prior literature has explicated that organizational culture influences various variables as turnover intention and job satisfaction (e.g., Aldhuwaihi et al., 2012; Peter & Waterman, 2004), market-oriented behaviors (Hamzah, Othman, & Hassan, 2020), knowledge management (Al-Abdullat & Dababneh, 2018) and organizational commitment (Silverthorne, 2004).

In organizations whose dominant culture is the hierarchical culture, strict instructions and orders, may affect employees' behavior and negatively affect their commitment despite the efforts made by the management of the organization, including HR management practices.

A social exchange relationship between employees and their organization based in employees' perceptions of supportive environment generated by HPHRM practices, makes possible that HPHRM practices enhances organizational commitment (Blau, 1964).

However, employee's commitment would be negatively affected by any action taken to reduce individual responsibility (Salancik, 1977), restrict their freedom of action particularly when they are faced with influence attempts from others, that takes the form of arbitrary commands and orders (O'reilly & Chatman, 1996), and centralization of authority (Sommer, Bae, & Luthans, 1996) that limits the delegation of authority granted to employees.

Particularly, the hierarchical structures do not benefit commitment based on bonds of affection (Carvalho, Castro, Silva, & Carvalho, 2018). As hierarchical structures incorporate strict rules, policies, and rigid organizational structures, centralization, and restrictions inherent in a hierarchical culture can reduce employees' perception of the supportive environment promoted by HPHRM practices. The absence of POS would reduce employees' acceptance of organizational goals and values and also emotional attachment, identification and involvement in the organization (Sommer et al., 1996)

Psychological reactance theories also point that people have a strong desire to maintain their freedom of action. In hierarchical culture dominated environments, individuals display a strong interaction and alter their attitudes and behaviors in the opposite direction to those that are advocated when faced with influence attempts from others, especially when this takes the form of arbitrary commands or orders (O'reilly & Chatman, 1996).

Although prior research has largely ignored the moderating role of organizational culture in the relationship between HPHRM practices and organizational commitment , some researchers underline that in organizations with centralized work settings, employees have been found with lower commitment (Payne & Pugh, 1976). Sommer, Bae, & Luthans (1996) found that the Korean workers in organizations with higher centralization of authority reported a lower level of organizational commitment. They explained that centralization and restrictions could reduce the acceptance of organizational goals and values among employees.

In this line, Salancik (1977) asserted that organizational commitment would be adversely affected by any action taken to reduce individual responsibility. In contrast, a higher level of commitment was found among the employees in work environments with open, participative managers who provide positive feedback (Sommer et al., 1996). Goodman, Zammuto, & Gifford (2001), in their study that looked at the influence of organizational culture on the quality of work-life, found that hierarchical cultures were negatively associated with organizational commitment and job satisfaction, and at the same time, clan cultures were positively associated with organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Lok & Crawford (2001) found that organizational commitment was negatively influenced by a bureaucratic organizational culture, described as an autocratic working environment, lack of employee empowerment, and hierarchical decision making.

Based on the above discussion the following hypotheses are proposed:

*Hypothesis 9: Hierarchy Culture (negatively) moderates the relation of High-Performance Human Resource Practice in Affective Commitment.*

*Hypothesis 10: Hierarchy Culture (negatively) moderates the relation of High-Performance Human Resource Practice in Continuance Commitment.*

*Hypothesis 11: Hierarchy Culture (negatively) moderates the relation of High-Performance Human Resource Practice in Normative Commitment.*

# 4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY, DATA ANALYSIS, AND RESULTS

## 4.1. Methodology

In this section, we present the research methodology of the PhD thesis performed to test our theoretical hypotheses with data collected in an empirical study. Firstly, we describe the data collection procedures and measurement of constructs. Secondly, a description of the collected data is presented. Next, the research model and its sub-models are tested with Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), as well as Moderation analysis. ending this section with description of results for each mentioned analysis. All the mentioned analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 24 and IBM SPSS Amos 21.

### 4.1.1. Sample and data collection procedure

Because previous studies and literature mainly focuses on developed countries, it is very interesting to apply the proposed model in a developing country where the topic of this research was not tested before. Thus, Jordan was the country selected for this research.

Gathering data for the current study was conducted in 2020 among the primary population of our study that consists of the employees working in the banking sector operating in Jordan (Table 4.1).

**Table 4.1. Sample description**

| | |
|---|---|
| Population | Banking sector employees |
| Location | Jordan |
| Data collection procedure | Questionnaire data gathering via e-mailing, phone, and personal contacts |
| Respondent | Banking sector employees from various levels of responsibilities within companies. |
| Sampling procedure | Convenience sample (non-probabilistic) |
| Field work | March 2020-September 2020 |
| Population size | 21.262 employees (24 banks) |
| Sample size | 510 valid questionnaires |

The study targeted all employees who work in the banking sector in Jordan, regardless of whether these banks are local Jordanian commercial banks, branches of foreign commercial banks operating in Jordan, local Islamic, or foreign Islamic banks. (Table 4.2) shows detailed information about these banks and the number of their employees.

**Table 4.2 Banking sector in Jordan (the year 2018)**

| Type and nationality | Bank Name | Year | Capital (Million JD) | Branches in Jordan | Employees |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Jordanian Commercial Banks | Arab bank | 1930 | 641 | 78 | 3,133 |
| | Housing Bank for Trade & Finance | 1974 | 315 | 117 | 2,463 |
| | Bank of Jordan | 1960 | 200 | 75 | 1,583 |
| | Cairo Amman Bank | 1960 | 180 | 73 | 1,564 |
| | Jordan Ahli Bank | 1956 | 193 | 55 | 1,216 |
| | Jordan Kuwait Bank | 1977 | 100 | 64 | 1,201 |
| | Bank al Etihad | 1991 | 160 | 48 | 1.146 |
| | Jordan Commercial Bank | 1978 | 120 | 30 | 756 |
| | Arab Jordan Investment Bank | 1978 | 150 | 18 | 727 |
| | Capital Bank of Jordan | 1996 | 200 | 14 | 608 |
| | Arab Banking Corporation (Jordan) ABC | 1989 | 110 | 27 | 529 |
| | INVESTBANK | 1989 | 100 | 12 | 415 |
| | Société Générale de Banque Jordanie | 1993 | 100 | 19 | 320 |
| Foreign Commercial Banks | BLOM Bank | 2004 | 50 | 16 | 416 |
| | Egyptian Arab Land Bank | 1951 | 50 | 14 | 333 |
| | Bank Audi | 2004 | 50 | 14 | 254 |
| | Standard Chartered | 2002 | 61 | 5 | 159 |
| | National Bank of Kuwait | 2004 | 50 | 1 | 63 |
| | Citi Bank | 1974 | 50 | 2 | 57 |
| | Bank Alrafedain | 1957 | 50 | 2 | 25 |
| Jordanian Islamic Banks | Jordan Islamic Bank | 1978 | 180 | 76 | 2.405 |
| | Islamic International Arab Bank | 1997 | 100 | 45 | 960 |
| | Safwa Islamic Bank | 2009 | 100 | 33 | 608 |
| Foreign Islamic Bank | Al-Rajhi Bank | 2011 | 50 | 10 | 321 |
| **TOTAL** | **24 Banks** | ------- | **3.360** | **848** | **21.262** |

*Elaborated from Association of Banks In Jordan (ABJ), (2019).*

To collect data, a structured questionnaire was developed emerging from an extensive review of the literature (sources of measures from the literature are presented in the next section). The validity of the elements' content was evaluated by academic, and long-experience bank employees in the Jordanian banking sector pre-tested the questionnaire.

The data were collected from the employees one by one regardless of the bank they work at. The total number of banks operating in Jordan is 24, while the number of employees who work in these banks is (21.262).

Due to the conditions of the Corona pandemic at the beginning of 2020, which coincided with the period of beginning the distribution of printed paper questionnaires and the result of the complete closure and the curfew and movement in Jordan, and for a period of more than two months, the printed forms of the questionnaires were completely replaced by Google Forms.

The bank employees were contacted through the official pages of their banks and through the special groups of bank employees on social media, and by communicating with a large number of respondents via e-mail, phone, and through the researcher's personal contacts to encourage them to respond to the questionnaire. The data used in the current analysis were collected in Jordan during the period from March 2020 to September 2020, resulting in a total of 516 answers. After eliminating non-valid questionnaires, 510 were valid questionnaires.

We examined the possibility of nonresponse bias by using the guidelines of Armstrong and Overton (1977) to test for significant differences between early and late respondents. We defined early responses as the first 75% of returned questionnaires and considered the last 25% late responses and representative of firms that did not respond to the survey (Weiss & Heide, 1993). We performed a series of t-tests with these two groups on several key firm characteristics, such as year of establishment (p=0.491), capital (p=0.065), number of branches (p=0.200), and number of employees (p=0.126), and the results indicated no significant differences between respondents and nonrespondents, at the 0.05 level, suggesting that nonresponse bias was not a problem.

### 4.1.2. Measurement of constructs: questionnaire development and scale

Through the extensive analysis of literature review with pieces of advice of various experts in the field of Human Resource Management and organizational change and banking sector in Jordan, we developed a structured questionnaire for data collection.

The questionnaire items' content validity was evaluated by five academic experts in the field of human resources management and organizational change, and the questionnaire was pre-tested by twenty bank employees with long experience in the Jordanian banking sector.

The questionnaire was initially developed in English and then translated into Arabic under the supervision of native speakers of both languages. Then another translation agency did a reverse translation from Arabic to English. After that, a coordination meeting took place between the two translators in order to agree on the final version of the translation in its Arabic version.

A pilot survey was conducted in two steps: in a first step, by presenting the questionnaire to a number of university professors in Jordan with experience in human resource management and organizational change, to avoid any mistakes and misunderstandings in Arabic translation that may appear. During the pilot survey, an explanation of some of the survey terms was provided in the questionnaire. In a second step, a preliminary test was conducted when we asked several expert employees in the banking sector in Jordan to investigate the questionnaire to determine any questions that might be confusing or difficult to answer, or any terms that are unfamiliar to their profession or that could be misunderstood. These tests led to some minor adjustments that were intended to clarify and improve the wording and understanding of the various items included in the questionnaire.

To operationalize the variables, all the items for the questionnaire were taken from the previous studies in the field, and therefore are pre-validated scales.

The survey variables consist of 2 or more items for each sub-variable construct based on a 5-point Likert scale where "1" means "strongly disagree" and "5" means "strongly agree". For reversed items that were part of the current study survey, the Likert scale was also reversed. The aforementioned is true for all variables of the current study except questions regarding demographics.

The sub-variables containing two items such as some HRM practices (e.g., employment security) are extensively studied in several previous research investigations and the items selected are well functioning in previous research. However, our research interest is in the area of their connection with other variables under the current study.

Table 4.3 shows the different dimensions and variables considered, the items corresponding to their variables, including the literature sources for each scale and item.

**Table 4.3 Measurement of constructs: dimensions, sources of scales and items**

| Dimensions | Sub Variable | Sources | Items |
|---|---|---|---|
| High performance Human Resource Practices | Selective Staffing (STA) | Sun, Aryee & Law (2007) | **STA 1:** Great effort is taken to select the right person. |
| | | | **STA 2:** Long-term employee potential is emphasized. |
| | | | **STA 3:** Considerable importance is placed on the staffing process. |
| | | | **STA 4:** Very extensive efforts are made in selection. |
| | Extensive Training (TRA) | Sun et al. (2007) | **TRA 1:** Extensive training programs are provided for individuals in customer contact or front-line jobs. |
| | | | **TRA 2:** Employees in customer contact jobs will normally go through training programs every few years. |
| | | | **TRA 3:** There are formal training programs to teach new hires the skills they need to perform their job. |
| | | | **TRA 4:** Formal training programs are offered to employees in order to increase their promotability in this organization. |
| | Employ-ment Security (SET) | Sun et al. (2007) | **SEC 1:** Employees in this job can be expected to stay with this organization for as long as they wish. |
| | | | **SEC 2:** Job security is almost guaranteed to employees in this job. |
| | Clear Job Description (DES) | Sun et al. (2007) | **DES 1:** The duties in this job are clearly defined. |
| | | | **DES 2:** This job has an up-to-date description. |
| | | | **DES 3:** The job description for a position accurately de scribes all of the duties performed by individual employees. |

| Dimensions | Sub Variable | Sources | Items |
|---|---|---|---|
| High performance Human Resource Practices | Results-Oriented Appraisal (APP) | Sun et al. (2007) | **APP 1:** Performance is more often measured with objective quantifiable results. |
| | | | **APP 2:** Performance appraisals are based on objective quantifiable results. |
| | | | **APP 3:** Employee appraisals emphasize long term and group-based achievement. |
| | Incentive Reward (REW) | Sun et al. (2007) | **REW 1:** Employees in this job receive bonuses based on the profit of the organization. |
| | | | **REW 2:** Close tie or matching of pay to individual/group performance. |
| | Participation (PAR) | Sun et al. (2007) | **PAR 1:** Employees in this job are often asked by their supervisor to participate in decisions |
| | | | **PAR 2:** Employees in this job are allowed to make decisions. |
| | | | **PAR 3:** Employees are provided the opportunity to suggest improvements in the way things are done. |
| | | | **PAR 4:** Supervisors keep open communications with employees in this job. |
| | Communication (COM) | Mostafa, Gould-Williams & Bottomle (2015) | **COM 1:** The communication between me and other employees at work is good. |
| | | | **COM 2:** Management keeps me well informed of how well the organization is doing. |
| | | | **COM 3:** The communication between me and the managers/supervisors at work is good. |
| | | | **COM 4:** Employees in my organization regularly receive formal communication regarding company goals and objectives. |
| | | | **HIE 5:** The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important. |
| | | | **HIE 6:** The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical. |

| Dimensions | Sub Variable | Sources | Items |
|---|---|---|---|
| High performance Human Resource Practices | Affective Commitment (AFF) | Allen & Meyer )1990) | **AFF 1:** I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization. |
| | | | **AFF 2:** I enjoy discussing about my organization with people outside it. |
| | | | **AFF 3:** I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own. |
| | | | **AFF 4:** I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. (Reversed) |
| | | | **AFF 5:** I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization. (Reversed) |
| | | | **AFF 6:** I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization. (Reversed) |
| | | | **AFF 7:** This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. |
| | | | **AFF 8:** I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organization. (Reversed) |
| | Continuance Commitment (CON) | Allen & Meyer )1990) | **CON 1:** I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up. (Reversed) |
| | | | **CON 2:** It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to. |
| | | | **CON 3:** Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now. |
| | | | **CON 4:** It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now. (Reversed) |
| | | | **CON 5:** Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire. |
| | | | **CON 6:** I feel that I have very few options to consider leaving this organization. |
| | | | **CON 7:** One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives. |
| | | | **CON 8:** One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice -another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here. |

| Dimensions | Sub Variable | Sources | Items |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Normative Commitment (NOR) | Allen & Meyer )1990) | **NOR 1:** I think that people these days move from company to company too often. |
| | | | **NOR 2:** I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization. (Reversed) |
| | | | **NOR 3:** Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me. (Reversed) |
| | | | **NOR 4:** One of the major reasons I continue to work in this organization is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain. |
| | | | **NOR 5:** If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organization. |
| | | | **NOR 6:** I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization. |
| | | | **NOR 7:** Things were better in the days when people stayed in one organization for most of their careers. |
| | | | **NOR 8:** I do not think that to be a "company man" or "company woman" is sensible anymore. (Reversed) |

| Dimensions | Sub Variable | Sources | Items |
|---|---|---|---|
| High performance Human Resource Practices | Kondakçi, Zayim, & Çalışkan (2013) | | **REA 1:** I find change refreshing. |
| | | | **REA 2:** The change will help me to do my work better. |
| | | | **REA 3:** Proposed changes are generally designed to improve my organizations. |
| | | | **REA 4:** I desire to see change efforts in my organization. |
| | | | **REA 5:** In general, I don't like change. (Reversed) |
| | | | **REA 6:** Change generally discomforts me. (Reversed) |
| | | | **REA 7:** Change discourages me to work. (Reversed) |
| | | | **REA 8:** Change encourages me to make more efforts in my work. |
| | | | **REA 9:** I want to do my best for the success of change process. |
| | | | **REA 10:** I want to devote myself to the change process. |
| | | | **REA 11:** I try to implement the proposed changes. |
| | | | **REA 12:** Change contributes to elimination of deficiencies in the Bank. |
| | Individual task proficiency (PRF) | Griffin & Parker (2007) | **PRF 1:** I Carried out the core parts of my job well. |
| | | | **PRF 2:** I Completed my core tasks well using the standard procedures. |
| | | | **PRF 3:** I Ensured my tasks were completed properly. |
| | Individual task adaptivity (ADP) | Griffin & Parker (2007) | **ADP 1:** I Adapted well to changes in core tasks. |
| | | | **ADP 2:** I Coped with changes to the way I have to do my core tasks. |
| | | | **ADP 3**: I Learned new skills to help me adapt to changes in my core tasks. |

| Dimensions | Sub Variable | Sources | Items |
|---|---|---|---|
| High performance Human Resource Practices | Individual task proactivity (PRV) | Griffin & Parker (2007) | **PRV 1** I Initiated better ways of doing my core tasks. |
| | | | **PRV 2** I Come up with ideas to improve the way in which my core tasks are done. |
| | | | **PRV 3** I Made changes to the way my core tasks are done. |
| | Hierarchy Culture (HIE) | Cameron & Quinn (2011) | **HIE 1:** The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do. |
| | | | **HIE 2:** The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency. |
| | | | **HIE 3:** The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships. |
| | | | **HIE 4:** The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important. |

Naming each dimension, the source of scales was as follows:

All High-performance Human Resource Practices except for communications were measured using items taken from Sun et al. (2007) as follows:

- Selective Staffing 4 items, Extensive Training 4 items, Employment Security 2 items, Clear Job Description 3 items, Results-Oriented Appraisal 3 items, Incentive Reward 2 item, Participation 4 items.

Communication 4 items taken from Mostafa et al. (2015) that was based on Kehoe & Wright (2013); Morgeson & Humphrey (2006).

Organizational Commitment is measured by 24 items evenly distributed among three sub-variables: Affective Commitment eight items, Continuance Commitment eight items, and Normative Commitment eight items, the whole 24 items were adapted from Allen & Meyer( 1990).

Readiness for Change was measured by twelve items taken from Kondakçı, Zayim, & Çalışkan (2013) that was based on the work of

Bouckenooghe & Broeck (2009); Piderit (2000). This scale measures individual readiness for change.

Individual Performance includes nine items: three items to measure Individual task proficiency, three items to measure individual task adaptivity and three items for Individual task proactivity all the nine items were taken from Griffin & Parker (2007).

Organizational culture was based on Cameron & Quinn (2011) using six items for Hierarchy Culture.

## 4.2. Analysis and Results

### 4.2.1. Descriptive Analysis

#### 4.2.1.1. Sample Description: Companies and respondents' profile

In this section, sample description is presented. A univariate analysis is performed to summarize the company profile variables and those related to the respondent profile.

##### *4.2.1.1.1. Company profile*

Before going in-depth through the main constructs of the survey, some filter questions were directed to identify company and respondent profile. Consequently, participants were asked to indicate their bank name, the type of the bank, year of establishment. number of the bank branches, the bank capital, employees total (see next tables).

The study targeted all employees in the whole 25 banks operating in Jordan:

- 13 Jordanian commercial banks employ 15.661 employees, representing 73.66% of the total number of employees in this sector.
- 8 Foreign commercial banks provide their services in Jordan through 54 branches employing 1,307 employees, representing 6.15% of the total employees in the banking sector in Jordan.
- 3 Jordanian Islamic banks own 154 branches, employing 3.973 employees. And by 18.69% of the total workers in the sector.

- Finally, one foreign Islamic bank owns 10 branches, in which 321 employees are employed, at a rate of 1.5% of the total number of the Jordanian banking sector employees.

The number of Valid Responses amounted to 510 responses distributed to banks according to their type as follows (Table 4.4):

- The number of respondents working in Jordanian commercial banks reached 343 employees, constituting 67.3% of valid responses.
- The responses from employees who work in foreign commercial banks were 52 responses, with 10.2% valid answers.
- The number of responses among the employees working in Jordanian Islamic banks was 88 respondents, and they constituted 17.3% of the total valid responses.
- The number of responses from the employees working in the only foreign Islamic bank in Jordan was six responses, with a rate of 1.2% of the valid answers.
- Among the responses, there were nine responses from employees working in financial institutions other than banks, such as exchange companies (3), Jordan central bank (4), and those Jordanian employees work at foreign Banks that do not work in Jordan (2) responses, they all formed a rate of 1.7%.
- In addition to 12 complete responses, through which the respondents declined to mention the bank's name they work in for their own reasons, they formed a ratio of 2. 4% of the total valid responses.

**Table 4.4. Company profile: Bank types**

| | Frequency (N) | Percentage (%) | Valid percentage (valid %) | Accumulated percentage (Cumulative%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Jordanian Commercial Bank | 343 | 67.3 | 67.3 | 67.3 |
| Foreign Commercial Bank | 52 | 10.2 | 10.2 | 77.5 |
| Jordanian Islamic Bank | 88 | 17.3 | 17.3 | 94.7 |
| Foreign Islamic Bank | 6 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 95.9 |
| Other | 9 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 97.6 |
| Unknow | 12 | 2.4 | 2.5 | 100.0 |
| Total | 510 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

The number of respondents (valid responses) regarding banks' lists according to the size of the bank, the number of its employees, the bank's capital, and the year of establishment (Table 4.5) were distributed as follows:

- Four hundred eighty-nine valid responses were received from employees who were distributed over banks operating in Jordan.
- These banks had their years of establishment ranging between 1930 and 2011, the Mean was 1973.22 and Standard Deviation of 22,229.
- The capital of these banks ranged between 50 million Jordanian dinars (JD), (about 58 million Euros)[48], up to 641 million JD (about 743 million Euros), 196.69 was the Mean and 145.355 the Standard Deviation.
- The number of branches for each bank ranged between one branch to 117 branches, the Mean was 54.72, and 28.620 the Standard Deviation.
- While the number of employees employed by these banks ranged between 63 employees, who are employees of the National Bank of Kuwait who owns one branch and its management and 3133 employees in the Arab Bank, the average was approximately 1349 employees Standard Deviation 821,685.

