The Impact of Human Resource Management Practices on Employees’ Attitude in Jordanian Organisations

A Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy of Charles Sturt University

by

Khaled Mahmoud Aladwan

School of Management and Marketing
Charles Sturt University
Australia

April 2012
In the name of God, the Beneficent, the Merciful

Read: in the name of your Lord who created.
Table of Contents

TABLE OF CONTENTS .................................................................................................................. ii
DEDICATION ................................................................................................................................. ix
STATEMENT OF ORIGINAL AUTHORSHIP ............................................................................ x
LIST OF TABLES ........................................................................................................................... xi
LIST OF FIGURES ......................................................................................................................... xiii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ............................................................................................................... xiv
ETHICS APPROVAL .................................................................................................................... xvi
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS ........................................................................................................... xvii
PUBLICATIONS EMERGED FROM THIS RESEARCH .............................................................. xix
ABSTRACT ..................................................................................................................................... xxi

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION ................................................................................................. 1

1.1 CHAPTER OVERVIEW ........................................................................................................... 1

1.2 INTRODUCTION ................................................................................................................... 1

1.3 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND ............................................................................................ 3

1.3.1 Human Resource Management Practices ......................................................................... 3

1.3.1.1 Recruitment and Selection .......................................................................................... 5

1.3.1.2 Training and Development ......................................................................................... 7

1.3.1.3 Performance Appraisal .............................................................................................. 8

1.3.1.4 Rewards and Benefits .............................................................................................. 9

1.3.2 Employees’ Attitude (Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment) ..................... 11

1.3.3 Human Resource Management Practices in Jordanian Organisations ......................... 14

1.4 RESEARCH PROBLEM ......................................................................................................... 15

1.5 THE THEORETICAL MODEL ............................................................................................... 17

1.6 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES .................................................................................................. 19

1.7 RESEARCH QUESTIONS .................................................................................................... 20

1.8 RESEARCH OUTCOMES ..................................................................................................... 20

1.9 COUNTRY CONTEXT OF THE STUDY ............................................................................... 21

1.9.1 Demography .................................................................................................................. 21

1.9.2 Economic and Industrial Background ......................................................................... 22
1.9.3 Key Challenges and Future Developments ........................................... 24
1.10 ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS ....................................................... 25
1.11 CONCLUSION ......................................................................................... 26

CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL BACKGROUND .............................................. 27
2.1 CHAPTER OVERVIEW ............................................................................. 27
2.2 INTRODUCTION ....................................................................................... 27
2.3 HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT REVIEW AND THEORY .............. 29
2.4 ISSUES IN CORE HRM PRACTICES IN JORDAN AND MIDDLE EAST .......... 34
   2.4.1 Recruitment and Selection ............................................................... 35
   2.4.2 Training and Development .............................................................. 39
   2.4.3 Performance Appraisal ................................................................. 42
   2.4.4 Rewards and Benefits .................................................................. 43
2.5 HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES FROM AN ISLAMIC PERSPECTIVE ................................................................. 45
   2.5.1 Recruitment and Selection: Islamic Point of View ......................... 46
   2.5.2 Training and Development: Islamic Point of View ....................... 49
   2.5.3 Performance Appraisal: Islamic Point of View ............................. 49
   2.5.4 Rewards and Benefits: Islamic Point of View ............................. 50
2.6 EMPLOYEES’ ATTITUDE: JOB SATISFACTION ..................................... 51
   2.6.1 Job Satisfaction in the Western Context ...................................... 55
   2.6.2 Job Satisfaction Studies in Middle East Countries ....................... 57
2.7 EMPLOYEES’ ATTITUDE: ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT ........... 59
   2.7.1 Organisation Commitment in the Western Context .................... 61
   2.7.2 The Three Component of Organisational Commitment .............. 62
   2.7.3 Organisational Commitment in Jordan and Middle East ............ 66
2.8 EMPLOYEES’ WORK VALUES ............................................................... 69
   2.8.1 Defining the Work Value Construct .............................................. 69
   2.8.2 Importance of Work Values ......................................................... 71
   2.8.3 Work Values in the Western Context ......................................... 73
2.8.4 Work Values in Non-Western Context .............................................. 75

2.9 EMPLOYEES’ INTENTION TO QUIT .................................................. 77
  2.9.1 Intention to Quit in the Western Context ...................................... 78
  2.9.2 Intention to Quit in the Middle East ........................................... 83

2.10 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE FIVE CONSTRUCTS ........... 85
  2.10.1 The Relationship between Human Resource Management Practices (HRMP) and Job Satisfaction (JS) ...................................................... 85
  2.10.2 The Relationship between Human Resource Management Practices (HRMP) and Organisational Commitment (OC) ............................ 87
  2.10.3 The Relationship between Human Resource Management Practices (HRMP) and Work Value (WV) .................................................... 90
  2.10.4 The Relationship between Human Resource Management Practices (HRMP) and Intention to Quit ................................................. 92
  2.10.5 The Relationship between Job Satisfaction (JS) and Organisational Commitment (OC) ................................................................. 94
  2.10.6 The Relationship between Job Satisfaction (JS) and Work Value (WV) ................................................................................................. 96
  2.10.7 The Relationship between Job Satisfaction (JS) and Intention to Quit (IQ) ......................................................................................... 99
  2.10.8 The Relationship between Organisational Commitment (OC) and Work Value (WV) ................................................................. 102
  2.10.9 The Relationship between Organisational Commitment (OC) and Intention to Quit (IQ) ................................................................. 104
  2.10.10 The Relationship between Work Value (WV) and Intention to Quit (IQ) ...................................................................................... 106

2.11 CONCLUSION ....................................................................................... 110

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN .......... 111
3.1 CHAPTER OVERVIEW ........................................................................... 111
3.2 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACH ......................................... 111
3.3 POPULATION OF THE STUDY ............................................................. 112
3.4 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT ................................................................. 113
4.3.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis ................................................................. 139
4.3.4 Definition of the Latent Factors................................................................. 142
4.3.5 Multi Dimensional Scaling (MSD) – PROXSCAL Method .................... 142
4.3.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis ................................................................. 148
4.3.7 Multiple Regression Analysis ................................................................. 154
4.3.8 Discussion of HRM Practices ................................................................. 156

4.4 ANALYSIS OF THE SECOND CONSTRUCT: JOB SATISFACTION .... 161
  4.4.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis ................................................................. 162
  4.4.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis ................................................................. 165
  4.4.3 Multiple Regression Analysis ................................................................. 171
  4.4.4 Discussion of Job Satisfaction ................................................................. 175

4.5 ANALYSIS OF THE THIRD CONSTRUCT: ORGANISATIONAL
  COMMITMENT ................................................................................................. 179
  4.5.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis ................................................................. 180
  4.5.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis ................................................................. 183
  4.5.3 Multiple Regression Analysis ................................................................. 188
  4.5.4 Discussion of Organisational Commitment ............................................ 190

4.6 ANALYSIS OF THE FOURTH CONSTRUCT: WORK VALUES .......... 194
  4.6.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis ................................................................. 194
  4.6.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis ................................................................. 197
  4.6.3 Multiple Regression Analysis ................................................................. 202
  4.6.4 Discussion of Work Values ................................................................. 204

4.7 ANALYSIS OF THE FIFTH CONSTRUCT: INTENTION TO QUIT ....... 207
  4.7.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis ................................................................. 208
  4.7.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis ................................................................. 210
  4.7.3 Multiple Regression Analysis ................................................................. 215
  4.7.4 Discussion of Intention to Quit ............................................................... 217

4.8 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HUMAN RESOURCE
  MANAGEMENT PRACTICES (HRMP) AND JOB SATISFACTION (JS) .... 220
  4.8.1 Discussion of the Relationship between HRMP and JS ...................... 227

4.9 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HUMAN RESOURCE
  MANAGEMENT PRACTICES (HRMP) AND ORGANISATIONAL
  COMMITMENT (OC) ......................................................................................... 228
4.9.1 Discussion of the Relationship between HRMP and OC .......................... 234

4.10 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES (HRMP) AND WORK VALUES (WV) ...... 235
   4.10.1 Discussion of the Relationship between HRMP and WV .................. 241

4.11 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES (HRMP) AND INTENTION TO QUIT (IQ) 242
   4.11.1 Discussion of the Relationship between HRMP and IQ .................... 248

4.12 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION (JS) AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT (OC) ...................................................... 249
   4.12.1 Discussion of the Relationship between JS and OC ....................... 254

4.13 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION (JS) AND WORK VALUE (WV) ........................................................................ 255
   4.13.1 Discussion of the Relationship between JS and WV ...................... 260

4.14 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION (JS) AND INTENTION TO QUIT (IQ) ................................................................. 261
   4.14.1 Discussion of the Relationship between JS and IQ ......................... 266

4.15 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT (OC) AND WORK VALUES (WV) ............................................. 267
   4.15.1 Discussion of the Relationship between OC and WV ..................... 272

4.16 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT (OC) AND INTENTION TO QUIT (IQ) .............................................. 273
   4.16.1 Discussion of the Relationship between OC and IQ ....................... 278

4.17 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORK VALUES (WV) AND INTENTION TO QUIT (IQ) ........................................................................... 279
   4.17.1 Discussion of the Relationship between WV and IQ ...................... 284

4.18 THE FINAL MODEL SHOWING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE FIVE CONSTRUCTS (HRMP, JS, OC, WV, AND IQ) ......................... 285

4.19 CONCLUSION ...................................................................................... 293

CHAPTER FIVE: THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH AND CONCLUSION .......... 294

5.1 CHAPTER OVERVIEW ............................................................................ 294

5.2 THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTION .......................................................... 294
5.2.1 Theoretical Contribution for Human Resource Management Practices 294
  5.2.1.1 Managerial Implications for Human Resource Management Practices (HRMP) ................................................................. 296
    5.2.1.1.1 Managerial Implications for International Business Organisations ................................................................. 296
    5.2.1.1.2 Managerial Implications for Human Resource Managers ........................................................................... 298
  5.2.2 Theoretical Contribution for Job Satisfaction (JS) ................................................. 299
  5.2.3 Theoretical Contribution for Organisational Commitment (OC) ........ 301
  5.2.4 Theoretical Contribution for Work Values (WV) ............................................. 303
  5.2.5 Theoretical Contribution for Intention to Quit (IQ) ........................................ 305

5.3 LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH ........... 306
5.4 CONCLUSION ................................................................................................. 310
REFERENCES .................................................................................................. 316
APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE ....................................................................... 349
Dedicated with Love to

The Most Precious People in My Life
My Parents,
My Brothers,
My Sisters,
Statement of Original Authorship

I, Khaled Mahmoud Aladwan, hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person nor material which to a substantial extent has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma at Charles Sturt University or any other educational institution, except where due acknowledgement is made in the thesis. Any contribution made to the research by colleagues with whom I have worked at Charles Sturt University or elsewhere during my candidature is fully acknowledged.

……………………………

Khaled Mahmoud Aladwan

Date………………….
List of Tables

Table 3.1 JSS Subscales and Descriptions .......................................................... 125
Table 4.1 Factor Structure of Human Resource Practices ..................................... 141
Table 4.2 MDS PROXSCAL HRM Practices Structure ......................................... 144
Table 4.3 Structural Parameters Estimates for HRM Models ............................... 149
Table 4.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Goodness-of-Fit Indices for HRMP......... 151
Table 4.5 Multiple Regression Analysis for HRM Practices ............................... 155
Table 4.6 JSS Rotated Factor Loadings, Common Variance and Eigenvalues ......... 164
Table 4.7 Goodness-of-Fit Indices for Job Satisfaction ........................................ 168
Table 4.8 Structural Parameters Estimates for Job Satisfaction Models ............... 169
Table 4.9A Multiple Regression Analysis for Job Satisfaction ............................ 173
Table 4.9B Multiple Regression Analysis for Job Satisfaction ............................ 174
Table 4.10 Factor Structure of Organisational Commitment Variables ............... 182
Table 4.11 Structural Parameters for Organisational Commitment Models ........... 185
Table 4.12 Goodness-of-Fit Indices for Organisational Commitment ................. 186
Table 4.13 Multiple Regression Analysis for Organisational Commitment ......... 189
Table 4.14 Factor Structure for Work Values Variables ..................................... 196
Table 4.15 Structural Parameters Estimates for Work Value structural Models ...... 198
Table 4.16 Goodness-of-Fit indices: Work Values .............................................. 200
Table 4.17 Multiple Regression Analysis for Work Values ................................. 203
Table 4.18 Factor Structure for Intention to Quit .............................................. 209
Table 4.19 Structural Parameters Estimates for Intention to Quit Models ........... 211
Table 4.20 Goodness of Fit Indices for Intention to Quit .................................. 213
Table 4.21 Multiple Regression Analysis for Intention to Quit .......................... 216
Table 4.22 Confirmatory factor analysis: Goodness-of-Fit indices for HRMP and JS 224
Table 4.23 Structural Parameters Estimates for the Three Models of HRMP and JS 225
Table 4.24 Confirmatory factor analysis: Goodness-of-Fit indices for HRM and OC 231
Table 4.25 Structural Parameters Estimates for the Models HRMP and OC ............232
Table 4.26 Goodness-of-Fit Indices for HRMP and WV ..................................238
Table 4.27 Structural Parameters Estimates for the Models HRMP and WV .........239
Table 4.28 Confirmatory factor analysis: Goodness-of-Fit indices for HRMP and IQ245
Table 4.29 Structural Parameters Estimates for the Models of HRMP and IQ .........246
Table 4.30 Goodness-of-Fit Indices for JS and OC ............................................251
Table 4.31 Structural Parameters Estimates for the structural Models of JS and OC252
Table 4.32 Confirmatory factor analysis: Goodness-of-Fit indices for JS and WV .....257
Table 4.33 Structural Parameters Estimates for the Models of JS and WV ............258
Table 4.34 Confirmatory factor analysis: Goodness-of-Fit indices for JS and IQ ......263
Table 4.35 Structural Parameters Estimates for the Models of JS and IQ ..............264
Table 4.36 Confirmatory factor analysis: Goodness-of-Fit indices for OC and WV ...269
Table 4.37 Structural Parameters Estimates for the Models of OC and WV ..........270
Table 4.38 Confirmatory factor analysis: Goodness-of-Fit indices for OC and IQ .....275
Table 4.39 Structural Parameters Estimates for the Models of OC and IQ .............276
Table 4.40 Confirmatory factor analysis: Goodness-of-Fit indices for WV and IQ ....281
Table 4.41 Structural Parameters Estimates for the Structural Model of WV and IQ282
Table 4.42 Accepted and Rejected Hypotheses .................................................292
List of Figures

Figure 1.1: Theoretical Model .................................................................18
Figure 2.1 Recruitment and Selection Process ........................................37
Figure 2.2 Training and Development Process .......................................40
Figure 2.3 The Hypothetical Research Model .........................................109
Figure 3.1 Major Steps Involved in the Analysis of Data..........................119
Figure 4.1 Multi Dimensional Scale (MSD) PROXSCAL for HRM Practices 147
Figure 4.2 Structural Model ($M_3$) for the Four HRM Practices .............153
Figure 4.3 Structural Model ($M_3$) for Job Satisfaction .........................170
Figure 4.4 Structural Model ($M_3$) for Organisational Commitment Factors 187
Figure 4.5 Structural Model ($M_3$) for Work Values Factors ..................201
Figure 4.6 Structural Model ($M_3$) for Intention to Quit .......................214
Figure 4.7 Structural Model ($M_2$) The Relationship between HRM Practice and JS 226
Figure 4.8 Measurement Model ($M_2$) The Relationship between HRMP and OC 233
Figure 4.9 Structural Model ($M_2$) The Relationship between HRMP and WV 240
Figure 4.10 Structural Model ($M_2$) the Relationship between HRMP and IQ 247
Figure 4.11 Measurement Model Showing Relationship between JS and OC 253
Figure 4.12 Structural Model of JS and WV ...........................................259
Figure 4.13 The Measurement Model ($M_1$) of JS and IQ ........................265
Figure 4.14 The Measurement Model ($M_1$) of OC and WV ...................271
Figure 4.15 The Structural Model of OC and IQ ...................................277
Figure 4.16 The Structural Model of WV and IQ ....................................283
Figure 4.17 The Final Structural Model for the Five Constructs (HRMP, JS, OC, WV, and IQ) ...............................................................287
Acknowledgements

Above all, I thank God for giving me the strength and guidance to accomplish this task. This thesis would not have been possible without the kind assistance of many. Therefore, debts of gratitude are owed to all these individuals who helped make this endeavour come true.

First and foremost I want to express my sincere gratitude and deeply-felt thanks to my supervisor Dr. Ramudu Bhanugopan. It has been an honour to be one of his Ph.D. students. It is difficult to overstate my gratitude to him. With his enthusiasm, inspiration, and great efforts to explain things clearly and simply, he helped to make statistics fun for me. Throughout my thesis writing period, he provided encouragement, sound advice, good teaching, great company, and lots of good ideas. I would have been lost without him.

I am also indebted to the associate supervisor Professor Alan Fish. I would like to express many thanks for him, for providing a significant guidance and for the care and expertise which he has so freely provided through the course of this thesis. His knowledge, quick response, valuable comments and kind nature are very gratefully acknowledged.

Debts of gratitude are also owed to many people who assisted me over the period of this thesis. I would like to express many thanks for my colleague Miss. Joanna Carlisle for her help, kindness and the encouragement she provided all the time. I would like to specially thank Associate Professor Jamal Abu Doleh, Dr. Hassan Obied, Dr. Ata Rehman, Dr. Waseem Afzal, Mr. Anthony Bush, Mrs. Kim Craig,
and all the staff in both School of Management and Marketing and International School of Business & Partnership.

I am deeply grateful and thankful to my brother and friend Advocate Laith Altarawneh and his wife Advocate Tamara Saleh for their kindness and for helping me through the data collection period. I am also grateful to all my friends I met in Wagga Wagga for the wonderful friendship they offered me and for being the surrogate family during the two years I stayed there and for their continued moral support thereafter.

Lastly, but not least, this thesis would not have been possible without the warm and strong support of the closest people to my heart. I am extremely indebted and thankful with eyes full of tears to my father Mr. Mahmoud Aladwan for his full support and encouragement. His confidence in me gave me the strength to continue in this long journey. I also would like to thank my heart and my soul; my mother for her love, patience and caring through the whole life. I am forever grateful to my brothers; Dr. Yasser Aladwan, Dr. Ahmad Aladwan, Sergeant Omar Aladwan, and Mr. Raed Aladwan for their support and encouragements. I would also like to extend huge and warm thanks to my sisters for their love and tenderness. A special thanks to my brother Dr. Ahmad Aladwan and his wife Carolyn Aladwan for the support they offered, for the love they provided, for their understanding, endless patience and encouragement when it was most required.

Finally, I am forever indebted and thankful for my family for whom this work is dedicated.
Ethics Approval

27th May 2010

Mr Khaled Aladwan
School of Business
Charles Sturt University

Dear Mr Aladwan

The School of Business Ethics Committee has approved your proposal “The Impact of Human Resource Management Practices on Employees’ Attitude in Jordanian Organisations” for a fifteen month period from 27th May 2010.

The protocol number issued with respect to this project is 209/2010/03. Please be sure to quote this number when responding to any request made by the Committee.

Please note that the Committee requires that all consent forms and information sheets are to be printed on School of Business letterhead. Students should liaise with their Supervisor to arrange to have these documents printed.

You must notify the Committee immediately should your research differ in any way from that proposed.

You are also required to complete a Progress Report form, which can be downloaded from www.csu.edu.au/research/forms/ehrc_annrep.doc, and return it on completion of your research project or by 31st August 2011 if your research has not been completed by that date.

The Committee wishes you well in your research and please do not hesitate to contact Dr Pamela Mathews on extension 32575 or email pmathews@csu.edu.au if you have any enquiries.

Yours sincerely

Dr Pamela Mathews
School of Commerce
Ethics Committee
Direct Telephone: (02) 6933 2575
Email: pmathews@csu.edu.au
List of Abbreviations

AGFI  Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index
ASE  Amman Stock Exchange
CFA  Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI  Comparative Fit Index
CMV  Common Method Variance
CNT  Condition Number Test
EFA  Exploratory Factor Analysis
GDP  Gross Domestic Product
GFI  Goodness-of-Fit Index
HR  Human Resources
HRM  Human Resource Management
HRMP  Human Resource Management Practices
ICT  Information and Communications Technology
IFI  Incremental Fit Index
IQ  Intention to Quit
JDOS  Jordanian Department of Statistics
JS  Job Satisfaction
JSS  Job Satisfaction Survey
KMO  Kaiser Meyer Olkin
MDS  Multi Dimensional Scaling
MLE  Maximum Likelihood Estimate
MNCs  Multinational Companies
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NFI</td>
<td>Normed Fit Index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGOs</td>
<td>Non-Government Organisations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NNFI</td>
<td>Non-Normed Fit Index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC</td>
<td>Organisational Commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA</td>
<td>Performance Appraisal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCA</td>
<td>Principal Component Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RB</td>
<td>Rewards and Benefits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMR</td>
<td>Root Mean Square Residual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>Root Mean-Square Error of Approximation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS</td>
<td>Recruitment and Selection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEM</td>
<td>Structural Equation Modelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>Standardised Root Mean Residual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TD</td>
<td>Training and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TLI</td>
<td>Tucker Lewis Index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UAE</td>
<td>United Arab Emirates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>United States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIF</td>
<td>Variance Inflation Factors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WTO</td>
<td>World Trade Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV</td>
<td>Work Values</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Publications Emerged From This Research

Peer Reviewed Refereed Journal Articles


Publications Emerged From This Research

Peer Reviewed Conference Proceedings


Abstract

This study evaluates the latent factor structure of human resource management practices scales, and provides a stronger focus on the nature of human resource management practices within the cross cultural context to identify possible future directions for human resource management strategy development and professional practice in Jordan. The purpose of this study was to test the impact of human resource management practices on job satisfaction, organisational commitment, work values, and intention to quit among frontline employees in Jordanian organisations. Moreover, the current research was proposed to examine a factor structure of human resource management practice scales and in so doing to test a causal model of human resource management practices. Furthermore, this study tested causal models of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, work values and intention to quit in a sample of frontline employees across a variety of industries in Jordan. A test of the models used a path analytic approach with LISREL 8.80.

A survey was completed by 493 frontline employees from Jordanian organisations. Principal component analysis was used to determine the underlying factor structures. The measurement models were tested on the complete dataset using exploratory factor analysis employing SPSS 17.0. Confirmatory factor analysis was employed using to further investigate the latent structure of the factors. This study finally evidenced a good fit of data for a hypothesis five-factor model. The final model supported a conceptual framework that is inclusive of five domains: human resource management practices, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, work values, and intention to quit. The current study found evidence that the human resource management practices have a significant impact on employees’ attitudes such as; job
satisfaction and organisational commitment. Whereas, the current study found that the human resource management practices has no direct or significant impact on employees’ work values and intention to quit.

The limited amount of research available on human resource management practices, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, work values, and intention to quit in the Middle East literature and particularly in Jordan has limited the opportunity to gather content-rich information from previous studies. The findings of the study highlight the importance of the composite views of the human resource management practices scale as a multi-dimensional construct. The study illustrates the parameter estimates representing relationships between the constructs under investigation.

The current research contributes to the knowledge in several grounds. First, it validates the structure of human resource management practices scales in Jordan. Secondly, this study enriched the understanding of human resource management practices, drawing a sample of participants from different sectors (insurance, finance, services, accounting and industry) and suggests that these variables are as equally prominent as others in explaining employees’ attitudes toward human resource management practices. The findings of the study offer new perspectives and support the overall validity of the nomological network of the five factors, but also suggest that caution should be exercised in different contexts and cultural settings.
Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Chapter Overview

The aim of this chapter is to provide a significant introduction to the study. It includes ten sections. The first section provides an introduction to the topic. The second section presents the research theoretical background. The third section highlights the research problem. The fourth section represents the theoretical model. The fifth section provides the research objectives. The sixth section outlines the research questions. The seventh section provides an overview of the anticipated outcomes. The eighth section provides an overview of the country context of the study. The ninth section provides an overview of the overall structure of the thesis and finally, the chapter concludes with a brief conclusion.

1.2 Introduction

Organisations today persistently wrestle with revolutionary developments and technological trends, such as globalisation, deregulation, demographic changes and an accelerating array of products and services (Othman, 2009; El-Kot & Leat, 2008; Chew, 2004; Chandrakumara & Sparrow, 2004; Groeschl, 2003; Becker & Gerhart, 1996). These developments have resulted in a technology and knowledge-based society in which human capital is crucial to commercial survival. The tumultuous environment engendered by these changes has created many challenges for businesses in the areas of job satisfaction, employee retention, performance and
organisational commitment (Lee & Chang, 2008; Fiorito, Bozeman, Young & Meurs, 2007; Minbaeva, 2005; Chew, 2004; Kane, 2000).

Increasingly, organisations are looking for talented employees who will be able to adapt to an information and service society (Kwantes, 2009; Zheng, 2009; Chew, 2004; Porter, 2001). Organisations established in this new paradigm recognise that the crucial element in human resource management (HRM) is successfully motivating, satisfying and retaining highly innovative and effective employees, whose first test is the survival of organisational consolidation and restructuring (Jain, Giga & Cooper, 2009; Petrescu & Simmons, 2008; Chew, 2004; Clark, 2001).

According to a study conducted by Accenture, 2001, 80 per cent of business experts and multinational corporations believe that ‘human resources issues’ are now more critical than they were three years ago. Further, 68 per cent believe that retaining talented employees is more important than recruiting new ones (Chew, 2004). This acknowledgement, coupled with the exceptional efforts some business leaders and companies are making to retain and acquire top talent, represents an essential shift in the relationship between the employer and the employee. Essentially, many organisations now recognise that employee retention is representative of competitive and strategic advantage (Hassan, 2007; Chew, 2004; Walker, 2001; Montgomery, 1996).

Today, many scholars and practitioners regard HRM as a sustained source of competitive advantage for organisations operating in a worldwide economy (Zheng, 2009; Chang & Huang, 2005; Chandrakumara & Sparrow, 2004). In response to this, many future-thinking organisations are struggling to establish a positive and dynamic
organisational climate through HRM practices, in an attempt to retain and sustain valuable employees (Chew & Chan, 2008; Milne, 2007; Heraty & Morley, 1998). These practices include ensuring a good fit between the values of the organisation and the individual employee (Okpara & Wynn, 2008; Heraty & Morley, 1998); providing adequate opportunities for training and development; developing an equitable compensation system that rewards high performance; recognising employees’ contributions and efforts in the performance appraisal phase; and providing employees with appropriate, interesting and challenging assignments (Yeganeh & Su, 2008; Chew & Chan, 2008; Carraher, Gibson & Buckley, 2006; Morrow, 2001; Boswell & Boudreau, 2000). These practices and policies aim to improve employees’ attitude by shaping their behaviours and skills (Nehmeh, 2009; Mosadeghrad, Ferlie & Rosenberg, 2008; Chew & Chan, 2008; Chandrakumara & Sparrow, 2004; Elizur, 1996; Huselid, 1995).

1.3 Theoretical Background

1.3.1 Human Resource Management Practices
The past two decades have witnessed an increase in the literature on management and particularly on the influence of HRM practices on organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and hence employee performance (Nehmeh, 2009; Okpara & Wynn, 2008; Petrescu & Simmons, 2008; McGunnigle & Jameson, 2000). Due to the rapidly transforming global economy, organisations are facing an increasingly complicated business environment, which has come to be characterised by such phenomena as internationalisation, market deregulation, increasing product-market competition and changing customer needs (Falkenburg & Schyns, 2007; Chang & Huang, 2005; Richbell, 2001; Becker & Gerhart, 1996). To compete effectively,
organisations must constantly improve their performance by enhancing productivity, improving quality, reducing costs and differentiating their products and services (Michael, Court & Petal, 2009; Hassan, 2007; Minbaeva, 2005; Chang & Huang, 2005).

Consequently, an organisation’s human resource capital must be carefully managed if it is to function efficiently and effectively (Mosadeghrad et al., 2008). HRM was once relegated to a second-class priority in many organisations, but recognition of its significance in accomplishing organisational goals has grown dramatically in the past two decades. HRM is a set of organisational activities directed towards attracting, developing, and maintaining efficient human capital in order to accomplish organisational objectives (Davidson & Griffin, 2006; Davidson et al., 2006). Its importance stems from legal complexities as well as from the recognition that human resources are valuable assets that contribute to the enhancement of organisational competitiveness. In its most straightforward sense, the function of HRM is to add value to the organisation (El-Jardali, Tchaghchagian & Jamal, 2009).

Moreover, the views of the father of scientific management, Frederick Taylor, on HRM practices in the areas of recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal and the development of an appropriate reward system are still valid and highly influential (Schwartz, 2007; Aghazadeh, 1999). Taylor’s belief was that HRM involved the recruitment and selection of the right employees for the right positions, providing relevant training, establishing an adequate performance appraisal system and establishing an equitable compensation and reward system.
These four criteria continue to be important elements in the development of successful HRM (Edgar & Geare, 2005; Aghazadeh, 2003; Huselid, 1995). Hence, institutions should attract and retain talented employees by matching employee needs with what the organisation is willing to grant. Many organisations offer considerable benefits because they have realised that taking care of their employees ensures that their employees, in turn, will look after their interests (Monavvarian & Khamda, 2010; Davidson et al. 2006; Denisi & Griffin, 2001; Aghazadeh, 1999). Finally, Dyer and Reves (1995) proposed that HRM practices also have an impact on organisational outcomes such as productivity, in addition to influencing other attitudinal measures such as turnover, satisfaction and commitment.

1.3.1.1 Recruitment and Selection
Successful HRM planning is designed to identify an organisation’s human resource needs; once these needs are known, the organisation should act to meet these needs through the staffing function (Paul & Anantharaman, 2003; Heraty & Morley, 1998; Montgomery, 1996). The objective of the staffing process is to locate, select, acquire and place the human resources necessary to fulfil organisational plans (Katou, 2008; Hallier, 2001; Heraty & Morley, 1998). The staffing function consists of the two main activities of recruitment and selection, which focus on matching the prospective employee’s capabilities and motivations with the demands and rewards inherent in a vacant position (Othman, 2009; Wickramasinghe, 2007; Lopez, Peon & Ordas, 2005; Tanova & Nadiri, 2005; Hallier, 2001).

According to Wickramasinghe (2007), recruitment and selection lie at the heart of the process of acquiring a workforce that will be able to maintain a sustainable competitive advantage. Heraty and Morley (1998) stated that an organisation’s
survival and profitability is increasingly determined by the quality and performance of its human resource capital, and it has been argued that ineffective recruitment and selection methods often result in increased costs and reduced commercial viability.

Further, many organisations are now downsizing and trying to enhance productivity by asking fewer employees to know more, do more, change more and interact more. This leads to higher levels of stress and lower levels of job performance, satisfaction and organisational commitment, which cause more resignations and show that ineffective recruitment and selection procedures fail in recruiting skilled and suitable workers (El-Jardali et al., 2009; Hooi, 2008; Lepak, Liao, Chung & Harden, 2006). In the Middle East, the absence of sound recruitment and selection procedures in many organisations has resulted in unsatisfied employees, high turnover rates, growing staff shortages, low organisational commitment and reduced ability to manage work volume (El-Jardali et al., 2009; El-Kot & Leat, 2008; Shahnawaz & Juyal, 2006; Paul & Anantharaman, 2003; Elizur, 1996). According to Shahnawaz and Juyal (2006) and Van Vianen (2000), satisfied employees tend to be more committed to their companies and to assume greater responsibility towards their work. They are also less likely to leave the organisation, which helps cut down on recruitment and selection expenditure.

Much of the recent literature has concentrated on the necessity of recruiting candidates who are committed to organisational goals and values (Katou, 2008; Wickramasinghe, 2007; Raghuram & Arvery, 1996; Adkins, Russell & Werbel, 1994). In today’s dynamic world, job insecurity has become a reality, and retaining workers is a cheaper and better option than hiring new ones. To do so, a corporation
should treat its employees as partners in the work, for this would motivate them to achieve its goals in creative ways that will help it face dramatic global changes with confidence and competitive action (Aghazadeh, 2003; Frances, 2002).

1.3.1.2 Training and Development

Training has become increasingly vital to the success of modern organisations, and is considered an integral component of the staffing function. The quality of employees and their development through training and education are major factors in determining long-term profitability (Altarawneh, 2009; Othman, 2009; Roselius & Kleiner, 2000). Training comprises those activities that are designed to improve performance on the job that an employee is presently doing or being hired to do. It involves learning concepts or acquiring skills to boost performance (Tzafrir, 2006; McGunnigle & Jameson, 2000). Training is viewed as an experience, a discipline, or a regimen through which people acquire new skills, knowledge, attitudes or behaviour (Othman, 2009; Altarawneh, 2009; Tzafrir, 2006).

In much of the HRM literature, training and development are closely associated with work value, culture change, job satisfaction, performance and organisational commitment (Tzafrir, 2006; Hale, 2003; McGunnigle & Jameson, 2000). McGunnigle and Jameson (2000) stated that training and development helps instil corporate culture and values, and Watson and D’Annunzio-Green (1996) concur that such programmes make a vital contribution towards cultural change, and enhance employee satisfaction and commitment. Williams, Dobson and Walters (1993) also identify the training process as a crucial step towards increasing employees’ performance, satisfaction, commitment, and matching employees with work value.
Most jobs change as new technologies are introduced, thus employees need to attend appropriate training and development programmes to keep growing with their positions (Othman, 2009; Tzafrir, 2006; Acton & Golden, 2003). However, in many Arab organisations, including Jordanian ones, the literature shows that training and development is not considered important in ensuring the organisation’s success. Instead, it is viewed as a waste of time and money, and an expensive process that needs to be eliminated (Altarawneh, 2009).

1.3.1.3 Performance Appraisal
A performance appraisal system is one of the most helpful tools with which an organisation can maintain and enhance performance, productivity, and facilitate progress towards achieving its strategic goals (Manoharan, Muralidharan & Deshmukh, 2009; Prowse & Prowse, 2009; Grubb, 2007; Wilson & Western, 2000; Coates, 1996). Organisations usually conduct appraisals for administrative and/or development purposes (Prowse & Prowse, 2009; Grubb, 2007; Coates, 1996). Performance appraisals are used as the basis for decisions on an employee’s work conditions (rewards, promotions and termination). They can also be used to counsel employees regarding effective work behaviours and send them for training (Manoharan et al., 2009; Prowse & Prowse, 2009; Grubb, 2007).

Performance appraisal is a significant indicator of employees’ high performance, satisfaction and commitment (Shahnawaz & Juyal, 2006). It is a fundamental HRM function and a critical research topic (Poon, 2004). Its usefulness in the making of managerial decisions partly depends on the accuracy of the information it provides, an issue that is of paramount importance in HRM (Whiting, Kline & Sulsky, 2008; Poon, 2004; Coates, 1996). Behery and Paton (2008) stated that an effective
Performance appraisal system creates a definition of, and provides a vehicle for, the recognition of dependable work, and also that it contributes significantly towards maintaining and enhancing organisational commitment and values.

Performance appraisal is the specific and formal evaluation of an employee in order to determine the degree to which they are performing their job (Manoharan et al., 2009; Wilson & Western, 2000). It is a planned and organised process that evaluates each employee’s performance in physical, technical, behavioural or physiological terms, in order to determine their strengths and weaknesses and find ways in which they can improve their performance (Prowse & Prowse, 2009; Manoharan et al., 2009). According to Boice and Kleiner (1997), developing an appraisal system that accurately reflects employee satisfaction and commitment is a crucial and difficult task. Performance appraisal systems cannot be generalised or easily transplanted from one organisation to another. They should be specifically designed to match the values and characteristics of an organisation and its employees (Whiting et al., 2008).

1.3.1.4 Rewards and Benefits

Rewards are a set of benefits and incentives organisations provide to individuals in return for their willingness to perform various jobs and tasks (Yeganeh & Su, 2008; Carraher, Gibson & Buckley, 2006; Denisi and Griffin, 2001; Appelbaum & Mackenzie, 1996). Their purpose is the provision of a cost-effective pay structure that will attract, motivate and retain competent employees. A reward may take two forms: (1) direct reward; or (2) indirect reward (Yeganeh & Su, 2008; Milne, 2007). Direct rewards consist of wages and salaries (the compensation people receive on a regular basis [monthly or weekly] or through bonuses and profit sharing). Conversely, indirect rewards refers to fringe benefits that form an important part of
overall reward packages in most organisations, including pension plans, accident insurance and paid vacations and sick leave (Milne, 2007; Carraher, Gibson & Buckley, 2006; Denisi and Griffin, 2001).