48 According to the currency exchange rate in mid-February (14 / Feb / 1 (2021JD = 1.16 euros.

**Table 4.5 Banks' General Information**

| | Frequency (N) | Min | Max | Mean | St. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bank Year | 489 | 1,930 | 2,011 | 1,973,22 | 22.229 |
| Bank.CAP | 489 | 50 | 641 | 196,69 | 145.355 |
| Bank.Branches | 493 | 1 | 117 | 54.72 | 28.620 |
| Bank Employees | 493 | 63 | 3,133 | 1,348,95 | 821.685 |

Table 4.6 shows in detail the valid responses from each bank's employees and the percentage of respondents from each bank to the total of 510 valid responses.

**Table 4.6 Valid responses from employees of each bank**

| | Frequency (N) | Percentage (%) | Valid percentage (valid %) | Accumulated percentage (Cumulative%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Foreign Bank that does not Operate in Jordan | 2 | .4 | .4 | .4 |
| Al-Rajhi Bank | 6 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 1.6 |
| Arab Bank | 37 | 7.3 | 7.3 | 8.8 |
| Arab Banking Corporation (Jordan) ABC | 14 | 2.7 | 2.7 | 11.6 |
| Arab Jordan Investment Bank | 14 | 2.7 | 2.7 | 14.3 |
| Bank al Etihad | 17 | 3.3 | 3.3 | 17.6 |
| Bank Audi | 4 | .8 | .8 | 18.4 |
| Bank of Jordan | 28 | 5.5 | 5.5 | 23.9 |
| BLOM Bank | 29 | 5.7 | 5.7 | 29.6 |
| Cairo Amman Bank | 16 | 3.1 | 3.1 | 32.7 |
| Capital Bank of Jordan | 7 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 34.1 |
| Central Bank of Jordan | 4 | .8 | .8 | 34.9 |
| Egyptian Arab Land Bank | 13 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 37.5 |
| Housing Bank for Trade & Finance | 43 | 8.4 | 8.4 | 45.9 |

| | Frequency (N) | Percentage (%) | Valid percentage (valid %) | Accumulated percentage (Cumulative%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| INVESTBANK | 6 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 47.1 |
| Islamic International Arab Bank | 27 | 5.3 | 5.3 | 52.4 |
| Jordan Ahli Bank | 120 | 23.5 | 23.5 | 75.9 |
| Jordan Commercial Bank | 10 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 77.8 |
| Jordan Islamic Bank | 26 | 5.1 | 5.1 | 82.9 |
| Jordan Kuwait Bank | 28 | 5.5 | 5.5 | 88.4 |
| National Bank of Kuwait | 6 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 89.6 |
| Other Financial Companies | 3 | .6 | .6 | 90.2 |
| Safwa Islamic Bank | 35 | 6.9 | 6.9 | 97.1 |
| Société Générale de Banque Jordanie | 3 | .6 | .6 | 97.6 |
| Unknown | 12 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 100.0 |
| Total | 510 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

##### *4.2.1.1.2. Respondent Profile*

In the current section, a sample description will be provided that includes a brief description of the respondent employee.

A univariate analysis was performed to describe the variants of the respondent profile. Six demographic filter questions were developed in order to define the respondent profile. These are the age, gender, employment status if active or retired, educational level, period of time the person has been working at the bank (in years), and the position held by the respondent employee in the bank.

Most of the respondents were aged between 18 and 39 (69.6%), while the percentage of employees over the age of 60 was the lowest (0.6%), (Table 4.7).

**Table 4.7 Respondents' profile: Age**

| | Frequency (N) | Percentage (%) | Valid percentage (valid %) | Accumulated percentage (Cumulative%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 18-29 | 133 | 26.1 | 26.1 | 26.1 |
| 30-39 | 222 | 43.5 | 43.5 | 69.6 |
| 40-49 | 101 | 19.8 | 19.8 | 89.4 |
| 50-59 | 51 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 99.4 |
| 60 or over | 3 | .6 | .6 | 100.0 |
| Total | 510 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

The percentage of females among the respondents was 32%, and the male respondents were 68%, (Table 4.8).

**Table 4.8 Respondents' profile: Gender**

| | Frequency (N) | Percentage (%) | Valid percentage (valid %) | Accumulated percentage (Cumulative%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Male | 347 | 68.0 | 68.0 | 68.0 |
| Female | 163 | 32.0 | 32.0 | 100.0 |
| Total | 510 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

98.8% of the respondents were active employees in banks operating in Jordan, while the rest of the sample (1.2%) were retired bank employees, (Table 4.9).

**Table 4.9 Respondents' profile: Active**

| | Frequency (N) | Percentage (%) | Valid percentage (valid %) | Accumulated percentage (Cumulative%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Active | 504 | 98.8 | 98.8 | 98.8 |
| Retired | 6 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 100.0 |
| Total | 510 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Most of the employees who responded to the questionnaire were holders of a bachelor's degree (75.3%), followed by holders of a master's degree (17.1%), (Table 4.10).

**Table 4.10 Respondents' profile: EDUCATION**

| | Frequency (N) | Percentage (%) | Valid percentage (valid %) | Accumulated percentage (Cumulative%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Less than a community college diploma | 3 | .6 | .6 | .6 |
| Community College Diploma | 21 | 4.1 | 4.1 | 4.7 |
| Bachelor's Degree | 384 | 75.3 | 75.3 | 80.0 |
| Master | 87 | 17.1 | 17.1 | 97.1 |
| PhD | 15 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 100.0 |
| Total | 510 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

The duration of the respondents 'experience in working in the banking sector in Jordan was concentrated in the range between less than five years and up to 15 years of experience, with a percentage of 71.2% of the total respondents (Table 4.11).

**Table 4.11 Respondents' profile: TENURE**

| | Frequency (N) | Percentage (%) | Valid percentage (valid %) | Accumulated percentage (Cumulative%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Less than 5 years | 98 | 19.2 | 19.2 | 19.2 |
| 5-10 years | 152 | 29.8 | 29.8 | 49.0 |
| 11-15 years | 113 | 22.2 | 22.2 | 71.2 |
| 16-20 years | 54 | 10.6 | 10.6 | 81.8 |
| 21-25 years | 46 | 9.0 | 9.0 | 90.8 |
| 26 years and above | 47 | 9.2 | 9.2 | 100,0 |

All the respondents held various job positions, but the concentration of the largest number of respondents was distributed among the lower and middle positions of the career ladder, the percentage of employees distributed between the positions of Bank Teller, Administration employee up to the Assistant Manager of Department was about 83.5% (Table 4.12).

**Table 4.12 Respondents' profile: POSITION**

| | Frequency (N) | Percentage (%) | Valid percentage (valid %) | Accumulated percentage (Cumulative%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bank Teller | 34 | 6.7 | 6.7 | 6.7 |
| Administration employee | 135 | 26.5 | 26.5 | 33.1 |
| Customer Service Officer | 32 | 6.3 | 6.3 | 39.4 |
| Assistant Branch / Section Manager | 66 | 12.9 | 12.9 | 52.4 |
| Branch / Section Manager | 116 | 22.7 | 22.7 | 75.1 |
| Assistant Manager of a Department | 43 | 8.4 | 8.4 | 83.5 |
| Department manager | 63 | 12.4 | 12.4 | 95.9 |
| Executive Director | 18 | 3.5 | 3.5 | 99.4 |
| Other | 3 | .6 | .6 | 100.0 |
| Total | 510 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

#### 4.2.1.2. Theoretical Constructs: Univariate Analysis

In the present section, theoretical constructs are described by the univariate analysis. Each dimension is presented in the following tables.

##### *4.2.1.2.1. High Performance Human Resource Practices*

Regarding Clear Job Description, this group includes three items (DES1, DES2, DES3). All items show a higher mean than the average value (3.00) As shown in the Table 4.13, on the top of the category is (DES2): "This job has an up-to-date description" (3.62).' and on the lowest of the category are (DES1): "The duties in this job are clearly defined" and "DES3": "The job description for a position accurately describes all of the duties performed by individual employees"(3,50).

**Table 4.13 Univariate Analysis: Clear Job Description**

| | Frequency (N) | Min | Max | Mean | St. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| DES1 The duties in this job are clearly defined. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.50 | 1.116 |
| DES2 This job has an up-to-date description. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.62 | 1.150 |
| DES3 The job description for a position accurately de scribes all of the duties performed by individual employees. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.50 | 1.162 |

Talking about "Communication" this group includes four items (COM1, COM2, COM3, and COM4). As shown in the Table 4.14, all the means are above average value (3.00). The greatest mean value is taken by the item (COM1) "The communication between me and other employees at work is good" which shows the indicator (3.67), while the lowest average value is (COM2) "Management keeps me well informed of how well the organization is doing" with an average value of (3.36).

**Table 4.14 Univariate Analysis: Communication**

| | Frequency (N) | Min | Max | Mean | St. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| COM1 The communication between me and other employees at work is good. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.67 | 1.076 |
| COM2 Management keeps me well informed of how well the organization is doing. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.36 | 1.106 |
| COM3 The communication between me and the managers/supervisors at work is good. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.56 | 1.094 |
| COM4 Employees in my organization regularly receive formal communication regarding company goals and objectives. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.38 | 1.150 |

With respect to Result-Oriented Appraisal which includes three items, all items show a higher mean than the average value (3.00) as shown in the Table 4.15. The greatest mean value is taken by the item (APP1) "Performance is more often measured with objective quantifiable results" which shows the indicator (3.25), while the lowest average value is (APP3) "Employee appraisals emphasize long term and group-based achievement" with an average value of (3.12).

**Table 4.15 Univariate Analysis: Result-Oriented Appraisal**

| | Frequency (N) | Min | Max | Mean | St. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| APP1 Performance is more often measured with objective quantifiable results | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.25 | 1.161 |
| APP2 Performance appraisals are based on objective quantifiable results. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.19 | 1.153 |
| APP3 Employee appraisals emphasize long term and group-based achievement | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.12 | 1.161 |

Incentive Reward consist of two items (REW1) "Employees in this job receive bonuses based on the profit of the organization" was the greatest Mean (3.14) And the other item (REW2) "Close tie or matching of pay to individual/group performance" was the lowest Mean of category (2,94) as shown in Table 4.16.

**Table 4.16 Univariate Analysis: Incentive Reward**

| | Frequency (N) | Min | Max | Mean | St. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| REW1 Employees in this job receive bonuses based on the profit of the organization | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.14 | 1.191 |
| REW2 Close tie or matching of pay to individual/group performance | 510 | 1 | 5 | 2.94 | 1.145 |

Regarding Employment Security, this group includes two items (SEC1, SEC2). Both items show a higher mean than the average value (3.00). (SEC2) "Job security is almost guaranteed to employees in this job" was the highest Mean (3.17), while the item (SEC1) "Employees in this job can be expected to stay with this organization for as long as they wish" was the lowest Mean of category (3.11) (Table 4.17).

**Table 4.17 Univariate Analysis: Employment Security**

| | Frequency (N) | Min | Max | Mean | St. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| SEC1 Employees in this job can be expected to stay with this organization for as long as they wish. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.11 | 1.139 |
| SEC2 Job security is almost guaranteed to employees in this job. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.17 | 1.245 |

Talking about "Selective Staffing" this group includes four items (SAT1, SAT2, SAT3, and SAT4). As shown in the Table 4.18, all the means are above average value (3.00). The greatest mean value is taken by the item (STA3) "Considerable importance is placed on the staffing process." which shows the indicator (3.58), while the lowest average value is (STA1) "Great effort is taken to select the right person." with an average value of (3.36).

**Table 4.18 Univariate Analysis: Selective Staffing**

| | Frequency (N) | Min | Max | Mean | St. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| STA1 Great effort is taken to select the right person. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.17 | 1.133 |
| STA2 Long-term employee potential is emphasized. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.35 | 1.155 |
| STA3 Considerable importance is placed on the staffing process. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.58 | 1.129 |
| STA4 Very extensive efforts are made in selection. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.31 | 1.105 |

Extensive Training contains four items (TRA1), (TRA2), (TRA3), and (TRA4). As shown in the Table 4.19, all the means are above average value (3.00). The greatest mean value is taken by the item (TRA3) "There are formal training programs to teach new hires the skills they need to perform their job" (3.66), while the item (TRA4) "Formal training programs are offered to employees in order to increase their promotability in this organization" got the lowest average value (3.21).

**Table 4.19 Univariate Analysis: Extensive Training**

| | Frequency (N) | Min | Max | Mean | St. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| TRA1 Extensive training programs are provided for individuals in customer contact or front-line jobs. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.51 | 1.128 |
| TRA2 Employees in customer contact jobs will normally go through training programs every few years. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.47 | 1.153 |
| TRA3 There are formal training programs to teach new hires the skills they need to perform their job | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.66 | 1.138 |
| TRA4 Formal training programs are offered to employees in order to increase their promotability in this organization | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.21 | 1.161 |

Regarding "Participation", this group as shown includes four items (Par1), (PAR2), (PAR3), and (Par4). The greatest mean value is taken by the item (PAR4) "Supervisors keep open communications with employees in this job" (3.34) and the lowest average value was (2.89) for (PAR2) "Employees in this job are allowed to make decisions" which was below the average value (3.00) while the rest two items were above the average value (Table 4.20).

**Table 4.20 Univariate Analysis: Participation**

| | Frequency (N) | Min | Max | Mean | St. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| PAR1 Employees in this job are often asked by their supervisor to participate in decisions | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.01 | 1.135 |
| PAR2 Employees in this job are allowed to make decisions | 510 | 1 | 5 | 2.89 | 1.139 |
| PAR3 Employees are provided the opportunity to suggest improvements in the way things are done | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.25 | 1.133 |
| PAR4 Supervisors keep open communications with employees in this job | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.34 | 1.126 |

### *4.2.1.2.2. Commitment, Readiness for change, and Individual Performance*

Organizational commitment was measured via three sub variables a) Affective Commitment (Table 4.21), b) Continuance commitment (Table 4.22), c) Normative Commitment (Table 4.23).

Affective Commitment was covered by eight items (AFF1), (AFF2), (AFF3), (AFF4), (AFF5), (AFF6), (AFF7), and (AFF8). AFF4, AFF5, AFF6 and AFF8 are reversely coded items (Table 4.21). As shown in the Table 4.21 all the means are above average value (3.00). The greatest Mean value is taken by the item (AFF8) "I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organization" which shows the indicator (3.75). The lowest Mean value demonstrates (AFF1) "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization" with the Mean value of (3.04) then (AFF4) "I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one" with the Mean value of (3.09).

**Table 4.21 Univariate Analysis: Affective Commitment**

| | Frequency (N) | Min | Max | Mean | St. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFF1 I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.04 | 1.291 |
| AFF2 I enjoy discussing about my organization with people outside it. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.38 | 1.197 |
| AFF3 I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.37 | 1.234 |
| AFF4 I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. (Reversed) | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.09 | 1.170 |
| AFF5 I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization. (Reversed) | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.60 | 1.224 |
| AFF6 I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization. (Reversed) | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.51 | 1.223 |
| AFF7 This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.48 | 1.194 |
| AFF8 I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organization. (Reversed) | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.75 | 1.221 |

Eight items were used to measure the variable Continuance Commitment (CON1), (CON2), (CON3), (CON4), (CON5), (CON6), (CON7), and (CON8). The items CON1 and CON4 are reversely coded items. As shown in the Table 4.22 all the means are above average value (3.00). The greatest Mean value is taken by the item (CON4) "It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now" which shows the Indicator (3.53), while the lowest Mean represents (CON8) "One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice -another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here" with a Mean value of (3.21).

**Table 4.22 Univariate Analysis: Continuance Commitment**

| | Frequency (N) | Min | Max | Mean | St. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| CON1 I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up. (Reversed) | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.50 | 1.269 |
| CON2 It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.33 | 1.289 |
| CON3 Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.28 | 1.299 |
| CON4 It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now. (Reversed) | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.53 | 1.220 |
| CON5 Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.41 | 1.136 |
| CON6 I feel that I have very few options to consider leaving this organization. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.29 | 1.208 |
| CON7 One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.37 | 1.181 |
| CON8 One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice -another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.21 | 1.144 |

Normative Commitment was covered by eight items (NOR1), (NOR2), (NOR3), (NOR4), (NOR5), (NOR6), (NOR7), and (NOR8). The items NOR2, NOR3, and NOR8 are reversely coded items. The mean values fluctuate around above average (3.00), not going lower than (2.59) for NOR5 "If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organization" and not getting higher than (3.34) for NOR8 "I do not think that to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore" (Table 4.23).

**Table 4.23 Univariate Analysis: Normative Commitment**

| | Frequency (N) | Min | Max | Mean | St. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NOR1 I think that people these days move from company to company too often. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.27 | 1.100 |
| NOR2 I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization. (Reversed) | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.32 | 1.161 |
| NOR3 Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me. (Reversed) | 510 | 1 | 5 | 2.62 | 1.192 |
| NOR4 One of the major reasons I continue to work in this organization is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.18 | 1.158 |
| NOR5 If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organization. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 2.59 | 1.211 |
| NOR6 I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.17 | 1.173 |
| NOR7 Things were better in the days when people stayed in one organization for most of their careers. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 2.94 | 1.121 |
| NOR8 I do not think that to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore. (Reversed) | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.34 | 1.295 |

With respect to Readiness for Change Table 4.24 shows that the group includes twelve items (REA1), (REA2), (REA3), (REA4), (REA5), (REA6), (REA7), (REA8), (REA9), (REA10), (REA11), and (REA12).

The items REA5, REA6, and REA7 are reversely coded items. All Mean values are above average value (3.00): the lowest value is 3.52. The lowest mean value demonstrates item (REA3) “Proposed changes are generally designed to improve my organizations”, and the highest Mean value of 4.88 shows item (REA9) “I want to do my best for the success of change process”.

**Table 4.24 Univariate Analysis: Readiness for Change**

| | Frequency (N) | Min | Max | Mean | St. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| REA 1: I find change refreshing. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.77 | 1.099 |
| REA 2: The change will help me to do my work better. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.85 | 1.026 |
| REA 3: Proposed changes are generally designed to improve my organizations. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.52 | 1.058 |
| REA 4: I desire to see change efforts in my organization. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.77 | 1.027 |
| REA 5: In general, I don’t like change. (Reversed) | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.55 | 1.211 |
| REA 6: Change generally discomforts me. (Reversed) | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.56 | 1.174 |
| REA 7: Change discourages me to work. (Reversed) | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.71 | 1.109 |
| REA 8: Change encourages me to make more efforts in my work. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.81 | 1.003 |
| REA 9: I want to do my best for the success of change process. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.88 | 1.012 |
| REA 10: I want to devote myself to the change process. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.73 | 1.009 |
| REA 11: I try to implement the proposed changes. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.83 | 1.000 |
| REA 12: Change contributes to elimination of deficiencies in the Bank. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.86 | .970 |

Regarding Individual performance, Table 4.25 shows that the group includes nine items: (PRF1), (PRF2), (PRF3), (ADP1), (ADP2), (ADP3), (PRV1), (PRV2), and (PRV3). As shown in Table 4.25 all Mean values are above average value (3.00). The greatest Mean value (4.06) is taken by three items: PRF1 "I Carried out the core parts of my job well", PRF2 "I Completed my core tasks well using the standard procedures" and PRF3 "I Ensured my tasks were completed properly". The lowest Mean value is (3.82) for PRV3 "I Made changes to the way my core tasks are done".

**Table 4.25 Univariate Analysis: Individual Performance**

| | Frequency (N) | Min | Max | Mean | St. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| PRF1 I Carried out the core parts of my job well. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 4.06 | 1.041 |
| PRF2 I Completed my core tasks well using the standard procedures. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 4.06 | .982 |
| PRF3 I Ensured my tasks were completed properly. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 4.06 | .975 |
| ADP1 I Adapted well to changes in core tasks. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.97 | .972 |
| ADP2 I Coped with changes to the way I have to do my core tasks. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 4.00 | .936 |
| ADP3 I Learned new skills to help me adapt to changes in my core tasks. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.92 | 1.011 |
| PRV1 I Initiated better ways of doing my core tasks. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.94 | .970 |
| PRV2 I Come up with ideas to improve the way in which my core tasks are done. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.87 | 1.019 |
| PRV 3 I Made changes to the way my core tasks are done. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.82 | .986 |

##### *4.2.1.2.3. Organizational Culture*

The following table represents the organizational Hierarchy culture (Table 4.26). As shown in Table 4.26 the hierarchy group contains six items (HIE1), (HIE2), (HIE3), (HIE4), (HIE5), and (HIE6). All the means are above average value (3.00). The greatest Mean value is taken by the item (HIE1) "The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do" which shows the indicator (3.82). The lowest Mean value demonstrates (HIE3)

“The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships” with the Mean value of (3.42).

**Table 4.26 Hierarchy Culture**

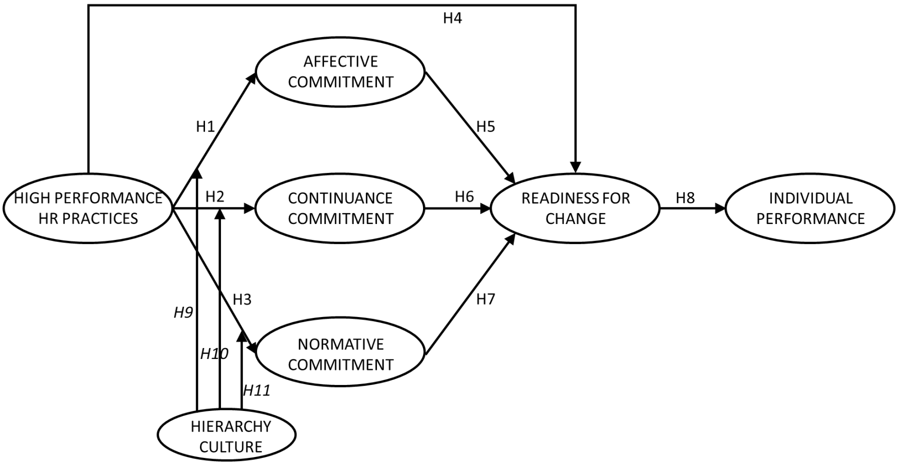
| | Frequency (N) | Min | Max | Mean | St. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| HIE1 The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.82 | 1.111 |
| HIE2 The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.55 | 1.073 |
| HIE3 The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.42 | 1.088 |
| HIE4 The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.67 | 1.023 |
| HIE5 The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.52 | 1.080 |
| HIE6 The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical. | 510 | 1 | 5 | 3.53 | 1.061 |

### 4.2.2. Hypotheses Testing

#### 4.2.2.1. Conceptual Model and Exploratory Factor Analysis

Next Figure presents our conceptual model, summarizing our research hypotheses.

**Figure 4.1 Conceptual Model Research Framework: graphical description**




Trying to identify the dimensions underlying the High-Performance Human Resource Practices, an Exploratory Factor Analysis was performed, using the Principal Component Analysis as the extraction method. Firstly, according to Bartlett's test (11,186.491; p=0.000), the null hypothesis that the matrix of correlation coefficients between the items analysed for HPHRP is an identity matrix is rejected, what means that there are significant intercorrelations between those variables; secondly, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistic presents a high value (KMO=0.960). Altogether, these results show a strong correlation structure, so that an Exploratory Factor Analysis can be carried out (Hair, Babin, Anderson, & Black, 2018).

**Table 4.27 Exploratory Factor Analysis: KMO Measure and Bartlett's Test**

| | |
|---|---|
| **KMO** | 0.960 |
| **Chi-Square** | 11.186.491 |
| **Df** | 325 |
| **Sign.** | 0.000 |

Based on the criterion that eigenvalues may be higher than unity, five dimensions were extracted, with a total variance explained of 72.76%, which can be considered a good level for a factor analysis of an exploratory nature, as in this case. In order to facilitate the interpretation of the factorial matrix, Varimax rotation was applied. The resulting factorial matrix is shown in the following table:

**Table 4.28 Exploratory Factor Analysis: Rotated Component Matrix and Total Variance Explained**

| | DIMENSION | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| COM1 | **.753** | .082 | .198 | .291 | .287 |
| COM3 | **.724** | .163 | .210 | .192 | .387 |
| DES2 | **.721** | .286 | .354 | .215 | .065 |
| DES3 | **.679** | .382 | .319 | .281 | .127 |
| DES1 | **.617** | .372 | .255 | .297 | .120 |
| COM2 | **.585** | .389 | .161 | .235 | .340 |
| COM4 | **.559** | .410 | .149 | .305 | .233 |
| REW2 | .083 | **.747** | .144 | .179 | .307 |
| REW1 | .206 | **.703** | .082 | .286 | .183 |
| APP3 | .323 | **.657** | .361 | .116 | .235 |
| APP1 | .380 | **.629** | .401 | .176 | .164 |
| APP2 | .414 | **.625** | .390 | .145 | .213 |
| SEC1 | .307 | **.430** | .300 | .226 | .225 |
| SEC2 | .382 | **.416** | .200 | .310 | .134 |
| STA1 | .177 | .200 | **.784** | .167 | .279 |
| STA4 | .260 | .214 | **.753** | .239 | .261 |
| STA2 | .269 | .269 | **.688** | .245 | .176 |
| STA3 | .360 | .216 | **.633** | .346 | .115 |
| TRA2 | .250 | .228 | .170 | **.769** | .182 |
| TRA1 | .293 | .235 | .250 | **.768** | .137 |
| TRA3 | .351 | .190 | .244 | **.751** | .191 |

| | DIMENSION | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| TRA4 | .182 | .245 | .392 | **.583** | .325 |
| PAR2 | .166 | .235 | .232 | .197 | **.782** |
| PAR1 | .146 | .378 | .118 | .114 | **.736** |
| PAR3 | .363 | .201 | .312 | .237 | **.665** |
| PAR4 | .451 | .164 | .324 | .238 | **.615** |
| TVE | 18.48% | 15.46% | 14.05% | 12.78% | 11.99% |
| D TVE | 18.48% | 33.94% | 47.99% | 60.77% | 72.76% |
| Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser normalization. | | | | | |

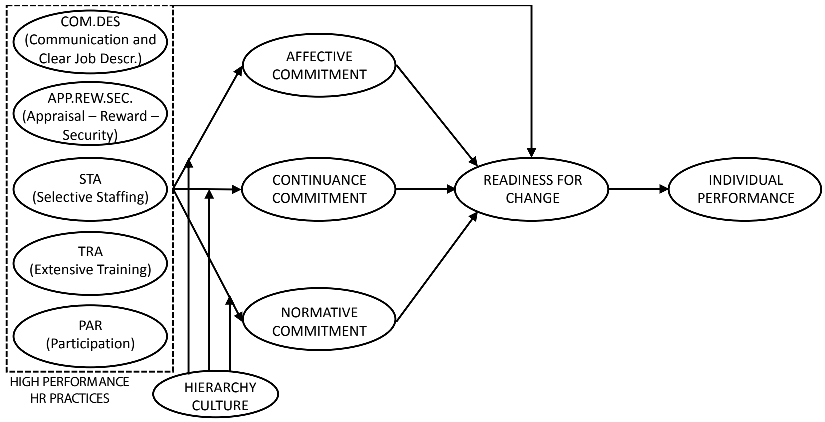
With these results, now we proceed to the interpretation of the factors identified, based on the observable variables associated with each of them, ordered by the total variance explained of each dimension. Thus, factor 1 is named HP.com.des, since it captures those items related with the high practices of Communication and Clear Job Description. Factor 2 is named HP.app.rew.sec, and it captures those items related with the high practices of Results-Oriented Appraisal, Reward, and Security. Factor 3 is named HP.sta, because it captures solely those items related with the high practices of Selective Staffing. Factor 4 is named HP.tra, because it is related only with those items of the high practices of Extensive Training. Finally, factor 5 is named HP.par, since it captures those items related with the high practices of Participation.

Thus, Exploratory Factor Analysis shows that the data obtained from empirical study fits the theoretical dimensions of High-Performance Human Resource Practices, with two first factors that join related HR practices, and three other factors matching with single HR practices. Based on these results, the subsequent analysis to develop for hypotheses testing will consider these 5 dimensions of High-Performance Human Resource Practices[49].

49 Therefore, each theoretical hypothesis will be disaggregated for testing following this notation: *Ha* for *HP.com.des* (Communication and Clear Job Description), *Hb* for *HP.app.rew.sec* (Results-Oriented Appraisal, Reward and Security), *Hc* for *HP.sta*, (Selective Staffing), *Hd* for *HP.tra*, (Extensive Training), and *He* for *HP.par*, (Participation).

This way, next Picture presents the main model developed for the empirical analysis, adapting the conceptual model with the dimensions of High-Performance Human Resource Practices derived from the previous Exploratory Factor Analysis:

**Figure 4.2 Conceptual Model Summary (for Empirical Analysis): Graphical Description**




### 4.2.2.2. Hypotheses testing: Sub-Model 1

#### *4.2.2.2.1. Sub-Model 1: Scales, Reliability, and Validity*

Firstly, we tested the existence of common method bias following two different tests to determine the extent of variance. On the one hand, based on the Harman one-factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) the results showed that a single general factor did not account for most variance in an exploratory factor analytic (only 20.01%), indicating that the presence of common method variance was unlikely to be significant. On the other hand, based on the approach of Podsakoff et al. (2003) a new sub-model with all the observed variables loading on one factor was re-estimated, and the results were unacceptable (Chi-square=14,128.944; df=1,430; RMSEA=0.132). Altogether, these results suggested that common method bias was not a problem in this study.

Content validity was established through a comprehensive literature review and by consulting experienced scholars and academics, ensuring that the measures satisfied the requirements for content validity. The pre-test with banking sector employees was also made. Discriminant validity, convergent validity, and scale reliability were assessed with confirmatory factor analysis, following (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988) guidelines. The results from the estimation of CFA (Table 4.29) show that the overall chi-square for this sub-model was 1,112.425 with 510 degrees of freedom. We examined four measures of fit, comparative fit index (CFI=0.964), incremental fit index (IFI=0.964), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI=0.958), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA=0.048), which are inside conventional cut-off values (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000), so we deemed the sub-model acceptable.

**Table 4.29 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (sub-model 1): summary measurement results, validity, and reliability**

| | Standardized Loadings |
|---|---|
| **HP.com.des (CR=0.872; AVE=0.695; CA=0.884)** | |
| **DES2** This job has an up-to-date description. | 0.814 |
| **DES3** The job description for a position accurately de scribes all of the duties performed by individual employees. | 0.878 |
| **COM3** The communication between me and the managers/supervisors at work is good. | 0.808 |
| **HP.app (CR=0.920; AVE=0.794; CA=0.918)** | |
| **APP1** Performance is more often measured with objective quantifiable results. | 0.907 |
| **APP2** Performance appraisals are based on objective quantifiable results. | 0.930 |
| **APP3** Employee appraisals emphasize long term and group-based achievement. | 0.833 |
| **HP.sta (CR=0.888; AVE=0.664; CA=0.893)** | |
| **STA1** Great effort is taken to select the right person. | 0.789 |
| **STA2** Long-term employee potential is emphasized. | 0.804 |
| **STA3** Considerable importance is placed on the staffing process. | 0.823 |
| **STA4** Very extensive efforts are made in selection. | 0.842 |
| **HP.tra (CR=0.898; AVE=0.689; CA=0.896)** | |

| | Standardized Loadings |
|---|---|
| **TRA1** Extensive Training programs are provided for individuals in customer contact or front-line jobs. | 0.860 |
| **TRA2** Employees in customer contact jobs will normally go through training programs every few years. | 0.798 |
| **TRA3** There are formal training programs to teach new hires the skills they need to perform their job. | 0.886 |
| **TRA4** Formal training programs are offered to employees in order to increase their promotability in this organization. | 0.771 |
| **HP.par (CR=0.872; AVE=0.696; CA=0.872)** | |
| **PAR1** Employees in this job are often asked by their supervisor to participate in decisions. | 0.761 |
| **PAR2** Employees in this job are allowed to make decisions. | 0.874 |
| **PAR3** Employees are provided the opportunity to suggest improvements in the way things are done. | 0.863 |
| **AFF.COM. (CR=0.906; AVE=0.708; CA=0.905)** | |
| **AFF1** I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization. | 0.843 |
| **AFF2** I enjoy discussing about my organization with people outside it. | 0.898 |
| **AFF3** I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own. | 0.799 |
| **AFF7** This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. | 0.822 |
| **REA (CR=0.936; AVE=0.745; CA=0.933)** | |
| **REA8** Change encourages me to make more efforts in my work. | 0.801 |
| **REA9** I want to do my best for the success of change process. | 0.893 |
| **REA10** I want to devote myself to the change process. | 0.842 |
| **REA11** I try to implement the proposed changes | 0.917 |
| **REA12** Change contributes to elimination of deficiencies in the Bank. | 0.857 |
| **PRF (CR=0.962; AVE=0.739; CA=0.963)** | |
| **PRF1** I Carried out the core parts of my job well | 0.893 |
| **PRF2** I Completed my core tasks well using the standard procedures. | 0.880 |
| **PRF3** I Ensured my tasks were completed properly. | 0.897 |
| **ADP1** I Adapted well to changes in core tasks. | 0.904 |
| **ADP2** I Coped with changes to the way I have to do my core tasks. | 0.875 |
| **ADP3** I Learned new skills to help me adapt to changes in my core tasks. | 0.868 |
| **PRV1** I Initiated better ways of doing my core tasks. | 0.877 |

| | Standardized Loadings |
|---|---|
| **PRV2** I Come up with ideas to improve the way in which my core tasks are done. | 0.791 |
| **PRV3** I Made changes to the way my core tasks are done. | 0.736 |
| **HIE (CR=0.932; AVE=0.696; CA=0.931)** | |
| **HIE1** The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do. | 0.819 |
| **HIE2** The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency. | 0.850 |
| **HIE3** The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships. | 0.774 |
| **HIE4** The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important. | 0.860 |
| **HIE5** The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important. | 0.865 |
| **HIE6** The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical. | 0.833 |

**MODEL FIT SUMMARY**
**Chi-square=1,112.425; df=510; CMIN/DF=2.181**
**CFI=0.964; IFI=0.964; TLI=0.958; NFI=0.936**
**RMSEA=0.048**
***Note:***
*CR: Composite Reliability; AVE: Average Variance Extracted; CA: Cronbach Alpha*
***Notation:***
*HP.com.des: Communication and Clear Job Description; HP.app: Results-Oriented Appraisal; HP.sta: Selective Staffing; HP.tra: Extensive Training; HP.par: Participation; AFF.COM: Affective Commitment; REA: Readiness for Change; PRF: Individual Performance; HIE: Hierarchy Culture*

To assess convergent validity we observed individual loadings, and the results show that all items load on their specified latent variables and that each loading is large and significant, thus indicating convergent validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). To assess discriminant validity, we observed construct intercorrelations, and the results show that they were significantly different from 1, and that the shared variance between any two constructs (square of their intercorrelations) was less than the average variance explained in the items by the construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Next table shows that intercorrelations are smaller than square root of AVE, indicating that discriminant validity is adequate for all latent variables. Finally, as shown in previous table, regarding reliability all constructs presented acceptable levels of composite reliability (CR), considerably exceeding the level of 0.60 recommended by (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988): Communication and Clear Job Description (CR=0.872), Results-Oriented Appraisal, (CR=0.920), Selective Staffing (CR=0.888), Extensive Training (CR=0.898), Participation (CR=0.872), Affective Commitment (CR=0.906), Readiness for Change (CR=0.936), Individual Performance (CR=0.962), and Hierarchy Culture (CR=0.932). In terms of variance extracted, all latent variables exceeded the recommended level of the average variance extracted (0.50). Therefore, results show that the indicators were sufficient and adequate in terms of how the measurement sub-model was specified for all latent variables.

**Table 4.30 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (sub-model 1): Correlations between constructs and AVE**

| CONSTRUCT | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | AVE |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. HP.com.des | **0.834** | | | | | | | | | 0.695 |
| 2. HP.app | 0.833 | **0.891** | | | | | | | | 0.794 |
| 3. HP.sta | 0.810 | 0.772 | **0.815** | | | | | | | 0.664 |
| 4. HP.tra | 0.788 | 0.686 | 0.767 | **0.830** | | | | | | 0.689 |
| 5. HP.par | 0.810 | 0.732 | 0.772 | 0.729 | **0.834** | | | | | 0.696 |
| 6. AFF.COM | 0.644 | 0.583 | 0.594 | 0.596 | 0.620 | **0.841** | | | | 0.708 |
| 7. REA | 0.480 | 0.314 | 0.379 | 0.446 | 0.351 | 0.376 | **0.863** | | | 0.745 |
| 8. PRF | 0.557 | 0.357 | 0.494 | 0.499 | 0.440 | 0.487 | 0.668 | **0.860** | | 0.739 |
| 9. HIE | 0.745 | 0.641 | 0.667 | 0.657 | 0.621 | 0.737 | 0.481 | 0.570 | **0.834** | 0.696 |

***Note****: Diagonal is the square root of the AV*
***Notation:***
*HP.com.des: Communication and Clear Job Description; HP.app: Results-Oriented Appraisal; HP.sta: Selective Staffing; HP.tra: Extensive Training; HP.par: Participation; AFF.COM: Affective Commitment; REA: Readiness for Change; PRF: Individual Performance; HIE: Hierarchy Culture*

#### *4.2.2.2.2. Sub-Model 1: Testing of Direct Effects*

Based on the complexity of the model and the need to test the direct relationships between the different constructs at the same time, we used Structural Equation Modelling by using the maximum likelihood method. Following this procedure, the hypothesized sub-model 1, including only the direct effects, was estimated having the results that are shown in next table.

**Table 4.31 Structural Equation Modelling (sub-model 1): direct effects (model fit summary and standardized parameters estimates)**

| RELATIONS | INDEP | DEP | Stand. Par. Estimate | *p*-value | Signific. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| H1a | HP.com.des | AFF.COM | 0.242 | 0.045 | * |
| H1b | HP.app | AFF.COM | 0.065 | 0.433 | *ns* |
| H1c | HP.sta | AFF.COM | 0.069 | 0.440 | *ns* |
| H1d | HP.tra | AFF.COM | 0.157 | 0.039 | * |
| H1e | HP.par | AFF.COM | 0.213 | 0.010 | ** |
| H4a | HP.com.des | REA | 0.601 | 0.000 | *** |
| H4b | HP.app | REA | -0.299 | 0.003 | ** |
| H4c | HP.sta | REA | 0.008 | 0.935 | *ns* |
| H4d | HP.tra | REA | 0.211 | 0.017 | * |
| H4e | HP.par | REA | -0.147 | 0.126 | *ns* |
| H5 | AFF.COM | REA | 0.122 | 0.046 | * |
| H8 | REA | PRF | 0.564 | 0.000 | *** |

*MODEL FIT SUMMARY*
**Chi-square=1,145.163; df=515; CMIN/DF=2.224**
**CFI=0.962; IFI=0.963; TLI=0.957; NFI=0.934**
**RMSEA=0.049**

***Note:*** ** p<0.05; ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001; ns: not significant.*
***Notation:***
*HP.com.des: Communication and Clear Job Description; HP.app: Results-Oriented Appraisal; HP.sta: Selective Staffing; HP.tra: Extensive Training; HP.par: Participation; AFF.COM: Affective Commitment; REA: Readiness for Change; PRF: Individual Performance*

The fit indexes were inside the conventional cut-off values, thus the sub-model was deemed acceptable (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000): chi-square=1,145.163, d.f.=515; CFI=0.962; IFI=0.963; TLI=0.957; RMSEA=0.049. Next, we examine the test of hypotheses proposed in our sub-model.

On the one hand, we found support for the positive influence of Communication and Clear Job Description on Affective Commitment (H1a), which returned estimated coefficient of 0.242 ($p<0.05$), for the positive influence of Extensive Training on Affective Commitment (H1d), which returned estimated coefficient of 0.157 ($p<0.05$), and for the positive influence of Participation on Affective Commitment (H1e), which returned estimated coefficient of 0.213 ($p<0.01$).

By contrast, we could not test a significant relation for the direct effect of Results-Oriented Appraisal on Affective Commitment (H1b), which returned estimated coefficient of 0.065 (ns), and for the influence of Selective Staffing on Affective Commitment (H1c), with estimated coefficient of 0.069 (ns).

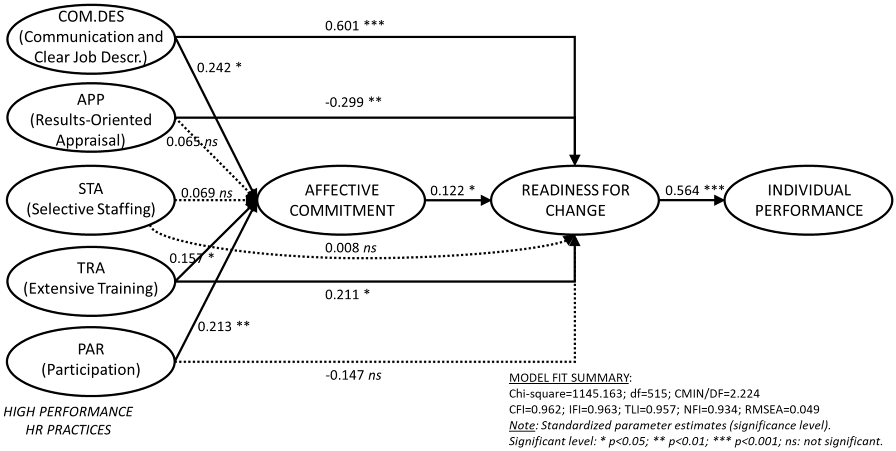
In addition, we also found support for a positive relation of Communication and Clear Job Description and Readiness for Change (H4a), which returned estimated coefficient of 0.601 ($p<0.001$), and for a positive relation of Extensive Training and Readiness for Change (H4d) which returned estimated coefficient of 0.211 ($p<0.05$).

On the other hand, we could not find a significant effect of Selective Staffing on Readiness for Change (H4c), with estimated coefficient of 0.008 (ns), and for the effect of Participation on Readiness for Change (H4e), with an estimated coefficient of -0.147 (ns). At last, we could not find a positive influence of Results-Oriented Appraisal on Readiness for Change (H4b), which returned estimated coefficient of -0.299 ($p<0.01$).

Finally, Affective Commitment showed a positive influence on Readiness for Change (H5) which returned estimated coefficient of 0.122 ($p<0.05$), and Readiness for Change also showed a positive influence on Individual Performance (H8), which returned estimated coefficient of 0.564 ($p<0.001$).

To sum up the result regarding the direct effects hypothesized in sub-model 1, next figure shows the conceptual relationships and the estimated parameters, as well as model fit indexes.

**Figure 4.3 Structural Equation Modelling (sub-model 1): direct effects (graphical description)**




### *4.2.2.2.3. Sub-Model 1: Testing of Moderating Effects*

To test the moderating hypotheses, an additional analysis was conducted for each high-performance HR practice with significant influence on Affective Commitment, using the PROCESS macro for SPSS of Hayes (2017). This procedure is appropriate when it is important to analysing the mechanisms through which one variable influence another variable, as well as to know the conditions in which this relationship may happen. In addition, this method allows to use bootstrapping, a procedure recommended to avoid problems arising from the non-normal distribution of data and, particularly, those related to small samples, by using bootstrap confidence intervals for hypothesis testing (Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). To facilitate the interpretability of the coefficients, the variables involved in the interaction term were mean-centered (Hayes, 2017).

Thus, next table shows the results of the analysis of moderation for sub-model 1 (model 7 of Hayes, 2017), presenting, for each High-Performance HR practice with significant influence on Affective Commitment, the non-standardized parameters and confidence intervals for interaction, as well as the test of unconditional interaction, the conditional effects of each high-performance HR practices on Affective

Commitment at different values of the moderator (Hierarchy Culture), and, finally, the Johnson-Neyman significant region(s).