In ever more competitive local and global business environments, many organisations are trying to develop effective reward strategies that are directly linked to the enhancement of employees and organisational performance (Yeganeh & Su, 2008; Milne, 2007). A properly developed and managed reward system can be a vehicle for high performance, work satisfaction and commitment. Supported by other HRM practices, an appropriate incentive and reward plan can provide the stimulus for desired behavioural change and performance enhancement (Appelbaum & Mackenzie, 1996). For example, many organisations have adopted a flexible reward approach because they believe that people value the ability to choose a compensation process that matches their individual values and maximises personal satisfaction (Carraher et al., 2006; Heshizer, 1994).

Finally, employees need to understand the rationale through which rewards and compensation are distributed in order to achieve their tasks and goals more effectively. When they take part in designing their incentive and reward plans, they may derive a greater sense of job satisfaction and control over their work, which results in stronger commitment and better work values (Milne, 2007; Appelbaum & Mackenzie, 1996; Heshizer, 1994). Davidson and Griffin (2006) stated that HRM practices are designed to interlock with organisational strategies. Indeed, managers and professionals now perceive that the effectiveness of HRM has considerable impact on employee attitudes, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and work value. For example, poor human resource functions can lead to spurts of recruiting
followed by terminations, greater training expenses and lower morale. This is forcing managers to redesign jobs, recreate culture and restructure organisations in order to survive (El-Jardali et al. 2009; Davidson et al., 2006; Aghazadeh, 2003).

1.3.2 Employees’ Attitude (Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment)

Human resource management practices can affect employees’ attitudes through the provision of an organisational structure that allows them to improve their performance (Petrescu & Simmons, 2008; Carraher et al, 2006; Edgar & Geare, 2005). For example, job satisfaction is considered an affective perception that results from the achievement of desired outcomes, and is found to be related to HRM practices (Minbaeva, 2005; Guest, 2002; Harber, 1997; Ting, 1997; Huselid, 1995). Moreover, Edgar and Geare (2005) and Guest (2002) confirmed that high levels of employee commitment are also related to HRM practices, and are achieved by investing in HRM practices that benefit the organisation.

Increasingly, employees’ performance and skills can also be influenced by HRM practices, which control the acquisition and development of the organisation’s human capital (Othman, 2009; Lopez, Peon & Ordas, 2005; Huselid, 1995). For example, recruiting practices based on effective and reliable selection processes will equip the organisation with qualified candidates and have a significant impact on the type and quality of the skills and knowledge they possess (Katou, 2008; Paul & Anantharaman, 2003). The provision of different levels of training and development experiences, such as basic training, on-the-job training, formal and informal training and management development can also influence employees’ commitment and values (Tzafrir, 2006; McGunnigle & Jameson, 2000).
Job satisfaction is the attitude that employees have towards their organisations and the daily jobs they perform (Rad & Moraes, 2009; Petrescu & Simmons, 2008; Mosadeghrad et al., 2007). It is defined as the extent to which people like or dislike their jobs (Lee & Chang, 2008; Falkenburg & Schyns, 2007; Mosadeghrad et al., 2007). It is the affective reaction an employee expresses towards a certain job, based upon a comparison held between actual outcomes and desired ones (Wang, 2007; Falkenburg & Schyns, 2007; Mosadeghrad et al., 2007), and is generally thought of as a construct that is comprised of the employee’s feelings about a group of intrinsic and extrinsic elements of the job (Mosadeghrad et al., 2007).

Organisational commitment is a multidimensional psychological attachment held by an individual towards their organisation (Kwantes, 2009; Jain, Giga & Cooper, 2009; Mosadeghrad, Ferlie & Rosenberg, 2007; Wang, 2007). This psychological attachment plays a positive role in the organisation’s retention of its members. Meyer and Allen (1997) in Mosadeghrad et al. (2007) defined organisational commitment as ‘a psychological state that characterises the employee’s relationships with the organization, and has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organisation’.

Human behaviour has been recognised as a function of both the person and their environment (Dimitrov, 2009; Vianen, Pater & Dijk, 2007; Elizur, 1996). Work values can be defined as the qualities that employees desire to obtain from their work; if they succeed in matching their work values with their work, there will be a positive relationship between employees’ performance, need and satisfaction (Matic, 2008; Alavi & McCormick, 2004). An employee’s work values also provide a standard through which they can evaluate their work and working environment, and
assess the significance of their preferences (Hofstede, 2001). Intention to quit may also adversely affect the organisation, especially if higher than usual levels of turnover result. This, in turn, can lead to a drop in customer satisfaction. In addition, intention to quit is associated with the direct costs associated with replacement, employment, management, recruitment and selection, as well the indirect costs resulting from low morale, pressure on other employees, training, service quality, and loss of social capital.

In its initial stage, the study of work value was aimed at explaining and highlighting differences in employee motivation and performance. Different cultural mores, which determine work values, also serve to explain the dissimilarities in employee performance and job satisfaction, and to point the way for the development of committed human capital (Li, Liu & Wan, 2008; Hui, Au & Fock, 2004; Girlando & Anderson, 2001). Indeed, understanding employee work values is an essential step towards effectively dealing with an organisation’s human resource capital, developing a compensation system, influencing leadership and management style and improving communication (Alavi & McCormick, 2004; Michael, 1997). This is because an employee who is not able to match their work values with their work may experience highs level of dissatisfaction and leave the organisation (Matic, 2008).

Thus, the effectiveness of even skilled and qualified employees will be limited if they are not encouraged and motivated to work, but through HRM practices they can be encouraged to work harder and smarter. Examples of organisational efforts to motivate are the use of performance appraisal systems that are tightly linked with incentive and compensation plans (Yeganeh & Su, 2008; Milne, 2007; Grubb, 2007; Poon, 2004; Acton & Golden, 2003; Wilson & Western, 2000). Conversely, HRM
literature (Afana, 2004; Melham, 2004; Abu-Alsokar, 2000), shows that many Arab organisations including public and private Jordanian organisations, need to devote more attention to their HRM practices. For example, training and development is still viewed as a leisure time pursuit or vacation activity that is normally only given to specific people, such as a manager’s friends and relatives (Altarawneh, 2009; Al-Athari & Zairi, 2002).

1.3.3 Human Resource Management Practices in Jordanian Organisations

Little is known about HRM in either Jordan or the other Arab countries (Altarawneh, 2009; Al-Athari & Zairi, 2002; Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 1995). The few available studies are not based on empirical realities and tend to be faddish in nature, so it is not yet possible to chart the future of HRM in this part of the world (Melham, 2004; Afana, 2004; Abu-Doleh, 2000). Many writers have stated that developing countries need to reinforce their human and other organisational resources in order to prepare for future growth (Abu-Doleh, 2000; Al-Shaikh, 1997; Al-Rasheed, 1994). However, the practice of HRM within Jordanian organisations cannot be expected to improve if its practitioners do not understand the nature of its current applications (Melham, 2004; Afana, 2004; Abu-Doleh, 2000; Weir & Abu-Doleh, 1997). There is less literature on HRM in the Arab countries (Oman, Egypt, Qatar, Jordan and Saudi Arabia) than there is on HRM in the rest of the world (Altarawneh, 2009; Al-Athari & Zairi, 2002). A thorough search of the literature demonstrates the lack of any systematic analysis that could present a comprehensive image of the dynamics of HRM in Arab organisations (Altarawneh, 2009; Budhwar & Mellahi, 2006; Al-Athari & Zairi, 2002; Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 1995).
Further, the HRM literature indicates that some Arab organisations rarely evaluate their training and development processes because they consider them a waste of time and money, not an investment to be improved upon (Al-Athari & Zairi, 2002; Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 1995). It indicates that HRM practices in many Jordanian organisations are not systematically planned, implemented or evaluated (Al Fayyad, 2005; Melham, 2004; Afana, 2004; Abu-Alsokar, 2000; Weir & Abu-Doleh, 1997). According to Al Fayyad (2005), the employee recruitment and selection process in Jordanian organisations is inadequate and needs more attention if it is to enhance and support their competitive advantage. Al Ea’bedeen (2004) has stated that there is a significant relationship between structural selection variables (vision, incentives, teamwork, personal growth and delegation of authority) and job specifications (employees’ skills, work values, and feedback). This relationship must be well managed so that an organisation can carry out its work effectively (Al Ea’bedeen, 2004; Kalantan, Al-Taweel & Abdul-Ghani, 1999).

1.4 Research Problem

The success of an organisation is based primarily upon the quality and performance of its human capital. Patton stated that human resource policies ‘must help managers, department heads, or supervisors better understand what the human resource department can bring to the table that will be useful’ (2007, p. 24). The HRM role is to translate the organisation’s strategic aims into human resource policies, and to create human resource practices and strategies that will generate a competitive advantage (Convertino, 2008; Tyson, 1995).
The impact of HRM policies and practices on organisational commitment and job satisfaction is a critical topic in the fields of HRM industrial relations and organisational psychology (Othman, 2009; Tzafrir, 2006; Lopez, Peon & Ordas, 2005; McGunnigle & Jameson, 2000; Huselid, 1995; Jones & Wright, 1992; Boudreau, 1991). A growing body of work argues for the implementation of inclusive work practices, which can improve the skills, abilities and knowledge of an organisation’s present and potential employees. Such practices also promote high levels of performance and can be applied to all aspects of HRM, such as employee recruitment and selection, training and development and performance appraisal and compensation (Edgar & Geare, 2005; Guest, 2002; Huselid, 1995; United States [US] Department of Labor, 1993). Further, solid HRM practices increase employees’ motivation, enhance their commitment and satisfaction, reduce staff shrinkage and increase retention of talented personnel, whilst encouraging non-performers to leave the organisation (Rad & Moraes, 2009; Petrescu & Simmons, 2008; Mosadeghrad et al., 2007; Huselid, 1995; US Department of Labor, 1993; Jones & Wright, 1992).

In Jordan, HRM has not yet received due attention, especially as it relates to organisational commitment, job satisfaction and performance (Menafn, 2008; Ameinfo, 2006; Weir & Abu-Doleh, 1997). Reports and anecdotal evidence from the Ministry of Industry and Trade indicate that HRM departments in a number of Jordanian organisations seem to lack initiative and are neglecting their duties and activities (Ameinfo, 2006). As a result, they are facing major problems surrounding the development of human capital, including high turnover rates and a lack of skilled employees. Low spending on research, training and development has fuelled these problems (Menafn, 2008).
Consequently, more empirical evidence and theoretical development are needed in order to advance our understanding of the impact of HRM on the creation and maintenance of employees’ attitudes and job performance. This would also improve our knowledge of the relation between work values and HRM practices (Falkenburg & Schyns, 2007; Chang & Hung, 2005; Heraty & Morley, 1998; Huselid, 1995). In general, HRM in Jordan has received an increasing amount of attention over the past decade (Al Fayyad, 2005; Melham, 2004; Afana, 2004; Weir & Abu-Doleh, 1997). The role it plays in increasing and enhancing an organisation’s productivity, work values and job satisfaction and commitment has been a major focus for HRM scholars, specialists and practitioners. This research will analyse the effect of HRM practices on the factors mentioned above in an attempt to help fill the existing knowledge gap (Altarawneh, 2009; Shahnawaz & Juyal, 2006; Weir & Abu-Doleh, 1997; Huselid, 1995).

1.5 The Theoretical Model: Based on the theoretical background discussed above, the following model was developed:
Figure 1.1: Theoretical Model
1.6 Research objectives

The general objective of this study is to investigate how human resource management practices impact employees’ attitudes in Jordanian organisations. The specific objectives of the study are as follow:

1. To study the general human resource management practices in the Jordanian organisations.

2. To analyse the impact of human resource management practices such as (recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal and reward and benefit) on job satisfaction.

3. To examine the impact of human resource management practices such as (recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal and reward and benefit) on organisational commitment.

4. To analyse the impact of human resource management practices such as (recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal and reward and benefit) on work value.

5. To investigate how human resource management practices (recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal and reward and benefit) impact employees’ attitudes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment, work value) and intention to quit in Jordanian organisations.
1.7 Research Questions
This research is concerned with answering the following exploratory questions.

1. What is the impact of human resource management practices on employees’ attitudes in the Jordanian organisations?
2. What are the main problems and challenges that could influence the employees’ attitudes in Jordanian organisations?
3. Is there any relationship between employees’ attitudes (job satisfaction and organisational commitment) work values and intention to quit?
4. What needs to be done to deal with the main problems and challenges facing the human resource management practices to improve its effectiveness?

1.8 Research Outcomes
This study is anticipated to make the following contributions:

1. Identify the use of existing HRM practices in Jordanian organisations.
2. Identify the impact of existing HRM practices on employees’ attitude within the Jordanian organisations.
3. Assist human resource managers in the development of HRM practices for the effective management of human capital in Jordanian organisations.
4. Call attention to other HRM issues in Jordan that will require more research in the future.
5. An overall contribution will be made to HRM practices in the Middle East/Arab cultural settings.
1.9 Country Context of the Study

1.9.1 Demography

The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan; or Jordan more informally, is a small, mostly arid, and lower-middle-income country, located prominently at a strategic and significant location in the Middle East. The Kingdom has borders with Saudi Arabia to the south, Iraq to the east, Syria to the north, and to the west with the occupied West Bank by Israel (United Nations Jordan, 2010; BBC, 2010; United Nations Development Programme, 2010; Hassan and Al-Saci, 2004). According to the Jordanian Department of Statistics (JDOS, 2009), Jordan has a combined area of 89,318 square kilometres. Its open economy is based on relatively few and limited natural resources. Only 6 percent of Jordan’s land is arable, and it is ranks among the four most water-poor countries in the world. Its main natural resources are potash and phosphate, which contributes up to 4 percent to the national gross domestic product (GDP) (United Nations Development Programme, 2010).

Jordan also relies on external sources for most of its energy requirements. For example, during the 1990s, the crude petroleum needs in Jordan were met through importing petroleum from Iraq at concessionary prices (Johannesburg, 2001). Whilst in early 2003, Jordan imported its petroleum needs from Saudi Arabia at both market and concessionary prices. In addition, a pipeline of natural gas is now operational from Egypt to Jordan through the southern port of Aqaba, and this line reaches north of Jordan, and will ultimately be connected to Syria. Jordan is currently exploring ways and means to expand its limited resources and use them more effectively and efficiently (Hassan and Al-Saci, 2004). In 2007, Jordan developed an energy strategy that aims to enhance and develop more renewable and indigenous energy sources like; nuclear energy, oil shale, wind, and solar power (Oxford Business Group, 2008). Of recent
decades, Jordan has witnessed a large population growth. This has come about through both a high natural growth rate, and forced migration. Both have imposed enormous challenges on Jordan to achieve a balance between the growing population, and its limited resources (Hassan and Al-Saci, 2004). In 2008, The JDOS conducted a population survey showing that Jordan’s population reached 5,723,000 million with an annual 2.2 percent growing rate. 37.3 percent of the population is below the age of fifteen, and 3.3 percent are over the age of sixty five. 82.6 percent of the population lives in urban areas; and the capital Amman, accommodate about 39 percent of the population (JDOS, 2010).

1.9.2 Economic and Industrial Background

The World Bank has classified Jordan as a lower middle income country (United Nations Jordan, 2010). According to the JDOS (2010), the official unemployment rate for the Jordan amounted to 12.7 percent in 2008. This was a decrease of 1.3 percent compared to 14 percent in 2006. The rate varies between males and females. For example in 2008 it reached 10.1 percent for males, compared to 24.4 percent for females. Poverty is one of the major challenges and obstacles facing the Jordanian economy. Poverty in Jordan is due to many reasons and factors such as; (i) the slow economic growth rate, (ii) rapidly expanding families, and (iii) the migration of Jordanians from rural to urban areas. In the 1980s, Jordan also faced an economic recession, with the inflation rate reaching 26 percent, and the unemployment rate increasing remarkably to 18 percent. Furthermore, the Second Gulf War forced Jordan into a crucial and critical situation. This affected the performance of the Jordanian economy and negative impacts such as…were experienced. The unemployment rate was also impacted, and became more critical and restricted (Oxford Business Group, 2008; Hassan and Al-Saci, 2004). In short, the major problem in Jordan is the high
unemployment rate which is still the subject of heated debate. In 2003, the official unemployment rate in Jordan was 16 percent and it remained the same till 2005. By 2006 it dropped to 14 percent, and in 2007 the ‘official’ unemployment rate increased to 15.40 percent (JDOS, 2010; Index Mundi, 2008).

The Jordanian economy has been relatively stable over the last decade despite the Gulf crises and the unrest in Palestine. Jordan’s GDP has also grown continuously during the last decade. In 2005 GDP per capita reached JD 1,630.8 (approx. US $ 2,295) and increased to 2,573.9 (approx. US $ 3,625) by 2008 (JDOS, 2010). Economic growth was generated in the service sector, mainly relying on the expansion of the construction sector and the modest growth in minimal manufacturing output. The Jordanian government’s main concern is to stabilize and maintain prices, so that Jordan can benefit from a stable and well maintained competitive exchange rate, and further decreases in nominal interest rates (United Nations Development Programme, 2010).

The Jordanian industrial sector makes up to 23.4 percent of GDP and the Jordanian service sector provides an improving dominant share of 74.6 percent (JDOS, 2010). On the other hand, Jordanian industries that work on a large scale operate mainly in, phosphate mining, cement, potash, petroleum refining, and light manufacturing. However, Jordan depends strongly on external assistance from other Arab countries, and the European Union for the supply of such things as; (i) transport equipment, (ii) machinery, (iii) crude oil, (iv) medical and (v) pharmaceutical products. Jordan has been facing ongoing challenges in maintaining and balancing its payments and external debt; reducing poverty and unemployment; and addressing competitive constraints, particularly water. Addressing the new challenges is aimed at achieving more competitive industrial growth and improving the quality and efficiency of public services (Index Mundi, 2008).
1.9.3 Key Challenges and Future Developments

Nationally, the basic and crucial challenges are to sustain Jordan’s stability, to maintain the social fabric and friendship within the Jordanian society, to reduce the high unemployment rate, and to develop and enhance the Jordanian economy, towards knowledge based economy (JDOS, 2010). Recent investments laws have introduced many facilities and opportunities into the Jordanian business market. For example, both foreign and national investors have the same rights in owning and operating a business in Jordan. However, there are still some acts and attitudes practiced against the foreign investors in general and the region is still facing many problems, with significant challenges looming, because most of the Jordanian borders or neighbours are in war (The American–Iraq War, and The Israel-Palestinian Conflict) (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2006).

On the other hand, in order to transfer the Jordanian economy into a knowledge based economy, the private and public sectors are facing huge challenges in developing the provision of information and communication technology (ICT) services. The first challenge is the availability of highly skilled, knowledgeable and talented human resources. The second challenge is the poor value and inadequate infrastructure that needs to change to support the development of ICT industry. Moreover, there is a need for the latest technologies and know-how techniques to attract more investments to the country (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2006; Hassan and Al-Saci, 2004).
1.10 Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis will be organised as follows consisting of five chapters:

**Chapter One (Introduction):** This chapter provides an overview of the background to the research. In addition, it presents the research objectives, problem, significance and the structure of the thesis.

**Chapter Two (Theoretical Background):** This chapter will provide an extensive overview and useful discussion of the context in which the current research has been conducted. In addition, this chapter identifies the true lack of previous studies in the field of human resource management practices and employees’ attitudes in Jordan and other Middle Eastern countries.

**Chapter Three (Research Methodology and Design):** This chapter aims to present an extensive investigation of the methodological issues concerning this study. It starts with an overview of the participants and sampling design, followed by research instruments, data analytic plan, exploratory factor analysis (factors based on the latent root orientation (Eigenvalue), total variance explained, multidimensional scale (Proxscale) and correlation matrix) using SPSS 17, and structural equation modelling (confirmatory factor analysis) using LISREL 8.80. Finally, the chapter ends with discussion and justification of the statistical methods and techniques appropriate to answer the research questions and objectives.

**Chapter Four (Analysis, Results and Discussion):** This chapter aims to present the results of the research based on the quantitative data obtained. It will present the results in order to show which of the current practices in human resources correlate with the variables. Moreover, this chapter provides an intensive discussion of the findings emerged from the analysis.
Chapter Five (Theoretical Implications, Limitations, Directions for Future Research and Conclusion): This chapter summarises the major findings of this study. In addition, this chapter highlights the contributions and limitations of the study as well as directions for further future research.

1.11 Conclusion
This chapter has laid the foundation for the study. It has introduced the research background, problem, questions, objectives, anticipated outcomes and country profile. The research theoretical model was developed and presented. Structuring and organising the thesis conclude the chapter. The following chapters provide a complete account of the research.
Chapter Two

Theoretical Background

2.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter sets the context for the thesis through the provision of a comprehensive and detailed explanation of the previous studies. This chapter reviews relevant literature regarding human resource management practices and employees’ attitude. The first part of this chapter provides an introduction and general background of the study. The next section introduces theories potentially relevant to understanding human resource management theories and practices. The second part of the chapter focuses on the employees’ attitude, values and their intention to quit. Then the chapter moves to discuss the relationship between human resource management practices and employees’ attitude, work values and intention to quit the organisation.

2.2 Introduction

The past two decades have witnessed a burgeoning literature on management and particularly on the influence of human resource management (HRM) practices on organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and hence employee performance (Petrescu & Simmons, 2008). Due to a rapidly transforming economical environment, characterized by such phenomena as the internationalization, deregulation of markets, increasing product-market competition, and changing customers’ needs, many organizations face increasingly complicated business environment (Chang & Huang, 2005; Becker & Gerhart, 1996). To compete effectively, organizations must constantly develop and improve their performance by enhancing productivity, improving quality, reducing costs, and differentiating their products and services (Chang & Huang, 2005).
There are potentially as many definitions of management as there are articles, books, and researches on the subject. In the literature, many of the definitions are concise but simplistic. A brief overview of some of the contemporary thinkers is given by (Zbar, 1995; Davidson & Griffin, 2006; Davidson et al., 2006). For example, almost a century ago, Frederick Taylor defined management as “knowing exactly what you want [people] to do, and then seeing that they do it in the best and cheapest way” (Davidson & Griffin, 2006). However, management is much more complex than this simple definition. Management is a set of activities (organising, planning, decision-making, leading, and controlling) directed at organisation’s resources (financial, human, physical, and information) to achieve the organisational aims in an effective and efficient way. The last phrase in the definition is especially crucial, because it demonstrates the essential purpose of management which is to ensure that the organisation’s aims are achieved in an effective and efficient manner (Davidson & Griffin, 2006; Davidson et al., 2006; Zbar, 1995).

Consequently, human resources are critical and substantial capital for efficient and effective organisational functioning. HRM was once relegated to a second-class priority in many organisations, but the recognition of HRM significance in accomplishing organisational goals has grown dramatically in the past two decades. HRM is a set of organisational activities directed towards attracting, developing, and maintaining an efficient human capital to accomplish the organisational objectives. The importance of HRM is stems from added legal complexities, and grown recognition that human resources are valuable assets contributing in improving organisational competitiveness (Davidson & Griffin, 2006; Davidson et al., 2006). In its most straightforward sense, the function of HRM is to add value to the organisation. To implement this, the HRM functions (recruitment and selection, training and development, remuneration and
compensation, and performance appraisal) are designed to interlock with the organisational strategies (Davidson & Griffin, 2006). Indeed, managers and professionals now perceive that the effectiveness of their HRM function has an importance impact on the organisation performance. For example, poor human resource functions can lead to spurts of recruiting followed by terminations, highly training expenses, and morale. Therefore, this is forcing managers to redesign jobs, recreate culture, and restructure organisations to gain the essential capability for survival (Davidson & Griffin, 2006; Davidson et al., 2006).

2.3 Human Resources Management Review and Theory

For many years it was said that the capital asset is the bottleneck for advanced organisations and industries. But more recently, the workforce and the organisation’s inability to recruit, maintain, and retain a highly skilled workforce is seen as representing the bottleneck for production. Organisations and industries backed by talented ideas, vigour and enthusiasm will not stop because of a shortage of cash. On the other hand, there are many organisations and industries whose growth has been partly hampered or stopped because they don’t have the ability to retain and maintain an efficient and talented workforce, and this will increasingly hold true in the future (Griffiths and Williams, 1999; Davidson and Griffin, 2006; Davidson et al., 2006).

Numerous studies have examined strategic human resource management (SHRM) as a resource to reinforce organisational competitive advantage (Chang and Huang, 2005; MacDuffie, 1995 Huselid, 1995; Arthur, 1994). Practitioners and scholars have broadly adopted this approach for organisation strategic planning. The underlying proposition of SHRM is a set of HRM practices that influences the organisation’s performance. This
proposition is supported by recent empirical studies (Chang and Hung, 2005; Huselid, 1995; Arthur, 1994; MacDuffie, 1995). However, crucial questions remain, including whether HRM practices guarantee high employee and organisational performance outcomes, the impact of different HRM practices on job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and the influence and relationship between work value and HRM practices.

HRM essentially began in the USA, and other parts of the world such as Asia, England, and other developing countries followed (Convertino, 2008; HRM Guide, 2007). Prior to 1900, no group or department existed that was concerned with the management practices within American organisations. After 1900 and with the beginning of World War I, personnel administration began to emerge and develop. Personnel administration refers to the recruiting, training and compensating of a large number of workers which forced the assignment of such responsibilities to specialised personnel (Convertino, 2008).

During the first period of the 20th century, it was popular practice to assign an administrative person for the personnel function in an organisation. As time progressed scientific management concentrated on employee and organisational efficiency, with the first objective being efficient organisation productivity. Towards the end of the 20th century, human relations emphasised personnel attitudes and their impact on productivity (Convertino, 2008; Jones and Walters, 1994). In the 21st century, the essential emphasis of personnel management turned to creating a competitive advantage for employees and their organisation, and this strategic goal was assigned to the HR department (Convertino, 2008).
There is substantial evidence that the philosophy of HRM has emerged as a substitute for personnel management (Convertino, 2008; Brennan, Felekis and Goldring, 2003). In the past two decades, the research, theory, and practice of HRM have undergone a principal transition in form and function. Scholars and practitioners consider human capital as the source of sustained competitive advantage for organisational functions in the world-wide economy (Ferris, Hochwater, Buckley, Harrell-Cook and Frink, 1999; Convertino, 2008).

Numerous HR professionals have embraced variant models or theories of management that have become prevalent in the last few decades to help accomplish the tasks bestowed upon them by their organisations (Truss, Gratton, Hope-Hailey, McGovern and Stiles, 1997; Convertino, 2008). The most two widely adopted theories of HRM are the soft and hard theories. The soft theory is based on control through commitment (Theory Y), and the hard theory is based on notions of limited control (Theory X) (Convertino, 2008).

Soft HRM satisfies employees’ needs and encourages their attitudes by implementing appropriate HRM practices, which results in enhancing organisational commitment and improving performance. On the other hand, hard HRM is only concerned with the efficient utilisation of employees and concentrates on the calculative, quantitative, and strategic business aspects of managing them as they would any other economic factor (Edgar and Geare, 2005; Convertino, 2008).

The soft theory of HRM is also known as developmental humanism, characterised by the following:

1. Emphasis on the significant integration between the business objectives and HRM polices.
2. Treat employees as valued and crucial assets.

3. Sustain the competitive advantage through employee commitment, skills, adaptability, and performance. (Edgar and Geare, 2005; Grill, 2007; Convertino, 2008)

This is accomplished through effective collaboration between employees and their organisation via motivation, communication, and leadership (Grill, 2007; Convertino, 2008). On the other hand, hard HRM is known as utilitarian instrumentalism, which consists of the following:

1. Emphasis on business strategies with close integration of HRM policies and practices.
2. The consideration of the employees as any factor in the production process.
3. Regarding the employees as passive assets, and treating them as numbers and skills that can be deployed and used by the organisation at the right price.
4. Considering the employees as an expense of doing business, and not as a competitive advantage. (Grill, 2007; Convertino, 2008; Edgar and Geare, 2005)

Better known as Theory Y and Theory X management styles, there are hybrid versions of both management theories (Convertino, 2008; Truss et al., 1997). Harvard Business School made a substantial contribution towards understanding HRM; in 1981 it initiated the prestigious MBA program (Price, 2007; Convertino, 2008). Harvard Business School introduced the first MBA course that combined a focus on HRM with general management and developed the Multiple Stakeholder Theory, which explained and interpreted employees as resources. This theory demonstrates that employees can be viewed as being different from other resources (HRM Guide, 2007; Convertino, 2008).
Called the Harvard Map, the theory showed four HR policies as follows: human resources flow (e.g., recruitment, selection, and assessment), reward systems (e.g., motivation pay and pay systems), work systems (e.g., alignment of people and design of work), and employee influences (e.g., responsibility, power, and delegate authority) (HRM Guide, 2007; Convertino, 2008). The Harvard Map was constructed with a strategic approach which connected workforce management to organisational strategy, and can be defined as Theory X, or hard HRM (HRM Guide, 2007; Convertino, 2008). The Harvard model of HRM confirms that an organisation’s HR practices and policies may be affected by two substantial considerations (Convertino, 2008):

1. Stakeholder interests: the shareholders, management employees, community, unions, and government workers that affect HR policy in an organisation, and rightly so.

2. Situational factors: inside or outside business factors that might constrain the formalising of good HRM policies or might be affected by HR policies. Such factors contain labour markets, unions, state and federal laws, workforce characteristics, societal values, internal business strategies, management philosophy, and available technology.

Other models or theories developed over the past decades include the Michigan Theorists, which concentrate on the significance of human resources (Convertino, 2008). According to Grill (2007, p. 3), ‘this model had a unitary perspective that incorporated the concept of mutuality including mutual goals, influence, respect, rewards and responsibility which lead to employee commitment, resulting in better outcomes for employees and the organization’. Furthermore, Grill (2007) explains that with the Michigan model, what is perfect and good for the organisation is perfect for its employees, supporting the idea that employee and organisation aims and plans should
be aligned (Convertino, 2008; Grill, 2007). The most significant HR issues highlighted by the Michigan model are:

1. Selection of the most effective and appropriate employees to meet the organisation needs.
2. Appraisal and performance review of the employees and organisation.
3. Development of the knowledge and skills needed to achieve the organisation goals.
4. Rewards and compensation for effective and appropriate performance.

According to Convertino (2008), the Michigan model is recognised and defined as soft HRM (Theory Y).

Last, there are two minimally known models that demonstrate HR theories contained in the Schuler and Jackson Behavioral Transformation Theory, which concentrates on planning and analysis; and the New York Matching Model, which concentrates on competitive strategies (HRM Guide, 2007; Convertino, 2008).

2.4 Issues in Core HRM Practices in Jordan and Middle East

HRM has come to be acknowledged as one of the most significant functions in assisting the performance of organisations of recent times (Jain, Giga and Cooper, 2009; Petrescu and Simmons, 2008). In the 1990s, managing businesses relied heavily on employees' innovation, their creativity and the receipt of appropriate recognition. As a result, many organisations considered that if HR issues were given more appropriate attention, this would likely be followed by improvements in competitiveness and higher levels of productivity (Abu-Doleh, 2000; Stroh and Caligiuri, 1998). Today, many practitioners and scholars view HRM as a means of sustaining competitive advantage for organisations (Zheng, 2009; Chang and Huang, 2005; Chandrakumara and Sparrow,
2004). As a response to the need to improve competitive advantage, many organisations are now struggling to establish a positive and dynamic organisational climate in order to retain and sustain valuable employees (Chew and Chan, 2008; Milne, 2007; Heraty and Morley, 1998) and central to an effective organisational climate is the existence of well-developed and designed HR strategies and practices.

The significance of the workforce is often highlighted in the organisation’s strategies, policies and goals, through such statements as ‘employees are indispensable and our most valuable asset’. Thus, if this level of organisational rhetoric is true, then HR strategies and practices that value and support an organisation’s human resources are crucial and will, of necessity, play an essential role in maximising overall organisational productivity and effectiveness (Abu-Doleh, 2000; Davis, 1990). The expertise and quality of those in charge of the human resources function will also make a significant contribution in developing the HR function. For example, HR managers should be in a position to provide their organisations with professional advice regarding contemporary ideas and creative ways of advancing HR strategies and practices in the workplace. In this regard it is important for a mutual and interactive relationship and understanding to exist between the HR manager, the other front-line managers and the senior executive of a business, in order to consider and resolve organisational problems incorporating effective HR responses (Abu-Doleh, 2000; Fisher, Dowling and Garnham, 1999).

2.4.1 Recruitment and Selection

Successful HR planning is designed to identify an organisation’s HR needs; once these needs are known the organisation should act to meet them through the staffing function (Heraty and Morley, 1998; Montgomery, 1996). The objective of the staffing process is to locate, select, acquire and place the human resources necessary to fulfil organisational and human plans (Montgomery, 1996). The staffing function includes
two main activities—recruiting and selection. Recruiting and selection focuses on matching the capabilities and inclinations of prospective candidates against the demands and rewards inherent in a given job (Othman, 2009; Raghuram and Arvey, 1996).

Recruiting is the process of seeking and attracting a supply of people from which qualified candidates for job vacancies can be selected. The amount of recruitment an organisation must do is determined by the difference between the forecasted HR needs and the talent available within the organisation (El-Kot and Leat, 2008; Heraty and Morley, 1998). It includes locating potential applicants and encouraging them to apply for existing or anticipated job openings and during this process, making the effort to fully inform the applicants about the qualifications required to perform the job and the career opportunities the organisation can offer its employees (Heraty and Morley, 1998; Judge and Ferris, 1994).

Supervisors and other managers often feel overwhelmed by the volume of applicants they receive. It is better to elicit a manageable number of qualified applicants rather than a mass of misfit applicants. Recruitment processes try to provide a qualified pool of applicants from whom selectors may choose (El-Kot and Leat, 2008; Carless, 2007; Anderson, 2003). Effective recruiting requires knowing where and how to obtain qualified applicants (El-Kot and Leat, 2008). The major sources of recruiting are:

- **Internal Sources**—the process of looking inside the organisation for existing qualified employees who might be promoted to a higher position. Current employees know about the vacancy through a job posting in organisation newsletters, bulletin board notices and internal memos, with some organisations developing computerised job posting systems so that employees can obtain information on their computer screen.
- **External Sources**—the process of looking to sources outside the organisation for prospective employees, which includes advertisements, employee referrals, unsolicited applications and resumes, private and public employment agencies and internet recruiting (Anderson, 2003; Budhwar, 2000; El-Kot and Leat, 2008).

A successful recruitment process results in a good number qualified of applicants for the vacancy, and the next task is to select the most suitable applicants from this pool (El-Kot and Leat, 2008). Selection is a process of choosing individuals who have relevant qualifications to fill an existing or projected job opening. Selection is concerned with identifying the best candidate or candidates for jobs from a pool of qualified applicants developed during the recruiting process (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2007; Chew, 2004). At a general level, it includes three distinct steps as shown in Figure 2.1.

![Figure 2.1 Recruitment and Selection Process](image)

**Figure 2.1 Recruitment and Selection Process**

Source: Adapted from Denisi & Griffin (2001)
In Jordanian organisations the employee recruitment and selection process is largely inadequate and needs effective attention if it is to enhance and support the competitive advantage of the business it represents (Al Fayyad, 2005). This is reflected by the job analysis process and resulting job descriptions being often carried out and produced, but never referred to in the recruitment and selection process. Indeed, most employees are not even aware of, or even ask about, their job descriptions. This is because it seems that the job description is produced simply as a part of the personnel administration process, that is, for bureaucratic and routine procedures (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2006; Al-Athari and Zairi, 2002; Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 1995).

Equally, in many Arab, and more specifically Jordanian, organisations the literature demonstrates that the recruitment and selection process is fraught with problems. First, the process is rarely based on merit and ability, and second, it is hardly systematic or objective. Vacant positions are usually filled through connections; and these are normally offered to friends, relatives and family members with no consideration given to the person’s proficiency and achievements (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2006; Melham, 2004; EL-Said and McDonald, 2001). Furthermore, the use of tribalism and nepotism is frequent. The recruitment and selection process in Jordan is also heavily influenced by personal and intermediary relationships in a form usually called, or referred to as ‘wasta’. The literal meaning of ‘wasta’ is ‘to go in between’. In practical terms it is a type of nepotism and favouritism which gives friends, relatives and family members priority over organisational benefits and objectives. The concept of ‘wasta’ in many Arab countries is the best way—and indeed the only way—for most people seeking a job to become employed. For example, when a person hears about a job, their first action will be to contact a relative or friend who knows the HR manager in the organisation where the vacant job is available (EL-Said and McDonald, 2001).
2.4.2 Training and Development

Abu-Doleh and Weir (1997) argue that the arrival of the twenty-first century heralds an essential step for Arab HR scholars, practitioners and specialists to chart the future of training and development in Arab countries. Altarawneh (2009) also argues that training and development is the most significant indicator or sub-system of HR development as it potentially enhances, increases and modifies the capabilities, skills and knowledge of employees and managers in order to perform their job in more creative and effective ways. Such issues can also assist in the achievement of increases in individual and organisational performance and productivity.