**Table 4.32 Moderating Effects (sub-model 1): parameters estimates and confidence intervals for interaction, test of unconditional interaction, conditional effects and Johnson-Neyman significance region/s**

| **Moderating Effects of HIE of HPHRP – AFF.COM** | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **HPHRP: HP.com.des** | **Effect** | **SE** | ***p*** | **LLCI** | **ULCI** |
| Interaction | **0.090***** | 0.031 | *0.004* | *0.028* | *0.151* |
| Test of Unconditional Interaction (D $R^2$) | 0.007*** | *F=8.810* | *p=0.004* | | |
| **Conditional Effects of HP.com.des on AFF.COM** | **Effect** | **SE** | ***p*** | **LLCI** | **ULCI** |
| HIE: low value (1.200) | -0.177** | *0.088* | *0.047* | *-0.347* | *-0.002* |
| HIE: medium value (3.833) | 0.062 *ns* | *0.061* | *0.311* | *-0.059* | *0.181* |
| HIE: high value (4.800) | 0.148** | *0.075* | *0.049* | *0.001* | *0.322* |
| **Johnson-Neyman significance region/s** | **Effect** | **HIE** | **% below** | **% above** | |
| *Sign of HPHRP - AFF.COM Condit. Effect below HIE* | - | 1.244 | 2.745 | --- | |
| *Sign of HPHRP - AFF.COM Condit. Effect above HIE* | + | 4.785 | --- | 8.824 | |
| **HPHRP: HP.tra** | **Effect** | **SE** | ***p*** | **LLCI** | **ULCI** |
| Interaction | **0.051** *ns* | 0.032 | *0.113* | *-0.012* | *0.114* |
| Test of Unconditional Interaction (D $R^2$) | 0.002 *ns* | *F=2.515* | *p=0.113* | | |
| **HPHRP: HP.par** | **Effect** | **SE** | ***p*** | **LLCI** | **ULCI** |
| Interaction | **0.061*** | 0.033 | *0.060* | *0.002* | *0.124* |
| Test of Unconditional Interaction (D $R^2$) | 0.003* | *F=3.541* | *p=0.060* | | |
| **Conditional Effects of HP.par on AFF.COM** | **Effect** | **SE** | ***p*** | **LLCI** | **ULCI** |
| HIE: low value (2.667) | 0.127** | *0.059* | *0.033* | *0.010* | *0.243* |
| HIE: medium value (3.833) | 0.198**** | *0.052* | *0.000* | *0.095* | *0.299* |

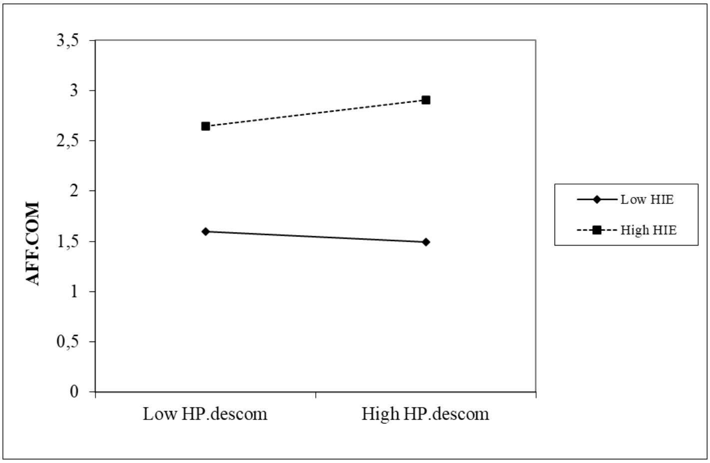
| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| HIE: high value (4.333) | 0.228**** | *0.057* | *0.000* | *0.116* | *0.339* |
| **Johnson-Neyman significance region/s** | **Effect** | **HIE** | **% below** | **% above** | |
| *Sign of HPHRP - AFF.COM Condit. Effect above HIE* | + | 2.559 | --- | 85.686 | |

***Note:*** ** p<0.10; ** p<0.05; *** p<0.01; **** p<0.001; ns: not significant. Bootstrap confidence intervals derived from 5,000 samples (95% level of confidence). Conditional values computed at 16$^{th}$, 50$^{th}$ and 84$^{th}$ percentiles (except for HP.com.des, HIE low and high values considered below and above Johnson-Neyman significance regions).*
***Notation:***
*HPHRP: High Performance HR Practices; HP.com.des: Communication and Clear Job Description; HP.app: Results-Oriented Appraisal; HP.sta: Selective Staffing; HP.tra: Extensive Training; HP.par: Participation; AFF.COM: Affective Commitment; REA: Readiness for Change; PRF: Individual Performance; HIE: Hierarchy Culture*

First, the above results show that Hierarchy Culture moderates the relationship between Communication and Clear Job Description and Affective Commitment, since coefficient of the interaction is significant and positive (0.090, p=0.004, and confidence intervals computed by bootstrapping do not include zero value), as well as test of unconditional interaction is also significant. In addition, the confidence intervals estimated for the conditional effects of Communication and Clear Job Description on Affective Commitment at different values of Hierarchy Culture provides additional support for the moderating effect. Thus, the confidence intervals estimated show that the conditional effects of Communication and Clear Job Description on Affective Commitment are significant and negative for low values of Hierarchy Culture (-0.177, p<0.05) and significant and positive for high values of Hierarchy Culture (0.148, p<0.05), but this effect is not significant for medium values of Hierarchy Culture (0.062, ns).

Therefore, these results show that Hierarchy Culture positively moderates the relationship between Communication and Clear Job Description and Affective Commitment, providing support for the existence of a moderation, but not for the expected direction of such moderation (H9a). To facilitate interpretation of the moderating effect, the interaction is plotted in next figure using the procedure proposed by Dawson (2014).

**Figure 4.4 Moderating Effects (sub-model 1): moderating effect of Hierarchy Culture on the Communication and Clear Job Description – Affective Commitment relationship**

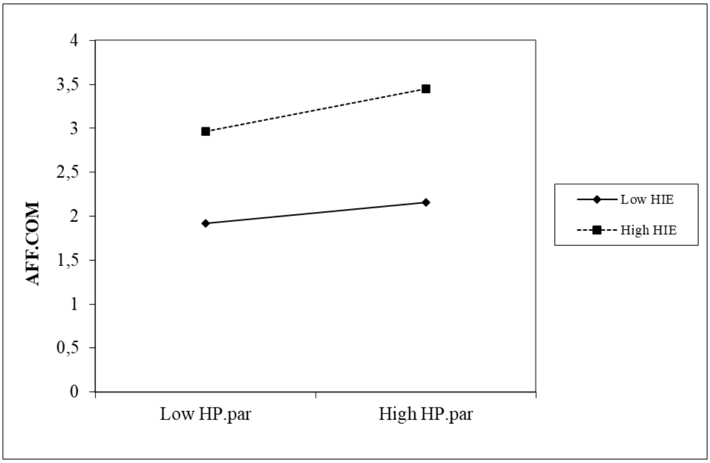



Second, the above results show that Hierarchy Culture does not moderate the relationship between Extensive Training and Affective Commitment, since neither coefficient of the interaction (0.051, p=0.113, and confidence intervals computed by bootstrapping include zero value), nor test of unconditional interaction are significant, so the results does not support the proposed hypothesis of a moderation of Hierarchy Culture between Extensive Training and Affective Commitment (H9d).

Third, the above results show that Hierarchy Culture moderates the relationship between Participation and Affective Commitment, since coefficient of the interaction is significant and positive (0.061, p=0.060, and confidence intervals computed by bootstrapping do not include zero value), as well as test of unconditional interaction is also significant. In addition, the confidence intervals estimated for the conditional effects of Participation on Affective Commitment at different values of Hierarchy Culture provides additional support for the moderating effect. Thus, the confidence intervals estimated show that the conditional effects of Participation on Affective Commitment are significant and positive for low values of Hierarchy Culture (0.127, p<0.05), significant and positive for medium values of Hierarchy Culture (0.198, p<0.001), and significant and positive for high values of Hierarchy Culture (0.228, p<0.001).

Therefore, these results show that Hierarchy Culture positively moderates the relationship between Participation and Affective Commitment, providing support for the existence of a moderation, but not for the expected direction of such moderation (H9e). To facilitate interpretation of the moderating effect, the interaction is plotted in next figure using the procedure proposed by Dawson (2014).

**Figure 4.5 Moderating Effects (sub-model 1): moderating effect of Hierarchy Culture on the Participation – Affective Commitment relationship**




### 4.2.2.3. Hypotheses testing: Sub-Model 2

#### *4.2.2.3.1. Sub-Model 2: Scales, Reliability, and Validity*

Firstly, we tested the existence of common method bias following two different tests to determine the extent of variance. On the one hand, based on the Harman one-factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) the results showed that a single general factor did not account for most variance in an exploratory factor analytic (only 21.62%), indicating that the presence of common method variance was unlikely to be significant. On the other hand, based on the approach of Podsakoff et al. (2003) a new sub-model with all the observed variables loading on one factor was re-estimated, and the results were unacceptable (Chi-square=13,568.659; df=1,430;

RMSEA=0.129). Altogether, these results suggested that common method bias was not a problem in this study.

Content validity was established through a comprehensive literature review and by consulting experienced scholars and academics, ensuring that the measures satisfied the requirements for content validity. The pretest with banking sector employees was also made. Discriminant validity, convergent validity, and scale reliability were assessed with confirmatory factor analysis, following (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988) guidelines. The results from the estimation of CFA (next table) show that the overall chi-square for this sub-model was 1,321.972 with 573 degrees of freedom. We examined four measures of fit, comparative fit index (CFI=0.957), incremental fit index (IFI=0.957), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI=0.949), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA=0.051), which are inside conventional cut-off values (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000), so we deemed the sub-model acceptable.

**Table 4.33 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (sub-model 2): summary measurement results, validity and reliability**

| | Standardized Loadings |
|---|---|
| **HP.com.des (CR=0.927; AVE=0.680; CA=0.926)** | |
| **DES1** The duties in this job are clearly defined. | 0.825 |
| **DES2** This job has an up-to-date description. | 0.842 |
| **DES3** The job description for a position accurately de scribes all of the duties performed by individual employees. | 0.890 |
| **COM1** The communication between me and other employees at work is good. | 0.808 |
| **COM2** Management keeps me well informed of how well the organization is doing. | 0.768 |
| **COM3** The communication between me and the managers/supervisors at work is good. | 0.809 |
| **HP.app (CR=0.920; AVE=0.794; CA=0.918)** | |
| **APP1** Performance is more often measured with objective quantifiable results. | 0.906 |
| **APP2** Performance appraisals are based on objective quantifiable results. | 0.931 |
| **APP3** Employee appraisals emphasize long term and group-based achievement. | 0.833 |
| **HP.sta (CR=0.894; AVE=0.679; CA=0.893)** | |

| | Standardized Loadings |
|---|---|
| **STA1** Great effort is taken to select the right person. | 0.820 |
| **STA2** Long-term employee potential is emphasized. | 0.796 |
| **STA3** Considerable importance is placed on the staffing process. | 0.812 |
| **STA4** Very extensive efforts are made in selection. | 0.867 |
| **HP.tra (CR=0.898; AVE=0.689; CA=0.896)** | |
| **TRA1** Extensive Training programs are provided for individuals in customer contact or front-line jobs. | 0.861 |
| **TRA2** Employees in customer contact jobs will normally go through training programs every few years. | 0.799 |
| **TRA3** There are formal training programs to teach new hires the skills they need to perform their job. | 0.888 |
| **TRA4** Formal training programs are offered to employees in order to increase their promotability in this organization. | 0.767 |
| **HP.par (CR=0.873; AVE=0.696; CA=0.872)** | |
| **PAR2** Employees in this job are allowed to make decisions. | 0.759 |
| **PAR3** Employees are provided the opportunity to suggest improvements in the way things are done. | 0.874 |
| **PAR4** Supervisors keep open communications with employees in this job. | 0.865 |
| **CON.COM. (CR=0.755; AVE=0.515; CA=0.744)** | |
| **CON6** I feel that I have very few options to consider leaving this organization. | 0.701 |
| **CON7** One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives. | 0.872 |
| **CON8** One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice -another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here. | 0.542 |
| **REA (CR=0.936; AVE=0.745; CA=0.933)** | |
| **REA8** Change encourages me to make more efforts in my work. | 0.800 |
| **REA9** I want to do my best for the success of change process. | 0.893 |
| **REA10** I want to devote myself to the change process. | 0.841 |
| **REA11** I try to implement the proposed changes. | 0.918 |
| **REA12** Change contributes to elimination of deficiencies in the Bank. | 0.858 |
| **PRF (CR=0.962; AVE=0.738; CA=0.963)** | |
| **PRF1** I Carried out the core parts of my job well | 0.893 |
| **PRF2** I Completed my core tasks well using the standard procedures. | 0.881 |
| **PRF3** I Ensured my tasks were completed properly. | 0.898 |

| | Standardized Loadings |
|---|---|
| **ADP1** I Adapted well to changes in core tasks. | 0.905 |
| **ADP2** I Coped with changes to the way I have to do my core tasks. | 0.875 |
| **ADP3** I Learned new skills to help me adapt to changes in my core tasks. | 0.866 |
| **PRV1** I Initiated better ways of doing my core tasks. | 0.876 |
| **PRV2** I Come up with ideas to improve the way in which my core tasks are done. | 0.790 |
| **PRV3** I Made changes to the way my core tasks are done. | 0.735 |
| **HIE (CR=0.932; AVE=0.695; CA=0.931)** | |
| **HIE1** The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do. | 0.824 |
| **HIE2** The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency. | 0.849 |
| **HIE3** The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships. | 0.769 |
| **HIE4** The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important. | 0.862 |
| **HIE5** The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important. | 0.862 |
| **HIE6** The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical. | 0.834 |

MODEL FIT SUMMARY
**Chi-square=1,321.972; df=573; CMIN/DF=2.307**
**CFI=0.957; IFI=0.957; TLI=0.949; NFI=0.926**
**RMSEA=0.051**
***Note:***
*CR: Composite Reliability; AVE: Average Variance Extracted; CA: Cronbach Alpha*
***Notation:***
*HP.com.des: Communication and Clear Job Description; HP.app: Results-Oriented Appraisal; HP.sta: Selective Staffing; HP.tra: Extensive Training; HP.par: Participation; CON.COM: Continuance Commitment; REA: Readiness for Change; PRF: Individual Performance; HIE: Hierarchy Culture*

To assess convergent validity we observed individual loadings, and the results show that all items load on their specified latent variables and that each loading is large and significant, thus indicating convergent validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). To assess discriminant validity, we observed construct intercorrelations, and the results show that they were significantly different from 1, and that the shared variance between any two constructs (square of their intercorrelations) was less than the average variance explained in the items by the construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Next table shows that intercorrelations are smaller than square root of AVE, indicating that discriminant validity is adequate for all latent variables. Finally, as shown in previous table, regarding reliability all constructs presented acceptable levels of composite reliability (CR), considerably exceeding the level of 0.60 recommended by (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988): Communication and Clear Job Description (CR=0.927), Results-Oriented Appraisal, (CR=0.920), Selective Staffing (CR=0.894), Extensive Training (CR=0.898), Participation (CR=0.873), Continuance Commitment (CR=0.755), Readiness for Change (CR=0.936), Individual Performance (CR=0.962), and Hierarchy Culture (CR=0.932). In terms of variance extracted, all latent variables exceeded the recommended level of the average variance extracted (0.50). Therefore, results show that the indicators were sufficient and adequate in terms of how the measurement model was specified for all latent variables.

**Table 4.34 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (sub-model 2): Correlations between constructs and AVE**

| CONSTRUCT | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | AVE |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. HP.com.des | **0.825** | | | | | | | | | 0.680 |
| 2. HP.app | 0.808 | **0.891** | | | | | | | | 0.794 |
| 3. HP.sta | 0.783 | 0.764 | **0.824** | | | | | | | 0.679 |
| 4. HP.tra | 0.790 | 0.685 | 0.750 | **0.830** | | | | | | 0.689 |
| 5. HP.par | 0.803 | 0.732 | 0.770 | 0.728 | **0.834** | | | | | 0.696 |
| 6. CON.COM | 0.150 | 0.033 | 0.024 | 0.151 | 0.079 | **0.718** | | | | 0.515 |
| 7. REA | 0.487 | 0.315 | 0.365 | 0.447 | 0.351 | 0.352 | **0.863** | | | 0.745 |
| 8. PRF | 0.557 | 0.358 | 0.478 | 0.499 | 0.440 | 0.315 | 0.668 | **0.859** | | 0.738 |
| 9. HIE | 0.735 | 0.641 | 0.654 | 0.657 | 0.620 | 0.152 | 0.482 | 0.570 | **0.834** | 0.695 |

***Note***: *Diagonal is the square root of the AVE*
***Notation:***
*HP.com.des: Communication and Clear Job Description; HP.app: Results-Oriented Appraisal; HP.sta: Selective Staffing; HP.tra: Extensive Training; HP.par: Participation; CON.COM: Continuance Commitment; REA: Readiness for Change; PRF: Individual Performance; HIE: Hierarchy Culture*

### *4.2.2.3.2. Sub-Model 2: Testing of Direct Effects*

Based on the complexity of the model and the need to test the direct relationships between the different constructs at the same time, we used Structural Equation Modelling by using the maximum likelihood method. Following this procedure, the hypothesized sub-model 2, including only the direct effects, was estimated having the results that are shown in next table.

**Table 4.35 Structural Equation Modelling (sub-model 2): direct effects (model fit summary and standardized parameters estimates)**

| HYP. | INDEP | DEP | Stand. Par. Estimate | *p*-value | Signific. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| H2a | HP.com.des | CON.COM | 0.359 | 0.008 | ** |
| H2b | HP.app | CON.COM | -0.191 | 0.065 | *ns* |
| H2c | HP.sta | CON.COM | -0.230 | 0.040 | * |
| H2d | HP.tra | CON.COM | 0.201 | 0.047 | * |
| H2e | HP.par | CON.COM | -0.032 | 0.767 | *ns* |
| H4a | HP.com.des | REA | 0.512 | 0.000 | *** |
| H4b | HP.app | REA | -0.195 | 0.019 | * |
| H4c | HP.sta | REA | 0.074 | 0.406 | *ns* |
| H4d | HP.tra | REA | 0.168 | 0.038 | * |
| H4e | HP.par | REA | -0.107 | 0.224 | *ns* |
| H6 | CON.COM | REA | 0.260 | 0.000 | *** |
| H8 | REA | PRF | 0.647 | 0.000 | *** |

*MODEL FIT SUMMARY*
**Chi-square=1,397.049; df=578; CMIN/DF=2.417**
**CFI=0.952; IFI=0.953; TLI=0.945; NFI=0.922**
**RMSEA=0.053**

***Note:*** ** p<0.05; ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001; ns: not significant.*
***Notation:***
*HP.com.des: Communication and Clear Job Description; HP.app: Results-Oriented Appraisal; HP.sta: Selective Staffing; HP.tra: Extensive Training; HP.par: Participation; CON.COM: Continuance Commitment; REA: Readiness for Change; PRF: Individual Performance*

The fit indexes were inside the conventional cut-off values, thus the sub-model was deemed acceptable (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000): chi-square=1,397.049, d.f.=578; CFI=0.952; IFI=0.953; TLI=0.945; RMSEA=0.053. Next, we examine the test of hypotheses proposed in our sub-model.

On the one hand, we found support for the positive influence of Communication and Clear Job Description on Continuance Commitment (H2a), which returned estimated coefficient of 0.359 ($p<0.01$), and for the positive influence of Extensive Training on Continuance Commitment (H2d), which returned estimated coefficient of 0.201 ($p<0.05$).

By contrast, we could not test a significant relation for the direct effect of Results-Oriented Appraisal on Continuance Commitment (H2b), which returned estimated coefficient of -0.191 (ns), and for the influence of Participation on Continuance Commitment (H2e), with estimated coefficient of -0.032 (ns). Al last, we could not find a positive influence of Selective Staffing on Continuance Commitment (H2c), which returned estimated coefficient of -0.230 ($p<0.05$),

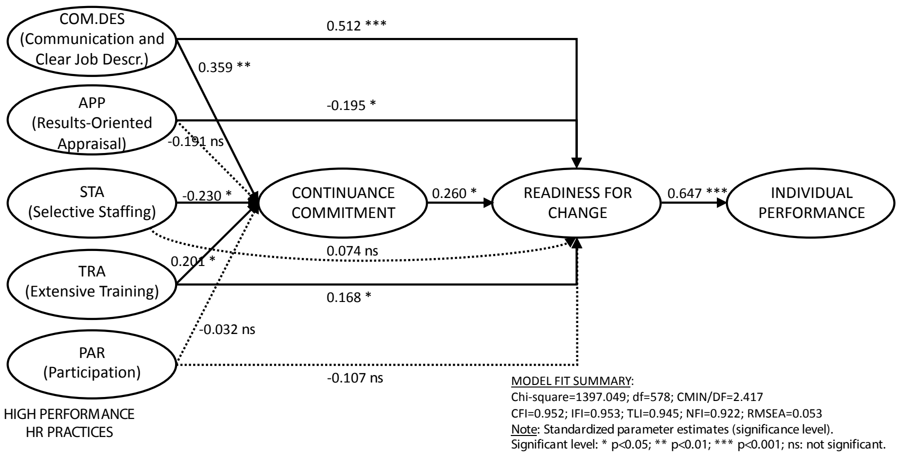
In addition, we also found support for a positive relation of Communication and Clear Job Description and Readiness for Change (H4a), which returned estimated coefficient of 0.512 ($p<0.001$), and for a positive relation of Extensive Training and Readiness for Change (H4d) which returned estimated coefficient of 0.168 ($p<0.05$).

On the other hand, we could not find a significant effect of Selective Staffing on Readiness for Change (H4c), with estimated coefficient of 0.074 (ns), and for the effect of Participation on Readiness for Change (H4e), with an estimated coefficient of -0.107 (ns). Al last, we could not find a positive influence of Results-Oriented Appraisal on Readiness for Change (H4b), which returned estimated coefficient of -0.195 ($p<0.05$).

Finally, Continuance Commitment showed a positive influence on Readiness for Change (H6) which returned estimated coefficient of 0.260 ($p<0.001$), and Readiness for Change also showed a positive influence on Individual Performance (H8), which returned estimated coefficient of 0.647 ($p<0.001$).

To sum up the result regarding the direct effects hypothesized in sub-model 2, next figure shows the conceptual relationships and the estimated parameters, as well as model fit indexes.

**Figure 4.6 Structural Equation Modelling (sub-model 2): direct effects (graphical description)**




### *4.2.2.3.3. Sub-Model 2: Testing of Moderating Effects*

To test the moderating hypotheses, an additional analysis was conducted for each high-performance HR practice with significant influence on Continuance Commitment, using the PROCESS macro for SPSS of Hayes (2017). This procedure is appropriate when it is important to analysing the mechanisms through which one variable influence another variable, as well as to know the conditions in which this relationship may happen. In addition, this method allows to use bootstrapping, a procedure recommended to avoid problems arising from the non-normal distribution of data and, particularly, those related to small samples, by using bootstrap confidence intervals for hypothesis testing (Preacher et al., 2007). To facilitate the interpretability of the coefficients, the variables involved in the interaction term were mean-centered (Hayes, 2017).

Thus, next table shows the results of the analysis of moderation for sub-model 2 (model 7 of Hayes, 2017), presenting, for each

High-performance HR practice with significant influence on Continuance Commitment, the non-standardized parameters and confidence intervals for interaction, as well as the test of unconditional interaction, the conditional effects of each high-performance HR practices on Continuance Commitment at different values of the moderator (Hierarchy Culture), and, finally, the Johnson-Neyman significant region(s).