As training and development plays a crucial and dynamic role in developing job and organisational performance; Altarawneh (2009) and Mann (1996) ask, given the continuous investment in training and development programs, whether training programs and strategies in Jordan are sufficiently effective to positively impact on organisational competitiveness. This question has been raised because in many Arab, and more specifically Jordanian, organisations expenditure and time spent on training and development is considered not useful and an unnecessary function (Redshaw, 2000). Al-Athari and Zairi, (2002) confirm this view; arguing that some Jordanian organisations regard training and development as a waste of time and money, and a function which does not contribute to improving employees’ commitment, or overall organisational performance. Figure 2.2 traces the steps necessary in the training process.
Figure 2.2 Training and Development Process

Source: Adapted from Roberts, Seldon & Roberts (2002)
As shown in Figure 2.2, the process starts with the organisation defining its strategy and objectives which then direct and drive all the decisions made, especially training decisions. After that, training needs must be assessed and analysed at three major HR points: the organisation as a whole; the job characteristics; and the needs of individuals (Roberts, Seldon and Roberts, 2002; Acton and Golden, 2003; Hale, 2003). This analysis provides some benchmarks against which the effectiveness of a training program can be evaluated. Once training needs are determined and training objectives are set, then the concentration is on developing training programs and the appropriate training method, whether on-the-job or off-the-job (Roberts, Seldon and Roberts, 2002; Denisi and Griffin, 2001; Roselius and Kleiner, 2000). A decision is then made regarding who should be trained. Administration of the training process is required in terms of the location of training, the facilities, accessibility, comfort, equipment and timing (Roberts, Seldon and Roberts, 2002; Denisi and Griffin, 2001). Finally, training should be evaluated several times during the process and employees should be evaluated by comparing their newly acquired skills with the skills defined by the goals of the training program (Altarawneh, 2009; Wilson and Western, 2000).

In addition to what has been highlighted a review of the literature in Arab countries, including Jordan, shows that training and development is still not regarded as a significant function that contributes to organisational success. Instead, this function is considered as a vacation, or leisure activity which is normally given to the managers’ friends or relatives. Furthermore, the literature demonstrates that the training evaluation process in some Jordanian and Arab organisations more generally is an infrequent and uncommon practice (Altarawneh, 2009).

Nevertheless, in some sectors within Jordan management development is given higher status. Abu-Doleh and Weir (1997) establish that in more than two thirds of the
financial organisations and in less than one third of the manufacturing organisations
reviewed in their study of training and development needs analysis in 28 Jordanian
manufacturing and financial organisations, a formal management training and
development program existed. These figures probably reflect the level of favouritism, or
‘wasta’ existing in Jordanian organisations.

2.4.3 Performance Appraisal
Nowadays, many organisations are struggling with technological trends and
revolutionary developments and paying more attention to employees’ productivity and
performance in order to survive and remain competitive. However, even though
performance appraisal plays a significant role in HRM, it is still facing systems failure
(Wright, 2002). The performance appraisal system and performance management
evaluation are critical topics within the field of HRM (Abu-Doleh and Weir, 2007;
Guest, 1997). A review of the literature demonstrates that the performance appraisal
system has not received appropriate attention in Jordan, and is not fully appreciated.
Also Jordanian employees still express displeasure and negative feelings towards this
practice.

Nevertheless, performance appraisal remains a confused research area in HRM, and has
been described as the most widely researched and written about in the history of
management (Prowse and Prowse, 2009; Grubb, 2007). This critical practice can be
defined as an evaluation process conducted periodically to evaluate employee
performance and output. Performance appraisal is used as the basis of decisions about
an employee’s work conditions (rewards, promotions and termination), and it can also
be used to counsel employees regarding effective work behaviours, and to identify
training and development needs.
According to Abu-Doleh and Weir (2007), the performance appraisal system in Jordanian organisations is conducted once a year, and the appraisees’ manager is essentially responsible for leading and conducting the appraisal system. Furthermore, the performance appraisal system within the Jordanian private sector has had a greater and significant impact on promotions, retention, lay-offs and identifying employee’s training needs than in the public sector. Increasingly, this performance appraisal practice in the Jordanian organisations is in need of a more effective research focus, and managers need to include more appropriate performance considerations than has hitherto been the case when conducting the performance appraisal.

2.4.4 Rewards and Benefits

In both Jordanian private and public sector organisations, employees have the right to establish, join and form trade unions. The proper role and functions of unions in Jordan are usually confined to employee needs and social-welfare issues. Problematically, the internal relationships between the employer and employee are guided by both written and unwritten principles and regulations. Some of these regulations are determined by constituent Jordanian cultural values and norms. The workplace relationships within Jordanian organisations are culturally and socially formed, and people are taught to perform with respect, show loyalty and commitment to their managers or leaders even if they don’t agree or like them. Also, the respect of seniority and age is crucial in Jordanian culture and society (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2006; El-Said, 2000).

Written forms of employment regulations and rules are formed and introduced by the government, and must be approved by the king. These regulations cover all employment aspects and issues beginning with the employment contract through to reward and pension practices. Within the different Jordanian sectors, the government always decides and controls the minimum level of wages and salaries for all employees (Al-
Husan and James, 2003). The reward system is also closely related to the employee’s experience, age and position. The majority of employees receive a basic salary in addition to bonuses and incentives which are determined on an employee’s position, age and type of work. Even though the latest economic reforms have encouraged and brought multinational and foreign investment, which introduces new ways of paying and rewarding (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2006), underlying cultural issues remain. Linking the reward system with an employee’s productivity and performance is an attempt to establish connectivity between the Jordanian salary system, international standards and an employee’s contributions. Moreover, other variant rewards have been presented in order to recruit and motivate skilled employees, as well as to retain the knowledge of talented staff (Al-Husan and James, 2003; Al-Faleh, 1987).

Arab countries and the Jordanian community share the same social values, religion, culture and language. These social norms, values and cultural factors have a great impact on managerial functions. Basically, Arabian cultural factors come from religion, history, traditions, and the economic and political environment. The Jordanian and Arabian culture has a significant impact on individual’s behaviours and managerial practices (Altarawneh, 2005; Ali, 1995; Al-Faleh, 1987). Increasingly, the variant management practices and functions are influenced by employee understanding and culture, which are obtained from social beliefs, norms and values (Altarawneh, 2005). The transferring of Western HRM practices to developing countries has encouraged management in many organisations to change, including introducing reforms covering all HRM aspects in order to develop and enhance existing practices to improve productivity, quality and to change employees’ attitudes. In Jordan, many attempts were made to transfer to a more flexible, adaptable and sympathetic culture through using decentralisation and delegation of power (Al-Husan, Brennan and James, 2009; Al-
Faleh, 1987). For example, full accountability and responsibility was given to line managers to handle the day to day work and many HRM practices such as recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal and rewards and benefits (Al-Husan et al, 2009). Hakooz (1997) states that many line managers find it difficult to be fully responsible, because they still need the skills and confidence to handle these tasks. Given this discussion, the following hypothesis was proposed to test the HRM construct:

“\( H_0: \text{The human resource management practices factors are optimal and interrelated multi-dimensional construct} \)”.

From a cultural perspective, multinational companies (MNCs) have experienced difficulties in importing Western HRM practices successfully to developing countries, because of the many cultural obstacles (Edwards and Rees, 2006; Cooke, 2004). For example, a study conducted by Al-Husan et al. (2009) about transferring Western HRM practices to Jordan, finds that many employees are dissatisfied because of a lack of job security, less than fair treatment and because the organisation does not value and pay attention to employee suggestions. Moreover, the Jordanian region still needs more research on the cultural issues that arise between MNCs and local organisations.

2.5 Human Resource Management Practices from an Islamic Perspective

The general conception of religions is that they are sets of beliefs, worship and conduct. However, what makes Islam special in this area is the social order that aims to produce a unique personality and the best society possible (Metle, 2002; Hashim, 2009; Ali, 2005). In most countries, the impact of religious context on HRM is incorporated in the regulations and rules governing employee-management relationships (Ali, 2005;
Hashim, 2009). These regulations can be related to the employee’s rights, such as participating in decision-making and unionisation, or wage level, job security, and equal employment opportunities (Hashim, 2009; Weaver and Agle, 2002).

This section refers to the Islamic HR practices as being and presenting the fundamental HR functions according to the guidelines stated in Al-Qur’an (the Holy Book of Muslims) and also the traditions of Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him) as a second source of Islamic authority (Hashim, 2009; Weaver and Agle; 2002; Ali, 2005). Honesty and justice in trading transactions are common place in the Qur’an, also the Qur’an calls for a fair and equitable distribution of wealth among individual citizens of the society. The Qur’an encourages individuals to gain more skills and knowledge, and highly esteems those who do their best to earn a living (Metle, 2002; Hashim, 2009; Ali, 2005; Weaver and Agle, 2002).

2.5.1 Recruitment and Selection: Islamic Point of View

The common definition of recruitment is the process by which organisations locate and attract potential individuals to fill job vacancies (Hashim, 2009). The common goal is to find the most suitable person to fill the vacant job. In doing so, the organisation must determine which candidate is best suited for the job at hand (Hashim, 2009; Weaver and Agle; 2002) by virtue of outlining the exact requirements of the job. In many organisations, these responsibilities and tasks are held by the HR manager (Metle, 2002; Hashim, 2009; Ali, 2005).

Wisdom and fairness have be part of the recruitment decision-making in order to make sure that the successful candidate is best suited for the vacancy (Hashim, 2009; Tayeb, 1997). From an Islamic perspective, the HR manager must be pious and just in performing his duties. Adult Muslims are required to fulfil obligations dictated by their
religion towards both their creator, Almighty Allah (God), their Muslim brothers and sisters and their fellow human beings (Hashim, 2009; Weaver and Agle, 2002; Ali, 2005). There is a general conviction that religious Muslims are taking more care to show more honesty. Research findings in this matter do not show consistent agreement. Weaver and Agle (2002) argue in several studies that their findings didn’t indicate a difference between religious and non-religious persons in behaviours like dishonesty and cheating (Hashim, 2009; Weaver and Agle; 2002). What is hoped from a pious manager, however, is to be aware that he should fulfil the requirements of the way of God in examining both the standards the vacant job requires and the traits expected to be found in the person who is seen as a perfect fit for such a vacancy (Ali, 2005; Hashim, 2009). Islam's definition of the pious person is he who acts in accordance to the commands of God; works in righteousness and prevents himself from evil or harmful acts. In this regard, a pious manager should take into account that the need for filling the vacant position and other HR practices shall be done in the way of God with trust and responsibility (Hashim, 2009; Weaver and Agle; 2002; Ali, 2005).

Employers are required to deliver the truth and facts about the position to the applicants. These facts include the job requirements, standards of the job holders, and remuneration (Metle, 2002; Hashim, 2009; Ali, 2005). Applicants need this information to decide whether the job is suitable for them within the scope of their competencies, experiences and interests. Applicants should not be asked to perform actions beyond their capabilities, and on the other hand applicants are required to submit credible information about their capabilities (Hashim, 2009; Weaver and Agle; 2002).

Ali (2005) states that selection is one of the most complicated tasks in any organisation. Many candidates seek to fulfill a vacant position, so employers are always faced with
the challenge of competition for a certain job (Hashim, 2009; Weaver and Agle; 2002). The candidates have to be selected through screening. Ahmad (1994), states that the eligibility standards expressed by the Qur’an are merit and competence. Competence and honesty of a given job candidate are deemed essential. The absence of these means that the candidate is not best suited for the vacant job (Hashim, 2009; Tayeb, 1997).

Muslim managers must understand the standards put forth by the Qur’an in order to eschew any biases or acts of favouritism or nepotism in selecting the employee. This assures non-discrimination in the workplace (Hashim, 2009; Ali, 2005). Ali (2005), reports that the main factor affecting selection in contemporary Muslim countries is friendship networks. Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him) in his lifetime refused the request of Abi Zar to be employed as a governor when he plainly and kindly told him that he is a weak person (Hashim, 2009; Ali, 2005).

Islam puts forth certain principles to be adhered to in employee selection (Hashim, 2009; Weaver and Agle; 2002). The first principle is justice. The literal meaning of justice is to treat or to put a person or a thing at their right place or where they belong. In Islamic literature, Ali Bin Abi Talib wrote: ‘Do not nominate them (officers) on account of favoritism or egoism’. These two attributes reflect injustice and treachery (Hashim, 2009; Ali, 2005).

The second principle is competency. The Qur’an establishes that a person shall be appointed based on merit and competence (Hashim, 2009; Ali, 2005). The third principle is honesty. Both the employer-to-be and the employee have to be honest. Honesty ensures reaching the right decisions and judgments. Honesty impedes the employer from taking any actions that are deemed undesired or unlawful (Metle, 2002; Hashim, 2009; Ali, 2005). The fourth principle is that the requirements of work shall
not exceed the capabilities of the employee. Being asked to do what he is not capable of will have negative drawbacks that might inflict harm on one’s self or compromise the interests of the organisation; if not both (Metle, 2002; Hashim, 2009; Ali, 2005).

### 2.5.2 Training and Development: Islamic Point of View

The definition of training is the process of developing qualities in HR that will enable employees to become more productive and thus contribute more to the realisation of the goals of the organisation (Hashim, 2009; Metle, 2002; Weaver and Agle, 2002; Ali, 2005). Altalib (1991) emphasises that Islamic training and development is all encompassing, beginning from the moral and spiritual development of man and manifested eventually into physical development. Islam considers training and development as the condition required to develop the skills and knowledge of workers which, in turn, leads to elevated levels of mastering the task at hand (Hashim, 2009; Metle, 2002).

### 2.5.3 Performance Appraisal: Islamic Point of View

Performance appraisal is a formal system of setting work standards, assessing performance and providing feedback for employees for the purpose of motivation, development and persistence of their performance (Hashim, 2009; Weaver and Agle, 2002; Ali, 2005). Information gathered from performance appraisals is used to decide wages and promotions. It also comprises an essential part of managing performance, correcting areas of weakness and strengthening good performance. In general, performance appraisal proves useful in activity planning (Hashim, 2009; Metle, 2002; Weaver and Agle, 2002; Ali, 2005).

According to Ahmad (1995): a true Muslim believes in the Day of Judgment, the Resurrection, (man's presence in the divine court), and the acceptance of reward and
punishment. He believes that the records of all actions of man in this world are preserved and will be presented on the day of Resurrection. The Reward and Punishment on the Day of Judgment are bestowed upon every man on the basis of his every conduct or behaviour (including behaviours in the work environment) in this earthly life (Ahmad, 1995; Hashim, 2009).

Ali (2005) concludes that performance appraisal in Islam is based on normative instructions and the practice of the Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him). This normative dominion is expressed in the instructions of the Qur’an. It can be sorted into a set of three categories: contractual arrangements, self-responsibility, and control, and the Almighty's assessment of performance (Hashim, 2009; Metle, 2002; Weaver and Agle; 2002; Ali, 2005).

Objectivity should be sought in evaluating performance (Hashim, 2009; Ali, 2005). Ali (2005) states that there are two methods of evaluation: judgment-based and behavioural-based evaluation. The judgment-based approach includes the employee’s character, traits and attributes. These attributes include decency, truthfulness, kindness, shouldering responsibility, maturity, justness, decisiveness, reliability, dedication, and so on (Metle, 2002; Hashim, 2009; Ali, 2005). Ahmad (1995), states that Islam urges Muslims to do their tasks without any lapse or omission, and to the best of their efficiency and competence.

2.5.4 Rewards and Benefits: Islamic Point of View

Islamic literature shows many references emphasising the importance of paying adequate and reasonable wages and rewards for the work done by employees (Metle, 2002; Hashim, 2009; Ali, 2005). The meaning implied in the term rewards and benefits is the recognition of the value of employee performance and the establishment of
methods to gain a worker’s full efficiency (Hashim, 2009; Metle, 2002). Both qualitative and quantitative considerations must be taken into account in determining the compensation that is right and just for both the employer and the employee (Hashim, 2009; Metle, 2002; Weaver and Agle; 2002; Ali, 2005).

In general, Ali (2005) states that HRM practices, implementation and programs in the Muslim world heavily rely on western techniques and procedures with no adequate attempts to decipher their cultural implications and focusing on theory at the expense of application. Moreover, these bureaucratic tendencies and procedures have caused a lack of innovation in management in Muslim countries (Hashim, 2009; Ali, 2005).

2.6 Employees’ Attitude: Job Satisfaction

Recent studies defined Job Satisfaction as meeting the important needs at the workplace (Hills, Joyce & Humphreys, 2011; Yelboga, 2009). Nevertheless; the Job Satisfaction construct can be described or explained as, the attitude that employees have towards their organisations and jobs (Schmidt, 2007). Whilst Job Satisfaction has come to be acknowledged as one of the crucial topics in enhancing the performance of the organisation (Back, Lee & Abbott, 2011; Rad & Moraes, 2009; Yelboga, 2009); the term also reflects the extent to which the organisation provides all the employees with a comfort working environment (Turkyilmaz, Akman, Ozkan & Pastuszak, 2011; Wang, 2007). Nevertheless; Zeffane, Ibrahim and Al Mehairi (2008), defined job satisfaction as the positive and pleasant emotional feelings which result from job conditions, experience and the organisation’s appraisal system. In other parts of the literature, job satisfaction is explained as the difference between an employee’s personal expectations and their perception of the job (Yelboga, 2009; Wang, 2007; Mosadeghrad, Ferlie & Rosenberg, 2007). Put simply though, Job Satisfaction refers to the extent to which employees satisfied or dissatisfied with their work and / or their organisation (Antonicic
Generally, Job Satisfaction is thought of as a construct that is comprised of the employee’s feelings about a group of intrinsic and extrinsic elements of the job (Schmidt, 2007). Job Satisfaction may be linked to key human resource management factors such as: (i) job performance, (ii) intention to quit and (iii) organisational productivity. Moreover, it has been labelled as an essential and significant factor in the theory and professional practice of human resource management (Spector, 1997; Zeffane et al. 2008). Searching the literature, a plethora of research can be found that links Job Satisfaction with human resource management and in particular, employees’ attitudes in a number of western contexts (Zeffane, 1994). Thus, emphasizing its importance and impact, on organisational behaviour more generally. This paper attempts to highlight the context of job satisfaction in a cross-cultural setting, beginning with a theoretical background and job satisfaction studies in both western and non-western countries. This is followed by a measurement model for job satisfaction and research methodology, as well as results and analyses techniques (test of reliability, exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis and multiple regression analysis). After a discussion of the findings of the empirical study, the study presents implications for theory and practice, and concludes with the limitations and suggestions for further research.

Broadly, Job Satisfaction is an attitude that employees have about their work and it reflects their overall ‘affective reaction’ to their job based on a comparison between the desired outcomes and the actual outcomes (Mosadeghrad, Ferlie and Rosenberg, 2007). Job satisfaction is commonly identified as a multifaceted term that comprises the employee’s feeling about a multiplicity of intrinsic and extrinsic job elements. Intrinsic
job satisfaction elements derived from an internally mediated recognition and rewards such as the work itself and available opportunities for the personal growth. Whereas, the extrinsic job satisfaction elements result from externally mediated rewards such as satisfaction with promotion, operating conditions, nature of work, pay, supervision and the relationship with co-workers (Mosadeghrad et al., 2007; Spector, 1997).

Numerous theories (e.g. intrinsic and extrinsic theories) of Job Satisfaction have been disclosed and developed by psychologists and scholars. They tend to recognize and assign several degrees of significance to sources of job satisfaction, which can be classified as intrinsic or extrinsic. Intrinsic sources depend on the employee’s characteristics or attitudes. Extrinsic sources depend on the environment and the workplace climate (Petrescu and Simmons, 2008; Luchak, 2003).

Nevertheless; combining both intrinsic and extrinsic theories provides a potentially more informed insight into explaining and understanding employees’ Job Satisfaction (Stringer, Theivananthampillai & Didham, 2011 and Rad and Moraes, 2009). Herzberg’s (1966) two-factor theory and Maslow’s (1970) Hierarchy of Needs embody an example for content theories by identifying the needs and values required in the workplace climate in order for the employees to be satisfied. For example, Herzberg (1966) identified motivating and hygiene factor in his theory related to the individual’s attitudes toward the work. Hygiene factors or dissatisfiers affect the job satisfaction directly such as; benefits, nature of work, communications, pay, supervision and operating procedures. Based on Maslow (1970) theory, the human needs rank on a five-level hierarchy starting from physiological needs, safety, love and esteem to self-actualisation. On the other hand, the motivators factor such as promotion, recognition and achievements promote motivation and consequently enhance the job satisfaction.
level. Once the hygiene factors are met, the motivation factors will affect the job satisfaction for the individual.

Whilst Practitioners and scholars in human resource management studies (Antoncic & Antoncic, 2011; Choo and Bowley, 2007; Ellickson, 2002), have been searching intensively as to why certain employees are more satisfied with their organisation and their work than others, Job Satisfaction nevertheless, relates to an individual’s overall assessment of their daily work; which according to Chan, Pan and Lee (2004) is largely controlled by an individual’s culture, their beliefs and their values.

The measurement of Job Satisfaction then within this context is a crucial issue for organisations to understand; as the more employees are satisfied the more likely they are to transfer this feeling to work performance (Choo and Bowley, 2007). This is supported by scholars such as He, Li & Lai, (2011); Schmidt (2007); Mak and Sockel (1999) and Rust, Stewart, Miller and Pielack (1996) who have considered Job Satisfaction as a significant motivator for employee’s commitment and its inverse relationship to intention to quit. Furthermore, as Wang (2007) has established Job Satisfaction is related to an employee’s inner feelings, expressed as a cognitive evaluation, with some level of like or dislike for the work. Also; Spector (1985) stated that the employees’ job satisfaction is a wide topic that has undergone a considerable amount of research by practitioners and scholars alike. Increasingly, Spector (1997) later defined Job Satisfaction as an attitude concerning the extent to which the individuals satisfied or dissatisfied with their job. The study reported in this paper has employed the definition of job satisfaction as used by Spector (1996, p. 214): “An attitudinal variable that reflects how people feel about their jobs overall as well as various aspects of them”. Spector (1996) defines this construct as an attitude and he
differentiates between numerous aspects of the job (nine subscales) besides the overall feeling that the employees have about their job (see also; Pouria, 2010; Spector, 2008).

On the other hand, two prevalent approaches in measuring employees’ satisfaction level have been employed in many studies. First, is the global approach which helps assess Job Satisfaction based on the employee’s overall ‘affective’ reaction to the work (Bruck, Allen and Spector, 2002). On the other hand there is the ‘composite’ approach which provides an examination of the attitudes of employees in regard to numerous facets in the work such as; benefits, communication, nature of work, co-workers, operating procedures, contingent rewards, supervision, promotion and pay. In the ‘composite’ approach, the degree of Job Satisfaction among employees is often different across each facet (e.g. someone maybe dissatisfied with the promotion, but very satisfied with the people who working with) (Spector, 1997). A study by Bruck Allen and Spector (2002) shows a significant distinction between the ‘Global’ and the ‘Composite’ approaches as there are only modest correlations between the two measures of job satisfaction.

2.6.1 Job Satisfaction in the Western Context

The literature shows several job satisfaction studies conducted in the western context looking at the ‘Composite Approach’. In the United States (US), Schmidt (2007) conducted a study measuring JS to establish any relationship between satisfaction with work place training and overall job satisfaction. In this study, Schmidt (2007) found a significant relationship between the overall job satisfaction and job training satisfaction. In a further study, which is important to the study reported in this paper, Watson, Thompson and Meade (2007) tested for invariance of Spector’s Job Satisfaction Survey,
and the findings supported the notion that the differences in contextual factors in the job are linked to the differing conceptualization of the items in JSS.

In another cross-cultural study; Wang (2007) measured the relationship among Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment variables within the Chinese context, and the results showed a positive interrelation between Organisational Commitment and Job Satisfaction variables. Further research undertaken by Choo and Bowley (2007) Han and Kakabadse (2009) has linked Job Satisfaction to increases of job performance, reduction in the turnover rate and a minimization of absenteeism. Yet in another study, Job Satisfaction was shown to be an indicator which helps organisations to manage and retain effective or knowledgeable employees (Liu, Borg and Spector, 2004). In addition, Watson, Thompson and Meade (2007) showed how organisations employ Spector’s Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) to diagnose the potential problems and assess work morale.

In measuring Job Satisfaction numerous measures of both overall and facet job satisfaction have been developed, with the literature highlighting six Job Satisfaction Scales that have been employed. These consist of four ‘facet’ scales and two ‘global’ scales. The four ‘facet’ scales are; (i) The job satisfaction scale (JSS) developed by Spector (1985), (ii) the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) developed by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967), (iii) the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975), and (iv) the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) developed by Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969). The two ‘global’ scales are; (i) the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire satisfaction subscale developed by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins and Klesh (1979) and (ii) the Job In General scale (JIG) developed by Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson and Paul (1989).
2.6.2 Job Satisfaction Studies in Middle East Countries

A search of literature on Job Satisfaction in non-western context shows few studies have been undertaken. Nevertheless; Zeffane, Ibrahim and Al Mehairi (2008) conducted an exploratory study in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) to measure the impact of job satisfaction on employee attendance. The results indicate that female respondents were less satisfied with different aspects of the job (e.g. supervision and promotion) than their male counterparts, including the job context. The study also indicated they had lower levels of performance than their male counterparts. Moreover, Shallal (2011) conducted another study in UAE to investigate the factors that influence the satisfaction level for employed Emirati females. The study findings showed a positive and significant relationship between age, income, and job satisfaction. Also, the Emirati females with education beyond the secondary level showed more satisfaction than the others with less education level.

In another study; this time in Turkey, Tuzun (2009) examined the relationship between the perceptions of employees regarding organisational identification, commitment and job satisfaction. In the Tuzun (2009) study, the results indicate that Organisational Identification and Commitment are inversely related to Job Satisfaction. A study conducted in Saudi Arabia (Al-Ahmadi, 2002) to examine the determinants of Job Satisfaction among nurses working in Riyadh, found that the overall Job Satisfaction level was moderate and the most significant determinates were; the ‘technical’ aspects of supervision, pay, recognition and work conditions.

More specifically in Jordan, the literature evidences few studies on job satisfaction. For example, Suliman and Abu Gharbieh (1996) conducted a study to investigate and assess the job satisfaction level among the nurses in the Jordanian hospitals, and it was the first
study in assessing nurse job satisfaction and retention (cited in Mrayyan, 2005). In Mrayyan (2005) study, the aim was to identify the Job Satisfaction and retention variables of nurses and the study established that nurses were moderately satisfied in their jobs with neutral opinions as to their retention. In another Jordanian study Al-Zu’bi (2010) investigated the relationship between ‘Organisational Justice’ and Job Satisfaction among employees working in electrical industrial companies. The findings of this study showed a positive relationship between ‘Organisational Justice’ and Job Satisfaction. Also, Al-Zu’bi (2010) stated that the Jordanian literature in the area of Job Satisfaction is in need of more research and investigation across different types of companies and organisational / industry sectors, as there limited work on Job Satisfaction within the Jordanian context is available. Based on, the following hypothesis was developed to provide a specific direction for the investigation:

“\(H_b\): The pay, promotion, benefits, reward and co-workers factors are optimal extrapolative predictors of job satisfaction”.

Toker (2011) has stated that employee job satisfaction is a significant characteristic that has been discussed for several times in the western contexts. Nevertheless, this concept is still under researched in the Middle East context and there have been very few studies on Job Satisfaction (Al-Zu’bi, 2010). The study reported in this paper measured Job Satisfaction by using Spector’s (1997) Job Nine Facet Satisfaction Survey (JSS) scale, as the overall satisfaction. The scale consists of nine subscales using a summated rating scale format which is the most popular format for job satisfaction scales. The format of the JSS makes it relatively easy to modify. Each of the nine subscales in JSS contains four items and the total job satisfaction score can be computed by combining all the thirty six items. Each item in the scale is a statement that measures whether respondents like or dislike an aspect of the job. For example, the first item concerns pay and pay
raises and the second item concerns satisfaction with promotion opportunities. The JSS can yield ten scores. Each of the nine subscales can produce a separate facet score and the total of all the thirty six items gives a total score for the scale. Each of the nine JSS subscales is scored by combining the responses of all the four items it consists of.

**2.7 Employees’ Attitude: Organisational Commitment**

Organisational commitment is considered a desirable and crucial element in employees’ behaviour but is a somewhat elusive attitude in workplaces and organisations (Brian and Christopher, 2011). Several researchers (e.g. Natarajan, 2011 and Payne and Huffman, 2005) have stated that organisational commitment can have a significant impact on organisations through contributing to: (i) productivity increases, (ii) organisational performance, (iii) opportunities for staff satisfaction and (iv) lower absenteeism. Moreover, Stites and Michael (2011) suggest that organisational commitment represents both an attitude which describes the linkage and relationship between the employee and the organisation, and a set of behaviours that employees follow to manifest that relationship. Organisational commitment also represents a fundamental variable of interest for researchers in studies of employees’ attitudes, their organisational behaviour and allied fields (see Fiorito, Bozeman, Young and Meurs, 2007; Hammer and Avgar, 2005). Chew and Chan (2008) also state that eliciting the employee’s commitment considered is one of the salient ongoing organisational issues faced by organisations and their managers.

For growing organisations, the high expenditure on training and development, the high cost of the recruitment process (Padala, 2011; Pfeffer, 1998) and the cost of lost productivity (Das, 2002) have substantially emphasised the significance of retaining committed people as a crucial element associated with organisational survival (Chew
and Chan, 2008). Part of these initiatives and practices is to ensure that there is a good fit between the values that organisations support through an organisation’s culture; and the values expressed by prospective employees in the recruitment and selection process (Van Vianen, 2000). This also extends to providing fair opportunities for training and work development (Altarawneh, 2009; Chew and Chan, 2008), as well as recognising in positive ways employee contributions and efforts (Davies, 2001), including provision to employees of equitable rewards which contribute to enhancing the performance for both employees and organisations (Boyd and Salamin, 2001). Many contemporary Middle Eastern organisations are also making significant efforts to establish positive working cultures and climates in attempts to retain committed employees, through various human resource management practices such as recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and rewards and benefits (Al-hussami, Saleh, Abdalkader and Mahadeen, 2011).

Essentially, many organisations recognise employee commitment as a valuable and strategic advantage in retaining knowledge and expertise and thus supporting a competitive advantage for the organisation. Increasingly, organisational commitment has been shown to reflect employee attachment to the organisation (Brian and Christopher, 2011). This attachment could be explained as the commitment to the whole organisation and as a reflection of how employees perceive the organisation’s support for them. Several studies (e.g. Fiorito et al., 2007; Wright and Bonett, 2002; Allen and Meyer, 1996) have shown that employees’ commitment predicts significant variables such as performance and intention to quit. Also; Colbert and Kwon (2000) found an inverse relationship between commitment and intention to leave the job. Additionally, organisational commitment has been shown to positively relate to job satisfaction and mirrors the unique relationship between the employee and the organisation and how this
relationship is important in explaining employee attitudes and behaviour (Michael, Court and Petal, 2009 and Wasti, 2005).

As the findings of these studies have essentially been based on studies undertaken in Western business and employment contexts, and with increasing international business opportunities appearing in and across a variety of cross-cultural contexts; including the employment of people from diverse cultural backgrounds, it is important for organisations to establish whether or not concepts and understandings of organisational commitment developed in Western contexts and if they hold true for other cultural contexts. In other words, the cultural invariance of organisational commitment is central to understanding whether there are key differences that organisations operating across various cultural borders need to take into consideration when managing key human resource elements such as organisational commitment.

2.7.1 Organisation Commitment in the Western Context

The multi-dimensionality of organisational commitment is generally accepted and well established (Tatlah, Ali and Saeed, 2011; Jernigan, Beggs and Kohut, 2002). In this sense, organisational commitment is characterised as a strong belief on the part of staff, in an organisation’s values and goals, a desire to maintain a strong relationship with the organisation and a willingness to invest considerable effort to enhance organisational performance (Al-Ahmadi, 2009; Michael et al., 2009). Studies which have examined and investigated the antecedents of organisational commitment as an attitude which represents the strength of the relationship between an individual and an organisation continue (e.g. Padala, 2011 and Addae, Parboteeah and Davis, 2006). Scholars and researchers have also examined a number of important employee attitudinal variables related to organisational commitment including job satisfaction (Addae et al., 2006;
Kinppenberg and Sleebos, 2006) and performance (Riketta, 2002), as well as behavioral variables, such as intention to quit (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

Many developing organisations, including those in developing economies, are experiencing tremendous change where the implications are resulting in a high level of staff turnover, distrust and stress. Along with these circumstances, generating high levels of employee commitment and linking it to improving competitive advantage is a constant issue for business managers and leaders (Labatmediene, Endriulaitiene and Gustainiene, 2007).

Such circumstances are also true in the Middle East with Al-Ahmadi (2009) describing commitment as an attitude reflecting the quality of the relationship and link between the individual and organisation. In this respect organisational commitment is considered a significant research area for Middle Eastern businesses which have an increasing need to understand both the practical and theoretical implications.

Anvari, Amin, Ahmad, Seliman and Garmsari (2011); Labatmediene et al., (2007) and Kwon and Banks (2004) have shown that understanding organisational commitment can support an understanding of how ‘intention to leave’ is related to commitment. Managers and practitioners could benefit from understanding the commitment predictors. For example, they can adopt an appropriate leadership and supervisory style in order to enhance the commitment level and in turn, the satisfaction level and job performance.

2.7.2 The Three Component of Organisational Commitment

Meyer, Allen and Smith, (1993) stated the organisational commitment behavioral approach holds that the individual is committed to the whole organisation, but not necessarily committed to any particular part or division in the organisation. According
to this approach and as a result of engaging in required behaviours, the individual might reach a psychological state of commitment. Generally, the employee’s commitment refers to and is linked to an emotionally and functionally attachment to the workplace. To better understand organisational commitment (Allen and Meyer, 1990), identify and explain three attitudinal types in conceptualisations of organisational commitment comprising affective, continuous and normative commitment. The three constructs are defined by Allen and Meyer (1990: 1) as:

“The affective component of organisational commitment refers to the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation.

The continuance component refers to commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organization. Finally, the normative component refers to the employee’s feelings of obligation to remain with the organization.”

The three general components of organisational commitment are regarded as a psychological state which employees experience in variant degrees. Allen and Meyer’s (1990) commitment is the most empirically tested, explaining that employees with a highly effective commitment levels, will stay in their work because they want to. Employees with high continuance commitment stay with the organisation because they need to, and employees with high normative commitment stay with the organisation because they ought to (Parish, Cadwallader, Busch, 2008; Marchiori and Henkin, 2004; Stallworth, 2003). The three component model developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) links each component to a particular work outcome such as employees’ intention to leave. Malhotra and Mukherjee (2004) and Cohen and Golan (2007) stated that each
component of commitment has dissimilar behavioral outcomes, and differently influence employee’s performance, absenteeism and organisational performance.

Recent research suggests organisational commitment might be comprised of many components (see Mathieu and Zajac, 1990 for an overview). Allen and Mayer (1990) propose a Three Component Conceptualisation of organisational commitment. The first component they proposed is the effective commitment, which reflects the emotional attachment and the desire to be part of the organisation. The extent to which an individual senses he or she belongs to this particular organisation finds its reflection in this component of commitment. Continuance, as being the second component is implied within the interaction between the organisation and the individual. In light of the extent to which an individual finds this continuance serving his or her interests, he or she chooses to remain at the service of the organisation, where the outcomes are bigger than the costs. The third component is the normative commitment, where the individual feels he or she is responsible to the organisation, where he or she ought to be committed to that organisation. This makes the individual determine which behaviours are deemed appropriate. Individuals might feel inclined towards commitment as a result of previous socialisation, either that experienced through one's childhood or in the early stages of working for that organisation.

Organisational commitment represents a multi-dimensional psychological attachment of the employees toward their organisation. This psychological attachment plays a positive role in the organisation's retention of it members (Davenport, 2010; Kate & Masako, 2002). Meyer and Allen (1997) defined organisational commitment as: “A psychological state that characterizes the employee's relationship with the organisation and has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organisation”.

64
Affective commitment represents the individual's attachment to the organisation’s goals. Employees who have high scores in affective commitment to the organisation are strongly motivated to contribute to the goals of the organisation because they deem them as their own goals (Tatlah et al., 2011; Mayer, Stanley, Hershcovetch & Topolnyutsky, 2002; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Shore & Tetric, 1991). Kate and Masako (2002) indicated that the individual variables (educational background, age and gender) and organisational factors (type of business, position and number of employees) might influence the employee’s affective commitment. Continuance commitment reflects a cognitive attachment between the individual and the organisation because of the expenses associated with leaving the work (Mayer et al., 2002; Kate & Masako; 2002). This is constituted upon the assumption that the employees would not leave their work if they would lose their benefits, incur expenses when in search of a new job and were exposed to the risk of unemployment (Davenport, 2010; Murray, Gregorie & Downey, 1991). The most significant factors that may lead to continuance commitment are the extent to which an employee has accumulated investment in a given organisation and the minority chances of having alternative jobs outside that organisation.