**Table 4.36 Moderating Effects (sub-model 2): parameters estimates and confidence intervals for interaction, test of unconditional interaction, conditional effects and Johnson-Neyman significance region/s**

| Moderating Effects of HIE of HPHRP – CON.COM | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **HPHRP: HP.com.des** | **Effect** | **SE** | ***p*** | **LLCI** | **ULCI** |
| Interaction | **-0.153******** | 0.041 | *0.000* | *-0.233* | *-0.073* |
| Test of Unconditional Interaction (D $R^2$) | 0.026**** | *F=14.060* | *p=0.000* | | |
| **Conditional Effects of HP.com. des on CON.COM** | **Effect** | **SE** | ***p*** | **LLCI** | **ULCI** |
| HIE: low value (2.667) | 0.268*** | *0.086* | *0.002* | *0.098* | *0.438* |
| HIE: medium value (3.833) | 0.090 *ns* | *0.087* | *0.299* | *-0.080* | *0.260* |
| HIE: high value (4.333) | 0.013 *ns* | *0.094* | *0.887* | *-0.172* | *0.199* |
| **Johnson-Neyman significance region/s** | **Effect** | **HIE** | **% Below** | **% Above** | |
| *Sign of HPHRP - CON.COM Condit. Effect below HIE* | + | 3.351 | 35.686 | --- | |
| **HPHRP: HP.sta** | **Effect** | **SE** | ***p*** | **LLCI** | **ULCI** |
| Interaction | **-0.160******** | 0.041 | *0.000* | *-0.240* | *-0.079* |
| Test of Unconditional Interaction (D $R^2$) | 0.028 | *F=15.126* | *p=0.000* | | |
| **Conditional Effects of HP.sta on CON.COM** | **Effect** | **SE** | ***p*** | **LLCI** | **ULCI** |
| HIE: low value (2.667) | -0.014 *ns* | *0.077* | *0.860* | *-0.165* | *0.139* |
| HIE: medium value (3.833) | -0.200*** | *0.070* | *0.005* | *-0.338* | *-0.062* |
| HIE: high value (4.333) | -0.280**** | *0.077* | *0.000* | *-0.430* | *-0.129* |

| Moderating Effects of HIE of HPHRP – CON.COM | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Johnson-Neyman significance region/s** | **Effect** | **HIE** | **% Below** | **% Above** | |
| *Sign of HPHRP – CON.COM Condit. Effect below HIE* | + | 1.097 | 1.961 | --- | |
| *Sign of HPHRP – CON.COM Condit. Effect above HIE* | - | 3.431 | --- | 64.314 | |
| **HPHRP: HP.tra** | **Effect** | **SE** | ***p*** | **LLCI** | **ULCI** |
| Interaction | **-0.123*****  | 0.040 | *0.002* | *-0.201* | *-0.045* |
| Test of Unconditional Interaction (D $R^2$) | 0.018 | *F=9.642* | *p=0.002* | | |
| **Conditional Effects of HP.par on CON.COM** | **Effect** | **SE** | ***p*** | **LLCI** | **ULCI** |
| HIE: low value (2.667) | 0.223*** | *0.074* | *0.003* | *0.078* | *0.367* |
| HIE: medium value (3.833) | 0.079 *ns* | *0.037* | *0.238* | *-0.053* | *0.212* |
| HIE: high value (4.333) | 0.018 *ns* | *0.074* | *0.808* | *-0.127* | *0.163* |
| **Johnson-Neyman significance region/s** | **Effect** | **HIE** | **% Below** | **% Above** | |
| *Sign of HPHRP – CON.COM Condit. Effect below HIE* | + | 3.425 | 35.686 | --- | |

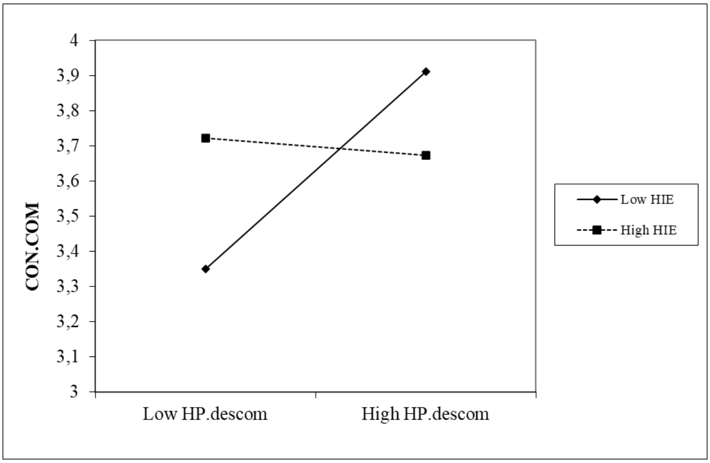
***Note:*** ** p<0.10; ** p<0.05; *** p<0.01; **** p<0.001; ns: not significant. Bootstrap confidence intervals derived from 5,000 samples (95% level of confidence). Conditional values computed at 16th, 50th and 84th percentiles.*
***Notation:***
*HPHRP: High Performance HR Practices; HP.com.des: Communication and Clear Job Description; HP.app: Results-Oriented Appraisal; HP.sta: Selective Staffing; HP.tra: Extensive Training; HP.par: Participation; CON.COM: Continuance Commitment; REA: Readiness for Change; PRF: Individual Performance; HIE: Hierarchy Culture*

First, the above results show that Hierarchy Culture negatively moderates the relationship between Communication and Clear Job Description and Continuance Commitment, since coefficient of the interaction is significant and negative (-0.153, p=0.000, and confidence intervals computed by bootstrapping do not include zero value), as well as test of unconditional interaction is also significant. In addition, the confidence intervals estimated for the conditional effects of Communication and Clear Job Description on Continuance Commitment at different values of Hierarchy Culture provides additional support for the moderating effect. Thus, the confidence intervals estimated show that the conditional effects of Communication and Clear Job Description on Continuance

Commitment are significant and positive for low values of Hierarchy Culture (0.268, $p<0.01$), but these effects are not significant for medium values of Hierarchy Culture (0.090, ns), and for high values of Hierarchy Culture (0.013, ns).

Therefore, these results show that Hierarchy Culture negatively moderates the relationship between Communication and Clear Job Description and continuance Commitment, providing support for the existence of a moderation (H10a). To facilitate interpretation of the moderating effect, the interaction is plotted in next figure using the procedure proposed by Dawson (2014).

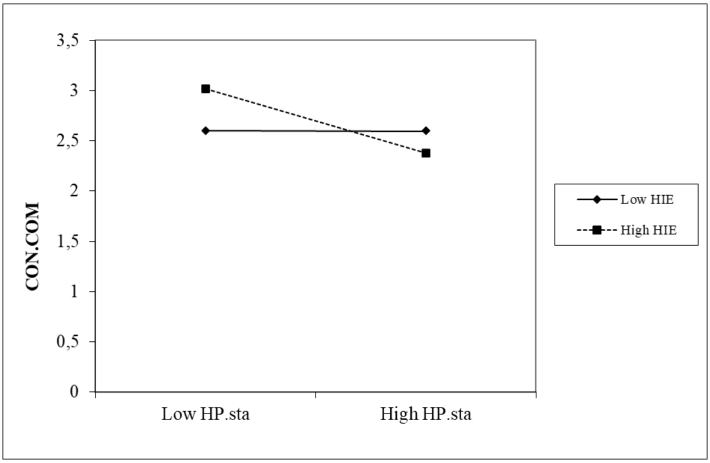
**Figure 4.7 Moderating Effects (sub-model 2): moderating effect of Hierarchy Culture on the Communication and Clear Job Description – Continuance Commitment relationship**




Second, the above results also show that Hierarchy Culture negatively moderates the relationship between Selective Staffing and Continuance Commitment, since coefficient of the interaction is significant and negative (-0.160, p=0.000, and confidence intervals computed by bootstrapping do not include zero value), as well as test of unconditional interaction is also significant. In addition, the confidence intervals estimated for the conditional effects of Selective Staffing on Continuance Commitment at different values of Hierarchy Culture provides additional support for the moderating effect. Thus, the confidence intervals estimated show that the conditional effects of Selective Staffing on Continuance Commitment are not significant for low values of Hierarchy Culture (-0.014, ns), but they are significant and negative for medium values of Hierarchy Culture (-0.200, p<0.01), and significant and negative for high values of Hierarchy Culture (-0.280, p<0.001).

Thus, these results support the proposed hypothesis of a negative moderation of Hierarchy Culture between Selective Staffing and Continuance Commitment (H10c). To facilitate interpretation of the moderating effect, the interaction is plotted in next figure using the procedure proposed by Dawson (2014).

**Figure 4.8 Moderating Effects (sub-model 2): moderating effect of Hierarchy Culture on the Selective Staffing – Continuance Commitment relationship**

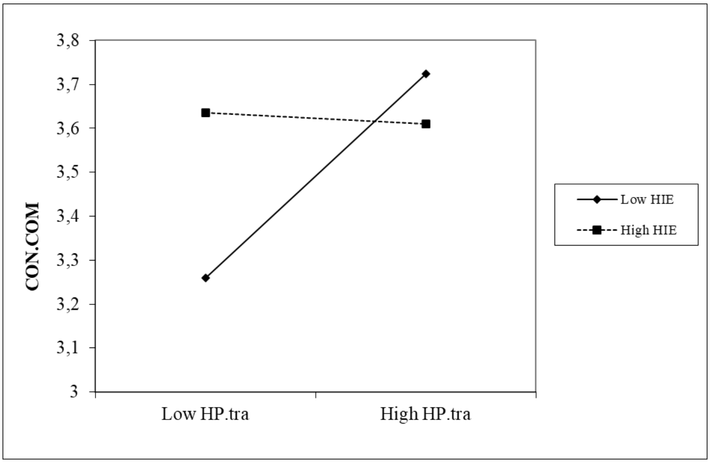



Third, the above results also show that Hierarchy Culture negatively moderates the relationship between Extensive Training and Continuance Commitment, since coefficient of the interaction is significant and negative (-0.123, p=0.002, and confidence intervals computed by bootstrapping do not include zero value), as well as test of unconditional interaction is also significant. In addition, the confidence intervals estimated for the conditional effects of Extensive Training on Continuance Commitment at different values of Hierarchy Culture provides additional support for the moderating effect. Thus, the confidence intervals estimated show that the conditional effects of Extensive Training on Continuance

Commitment are significant and positive for low values of Hierarchy Culture (0.223, p<0.01), but these effects are not significant for medium values of Hierarchy Culture (0.079, ns), and for high values of Hierarchy Culture (0.018, ns).

Therefore, these results show that Hierarchy Culture negatively moderates the relationship between Extensive Training and Continuance Commitment, providing support for the existence of a moderation (H10d). To facilitate interpretation of the moderating effect, the interaction is plotted in next figure using the procedure proposed by Dawson (2014).

**Figure 4.9 Moderating Effects (sub-model 2): moderating effect of Hierarchy Culture on the Extensive Training – Continuance Commitment relationship**




#### 4.2.2.4. Hypotheses testing: Sub-Model 3

##### *4.2.2.4.1. Sub-Model 3: Scales, Reliability, and Validity*

Firstly, we tested the existence of common method bias following two different tests to determine the extent of variance. On the one hand, based on the Harman one-factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) the results showed that a single general factor did not account for most variance in an exploratory factor analytic (only 21.94%), indicating that the presence of common method variance was unlikely to be significant. On the other hand, based on the approach of Podsakoff et al. (2003) a new sub-model with all the observed variables loading on one factor was re-estimated, and the results were unacceptable (Chi-square=13,441.492; df=1,430; RMSEA=0.128). Altogether, these results suggested that common method bias was not a problem in this study.

Content validity was established through a comprehensive literature review and by consulting experienced scholars and academics, ensuring that the measures satisfied the requirements for content validity. The pre-test with banking sector employees was also made. Discriminant validity, convergent validity, and scale reliability were assessed with confirmatory factor analysis, following (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988) guidelines. The results from the estimation of CFA (next table) show that the overall chi-square for this sub-model was 1,306.449 with 514 degrees of freedom. We examined four measures of fit, comparative fit index (CFI=0.951), incremental fit index (IFI=0.951), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI=0.943), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA=0.055), which are inside conventional cut-off values (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000), so we deemed the sub-model acceptable.

**Table 4.37 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (sub-model 3): summary measurement results, validity and reliability**

| | Standardized Loadings |
|---|---|
| HP.com.des (CR=0.913; AVE=0.680; CA=0.910) | |
| **DES1** The duties in this job are clearly defined. | 0.830 |
| **DES3** This job has an up-to-date description. | 0.879 |
| **DES3** The job description for a position accurately de scribes all of the duties performed by individual employees. | 0.922 |
| **COM1** The communication between me and other employees at work is good. | 0.761 |
| **COM4** Employees in my organization regularly receive formal communication regarding company goals and objectives. | 0.714 |
| HP.app (CR=0.920; AVE=0.794; CA=0.918) | |
| **APP1** Performance is more often measured with objective quantifiable results. | 0.907 |
| **APP2** Performance appraisals are based on objective quantifiable results. | 0.930 |

| | Standardized Loadings |
|---|---|
| **APP3** Employee appraisals emphasize long term and group-based achievement. | 0.833 |
| **HP.sta (CR=0.894; AVE=0.679; CA=0.893)** | |
| **STA1** Great effort is taken to select the right person. | 0.817 |
| **STA2** Long-term employee potential is emphasized. | 0.797 |
| **STA3** Considerable importance is placed on the staffing process. | 0.815 |
| **STA4** Very extensive efforts are made in selection. | 0.865 |
| **HP.tra (CR=0.848; AVE=0.651; CA=0.846)** | |
| **TRA1** Extensive Training programs are provided for individuals in customer contact or front-line jobs. | 0.846 |
| **TRA2** Employees in customer contact jobs will normally go through training programs every few years. | 0.783 |
| **TRA4** Formal training programs are offered to employees in order to increase their promotability in this organization. | 0.790 |
| **HP.par (CR=0.883; AVE=0.654; CA=0.884)** | |
| **PAR1** Employees in this job are often asked by their supervisor to participate in decisions. | 0.712 |
| **PAR2** Employees in this job are allowed to make decisions. | 0.796 |
| **PAR3** Employees are provided the opportunity to suggest improvements in the way things are done. | 0.875 |
| **PAR4** Supervisors keep open communications with employees in this job. | 0.843 |
| **NOR.COM. (CR=0.774; AVE=0.539; CA=0.769)** | |
| **NOR4** One of the major reasons I continue to work in this organization is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain. | 0.812 |
| **NOR6** I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization. | 0.788 |
| **NOR7** Things were better in the days when people stayed in one organization for most of their careers. | 0.579 |
| **REA (CR=0.930; AVE=0.769; CA=0.930)** | |
| **REA9** I want to do my best for the success of change process. | 0.892 |
| **REA10** I want to devote myself to the change process. | 0.839 |
| **REA11** I try to implement the proposed changes. | 0.918 |
| **REA12** Change contributes to elimination of deficiencies in the Bank. | 0.857 |
| **PRF (CR=0.962; AVE=0.738; CA=0.963)** | |
| **PRF1** I Carried out the core parts of my job well. | 0.892 |
| **PRF2** I Completed my core tasks well using the standard procedures. | 0.879 |

| | Standardized Loadings |
|---|---|
| **PRF3** I Ensured my tasks were completed properly. | 0.898 |
| **ADP1** I Adapted well to changes in core tasks. | 0.904 |
| **ADP2** I Coped with changes to the way I have to do my core tasks. | 0.875 |
| **ADP3** I Learned new skills to help me adapt to changes in my core tasks. | 0.867 |
| **PRV1** I Initiated better ways of doing my core tasks. | 0.876 |
| **PRV2** I Come up with ideas to improve the way in which my core tasks are done. | 0.791 |
| **PRV3** I Made changes to the way my core tasks are done. | 0.736 |
| **HIE (CR=0.932; AVE=0.696; CA=0.931)** | |
| **HIE1** The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do. | 0.823 |
| **HIE2** The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency. | 0.850 |
| **HIE3** The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships. | 0.771 |
| **HIE4** The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important. | 0.861 |
| **HIE5** The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important. | 0.863 |
| **HIE6** The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical. | 0.833 |

**MODEL FIT SUMMARY**
**Chi-square=1,306.449; df=514; CMIN/DF=2.542**
**CFI=0.951; IFI=0.951; TLI=0.943; NFI=0.921**
**RMSEA=0.055**
***Note:***
*CR: Composite Reliability; AVE: Average Variance Extracted; CA: Cronbach Alpha*
***Notation:***
*HP.com.des: Communication and Clear Job Description; HP.app: Results-Oriented Appraisal; HP.sta: Selective Staffing; HP.tra: Extensive Training; HP.par: Participation; NOR.COM: Normative Commitment; REA: Readiness for Change; PRF: Individual Performance; HIE: Hierarchy Culture*

To assess convergent validity we observed individual loadings, and the results show that all items load on their specified latent variables and that each loading is large and significant, thus indicating convergent validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). To assess discriminant validity, we observed construct intercorrelations, and the results show that they were significantly different from 1, and that the shared variance between any two constructs (square of their intercorrelations) was less than the average variance explained in the items by the construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Next table shows that intercorrelations are smaller than square root of AVE, indicating that discriminant validity is adequate for all latent variables. Finally, as shown in previous table, regarding reliability all constructs presented acceptable levels of composite reliability (CR), considerably exceeding the level of 0.60 recommended by (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988): Communication and Clear Job Description (CR=0.913), Results-Oriented Appraisal, (CR=0.920), Selective Staffing (CR=0.894), Extensive Training (CR=0.848), Participation (CR=0.883), Normative Commitment (CR=0.774), Readiness for Change (CR=0.930), Individual Performance (CR=0.962), and Hierarchy Culture (CR=0.932). In terms of variance extracted, all latent variables exceeded the recommended level of the average variance extracted (0.50). Therefore, results show that the indicators were sufficient and adequate in terms of how the measurement sub-model was specified for all latent variables.

**Table 4.38 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (sub-model 3): Correlations between constructs and AVE**

| CONSTRUCT | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | AVE |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. HP.com.des | **0.825** | | | | | | | | | 0.680 |
| 2. HP.app | 0.812 | **0.891** | | | | | | | | 0.794 |
| 3. HP.sta | 0.776 | 0.764 | **0.824** | | | | | | | 0.679 |
| 4. HP.tra | 0.786 | 0.708 | 0.780 | **0.807** | | | | | | 0.651 |
| 5. HP.par | 0.738 | 0.732 | 0.757 | 0.736 | **0.809** | | | | | 0.654 |
| 6. NOR.COM | 0.516 | 0.454 | 0.503 | 0.522 | 0.488 | **0.734** | | | | 0.539 |
| 7. REA | 0.486 | 0.331 | 0.377 | 0.442 | 0.364 | 0.379 | **0.877** | | | 0.769 |
| 8. PRF | 0.539 | 0.358 | 0.479 | 0.482 | 0.424 | 0.445 | 0.673 | **0.859** | | 0.738 |
| 9. HIE | 0.718 | 0.641 | 0.655 | 0.675 | 0.618 | 0.585 | 0.489 | 0.570 | **0.834** | 0.696 |

***Note***: *Diagonal is the square root of the AVE*
***Notation:***
*HP.com.des: Communication and Clear Job Description; HP.app: Results-Oriented Appraisal; HP.sta: Selective Staffing; HP.tra: Extensive Training; HP.par: Participation; NOR.COM: Normative Commitment; REA: Readiness for Change; PRF: Individual Performance; HIE: Hierarchy Culture*

### *4.2.2.4.2. Sub-Model 3: Testing of Direct Effects*

Based on the complexity of the model and the need to test the direct relationships between the different constructs at the same time, we used Structural Equation Modelling by using the maximum likelihood method. Following this procedure, the hypothesized sub-model 3, including only the direct effects, was estimated having the results that are shown in next table.

**Table 4.39 Structural Equation Modelling (sub-model 3): direct effects (model fit summary and standardized parameters estimates)**

| HYP. | INDEP | DEP | Stand. Par. Estimate | p-value | Signific. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| H3a | HP.com.des | NOR.COM | 0.216 | 0.040 | * |
| H3b | HP.app | NOR.COM | -0.061 | 0.517 | *ns* |
| H3c | HP.sta | NOR.COM | 0.146 | 0.151 | *ns* |
| H3d | HP.tra | NOR.COM | 0.201 | 0.050 | * |
| H3e | HP.par | NOR.COM | 0.127 | 0.151 | *ns* |
| H4a | HP com.des | REA | 0.493 | 0.000 | *** |
| H4b | HP.app | REA | -0.234 | 0.008 | ** |
| H4c | HP.sta | REA | -0.022 | 0.817 | *ns* |
| H4d | HP.tra | REA | 0.167 | 0.085 | *ns* |
| H4e | HP.par | REA | -0.002 | 0.979 | *ns* |
| H7 | NOR.COM | REA | 0.147 | 0.011 | ** |
| H8 | REA | PRF | 0.584 | 0.000 | *** |

*MODEL FIT SUMMARY*

**Chi-square=1,343.407; df=519; CMIN/DF=2.588**
**CFI=0.949; IFI=0.949; TLI=0.941; NFI=0.919**
**RMSEA=0.056**

***Note:*** ** p<0.05; ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001; ns: not significant.*
***Notation:***
*HP.com.des: Communication and Clear Job Description; HP.app: Results-Oriented Appraisal; HP.sta: Selective Staffing; HP.tra: Extensive Training; HP.par: Participation; NOR.COM: Normative Commitment; REA: Readiness for Change; PRF: Individual Performance*

The fit indexes were inside the conventional cut-off values, thus the sub-model was deemed acceptable (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000): chi-square=1,343.407, d.f.=519; CFI=0.949; IFI=0.949; TLI=0.941; RMSEA=0.056. Next, we examine the test of hypotheses proposed in our sub-model.

On the one hand, we found support for the positive influence of Communication and Clear Job Description on Normative Commitment (H3a), which returned estimated coefficient of 0.216 ($p<0.05$), and for the positive influence of Extensive Training on Normative Commitment (H3d), which returned estimated coefficient of 0.201 ($p<0.05$).

By contrast, we could not test a significant relation for the direct effect of Results-Oriented Appraisal on Normative Commitment (H3b), which returned estimated coefficient of -0.061 (ns), for the direct effect of Selective Staffing on Normative Commitment (H3c), which returned estimated coefficient of 0.151 (ns), and for the influence of Participation on Normative Commitment (H3e), with estimated coefficient of 0.127 (ns).