Normative commitment is the individual’s typical feelings of obligation to remain within an organisation (Mayer et al., 2002). Normative commitment is based upon ideology or a sense of obligation from the employee's side to stay within the organisation as a moral duty. Parish, Cadwallader and Busch (2008) conducted a study in the United States which focused on the role of individual’s commitment in the success of organisational change initiatives. The findings showed that affective commitment had an impact on employees’ perceptions about improved job performance and implementation success. In a different cross cultural study in Israel, Michael, Court and Petal (2009) examined the impact of job stress on organisational commitment.
where and the results showed that as stress levels rise, the employee’s commitment level decreases. Whilst there has been recent debate about whether or not organisational commitment has impact on turnover intention, Mosadeghrad, Ferlie and Rosenberg (2008) indicated that the Irish employees’ commitment level closely inter-related and correlated with turnover intention.

2.7.3 Organisational Commitment in Jordan and Middle East

In spite of the abundance of studies and research that has investigated organisational commitment in Western business contexts; the Middle East has provided little research about organisational commitment. This is true for countries like Jordanian and in other Arab countries (Addae et al., 2006). In fact the few available studies that are available are not based on empirical realities and they tend to be anecdotal in nature. Hence, it is not yet possible to chart an effective awareness of organisational commitment in this part of the world (Awamleh, 1996).

Nevertheless, in studies that have been undertaken (e.g. Cohen and Golan 2007) in a study of 119 female nurses in northern Israel, designed to examine the impact of prior absenteeism and work attitudes (job satisfaction and organisational commitment) on absenteeism and intention to quit, found that job satisfaction and organisational commitment was related to intention to quit and the results were consistent with a study conducted by Mosadeghrad et al., (2008) at Isfahan Hospitals, Isfahan, Iran. Moreover, several studies (Al-Hussami et al., 2011; Court and Petal, 2009) have consistently reported a correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment and some other studies (Addae et al., 2006; Malhotra and Mukherjee, 2004) came to the conclusion that a reciprocal effect exists between satisfaction and commitment.
Awamleh (1996) has also noted that the literature available on organisational commitment in the Middle East and particularly in Jordan is noticeably thin. Awamleh (1996) indicates that his study was the first to be conducted on organisational commitment in Jordan, and measured the organisational commitment of government civil service managers. The findings indicated no relationship between organisational commitment and demographic variables such as gender and age. In another Jordanian study, Al-bdour, Nasruddin and Lin (2010) examined the relationship between internal corporate social responsibility practices and organisational commitment based on social exchange theory among a group working in the banking sector. Al-bdour et al. (2010) found that all internal corporate social responsibility practices were both positively and significantly related to both ‘affective’ and ‘normative’ commitment. However, no relationship was found with ‘continuance’ commitment. In a further study Al-Hussami et al., (2011) investigated the relationship of faculty members’ commitment to their sense of job satisfaction, perceived organisational support, job autonomy, workload, and pay in the Faculty of Nursing at University of Jordan, Jordan. Al-Hussami et al, (2011) showed a predictive model comprising three factors: job satisfaction, perceived support and age which were significantly related to faculty members’ commitment.

In a further study, Al-Qarioti and Al-Enezi (2004) examined the levels of organisational commitment among 332 supervisors from middle management positions at ministries, public institutions, non-government organisations (NGOs), and private companies in Jordan. Al-Qarioti and Al-Enezi (2004) were able to show that there was no relationship between the type of organisation and organisational commitment. However, their study did show a negative relationship between organisation commitment and age, educational levels and length of service. In another Middle Eastern study, (in the United Arab Emirates) Yousef (2000) examined linkages between organisational commitment
and job satisfaction among a group of 474 employees in being able to predict different attitudes towards organisational change. Yousef (2000) revealed that the behavioural attitudes towards organisational change grew with an increase in affective commitment. The study showed that continuance commitment had a direct but negative impact on cognitive attitudes toward organisational change. Thus, the following hypothesis emerges to test and investigate the organisational commitment construct:

"\( H_c: \text{The affective, continuance and normative factors are interrelated, multi-dimensional and optimal predictors of organisational commitment} \)."

Further research undertaken by Al-Aameri (2000), in Saudi Arabia; to investigate nurses’ satisfaction and commitment levels in public hospitals, showed that nurses were satisfied with their jobs and committed to their hospitals. Additionally, that satisfied nurses tended to have a higher degree of commitment than the less satisfied ones. This study was undertaken in Saudi Arabia by Al-Qattan (1987). Al-Qattan’s study examined the relationship between organisational commitment and personal variables including age, education and length of service using a multicultural sample of 270 Western, Arabian, Saudi and Asian workers employed by Saudi organisations. The study revealed Asian and Arabian workers demonstrated higher levels of commitment than Western and Saudi workers. It also concluded that a positive relationship existed between organisational commitment and age, education and length of service. The implications of these findings are important for Middle Eastern organisations, many of whom are in the development stage in establishing themselves on the global business stage. This is reinforced by writers such as Cohen and Golan (2007); Addae et al., (2006); and Awamleh (1996) who have stated that developing countries need to reinforce their human and other organisational resources in order to prepare for future growth.
2.8 Employees’ Work Values

2.8.1 Defining the Work Value Construct

McDonald and Wilson (2011) and Henderson and Thompson (2003) define values as the preferences and priorities that give meaning and motivation to a person. In this sense, values are the basis for the behaviours that guide decision making and are intrinsic, ingrained and tend to be stable frameworks of perception. For example; Whetton and Cameron (1998: 53) suggest that; ‘values are among the most stable...characteristics of individuals. They are the foundation upon which attitudes and personal preferences are formed’. Although Grojean et al., (2004: 226) note that; ‘while values are enduring personal characteristics, they are acquired through a process of social analysis, and may change somewhat over time due to the influences of social factors’.

As far back as England (1967) Rokeach (1973) and Posner and Munson (1979) the importance of how values are likely to impact and influence organizational behaviour has been seen as an important element in understanding both individual and organizational activity. At an individual level Tung and Miller (1990) observed that awareness of the values of the people, with whom one is engaged in international business, is an important step in building good cross-national working relationships. Also; Ralston, Gustafson, Cheung and Terpstra (1992) suggested that; ‘understanding managers’ values, is critical in a global economy, since the philosophy of, and the practices pursued in a given country, by a given organization, will depend to a large extent, upon the values held by those in management’. Indeed; of very recent times Herbst and Houmanfar (2009) and Posner (2010) supports the notion that understanding
values is important to our understanding of the study or organizational behaviour with Posner (2010, p. 457) arguing that;

“Values are at the core or who people are. They influence the choices they make, the people they trust, the appeals they respond to, and the ways people invest their time and energy. In turbulent times they provide a source of direction amid conflicting views and demands.”

From the perspective of ‘work values’, and the theory of work adjustment more specifically; Lofquist and Dawis (1978) argued that the values people bring to work (work values) are unlinked to the social environment of the organisation. In this sense, employees’ work values can be the reference point for the definition of a person’s needs and objectives, and inform the basic motives and modes of conduct that are socially or personally preferred over the opposite conduct (Ferrell and Hartline 2011). Gahan and Abeysekera (2009) address these concerns in their analysis of issues that shape work values within and between national cultures and self-construal. Work values can also be seen as cultural norms which advocate personal accountability and responsibility for a person’s work (McLeish 2010). Values in this sense; are founded on the assumption that, work has intrinsic meaning (Mazzocchi 2008). Work values are also used in the workplace to evaluate professional conduct and the performance of a worker, as a reflection of the organizational culture. Henderson and Thompson (2003) argue for a company to be successful, the organisational values and the values of the workers have to be aligned. This creates potential problems especially at the point of staff selection. Equally; it is unreasonable to expect that ALL so-called ‘workers’ will necessarily possess and maintain the same values as those held by the organization as a whole. Nevertheless; Posner (2010) in testing a 1993 study by Posner and Schmidt
associated with values congruency; not only validated the original findings, but also established a significant relationship between personal values congruence and organizational value clarity associated with commitment, satisfaction, motivation, anxiety, work stress and ethics.

2.8.2 Importance of Work Values

According to Johnson and Elder (2002) work values also inform the importance of work rewards. Values can also have a long-lasting influence on an individual’s career development and can also determine a worker’s degree of job satisfaction and self-fulfilment (Ferrell and Hartline 2011). In addition, Sabir (2003) argues that intentional work adjustment depends largely on the work values of the person; and Super (1970) lists the following desirable characteristics of the workplace: achievement, aesthetics, prestige, altruism, intellectual stimulation, security, independence, respect for others, way of life, supervisory relationships, variety and creativity.

More recently, Henderson and Thompson (2003) classify work values into control, ethical, and development values. Control values refer to planning, efficiency, administration, responsibility and productivity. Ethical values enable an individual to communicate effectively in a group and work with others; they include personal authority, listening, trust, and sharing. People believe ethical values should be upheld when dealing with others (Farber 2006; Forsyth 2009). Development values are related to concepts or ideas about discovering new things or improving individual or others; they include creativity, intellectual stimulation, research and growth (Moore and Pareek 2010).

Nevertheless; Grojean et, al. (2004: 223-241) posit that values are the key influence as to what motivates people to behave consistently and highlight five perspectives in terms
of how people align their values with their behaviour; (i) how we think and piece things together – our cognitive structures; (ii) the direction of our behaviour – the emotional intensity of our behaviour; (iii) justifications of and for our behaviour – the standards we employ to judge our behaviour; (iv) learning over time – the various socialisation experiences we encounter and (v) the sources of our learning – personal, organizational or societal.

The implications of failing to come to terms with an awareness of values goes to the potential for a mismatch between the expectations of managerial behaviour demanded by an organization’s culture, and the behaviour that is actually required and/or occurs. This is likely to give rise to the potential for an inappropriate fit between the organizational culture and the appointee in any particular business environment, including the behaviour the manager believes to be appropriate, in any given cross-border business environment. Hence the need to understand the potential influence of work values within the business environment examined in the research reported herein and how Human Resource Management practice maybe more effectively designed in keeping with organizational and national cultural needs. Posner (2010, p. 457) supports this argument indicating that the values espoused by the organization for whom one works are important because they;

“Provide the foundation for the purpose and the goals of the enterprise. They silently give direction to the hundreds of decisions made at all levels of the organization every day. They are at the heart of the culture of an organization.”
The structure of work values and career development characteristics has been comprehensively researched (Kerin, Hartley and Rudelius 2011); and some of these studies are briefly described below.

2.8.3 Work Values in the Western Context

Changes to work values is reflected in a longitudinal survey of 800 MBA students over 15 years by Frieze Olson Murrell and Selvan (2006) which revealed that some work values (e.g. job accomplishment and nature of work) are related to higher number of hours worked and higher salaries. Importantly though; the study also demonstrated that work values can be related to decisions to change companies. In a further US study; over the last three decades, Farber (2006) has shown that the phenomenon of job stability; a traditional action historically valued by employers, is now obsolete as time-limited job contracts have increased and workers are constantly changing companies.

In addition; a review of recent graduates by Wray-Lake, Syvertsen, Briddell, Flanagan and Osgood (2009), suggests they view the importance of work, the intrinsic rewards of work and the value of job security as being less important than previous generations. This study followed up on high school seniors from 1976 to 2005; to determine their perception of work values during their transition from young employees into adulthood, and how they view the rewards from work. The study explored trends in various work related values such as; (i) job stability, (ii) materialism, (iii) intrinsic and extrinsic work values among adolescents, and (iv) differences in work values across gender, race, and (v) adolescents’ career aspirations while in college. The study concluded that work values change across time due to economic and social experiences during adolescence and adulthood. These findings have also been shown by other studies (Settersten, Furstenberg and Rumbaut 2005).
In addition, Mazzocchi (2008) argues that few studies have been conducted on the relationship between work values and work behaviour and outcomes. Nevertheless, Posner (2010) did conclude in a study of 711 managers in the United States, that years of experience (expressed by age, managerial experience, and hierarchical level) did make a difference in responses to understanding linkages, if not congruence between personal and organizational values.

McDonald and Wilson (2011) argue that the most valuable asset that an employer can have is workers with good work values. These authors refer to ‘good work values’ as the values that offers an employer someone who has a strong work ethic, is dependable, reliable, honest, and possesses a positive attitude.

So-called ‘Good work values’ are considered by employers when selecting interns for full time work in their company. Researchers in organizational psychology have identified practical methods of understanding, measuring, and improving employee attitudes (Kraut 1996). Surveys on workers and their jobs demonstrate two points. First, work is not merely a source of upkeep; it is also a means of self-gratification. Secondly, most workers would like to change their jobs (Kraut 1996). However, these surveys (Lu and Lin, 2002) only relate job dissatisfaction to turn-over rates. In order to establish a more informed awareness of this phenomena; future research should focus on, employees’ personal values as they relate to work turn-over and job adjustment. More informed conclusions could then be drawn about the ideal work values that employers should look for and how to elicit them from employees. In this respect, Lu and Lin (2002) argue that, research on the relationship between employee work values and organisational success would be useful for human resource managers who want to nurture and retain workers with desired work values, and whose prime concern is work value adjustments. While searching for employment and training, and addressing
organisational responsibilities depend on work values, there is also a need for attention to personal values (Roe and Ester 1999; McDonald and Wilson 2011).

Nevertheless; Ferrell and Hartline (2011); argue there is also a research gap between psychological perspectives and sociological perspectives to understanding work values, as well as between general personal values and work values, which should also be evaluated against work activity.

Further research on how work values derive or are related to individual values; include studies by Saari and Judge (2004) and Ros, Schwartz and Surkiss 1999. Ros et al. (1999) researched ‘work’ as a vehicle for reaching cherished goals and used two Spanish samples to test the concept. The first represented experienced teachers and the second sample represent the education students. They wanted to establish the significance of work experience in determining the value of work. Random sampling selected 179 teachers with at least five years’ experience from a group of teachers attending summer courses at the University of Madrid. A sample of 193 students training to become lecturers made up the second group. The respondents rated 56 values on a scale of 1–10. Both groups rated work to be very important: at the same degree of importance as self-transcendence values. Self-transcendence value exists when the employee uses Being-values and Being-cognition to go beyond the sensate body mind, and body ego, to find the Transcendent Higher Self. The study concluded that career choice is more important than job experience in determining work value importance.

2.8.4 Work Values in Non-Western Context

In another study; Khasawneh (2010), explored work values among eight hundred and twenty five university students in Jordan; and reports that university students possess significant and fundamental work values, which will help them in their future careers.
Moreover, the results indicated that male and female university students place great importance on all work values investigated.

Hogarth (2001) undertook a comparative study of work values among teachers which focused on the teachers’ work values, effective methods of gauging them and the influence they had on the teacher’s job satisfaction and professional behaviour. The study concluded that work values amongst the teachers consisted of material reward, prestige status, professional development, stability and security, and management of the organisation. The study concluded that there a direct relationship between the values of devotion and altruism, prestige, security and stability, and the degree of job performance existed. Askun, Oz and Askun’s (2010) Turkish study on the managerial work values of 1023 managers finds no relationship between educational background and work experience with work values. The three dominant work values held by the managers’ were (i) integrity, (ii) doing work with care, and (iii) achievement. In another cross-cultural study, this time in Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, and Oman, Robertson, Al-Habib, Al-Khatib, and Lanoue (2010) conducted a study to determine whether changes and modifications to work values were occurring among managers. The findings demonstrated that Saudi Arabia’s work values are highly confined and steadfast, While Kuwait and Oman were more susceptible to external influences. On the basis of the studies covered in this section, the following hypothesis was proposed:

“**H₆: Job accomplishment, nature of the work, and job advancement will positively contribute to employees’ work values**”.

Lu and Lin (2002) also conducted a study on 219 Chinese workers in Taiwan, aged between 18 and 65 years, to determine the link between satisfaction in the job and work values. The work values included creativity, assisting others, challenging work, autonomy, leadership, sense of achievement, fulfilment of ideals, respect from others,
good company welfare and leading a healthy life. They established that job turn-over intentions were significantly related to work values. The study concluded that the most important work value dimension was personal capability. Also; employees’ attitudes to work were shown to have shifted from jobs being just a source of income towards jobs being a means of achieving self-actualisation. Lu and Lin (2002) recommend that managers use job enrichment, job enlargement, job re-design and to also introduce performance evaluation systems designed to challenge the workers and allow for self actualization, in order to improve worker performance.

2.9 Employees’ Intention to Quit

Employee’s intention to quit is mainly determined by job satisfaction, commitment, as well as work-related attitudes (Griffin & Moorhead, 2011). Therefore, identification of reasons why employees are unsatisfied can assist an organisation eliminate problems contributing to employees’ quitting intentions (Detamore & Capella University School of Business, 2008). It is significant that an organisation assesses and comprehends avoidable employees’ intentions to quit in eliminating unfavorable outcomes as well as cost. The management agrees that employee retention results to higher customer satisfaction, quality improvement, effective succession planning and increase in organisational knowledge as well as learning. As a result, employee intention to quit their job has been considered as one of the most widely researched areas due to its importance in subsequent organisational success and labor productivity. Not only employee’s intention to quit a job indicate unfavorable working climate, but may also reveal the likely loss of experienced employees as well as customer relationships. Moreover, employee’s intentions to quit may notify the organisation management of their inadequacies with regard to compensation of employees, benefits, working conditions, employees’ morale/motivation and job attitudes, as well as recruitment.
Therefore, intentions of the employees to quit a job in an organisation can assist the management evaluate appropriateness of the organisation structure, human resource management and management policies as well as strategies (Bernthal & Wellins, 2001). On the other hand, employees’ intention to quit a job may result to great adverse effects in organisations especially where these intentions lead to higher levels of employee turnover. As a result, high employees’ turnover intentions can lead to inferior customer satisfaction. In addition, employees’ intentions to quit a job are associated with various significant factors of concern, including direct costs associated with replacement, employment, management, recruitment and selection as well indirect costs resulting from morale, pressure on other employees, learning cost, service quality, and social capital loss (Sohee & University of Minnesota, 2007). This has been undertaken first through a review of literature and then the paper continues with the research methodology, results and analysis techniques (test of reliability, exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, and multiple regression analysis). The results arising from this empirical study are discussed including the contribution of the theory. Limitations and directions for future research conclude the paper.

2.9.1 Intention to Quit in the Western Context

Turnover intentions represent employees’ voluntarily to leave the organisation. The intention of quit is most likely the significant precursor of turnover decisions. In accordance to general the theory of planned behavior that suggests that behavioral intention is a good predictor of actual behavior, intention to quit can be used instead of actual turnover to determine organisation performance (Junak & Roosevelt University, 2007). Actually, researchers have established the intention to quit or stay as the appropriate indicator of actual employee turnover. A research was carried out by Heather Dickey, Verity Watson and Alexandros Zangelidis on job satisfaction
determinants and intention to leave within the UK North Sea oil and gas industry. This followed employment and retention difficulties arising from deficiency of skilled employees. Findings of the research show that people in superior financial situations, whose job is related to their skills and undergone training reported elevated job satisfaction levels. In addition, they established the significance of job satisfaction, training and promotion predictions in determining intentions of employees to quit their job. The overall means of retaining employees in an organisation is improving employees’ job satisfaction (Heather, Watson, & Zangelidis, 2011).

According to Michael J. O’Fallon and Denney G. Rutherford, employee’s intention to quit a job is related to job satisfaction and organisational commitment (O’Fallon & Rutherford, 2009). Meghna Sabharwal in conjunction with Arizona State University has defined job satisfaction as employees’ feelings on their jobs as well as different aspects of their jobs (Sabharwal & Arizona State University, 2008). Job satisfaction comprises of nature of work, co-worker, promotion as well as rewards. Stressors as a result of the nature of a job such as work overload, organisation environment, and job ambiguity contributes to intentions of an employee to quit (Leontaridi & Melanie, 2002). Moreover, institutional factors, workforce composition, compensating differentials, efficiency of wages, search frictions, incentives and benefits influences intentions of leaving by employees (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2008). Lise M. Saari and Timothy A. Judge have researched on employee attitudes with the most crucial employees’ attitude concerning job satisfaction. They have identified various attitudes among employees including cultural influences, dispositional influences, and work situation influences. Besides, findings of negative or positive job satisfaction have been identified with regard to job performance, life satisfaction and withdrawal behaviors. Moreover, they have established ways of measuring and
influencing attitudes of an employee. In this article, suggestions have been provided on how to eliminate problems in knowledge as well as evaluation of employed measures (Saari & Timothy, 2004).

Employees acquire attitudes and values on quitting intentions by observing other employees in their work environments. Where co-workers’ testimonials are positive about their job, favorable features of the job become more outstanding to the employee with an increase in positive perceptions of the work situation. Moreover, intention to quit a job is affected by the communication relationships and its effects on employees in an organisation. Therefore, intentions of an employee to quit his or her job are reactions to problematic events in an organisation (Sambrook & Stewart, 2007).

Employee’s intentions to quit a job may result to different types of employees’ turnover. According to Robert L. Mathis and John H. Jackson, employee intentions can lead to involuntary turnover, voluntary, functional, dysfunctional, uncontrollable or controllable turnover. For involuntary turnover, poor performance of employees results to their termination in a job while they leave by choice in voluntary turnover. In functional turnover, disruptive or unproductive employees leave whereas in dysfunctional turnover highly productive and key employees quit the job. With regard to uncontrollable turnover, factors leading to employees quitting the job are beyond management control whilst those of controllable control can be influenced (Mathis & Jackson, 2010). Several studies have been done on the effect of earlier absenteeism, demographic factors, and work attitudes such as job satisfaction, health perceptions, and commitments on employee absenteeism and intentions to quit. In the longitudinal survey carried out by Aaron Cohen and Ronit Golan, prior absenteeism has a significant effect on later absenteeism and job satisfaction, work attitudes influence absenteeism
with commitment especially organisational commitment being linked to employees’ intentions to quit (Cohen & Golan, 2007).

Scott, Gravelle, Simoens, Bojke, & Sibbald carried out a research based on general practitioners survey data in the UK to estimate job satisfaction as well as quitting intentions using a structural model. Their intention was to eliminate problems of coefficient interpretation encountered in reduced form models used on previous. As a result, clearer relationships between job satisfaction, intention to quit, and job characteristics were established. Additionally, this structural approach gives a more extensive understanding on the role as well as effect of job features on intentions to quit. These findings are relevant especially in the public sector labor markets due to limitations in altering wages in order to compensate for the relative jobs advantages and disadvantages arising from national wage bargaining (Scott, Gravelle, Simoens, Bojke, & Sibbald, 2006). It is apparent that job and personal characteristics have a direct influence on job satisfaction in addition to their effect through job satisfaction factors. Moreover, measures of job satisfaction have a direct impact on intention to leave, besides their impact through job satisfaction.

Apparently, strong support exists for the relationship between intention to quit a job in an organisation and actual job termination. Therefore, understanding factors associated with intention to quit will provide the employers and organisations with strategies that prevent employees from quitting their jobs. There is substantial Middle East literature on intentions to quit a job in a variety of occupations. According to Muhammad Masroor Alam and Jamilha Fakir Mohammad, a relationship exists between the level of job satisfaction and intention to leave among Malaysian nurses. Based on their research, nurse staffs were moderately satisfied with their jobs on issues regarding supervision, co-workers, compensation, job diversity, closure, human resource management as well
as management policies. As a result, they exhibited lower level of intention to quit their job in current places of work (Muhammad & Mohammad, 2010).

The relationship between intention to quit and job satisfaction is better established than the relationship of intent to quit and job search behavior. Job search refers to an employee’s extent of seeking for another job. It is a leaving cognition characterizing the quitting process that significantly contributes to employees’ intentions to quit their job. It involves preparatory search, a job search behavior that includes reading ads as well as active search behavior such as calling employers. It is apparent that job search has a direct impact on employees’ intention to quit a job. Studies have identified that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are negatively related to job search behavior. In addition, commitment has significant effect on intent to quit a job with job satisfaction effect on intent to leave being directly proportional to job search and commitment.

A study carried out by Liew Chai Hong and Sharan Kaur on the correlation between organisational environment, employee personality and employee’s intention to quit a job in Malaysia shows that organisational climate has a significant relationship with quitting intentions of an employee. The structure, responsibility, rewards and support had significant negative associations with intention of the employee to quit. Moreover, dominance as well as sociability personalities had significant influence on the relationship between organisational climate and intention to quit a job by an employee (Liew & Sharan, 2008). There is considerable literature that demonstrates a positive relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit a job. According to Fadi El-Jardali, Diana Jamal, Victoria Tchaghchaghian and Hani Dimassi study, work attitudes, job involvement, autonomy, job stress, promotional chances, social support, external job opportunities, and compensation influenced job satisfaction. Furthermore, salary, career
advancement, benefits package and career development were perceived as main sources of dissatisfaction in Lebanon nurses. Moreover, work attitudes, promotional chances, and supervisor support predict employees’ commitment and intent to quit (2009). Demographic characteristics such as age and experience have a positive relationship with intentions to quit a job (Mathis & Jackson, 2010). Highly educated employees are likely to leave their current employee which is associated with more intents of quitting their job. Contrary, a study by Alf & Abou-Zaki in the Lebanese commercial banking sector on relationships between job satisfaction, individual job components, socio-demographic variables and job performance indicated that less educated employees were least satisfied with their job (Alf & Abou-Zaki, 2003). Several factors influence intentions of employees to quit a job such as workforce participation, demographic characteristics including salary, benefits, as well as work status. Moreover, these factors determine job satisfaction and according to the study carried out on Lebanese banking sector, female employees are less satisfied with most of these factors except the salary (Alf & Abou-Zaki, 2003).

2.9.2 Intention to Quit in the Middle East

On the other hand, work-family conflict and family-work conflict predict job satisfaction and employees’ intentions to quit their job in Middle East (Hajar, Rumaya, & Yaacob, 2011). Based on literature in the Middle East, other variables such as organisational tenure and supervisor support amount of overtime and time of shift influence employees’ intentions to quit their job. Osman M. Karatepe carried out a study to determine consequences of organisational tenure and supervisor support on family–work conflict, work–family conflict as well as employees’ intentions to quit their job. Using data collected from Arab frontline employees with families in the
international five-star chain hotels in Jordan, Osman concluded that organisational tenure and supervisor support relations minimizes family–work conflict as well as employees’ intentions to quit their job with insignificant influence on work–family conflict (Karatepe, 2009).

As aforementioned, a significant relationship exists between job stress, job satisfaction, and intentions of an employee to quit their job. These variables demonstrated a moderate inverse relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit a job. It is evident that job satisfaction is a crucial in the success of organisations and in the provision of quality service to customers. It is a significant determinant of absenteeism and employee’s intention to their job. Moreover, high levels of job satisfaction are determinants of improved financial performance and cost reduction in an organisation. Additionally, several other causes of employees’ intentions to quit their job have been discussed, including low compensation, poor working condition and work attitudes. Consequently, supervision of employee influences their intentions to leave an organisation with employees whose expectations on supervisor characteristics are unachieved being more likely to quit. Besides, more experienced employees are less inclined to intent to quit their current job whereas highly educated employees are likely to leave in search of better employment opportunities. Therefore, the following hypothesis was developed:

“H0: The work opportunities, personal needs and personal responsibilities are optimal predictors of work values and interrelated multi-dimensional construct”.

Multiple studies have been carried out both in Middle East as well as Western countries as evidenced by their respective literatures. These studies have been conducted in various occupations ranging from nursing, industrial sectors, public sectors among others. From findings obtained in these studies, it is evident that employees’ intentions
to quit their job are dependent on many variables such as demographic factors, job satisfaction, working conditions, co-workers, work opportunities, personal needs and personal responsibilities, commitment, work-family conflict and family-work conflict as well as job search behaviors. However, further research is required on employees’ job quitting intentions in order to identify appropriate measures to solve this problem and provide more elaborate information crucial in organisation management as well as human resource management.

2.10 The Relationship between the Five Constructs

2.10.1 The Relationship between Human Resource Management Practices (HRMP) and Job Satisfaction (JS)

Human resource management represents the system, policies, and practices which influence the employees’ attitudes such as satisfaction, commitment, and performance (Dabic´, Ortiz-De-Urbina-Criado and Romero-Martı´nez, 2011; De Cieri Kramar Noe Hollenbeck Gerhart and Wright, 2008). HRM includes determining human resource needs, recruiting and selecting, training, appraising and rewarding (De Cieri et al., 2008; Dessler, 2007). The relationship between HRM practices and job satisfaction represent a wide research area in the literature (Steijin, 2005). The past two decades have witnessed a burgeoning literature on the job satisfaction literature. Furthermore, the literature shows a large amount of research on human resource management that emphasizes on the impact and the relationship between the workplace practices on employees’ job satisfaction (Carraher, 2011; Petrescu and Simmons, 2008).

Steijin (2002) conducted a distinct study to examine the overall job satisfaction of Dutch public employees with respect to HRM practices and specifically to the rewards
and benefits practice. The findings of Steijin (2002) study showed that there is a positive relationship between HRM practices and job satisfaction. Similarly, Bradley, Petrescu and Simmons (2004) examined the impact of HRM practices and on the employees’ job satisfaction. Bradley et al., (2004) employed different HRM practices such as recruitment and selection and rewards and benefits practices as independent variables and job satisfaction as a dependent variable. The finding showed that both HRM practices were positively correlated with the employees’ job satisfaction. Petrescu and Simmons (2008) conducted a study in the UK to investigate the relationship between HRM practices and employees’ overall job satisfaction. Petrescu and Simmons (2008) found that several HRM practices (Recruitment and selection, training and development, and performance appraisal) correlate significantly and increase positively the employees’ overall job satisfaction.

In another study, Turkyilmaz, Akman, Ozkan and Pastuszak (2011) found that the reward and benefits variable represented the third significant construct that influence employees’ job satisfaction. Turkyilmaz et al., (2011) stated that rewards and benefits could be recognized as a main variable affecting the employees’ job satisfaction. Moreover, Mudor and Tooksoon (2011) and Maurer (2001) came with the same results suggesting that the rewards and benefits variable should be linked to the organisational performance as this practice considered as a frequent and main variable in affecting job satisfaction. Jun, Cai and Shin (2006) and Saks (1996) found that the training and development practice correlate significantly and positively to the job satisfaction providing a significant chance to the individuals to enhance their knowledge and abilities. Also, Martensen and Gronholdt (2001) found that the training of employees’ competencies through a different range of training programs has a positive impact on employees' job satisfaction. When employees attending the training and development
programs, they achieve more self-confidence and perceive career development opportunities.

El-Jardali Merhi Jamal Dumit Mouro (2009) conducted a study among nursing directors in Lebanon and they found that the rewards and benefits practice has a positive influence on job satisfaction. In another cross cultural study, Bradley, Petrescu and Simmons used British data to examine the relationship between HRM practices and job satisfaction. They found that several HRM practices (recruitment and selection, training and learning, and pay practices) were correlated positively with job satisfaction. Formally, the following hypothesis was developed:

\[ H_1: \text{The human resource management practices have a positive and significant impact on job satisfaction}. \]

2.10.2 The Relationship between Human Resource Management Practices (HRMP) and Organisational Commitment (OC)

A study conducted by Palmer (2006) showed that organization commitment is a characteristic of many dimensions. These dimensions have their impact on three main areas of strategic Human Resource Management which are development and career planning, training and development during and after recruitment and selection process. The use of recognized operating procedure to set organizational standards is used to improve on productivity of the organization. Human resource practices increase public employee’s commitment to the organization and increase their desire to stay (Gottschalg & Zollo, 2007). Balfour and Wechsler (1991) points out that human resource practices do not lead to extra effort. Higher level of productivity and performance result when employees show commitment to the organization, believe in its values and goals and take pride in being members of the organization. Effective human resource practices
like training make the employees to have a strong desire for obligation, give a sense of belonging and the employees are able to stay and remain members of the organization for long (Beck & Wilson, 2000). The employees will be willing to put more effort in their work and focus on the company’s interest with an aim of achieving the goals of an organization (Feldman & Ng, 2007).

Human resource practices that are based on commitment focus on long term relationships between employees and employer (Suliman & Iles, 2000). Employers focus on people development practices which encourage team work and the development of specific knowledge to the firm. According to Stuart & Ian (2009), human resource practices based on transaction involve economic exchange of work for money in the short run. The commitment based practices reveal the long term investment in employees and this has been helpful in studying the impacts of this commitments. The levels of commitment by employees depend on independence where they are able to work under minimum supervision and are able to manage or deal with their own career. Studies found that increased level of autonomy and self supervision was associated with reduced levels of normative commitment (Smeenk, Eisinga, Teelken & Doorewaard, 2006).

Value creation processes that are based on the practices of human resource that include training and improvement of employees, rewards, benefits and performance appraisal encourages businesses and organizations to utilize the available human resource in order to benefit organizations (Zheng, Morrison & O'Neil, 2006). Organizational commitment has the following characteristics: a distinct aspiration to sustain the membership of the organization, readiness to exercise significant effort on the activities of the business and a well-built trust and acceptance of the goals of the organization. According to Janet (2008), not all employees who are exposed to career development and training will
increase the affective commitment. Effective selection, career and development, reward and recognition of the value of employee, equality in compensation and benefits and challenging employment opportunities and assignments will make the employees to stay longer in the organization and positively affecting the employees’ commitment (Janet 2008).

According to Khadim, Aslam & Muhammad (2009), a committed member of the company has an urge to preserve this attachment if they are given motivation from the human resource and if they are allowed to participate in the organization activity without interference. Workers from various companies concluded an investigation that integrated actions of procedural justice and organizational support, the quality of human resource practices. These actions related to benefits, training and performance appraisal used in their companies and normative commitment to the organization (Parker et al, 2003). The study revealed that the relationship between normative and affective commitment and practices of human resource was affected by the perception and mediation of justice in procedures and organizational support. It shows the effect of human resource practice on the commitment of the organization is neither conditional nor direct (Meyer & Smith, 2009). Yoon and Thye (2002) stated that human resource practice is related to worker cognitions or emotions that give an employees’ profile on the level of commitment in an organization.

Recognition and remuneration given to employees also affect their willingness to stay in the organization. Fair pay and wages is seen to be the main reason for the agreement between employer and employee (Parker & Wright, 2000). The employees do well at work and put more effort with the perception that the employer will reciprocate by giving fair remuneration and benefits. Studies showed that employees who are paid low
wages and those who are not rewarded or appraised on their performance do not perform any better at work (Handel & Gittleman, 2004). Studies showed that lack of benefit schemes has led to low turnover in organizations and in federal government since low turnover leads to less profits hence less taxes to be paid (Neumark, Schweitzer & Wascher, 2004). Many organizations value their employees’ performance and reward them so that they can increase their effectiveness in the organization (Skerlavaj, Stemberger, Skrinjar & Dimovski, 2007). According to Gottschalg & Zollo (2007), organizations considered the human resources as a source of competitive advantage in the work. Studies researching on the commitment levels of employees who pursue their career through self-interest and development have established that training and development is positively linked to the commitment of the employees in the organization (Feldman & Ng, 2007). Employees who change their jobs frequently have a lower level of normative commitment (Kondratuk et al, 2004). Hence, the following hypothesis was proposed:

“H₂: The human resource management practices have a positive and significant impact on organisational commitment”.

2.10.3 The Relationship between Human Resource Management Practices (HRMP) and Work Value (WV)

Nowadays, human resources of an organization considered as a significant source of competitive advantage, providing functions and policies for managing employees and integrated with organisational behaviour, organizational culture and work values (Panayotopoulou, Bourantas and Papalexandris, 2003; Schaffer and Riordan 2003). Searching the literature indicates that there is little amount of research available in the field of HRM which explain and provide insights on the impact of HRM practices on
work values and employee’s behaviours (Gahan & Abeysekera, 2009). Many researchers found that the individual’s work values were significant to a number of HRM practices and functions in many multinational organisations employing different employees from diverse cultural backgrounds (Gahan & Abeysekera, 2009; Lester, Claire and Kickul 2001; Bu and McKeen 2001). A key concern in the HRM literature is the correlation and relationship between the various ways of conceptualising employee’s values, and values in the area of work. The works values construct explain the ending state and position that the employees desire and expect from the organisation (Bu and McKeen 2001). Work values were considered as a crucial element in shaping and enhancing the employees’ expectations of work, their response to particular work situations and likely their performance within a specific work role (Gahan & Abeysekera, 2009; Huff and Kelley 2004).

Understanding the relationship between HRM practices and work values and which factors or practices are influencing an individual’s value orientation is a practical significant issue in the field of HRM, employees’ behaviour, job performance, employees’ commitment and satisfaction (Pun, Chin and Gill, 2001; O’Driscoll and Randall, 1999). A few number of HRM practices (performance appraisal and rewards and benefits) have been found correlated or affecting the individual’s work values (Lester et al., 2001). Moreover, Lester et al., (2001) highlighted that the significant of an organisation enhancing the employees’ satisfaction through providing a perfect reward system will contribute positively to the individual’s values. In HRM and organisational behaviour research fields, a number of scholars and researches (Erez and Early 1993; Roe and Ester 1999; Chen, Chen and Meindl 1998) have addressed and recommended that the relationship between HRM practices, outcomes (recruiting, training, employee goal-setting, job enrichment, job design, appraisal, benefits, satisfaction and
commitment) and employees’ work values need to be examined and investigated in future researches. Yet, this relationship and linkage remain unexamined or researched empirically (Schaffer and Riordan 2003). Based on that, to examine and investigate the relationship between the HRM practices and work values the following hypothesis was proposed:

“\textbf{H}_3: \textit{There is a significant and positive relationship between HRM practices and employees’ work values}”.

2.10.4 The Relationship between Human Resource Management Practices (HRMP) and Intention to Quit (IQ)

Many Precedent researches (Abassi & Hollman, 2000; Batt & Valcour, 2003; Firth, Mellor, Moore, & Loquet, 2004) have linked different HRM practices (recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, rewards and benefits) with employees’ intention to quit. The employee’s intention to quit considered as one of the most widely researched topics in the HRM and organisational analyses fields (Abeysekera, 2007; Firth et al., 2004). In spite of considerable research development, a great deal of confusion remains in searching the factors and aspects which affect the employees to quit or remain with their organisations. A number of factors (recruitment and selection, physical working conditions, training and development, rewarding, appraisal, supervision and job skill) were found contributing positively and negatively in the intention to leave among employees (Abeysekera, 2007). Many scholars and researchers (Batt & Valcour, 2003; Park, Ofori-Dankwa & Bishop, 1994; Trevor, Barry & Boudreau, 1997) found that the rewards and benefits system within the organisation had a direct impact on employees’ turnover. The employees feel more attached and
want to stay with the organisation if they had a high salary growth. Whereas, Abassi and Hollman (2000) found that the lack of competitive rewards and benefits system significantly results in increasing the employees’ intention to quit or leave the work. Miller and Wheeler (1992) found that few opportunities for promotion within the work significantly influenced the employees’ intention to quit their jobs. Besides promotion opportunities, Quarles (1994) found that the unsuccessful evaluation criteria used in the rewards and promotion systems contributed to individual’s awareness of inequality considering leaving the organisation. Moreover, ineffective training and development system and performance appraisal practice had a significant impact on employees’ intention to leave (Dailey and Kirk, 1992).

In most studies, rewards and benefits are effective practice in recruiting professionals and retaining talent employees (Tan, 2008; Hughes, 2006). Rewards and benefits system is considerably related to intention to leave as employees who are unsatisfied with their rewards will leave their organisations leaving a high cost for the organisation to recruit new blood.

The availability of training and development programmes demonstrates the endeavour of the organisation to develop and keep the employees up-to-date. Huselid (1995) stated that various HRM practices such as; recruitment and selection and training and development could develop the employees’ skills and knowledge, and enhance the retention of talented individuals. Successful training and development programs will increase the employees’ work performance by continuously developing and learning resulting in enhancing the employees to be more committed, satisfied and increase their intention to stay working in the organisation (Tan, 2008). Therefore, the development of the positive and significant relationship between HRM practices and intention to quit through the literature, suggests the testing of the following hypothesis:
“H₄: There is a positive and significant relationship between HRM practices and intention to quit among frontline employees in the Jordanian organisations”.

2.10.5 The Relationship between Job Satisfaction (JS) and Organisational Commitment (OC)

The two constructs job satisfaction and organisational commitment represent the most prominent employees attitudes which undergone through an extensive research in the field of HRM, organisational behaviour and performance (Tuzun, 2009; Vijayakumar and Annamalai, 2008). Previous researches (Farrel and Rusbult, 2007; Griffeth, Horn and Gaertner, 2000) indicated that there is a high significant relationship between the two concepts. However, the two employees’ attitudes are viewed as separate constructs (Falkenburg and Schyns, 2007). Employees' job satisfaction expresses an emotional feeling that reveals a sentimental reaction toward the work, while the employees’ commitment represents a more comprehensive reaction (emotional and non-emotional) to the whole organisation (Pincus, 2006). Accordingly, employees’ commitment is develop and enhance over a long period of time, more constant than job satisfaction and less influenced by daily work (Toker, 2011).

Numerous researches (Padala, 2011; Tuzun, 2009; Slattery and Selvarajan, 2005) have examined and investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Nevertheless, this causal relationship between these two terms still considered as an issue that has not been resolved. Various predominant examinations claimed that job satisfaction is representing an antecedent to the employees’ commitment (Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1990; Mueller, Boyer, Price, & Iverson, 1994). On the other hand, some researchers found a two-way causal relationship between
organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Slattery and Selvarajan, 2005; Vandenberg and Scarpello, 1994). A third view says that the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment represent a reciprocal relationship (Elangovan, 2001; Tett and Meyer, 1993). Therefore, job satisfaction and organisational commitment shared an extremely complex relationship which might even differ over time. A recent meta-analysis on employees’ intention to leave researches pointed out that organisational commitment represents an antecedent to employees’ intention to quit better than job satisfaction (Griffeth et al., 2000; Tett and Meyer, 1993).

Examining the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment has been given a considerable attention. Kacmar, Carlson and Brymer (1999) found a positive and high significant relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Jernigan, Beggs and Kohut (2002) conducted a study to investigate the influence of job satisfaction on organisational commitment. They found that job satisfaction had a positive and significant influence on organisational commitment. Increasingly, Padala (2011) conducted a study to examine the employees’ job satisfaction and organisational commitment among 200 employees working in chemicals companies in India, and his study revealed that job satisfaction has a positive and significant relationship with employees’ commitment. Wang Chen Hyde and Hsieh (2010) conducted a study in China to ascertain the effects of work values on pay satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to leave among 260 employees working in multinational corporations in the semiconductor industry in Shanghai, in the People’s Republic of China. Chen et al., (2010) found that job satisfaction led to a great organisational commitment level and to a lower intention to leave level. In Saudi Arabia, Al-Ahmadi (2009) conducted a study among 923 nurses to examine the performance, satisfaction and commitment level among hospital nurses in Riyadh.
Region. Al-Ahmadi (2009) found a high level of performance and a positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. As a result, the development of the positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment through the literature, suggests the testing of the following hypothesis:

“H5: There is a positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment”.

2.10.6 The Relationship between Job Satisfaction (JS) and Work Value (WV)

Researches with the objective of quantifying the impact of job satisfaction on work values among employees in the West began as early as 1969, when Blood Milton published an article following his research on employees of a manufacturing company in London (Judge, 2001). Numerous studies have supported the idea that there is an inextricable link between levels of job satisfaction and employee work values, whereby most findings boil down to outlining positive impacts of job satisfaction on instilling appropriate work values in employees (Hui and Trandis, 2000). According to Twenge (2010), job satisfaction plays a vital role in instilling strong work ethics among employees. Using a theoretical model of measurement, Twenge (2010) asserts that happy employees had a better understanding of the significance of working extra hard at their workplaces in a bid to meet company objectives than their counterparts who expressed dissatisfaction with their jobs. A study of employees in American firms revealed that those who were comfortable and happy with their jobs subconsciously or intentionally devised time-saving mechanisms in conducting their duties (Hulin, 2006). Meyer’s (2000) human resource management study among middle-sized European firms depicted a direct relationship between job satisfaction and employee
dependability. Meyer’s research findings stated that job satisfaction reduced levels of absenteeism, lateness and other forms of withdrawal behavior. Hui and Trandis’s (2000) findings of a study that included US companies supported these sentiments by outlining that happy employees were extremely dependable and responsible at their workplaces. Hui and Trandis observed that satisfied employees continually briefed their supervisors on the progress of projects they were working on. In a similar vein, Harter and Schmidt’s (2002) study of employees’ behavior in 13 manufacturing companies, in Italy, noted that satisfied employees kept a clear distance between their personal issues and their job. Harter and Schmidt (2002) asserted that employees were responsible for their actions, admitting mistakes they had committed without citing family-related issues as excuses.

Hulin (2006) pointed out that job satisfaction increased employee adaptability and flexibility to changes in their work values and environment. Waktour’s (2008) study, which encompassed thirty six telecommunications companies in Europe, Australia and America, supported Hulin’s findings. It outlined that enormous number of satisfied employees showed immense interest in understanding other employees’ and organisational values (Waktour, 2008). In a similar vein, Reichler’s (2005) findings of a research involving employees of a cement manufacturing company revealed that satisfied employees had a positive attitude towards embracing new values, ideas and strategies relating to their work. Earlier investigations regarding employees’ work values in the Middle East portrayed cultural beliefs as the only justifiable tenets underpinning work values (Betz, 1999). However, recent studies have established credible, justifiable relationships between job satisfaction and employees’ work values (Rynes, 2003). Muchinsky (2003) identified a direct relationship between job satisfaction and ethical behavior after carrying out a research on departmental stores and
hypermarkets in Kuwait. A study of a myriad of companies in Saudi Arabia revealed a direct relationship between honesty and integrity, and job satisfaction (Saari, 2004). According to Saari (2004), Job satisfaction was essential in building trust between employees and their employer: Happy employees demonstrated commitment in their duties, thereby gaining trust from their seniors.

Recent studies involving employees from companies in Egypt and Saudi Arabia have identified an inextricable link between job satisfaction and employee motivation (Munnever, 2006). Reynack (2010) asserts this relationship by categorically stating that job satisfaction, especially emanating from favourable salaries, is the greatest motivation for employees in Egyptian companies. Padgett’s (2004) study of employees in the banking industry in the United Arab Emirates revealed that job satisfaction had a direct, positive impact on employees’ values and loyalty to their employer. Morrow (2004) supports these findings by stating that happy employers found their job to be intriguing, and expressed no intentions of seeking jobs in other firms. Buchanan (2009) further strengthen this fact through the findings of a research he conducted in fifty five companies in Egypt, which state that satisfied employees had about four to seven jobs in their lifetime compared to eight to twelve jobs that unsatisfied employees had in a similar period. Studies in the Middle East have established that job satisfaction enhances employees’ work values, self-motivation and self confidence (Bunnel, 2001). Robinson (2001) holds that employees who express satisfaction with their jobs are self driven, and they require minimal supervision or direction in performing their designated duties. According to Yavas (2001), satisfied employees in Kuwait exhibit self-confidence, thereby performing their duties effectively and inspiring their colleagues to work hard. Therefore, to examine and investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and employees’ work values the following hypothesis was proposed:
“H₆: There is a significant and positive relationship between job satisfaction and employees’ work values”.

2.10.7 The Relationship between Job Satisfaction (JS) and Intention to Quit (IQ)

Research carried out by various researchers tries to determine the reason people make a decision to leave their jobs. Their research mainly focuses on the reasons for the employees’ intentions to quit. Despite the actual quitting behavior being the main area of research, the intention to quit is argued to be a strong indicator of such behavior (Batt, 2002). The lack of job satisfaction is among the factors that make people quit their jobs (Clark, Georgellis, & Sanfey, 1998). Job satisfaction can be defined as an attitude that individuals have on their jobs. In Western countries such as the US, employers aim to make their employees happy through the creation of various schemes that are a form of enticement to the employer and are supposed to assist the employee in developing some commitment to the organization. Thus, motivated employees develop an intrinsic attitude towards the organization. Further, in the West, there are various labor laws formulated that ensure that the employees are protected from scrupulous employers and are given the necessary medical benefits through the formulation of various medical reforms. As noted, satisfaction with the job is directly related to organizational commitment and the success of the organization in general (Brown & Peterson, 1993). Additionally, most Western employers understand that satisfaction is directly related to an employee’s turnover intentions. Turnover intentions are regarded as the best indicators of future turnover (Miller, 1999). In the West, satisfaction is measured along the following multidimensional facets: satisfaction with supervisor, satisfaction with variety, satisfaction with closure, satisfaction with compensation, satisfaction with co-workers,
and satisfaction with management and the governing HR policies (Veiga, 2002). Satisfaction with the supervisor is based on the employees’ perception on how much they are satisfied with the information or guidelines provided to them by their supervisors to carry out their job (Warr, 2002). However it is noted that allowing employees to choose their own fields of work with little supervision worked more efficiently in comparison to those who dictated.

O’Brien and Dowling (2000) noted that in the Middle East, religion plays a significant role in employee behavior and work. Employees are required both by religion and the work ethics to be submissive to their seniors as a form of blessing to them (Zurn, Dal Poz, Stillwell, & Adams, 2004). Therefore, despite the harsh working conditions, few will hold public protests with regard to the latter. For instance, in Indonesia, few teachers are regarded as playing a significant role in the society (Zaini, Nilufar, & Syed, 2009). Teaching is just another job and teachers are publicly ridiculed as “people waiting for four events:” waiting for the end of the school day, for the school holidays, for their salaries, and for death (Waters & Roach, 2003, p. 67). Such perceptions are mainly arrived at after the public view of the government’s treatment on teachers. Despite strikes and talks conducted, few secondary school teachers have never had increased pay rise in Indonesia (Stavrou-Costea, 2005).

Indeed, those who remained in the profession are ridiculed and regarded as having very low morale and are more interested in weekend horse racing than in their weekday classes, or in playing ma-jong than in preparing lessons (Meng, 2000). Such perception influence performance negatively and employee turnover is very poor. Additionally, satisfaction in one of the aforementioned six facets might lead to satisfaction with the others. For instance, satisfaction with the supervisor who is regarded as being closer to
the management is bound to lead to satisfaction with the governing human resource policies (Kransz, Koslowsky, Shalom, & Elyakim, 1995). Satisfaction with one facet might lead to satisfaction with another. Research indicates that female employees are less satisfied with almost all facets of employment, and the situation is even worse for those female employees who have lower educational qualifications (Hamermesh, 2000). In comparison to Western female employees, Middle East female employees complain less and are more likely to air their grievances to their male partners either in the workplace or in their homes (Freeman, 2000). However, any grievances in the Western countries are directed to the labor organizations and other activist groups that fight for the workers’ rights (Koustelor, 2001). Further, self-reported job performance amongst employees who work under contracts increased with tenure. Rather, the renewal of a contract was a form of motivation for the employee and increased performance. The situation was better if the employee was highly remunerated (Norman & Gauci, 1997).

In relation to age, young workers feel more satisfied in comparison to the older workers because the young have little experience about the labor markets which they can use as some form of judgment against their own work (Kalleberg & Loscocco, 1999). However, with increasing age, most of them learn about the labor market and they are at a better situation to judge their work. Thus, with increasing experience, job satisfaction drops (Batt, 2000). Amongst the very old, reduced aspirations make them realize that they have very few choices as they get older, as the labor market is also changing and their skills might not match the required technological requirements (Warr, 2000). Thus, they have less ambitions and higher levels of satisfaction. Droussiotis (2007) notes that self-selection effect plays a very great role in dissatisfaction amongst the older workers as most young people find it easier to leave the labor market since it is easier to find a
more satisfying job. However, the old workers have limited opportunities because some of their skills are obsolete in the market. Accordingly, the development of the positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit through the literature, suggests the testing of the following hypothesis:

“H7: There is a positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit among frontline employees in Jordanian organisations”.

2.10.8 The Relationship between Organisational Commitment (OC) and Work Value (WV)

Over decades ago, employees work values and organizational commitment represent a two constructs that have been undergone through an extensively and deep expandable research in the field of HRM and organisational psychology. Many researchers (Arciniega & Gonzalez, 2002; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997) have considered organizational commitment as a main predictor of low absenteeism and intension to leave. Work values represent a limited research topic in isolation of other constructs and have long been considered as significant predictors of employee’s behavior and attitudes such as; job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment (Varma, Pichler, Budhwar and Biswas, 2009; Williams & Sandler, 1995; Hofstede, 1991). A flow of researches has since connected employee’s work values to an understanding and prediction of the behaviour and attitudes of individuals towards their organisations (Sparrow, Chadrangumara and Perera, 2010; Gahan and Abesekera, 2009; Gerhart, 2008; Kirkman, Lowe and Gibson, 2006; Sparrow and Wu, 1998).

As noted earlier, many researchers have examined or investigated the correlation and relationship between the development of employee’s organisational commitment and work values. Thus, three significant lines of research can be identified in regard of the
relationship between work values and organisational commitment. The first is examining the direct relationship between employee’s work values and organisational commitment (e.g. Gerhart, 2008; Elizur, 1996; Knoop, 1994a). Second, is examining employee’s work values as mediators between organisational or demographic variables and employees’ commitment (e.g. Meyer, Irving & Allen, 1998). Finally, the third approach of research is concentrated on the fit between individual and peers, or manager’s work values and the influence of this fit on employees’ commitment (e.g. Sparrow et al., 2010; Arciniega and Gonzalez, 2002; Meglino, Ravlin & Adkins, 1989). Williams and Sandler (1995) conducted a study among managers less than five years of tenure in the USA and Singapore to examine the relationship between work values and organisational commitment. The findings of their study showed a significant and positive relationship between organisational commitment and work values.

Tayyab and Tariq (2001) conducted a study among 210 middle level executives in Pakistan and found a positive relationship between work values and organisational commitment. Furthermore, many scholars (Huang, 1986; Putti, Aryee and Liang, 1989) found that work values in specific and values in general have a positive relationship and correlation with organisational commitment. Several studies and researches (Lee & Chung, 2001; Liang, 1999; Huang, 1999; Chen & Lu, 1997) have been conducted to examine the relationship between organisational commitment and work values. Therefore, the development of the positive and significant relationship between organisational commitment and work values through the literature, suggests the testing of the following hypothesis:

“H₈: There is a positive and significant relationship between organisational commitment and work values among frontline employees”.

103
2.10.9 The Relationship between Organisational Commitment (OC) and Intention to Quit (IQ)

Basically, scholars single out three major types of organisational commitment that influence job perception and satisfaction and determine employees’ desire to quit/leave their jobs, i.e. affective, continuance, and normative commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). In the most general terms, it is argued that organisational commitment, alongside organisational politics, is one of the most powerful factors that impact employee behavior and intentions, thus allowing the idea to be widely advocated that “a happy employee is a better employee” (Gbadamosi et al., 2011, p. 305). Moreover, positive attitudes and support from supervisors is another arguably crucial element in shaping the picture of an employee organisational commitment and decreasing the possibility of leaving the organisation (Pepe, 2010). At the same time, there are studies that do not acknowledge the crucial role of organisational commitment in determining the intention to quit/leaves in employees (Lambert, 2006).

According to this point of view, job satisfaction and organisational commitment is what determines how the employees view turnover and how they develop their quitting plans (Lambert, 2006, p. 58). Moynihan (2000) also claims that both constructs (job satisfaction and organisational commitment) play a more significant role in the appearance or disappearance of an employee’s intention to leave the job. Further on, Addae et al., (2008) argue that the three different types of commitment correlate with quitting intentions differently, with affective and normative commitment types having the best effects of employee turnover decrease. Similarly, there is an idea that employees’ perception of the successfulness of the team work is what cherishes their organisational commitment; consequently, this decreases employees’ desire to leave, which in its turn allows organisations to avoid constant employee training and brings
companies to newer levels of performance due to their stable and permanently improving staff conditions (Greenberg et al., 2008). However, the bulk of the research observed in the Western scholarly literature on organisational commitment and employee’s intention to leave agrees on the point that organisational commitment is crucial for employee turnover dynamics (Chandna, 2009; Ugboro, 2006). This fact allows concluding that “when organisational commitment is high, turnover intention will be low and if organisational commitment is low, turnover intention will be high” (Kumar, 2011, p. 850).

Needless to say, the ideas of organisational commitment and its effects on employees’ intention to leave the job has been studied not only by Western scholars but by Middle Eastern researches as well (Hassan, 2002; Ahmad et al, 2010). An interesting implication of the Middle Eastern research in the area is that job satisfaction is viewed as an element contributing to the development of organisational commitment, and not as a separate factor that affects employee turnover alongside organisational commitment (Ahmad, 2010). Following the similar framework, scholars also developed an idea that organisational commitment, as cherished though job satisfaction, can be improved by attention paid by the organisation to individual needs of every single employee, for example in the area of family-facilitation used by certain companies to encourage single mothers to keep their jobs (Ahmad et al., 2010). This allows organisation to create favorable conditions for their employees, thus making them unwilling to leave and look for another job (Hassan, 2002). To some extent, organisational justice can also be called an element of organisational commitment: it promotes job satisfaction and, according to numerous publications, negatively correlates with employees’ intentions to leave the job, i.e. high levels of organisational commitment determine low levels of employees’ intention to leave (Alam & Muhammad, 2009, Ahmad et al. 2010). All these facts allow
concluding that the major ideas advocated by Middle Eastern scholars are concentrated upon the concept of high organisational commitment meaning low quitting intention rate, while job satisfaction and organisational justice are the means to shape the high organisational commitment levels among employees (Lew, 2010). Formally, to examine and investigate the relationship between organisational commitment and intention to quit among frontline employees, the following hypothesis was developed:

“\( H_9: \) There is a significant and positive relationship between organisational commitment and employees’ intention to quit”.

2.10.10 The Relationship between Work Value (WV) and Intention to Quit (IQ)

For a number of decades, various organizations have had threats of losing employees who desire to quit for a range of reasons. Each nation has its own reasons for these trends since working conditions and work values differ from one country to another. Work values are directly related to job satisfaction which consequently impacts the employees’ intention to quit both positively and negatively. In the Middle East, a greater percentage of disengaged employees is observed and there is a close relationship between work life equilibrium contentment and the intention to abscond the work organization. However, work life balance has always been an alarm to the people paying attention to value (Quest, 2002). It is also a key feature in existing governments but, it raises debates even in academics (Eikhof, Warhost & Haunschild, 2007). According to Middle East literature review, it is very difficult to strike a balance between work requirements and family life roles thus creating the intention to quit among employees, Broers (2005). There is need to take care of both work place needs and personal life needs to eliminate the negative impact on the organization and the employees, (Mohd, Noor, Stanton and Young, 2009). Moreover, extreme demands on
the staff strain the employee’s ability to comprehensively attend to their roles thus may create work conflicts, (Briggs, 2005).

Dundas (2008) argues that work value entails effectual management skills to bridge the gap between paid workers and those activities that are attached to one’s life such as families, community activities, voluntary services and personal development in addition to recreation activities and leisure. According to Virick, Lily & Casper (2007), all domains of life are imperative; both work and non-work. The Middle East literature on the question of work gives rise to a number of assumptions and they mainly aim at the capacity to improve an organization’s work value (Moore, 2007). This consequently leads to greater productivity and loyalty to the company thus low level of intent to leave the organization. Noor & Maad (2008), the intention to leave a job is related positively to authentic leaving. Besides, labor turnover is influenced by attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Deery & Jago, 2009).

Deery (2008) further explains that strategies to assist in balancing work and other domains include; provision of flexible working hours, job sharing, working at home, training opportunities, adequate staff, enough resources for workers, breaks and leaves, sound management practices, health and well-being opportunities. On the other hand, Western literature reviews on the theme of employment illustrates that work values and intentions to refrain from work are inversely linked to withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism, sluggishness and turnover, Yousef (2006). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment influence the level of productivity and the effectiveness of the organization (Buitendach & de-Witte, 2005). These factors influence the employees’ decisions to quit and their performance at higher levels in the organization. According to Evans (1998), factors such as low salaries and poor working conditions lead to
dissatisfaction and it accounts for high quitting rates. Van Wyk (2000) asserts that universally, people are not satisfied with the value of their work in many professions.

Interaction with fellow employees and employers greatly influence worker’s intentions to quit (Marks, 1994). Moreover, a friendly environment enhances easy working while in unfavourable environment make it almost impossible to complete tasks (Vorster, 1992). Work value is determined by age as argued by Rhodes (1983). Younger people tend to quit often than aged employees with more work experiences. The organizational consequences of work life balance satisfaction have become an important issue for organization in general and are intensified in higher education sector. From work literatures around the world indicate that job satisfaction has a strong effect on the intention to leave an organization (Buitendach & de-Witte, 2005). Consequently, to examine and investigate the relationship between work values and intention to quit among frontline employees, the following hypothesis was proposed:

“\( H_{10} \): There is a significant and positive relationship between work values and employees' intention to quit”.

Figure 2.3 shows the derivation of the study’s hypothetical model from the different bodies of literature:
Figure 2.3 The Hypothetical Research Model

2.11 Conclusion
This chapter reviewed the literature of human resource management practices (recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal and rewards and benefits), job satisfaction, organisational commitment, work values and intention to quit. Moreover, this chapter discussed the four practices of human resource management from an Islamic perspective and overview. The chapter also presented the relationship between the four practices of human resource management and employees’ attitude, employees’ work values and their intention to quit. The hypotheses were stated and an explanation was presented. Based on that, a hypothetical model was proposed representing the directions and relationships between the dependent and independent variables. The following chapter addresses the methodology of the study.
Chapter Three
Research Methodology and Design

3.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter describes the research methodology employed in this research. This chapter describes the research instruments and measurements derived from the literature. In addition, it describes the population of the current research, details the data collection method, reports on the method of analysis used in this study. Furthermore, this research followed and employed quantitative research methods. This chapter outlines structural equation modelling used in this research, discusses its limitation, and finally proposes a strategy for analysing the measurement models.

3.2 Quantitative Research Approach

Concerning the research design and approaches which are related to the research philosophy, Creswell (2003) stated and mentioned that there are three different research approaches that the research methodology can be derived from: quantitative, qualitative and mixed method approaches.

In the current research, the quantitative research approach was employed and followed to explain the relationships between the variables and testing specific hypotheses. In describing the way researchers employ and use quantitative approach, Creswell (1994: p. 7) states: ‘By using a deductive form of logic wherein theories and hypotheses are tested in a cause-and-effect order. Concepts, variables, and hypotheses are chosen before the study begins and remain fixed throughout the study. One does not venture beyond these predetermined hypotheses. The intent of the study is to develop generalisations that contribute to the theory and that enable one to better predict,
explain, and understand some phenomenon. These generalisations are enhanced if the information and instruments used are valid and reliable’. Furthermore, Rudestam and Newton (2001) described and explained the quantitative research approach as a design which tries to organise and control the field of the study as much as possible and limit the focus into a narrow band of behaviour. Quantitative data are assessed by using descriptive and inferential statistics. In addition, the quantitative research is suitable to record a small set of previously identified variables.

A survey strategy is the most typical quantitative strategy conducted by questionnaires. There are many advantages for the quantitative research design. Easterby-Smith (1991) indicated that the quantitative research methods can provide a wide coverage of the range of situations, they can be fast and economical, where statistics are aggregated from large samples and they may be of considerable relevance to policy decisions.

3.3 Population of the Study

The main fieldwork of the current study was conducted in Jordan from June 2010 to October 2010. Starting the current section by classifying the reasons behind deciding to choose Jordan as a place to conduct this research would be useful and provide a clear idea about the research place. Significantly, Jordan represents the home country of the researcher, which helps in collecting the required information and data for the research without any difficulties. In addition, the researcher understands very well all the ethical issues concerned in conducting a research in Jordan. A further essential reason behind choosing Jordan as a field for the current research is that there is a shortage of empirical studies concerning human resource management practices and employees’ attitudes in Middle East countries, including Jordan. This point emphasises that Jordan, as a developing country, needs empirical studies in the field of human resource management.
which might improve the employees’ performance and attitudes resulting in gaining more competitive advantages.

The population of the present study is defined as all the active and working organisations in Amman the capital of Jordan and listed and licensed as active organisations at the Amman Stock Exchange (ASE). According to ASE databases there are 276 active organisations in the various fields of insurance, finance, services, accounting, agriculture and industrial. Therefore, the current research included all the 276 organisations listed in the ASE (2010) databases. However, in choosing the research participants, purposive or judgmental sampling techniques were applied in determining and choosing the appropriate participants who will contribute significantly in answering the research questions and to meet the research objectives. Therefore, the sample respondents were Jordanian citizens working as frontline employees in the 276 Jordanian organisations. Frontline employees were chosen to be the respondents of this study because they are the more people who have the required information about human resource management, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, work values, and intention to quit, and also for their critical roles in improving the performance of their organisations. The chosen organisations reflect the whole population rather than a sample of the population in order to reflect the whole picture of the human resource management practices employed and used in the Jordanian organisations.

3.4 Research Instrument

Questionnaires are employed broadly in empirical and social science research to obtain the necessary information from a comparatively huge number of participants. Sekaran (2003: p. 236) defined the questionnaire as "a reformulated written set of questions to which respondents record their answers, usually within rather closely defined
alternatives”. According to Saunders at el (2003), there are numerous categories of questionnaire design which depend on how the questionnaire administered and the amount of contact with respondents. For example, one type of the questionnaire’s design is the self administered questionnaire. Self administered questionnaires are frequently answered and completed by the participants, and these questionnaires could be delivered and returned via email or internet (on-line questionnaires), or posted to respondents who return them by post after completion (posted or mail questionnaire), or they could be delivered by hand to each respondent and collected later (a personally administered questionnaire). The advantages of using the questionnaire are the ability to reach a relatively large respondent population representing an inexpensive method for both researchers and participants. Considering the advantages of the questionnaire, this study used the questionnaire to explore the current practices of human resource management and their impact on employees’ attitudes in the surveyed organisations.

3.4.1 The content of the research instrument

Consequently, a questionnaire with structured questions using Likert scale was developed and used in this research for data collection and in order to elicit responses about a series of items. The selection of these items and measures was informed by the theoretical research model which was developed in Chapter two (Model 1, Figure 2.1). The questionnaire sought responses to a series of questions about relationships between different variables, as specified in the thesis topic. The questionnaire consists of ten sections (see Appendix A). The first section collected data about the respondents’ gender, age, educational background, and years of experience. This section was titled ‘demographic data’. The second section collected data relating to the organisation and was titled ‘organisational characteristics’. The third section collected data relating to the
recruitment and selection construct and was titled ‘recruitment and selection’. The fourth section collected data relating to the training and development construct and was titled ‘training and development’. The fifth section was designed to collect data relating to performance appraisal construct and was titled ‘performance appraisal’. The sixth section collected data relating to the rewards and benefits construct and was titled ‘rewards and benefits’. The seventh section collected data relating to the job satisfaction construct and was titled ‘job satisfaction’. The eighth section collected data relating to organisational commitment construct and was titled ‘organisational commitment’. The ninth section was designed to collect data relating to work value construct and was titled ‘work value’. The tenth section collected data relating to intention to quit construct and was titled ‘intention to quit’.

3.5 Data Collection Method

The type of the questionnaire used in this research is a self-completion personally administered questionnaire, which is also called a delivery and collection questionnaire (drop in and pick up), delivered and collected by the researcher himself. This type of questionnaire has many advantages. According to Sekaran (2003) all the completed questionnaires can be collected within a short period of time and it can establish a good understanding, relationship and motivate the participants. Also, there is an opportunity to introduce the research topic and motivate the participants to give their answers honestly; any doubt or misunderstanding about the questionnaire will be clarified; and mostly it gains a large response rate. In this context, Oppenheim (1992: p. 103) stated that "the self-administered questionnaire is presented to the respondents by an interviewer or by someone in an official position. The purpose of the inquiry is explained, and the respondent is left alone to complete the questionnaire, which will be
picked zip later. This method of data collection ensures a high response rate, accurate sampling and a minimum of interviewer bias, and giving the benefit of a degree of personal contact”. Therefore, considering the above-mentioned advantages of personally administered questionnaire, the researcher delivered the questionnaires to the appropriate individuals in the public relation office or sometimes to the human resource department who responsible for delivering the questionnaire to the frontline employees. Later, the researcher collected the completed questionnaires from the same contact individual.

3.6 Pilot Study

Saunders et al. (2003: p. 308) stated that "the purpose of the pilot test is to refine the questionnaire so that respondents will have no problems in answering the questions and there will be no problems in recording the data. In addition, it will enable you to obtain some assessment of the questions' validity and the likely reliability of the data that will be collected". Prior to the actual data collection, a piloting test was conducted in many stages by many people in different places.

The initial phase of the pilot study testing was conducted by the research's supervisor who was totally concerned about the content of the questionnaire; to cover all of the research questions and objectives; to assure that the length of the questionnaire was practical and sensible; to ensure the clarity of instruction and the layout to be as clear and attractive as possible. His comments were very important in constructing and designing the questionnaire.

The second phase of piloting the study was conducted by distributing the questionnaire to some of the academic staff that specialised in human resource management at Charles Sturt University in Australia, University of Jordan and Al-Yarmouk University in
Jordan, who gave their comments on the content, clarity and the layout of the questionnaire. As result of this pilot stage some amendments were made and a few questions were added or redesigned.

Although Arabic is the official language of Jordan, English is the most commonly used lingua franca in educational institutions and companies. Therefore the language used in the questionnaire was English and a condition for participation in the survey was that each employee was able to communicate in English. Therefore, the final phase of the pilot study testing was conducted to ensure that the questionnaire uses a simple and clear language. The questionnaires were distributed and delivered to a sample of 55 frontline employees to obtain their perceptions and comments on the questionnaire’s design, form, clarity and the wording. The overall comments were that the questionnaire was well-organised and comprehensive one. After all these piloting stages the researcher was convinced that the questionnaire was suitable and ready to be distributed formally to the research sample.

3.7 The Cover Letter

According to Saunders et al. (2003), most self-administered questionnaires are accompanied by a covering letter to explain the purpose of the survey. The covering letter helps to increase the response rate. The covering letter in this research was written on a single page and used Charles Sturt University letterhead.

The structure of the covering letter contains the following information; the research title, the research objectives and the research’s significance for the participating sample; promises of confidentiality; placing an emphasis that their co-operation is the most precious factor contributing to the success of this research; the researcher’s contact
details (phone and email address), and finally thanking the participants for their concern, cooperation and help.

Significantly, it was recommended that the covering letter should cover the above information to increase the response rate. Accordingly, all suggestions regarding the covering letter were taken into consideration. Also, it is significant to mention that a letter from the research's supervisor motivating and urging the respondents to co-operate with the researcher was very helpful to get a high response rate.

3.8 Sample

In total, 828 questionnaires were handed and delivered by the researcher to the appropriate contact at each organisation. Of the 828 questionnaires delivered, 501 questionnaires were collected back of which 493 questionnaires were fully completed and useable for data analysis, yielding an overall response rate of 60 per cent. Due to the personalised nature of the data collection, very little missing data existed in the collection process. The reason for the low rate of missing items in the data is that the questionnaire was checked for any uncompleted parts or any unanswered items while been collected from each organisation. If any missing data were uncovered the employees was asked through his organisation for a second look and if he is happy to facilitate a response or clarify any potential ambiguities.
3.9 Analytical Procedure

The data were analysed using five major stages as demonstrated in Figure 3.1.

Data Entry “SPSS 17.0”

Test for Internal Consistency of the Scales Using Cronbach’s Alpha

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Test Full Model Using SEM “LISREL 8.8”

Figure 3.1 Major Steps Involved in the Analysis of Data
3.9.1 Data Entry

Initially, a total of 493 usable responses were entered in SPSS 17.0. Strict controls were applied to ensure the integrity of the data. These were thoroughly checked for entry accuracy, and were also subject to sample checking and quality control to ensure accuracy in the data entry process. An examination of the value of each data cell independently was conducted by two research assistants through proof reading against a computer printout (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2001). Corrections were made and the process was repeated. Examination of the univariate descriptive statistics was also made to ensure the proper coding of the data. This method of having two different people involved in data entry is recommended by Kline (1998).

3.9.2 Reverse Coding

The questionnaire contained eighteen reverse coded items and these were all reversed as part of the data screening procedure to ensure that all variables constitute the subset were in the appropriate direction.

3.9.3 Demographic Variables

Demographic variables were collected in the questionnaire as follows and the items were treated in the current study as demographic variables:

- Gender,
- Age,
- Educational background,
- Years of experience.
3.9.4 Organisational Variables

This section was titled ‘organisational characteristics’. This section collected data relating to the organisation as follow:

- Position
- Number of employees working in the organisation.
- Sector
- Type of organisation

3.10 Measures

This section presents the measures and scales used in the current research. It describes the operationalisation of constructs and presents the reliability of these measures in past studies. The measures used in the current research were proven reliable and valid in many past studies, and were developed for different context to better suit both developed and developing countries. For example, the measures of job satisfaction and organisational commitment were developed and used in developed country such as USA, Canada, and Australia and in developing countries like Turkey, UAE, and Egypt. The current research relied on the existing developed scales to measure the constructs of interest. Information pertaining to the descriptive statistics, construct correlation and the measurement properties of each scale will be presented in the following chapter. Moreover, full details are provided in Appendix A.