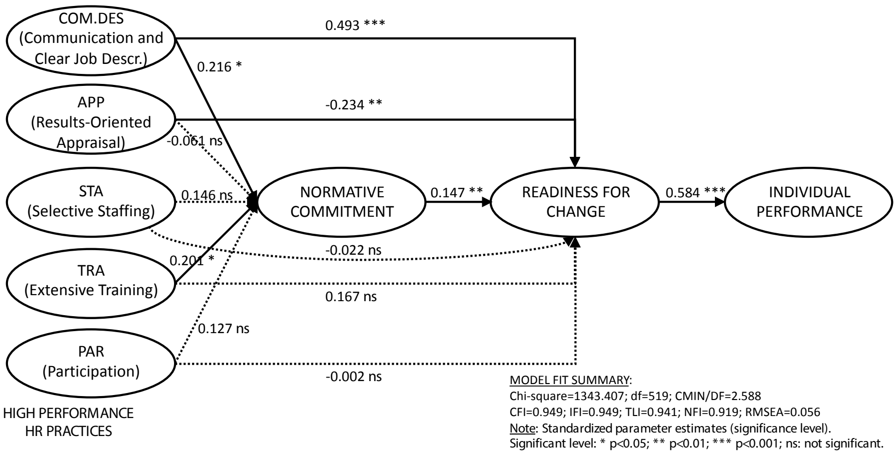
In addition, we also found support for a positive relation of Communication and Clear Job Description and Readiness for Change (H4a), which returned estimated coefficient of 0.493 ($p<0.001$).

On the other hand, we could not find a significant effect of Selective Staffing on Readiness for Change (H4c), with estimated coefficient of -0.022 (ns), for the effect of Extensive Training and Readiness for Change (H4d) which returned estimated coefficient of 0.167 (ns), and for the effect of Participation on Readiness for Change (H4e), with an estimated coefficient of -0.002 (ns). Al last, we could not find a positive influence of Results-Oriented Appraisal on Readiness for Change (H4b), which returned estimated coefficient of -0.234 ($p<0.01$).

Finally, Normative Commitment showed a positive influence on Readiness for Change (H7) which returned estimated coefficient of 0.147 ($p<0.01$), and Readiness for Change also showed a positive influence on Individual Performance (H8), which returned estimated coefficient of 0.584 ($p<0.001$).

To sum up the result regarding the direct effects hypothesized in sub-model 3, next figure shows the conceptual relationships and the estimated parameters, as well as model fit indexes.

**Figure 4.10 Structural Equation Modelling (sub-model 3): direct effects (graphical description)**




### *4.2.2.4.3. Sub-Model 3: Testing of Moderating Effects*

To test the moderating hypotheses, an additional analysis was conducted for each high-performance HR practice with significant influence on normative commitment, using the PROCESS macro for SPSS of Hayes (2017). This procedure is appropriate when it is important to analysing the mechanisms through which one variable influence another variable, as well as to know the conditions in which this relationship may happen. In addition, this method allows to use bootstrapping, a procedure recommended to avoid problems arising from the non-normal distribution of data and, particularly, those related to small samples, by using bootstrapping confidence intervals for hypothesis testing (Preacher et al., 2007). To facilitate the interpretability of the coefficients, the variables involved in the interaction term were mean-centered (Hayes, 2017).

Thus, next table shows the results of the analysis of moderation for sub-model 3 (model 7 of Hayes, 2017), presenting, for each High-performance HR practice with significant influence on normative commitment, the non-standardized parameters and confidence intervals for interaction, as well as the test of unconditional interaction, the conditional effects of each High-performance HR practices on Normative Commitment at different values of the moderator (Hierarchy Culture), and, finally, the Johnson-Neyman significant region(s).

**Table 4.40 Moderating Effects (sub-model 3): parameters estimates and confidence intervals for interaction, test of unconditional interaction, conditional effects and Johnson-Neyman significance region/s**

| **Moderating Effects of HIE of HPHRP – NOR.COM** | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **HPHRP: HP.com.des** | **Effect** | **SE** | ***p*** | **LLCI** | **ULCI** |
| Interaction | **0.037** *ns* | 0.036 | *0.298* | *-0.033* | *0.107* |
| Test of Unconditional Interaction (D $R^2$) | 0.002 *ns* | *F=1.084* | *p=0.298* | | |
| **HPHRP: HP.tra** | **Effect** | **SE** | ***p*** | **LLCI** | **ULCI** |
| Interaction | **0.021** *ns* | 0.035 | *0.543* | *-0.047* | *0.089* |
| Test of Unconditional Interaction (D $R^2$) | 0.001 *ns* | *F=0.371* | *p=0.543* | | |

***Note****: * p<0.10; ** p<0.05; *** p<0.01; **** p<0.001; ns: not significant. Bootstrap confidence intervals derived from 5,000 samples (95% level of confidence).*
***Notation****:*
*HPHRP: High Performance HR Practices; HP.com.des: Communication and Clear Job Description; HP.app: Results-Oriented Appraisal; HP.sta: Selective Staffing; HP.tra: Extensive Training; HP.par: Participation; NOR.COM: Normative Commitment; REA: Readiness for Change; PRF: Individual Performance; HIE: Hierarchy Culture*

On the one hand, the above results show that Hierarchy Culture does not moderate the relationship between Communication and Clear Job Description and Normative Commitment since neither coefficient of the interaction (0.037, p=0.298, and confidence intervals computed by bootstrapping include zero value), nor test of unconditional interaction are significant, so the results do not support the proposed hypothesis of moderation of Hierarchy Culture between Communication and Clear Job Description and Normative Commitment (H11a).

On the other hand, results show also that Hierarchy Culture does not moderate the relationship between Extensive Training and Normative Commitment, since neither coefficient of the interaction (0.021, p=0.543, and confidence intervals computed by bootstrapping include zero value), nor test of unconditional interaction are significant, so the results does not support the proposed hypothesis of moderation of Hierarchy Culture between Extensive Training and Normative Commitment (H11d).

# 5. CONCLUSIONS

## 5.1. Introduction

According to consensus with most research, HRM plays a significant role in enhancing the performance of employees and organizations (Becker & Huselid, 1998; Peña, De Pablo, Hernández, & Villasalero, 2015; Pfeffer, 2007) and allowing the organizations to remain competitive (Ubeda-Garcia, Marco-Lajara, Garcia-Lillo, & Sabater-Sempere, 2013).

The results of studies that have been applied in varying countries and over time revealed that how people are managed is reflected in several outcomes such as enhanced job, operational, or financial performance, labor productivity, and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), increased organizational commitment and job satisfaction and employees' turnover and intentions to stay or leave, (Dyer & Reeves, 1995; Gupta & Singh, 2010; Guthrie, 2001; Huselid, 1995; Jiang et al., 2013; Kehoe & Wright, 2010; Patel & Conklin, 2012; García-Chas, Neira-Fontela, & Varela-Neira, 2016; Gürbüz, 2009; Kehoe & Wright, 2010; Korffet al., 2017).

When employees perceive HRM practices as benefits received from their organization ( Zhang et al., 2019) those practices form the input into a social exchange process (Snape & Redman, 2010). The employees will reciprocate those benefits by engaging in various positive attitudes ( Zhang et al., 2019).

Employees who receive the organizations' long-term investment through HPHRM practices feel obligated to repay with discretionary role behaviors (Gong, Chang, & Cheung, 2010; Shaw, Dineen, Fang, &

Vellella, 2009; Sun et al., 2007; Vu, Nguyen, & Le, 2020). As part of that exchange, employees could repay with discretionary role behaviors and those behaviors could include readiness for change.

Despite the confirmation of a number of theoretical studies on the relationship of HPHRM practices in enhancing individuals' readiness for change, research and practical studies are still scarce and this research gap has not been bridged. The importance of addressing this gap is important due tothe extent of the change imposed by internal and external business environments on the organizations, as well as the growing pivotal role that HRM can play in raising the readiness of individuals for change and thus enhancing the chances of success of various change initiatives and strategies. In addition to the research gap represented by the scarcity of studies on HPHRM practices as one of the most important antecedents for individuals' readiness for change in general, the lack of implementation of such studies in the context of developing countries is another gap that requires more research.

This work aims to add light to the antecedents of employees' readiness for change, paying special attention to the role of HPHRM practices. It also examines the effect of organizational commitment for promoting readiness for change and the role of HPHRM practices in enhancing employee commitment.

Most studies that have addressed the role that organizational commitment can play in enhancing readiness for change have been limited to one type of commitment, (the affective commitment), because is the most favorable type has a clear and significant impact on individuals' attitudes, unlike the two other types that many avoid. Through this study, the researcher investigated the role that organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative commitment) can play on the relationship between HPHRM practices and readiness for change.

As organizational change is intended to contribute to organizations success, the proposed research model also adds a performance construct, individual performance, as a final result of the proposed model.

Finally, hierarchy organizational culture is considered a potential moderator of the relationship between HPHRM practices and readiness for change. Organizational culture is one dimension of the organizational context that represents the conditions and environment under which the employees work, which may facilitate or hinder organizational change. It guides the behavior appropriate to each context of the organization (Silva, Castro, Dos-Santos, & Lima Neto, 2018), and explains why does a certain behavior occur (Trice & Beyer, 1993). The hierarchy organizational culture is examined as a potential moderator of the relationship between HPHRM practices and readiness for change.

In order to achieve the stated goals of the study, a research model has been proposed. This model is divided into three sub-models, considering a type of commitment in every sub-model.

Sub-model 1 includes the affective commitment between HPHRM practices and readiness for change. Sub-model 2 includes continuous commitment and Sub-model 3 includes the normative commitment. The individual performance construct was added as a final result as an outcome of readiness for change in the three sub-models. Finally, hierarchy organizational culture is considered as a moderator of the relationship between HPHRM practices and each commitment component.

To test our detailed hypotheses, primary data was collected through a questionnaire distributed to employees of banks operating in Jordan.

Results with regard to the first sub-model show the following statistically significant relationships:

- Communication and Clear Job Description, Extensive training and Participation HPHRM practices are positively related to Affective Commitment.
- Communication and Clear Job Description and Extensive Training HPHRM practices have a positive relation with readiness for change.
- Results oriented appraisal HPHRM practices have a negative relation with Readiness for Change.
- Affective Commitment is positively related to Readiness for Change.
- Readiness for Change is positively related to Individual Performance.

- Hierarchy Culture positively moderates the relationship between a) Communication, Clear Job Description, and b) Participation HPHRM practices and Affective Commitment.

Results related to the second sub-model show the following statistically significant relationships:

- Communication and Clear Job Description and Extensive Training HPHRM practices are positively related to Continuance Commitment.
- Selective staffing HPHRM practices are negatively related to Continuance Commitment.
- Communication and Clear Job Description and Extensive Training HPHRM practices have a positive relation with Readiness for Change.
- Results oriented appraisal HPHRM practices have a negative relation with Readiness for Change.
- Continuance Commitment is positively related to Readiness for Change.
- Readiness for Change is positively related to Individual Performance.
- Hierarchy Culture negatively moderates the relationship between a) Communication, Clear Job Description, b) Selective Staffing and c) Extensive Training HPRM practices and continuance Commitment.

Results regarding Sub-model 3 show the following statistically significant relationships:

- Communication and Clear Job Description and Extensive training HPHRM practices are positively related to Normative Commitment.
- Communication and Clear Job Description have a positive relation with Readiness for Change.
- Results-Oriented Appraisal HPHRM practices have a negative relation with Readiness for Change.
- Normative Commitment is positively related to Readiness for Change.

- Readiness for Change is positively related to on Individual Performance.

## 5.2. Discussion

The main findings of the research are summarized in the following lines. They are described distinguishing results in the three considered sub--models. In order to avoid repetitions of theoretical points, we do not make separate comments for the three sub-models, when the studied relationship does not change across the sub-models (i.e., HPHRM practices and readiness for change and readiness for change and individual performance).

### 5.2.1. High performance human resource management practices and organizational commitment

#### 5.2.1.1. Affective commitment

First, the results obtained provide support to most of our hypotheses. With regard to the role of HPHRM practices in promoting employees' affective commitment, our findings show that hypothesis 1 is partially supported.

As it was hypothesized, results show that the implementation of HPHRMP related to Communication and Clear Job Description (H1a), Extensive Training (H1d) and Participation (H1e) have a positive influence and increase employees' affective commitment.

Previous research has indicated systems of HPHRM practices as a mutual investment approach based on the social reciprocal exchange relationship (Tsui et al., 1997). Systems of HPHRM practices enhance employee skills, knowledge, and ability (KSAs) to perform, motivates employees by providing appreciation, and presents opportunities for employees to participate in decisions (Lepak et al., 2006). In line with the AMO theory and also according to SET (Blau, 1964) and the psychological contract (Guest, 2004), employees exchange in a positive manner by becoming more committed to their organizations and working harder (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Settoon et al., 1996; Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009).

Under the umbrella of Social Exchange Theory (SET) (Blau, 1964), and Perceived Organizational Support (POS) (Eisenberger et al., 1986) this result could suggest that the employees perceive these practices as supportive ones and that the organizations value their contributions and care about their wellbeing, which leads them to reciprocate to that support in terms of affective commitment.

From this perspective, the effective implementation of HPHRM practices leads to enhancing employees' perception of a supportive environment which produces the employee's exchange relationship with the organization based on the fact that these practices form, according to his/her perception. This exchange relationship will lead to employee affective commitment.

The results obtained are in line with some previous research which found that HPHRM practices enhance employees' affective commitment. Conducting a study among 370 employees in the Chinese manufacturing industry, Mao, Song, & Han (2013) found evidence that employee perspectives of systems of HPHRM practices including comprehensive recruitment and selection, incentive compensation, performance management, training related to organization's goals, and extensive employee involvement have a positive effect on affective commitment. They suggested that employees' attitudes including affective commitment can be improved by integrating effective systems of HPHRM practices in the working environment. Wu & Chaturvedi (2009) found that systems of HPHRM practices (including selectivity, comprehensive training, performance appraisals, internal career opportunities, incentive pay, and empowerment practices) displays a direct and positive relationship with affective commitment at the individual level.

In a study conducted among 281 employees from several organizations to investigate the mechanisms involved in the relations of HRM practices pertaining to performance benefits, appraisal, training and career development, with employee commitment, Meyer & Smith (2000) found that employees' perceptions of HRM practices to have indirect links to affective commitment.

In a study conducted in five selected commercial banks in Ghana, Coffie, Boateng, & Coffie, (2018) confirmed the significant positive impact of the implementation of HRM practices such as performance-based pay, rewards recognition, training and development, and communication and information sharing with employee's affective commitment.

On the other hand, our results show that the proposed hypotheses, result-oriented appraisal (H1b) and selective-staffing (H1c) HPHRM practices were not useful for enhancing employee affective commitment. The usefulness of performance appraisal in making managerial decisions depends on the accuracy of the information it provides (Poon, 2004; Whiting, Kline, & Sulsky, 2008). Results-oriented appraisal practices underline that appraisal is based on quantifiable objectives and results which could not always be perceived as a strong sign of support if the results of the assessment are not positive or when the appraisal is perceived as a tool of command and control (Alqudah, Carballo-Penela, & Ruzo-Sanmartín, n.d.).

In Jordan and many Arab countries in the Middle East, tribalism[50] nature of the country is one of the most defining features of the society (Branine & Analoui, 2006; Rowland, 2009). Favoritism or Wasta, is a direct result of tribalism (Sa'ad Ali, Raiden, & Kirk, 2013). Wasta is mostly based on factors such as the degree of clan or tribe kinship, geographic and regional origins, social relations and courtesies between people, which are largely reflected in aspects of the lives of people in these countries, including business and management methods and practices in various organizations. El-Said & Becker (2001) claimed that no matter how simple it is, everything, requires a wasta in Jordan.

*Wasta* involves "social networks of interpersonal connections rooted in family and kinship ties and involving the exercise of power" (Hutchings & Weir, 2006: 143). By wasta one may "achieve goals through links with key persons in positions of high status" (Smith, Huang, Harb, & Torres, 2011: 137). It is usually used to gain an advantage for that individual, such as obtaining a job, or promotion or receiving preferential treatment under the law (Cunningham & Sarayrah, 1994). One of the negative consequences of the frequent use of *wasta* on the business climate is the

50 Tribalism in modern urban cities in Jordan is an intangible emotion that involves a varying degree of loyalty to a tribe, and a social sense of belonging to a particular people, which may play a role in a person's daily life (Rowland, 2009).

unfair advantages that individuals with wasta obtain compared to those without (Sa'ad Ali et al., 2013).

Performance appraisal practice can be negatively affected by *wasta*, as there is a group of employees with access to *wasta* who believe that the results of their evaluation will be guaranteed to be positive in the end. Therefore, performance appraisal will be emptied of its content, being not important for which it was set, whether to enhance performance or for decisions regarding many aspects like rewards promotions termination or training and development. It will be replaced by an unrealistic practice that lacks the expected positive, supportive impact on their affective commitment to their organizations or their readiness for change. On the other hand, the other category of employees who do not have *wasta* are subject to real performance appraisal procedures that might be biased against them in favor of the other category. They will perceive that the performance appraisal practice deviates from its real criteria and that it serves some groups of beneficiaries, they will not perceive performance appraisal as a supportive practice by the organization. On the contrary, they view it as a tool of discrimination between employees on the basis of wasta and social relations.

What applies to performance appraisal practices may also apply to staffing practices in the *wasta* countries. In many Arab organizations, wasta plays an important role in hiring decisions. Applicants can search for *wasta* from their family, tribe, or friends in advance before applying for a job, to improve their chances of employment (Sa'ad Ali et al., 2013). Unlike in Western countries, where networks can help an individual reach the interview stage and rarely help him influence the decision-making process about getting a job (Sa'ad Ali et al., 2013), utilizing *wasta* connection extends to the decision of the employing organization about the person to employ (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011).

When tribalism and *wasta* play an influential role in the nomination, recruitment, job selection and deployment of employees, the selection of many employees is made based on their relationship with the owners or managers of the organization. The principles of merit, competence or qualifications required in job candidates are neglected during the selection and recruitment process to (Aladwan et al., 2014; Budhwar &

Mellahi, 2006a). Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov (2010) indicate that some advantages may arise due to hiring relatives and acquaintances based on favoritism, such as increasing motivation, reducing turnover, and facilitating behavior modification. Recruitment and hiring depending on social and tribal relationships and networks may enhance employees' sense of emotional connection to their organizations due to their informal relations with their management.

However, in this context selective staffing practices, will not be perceived as positive from employees' perspective because it contradicts the local society prevailing concepts of favoritism, *wasta*, and tribalism. Since selective staffing practices may be against the tribal values rooted in Jordanian society, they cannot be considered supportive values. For those who do not receive preferential treatment, the choice based on favoritism deepens the sense of injustice and unfairness to find that some colleagues are employed far from the principles of competence and qualifications. This could explain they do not consider selective staffing practices as supportive practices.

In addition to the above, because selective staffing practices affect the employees in a stage before they are hired, the present employees may not perceive these practices as supportive as the practices as clear job description/com, extensive training, and participation (Alqudah et al., n.d.).

#### 5.2.1.2. Continuance commitment

With regard to the role of HPHRM practices in promoting employees' continuance commitment, our findings show that hypothesis 2 is partially supported. Results show that the implementation of HPHRM practices related to Communication and Clear Job Description (H2a), and Extensive Training (H2d) as it was hypothesized, have a positive influence on employees' continuance commitment.

This result is consistent with the SET and POS theories. Based on the SET, HRM systems shape and define the nature of the organization's exchanges with its employees (Morrison, 1996), and the employees may reciprocate with different types of commitment to the firm (Gong, Law, Chang, & Xin, 2009).

Individuals with continuous commitment associate their stay with the organization to what they receive versus what they might lose (the cost) if they leave the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997) either as an economic or social cost (Powell & Meyer, 2004). Results suggest that they perceive communication, clear job description, and extensive training practices as supportive practices, providing them benefits that motivates them to stay.

When employees feel the desire of the organization's higher management to communicate with its employees, and if the organization seeks to hear their opinions and suggestions, they will appreciate this orientation by their organizations and interpret it as respect and appreciation for them. These feelings, along with the other benefits they obtain, constitute a motive to continue with the organization. In this line, Kinicki, Carson, & Bohlander (1992) suggested that employees begin to believe that the organization supports and is committed to them when their organizations share information with them and solicit their suggestions.

Employees who get the opportunity and access to the training are aimed at enhancing their skills, knowledge, and competency that enables them to carry out the required tasks (DeNisi & Griffin, 2001), to achieve organizational goals and employee expectations (Herold & Fedor, 2003). Those employees may view their organization as a supportive firm that invests in them, experiencing a greater affective commitment. Besides, employees may go beyond that, believing that to lose the benefits connected to these practices would be costly, therefore experiencing stronger continuance commitment (Paré & Tremblay, 2007).

Previous studies that found HRM practices have a positive impact on commitment in general (e.g. Chen, 2005; Ertemsir, Bal, & Bozkurt, 2017; Gaertner & Nollen, 1989; Ogilvie, 1986; Shahnawaz & Juyal, 2006) or on continuance commitment. For instance, Coffie, Boateng, & Coffie (2018) found that recruitment and selection, performance appraisal, rewards and recognition, communication, and information sharing were the primary HRM practices related to employees' continuance commitment in the banking sector in Ghana.

Using data gathered from 317 business school alumni from a large Canadian university, Gellatly, Hunter, Currie, & Irving (2009) investigated the association of employee perceptions of three different categories of HRM practices (development oriented, reward oriented, and stability oriented HRM practices) with potential categorical profiles generated by combining different levels of affective and continuance commitment. They found that to stability oriented HRM practices are positively related to continuance commitment.

Our findings show that results-oriented appraisal and participation practices do not have a significant effect on employees' continuance commitment

The result for results-oriented appraisal practices is similar to what we found regarding its relationship with affective commitment. We previously underlined that employee performance appraisal cannot always be taken as a sign of support, on contrary employees would perceive performance appraisal as a command-and-control instrument.

Thus, when the employee takes the benefits he receives against the costs of leaving, the results-oriented appraisal benefits will not be in the balance allocated to the gains, especially if the evaluation is strict, objective and far from favoritism.

Consequences of participation relate more to the individual's feeling that he is valued and appreciated by the management of his organization. This is highly related to the moral aspect, which Gagné & Deci (2005) classifies as one of the autonomous motivation or intrinsic motivating factors. These factors are related to emotional attachment and affective commitment, far from being considered among the rewards and extrinsic motivation factors related to continuance commitment.