3.10.1 Human Resource Management Scale

This study employed three separate scales to measure the four HRM practices: (i) recruitment and selection, (ii) training and development, (iii) performance appraisal and (iv) rewards and benefits in Jordanian organisations. First, the Edgar and Geare (2005)
scale was considered to be appropriate to measure recruitment and selection and training and development practices. In their study, Edgar and Geare (2005) examined the relationship between HRM practices and employee attitudes within organisations in New Zealand. Using a twenty-item five-point Likert scale, four areas of HRM practice were examined: good and safe working conditions, equal employment opportunities, recruitment and selection and training and development. Generally, the results showed that there were relatively high levels of practice in the areas of recruitment and selection and training and development within the New Zealand organisations. The results also showed that higher index scores in a number of HRM practices were not related to higher levels of employee attitudes (organisational commitment, job satisfaction and organisational fairness). In this study, only ten items of the Edgar and Geare (2005) scale (five items to measure recruitment and selection and five items to measure training and development) were taken into consideration, because they are appropriate to be employed in the Middle East, specifically in Jordan. The other ten items, which measure good and safe working conditions and equal employment opportunities, were not included in the study due to the fact that these items represent EEO and SWC which are not governed by any laws/regulations as they are in western context/countries. The scale was judged to be reliable and Cronbach Alpha was (α = 0.90)

Second, for performance appraisal a scale developed by Whiting, Kline and Sulsky (2008) was used in this study. Whiting, Kline and Sulsky (2008) employed their scale in the Canadian context to assess the congruency between employees’ current and ideal performance appraisal systems (α = 0. 85). The aim of their study was to analyse the relationship between the performance appraisal congruency (satisfaction, usefulness and fairness of performance appraisal) and organisational attitudes. The study indicated that there was a significant incremental variance added for each of the three criterion
variables (satisfaction, usefulness and fairness of performance appraisal) by the congruency scores, and the relationship was positive between the three variables. This study employed the scale developed by Whiting Kline and Sulsky (2008), consisting of three items to measure the performance appraisal practice in the Jordanian organisational context. The scale was considered to be appropriate and applicable for use in the Middle Eastern context.

Third, rewards and benefits practice was measured by a five-item scale developed by Chew (2004). Chew (2004) used this scale to measure the rewards and benefits practice in Australian organisations. According to Chew (2004), the scale was judged to be reliable and Cronbach Alpha was (α = 0.70). The results also show high significant positive correlations with organisational commitment and intention to stay. Moreover, the results indicate no multi-collinearity and singularity problems. This scale was applicable for use in this study and was appropriate to be used within the Jordanian context. Chew (2004) used this scale to determine the relationship between reward and benefit and organisational commitment. The current study employed three different scales to measure the four HRM practices as these three scales been used and employed in variant studies and achieved a high and acceptable reliability level (Edgar & Geare, 2005; Whiting Kline & Sulsky, 2008; Chew, 2004).

3.10.2 Job Satisfaction Scale
This study measured job satisfaction by using the Spector (1997) Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) scale, which assesses nine facets of job satisfaction as well as the overall satisfaction. The scale consists of nine subscales using a summated rating scale format which appears to be the most popular scale for measuring job satisfaction. The format of the JSS makes it relatively easy to modify. Each of the nine subscales in JSS contains four items and the total job satisfaction score can be computed by combining all thirty
six items. Each item in the scale is a statement that measures whether an individual likes or dislikes an aspect of their job. For example, the first item concerns pay and pay raises; whilst the second, item concerns satisfaction with promotion opportunities. The JSS can yield ten scores. Each of the nine subscales can produce a separate facet score and the total of all the thirty six items gives a total score for the scale. Each of the nine JSS subscales is scored by combining the responses of all the four items in the scale.

As noted earlier; Spector’s (1997) JSS was used in this study. The JSS consists of thirty six items, nine subscales to evaluate the employees’ attitude towards their job. All nine subscales were assessed with four items for each. The survey use a Likert scale format with six choices per item, ranging from “1: Agree very much” to “6: Disagree very much”. About half of the thirty six items are written in a negative way and must be reverse scored (see Table 3.1). A score of 6 showing a very strong agreement with a negatively worded item is considered as equal as the score of 1 representing a very strong disagreement on a positively worded item, allowing all the items to be combined meaningfully.

The nine subscales (see Table 3.1) are respectively; Pay; a sample item “I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do”. Promotions; a sample item “Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted”, Supervision; a sample item “My supervisor is unfair to me”, Benefits; a sample item “There are benefits we do not have which we should have”, Contingent Rewards; a sample item “I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated”, Operating Procedures; a sample item “Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult”, Co-workers; a sample item “There is too much bickering and fighting at work”, Nature of Work; a sample item “I like doing the things I do at work”, and Communication; a sample item “The goals of this organization are not clear to me”.

124
Table 3.1 JSS Subscales and Descriptions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscales</th>
<th>Descriptions</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Pay</td>
<td>Pay and remuneration</td>
<td>1, 10R, 19R, 28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Promotions</td>
<td>Promotion opportunities</td>
<td>2R, 11, 20, 33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Supervision</td>
<td>Immediate supervisor</td>
<td>3, 12R, 21R, 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Benefits</td>
<td>Monetary and non-monetary fringe benefits</td>
<td>4R, 13, 22, 29R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Contingent Rewards</td>
<td>Appreciation, recognition and rewards for good work</td>
<td>5, 14R, 23R, 32R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Operating Procedures</td>
<td>Operating policies and procedures</td>
<td>6R, 15, 24R, 31R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Co-workers</td>
<td>People you work with</td>
<td>7, 16R, 25, 34R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Nature of Work</td>
<td>Job tasks themselves</td>
<td>8R, 17, 27, 35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Communication</td>
<td>Communication within the organization</td>
<td>9, 18R, 26R, 36R</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Adapted from Spector (1997). Note: R denotes reverse scored
3.10.3 Organisational Commitment Scale

The current study employed the revised three component scales of affective, continuance and normative commitment developed by Meyer et al., (1993), to measure the organisational commitment among the frontline employees. The organisational commitment scale consists of three subscales and eighteen items (six items for each subscale). The scale uses a seven point Likert scale format ranging from (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

The three subscales are:

1. Affective organisational commitment  
   *e.g. I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.*

2. Continuance organisational commitment  
   *e.g. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation.*

3. Normative organisational commitment  
   *e.g. would feel guilty if I left my organisation now.*

3.10.4 Work Value Scale

The current study employed Matic’s (2008) scale to measure the employees’ work values. The work value scale consists of three sub-scales. The participants were asked to think of their work values, and then to indicate whether that criteria was ‘1 = very important’, ‘2 = somewhat important’, or ‘3 = not important.’ The three sub-scales are:

1. Job accomplishment: *for example having interesting work to do, from which one can get a personal sense of accomplishment.*

2. Work nature: *for example having little stress on the job.*
Job advancement: for example having an opportunity for advancement to higher level jobs.

3.10.5 Intention to Quit Scale

Employee intention to quit was measured by a questionnaire developed by Roodt (2004b). The questionnaire consists of 14 items that were measured on a seven point Likert scale (e.g. ‘never’ 1, to ‘always’ 7). A Cronbach Alpha of 0.91 was obtained for the scale in Roodt (2004b) study indicating an acceptable reliability. The intention to quit literature lacks formally validated scales (Sager et al., 1998). The motivation to employ this questionnaire is that most instruments cited in the literature measuring intention to quit on a relatively small number of items. Various researchers have used only one item (Guimaraes, 1997). Only a few studies could be found where more than three items per instrument were used (Fox and Fallon, 2003). Examples of the scale’s items included in the survey were:

1. How often have you considered leaving your job?
2. How frequently do you scan newspapers for job opportunities?
3. What is the probability that you will leave your job, if you get another suitable offer?
4. How often do only vested personal interest (pension fund, unemployment fund, etc.) prevent you from quitting?

3.11 Data Analytic Plan

As recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), a multi-step approach has been adopted to test the fit between the theoretical model and the empirical findings and to test the extrapolative and interrelated nature of the four HR dimensions. First, the
measurement model was tested on the complete dataset using exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) employing SPSS 17.0. Second, structural equation modelling (SEM) was employed using LISREL 8.80 (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1996).

Structural equation modelling supports the concurrent estimation of coefficients of endogenous variables and underlying linkages between them and exogenous variables to be assessed (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996). SEM also divulges the nomological networking of latent variables in a model, and evaluates its robustness to the data provided (Mulaik & Millsap, 2000). The application of SEM demonstrates advantages of ‘measurement and prediction’ (Kelloway, 1998, p. 2) over standard multiple regression methods. Also SEM ‘captures a truer representation of the variation of variables’ as path analysis is subsumed in the model (Eriksson et al., 2000, p. 314)

Five factor constructs employed in the research were based on maximum likelihood estimate (MLE) to examine the general fit of the proposed model and to test the research questions. Fit indices included in the current investigation are the comparative fit index (CFI) (Bentler & Bonett 1980), the LISREL goodness-of-fit index (GFI) (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996), the normed fit index (NFI) (Bentler & Bonett, 1980), the Tucker Lewis index (TLI) (Tucker & Lewis, 1973), the root mean square residual (RMSR), and the root mean square error approximation (RMSEA) (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

3.11.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Factor analysis was performed in the current research to verify any variables with increased correlation as a result of overlapping variation between them. Leeflang et al. (2000) suggest employing factor analysis to investigate the structure of overlapping
variation between predictors. In order to determine the underlying dimensions, factors based on the latent root orientation (Eigenvalue), total variance explained, and correlation matrix were determined using SPSS 17. Given the indeterminate nature of the factor structure, this study employed Principal Component Analysis as a well-established technique for dimensionality reduction using VARIMAX rotation to extract factors. This technique is also well-accepted as a means of finding underlying dimensions in variable sets and has been widely used (e.g. Hair et al., 2006; Jolliffe, 1986; Valicer, 1976). Cronbach alpha coefficients were also employed to determine the reliability of the instruments (Cronbach, 1951). According to Hair et al. (1998) factor loadings equal to 0.40 or greater are considered practically significant. This recommendation was followed for the purpose of the current study.

### 3.11.2 Structural Equation Modelling

#### 3.11.2.1 Definition of SEM

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is the name given to a collection of statistical techniques that are used to examine a set of relationships between one or more independent variables, also called ‘exogenous’ variables, and one or more dependent variables, also called ‘endogenous’ variables (Ullman, 1996). Either set of the independent and dependent variables can be either continuous or discrete, and either latent (factors) or observed variables. SEM contains as special cases path analysis and confirmatory factor analysis, both of which are special types of SEM (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000).

SEM can be viewed as a combination of confirmatory factor and multiple regression analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The full structural equation model consists of a system of structural equations between latent variables (Bollen, 1989). The links
between the variables are summarised in the structural parameters, which are constants that provide the casual relationship between variables (Bollen, 1989). The links that are described by the structural parameters can be between latent variables, observed variables, or between latent and observed variables. All latent variables in a structural equation model correspond to theoretical and sometimes abstract concepts (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000).

The strength of the hypothesised models depends heavily on the underlying theoretical structure of the model. This theoretical structure specified by a set of equations can be represented by a path diagram. If a relatively sound model is confirmed to exist statistically, and the structural model has not been modified substantially from the original theory, it can be reasonably deduced that the hypothesised model has meaning. The focus of the estimation of a structural equation model is to test the extent to which the theoretical structure is confirmed by the observational data.

### 3.11.2.2 Justification of Using SEM

Quantitative statistical techniques such as multiple regression, factor analysis, multivariate analysis of variance and discriminate analysis share one common limitation: they can only examine a single relationship at a time (Hair et al., 1998). In the context of the current research that examines a series of dependent relationship simultaneously, this is a serious limitation. SEM is well suited this type of analysis as it allows the examination of a set of relationship between one or more independent variables and one or more dependent variables which can be either continuous or discrete (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). More importantly, SEM explicitly permits modelling with latent variables by recognising the measurement errors associated with
observed indicators. In short, SEM allows multiple regression analysis of latent factors (Ullman, 1996).

Another basic difference between SEM and other statistical techniques is that ‘one cannot do SEM without prior knowledge of, or hypothesis about, potential relationships among variables’. This is perhaps the greatest difference between SEM and other techniques and its greatest strength (Ullman, 1996). The growing popularity of the method can be attributed to the following reasons; (i) it provides a straightforward method of dealing with multiple relationships simultaneously while providing statistical efficiency, and (ii) its ability to assess the relationships comprehensively, providing a change from exploratory to confirmatory analysis (Hair et al., 1998, p. 578). These two properties enable SEM to test large scale models or even an entire theory (Hair et al., 1998), making it the ideal statistical tool for the current research.

3.11.2.3 Causality and the Limits of Causal Modelling

In contrast to exploratory factor analysis, SEM is a confirmatory technique (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). SEM uses causal assumptions. Indeed, it is almost the only statistical technique that requires at least some prior knowledge, hypotheses about, potential relationships among variables.

Although SEM is a confirmatory technique, there are ways to test a variety of different models after a model has been estimated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). However, if numerous modifications of a model are tested to find the best fitting model, the process moves from confirmatory data analysis to exploratory data analysis and appropriate steps need to be taken to protect against Type I error. Searching for the best model is appropriate provided significant levels are viewed continuously and cross-validation with another sample is performed whenever possible (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).
Because of the use of SEM in exploratory work without controls, and in part to the use of ‘causal modelling’, SEM has developed a bad reputation in some circles. There is nothing causal, in the sense of inferring causality, about the use of SEM. Attributing causality is a design issue, not a statistical issue (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

3.11.2.4 The Effect of Sample Size

SEM is based on covariances. Covariances and correlations ‘are less stable when estimated from a small sample’ (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001, p 659). Instead of thinking about number of subjects per measured variables, Bentler (1995) suggested thinking about the number of subjects per estimated parameter, since there is no linear relationship between the number of variables and the number of parameters in SEM. There are no definitive recommendations to the adequate sample size in order to get reliable solutions and parameters estimates. Different authors use different rules of thumb. For example, Bentler and Chou (1987) argue that the ratio of sample size to the number of parameters can go as low as five to one under normal and elliptical theory. Boomsma (1987) suggested the use of maximum likelihood methods when the sample size is 200 at least. Arbuckle (1997), however, gave a number of examples of structural equation models with sample sizes smaller than 100 cases. Finally, Tabachnick and Fidell (2001, p 660) argue that ‘fewer than 10 subjects per estimated parameter may be adequate if the estimated size of effect is large and the measured variables are normally distributed’.
3.12 Analysing Large Structural Models: Step Approach

Several researchers emphasised the importance of a systematic approach to the analysis of large structural models including purifying the different constructs and related items used in the structural models.

Joreskog and Sorbom (1996) proposed a ‘step’ approach methodology for analysing large structural models. They suggested a staged approach to testing structural models and indicated that testing the initially specified theory could be meaningless unless the measurement model was valid. Therefore, it was argued that the measurement model should be tested and modified if necessary before the structural relationships were tested. They also suggest testing each construct separately, then taking two at a time, and finally all the constructs together. This was followed in the current research.

Farrell (2003) used a similar ‘step’ approach following studies by Siguaw, Simpson and Baker (1998) and Hurley and Hult (1998) who both suggested the following steps in using SEM: (i) analysis of item inter-correlations, (ii) the analysis of item-total correlations, (iii) exploratory factor analysis, and (iii) confirmatory factor analysis. The purpose of this procedure was to ‘identify and eliminate poorly performing items for the reflective measures’ (Siguaw et al., 1998, p 104). Farrell (2003) following a procedure by Noble and Makwa (1999), then conducted a series of separate exploratory factor analyses on the construct measure and related items to improve the performance of the constructs.
3.13 Conclusion

This chapter reported on the current research’s methodology. The first part of this chapter provided a full description of the quantitative research approach, population of the study, research instrument, the content of the research instrument, data collection method, pilot study, the cover letter, and sampling. The second part from this chapter provided a clear explanation about the analytical procedure, data entry, reverse coding, demographic variables, organisational variables, and measures used in the current research. The final part of this chapter provided a full description of the data analytic plan, exploratory factor analysis, structural equation modelling, justification of using structural equation modelling, causality and the limits of causal modelling, the effect of sample size, analysing large structural models: step approach, and finally the conclusion.
4.1 Chapter Overview

Chapter three discussed the methodology followed for collecting the data for analysis, the analytical procedure used in analysing the data and the SEM process used in assessing the full model.

This chapter will provide an examination of the data and the techniques used in analysing the data, present the results of the data analysis following the aforementioned methodology and procedures. First, the current chapter evaluates each construct separately in order to establish their reliability and validity using exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. Second, after establishing the reliability and validity of each construct, the full model is assessed and the hypotheses of the current research are tested using SEM. The results of the analysis and the hypotheses testing were presented with a full discussion for each construct.
4.2 Demographic Profile of Respondents

The gender of respondents were relatively evenly dispersed, with 53.5% being male (n = 264) and 46.5% being female (n = 229). Most respondents were between the ages of 20 and 30 years (43.6%) and 31 and 40 years (36.4%), leaving only 3% of the respondents over the age of 51 and 17% between the ages of 41 and 50 years. The educational attainment for the vast majority of respondents was a Bachelor degree 79.9% with only 20.1% holding a university diploma. Furthermore, the entire sample comprised local employees with no expatriates. The organisations’ employee numbers were: 39.8% with more than 101 employees, 35.5% with between 81 and 100 employees, 20.1% with between 51 and 80 employees and 4.7% with between 20 and 50 employees. The sample included six variant sectors: 10% in the finance sector, 14% in the accounting sector, 7% in the insurance sector, 11% in the service sector, 7% in the industrial sector and 3% in the agricultural sector. Finally, the participants’ years of experience were relatively variant: 8% less than one year; 35.6% one to three years; 51.4% three to five years; and 5% five to seven years.

4.3 Analysis of the First Construct: HRM Practices

This study was proposed to provide a stronger focus on the nature of HRM practices, and investigate how effective these practices are, by testing a more comprehensive model of HRM practice. First, the measurement model was tested on the complete dataset using exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) employing SPSS 17.0. Second, structural equation modelling (SEM) was employed using LISREL 8.80 (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1996).
4.3.1 Scale Internal Consistency—Item-Total and Reliability Analyses

First, the evaluation of items for each sub-scale was performed. The items for each sub-scale (recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal and rewards and benefits) in the dataset were examined using item-total correlations and coefficient alpha (DeVellis, 1991). The item-total correlations for all items were above 0.51 for each sub-scale, which was above the cut-off point of 0.35 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 2007) showing strong relationships between items and their scales. The alpha reliabilities for all the sub-scales were acceptable as they are all above 0.70. These results indicate the scale is internally consistent and require no deletions from the scale because the item correlations and alpha reliabilities for all four sub-scales were relatively high.

Multi-collinearity will increase standard errors and will produce bias in individual parameters, making it difficult to determine the relative significance of the predictors. It will also affect the stability of the coefficients. To further test for multi-collinearity, the variance inflation factors (VIF) and condition number test (CNT) were calculated. All VIF values were below 7.46 (VIF > 10) and the condition index was below 24.36 (condition index > 30) (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). Further, the Farrar-Glauber test revealed that the variable was orthogonal (Farrar & Glauber, 1967). No multi-collinearity was found among variables. Furthermore, Armstrong and Overton (1977) suggest an extrapolation technique to find the non-response bias. The non-response bias was assessed by testing for differences between early and late participants (first 10% and last 10% of responses) on the basis that late responders would be most similar to non-respondents (Armstrong & Overton 1977). No significant (p < 0.05) differences were found, suggesting that non-response bias was unlikely.
Following Podsakoff and Dalton (1987), mono-method bias was considered by testing for a common method influence across all responses none was found.

### 4.3.2 Zero Order Correlation Analysis

The correlation values among the four HRM factors show a high, positive and significant correlation. Some of these high correlation values are observed between the recruitment and selection variables ranging between \( r = 0.94, p < 0.05; \ r = 0.78, p < 0.05 \). For example, a highly significant correlation was found between the third variable in recruitment and selection, RS3 (Interview panels are used during the recruitment and selection process in this organisation) and RS1 (The recruitment and selection processes in this organisation are impartial). This relationship represents the strongest one among the four factors in this study.

Increasingly, both the first factor (recruitment and selection) and the second factor (training and development) are highly correlated, since the correlation ranged between \( r = 0.850, p < 0.05; \ r = 0.56, p < 0.05 \). Also, training and development showed a strong, positive and significant correlation within the five variables as TD2 (This organisation has provided me with training opportunities enabling me to extend my range of skills and abilities) shows a highly significant correlation \( r = 0.85, p < 0.05 \) with TD1 (My employer encourages me to extend my abilities). On the other hand, there is a moderately positive and significant relationship between performance appraisal and recruitment and selection, and the second factor, training and development. Weak, significant correlation is shown between the fourth factor; rewards and benefits and the first two factors; recruitment and selection and training and development. A moderate positive and significant relationship was observed between the rewards and benefits factor, and the performance appraisal factor.
4.3.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was employed to examine the factorial structure of the HRM practices scales. A number of variables were used to determine the level of the implementation of the four HRM practices (recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal and rewards and benefits). For the first two factors (recruitment and selection and training and development), respondents were asked to indicate using a five-point Likert scale ranging from one for ‘strongly disagree’ to five for ‘strongly agree’ the extent to which they consider each practice occurs in their organisation by answering five items for each factor (Edgar & Geare, 2005). The third factor (performance appraisal) was measured by asking the respondents how accurately they describe their organisation’s performance appraisal, through a five-point Likert scale (consisting of three items), where one is ‘strongly disagree’ and five is ‘strongly agree’ (Whiting, Kline & Sulsky, 2008). Finally, the fourth factor (rewards and benefits) was measured by asking the respondents to what extent they consider this practice occurs in their organisation, through five items from Chew (2004), using a seven-point Likert scale, where one is ‘strongly disagree’ and seven ‘strongly agree’.

The EFA technique was applied to verify any variables with increased correlation as a result of overlapping variation between them. Leeflang et al., (2000) suggests employing the factor analysis in order to investigate the structure of overlapping variation between predictors. In order to determine the underlying dimension, factors based on the latent root orientation (Eigenvalue), communalities, Scree plot and varimax (orthogonal), total variance explained, and rotated component matrix were determined using SPSS 17.

Furthermore, given the indeterminate nature of the factor structure, MLE, as a well-established technique for dimensionality reduction using varimax rotation to extract
factors, was employed. Also, this technique is well-accepted as a means of finding underlying dimensions in variable sets and has been widely used (Hair et al., 2006; Jolliffe, 1986; Valicer, 1976). Additionally, Cronbach alpha coefficients were employed to determine the reliability of the instrument (Cronbach, 1951). According to Hair et al., (1998) factor loadings equal to 0.50 or greater are considered practically significant. This recommendation was followed for the purpose of this study, although there were differing opinions (Nunnally & Bernstein, 2007, Gardner, 2001). Kaiser criterion and Scree plot were the selected technical criteria to determine the number of factors. The Kaiser–Meyer Olkin (KMO) (0.810) was used to determine the appropriateness of applying factor analysis; values above 0.5 for the factor matrix were appropriated (Hair et al., 1998). The Scree test (Carttell, 1966), which plots the Eigenvalues against a number of components, suggested that four substantive latent factors existed in this study. Table 4.1 shows the results of the factor structure of the measures of the four human resource practices. The table exhibits the four orthogonal factors and the factor loadings for each factor and their reliability, co-efficient, Eigenvalues and their subjective interrelations. The four significant factors, namely Recruitment and Selection (RS) (α = 0.97), Training and Development (TD) (α = 0.70), Performance Appraisal (PA) (α = 0.77), Reward and Benefit (RB) (α = 0.76) emerge from the analysis, explaining 65.95% total variance, clearly above the 60% threshold suggested for research in social science (Hair et al., 1998). The Bartlett test of sphericity chi-square $\chi^2 = 6754.386$, which showed significant correlation amongst a number of variables at $p < 0.000$. In view of these results an overall composite measure of HRM practices was constituted.
Table 4.1 Factor Structure of Human Resource Practices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor Constructs</th>
<th>Scale Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
<th>Eigen-values</th>
<th>% Variance explained</th>
<th>α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment and Selection (RS)</td>
<td>RS 1 - Impartiality</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>.947</td>
<td>5.449</td>
<td>29.27</td>
<td>.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RS 2 - Favouritism</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>.863</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RS 3 - Interview panels</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>.970</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RS 4 - Paying attention</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>.894</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RS 5 - Merit</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>.937</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and Development (TD)</td>
<td>TD 1 - Extension of abilities</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>.895</td>
<td>3.278</td>
<td>14.83</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TD 2 - Training opportunities</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>.771</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TD 3 - Training requirements</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>.533</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TD 4 - Paying work-related training</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>.834</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TD 5 - Commitment to the training</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>.642</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 3</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance Appraisal (PA)</td>
<td>PA 1 - Usefulness</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>.592</td>
<td>2.127</td>
<td>12.82</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PA 2 - Fairness</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>.968</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PA 3 - Satisfaction</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>.638</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 4</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reward and Benefit (RB)</td>
<td>RB 1 - Positive recognition</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>.670</td>
<td>1.454</td>
<td>11.44</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RB 2 - Pays well</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>.783</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RB 3 - Good benefits package</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>.775</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RB 4 - Individual excellence over teamwork</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>.549</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RB 5 - Opportunities for promotion</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>.400</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

KMO 0.810, Bartlett test (Chi-square) 6754.386, total variance explained 68.37%. Notes: N = 493, Extraction method: Maximum Likelihood Estimate (MLE), Rotation method: VARIMAX Scale composite reliability (SCR) = .80
4.3.4 Definition of the Latent Factors

**Factor 1: Recruitment and Selection:** This factor displayed a high factor loading on items which were associated with the study. Within the five variables in this factor, the highest factor loading was for the third variable; the interview procedures and panels that are used during the recruitment and selection process in the organisations. The Eigen value for this factor is 5.449 for all five variables in this factor. It is also noted that this factor had the highest explanatory power, explaining 29.277% of the variance and the highest Communalities values of all the factors.

**Factor 2: Training and Development:** This factor contributed to 14.835% of the variance explained. Also, the Eigen value for this factor is 3.278 for all five of the variables in this factor. High factor loading for this factor was found within the variable relating to the organisation that pays for any work-related training and development the employees want to undertake.

**Factor 3: Performance Appraisal:** This factor accounted for 12.822% of the variance explained. The highest factor loading within the three variables was that the respondents felt that the performance appraisal system used within the organisation is fair.

**Factor 4: Reward and Benefit:** High factor loadings were found with items relating to the organisation valuing individual excellence over teamwork. This factor contributed to 11.440% of variance explained and the lowest factor loading was for the variable; the organisation offers good opportunities for promotion. This factor scored the lower Eigen value; 1.454 between the four factors.

4.3.5 Multi Dimensional Scaling (MSD) – PROXSCAL Method

Multi Dimensional Scaling (MDS) is primarily a visualisation technique existing within a class of multivariate instruments, such as factor analysis, cluster analysis, etc
(Shepard, 1962, and Webb, 1995). The MDS procedure was employed to obtain a microview of the latent structures and the dimensionality of the factors associated with HRM practices.

Similar to Principal Component Analysis (PCA), MDS is an exploratory data analysis technique designed to ascertain the dimensionality of the space of hypothetical constructs, known as principal coordinates, based upon a proximity matrix of perceived dissimilarities (distances) (Carroll, Arabie and Hubert, 2005). MDS (table 4.2) is a data reduction technique that begins with an item-item immediacy matrix of dissimilarities and attempts to find a set of constructs of lower-dimension based upon dissimilarities for all objects under study (Zinnes and Mackay 1983, Carroll, 2004). The points are arranged in a common space where two similar objects are represented by two points that are close together, and two dissimilar objects are represented by two points that are far apart; this means the distances between pairs of points have the strongest possible relation to the similarities or dissimilarities among items. The space is usually a two or three-dimensional Euclidean space, but may be non-Euclidean and may have more dimensions (Borg and Groenen 2005, Carroll et al, 2005). MDS has fewer and less strict assumptions than factor analysis and can be applied to any kind of data (Bartholomew, Steele, Moustaki & Galbraith, 2002).
### Table 4.2 MDS PROXSCAL HRM Practices Structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HRM Variables</th>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Dimensions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The recruitment and selection processes in this organisation are impartial (RS1)</td>
<td></td>
<td>This organisation is committed to the training and development of its employees (TD5)</td>
<td>-0.493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favouritism is not evident in any of the recruitment decisions made here (RS2)</td>
<td>-0.167</td>
<td>My current performance appraisal system is useful (PA1)</td>
<td>-0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview panels are used during the recruitment and selection process in this organisation (RS3)</td>
<td>-0.077</td>
<td>My current performance appraisal system is fair (PA2)</td>
<td>-0.127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This organisation does not need to pay more attention to the way it recruits people (RS4)</td>
<td>-0.204</td>
<td>I am satisfied with my current performance appraisal system (PA3)</td>
<td>-0.155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All appointments in this organisation are based on merit (i.e. the best person for the job is selected regardless of their personal characteristics) (RS5)</td>
<td>-0.027</td>
<td>Employees are given positive recognition when they produce high quality work (RB1)</td>
<td>1.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My employer encourages me to extend my abilities (TD1)</td>
<td>-0.453</td>
<td>This organization pays well (RB2)</td>
<td>0.648</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This organisation has provided me with training opportunities enabling me to extend my range of skills and abilities (TD2)</td>
<td>-0.583</td>
<td>This organization offers a good benefits package compared to other organizations (RB3)</td>
<td>0.133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I get the opportunity to discuss my training and development requirements with my employer (TD3)</td>
<td>-0.693</td>
<td>This organization values individual excellence over teamwork (RB4)</td>
<td>0.723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My work pays for any work-related training and/or development I want to undertake (TD4)</td>
<td>-0.548</td>
<td>This organization offers good opportunities for promotion (RB5)</td>
<td>1.050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.581</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.543</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.527</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.569</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.430</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.643</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.461</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.322</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.186</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.208</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.533</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.324</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.332</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In order to test the results for reliability and validity, MDS provides for each configuration a measure of stress, referred to as Kruskal’s stress, which measures how well the derived configuration matches the input data (Kruskal, 1964). Other measures have been proposed, such as S-stress (Takane et al, 1977), but ‘Stress’ is generally preferred, because it is a measure based on distances, while S-stress is based on squared distances (Carroll, 2004, Carroll et al, 2005). However, the advantage of normalised raw stress over raw stress is that its value is independent of the scale and number of observations. To facilitate the investigation of how effectively the HRM practices applied, the Proximity Scaling (PROXSCAL) technique was employed using SPSS 17. PROXSCAL was used to generate an aggregate geometrical representation of the data matrix, and the measures of the differences between the measured data points.

In Figure 4.1, the eighteen items of ‘HRM practices’ are plotted in the two-dimensional space. MDS has no integral procedure for categorising dimensions, as identifying underlying dimensions is often an intricate task. Having developed the two-dimensional MDS map, a subjective procedure is adopted to identify the underlying dimensions. This procedure interprets the dimensionality by inspecting the map (Carroll 2004, and Borg & Groenen, 2005). Dimension one in the map indicates the current HRM practices and Dimension two represents the effectiveness level of employing these four practices. An examination of the MDS map suggests a clear division of the set of points located in the four quadrants. Items relating to recruitment and selection and some training and development variables (TD1, TD2) are largely clustered together to the upper-left quadrant. This quadrant indicates that these two practices (RS, TD) have been rarely employed or used within the Jordanian organisations, but they were highly effective when some organisations employed these practices. In the upper-right quadrant, there is only two variables (RB1, RB2) relating to the reward and benefit factor. These two
variables have been highly and effectively employed within the Jordanian organisations. On the other hand, all the performance appraisal variables and the remaining training and development variables (TD3, TD4, and TD5) are mostly grouped together in the lower-left quadrant. This is explained by these variables or practices being rarely and non-effectively used within the organisations. The lower-right quadrant shows the other variables in the reward and benefit factor (RB3, RB4, and RB5) which are widely used and employed, though not effectively.
Figure 4.1 Multi Dimensional Scale (MSD) PROXSCAL for HRM Practices
4.3.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Having found the valid factor structure for the HRM scales, CFA was employed in this study to further investigate the latent structure of the factors. Data were processed and analysed using LISREL 8.80. CFA was performed to confirm the original three-scale structure in the Jordanian setting, and to evaluate the distinctiveness of the three measures according to the data collected from the employees within Jordanian organisations. In total eighteen items were used to express the respondents’ feelings. Five items measured recruitment and selection; five items reflected training and development, three items measured performance appraisal and five items related to rewards and benefits.

Absolute fit indices determine how well the model fits the sample data and which model represents the superior fit (Hooper, Coughian & Mullen, 2008). Based on the overall goodness of fit (GFI) statistics, the four-factor model for HRM practices yielded perfect fit statistics after removing the items with the lowest coefficient values. Table 4.3 shows the iteration process to achieve the perfect fit model for the four constructs. The first model (M₁) consists of all eighteen items measuring the four constructs, and yielded an acceptable GFI and Comparative Fit Index (CFI). Nonetheless, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) was high, representing the possibility of improvement to the measurement model (GFI = 0.83, CFI = 0.90, RMSEA = 0.11). In order to find a better fit model, all non-significant paths such as; three items belonging to training and development (TD3, TD4, TD5), one item from performance appraisal (PA1) and one item pertaining to rewards and benefits (RB5) were deleted from M₁.
Table 4.3 Structural Parameters Estimates for HRM Models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural Path</th>
<th>M₁</th>
<th>M₂</th>
<th>M₃</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>Std Loadings</td>
<td>t values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS → RS1</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>29.01**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS → RS2</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>24.78**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS → RS3</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>30.65**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS → RS4</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>27.19**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS → RS5</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>28.06**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TD → TD1</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>27.20**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TD → TD2</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>22.24**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TD → TD3</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>6.74**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TD → TD4</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>4.31**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TD → TD5</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.0063</td>
<td>1.74**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA → PA1</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>13.60**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA → PA2</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>23.69**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA → PA3</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>14.80**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RB → RB1</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>16.91**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RB → RB2</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>20.13**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RB → RB3</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>17.74**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RB → RB4</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>11.49**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RB → RB5</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>7.97**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Items with lowest coefficient values* *M₂*: five lowest value items removed (TD3, TD4, TD5, PA1, RB5) *M₃*: eight lowest value items removed (RS5, TD3, TD4, TD5, PA1, RB3, RB4, RB5). Note: **p < 0.05, β denotes Standardized coefficient
The second model ($M_2$) consisted of thirteen items indicating a better fit with an acceptable, $GFI = 0.91$, $CFI = 0.96$, and $RMSEA = 0.09$. However, $M_2$ showed that the lowest significant path items were RS5, RB3, and RB4. After removing these items, $M_3$ was developed producing a perfect-fit model; $\chi^2 = 72.16$, $p < 0.001$, $CFI = 0.99$, $GFI = 0.97$ and $RMSEA = 0.05$ (see table 4.4).
Table 4.4 Confirmatory factor analysis: Goodness-of-Fit indices for HRMP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness-of-fit results</th>
<th>M₁</th>
<th>M₂</th>
<th>M₃</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absolute predictive fit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square $\chi^2$</td>
<td>938.43</td>
<td>299.59</td>
<td>72.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(p&lt;0.01)</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees of freedom (df)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected cross validation index (ECVI)</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative fit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFI</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NNFI</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMR</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.086</td>
<td>0.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>0.087</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>0.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Hooper et al., (2008), RMSEA cut-off points below 0.05 represent a perfect-fit and in the range of 0.05 to 0.10 are considered as an indication of fair fit. Based upon this, the final reduced model (M₃) was then carried out by reducing eight non-significant items (RS5, TD3, TD4, TD5, PA1, RB3, RB4, and RB5) (see table 4.3). M₃ fits the data well, indicating an exact and perfect-fit model (GFI = 0.97, CFI = 0.99, RMSEA = 0.05). Figure 4.2 displays the path diagram for the final model showing the main constructs HRM and its four latent factors. Therefore, the final model (M₃) consists of the HRM practices (recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, rewards and benefits) supported Hₐ.
**Chi-Square=72.16, df=29, P-value=0.00002, RMSEA=0.055**

*Note: All the four factors (RS, TD, PA, RB) are subscales of HRM construct.*

**Figure 4.2 Structural Model (M3) for the Four HRM Practices**
4.3.7 Multiple Regression Analysis

The multiple regression models have remarkably good fit and a strong explanatory power of the predator variables selected. Linear regression was employed to investigate the value of dependent variables based on the linear relationship with one or more predictors (Hair et al., 1998). Many studies (Budhwar & Mellahi, 2006; Al Fayyad, 2005) had addressed the relationship between HRM practices and other related constructs (such as: job satisfaction and organisational commitment) with demographic and organisational variables. Interestingly, the current study employed multiple regression analysis to examine the influence of the organisational factors and demographic variables as predictor on the four HRM latent factors. The organisational factors represent: sector, type of business, number of employees and work experience. While the demographic variables represent age, gender, educational background and work experience, it can be seen from table 4.5 that the latent factor, training and development, had a negative significant relationship with gender ($\beta = -0.147$, $p < 0.04$) and a positive significant relationship with age, educational background and work experience ($\beta = 0.480$, $p < 0.00$) ($\beta = 0.577$, $p < 0.00$) ($\beta = 0.256$, $p < 0.00$) respectively. The adjusted $R^2$ was 0.541. Similarly a positive significant linear relationship existed between training and development and type of business ($\beta = 0.083$, $p < 0.09$). A negative relationship appears between the demographic variable gender and the performance appraisal practice ($\beta = -0.260$, $p < 0.00$) and a positive significant relationship between performance appraisal and age and educational background ($\beta = 0.169$, $p < 0.10$) ($\beta = 0.138$, $p < 0.14$) respectively. On the other hand, the results show that there is no significant relationship between the organisational factors and demographic variables with recruitment and selection and rewards and benefits practices.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Recruitment and Selection</th>
<th>Training and Development</th>
<th>Performance Appraisal</th>
<th>Rewards and Benefits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>-1.48</td>
<td></td>
<td>-16.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.029</td>
<td>-.384</td>
<td>-.147</td>
<td>2.91*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.071</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>.480</td>
<td>10.69*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edu. Background</td>
<td>.091</td>
<td>1.612</td>
<td>.577</td>
<td>15.02*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sector</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.669</td>
<td>-.011</td>
<td>-.278</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Business.</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>.621</td>
<td>.083</td>
<td>2.614**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Exp</td>
<td>-.027</td>
<td>-.581</td>
<td>.256</td>
<td>8.186*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of Employee</td>
<td>.045</td>
<td>.782</td>
<td>.045</td>
<td>1.140</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Adjusted $R^2$ for training and development was 0.541, Adjusted $R^2$ for performance appraisal was 0.023, *p < 0.01, **p < 0.05
4.3.8 Discussion of HRM Practices

In Jordanian organisations, the employee recruitment and selection process is largely inadequate and needs effective attention if it is to enhance and support the competitive advantage of the business it represents (Al Fayyad, 2005). This is reflected in the fact that the job analysis process and resulting job descriptions are very often carried out and produced, but are never referred to in the recruitment and selection process. Indeed, most employees are not aware, nor even ask about their job descriptions. This is because it seems that the job description is written and produced simply as a part of the personnel administration process; i.e., for bureaucratic and routine procedures (Budhwar & Mellahi, 2006; Al-Athari & Zairi, 2002; Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 1995).

Equally, in many Arab and, more specifically, Jordanian organisations, the literature demonstrates that the recruitment and selection process is fraught with problems. These can be explained as; (i) rarely based on merit and ability and (ii) hardly systematic or objective. Vacant positions are usually filled through ‘connections’, being offered to friends, relatives and family members with no consideration given to the person’s proficiency and achievements (Budhwar & Mellahi, 2006; Melham, 2004; EL-Said & McDonald, 2001).

In this study, the recruitment and selection factor indicates a high factor loading and the third variable (Interview panels are used during the recruitment and selection process in this organisation) scored the highest factor loading. Also, it is noted that this factor obtained the highest Cronbach alpha coefficients between the factors. This factor shows a high significant correlation. Furthermore, the results emerging from this study found that the recruitment and selection process was rarely employed in the Jordanian organisations. On the other hand, a minor number of the organisations were implementing this practice effectively.

Abu-Doleh and Weir (1997) argue that the arrival of the twenty-first century heralds an essential opportunity for Arab HR scholars, practitioners and specialists to map the future of
training and development programmes in Arab countries. Altarawneh (2009) also argues that training and development is the most significant indicator or subsystem of human resource development as it potentially enhances, increases and modifies the capabilities, skills and knowledge of employees and managers, enabling them to perform their job in more creative and effective ways. Such issues can also assist in the achievement of increases in individual and organisational performance and productivity.

As training and development plays a crucial and dynamic role in developing job and organisational performance, Altarawneh (2009) and Mann (1996) have asked whether or not, given the continuous investment in training and development programmes, training programmes and strategies in Jordan are sufficiently effective in positively impacting organisational competitiveness. This question has been raised because in many Arab, and more specifically Jordanian organisations, expenditure and time spent on training and development is considered an impractical and unnecessary function (Redshaw, 2000). Al-Athari and Zairi, (2002) confirm this view, arguing that some Jordanian organisations regard training and development as a waste of time and money and a function which does not contribute to improving employees’ commitment, or overall organisational performance.

In addition, Figure 4.2 shows that the training and development practice is rarely and non-effectively used within the Jordanian organisations. Increasingly, the high factor loading was scored in the fourth variable (My work pays for any work-related training and/or development I want to undertake) and the results show a high significant correlation between the variables in this factor. To what has been highlighted, a review of the literature in Arab countries, including Jordan, shows that training and development is still not regarded as a significant function that contributes to organisational success. Instead, this function is considered as a vacation, or leisure time activity which is normally given to the managers’ friends or relatives. Furthermore, the literature also demonstrates that the training evaluation
process in some Jordanian and Arab organisations more generally is an infrequent and uncommon practice (Altarawneh, 2009).

Nowadays, many organisations are struggling with technological trends and revolutionary developments and paying more attention to employees’ productivity and performance in order to survive and remain competitive. However, as the performance appraisal practice becomes more commonplace and plays a more significant role in HRM, it still faces systemic failure (Wright, 2002). The performance appraisal system and performance management evaluation are a critical topic within the field of HRM (Abu-Doleh & Weir, 2007; Guest, 1997).

A review of the literature demonstrates that the performance appraisal system has not received appropriate attention in Jordan and is not fully appreciated. Moreover, the performance appraisal practice appears in this study as a non-effective practice, rarely employed in the Jordanian organisations and shows 12.822% of the variance explained.

The second variable (My current performance appraisal system is fair) scored the highest loading factor and all the factors showed a high significant correlation within this factor. Also Jordanian employees still express displeasure and negative feelings towards this practice. Nevertheless, performance appraisal remains a confounded research area in HRM and has been described as the most widely researched and written about in the history of management (Prowse & Prowse, 2009; Grubb, 2007).

Within the different Jordanian sectors, the government always decides and controls the minimum levels of wages and salaries for all employees (Al-Husan & James, 2003). The reward system is also related closely to the employee’s experience, age and position. The majority of employees receive a basic salary, in addition to bonuses and incentives which are determined based on an employee’s position, age and type of work. In this study, figure 4.2 shows that the reward and benefit practice are highly employed and used in the Jordanian
organizations, but not in an effective way. The results also show a high significant correlation between the variables and the lower Eigen value scored in this factor.

Even though the latest economic reforms have encouraged and brought multinational and foreign investment, along with new ways of paying and rewarding (Budhwar & Mellahi, 2006), underlying cultural issues remain. Linking the reward system with an employee’s productivity and performance is an attempt to establish connectivity between the Jordanian salary system, international standards and an employee’s contributions. Moreover, other variant rewards have been presented in order to recruit and motivate skilled employees, as well as to retain knowledgeable and talented staff (Al-Husan & James, 2003; Al-Faleh, 1987).

The purpose of this study was to place the construct of HRM practices in the broader theoretical framework of HRM by developing and empirically establishing a nomological network of related variables. The findings of the study help to recognise the ways in which HRM practices manifest among employees, the conditions under which such practices may be more likely to occur, the distinctiveness of HR practices, and how such practices may influence perceptions and outcomes among employees and within the organisation. The present study was intended to identify the underlying factor structure of HRM practices scales across front-line employees and to test their extrapolative nature and interrelatedness. Past studies of HR practices have focused primarily on using separate scales to measure specific HRM practices (Lawler et al., 1992) and on their effects on individuals and organisations (Banker et al., 1996; Delaney & Huselid, 1996; Huselid, 1995). There are also a number of studies which focused on HR practices and employee attitudes particularly in the Middle Eastern context involving countries such as Kuwait, Turkey, Egypt, Iran, Oman, and Saudi Arabia. These studies nevertheless focused on Islamic work ethics on organisational outcomes such as employee and organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and

The initial empirical investigation of this study produced a four-factor solution which supported the sub-scale structure between constructs and their facets of HRM practices. The EFA provided preliminary support for the four-factor structure, whereas CFA supported a parsimonious four-factor model. Of all the models generated, three competing models were examined and produced acceptable and good fit model statistics, structural coefficients and $R^2$ statistics related to the four HRM practices. Generally, these three models indicate the significant and non-significant correlations between the four constructs (recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal and rewards and benefits). The first model $M_1$, revealed an adequate mediocre fit as the structural model results represent all eighteen items measuring the four practices. This model provided a reasonable correlation between the items. Recruitment and selection items scored the highest coefficient values between the four variables. On the other hand, the lowest coefficient values in this model were distributed between the other three practices (training and development, performance appraisal, and rewards and benefits).

Similarly, the second model ($M_2$) was developed after removing the lowest significant coefficient values from $M_1$. $M_2$ produced a good overall model fit statistics showing an increase in the CFI and GFI, and a decrease in RMSEA value (to 0.09). The highest path coefficient values in this model were scored to the recruitment and selection practice. However, based on recommendations by Hu and Bentler (1999) that RMSEA cut-off points
below 0.05 represent a perfect-fit model, and in order to achieve the exact-fit model, $M_3$ was developed after removing the lowest significant path yielded from $M_2$. $M_3$ (figure 4.2) revealed strong and positive correlations between the ten items measuring the four HRM practices; four items for recruitment and selection, two items measuring training and development, two items reflecting performance appraisal and two items measuring rewards and benefits. The results elicit the most appropriate and a parsimonious model of HRM practices. The findings of this study with respect to recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal and rewards and benefits were consistent with the previous researchers (Edgar & Geare, 2005; Whiting et al., 2008; Chew, 2004). Overall the results of the study suggest that all three measures could be optimally combined to have one composite multi-dimensional human resource management practices scale.

4.4 Analysis of the Second Construct: Job Satisfaction

SEM supports the concurrent estimation of coefficients of endogenous variables and underlying linkages between them and exogenous variables to be assessed (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996). SEM also divulges the nomological networking of latent variables in a model, and evaluates its robustness to the data provided (Mulaik & Millsap, 2000). The application of SEM demonstrates advantages of ‘measurement and prediction’ (Kelloway, 1998, p. 2) over standard multiple regression methods. Also, by employing SEM it ‘captures a truer representation of the variation of variables’, as path analysis is subsumed in the model (Eriksson et al., 2000, p. 314). In order to determine whether the JSS had a valid factor structure, EFA and CFA were employed in this study. EFA was applied to examine the JSS factorial structure according to the data collected from the employees within Jordanian organisations, and CFA was performed to confirm the original JSS structure in Jordanian culture.
4.4.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Spector’s (1997) sub-scales, or variables, (pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work, and communication) were used to determine the level of job satisfaction. Factor analysis was performed to verify any variables with increased correlation as a result of overlapping variation between them. Leeflang et al., (2000) suggests employing factor analysis in order to investigate the structure of overlapping variation between predictors.

In order to determine the underlying dimension, factors based on the latent root orientation (Eigenvalue), total variance explained, and correlation matrix were determined using SPSS 17. Furthermore, given the indeterminate nature of the factor structure, this study employed Principal Component Analysis (PCA) as it is a well-established technique for dimensionality reduction using varimax rotation to extract factors. This technique is also well-accepted as a means of finding underlying dimensions in variable sets and has been widely used (Hair et al, 2006; Jolliffe, 1986; Valicer, 1976). Cronbach alpha coefficients were also employed to determine the reliability of the instrument (Cronbach, 1951). According to Hair et al., (1998) factor loadings equal to 0.50 or greater are considered practically significant. This recommendation was followed for the purpose of this study.

Table 4.6 exhibits the results of factor structure for the nine sub-scales of job satisfaction, and how the participants consider the level of job satisfaction in their organisations. The table shows the nine orthogonal factors, with the factor loadings for each factor and their respective reliability, co-efficient and Eigenvalues and their subjective interrelations. The nine significant factors, namely Pay ($\alpha = 0.95$), promotion ($\alpha = 0.87$), supervision ($\alpha = 0.95$), benefits ($\alpha = 0.79$), rewards ($\alpha = 0.95$), operating procedures ($\alpha = 0.95$), co-workers ($\alpha = 0.98$), nature of work ($\alpha = 0.80$), and communication ($\alpha = 0.89$), emerge from
the analysis, showing high factor loading and correlation values. The first sub-scale (pay procedures) displayed a high factor loading on items which were associated with the study. The Eigenvalue for this factor is 28.51 for all four variables in this factor. It is also noted that this factor had the highest explanatory power, explaining 44.95% of the variance while the second sub-scale promotion scored the lowest factor loading between the factors.
Table 4.6 JSS Rotated Factor Loadings, Common Variance and Eigenvalues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale No.</th>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>α</th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>Variance %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.856</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>28.51</td>
<td>44.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.811</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.815</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>.815</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.853</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.667</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>39.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>.805</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.762</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.762</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.676</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.771</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>5.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>.872</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.863</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>.846</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.846</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.868</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>.784</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.852</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>.870</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.752</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>.873</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.841</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>.866</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.870</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.872</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>.839</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.846</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.810</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.775</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>.788</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.805</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>.810</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.891</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>.933</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.796</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>.761</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.761</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.777</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>.880</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.822</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26</td>
<td>.774</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Having found the valid factor structure for the JSS, CFA was used in the current study to further investigate the structure of the factors. Data were processed and analysed using LISREL 8.80. CFA was performed to evaluate the distinctiveness of the JSS according to the data collected from the front-line employees within the Jordanian organisations and to confirm the original JSS structure in the Jordanian setting. In total, the thirty-six items in the JSS were used to express the level of employees’ satisfaction. The nine sub-scales of the JSS (with its four items for each sub-scale) measured pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work and communication.

Absolute fit indices determine how well the model fits the sample data and which model represents the superior fit (Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008). Based on the overall goodness of fit (GFI) statistics, the first model (M₁) yielded acceptable fit statistics after removing the two items that showed non-significant coefficient values in each sub-scale. M₁ consisted of all nine sub-scales with two items for each sub-scale measuring the job satisfaction level of front-line employees. This model yielded high and acceptable values for some of the fit indices that are often considered indicative of a good fit, particularly the Comparative Fit Index (CFI = 0.96), the Normed Fit Index (NFI = 0.95) the Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI = 0.93) and the Incremental Fit Index (IFI = 0.96) (Kline, 2005; Marsh, Balla, & Hau, 1996) in the case of large samples. However, M₁ showed the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA = 0.18) which is outside the usual acceptable parameters. Based on the results of M₁ there was the possibility of improving the measurement model. Accordingly, the two sub-scales (promotion and nature of work) showing the lowest coefficient values were deleted from M₁. Therefore, the second model (M₂) was carried out using the remaining seven
sub-scales (pay, supervision, benefits, rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, and communication) with two items for each sub-scale. M2 showed a slight improvement in the fit indices values (CFI = 0.97, NFI = 0.97, NNFI = 0.95, and IFI = 0.97). On the other hand, the RMSEA value (0.17) remained above acceptable cut-off points.

According to Hooper et al. (2008) and Hu and Bentler (1999) RMSEA cut-off points below 0.05 represent a perfect fit and the range of 0.05 to 0.10 are considered as an indication of fair fit. However, given that the RMSEA values of M1 and M2 were outside the required cut-off points for a good fit model, the modification indices values were evaluated to uncover the M1 and M2 misfit. This analysis suggested that removing the sub-scales which showed the lowest coefficient values (supervision, operating procedures, nature of work and communication) and combining two sub-scales (pay and promotion) would result in a significantly improved model.

In order to find a better fit model, the final model (M3) was carried out using the four high-significant coefficients value sub-scales (pay and promotion, benefits, rewards, and co-workers). All four remaining sub-scales consisted of two items and one item for the promotion sub-scale. Based on the overall GFI statistics, the four-factor model M3 for JSS yielded satisfactory fit statistics. M3 fits the data well indicating an exact and perfect fit model (chi-square $\chi^2 = 55.20$, $P < 0.000$, df = 21, GFI = 0.98, CFI = 1.00, NFI = 1.00, NNFI = 0.99, and IFI = 1.00, Relative Fit Index (RFI) = 0.99, Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) = 0.04, Standardised RMR (SRMR) = 0.019, and Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.95). M3 yielded perfect fit indices for RMSEA = 0.05. Table 4.7 shows the GFI statistics for the three models and table 4.8 displays the ($\beta$, Standardised Loadings, t values) for the three models and the final iteration process to achieve the perfect fit model (Figure 4.3) for the JSS construct. Overall, the final
model \((M_3)\) consists of the job satisfaction factors (pay and promotion, benefits, rewards and co-workers) accepted \(H_0\).
Table 4.7 Goodness-of-Fit Indices for Job Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural Models</th>
<th>ECVI</th>
<th>NFI</th>
<th>NNFI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>IFI</th>
<th>GFI</th>
<th>RMR</th>
<th>SRMR</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M₁</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M₂</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M₃</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: (M₁ = Chi-square $\chi^2 = 1774.34$, $P < 0.000$, df = 99), (M₂ = Chi-square $\chi^2 = 1063.51$, $P < 0.000$, df = 69), (M₃ = Chi-square $\chi^2 = 55.20$, $P < 0.000$, df = 21)
Table 4.8 Structural Parameters Estimates for Job Satisfaction Models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural Path</th>
<th>M1</th>
<th>M2</th>
<th>M3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\beta$</td>
<td>$\beta$</td>
<td>$\beta$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std Loadings</td>
<td>Std Loadings</td>
<td>Std Loadings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>t values</td>
<td>t values</td>
<td>t values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS_pay→JS1</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>1.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30.90&quot;**</td>
<td>30.89&quot;**</td>
<td>30.87&quot;**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS_pay→JS28</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>1.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31.14&quot;**</td>
<td>31.14&quot;**</td>
<td>31.16&quot;**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS_pro→JS11</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>1.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21.57&quot;**</td>
<td>22.88&quot;**</td>
<td>22.88&quot;**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS_pro→JS20</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17.40&quot;**</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS_sup→JS12</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>29.29&quot;**</td>
<td>29.29&quot;**</td>
<td>29.29&quot;**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS_sup→JS21</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28.96&quot;**</td>
<td>28.96&quot;**</td>
<td>28.96&quot;**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS_ben→JS4</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30.50&quot;**</td>
<td>30.42&quot;**</td>
<td>30.67&quot;**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS_ben→JS29</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30.07&quot;**</td>
<td>30.14&quot;**</td>
<td>29.86&quot;**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS_rew→JS14</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>29.30&quot;**</td>
<td>29.31&quot;**</td>
<td>28.16&quot;**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS_rew→JS32</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28.41&quot;**</td>
<td>28.40&quot;**</td>
<td>29.40&quot;**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSope→JS6</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>27.93&quot;**</td>
<td>28.96&quot;**</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSope→JS24</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>1.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>29.07&quot;**</td>
<td>29.03&quot;**</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS_cow→JS25</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31.15&quot;**</td>
<td>31.12&quot;**</td>
<td>31.11&quot;**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS_cow→JS34</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31.17&quot;**</td>
<td>31.20&quot;**</td>
<td>31.21&quot;**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS_now→JS8</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20.30&quot;**</td>
<td>20.30&quot;**</td>
<td>20.30&quot;**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS_now→JS17</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18.41&quot;**</td>
<td>18.41&quot;**</td>
<td>18.41&quot;**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS_com→JS18</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28.01&quot;**</td>
<td>27.83&quot;**</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS_com→JS26</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>1.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28.26&quot;**</td>
<td>28.43&quot;**</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: PAY (Pay), PRO (Promotion), SUP (Supervision), BEN (Benefits), REW (Rewards), OPE (Operating Procedures), COW (Co-Workers), NOW (Nature of Work), COM (Communication) * $p \leq 0.01$, **$p \leq 0.05$
Figure 4.3 Structural Model (M3) for Job Satisfaction
4.4.3 Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple regression models have the strong explanatory power of the predictor variables selected. In general, linear regression was employed to investigate the value of dependent variables based on the linear relationship with one or more predictors (Hair et al., 1998). Multiple regression analysis was carried out for all nine factors of the JSS (Spector, 1997) to further examine the significance level and relationship between the nine factors with organisational and demographic variables, and also to confirm the final structural model results of the JSS which yielded a four-factor solution. Therefore, to examine the impact of the organisational factors and demographic variables on the job satisfaction of front-line employees, multiple regression analysis was performed involving the nine latent factor scores, and the predictor variables (organisational factors and demographic variables). The nine latent factors are: pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work and communication. The demographic variables represent gender, age, educational background and work experience, while the organisational factors represent sector, type of business and number of employees. Tables 4.9A and 4.9B show that one latent factor, pay, had a positive significant relationship with age and gender ($\beta = 0.81, p < 0.00$) ($\beta = 0.16, p < 0.00$) respectively, and the adjusted $R^2$ was 0.72. Similarly a significant linear relationship existed between promotion and educational background ($\beta = 0.86, p < 0.00$). The adjusted $R^2$ was 0.77. A positive and significant linear relationship was also found between age and rewards ($\beta = 0.116, p < 0.00$) with the adjusted $R^2$ for rewards being 0.03. On the other hand, a negative relationship appeared between gender and age with communication and the nature of work. Moreover, the benefits sub-scale found an appositive relationship with gender and educational background ($\beta = 0.056, p < 0.053$) ($\beta = 0.116, p < 0.00$) respectively. A negative relationship was also found
between supervision and the age of the respondents. A weak and negative correlation is shown between the nature of work and age. Finally, the operating procedures sub-scale shows a weak and negative relationship with the age and gender of the respondents.

Within the organisational factors the type of business was found to have a positive significant relationship with supervision and operating procedures. The multiple regression analysis demonstrates a positive significant linear relationship between gender, age and educational background with some of the job satisfaction factors (pay and promotion, supervision, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work and communication). In general, Tables 4.9A and 4.9B indicate positive and significant linear relationship correlations between the four factors yielded from M₃ (pay and promotion, benefits, rewards, and co-workers), which explains that the control variables (demographic and organisational) reflect and facilitate the strength of the linear relationship and the predictive power between the four domains within M₃.
Table 4.9A Multiple Regression Analysis for Job Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Pay</th>
<th>Promotion</th>
<th>Supervision</th>
<th>Benefits</th>
<th>Rewards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>β</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>-16.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>-39.3</td>
<td></td>
<td>-4.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.116*</td>
<td>4.882</td>
<td>.092*</td>
<td>.4.27*</td>
<td>.31*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.816*</td>
<td>34.0*</td>
<td></td>
<td>.026</td>
<td>1.183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sector</td>
<td>-.022</td>
<td>-.929</td>
<td></td>
<td>.026</td>
<td>1.216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edu. Background</td>
<td>.176*</td>
<td>7.416*</td>
<td>.865*</td>
<td>40.1*</td>
<td>.09** 2.3**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Exp.</td>
<td>.083*</td>
<td>3.480*</td>
<td>.046** 2.11**</td>
<td>.043</td>
<td>.995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. Employees</td>
<td>-.023</td>
<td>-.515</td>
<td>-.060</td>
<td>-1.32</td>
<td>-.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Business</td>
<td>.126** 2.80**</td>
<td>-.015</td>
<td>-.324</td>
<td>-.09** -2.0**</td>
<td>-.071</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Adjusted $R^2$ for pay model was 0.72, Adjusted $R^2$ for promotion was 0.77, Adjusted $R^2$ for supervision was 0.10, and Adjusted $R^2$ for rewards was 0.03. * $p < 0.01$, **$p < 0.05$
### Table 4.9B Multiple Regression Analysis for Job Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Operating Procedures</th>
<th>Co-Workers</th>
<th>Nature of Work</th>
<th>Communication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>-.540</td>
<td></td>
<td>.763</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.236*</td>
<td>-.50*</td>
<td>-.307*</td>
<td>-7.25*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.038</td>
<td>-.882</td>
<td>-.065</td>
<td>-1.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sector</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.143</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>.432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edu. Background</td>
<td>.149*</td>
<td>3.483*</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td>.536</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Exp.</td>
<td>-.198*</td>
<td>-4.58*</td>
<td>.222*</td>
<td>5.193*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. Employees</td>
<td>-.032</td>
<td>-.723</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Business</td>
<td>-.113</td>
<td>-2.524</td>
<td>-.019</td>
<td>-.424</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Adjusted $R^2$ for operating procedures model was 0.10, Adjusted $R^2$ for co-workers was 0.12, Adjusted $R^2$ for nature of work was 0.03, Adjusted $R^2$ for communication was 0.03. * $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$
4.4.4 Discussion of Job Satisfaction

The purpose of this study was to test a causal model that explained the relationships between the latent factors of job satisfaction. Structural equation modelling results provided evidence of the nomological network of latent variables of job satisfaction. Furthermore, a number of plausible alternative models were tested which yielded a four-factor solution and supported the proposed sub-scale structure of job satisfaction. The results of this current study showed that four factors within the JSS (pay and promotion, benefits, rewards, and co-workers) were highly correlated. In line with the theoretical framework, this study sought to examine the application of the job satisfaction construct among front-line employees, specifically in predicting their satisfaction level. The exploratory factor analysis provided preliminary support for the nine-factor structure, whereas confirmatory factor analysis supported a parsimonious four-factor model. Three structural models were tested to examine the path covariance. Overall, the three models indicated non-significant and significant correlations between the nine sub-scales of the JSS (pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, rewards, operation procedures, co-workers, nature of work, and communication).

A number of hypotheses were tested to find out the interrelationship of the job satisfaction factors. The results provide convergent evidence in support of these hypotheses and strong evidence to support the nomological work of job satisfaction. M₁ disclosed a mediocre fit representing all nine sub-scales in the JSS and providing a reasonable correlation between the items. The first sub-scale (pay) scored the highest factor loading values between the nine sub-scales. M₂ was developed after removing the lowest coefficient values within all sub-scales. M₂ produced acceptable overall model fit statistics yielding an increase in the CFI and a slight decrease in RMSEA value. The highest path coefficient values in this model were scored to the two sub-scales (pay and
co-workers). Based on Hooper et al., (2008) and Hu and Bentler (1999) recommendations (RMSEA cut-off points below 0.05 represent a perfect-fit model), and in order to achieve the exact-fit model, $M_3$ was generated after removing the lowest significant path yielded from $M_2$. $M_3$ produced a perfect-fit model revealing strong and positive correlations between the nine items representing four factors (pay and promotion, benefits, rewards, and co-workers). Drawing on Spector’s (2007) study in American private sector organisations to measure job satisfaction norms, which yielded nine factors within the JSS (pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work, and communication), the current study results decomposed the network structures of the JSS into only four factors (pay and promotion, benefits, rewards, and co-workers). Although the construct effectively captured four factors as opposed to the original nomological network structure, a composite factor of pay and promotion was obtained in the final model and was considered as the most essential determinant of job satisfaction. However, Yelboga’s (2009) study, conducted in Turkey, found a nine factor model. Yelboga found that the items in the dimensions reflected a one-way factor, and the correlation coefficients of the dimensions in the scale scored a psychometrically acceptable level. In keeping with the existing literature on the determinants of job satisfaction, the current study proposed an overall job satisfaction model which included a set of four factors. Nevertheless, while comparing and contrasting the Yelboga findings with that of the current study conducted in similar cultural settings, the results look dissimilar. Kline (2005) argued that several models or results could be obtained from the confirmatory factor analysis using structural equation modelling. Therefore, the findings of the current study provide a valuable contribution to the literature as the final results yielded from $M_3$ elicit the most appropriate model with four factors of job satisfaction. Furthermore, another
plausible explanation can be proposed to explain the dissimilar results the path coefficients of the final structural model provided in this study offered evidence of how the underlying latent factors relate to the JSS construct.

With regard to the latent factors of pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, rewards, operation procedures, co-workers, nature of work, and communication, the findings showed that only four factors had significant effects on job satisfaction. It is somewhat surprising that supervision, operating procedures, nature of work, and communication had a negative influence on job satisfaction, as demonstrated by weak or non-significant path coefficients. This result is different from those of previous studies (Spector, 2007; Yelboga, 2009) suggesting that front-line employees are not motivated by these factors.

The examination of the interaction effects of using structural equation modelling within a nomological network generates similar and dissimilar standardised path coefficients at different significant levels. An important finding from the current study is that the results showed that the employees demonstrated less satisfaction with benefits, contingent rewards, communication, salaries, work conditions and promotion. A number of studies (e.g. Back et al., 2011; Mossholder, Bennett & Martin, 1998; Awamleh & Fernands, 2006; Crossman & Abou-Zaki, 2003) support these results. However, an interesting finding is that the current study has demonstrated that pay and promotion opportunities were significant predictors of job satisfaction among the front-line employees as demonstrated by significant path coefficients in M3. This shows that there is a high chance of improved job satisfaction related to pay and promotion within the organisation, as expressed by higher levels of employee job satisfaction. This contrasts with an exploration of previous studies that examined the job satisfaction predictors (e.g. Stringer et al., 2011), which showed that supervision and benefits represent the most crucial predictors. It appears critical that the results from M3 show
that the nature of work had a very low significant path coefficient and eventually was removed. Although previous studies (Spector, 2007; AbuAlRub, Omari & Al-Zaru, 2009) demonstrated a significant relationship of the nature of work with job satisfaction, the coefficient results in the study suggest that the nature of work in the Jordanian context is not valued and perhaps needs more attention. The examination of the non-significant path coefficient values of the nature of work illustrates that front-line employees require a job description (Mrayyan, 2005; Suliman and Abu Gharbieh, 1996; Al-Zu’bi, 2010).

The quality of supervision is viewed as an important contributing factor for job satisfaction. The results reported here add confidence to this conclusion as they are comparable to findings from other studies (Watson et al., 2007; AbuAlRub et al., 2009). In terms of control variables such as demographic and organisational variables, a number of interaction effects suggest modification affects the relationship with the job satisfaction construct. Several studies (e.g. Shallal, 2011; Al-Zu’bi, 2010) have been carried out to examine the relationship between demographic factors and job satisfaction. Another significant finding of this study is that a positive significant linear relationship was found between gender, age, and educational background with the four factors of job satisfaction. This parallels the findings of Al-Zu’bi (2010); Toker (2011); and Shallal (2011) who found a strong positive relationship between gender and age of the respondents with job satisfaction. Furthermore, a stronger relationship was observed with regard to the relationship between age and income with job satisfaction. However, these results, with caution, could be related to Shallal’s (2011) study, as gender specific issues might potentially interact with job satisfaction, although a positive relationship between the demographic variables in relation to job satisfaction, gender and age represent the most important predictors of job satisfaction in the current study.
Taken together, these findings underscore the need for a proactive approach in measuring job satisfaction as managers can influence employees’ perceptions in accordance with their own business specific settings and strategic goals. This implies that the demographic and organisational variables facilitate the strength of this relationship with the JSS construct and the predictive power of the model. To summarise, the above discussion of results from the current study is quite plausible and different from the previous studies. For example, it might be suggested that the current four-factor model could be used in other job satisfaction related studies. Nonetheless, the current study was carried out using a group of front-line employees as participants; it is deemed that the psychometric properties of the model in future research with different samples may require revising, which will augment the model value in various managerial contexts.

4.5 Analysis of the Third Construct: Organisational Commitment
In order to determine whether the organisational commitment scale had a valid factor structure, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were employed in this study. EFA was applied to examine the organisational commitment factorial structure according to the data collected from respondents within the Jordanian organisations, and CFA was performed to confirm the original organisational commitment structure in the Jordanian culture.
4.5.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

The organisational commitment sub-scales (affective, continuance and normative) were employed to determine the level of organisational commitment. Factor analysis was performed to verify any variables with increased correlation as a result of overlapping variation between them. Leeflang, Wittink, Wedel and Naert, (2000) suggest employing factor analysis in order to investigate the structure of overlapping variation between predictors.

In order to determine the underlying dimensions, factors based on the latent root orientation (Eigenvalue), total variance explained, and correlation matrix were determined using SPSS 17. Given the indeterminate nature of the factor structure, this study employed Principal Component Analysis (PCA) as a well-established technique for dimensionality reduction using varimax rotation to extract factors. This technique is also well accepted as a means of finding underlying dimensions in variable sets and has been widely used (e.g. Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006; Jolliffe, 1986; Valicer, 1976). Cronbach alpha coefficients were also employed to determine the reliability of the instrument (Cronbach, 1951). According to Hair et al., (1998) factor loadings equal to 0.50 or greater are considered practically significant. This recommendation was followed for the purpose of this study. Table 4.10 exhibits the results of factor structure for the three sub-scales of organisational commitment, and how the participants consider the level of organisational commitment in their organisations. Table 4.10 also shows the three orthogonal factors, with the factor loadings for each factor and their respective reliability, co-efficient and their subjective interrelations. The three significant variables, namely Affective organisational commitment ($\alpha = 0.91$), Continuance organisational commitment ($\alpha = 0.84$) and normative organisational commitment ($\alpha = 0.88$) emerge from the analysis, showing
high factor loading and correlation values. The first factor (affective organisational commitment) displayed a high factor loading on items which were associated with the study. This factor had the highest explanatory power, explaining 31.22% of the variance while the second factor (continuance organisational commitment) scored the lowest factor loading. The Bartlett test of sphericity chi-square $\chi^2 = 13619.667$, which showed significant correlation amongst a number of variables at $p < 0.000$. 
# Table 4.10 Factor Structure of Organisational Commitment Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor Constructs</th>
<th>Scale Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
<th>Variance explained %</th>
<th>α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective Organisational Commitment</td>
<td>AOC1 Rest of the career</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>.866</td>
<td>31.22</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AOC2 Organisation’s problems</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>.913</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AOC3 Sense of belonging</td>
<td>5.42</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>.644</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AOC4 Emotionally attached</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>.681</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AOC5 Part of the family</td>
<td>5.54</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>.674</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AOC6 Personal meaning</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>.880</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuance Organisational Commitment</td>
<td>COC1 Matter of necessity</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>.756</td>
<td>27.70</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COC2 Hard to leave</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>.754</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COC3 Life disturbance</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>.762</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COC4 Too few options</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>.465</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COC5 Working elsewhere</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>.780</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COC6 Scarcity of alternatives</td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>.720</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 3</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normative Organisational Commitment</td>
<td>NOC1 Feel obligation</td>
<td>5.21</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>.696</td>
<td>26.12</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NOC2 Leave my organisation</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>.892</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NOC3 Feel guilty</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>.762</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NOC4 Feel loyalty</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>.856</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NOC5 Obligation to people</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>.574</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NOC6 Owe a great deal</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>.875</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: N = 493, Extraction method: Principle Component Analysis (PCA), Rotation method: VARIMAX. KMO .941, Bartlett test (Chi-square) 13619.667, Total variance explained 85.01%.
4.5.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Having established the valid factor structure for the organisational commitment variables, confirmatory factor analysis was employed in the current study to further investigate the latent structure of the factors. Data was processed and analysed using LISREL 8.80. CFA was performed to confirm the original scale structure in the Jordanian setting and to evaluate the distinctiveness of the three measures according to the data collected from the employees within Jordanian organisations. In total, eighteen items were used to express the respondents’ feelings. Six items measured effective organisational commitment, six items reflected continuance organisational commitment and six items measured normative organisational commitment.

Absolute fit indices determine how well the model fits the sample data and which model represents the superior fit (Hooper, Coughian & Mullen, 2008). Based on the overall goodness of fit (GFI) statistics, the three-factor model for organisational commitment yielded perfect fit statistics, after removing the items with the lowest coefficient values. Table 4.11 shows the iteration process to achieve the perfect fit model for the three variables. The first model ($M_1$) consists of all eighteen items measuring the three constructs, and yielded an acceptable GFI and Comparative Fit Index (CFI). Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) was high, representing the possibility of improvement to the measurement model ($GFI = 0.87$, $CFI = 0.97$, $RMSEA = 0.13$).

A re-specification was conducted in order to find a better fit model. Thus all non-significant paths such as four items belonging to affective commitment (AOC1, AOC3, AOC4, AOC5), three items from continuance commitment (COC1, COC4, COC6) and three items pertaining to normative commitment (NOC1, NOC3, NOC5) were dropped from $M_1$. The second model ($M_2$) consisted of eight items indicating a better fit with an acceptable ($GFI = 0.94$, $CFI = 0.99$, and $RMSEA = 0.11$). According to Hooper et al.,
(2008) RMSEA cut-off points below 0.05 represent a perfect-fit and in the range of 0.05 to 0.10 are considered as an indication of fair fit.