Contrary to hypothesis 2c results show that selective staffing negatively influences continuance commitment. This result could be explained by the fact that in view of the prevalence of nepotism and favoritism (*wasta*) that stems from the tribal and clan nature in the society. Employees who are hired based on the organization's need for such competencies away from favoritism may feel different and distant from the rest of the employees who are hired on the basis of favoritism. They will have less attachment to their workplace, and a sense of continuance commitment will not be developed among them.

Continuance commitment mainly depends on the best job opportunity from the employee's point of view. In this case, employees who were employed primarily on the basis of *wasta* and interpersonal relationships believe that by this *wasta* they may have the access to another job that may represent a better opportunity for him. Moreover, selective staffing that objectively distinguish between candidates on the basis of the required competencies, qualifications, capabilities and skills may constitute a conflict with the culture and practices prevailing in the society, which are based on networks of relationships and nepotism. This idealistic selective staffing will negatively affect the employees' continuance commitment.

5.2.1.3. Normative commitment

Normative commitment indicates the individual's perceived obligation to remain membership in the organization (Achele, 2018; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer & Smith, 2000), where employees remain their membership with the organization because they have to, as a since of obligation. Meyer & Allen (1991) argued that employees who have to remain out of a sense of obligation may attend work regularly, perform assigned tasks, and perform little extras to help out, only because they see it as a part of their duty, or as a means of reciprocation for benefits received.

Normative commitment has been believed to develop in response to social pressure (Powell & Meyer, 2004), or/and as a sense of moral obligation to comply with behavioral norms (Wiener, 1982). Meyer & Allen (1991); Powell & Meyer (2004) confirmed that normative commitment is developed through two primary mechanisms a) as reciprocation for organizational investments and b) socialization experiences. Powell & Meyer (2004) suggest that normative commitment may be a special form of side pet that is sensitive to social norms and penalties associated with failing to fulfill them, they concluded that normative commitment was closely related to side bets that carry social costs such as expectations and self-presentation concerns.

Regarding the existence of a positive influence for HPHRM practices on employees' normative commitment (H3), results reveal partial support for this relation. The results show that communication and clear job description have a positive, statistically significant effect on normative commitment, and also founding a similar positive effect for extensive training practices (H3d).

This finding is consistent with theories of social exchange (SET) and perceived organizational support (POS). According to the literature on (SET), discretionary benefits contributed from an exchange partner will be returned back by the other party in a discretionary way in the longer term (Blau, 1964; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), employees reciprocate positively by working harder and becoming more committed to their organizations (Blau, 1964). High levels of (POS) create feelings of obligation to be committed to their organizations and a feeling of obligation to respond to their organizations' commitment (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Whereas, employees who receive packages of attractive benefits and perceive that organizations as supportive (POS), might in some circumstances feel indebted and have to repay the organization in the form of a normative commitment (Meyer & Smith, 2000). This applies to communication, clear job descriptions (H3a) and extensive training (H3d) HPHRM practices when perceived as benefits.

We found that some studies have reached results that agree and support our findings. For example, Bulut & Culha (2010); Gaertner & Nollen (1989); Khan, Bashir, Nasim, & Ahmad (2021); Owoyemi, Oyelere, Elegbede & Gbajumo-Sheriff (2011) found that training was related to employees' commitment. Meyer & Smith (2000) concluded that affective and normative commitment correlated significantly with employees' evaluation of all HRM practices including training practices. Bal, Bozkurt & Ertemsir (2014) found that HRM practices except compensation and rewards had a significant positive relationship with affective and normative commitment. In the banking sector in Ghana, Coffie et al. (2018) found a positive relationship between the implementation of training and development, and communication and information sharing HRM practices were found to have a significant positive impact on the employees' affective commitment and normative commitment.

Our results show that, result oriented appraisal (H3b), selective staffing (H3c) and participation (H3e) are not related to normative commitment. As noted in our interpretation of Sub-model 1 results, results-oriented appraisal practices cannot always be considered a strong sign of support (Alqudah et al., n.d.), especially if evaluation results are not positive or when evaluation is viewed as a command-and-control tools. Also, the conflict of results-oriented appraisal practices and selective staffing practices with the practices of favoritism and *wasta* prevailing in the tribal society will limit the supporting effect from the employees' point of view. This partial similarity of results with the Sub-model's 1 results of the affective commitment is consistent with the opinion of Meyer & Herscovitch, (2001)'s who believes that the correlations between affective and normative commitment, in general, are very high and that normative commitment is similar in its results to some extent with the affective commitment.

Participation practices are affected by the Islamic religion, which forbids working in commercial banks; Islam prohibits any transaction in usurious processes. Under the pressure of the economic situation from the high rates of poverty, unemployment and inflation in Jordan, some people find themselves compelled to work in commercial banks, knowing that this contradicts the principles of their religion. This drives him/her to refrain from actively participating in the work, waiting for the nearest opportunity to work in an Islamic bank or to find a different job, noting that this case may apply to Muslim employees working in commercial banks, unlike those working in Islamic banks. This could explain that HPHRM practices aimed to increase employees' participation do not produce the desired effects in the context of this sub-model.

#### 5.2.2. High performance human resource management practices and readiness for change

Regarding the relationship between HPHRM practices on readiness for change (H4), our results show that communication/clear job description and extensive training HPHRM practices promote employees' readiness for change in Sub-model 1 and Sub-model 2. In Sub-model 3 only communication and clear job description have a positive relationship with employees' readiness for change. These results partially support hypotheses 4a and 4d.

Aligned with SET, POS theory, and previous studies, this finding could indicate that when employees view these practices as benefits and supportive, they will trade in with them by engaging positive attitudes in support of organizational goals, including those related to change like readiness for change.

Noting the role of communication practices, Hameed, Khan, Sabharwal, Arain, & Hameed (2017) , and Wanberg & Banas (2000) suggested that employees perceived the change more positively when they received useful, timely, and relevant information about organizational change, and they were more willing to keep pace with and support the change process.

Focusing on cohesion and morale through enhancing training and development, open communication, and participation in decision-making leads to employees' realization of the values of strong human relationships in their departments, thus leading to higher levels of readiness for change (Jones et al., 2005).

Contrary to what it was hypothesized (H4b) there is a negative relationship between result-orientated appraisal practices and individuals' readiness for change in Sub-models 1, 2 and 3. Employees' performance appraisal involves an assessment of employees' performance that could not always be perceived as a sign of support, especially when the results of the assessment are not positive or when the appraisal is perceived as a tool of command and control. Performance appraisal could have a connotation related to the worst aspects of traditional merit rating, as a top-down statement by managers on what they believe of their subordinates, which is used as a command and control instrument (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). This feeling may be exacerbated if the evaluation is carried out strictly on some employees and not others who enjoy the preference of favoritism or *wasta*. In countries such as Jordan and similar Arab countries, where favoritism or *wasta* affects many workplace relationships rather than the legitimate rights or competitiveness of employees (Loewe et al., 2007), an objective evaluation of employee performance can be perceived as negative by the employees.

Individuals' readiness for change requires employees to be prepared to withstand the stress that change may impose, as well as to make sacrifices and effort for the success of the change. In times of organizational change, employees could consider results oriented appraisal to be one of the management's means of command and control, as it adds additional stress on them, in addition to stress imposed by organizational change and the accompanying state of uncertainty and fear of the unknown. Hence, when workforce realize discrimination against them in the appraisal process, in favor of those who receive support based on personal relationships or when they realize that evaluation is not based on results in many cases, they could not accept sacrifices related to organizational change and readiness for change could decrease. This finding is line with previous research that found that fairness has a clear link with employees' reactions to their performance appraisal system (Meyer & Smith, 2000).

Our results show, in contrast to theoretical hypotheses, that high-performance HRM practices related to selective staffing and employee participation are not statistically significantly associated with readiness for change in Sub-models 1, 2 and 3. Training practices are not related to readiness for change in Sub-model 3.

Selective staffing, which is based on strong foundations of competencies, qualifications and capabilities, may significantly contradict the tribal values rooted in society and constitute an obstacle in the face of practices such as *wasta*, which perpetuates the influence of tribal leaders and influential people, and considered as a great advantage for the interest of a wide class of beneficiaries of these favoritism. Consequently, the importance of selective staffing practices for existing employees can be mitigated and often are not seen as supportive and will not have that hypothesized positive effect. In addition, since selective staffing practices mainly affect employees before they are hired and before they formally become employees of the organization, these practices may be less relevant and impactful on current employees.

Regarding employee participation practices, prior research has noted that enhancing employees' participation improves their vitality and proactivity, which are important to achieve readiness for change (Tummers, Kruyen, Vijverberg, & Voesenek, 2013; 2015). However, in our study, participation practices do not produce these desirable effects.

HRM practices vary according to more than one contextual factor. The industry context (Batt, 2002; . Datta et al., 2005) and country culture (Holt et al., 2007) are important contextual factors. Studies on Islamic HRM (e.g. Mellahi & Budhwar, 2010; Tayeb, 1997; Yousef, 2000) have highlighted that Islamic work ethic, culture, values, and norms in the workplace could influence HRM practices.

The Islamic religion has prohibited some commercial bank transactions as a matter of forbidding usury and thus prohibited working in this field of commercial transactions represented by commercial banks. Cultural and religious issues could explain that enhancing participation practices do not produce expected results on employees' vitality and proactivity, making that these practices do not contribute to promote employees' readiness for change.

Finally, extensive training is not significantly related to readiness for change in Sub-model 3. This could suggest that the relationship between extensive training practices and readiness for change is better explained through normative commitment. Although this study does not perform an analysis of the mediating role of organizational commitment, the absence of direct relationship between both constructs could suggest a complete mediation, while this mediation could be partial in Sub-models 1 and 2.

### 5.2.3. Organizational commitment and readiness for change

#### 5.2.3.1. Affective commitment

Regarding the hypothesis 5, our results also show a positive and statistically significant relationship between affective commitment and readiness for change.

This finding is in line with research which underlines that affectively committed employees are willing to do what is required to benefit their organization, which includes organizational change, when change process is required (McKay et al., 2013; Meyer et al., 2007; Qureshi & Waseem, 2018), and that employee readiness for change levels would be heightened when increasing organizational commitment (Madsen, Miller, & John, 2005).

Meyer et al. (2007) noted that all three forms of organizational commitment would relate positively to compliance with the requirements for organizational change, asserting that employees who have a strong affective commitment believe in the change and desire to contribute to its success. In this line, Meyer & Allen (1997) point out that employees high in affective commitment, demonstrate their emotional attachment and identification with their involvement in their organizations. This would explain that the affectively committed employees are more willing to accept change (Iverson, 1996; Somers, 1995). In the case of affective commitment, employees feel bound to support organizational change because they want to.

A few of studies provide similar evidence stating that affective commitment impacts readiness for change. For instance, in their study, Al-Abrrow & Abrishamkar (2013) examined the relationship between organizational commitment and readiness for change , among the full-time employees in three universities in Iraq. They found statistically significant positive relationships between the overall organizational commitment and readiness for change, also between each of affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment, and readiness for change. The strongest relationship in this study was between affective commitment and readiness for change (Ibid).

Qureshi & Waseem (2018) conducted a study among168 respondents teaching and non-teaching staff from various Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in Karachi to examine the impact of employees' organizational commitment on readiness for change during the change process. The study concluded that affective commitment significantly influences readiness for change.

#### 5.2.3.2. Continuance commitment

Consistent with hypothesis H6, continuance commitment was found to have a positive effect on employees' readiness for change. Employees with a strong continuance organizational commitment know that leaving the organization may be disadvantageous to them due to even the lack of employment options or lower income (Niguse & Hirpesa, 2018). Thus, they keep their organization membership considering the disadvantages and costs of leaving the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990b).

This result is in line with some previous studies. Nordin (2011) assumed that continuance commitment has impact on employees' readiness on change. No matter what the form of commitment is, any type of commitment obligates the employee to perform the expected behaviors designated within the terms of that commitment. Moreover, Sangroengrob (2018) claimed that organizational commitment has an impact on employees' behavior on accepting change either by natural or when perceived of benefit. Employees with continuance commitment who perceive change as a benefit will feel more ready for change. Those behaviors can include all forms of support the organizations require from their employees (Meyer, Srinivas, Lal, & Topolnytsky, 2007) including readiness for change.

Besides finding a positive relationship between readiness for change and affective commitment, Qureshi & Waseem (2018) also found that continuance commitment is positively related to readiness for change.

#### 5.2.3.3. Normative commitment

Results reveal a positive and statistically significant relationship between normative commitment and employees' readiness for change supporting hypothesis 7. This is also in line with previous research that believes that normative commitment has an impact on the extent to which individuals are willing to adopt positive attitudes that serve the success of the organization. Normative commitment is similar in this willingness with affective commitment although this willingness is likely to be less in the case of normative commitment.

Previous studies such as Al-Abrrow & Abrishamkar( 2013) found positive, statistically significant relationships between organizational commitment in general and readiness for organizational change among employees in three universities in Iraq, as well as for normative commitment and employees' readiness for change, but the strongest relationship in this study was between emotional commitment and willingness to change.

Sukirtharaj (2018) examined employees' attitudes and behaviors in some government schools in Sri Lanka. found that the overall employee's commitment was statistically significant and positively related to the readiness for organizational change, and it was also found that employee's normative commitment was statistically significant and positively related to the readiness for change.

### 5.2.4. Readiness for change and individual performance

The results of our study also support hypothesis 8, showing a positive relationship between readiness for change and individual work performance in the three studied sub-models.

These findings are in line with the AMO framework (Appelbaum & Wohl, 2000). According to this framework, the availability of abilities, and the opportunity for individuals to participate in the various stages of change are needed for organizational change. Given that readiness for change involves possessing some capacity needed for implementing change (Scaccia et al., 2015), as well as producing motivation to get the opportunity to participate in the change process (Chrisanty et al., 2021), employees ready for change will accept, embrace, and adopt changes plan (Asbari & Novitasari, 2020), being in a better position than other counterparts to succeed in uncertain and competitive environments. Hence readiness for change will encourage employees to implement change which ultimately leads to their increased performance (Chrisanty et al., 2021).

Our findings are consistent with previous research on this topic. For instance, Weeks, Roberts, Chonko, & Jones (2004) found that employees' (343 sales managers) perceptions about organization's readiness for change influence their level of performance, underlining that when employees realize that the organization fosters an environment that supports change efforts, they will be more willing to take risks and adopt change strategies that may increase their performance.

In a study conducted in 468 branches of a state-owned bank in Indonesia, Chrisanty et al. (2021), investigated the influence of readiness for change on employees' performance in terms of task performance, adaptive performance (performance related to dynamic work situation, such as technological changes), contextual performance. They conclude that readiness for change positively affects employees' performance, highlighting that readiness for change leads the employees to better performance, particularly task and contextual performances.

### 5.2.5. The moderating role of hierarchy culture in the relationship between high performance human resource management practices and organizational commitment

#### 5.2.5.1. Affective commitment

Finally, we found evidence that hierarchy culture moderates the relationship between the HPHRM practices and affective commitment when considering HPHRM practices related to communication and clear job description and employee participation (H9).

Prior research had underlined that the hierarchical structures do not benefit commitment based on bonds of affection (Carvalho et al., 2018). As standardized strict rules, policies, rigid organizational structures, control, orientation to power, and restrictions inherent to hierarchy culture may reduce employees perceived support promoted by HPHRM practices, the absence of POS would reduce employees' acceptance of organizational goals and values and also emotional attachment, identification and involvement in the organization (Alqudah et al., n.d.; Sommer et al., 1996).

However, the obtained result is positive and different from the negative effect what it was hypothesized. Results show that in organizations where hierarchy culture is dominant, hierarchy culture reinforces the positive effect of HPHRM practices in affective commitment.

The obtained finding is consistent with the tribal nature that characterizes Jordanian society and with the importance of hierarchy in the Jordanian national culture. Hofstede (1980) listed power distance among other dimensions of the national culture that represent criteria for describing any national culture. Power distance is the extent to which individuals accept that power in organizations is unequally distributed (Hofstede, 1984). Moreover, high power distance which is also called power respect, means that members tend to accept the power and authority of their superiors (Griffin & Pustay, 2010). Hofstede (1984) classified Jordan as a country with a high-power distance where people in such societies accept a hierarchical order, and the hierarchical system does not need further justification and is socially accepted.

In centralized organizations, employees expect to be ordered to do what they ought. Although hierarchical cultures and structures in some countries can reduce the perception of the supportive environment promoted by HPHRM practices, it appears that the compatibility of organizational culture with national culture makes organizational hierarchy culture contribute to creating a supportive environment for Jordanian employees, which enhances the influence of some HPHRM practices on affective commitment.

Besides, the nature of banks' work with money, accounts and customer service could be interesting for understanding the result. This banks' features put employees under pressure and entails great personal legal and moral responsibilities that employees bear in the face of bank customers and the bank's management. Therefore, communication directed to them by the higher management including a) clear and high-accuracy information and instructions; b) clear and accurate job description that defines and explains their responsibilities and what exactly is expected of them; c) all the necessary details related to this job of tasks, duties and requirements, as protecting them from a legal point of view in front of management and clients and avoiding any misinterpretations about what the job role entails could explain the obtained finding.

For the HPHRM participation practices, this result could be understood considering some features of hierarchical organizational cultures. The use of strict instructions, regulations, procedures, and narrow control that limits the authorities and opportunities for participation in workplaces where hierarchical culture prevails, could make employees feel the value of practicing the participation that they lack. Any initiative from the management which opens the way for employees to express their opinions or participation in decision-making will resonate well in them. From this perspective, hierarchy culture could reinforce the positive effect of HPHRM participation practices on employees' affective commitment.

The results do not support the moderating role of hierarchy culture in the relationship between extensive training practices and affective commitment (H9d).

Training is an example of those signals being communicated from the organization to its employees indicating that the organization is willing to invest in them (García-Chas et al., 2016). This will enhance the feelings of perceived organizational support (POS) and thus increases employees' affective commitment. Moreover, extensive training is a practice that is closely related to the employee own benefits that develop their knowledge, skills, abilities and behaviors therefore enhance their chance to be promoted and advanced on their careers.

The great value of the personal benefits resulting from extensive training and what it means personally to employees may lead to maximizing the employees' emotional attachment to their organizations to a point that mitigates the impact of the hierarchical culture on this relationship.

#### 5.2.5.2. Continuance commitment

Partially supporting the hypothesis 9, we found evidence that hierarchy culture negatively moderates the relationship between the High-performance human resource management practices and continuance commitment when considering HPHRM practices related to communication and clear job description (H9a), selective staffing (H9c), and extensive training (H9d).

Hierarchical structures incorporate strict rules, policies, and organizational structures. Centralization and restrictions inherent to hierarchical cultures reduce individual responsibility (Salancik, 1977), restrict employees freedom of action which takes the form of strict orders and commands (O'reilly & Chatman, 1996), or limit the delegation of authority granted to employees (Sommer et al., 1996). This can reduce employees' perception of the supportive environment promoted by HPHRM practices. As perceiving support encourages employees to reciprocate in kind, hierarchical culture would make weaker the relationship between HPHRM practices and continuance commitment.

The results indicated that hierarchy culture negatively moderates the relationship between the HPHRM practices of a) communication and clear job description (H9a), b) selective staffing (H9c), and c) extensive training (H9d), and continuance commitment.

Banks in Jordan are distinguished as organizations with a hierarchical culture (Al-Abdullat & Dababneh, 2018). Organizations with hierarchical cultures are typically characterized by their bureaucratic values (Acar & Acar, 2012; Naranjo-Valencia et al., 2017), and by the difficulty of transferring information across administrative levels, isolating information at higher levels, and less flexibility and more rigidity (Wei, Liu, & Herndon, 2011; Zaltman, 1979). Bank employees will seek a better opportunity to leave these banks, which may be for economic reasons imposed by the difficult economic reality coinciding with religious reasons that obligate them not to work in commercial banks.

As the influence of hierarchical culture increases, it will affect the employees' psychological states and mentality, and perceptions regarding HPHRM practices. For example, with regard to communication practices, when the influence of the hierarchical culture grows, employees will realize that there are greater restrictions on information and that the higher management does not consult them and does not ask for their opinions, which can be interpreted by employees as a lack of appreciation by the management for its employees.

The same applies to the clear job description that will turn in the hands of the bureaucratic hierarchical administration into a tool of control and into a rigid standard without flexibility and more rigidity for evaluating and holding employees accountable for their daily performance and imposing a rigid work routine.

When the influence of the hierarchical culture grows, the reasons for keeping the work in the organization will decrease, making weaker the relationship between communication and clear job description practices and continuance commitment (H9a).

When considering selective staffing practices (H9c), the increasing influence of the hierarchical culture in banks could increase the focus on selective hiring according to strict criteria of qualifications, capabilities, competencies, and adherence to regulations to the letter, which goes against the values of favoritism and (*wasta*) prevailing in society. This will increase in their view the possibility of obtaining another job away from discrimination based on favoritism and social networks and thus reducing the potential perceived losses that may result from the possibility of not obtaining an alternative job. This represents a possible explanation about the negative moderation of hierarchy culture in the relationship between selective staffing practices and continuance commitment.

In organizations with a hierarchical structure and culture, as in banks, when the impact of hierarchical culture grows, this may affect the way to determine the employees' training needs. They are involved in training programs that the higher management deems appropriate to improve individual and organizational performance without consulting the employees and touching their needs as is done in performance agreements and in accordance with the performance management approach adopted by organizations with more flexible cultures.

When the training programs are determined from the point of view of one party, which is the higher management, and according to what it deems appropriate, the individual will no longer see the training with the same perceived value. Rather, the perceived value of the benefits obtained from it will be negatively affected and, as a consequence, the training practices will have a weaker effect on the individual's continuance commitment.

#### 5.2.5.3. Normative commitment

The results showed that the hierarchical culture does not moderate the relationship between HPHRM practices and normative commitment, and therefore the results do not support hypothesis 11c.

This can be explained that the commitment of the normative type is linked to the individual mentality, through which employees are convinced to remain in the organization because of the feeling of duty to pay this debt to the organization. The nature of normative commitment could make the prevailing culture of the organization do not play a role between HPHRM practices and this type of commitment.

### 5.3. Contributions of the study

Based on what was discussed in the previous chapters and the findings drawn, this study contributes important theoretically and empirically to the literature on the areas of Human Resource Management Practices and their relationship to positive employee outcomes such as organizational commitment, readiness for change, and employee work performance upon different prospects.