On this basis, a final reduced model (M₃) was then carried out by reducing another two non-significant items (COC3, NOC4). M₃ was then developed and produced a three factor solution model. The revised model displayed a perfect-fit model; $\chi^2 = 17.19$ $p < 0.001$, CFI = 1.00, GFI = 0.99 and RMSEA = 0.06. Table 4.11 indicates the structural parameters estimates for the structural models and table 4.12 shows the results for the three models and Figure 4.5 displays the path diagram for the final model. The final model (M₃) consists of the organisational commitment constructs (affective, continuance, and normative commitment) supported Hₜ.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural Path</th>
<th>M₁ Std. Loadings</th>
<th>M₁ T values</th>
<th>M₂ Std. Loadings</th>
<th>M₂ T values</th>
<th>M₃ Std. Loadings</th>
<th>M₃ T values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OC → AOC1</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>20.90</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → AOC2</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>29.14&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>29.52&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>30.14&quot;&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → AOC3</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>13.57&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → AOC4</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>19.40&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → AOC5</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>21.29&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → AOC6</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>27.01&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>27.71&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>28.95&quot;&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → COC1</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>18.50&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → COC2</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>27.84&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>26.52&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>26.84&quot;&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → COC3</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>21.26&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>21.06&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → COC4</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>18.96&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → COC5</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>27.90&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>27.98&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>27.90&quot;&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → COC6</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>18.88&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → NOC1</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>18.37&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → NOC2</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>29.02&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>28.72&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>29.02&quot;&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → NOC3</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>16.76&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → NOC4</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>20.45&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>19.15&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → NOC5</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>17.96&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → NOC6</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>27.85&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>27.83&quot;&quot;</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>27.89&quot;&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: AOC (affective organisational commitment), COC (continuance organisational commitment), NOC (normative organisational commitment) * p≤ 0.01, **p≤ 0.05
Table 4.12 Goodness-of-Fit Indices for Organisational Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness-of-fit results</th>
<th>M₁</th>
<th>M₂</th>
<th>M₃</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Absolute predictive fit</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square $\chi^2$</td>
<td>405.35</td>
<td>126.62</td>
<td>17.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>($p&lt;0.01$)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees of freedom (df)</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected cross validation index (ECVI)</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Comparative fit</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFI</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NNFI</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMR</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>0.050</td>
<td>0.0092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chi-Square=17.19, df=6, P-value=0.00862, RMSEA=0.062

Figure 4.4 Structural Model (M3) for Organisational Commitment Factors
4.5.3 Multiple Regression Analysis

Several studies (see e.g. Tatlah et al., 2011; Mayer et al., 2002; Masako, 2002) had found the relationship between organisational commitment and demographic and organisational variables. Interestingly, this study employed multiple regression analysis to investigate the value of dependent variables based on the linear relationship with one or more predictors (Hair et al., 1998). To examine the influence of the organisational factors and demographic variables on organisational commitment, multiple regression analysis was performed between the three latent factor scores, and the predictor variables (organisational factors and demographic variables). The three latent factors are affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. The organisational variables represent sector, type of business and number of employees. While the demographic variables represented age, gender, educational background and work experience, it can be seen from Table 4.13 that the latent factor (Affective Commitment) had a negative significant relationship with sector and years of experience ($\beta = -0.004, p < 0.01$) ($\beta = -0.008, p < 0.05$) respectively, and a positive significant relationship with type of business ($\beta = 0.000, p < 0.00$). The adjusted $R^2$ was 0.056. Similarly a negative significant linear relationship existed between continuance commitment, sector and type of business ($\beta = -0.014, p < 0.01$) ($\beta = -0.015, p < 0.01$) respectively. A positive relationship appears between years of experience and continuance commitment ($\beta = 0.038, p < 0.01$). A positive significant relationship also appears between normative commitment and age, sector and type of business ($\beta = 0.033, p < 0.01$) - ($\beta = 0.016, p < 0.01$) - ($\beta = 0.035, p < 0.01$) respectively. On the other hand, the results show a negative significant linear relationship existed between normative commitment and gender, educational background and work experience ($\beta = -0.016, p < 0.01$) - ($\beta = -0.030, p < 0.01$) - ($\beta = -0.06, p < 0.05$) respectively.
Table 4.13 Multiple Regression Analysis for Organisational Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Affective Commitment</th>
<th></th>
<th>Continuance Commitment</th>
<th></th>
<th>Normative Commitment</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (Constant)</td>
<td>-5.003</td>
<td></td>
<td>-9.823</td>
<td></td>
<td>.466</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.140</td>
<td>3.178</td>
<td>.102</td>
<td>2.529</td>
<td>-.016*</td>
<td>-.343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td>2.345</td>
<td>.255</td>
<td>6.236</td>
<td>.033*</td>
<td>.717</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sector</td>
<td>-.004*</td>
<td>-.094</td>
<td>-.014*</td>
<td>-.348</td>
<td>.016*</td>
<td>.349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Exp</td>
<td>-.008**</td>
<td>-.188</td>
<td>.038*</td>
<td>.922</td>
<td>-.06**</td>
<td>-1.312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Business</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>-.009</td>
<td>-.015*</td>
<td>-.354</td>
<td>.035*</td>
<td>.752</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Adjusted $R^2$ for Affective Commitment was 0.056, Adjusted $R^2$ for Continuance Commitment was 0.210, * $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$
4.5.4 Discussion of Organisational Commitment

The aim of the current study was to place the organisational commitment construct and the three factor components (affective, continuance and normative commitment) in a broader theoretical and cross-cultural framework by empirically establishing and developing a nomological network of related variables, tested in a Middle Eastern environment. The findings reported in this paper help to recognise the distinctiveness of organisational commitment, and how its three components may impact the perceptions and outcomes among the frontline employees in a non-traditional work environment.

The present study was intended to identify the underlying factor structure of organisational commitment across front-line employees and to test their analytical nature and interrelatedness in a cross-cultural context which is Jordan. The structural equation model outcomes presented a confirmation and evidence of the nomological network of the latent factors of organisational commitment. Moreover, the present study examined a number of plausible alternative models which yielded a three factors solution model and supported the proposed structure of organisational commitment among the frontline employees within the Jordanian organisations. The results of the present study demonstrated the three factors within the organisational commitment (affective, continuance and normative commitment) were highly correlated. In line with the hypothetical framework, this study examines the application of the organisational commitment construct among frontline employees, particularly in predicting their commitment level.

The exploratory factor analysis was employed to inspect the organisational commitment factorial structure according to the data collected from the employees. Exploratory factor analysis provided prelude support for the three-factor structure. The confirmatory factor analysis was applied to validate the original organisational commitment structure.
in the Jordanian culture. As reported in this study, confirmatory factor analysis supports a parsimonious three-factor model. Three structural models were tested to examine the path covariance. Generally the three models showed significant and non-significant correlations between the three sub-scales of the organisational commitment, and produced acceptable and good fit model statistics, structural coefficients and $R^2$ statistics related to the three factors.

An integrated model based on the theoretical background and a number of hypotheses were simultaneously tested in the current study to establish whether there was any interrelationship between the organisational commitment factors. All model estimations in the present study were conducted on covariance matrices using Principal Component Analysis. Cut-off points and fit indexes applied when employing confirmatory factor analysis adhered to recommendations of Hooper et al., (2008) and Hu and Bentler (1999). The fit indexes used in all three iteration processes were the NFI, NNFI, GFI, CFI and RMSEA. Hooper et al., (2008) and Hu and Bentler (1999) argue that the perfect model fit is established when the GFI, NFI and CFI are close to 0.95 or more, and when RMSEA close to 0.06 or less. The results of the present study provide convergent evidence in support of these hypotheses and strong evidence to support the nomological work of organisational commitment.

The first model demonstrates a fair fit representing all three sub-scales in the organisational commitment and provides a realistic correlation between the items. The second iteration process was carried out and the second model was developed after removing the lowest coefficient values within the three sub-scales. The second model produced acceptable overall model fit statistics yielding an increase in the CFI and a slight decrease in RMSEA. In order to achieve the exact-fit model, the final model was generated after removing the lowest significant path yielded from the second model.
The final model produced a perfect-fit model revealing strong and positive correlations between the three factors (affective, continuance, and normative). These results supported $H_c$.

In addition, employing MDS to obtain a micro view of the latent structures and the dimensionality of the factors (affective, continuance, and normative) linked with the individuals’ commitment revealed some interesting results. The MDS findings showed that respondents did not feel any commitment to remain with their employer, but they had few options available to consider leaving the organisation. Whereas, Michael et al., (2009) found that the commitment level of employees working in Israeli organisations decreases as the job stress level rises. Focusing on the relationship between the organisational and demographic variables and the commitment level, the present study revealed interesting findings showing a negative significant linear relationship between continuance commitment with sector and type of business, and a positive significant relationship appears between normative commitment and age. On the other hand, Awamleh (1996) arrived at a different conclusion when he examined the organisational commitment level of civil servant managers working in Jordanian government departments, finding no relationship existed between organisational commitment and demographic variables (gender and age). Another interesting finding emerged from this study. It was demonstrated that frontline employees working in variant sectors (insurance, finance, services, accounting and industry) in Jordan showed a low level of organisational commitment towards their organisations. Whereas Awamleh (1996) found that the civil service managers working in government departments showed a high level of commitment to their work. This may be because the government departments offer highly secure job conditions, when compared with the private sector. Another significant finding of this study is that both a positive and negative significant
linear relationships were found between gender, age, and educational background with the three variables of organisational commitment. This parallels the findings of Kate and Masako (2002) that indicated individual variables (educational background, age and gender) and organisational factors (type of business, position and number of employees) might influence the employee’s affective commitment.

Summing up, the current results emphasis the need for a practical approach in examining organisational commitment level as employers can control the individuals’ perceptions in accordance with the business settings, values and strategic goals. This explains that the organisational and demographic factors assist the strength of this relationship with the organisational commitment construct and the predictive power of the model. To conclude, the above discussion is quite plausible and differs from previous studies. For example, it might be suggested that the current three factor solution model could be used in other organisational commitment related studies. The present study was carried out using a sample of frontline employees. It is deemed that the psychometric properties of the model in future research with different samples may require revision, which will enhance the model value in various managerial contexts.
4.6 Analysis of the Fourth Construct: Work Values

The application of SEM demonstrates advantages of measurement and prediction (Kelloway 1998, p. 2) over standard multiple regression methods. Also, by employing SEM it ‘captures a truer representation of the variation of variables’, as path analysis is subsumed in the model (Eriksson et al. 2000, p. 314). In order to determine whether the work-values scale had a valid factor structure, EFA and CFA were employed. EFA was applied to examine the employees’ work-values factorial structure according to the data collected from respondents within the Jordanian organisations, and CFA was performed to confirm the original work-values structure in Jordanian culture.

4.6.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Factor analysis was performed to verify any variables with increased correlation as a result of overlapping variation between them. Leeflang, Wittink, Wedel and Naert (2000) suggest employing factor analysis to investigate the structure of overlapping variation between predictors. In order to determine the underlying dimensions, factors based on the latent root orientation (Eigenvalue), total variance explained, and correlation matrix were determined using SPSS 17.

Given the indeterminate nature of the factor structure, this study employed Principal Component Analysis (PCA) as a well-established technique for dimensionality reduction using VARIMAX rotation to extract factors. This technique is also well accepted as a means of finding underlying dimensions in variable sets and has been widely used (e.g. Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham 2006; Jolliffe 1986; Valicer 1976).

Cronbach alpha coefficients were also employed to determine the reliability of the instrument (Cronbach 1951). According to Hair et al. (1998) factor loadings equal to
0.40 or greater are considered practically significant. This recommendation was followed for the purpose of this study.

Table 4.14 demonstrates the results of factor structure for the three sub-scales of work values, the factor loadings for each item, their respective reliability, co-efficient and their subjective interrelations. The three sub-scales that emerged from the analysis demonstrated an acceptable Cronbach alpha (α = 0.90) and a high factor loading and correlation values. The first factor (job accomplishment) showed a high factor loading on items associated with the study. This factor had the highest explanatory power, explaining 32.28% of the variance. The Bartlett test of sphericity chi-square $\chi^2 = 4810.877$ showed significant correlation amongst a number of variables at $p < 0.00$. 
Table 4.14 Factor Structure for Work Values Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor Constructs</th>
<th>Scale Items</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Variance explained %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Accomplishment (JAC)</td>
<td>JAC1 Interesting work</td>
<td>.883</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>.518</td>
<td>32.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JAC2 Job is secure</td>
<td>.847</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>.540</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JAC3 Earn money</td>
<td>.629</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>.533</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JAC5 Own approach</td>
<td>.771</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>.541</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Nature (WN)</td>
<td>WN4 Little stress</td>
<td>.871</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>.548</td>
<td>27.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>WN9 Company concern</td>
<td>.879</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>.667</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>WN10 Good relationship</td>
<td>.697</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>.591</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Advancement (JAD)</td>
<td>JAD6 Cooperation</td>
<td>.806</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>.505</td>
<td>24.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JAD7 Decision-making</td>
<td>.869</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>.561</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JAD8 Job advancement</td>
<td>.714</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>.520</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: N = 493, Extraction method: Principle Component Analysis (PCA), Rotation method: VARIMAX. KMO: 900, Bartlett test (Chi-square) 4810.87.
4.6.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Having found the valid factor structure for employees’ work-values variables, CFA was employed to further investigate the latent structure of the factors. Data was processed and analysed using LISREL 8.80. CFA was performed to confirm the original scale structure in the Jordanian setting and to evaluate the distinctiveness of the three factors according to the data collected from the employees.

In total, 10 items were used to express the respondents’ feelings. Four items measured job accomplishment, three items reflected work nature, and three items measured job advancement. Absolute fit indices determine how well the model fits the sample data and which model represents the superior fit (Hooper, Coughian and Mullen 2008). Based on the overall goodness of fit (GFI) statistics, the three-factor model for work values yielded perfect fit statistics after removing the items with the lowest coefficient values.

Table 4.15 shows the iteration process to achieve the perfect fit model for the three variables. The first model (M₁), consisting of all ten items measuring the three constructs, proposed an acceptable GFI and comparative fit index (CFI).
Table 4.15 Structural Parameters Estimates for Work Value structural Models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural Path</th>
<th></th>
<th>M₁</th>
<th></th>
<th>M₂</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Loadings</td>
<td>T values</td>
<td>Std. Loadings</td>
<td>T values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → JAC1</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>27.90**</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>29.96**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → JAC2</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>23.33**</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>23.86**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → JAC3</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>19.45**</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → JAC5</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>27.98**</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>28.18**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → WN4</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>24.78**</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>24.98**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → WN9</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>22.44**</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>23.14**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → WN10</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>19.84**</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → JAD6</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>22.94**</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>22.99**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → JAD7</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>23.12**</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>23.78**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → JAD8</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>19.82**</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: JAD (job accomplishment), WN (work nature), JAD (job advancement) *p≤ 0.01, **p≤ 0.05
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was high, representing the possibility of improvement to the measurement model (GFI = 0.90, CFI = 0.97, RMSEA = 0.12). According to Hooper et al. (2008) RMSEA cut-off points below 0.05 represent a perfect fit and the range of 0.05 to 0.10 is considered as an indication of fair fit. Therefore, a re-specification was conducted to find a better fit model. All non-significant paths – one item belonging to job accomplishment (JAC3), one item from work nature (WN10) and one item pertaining to job advancement (JAD8) were dropped from M_1.

The second model (M_2) consisted of seven items indicating a better fit and a perfect fit model (\( \chi^2 = 32.64 \ p < 0.00, \ CFI = 0.99, \ IFI = 0.99, \ NFI = 0.99, \ GFI = 0.99, \) and RMSEA = 0.06). Table 4.16 indicates the structural parameter estimates for the structural models, and Figure 4.5 displays the path diagram for the final model. The final model (M_2) consists of the work-values variables supporting H_d.
Table 4.16 Goodness-of-Fit indices: Work Values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness-of-fit results</th>
<th>M₁</th>
<th>M₂</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absolute predictive fit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square χ²</td>
<td>265.04 (P = 0.0)</td>
<td>32.64 (P = 0.000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees of freedom (df)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected cross validation index (ECVI)</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative fit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFI</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NNFI</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMR</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>0.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>0.061</td>
<td>0.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chi-Square=32.64, df=11, P-value=0.00060, RMSEA=0.063

Figure 4.5 Structural Model (M2) for Work Values Factors
4.6.3 Multiple Regression Analysis

Several studies find a relationship between work values and demographic and organisational variables (Wray-Lake et al. 2009; Farber 2006). Interestingly, the current study employed multiple regression analysis to investigate the value of dependent variables based on the linear relationship with one or more predictors (Hair et al. 1998). Multiple regression analysis was performed between the three latent factor scores and the predictor variables (organisational factors and demographic variables) to examine their influence on employees’ work values. The three latent factors are job accomplishment, work nature, and job advancement. The organisational variables represent sector, type of business and number of employees, while the demographic variables represent age, gender, educational background and years of experience.

Table 4.17 shows that the latent factor of job accomplishment has a positive and significant relationship with educational background ($\beta = .091, p < 0.01$), sector ($\beta = .022, p < 0.01$) and type of business ($0.004, p < 0.01$), and a negative relationship with work experience ($\beta = –019, p < 0.01$). The adjusted $R^2$ was .017.

The second factor (work nature) has a positive relationship with educational background ($\beta = .068, p < 0.01$), work experience ($\beta = .010, p < 0.01$) and type of business ($0.017, p < 0.01$), while a negative relationship appears between work nature and sector ($\beta = –045, p < 0.01$), with the adjusted $R^2$ being .009. The adjusted $R^2$ for the final factor (job advancement) is .001. This factor has a positive relationships with educational background ($\beta = .000, p < 0.01$), sector ($\beta = .017, p < 0.01$), work experience ($\beta = .047, p < 0.01$), and type of business ($0.072, p < 0.01$).
Table 4.17 Multiple Regression Analysis for Work Values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Job Accomplishment</th>
<th>Work Nature</th>
<th>Job Advancement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( \beta )</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>( \beta )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (Constant)</td>
<td>-2.449</td>
<td></td>
<td>-1.787</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.180</td>
<td>.188</td>
<td>.104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.134</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>.103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edu. Background</td>
<td>.091*</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>.068*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sector</td>
<td>.022*</td>
<td>.491</td>
<td>-.045*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Exp</td>
<td>-.019**</td>
<td>-.417</td>
<td>.010*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Business</td>
<td>.004*</td>
<td>.097</td>
<td>.017*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The adjusted \( R^2 \) for Job Accomplishment was .017. The adjusted \( R^2 \) for Work Nature was .009. The adjusted \( R^2 \) for Job Advancement was .001. * \( p < 0.01 \), ** \( p < 0.05 \)
4.6.4 Discussion of Work Values

The current study was intended to investigate and examine a causal model that measures the relationship between the three latent factors of work values among frontline employees. A two-step approach was adopted to test the fit between the theoretical model and the empirical findings. EFA was applied to examine the factorial structure of work value scale according to the data collected from the employees within Jordanian organisations, and CFA was performed to confirm the originality of work value scale structure in the Jordanian setting. Structural equation modelling findings provided evidence of the nomological network of latent variables of work values. In addition, two plausible alternative models were tested resulting in a three-factor solution model supporting the proposed sub-scale structure of work value.

The findings of this study demonstrate that the three latent factors within the work value scale (job accomplishment, work nature, and job advancement) are highly correlated. In line with the theoretical framework, the current study aimed to test the work values among frontline employees. In general, the two models pointed to significant and non-significant correlations between the items within the three latent factors. Performing EFA showed that three items among the three latent factors scored the lowest factor loadings (JAC3, JAD8, and WN10) and three items scored the highest factor loading (JAC1, JAD7, and WN9). As reported in the present study, CFA supports a parsimonious three-factor model. Two measurement models were tested to test the path covariance. The two models produced acceptable and good fit model statistics, structural coefficients and $R^2$ statistics related to the three factors. The findings provide significant evidence in support of these hypotheses and strong evidence to support the structure of work values among frontline employees.
Based on the general theoretical background, an integrated model and the two hypotheses were simultaneously examined in the current study to establish whether there was any interrelationship between the three work-values factors. All model estimations in the current study were conducted on covariance matrices using PCA. Marsh, Balla & McDonald (1988) state that a fit index ranging from 0.80 to 0.90 has traditionally been used as an indicator of good fit, whereas, Hu and Bentler (1999) argue that the fit indices should be 0.95 or higher to be considered as an indicator of a good fit. Lack of fit indices constitutes a second set of fit indices. RMSEA is used since it takes degrees of freedom into account and penalises less parsimonious models. An RMSEA less than 0.05 is perfect, and values ranging between 0.06 and 0.1 are acceptable (Browne and Cudeck 1992). The fit indexes used in all three iteration processes were the normed fit index (NFI), non-normed fit index (NNFI), GFI, CFI and RMSEA.

The first model (M₁), consisting of all 10 items measuring the three constructs, proposed an acceptable GFI and CFI but a high RMSEA. In order to achieve the exact-fit model, a final model was generated after removing the lowest significant path yielded from the first model. This second model (M₂) consisted of seven items indicating a better fit and a perfect-fit model revealing positive and significant correlations between the three factors (job accomplishment, work nature and job advancement). These results generated from the two models and from exploratory factor analysis support H₄.

Interestingly, the current study shows that frontline employees are concerned about their work values and place great importance on the three work-value factors. Khasawneh (2010), however, arrived at a different conclusion when he examined the work values
among university students from various academic disciplines who were enrolled in educational culture and vocational education courses at Hashemite University in Jordan and found that part of the student were concerned about the values.

Another interesting finding from the current study is that frontline employees working in variant sectors (insurance, finance, services, accounting industry and Agriculture) in Jordan agree on the three managerial work value factors (job accomplishment, work nature, and job advancement) which are supported by current work value literature. Nevertheless, Askun et al. (2010) conclude differently in their study on understanding managerial work values among managers from six different regions in Turkey. They find that the three most held work values are integrity, doing work with care and discipline, and achievement, and that the three least held values were cliquishness, laziness, and hypocrisy.

Moreover, the current study reveals interesting findings on the relationship of employees’ work values with organisational and demographic variables. The current study shows a negative and positive significant linear relationship between the three work value factors (job accomplishment, work nature, and job advancement) with work experience, educational background, type of business and sector, whereas Askun et al. (2010) find that work experience and educational background among the managers has no significant relationship to work values. In a Taiwanese study, Ho (2006) finds that educational background of Taiwanese nurses has partial relationship to their work values. The study in the Middle East by Robertson et al. (2001) find that both Kuwait and Oman appear to be more susceptible to influences by internal and external sources, while Saudi Arabia is more persistent and committed to their own values. Interestingly, the findings of the current study show that the frontline employees are concerned about their work values.
To conclude, the findings from the current study highlight the necessity for the implementation of a practical approach to investigate employees’ work values in different work settings. For example, the current three-factor solution model could be used in other work-values related studies. The current study reported in this paper was undertaken using a sample of frontline employees working in different sectors in Jordan. It is deemed that the psychometric properties of the model in future research with different samples may require revision, which will enhance the model value in various managerial contexts.

4.7 Analysis of the Fifth Construct: Intention to Quit

The current study was undertaken to provide a stronger focus on employees’ intention to quit based on the past studies and theoretical background available, and to investigate the factors affecting intention to quit among frontline employees by testing a more comprehensive structural model. Research and studies examining employees’ intention to quit in Jordan and Arab countries are quite a recent phenomenon and research in this area is also inadequate in both scope and application. Subsequently the current study was proposed to examine the intention of employees to stay or leave their organisation and to identify potential future directions for more empirical research. In order to determine whether the employee intention to quit scale had a valid factor structure, EFA and CFA were employed in this study. EFA was applied to examine the employees’ intention to quit factorial structure according to the data collected from respondents within the Jordanian organisations, and CFA was performed to confirm the original structure of intention to quit scale in the Jordanian culture.
4.7.1 Exploratory factor analysis

Factor analysis was performed to verify any variables with increased correlation as a result of overlapping variation between them. Leeﬂang et al. (2000) suggest employing factor analysis to investigate the structure of overlapping variation between predictors. In order to determine the underlying dimensions, factors based on the latent root orientation (Eigenvalue), total variance explained, and correlation matrix were determined using SPSS 17. Given the indeterminate nature of the factor structure, this study employed Principal Component Analysis as a well-established technique for dimensionality reduction using VARIMAX rotation to extract factors. This technique is also well-accepted as a means of finding underlying dimensions in variable sets and has been widely used (e.g. Hair et al., 2006; Jolliffe, 1986; Valicer, 1976). Cronbach alpha coefficients were also employed to determine the reliability of the instrument (Cronbach, 1951). According to Hair et al. (1998) factor loadings equal to 0.40 or greater are considered practically significant. This recommendation was followed for the purpose of this study.

Table 4.18 demonstrates the results of factor structure for the three sub-scales indicating intention to quit, the factor loadings for each item, their respective reliability, coeﬃcient and their subjective interrelations. The three sub-scales emerging from the analysis demonstrated an acceptable Cronbach alpha (α = 0.88) and a high factor loading and correlation values. The first factor (work opportunities) showed a high factor loading on items which were associated with the study. This factor had the highest explanatory power, explaining 25.3% of the variance. The Bartlett test of sphericity chi-square $\chi^2 = 3838.96$ showed significant correlation amongst a number of variables at p < 0.00.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor Constructs</th>
<th>Scale Items</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Variance explained</th>
<th>α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work Opportunities (WO)</strong></td>
<td>WO1 Leaving organisation</td>
<td>.794</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>WO2 Job opportunities</td>
<td>.874</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>WO6 Day dreaming</td>
<td>.940</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>WO7 Better offer</td>
<td>.940</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>WO9 Own business</td>
<td>.822</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Personal Needs (PN)</strong></td>
<td>PN3 Personal needs</td>
<td>.880</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PN4 Own goals</td>
<td>.815</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PN5 Personal values</td>
<td>.714</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PN8 Working day</td>
<td>.581</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PN13 Personal wellbeing</td>
<td>.577</td>
<td>5.42</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Personal Responsibilities (PR)</strong></td>
<td>PR10 Family responsibilities</td>
<td>.949</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PR11 Personal responsibilities</td>
<td>.835</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PR12 Personal issues</td>
<td>.511</td>
<td>5.68</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PR14 Relocating troubles</td>
<td>.532</td>
<td>5.58</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: N = 493, Extraction method: Principle Component Analysis (PCA), Rotation method: VARIMAX. KMO .804, Bartlett test (Chi-square) 3838.96.
4.7.2 Confirmatory factor analysis

Having established the valid factor structure for intention to quit variables, CFA was employed to further investigate the latent structure of the factors. Data was processed and analysed using LISREL 8.80. CFA was performed to confirm the original scale structure in the Jordanian setting and to evaluate the distinctiveness of the three measures according to the data collected from the employees within Jordanian organisations. In total, 14 items were used to express the respondents’ feelings. Five items measured work opportunities (WO1, WO2, WO6, WO7, and WO9); five items reflected personal needs (PN3, PN4, PN5, PN8, and PN13) and four items measured personal responsibilities (PR10, PR11, PR12, and PR14).

Absolute fit indices determine how well the model fits the sample data and which model represents the superior fit, with RMSEA cut-off points below 0.05 representing a perfect-fit and in the range of 0.05 to 0.10 an indication of fair fit (Hooper et al., 2008). Based on the overall goodness of fit (GFI) statistics, the three-factor model yielded a good fit statistics after removing the items with the lowest coefficient values. Table 4.19 shows the iteration process to achieve GFI for the three variables. The first model (M1) consisted of all 14 items measuring the three factors, and yielded an acceptable GFI and Comparative Fit Index (CFI). Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was high, representing the possibility of improvement to the measurement model (GFI = 0.87, CFI = 0.90, RMSEA = 0.13).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural Path</th>
<th>M₁ Std. Loadings</th>
<th>M₁ T values</th>
<th>M₂ Std. Loadings</th>
<th>M₂ T values</th>
<th>M₃ Std. Loadings</th>
<th>M₃ T values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IQ → WO1</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>28.57**</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>28.96**</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>29.16**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ → WO2</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>26.93**</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>27.12**</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>27.86**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ → WO6</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>18.45**</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ → WO7</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>18.02**</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ → WO9</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>21.88**</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>21.98**</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ → PN3</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>24.54**</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>24.14**</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>24.23**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ → PN4</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>23.94**</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>23.91**</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>23.96**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ → PN5</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>21.63**</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>21.99**</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ → PN8</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>21.12**</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>21.78**</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ → PN13</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>19.31**</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ → PR10</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>23.69**</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>23.99**</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>24.79**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ → PR11</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>22.32**</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>22.98**</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>23.28**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ → PR12</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>18.81**</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ → PR14</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>18.32**</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: WO (work opportunities), PN (personal needs), PR (personal responsibilities) * p≤ 0.01, **p≤ 0.05
A re-specification process was conducted to find a better fit model. Thus all non-significant paths such as three items belonging to work opportunities (WO6, WO7, and WO9), one item from personal needs (PN13) and two items pertaining to personal responsibilities (PR12, and PR14) were dropped from M1. The second model (M2) consisted of nine items indicating a better fit with an acceptable GFI (GFI = 0.90, CFI = 0.95, and RMSEA = 0.10).

On this basis, a final reduced model (M3) was carried out by dropping another three non-significant items (WO9, PN5, and PN8). M3 produced a three-factor solution model. The revised model displayed a perfect-fit model ($\chi^2 = 25.32 \ p < 0.00030$, CFI = 0.99, GFI = 0.98 and RMSEA = 0.08). Table 4.20 shows the results for the three models. Figure 4.6 displays the path diagram for the final model. The final model (M3) consists of six items measuring employees’ intention to quit support $H_e$. 
### Table 4.20 Goodness of Fit Indices for Intention to Quit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness-of-fit results</th>
<th>M₁</th>
<th>M₂</th>
<th>M₃</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Absolute predictive fit</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square $\chi^2$</td>
<td>325.61 (P = 0.0)</td>
<td>202.14 (P = 0.000)</td>
<td>25.32 (P = 0.0003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees of freedom (df)</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected cross validation index (ECVI)</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Comparative fit</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFI</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NNFI</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMR</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chi-Square=25.32, df=6, P-value=0.00030, RMSEA=0.08

Figure 4.6 Structural Model (M₃) for Intention to Quit
4.7.3 Multiple Regression Analysis

Several studies (see Heather et al., 2011; O'Fallon and Rutherford, 2009) found a relationship between intention to quit and demographic and organisational variables. To examine the influence of organisational factors and demographic variables on employee intention to quit, multiple regression analysis was performed between the three latent factor scores and the predictor variables ( organisational factors and demographic variables). The organisational variables represent sector, type of business and number of employees, while the demographic variables represent age, gender, educational background and work experience. Table 4.21 shows that the latent factor work opportunities had a negative significant relationship with number of employees, sector and years of experience ($\beta = -0.069$, $p < 0.01$) ($\beta = -0.077$, $p < 0.01$) and ($\beta = -0.084$, $p < 0.01$) respectively, and a positive significant relationship with gender ($\beta = 0.061$, $p < 0.01$), age ($\beta = 0.191$, $p < 0.05$), educational background ($\beta = 0.118$, $p < 0.05$) and type of business ($\beta = 0.026$, $p < 0.01$). The adjusted $R^2$ for work opportunities was 0.047. Similarly, a negative significant linear relationship existed between personal needs, number of employees ($\beta = -0.021$, $p < 0.01$), sector ($\beta = -0.038$, $p < 0.01$) and years of experience ($\beta = -0.068$, $p < 0.01$). A positive relationship appeared between gender ($\beta = 0.024$, $p < 0.01$), age ($\beta = 0.281$, $p < 0.05$), educational background ($\beta = 0.181$, $p < 0.05$) type of business ($\beta = 0.007$, $p < 0.01$) and personal needs. A positive significant relationship also appeared between personal responsibilities and gender ($\beta = 0.112$, $p < 0.05$), age ($\beta = 0.137$, $p < 0.05$), educational background ($\beta = 0.267$, $p < 0.05$) and type of business ($\beta = 0.017$, $p < 0.01$). On the other hand, the results show a negative significant linear relationship between personal responsibilities and number of employees, sector and years of experience ($\beta = -0.061$, $p < 0.01$) ($\beta = -0.034$, $p < 0.01$) and ($\beta = -0.042$, $p < 0.01$) respectively.
Table 4.21 Multiple Regression Analysis for Intention to Quit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Work Opportunities</th>
<th>Personal Needs</th>
<th>Personal Responsibilities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( \beta )</td>
<td>( t )</td>
<td>( \beta )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (Constant)</td>
<td>-1.154</td>
<td>-2.101</td>
<td>-2.774</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.061*</td>
<td>1.381</td>
<td>.024*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.191**</td>
<td>4.265</td>
<td>.281**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edu. Background</td>
<td>.118**</td>
<td>2.659</td>
<td>.181**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. Of Employees</td>
<td>-.069*</td>
<td>-1.214</td>
<td>-.021*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sector</td>
<td>-.077*</td>
<td>-1.329</td>
<td>-.038*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Business</td>
<td>.026*</td>
<td>.559</td>
<td>.007*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Exp</td>
<td>-.084*</td>
<td>-1.864</td>
<td>-.068*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Adjusted \( R^2 \) for work opportunities was 0.047, Adjusted \( R^2 \) for personal needs was 0.099, Adjusted \( R^2 \) for personal responsibilities was 0.095. * \( p < 0.01 \), ** \( p < 0.05 \)
4.7.4 Discussion of Intention to Quit

The present study establishes baseline data on the magnitude of intention to quit among frontline employees in Jordanian organisations. It adds to the increasing body of literature on employees’ behaviour and attitudes by investigating the intention to quit level among a sample size of 493 frontline employees from various sectors. One of the main findings is that employees tend to quit because of work opportunities they have outside the organisation, their personal needs and their personal responsibilities. The results help to understand how the three factors (work opportunities, personal needs and personal responsibilities) might influence employees’ intention to quit.

A two-step approach was adopted to explore and examine a theoretical model that investigates the relationship between the three latent factors of intention to quit among frontline employees and to test the fit between the theoretical model and the empirical findings. Factor analysis and EFA were performed to verify any variables with increased correlation and to examine the structure of the three variables according to the data collected from the employees. Having found the valid factor structure for employees’ work-values variables, CFA was employed to evaluate the distinctiveness of the three factors, to further investigate the latent structure of the factors, and to confirm the originality of intention to quit scale structure in Jordanian organisations. The structural equation model outcome presents confirmation and evidence of the nomological network of the latent factors of intention to quit.

Furthermore, the current study examines three plausible alternative models which yielded a three-factor solution model and supported the proposed structure of intention to quit among frontline employees within the Jordanian organisations. The findings reveal that the three factors within intention to quit (work opportunities, personal needs,
and personal responsibilities) are highly correlated. In line with the hypothetical framework, this study examines the application of the intention to quit construct among frontline employees, mainly in predicting their intention to stay or leave the job. An integrated model based on the theoretical background and two hypotheses were simultaneously examined to establish whether there is any interrelationship between the intention to quit factors and to find out the employees’ intention level to stay or leave the organisation. The findings provide convergent confirmation in support of these hypotheses and significant proof supporting the nomological work of intention to quit. The findings emerged from the current study after EFA showed that work opportunities scored the highest factor loading, while personal responsibilities scored the lowest loading of the three factors.

All three factors were processed and submitted to CFA using maximum likelihood estimation. Conventionally, the Chi square statistic was used to assess the fit of the model, with other fit indices also employed, for example CFI, which compared the model against a base line model (Bentler, 1990). The Tucker-Lewis fit index (TLI) or non-normed-fit-index (NNFI) is very robust and relatively sample-size independent (Bentler and Bonnett 1980; Mulaik and Millsap, 2000). Cut-off points and fit indexes applied when employing CFA adhered to recommendations of Hooper et al. (2008) and Hu and Bentler (1999). The fit indexes used in all three iteration processes were the normed fit index (NFI), NNFI, GFI, CFI and RMSEA. Hooper et al. (2008) and Hu and Bentler (1999) argue that the perfect model fit is established when the GFI, NFI and CFI are close to 0.95 or more, and when RMSEA is close to 0.06 or less. Therefore, these three indices were employed and examined.

In the first structural model all three factors in intention to quit (work opportunities, personal needs, and personal responsibilities) reveal a good fit to the data and provide a
realistic correlation between the items. The second iteration development removed the lowest coefficient values within the three factors, producing a second model with acceptable overall model fit statistics yielding an increase in the CFI and a slight decrease in RMSEA. In order to achieve the exact-fit model, the final model was generated after removing the lowest significant path yielded from the second model. It produced a perfect-fit model revealing strong and positive correlations between the three factors and supporting $H_e$.

Interestingly, the current study demonstrates that frontline employees consider quitting if they have good work opportunities outside the organisation, whereas Alam and Mohammad (2009) conclude that Malaysian nurses exhibit a lower level of intention to quit. Another interesting finding from the current study is that frontline Jordanian employees working in variant sectors (insurance, finance, services, accounting industry and agriculture) agree that the three factors of intention to quit (work opportunities, personal needs, and personal responsibilities) contribute significantly to the intention to quit or stay in their organisation. On the other hand, Altarawmneh and Al-Kilani (2010) in their study examining the relationship between HRM and intention to quit in the Jordanian hotel sectors, find that job analysis has a significant effect on intention to quit. However, they find no statistical evidence regarding the effects of other HRM practices on employees’ turnover intentions.

In addition, and importantly, the current study finds a positive and significant relationship between gender, age, and educational background of frontline employees and their intention to quit. On the other hand, Altarawmneh and Al-Kilani (2010) find that more than half of the employees intended to quit their hotel employment in the near future, but there was no relationship between their