Our research emphasizes the importance of the role of HRM practices and, particularly, some HPHRM practices, for organizational change initiatives, by enhancing employees' readiness for change.

First, despite the enormous quantity of studies that have examined the antecedents of change and readiness for organizational change (e.g., Adil, 2014; Al-Hussami, Hammad, & Alsoleihat, 2018; Arnéguy, Ohana, & Stinglhamber, 2018; Benzer, Charns, Hamdan, & Afable, 2017; Bouckenooghe & Devos, 2007; Detert, Schroeder, & Mauriel, 2000; Hanpachern, Morgan, & Griego, 1998; Rafferty & Minbashian, 2018; Soumyaja, Kamlanabhan, & Bhattacharyya, 2015; Vakola, 2014; Wulandari, Ginting, & Hasnida, 2020), studies that have examined the relationship between HPHRM practices and readiness for change is still very scarce. Prior research on organizational change management and HRM literature has underlined that one of the critical reasons for the failure of change initiatives is neglecting the human element, and that the HR function has an important role to play in the success of organizational change initiatives. However, researchers have ignored the impact of HRM practices, specifically HPHRM practices, on promoting organizational change and readiness for change in particular.

On the contrary, a tremendous amount of empirical research has concentrated on the effect from the opposite direction, examining the impact of various organizational change types on HRM, such as addressing the new roles of HRM practitioners imposed by change (e.g., Baran, Filipkowski, & Stockwell, 2019; Caldwell, 2001, 2003; Edgley-Pyshorn & Huisman, 2011; Empson, 1994; Kiessling & Harvey, 2006; Mamin Ullah, 2012; Schuler & Jackson, 2001; Smith, Da Cunha, Giangreco, Vasilaki, & Carugati, 2013). Those studies also focused on the effects of organizational change on different individual attitudes such as employee commitment, job satisfaction, performance, employees' desire to stay, leave, or withdrawal, absence, cynicism toward organizational change, openness to change, the stress of change, employees' mental health, feeling, behavior, reactions, motivation, creativity, innovation, and many more topics.

Thus, one of the key contributions of this study is underlining the role of HRM to promote employees' readiness for change, particularly noting the importance of communication and clear job description and extensive training practices. Extensive training practices are positively related to readiness for change in Sub-model 1 and 2, but not in Sub-model 3.

These results constitute a contribution to bridging a gap in the empirical terms due to the scarcity of empirical studies that examine this relationship.

Second, this thesis adds knowledge about the relationship between HPHRM practices and organizational commitment. Since the three types of commitment have a different nature, the results of our study found that HPHRM practices differ in the extent of their impact on the different components of commitment. While some of them positively affect affective commitment, they may not have the same effect on the continuance commitment or the normative commitment.

Results show that practices such as communication and clear job description, and extensive training positively influence the three types of commitment, while the practices related to participation had a positive effect only in the case of affective commitment and did not have a beneficial effect in enhancing both of continuance and normative commitment.

Selective staffing practices did not have a statistically significant effect on affective and normative commitment, while their impact was negative on continuance commitment.

Third, this research emphasizes the role of some aspects related to employee perceptions of HRM practices,  suggesting how issues of national culture could affect the success in achieving the goals related to these practices.

Previous literature has noted that the success of HRM practices also depends on how employees perceive them. People perceive reality differently and employees will not interpret HRM practices similarly. Therefore, the impact of HRM' practices will be largely determined by the meanings that employees attach to those practices. In this line, Bowen & Ostroff (2004) suggested that employees' perceptions are essential in translating HRM practices into desired organizational outcomes.

Most of the used theories and research work in HRM research have been carried out in developed countries context with western cultural work settings. Less research work has been conducted so far in developing countries (Andrew & Mohankumar, 2015; Bonaime, Gulen, & Ion, 2018; Sukirtharaj, 2018; Wan Rafaei Abdul Rahman, 2004). The results of research conducted in developed countries may not be applied or generalized in the case of a developing country context such as Jordan, which has different national cultures, norms, and values.

We found that communication, clear job description, and extensive training practices play a key role to promote both readiness for change and organizational commitment.

On the contrary, the other considered practices have a limited effect on both constructs, in spite that prior literature underlines their importance in many studies in Western developed countries. Results show that practices such as results-oriented appraisal are negatively associated to readiness for change. Selective staffing practices are negatively related to continuance commitment as well.

The significant influence of nepotism or favoritism (*wasta*) in Jordan national culture could be a key factor to understand these unexpected findings, being one of the characteristics that distinguish this region's culture from Western cultures.

The role of usure in the Islamic culture could be also relevant for understanding some obtained findings, such as those regarding to participation practices. Islamic culture forbids helping in any way in promoting usury, specifically noting the prohibition for those who write usury transactions or be a witness to them. Perception of HRM practices regarding to participation of banking employees following Islamic religion could be shaped by this Islamic principle.

Fourth, the study also emphasizes the role of organizational commitment to produce employee readiness for change. Results indicated that all three types of commitment had a positive impact on the employees' readiness for change. However, in contrast to previous studies that view the affective commitment to have the best results in generating positive attitudes among employees (e.g., Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Stanley, Meyer, Topolnytsky, & Herscovitch, 1999; Yew, 2008), including readiness for change, our study found that the greater effect was due to continuance commitment.

Since commitment is related to individuals' attitudes, beliefs and intentions (Armenakis et al., 1993), employees with a strong continuance commitment might believe that to have a job in the organization in which they work is the only or rare invaluable opportunity for them to be employed in the absence of employment alternatives due to high unemployment rates and very high rate of poverty in Jordan. This may generate a kind of loyalty to this organization away from emotional attachment or may be stronger than it and from a sense of obligation in the case of normative commitment.

Driven by this loyalty, those employees will perceive that it is in his interest first before the interest of the organization to adopt the goals of change and to be ready to support the organization in adopting the change strategy that will ensure its survival and to be ready to perform the role required of him. In this line, Madsen et al. (2005) found that employees who have the sense of loyalty to their organization had greater perceived readiness for change.

Fifth, this study also contributes to understand the relationship between readiness for change and employee performance. Results also show that employees' readiness for change enhances individual performance. This positive influence is strong and occurs in all three models, which high coefficients for the study context. Besides, very few studies examined the direct relationship between readiness for change and employee performance, this finding is interesting as it can be generalized to employees with any of the three commitment profiles.

Another interesting finding is that the hierarchical culture has a changing role as a moderator in the relationship between high-performance HPHRM practices and various organizational commitment components.

Theoretically, the hierarchical culture should negatively moderate the effect of HPHRM practices on organizational commitment. However, our results found moderation to be positive in the case of affective commitment, negative moderation with relation to continuance commitment, and non-significant within the normative commitment.

This finding is interesting, as not many studies have examined this moderating effect considering the three types of commitment. Besides, we provide evidence of which HPHRM practices are affected by hierarchy culture in the proposed relationships. While communication and clear job description and participation practices play a role when considering affective commitment, selective staffing and extensive training practices, besides communication and clear job description have changing role when considering continuance commitment. We consider these findings open new avenues when considering the moderating role of hierarchy culture in the relationship between HPHRM practices and organizational commitment.

Finally, the study was conducted in Jordan, a developing country characterized by a culture with an Islamic religious, and tribal social structure background that is distinguished from the societies and cultures of the developed countries in Europe and USA in where HRM theories are developed and formulated.

According to the researcher's knowledge, no similar study has been conducted previously, considering the studied variables, either at the level of the country of Jordan or the level of the Jordanian banking sector. Hence the studied country and sector fill a gap from prior research since most of the prior research on this and similar topics were focused on developed countries and prior research on this topic has not paid much attention to Jordan. In addition, this study considers bank employees of all administrative levels to differentiate from many previous studies that only targeted the views of executives and managers.

### 5.4. Managerial implications

This study provides information to HR bank managers in Jordan regarding HPHRM practices that promote different types of commitment and readiness for change, which could be useful to prioritize these practices to increase organizational commitment and support the success of different change initiatives.

We found that HPHRM practices related to communication, clear job description and extensive training had a clear positive and statistically significant effect in enhancing the three types of commitment, the affective, continuance, and normative commitments. The participation practices had a positive and statistically significant effect only on the affective commitment.

The same bundle of practices including communication, clear job descriptions, and extensive training was found to enhance employee readiness for change when considering Sub-model 1 and 2, while only communication and clear job description are positively related to readiness for change in Sub-model 3. This information should be useful for those HR managers interested in promoting organizational commitment and readiness for change in Jordanian banks.

Besides being aware of those practices which produce the expected results, bank managers should be aware that some HPHRM practices are negatively related to organizational commitment and readiness for change in the context of this study. Selective staffing has a negative impact on continuance commitment. We also found that results-oriented appraisal practices have a negative impact on employees' readiness for change in the three studied models.

We have previously emphasized that contextual issues such as the Islamic religion that prohibits usurious transactions, and national culture such as favoritism (*wasta*) can influence Jordan Bank employee's perceptions of HPHRM practices and their success. This information could be useful for HR managers implementing appropriated practices.

Second, although the importance of change for organizations success has increased dramatically (Burnes, 2009), the low success rate became one of the most remarkable aspects of organizational change efforts (Burnes & Jackson, 2011; Kanter, 1992; Kotter, 1996), and most of the organizational change initiatives failed to produce the intended outcomes (Beer & Nohria, 2000). As a consequence, some organizations are reluctant to initiate change (Alqudah et al., n.d.).

Our findings show that readiness for change has a significant positive effect on employees' performance in the three commitment models. This means that when managers utilize the appropriate set of HPHRM practices, besides contributing to organizational change by enhancing the employees' readiness for change, they could also improve employees' performance within all commitment profiles. This result may encourage reluctant organizations to initiate change (Alqudah et al., n.d.).

Third, with regard to hierarchical culture our findings highlight that the moderating effect of hierarchical culture on the relationship between human resource practices and individuals' commitment varied depending on the type of commitment.

Therefore, managers must be aware that the hierarchical culture may have a positive impact that strengthens the influence of the HPHRM practices they apply on the employee's commitment or a negative that weakens this relationship, based on the type of commitment the targeted employee has.

Finally, the continuance commitment compared to the other two types had the greatest positive impact on the employees' readiness for change.

If managers interested in promoting readiness for change have not enough resources to implement a wide range of HPHRM practices, they should focus on those practices that are positively related to continuance commitment (communication and clear job description s and participation practices).

### 5.5. Limitations and future research

The results of any study need to be interpreted in the context of its limitations.

First, the study takes place in one country and sector. The limitation of our study to bank employees in Jordan opens the debate of the generalizability of our results. Although considering a non-studied country fills a research gap, future research should test this model in countries different from Jordan. In this task, cross-country studies could be beneficial to analyze whether the obtained findings are also valid in different countries.

Testing the model in occupations where the considered variables operate in a different way will be also interesting, as well.

Although future research could consider other countries and sectors, some of the obtained findings can be applied to other Middle East countries with similar Islamic and tribal cultural characteristics.

Another limitation of this study relates to the cross-sectional nature of research's data collection, which might not fully capture the dynamic nature of the perceived HPHRM practices in relation to employees' readiness for change, employees' commitment, and employee performance. Thus, this research does not allow for testing the causality among the studied variables, and their evolution. However, the scientific value of this cross-sectional study will not be underestimated given the paucity of studies examining the role of HPHRM practices in promoting organizational change. This study represents a first step to analyzing the proposed model, and it will be among our interests to apply future research using longitudinal designs to analyze the causal relationships between the variables under study.

Third, the constructs used in our research were self-reported and collected over the same period of time using the same cross-sectional research designed questionnaire. Thus, common method bias and social desirability bias could be problematic (Ortiz, Salgado, & Cázares, 2017; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

To avoid this problem, we tested the existence of common method bias by applying two different tests to determine the extent of variance. Harman one-factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) showing that common method variance was unlikely to be significant. Besides, following Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff (2003) approach, a new model with all the observed variables loading on one factor was re-estimated and the results were unacceptable. Altogether, the two results indicate that common method bias in this study is not a problem.

To decrease the probability of the social desirability bias, the questionnaires were completely anonymous and self-administered moreover, the questionnaire clearly stated that all responses would be a) used only for academic purposes, b). will be confidential.

Fourth, there is not a specific examination of the role of the different types of commitment as mediators between HPHRM practices and readiness for change or other mediating relationships in the proposed research model. The obtained findings suggest that the different types of commitment could mediate between different HPHRM practices and readiness for change, but future research is needed to confirm this point. The same happens for readiness for change as a mediator between the types for commitment and individual performance.

Fifth, in the future, it may be interesting to study the moderating role of other types of organizational culture in the relationship between HPHRM practices and commitment. Cameron & Quinn (2006), suggested three types of culture besides hierarchical culture a) the clan culture, a friendly working environment where the working force is sensed as an extended family; b) the adhocracy type described as innovation and risk-taking, and a highly creative and dynamic working environment culture; c) the market culture, enhancing competitiveness. It would be interesting to apply the research to other industrial and service sectors characterized by cultures other than the hierarchical culture to find out what impact the other cultures could have on the relationship between the research variables.

Sixth, future studies could consider expanding the considered research model by including another HPHRM practices such as career path, promotion or flexible job assignment, in order to study their impact on different types of commitment and employees' readiness for change.

In addition, according to results from Exploratory Factor Analysis, some HPHRM practices are grouped when testing the research model. Communication and Clear Job Description practices are considered together, the same happens for Results-Oriented Appraisal, Reward and Security practices. While these groups of practices make sense from a theoretical perspective, for instance Sun, Aryee, & Law, 2007 include practices related to appraisal, compensation, and benefits in the same subsystem, future research could perform a separate analysis for every practice. Future research to better understand the relationship between HPHRM participation practices and organizational commitment is also needed. This relationship could be affected by some values from the Islamic religion, which forbids working in commercial banks. This would make that participation practices are not related to organizational commitment. While this is true for continuance and normative commitment, it is not true for affective commitment and results show a positive relationship between HPHRM participation practices and affective commitment.

Investigating the moderating effect of the perceived procedural justice, especially in light of a strong presence of favoritism, perceived organizational support, or adding job satisfaction to the model could be interesting for future research.

Finally, the nationality of the bank and type of business regarding commercial or Islamic could be considered when understanding the results of the study. The employees of banks operating in Jordan as a unified sector were targeted without making any distinction between these banks. In line with the obtained results, there could be differences in the relationship between types of human resource management practices and the types of commitment among the employees, considering whether the bank is a national commercial or a foreign commercial that applies practices according to European or American standards.

Future research may consider conducting separate studies and separate analyses for each bank category. This analysis may be useful for identifying hidden nuances not seen in the current study.

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# 6. ANNEX. QUESTIONNAIRE SAMPLE USED FOR DATA COLLECTION

Dear Sir/Madam!

You are kindly invited to participate in a research study titled "Human Resource management's practices and organizational change: the role of high-performance human resource management practices in enhancing employees' readiness for change. Evidence from Jordanian banking sector"

This questionnaire comes as part of a research to complete the requirements for obtaining a doctorate in human resources management from the University of Santiago de Compostela in Spain, and this study aims to reach the best practices of human resource management that help in promoting organizational change processes in the banking sector operating in Jordan.

What is meant by organizational change processes in general and brief is any change process that the bank in which you work adopts and implements such as changing the strategy, work methods, work policies, introducing new work systems, creating, canceling, improving and developing the services provided to customers, making a change in the size or organization The bank, such as merging with another bank or reducing the size of the bank, creating or canceling branches, creating or canceling employee jobs or tasks, adopting new training processes ...

(This survey will be treated with the utmost confidentiality and privacy) and there is no need to include your name in the survey

- Your appreciated participation in answering this questionnaire will help us in improving our understanding of the way in which human resources are managed in the conditions and cases of organizational change in the banking sector operating in Jordan, according to the workers' point of view.
- Completed questionnaires will only be viewed by the researcher at the University of Santiago de Compostela / Spain who is conducting the study and will be deleted once the data is transferred to a database.
- Please complete the attached questionnaire by answering all questions with the utmost objectivity and return it in the attached reply envelope (if the answer is on the paper form)
- If you prefer to respond by e-mail or online, please send an e-mail to: ikrema.haalqudah@usc.es or ikremahq@yahoo.com with "Send me the survey" or "Send me the survey link" in the subject or message body, and a copy of the survey or link will be sent to you in word format.
- Do not hesitate to contact the researcher if you have any questions or inquiries at the same email address above or at 0772223103

all thanks
Researcher: Ikrema Hashem Al-Qudah (PhD researcher)
Faculty of Economics and Business Administration
University of Santiago de Compostela, Spain

**Part A:**
**DEMOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION.**

Depending on the form of the question, please either write in the answer or tick the box that has the answer that you think is most accurate.

1. **What is the name of the bank you work at?**

______________________________

2. **Age (please tick your age group).**

| (1) 18 - 29 | (2) 30 - 39 | (3) 40 - 49 | (4) 50 - 59 | (5) 60 or over |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | |

3. **Gender (Please tick your Gender)**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| (1) | Male | |
| (2) | Female | |

4. **What is your level of education?**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| (1) | Less than a community college diploma | |
| (2) | Community College Diploma | |
| (3) | Bachelor's degree | |
| (4) | MA | |
| (5) | PhD | |

5. **Tenure of service in the banking sector in Jordan (in years)**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| (1) | Less than 5 years | |
| (2) | 5 - 10 years | |
| (3) | 11- 15 | |
| (4) | 16 -20 | |
| (5) | 21 -25 | |
| (6) | 26 and above | |

6. **What is your Job position?**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| (!) | Bank Teller. | |
| (2) | Administration employee | |
| (3) | Assistant Branch/ Section Manager | |
| (4) | Branch / Section Manager | |
| (5) | Assistant manager of a department | |
| (6) | Department manager | |
| (7) | Executive Director | |

## Part B:
## HRM PRACTICES

Listed below is a series of statements related to HR practices used to maintain an organization the valuable asset - employees who in turn provide human capital.
Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements by ticking number from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree

| **STA** | **SELECTIVE STAFFING** | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **(1)** | Great effort is taken to select the right person. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(2)** | Long-term employee potential is emphasized. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(3)** | Considerable importance is placed on the staffing process. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(4)** | Very extensive efforts are made in selection. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| **TRA** | **EXTENSIVE TRAINING** | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **(5)** | Extensive training programs are provided for individuals in customer contact or front-line jobs. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(6)** | Employees in customer contact jobs will normally go through training programs every few years. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(7)** | There are formal training programs to teach new hires the skills they need to perform their job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(8)** | Formal training programs are offered to employees in order to increase their promotability in this organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| **SEC** | **EMPLOYMENT SECURITY** | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (14) | Employees in this job can be expected to stay with this organization for as long as they wish. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (15) | Job security is almost guaranteed to employees in this job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| **DES** | **CLEAR JOB DESCRIPTION** | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (16) | The duties in this job are clearly defined. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(17)** | This job has an up-to-date description. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(18)** | The job description for a position accurately de scribes all of the duties performed by individual employees. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| **APP** | **RESULTS-ORIENTED APPRAISAL** | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **(19)** | Performance is more often measured with objective quantifiable results. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(20)** | Performance appraisals are based on objective quantifiable results. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(21)** | Employee appraisals emphasize long term and group-based achievement. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| REW | INCENTIVE REWARD | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **(22)** | Employees in this job receive bonuses based on the profit of the organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(23)** | Close tie or matching of pay to individual/group performance. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| PAR | PARTICIPATION | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **(24)** | Employees in this job are often asked by their supervisor to participate in decisions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(25)** | Employees in this job are allowed to make decisions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(26)** | Employees are provided the opportunity to suggest improvements in the way things are done. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(27)** | Supervisors keep open communications with employees in this job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| COM | COMMUNICATION | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **(28)** | The communication between me and other employees at work is good. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(29)** | Management keeps me well informed of how well the organization is doing. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(30)** | The communication between me and the managers/supervisors at work is good. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(31)** | Employees in my organization regularly receive formal communication regarding company goals and objectives. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**Part C:**
**ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT**

Listed below is a series of statements related to Organizational Commitment
Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements by ticking number from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree

| AFF | AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (1) | I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (2) | I enjoy discussing about my organization with people outside it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (3) | I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (4) | I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (5) | I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (6) | I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (7) | This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (8) | I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| CON | CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (1) | I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (2) | It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (3) | Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (4) | It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (5) | Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (6) | I feel that I have very few options to consider leaving this organization | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (7) | One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (8) | One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice -another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| NOR | NORMATIVE COMMITMENT | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **(1)** | I think that people these days move from company to company too often. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(2)** | I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(3)** | Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(4)** | One of the major reasons I continue to work in this organization is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(5)** | If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(6)** | I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(7)** | Things were better in the days when people stayed in one organization for most of their careers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **(8)** | I do not think that to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## Part D:
## READINESS FOR CHANGE

Listed below is a series of statements related to Readiness for Change.
Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements by ticking number from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree

At this point in time….

| REA | READINESS FOR CHANGE | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (1) | I find change refreshing . | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (2) | The change will help me to do my work better. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (3) | Proposed changes are generally designed to improve my organizations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (4) | I desire to see change efforts in my organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (5) | In general, I don't like change. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (6) | Change generally discomforts me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (7) | Change discourages me to work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (8) | Change encourages me to make more efforts in my work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (9) | I want to do my best for the success of change process. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (10) | I want to devote myself to the change process. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (11) | I try to implement the proposed changes. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (12) | Change contributes to elimination of deficiencies in th Banck. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**Part E:**
**INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCE**

Listed below is a series of statements related to Individual Performance.
Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements by ticking number from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree

| PRF | INDIVIDUAL TASK PROFICIENCY | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (1) | I Carried out the core parts of my job well. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (2) | I Completed my core tasks well using the standard procedures. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (3) | I Ensured my tasks were completed properly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| ADP | INDIVIDUAL TASK ADAPTIVITY | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (1) | I Adapted well to changes in core tasks. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (2) | I Coped with changes to the way I have to do my core tasks. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (3) | I Learned new skills to help me adapt to changes in my core tasks. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| PRV | INDIVIDUAL TASK PROACTIVITY | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (1) | I Initiated better ways of doing my core tasks. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (2) | I Come up with ideas to improve the way in which my core tasks are done. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (3) | I Made changes to the way my core tasks are done. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**Part F:**
**ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE**

Listed below is a series of statements related to organizational Culture.
Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements by ticking number from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

| HIE | HIERARCHICAL CULTURE | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (19) | The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (20) | The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (21) | The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (22) | The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (23) | The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control, and smooth operations are important. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (24) | The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME!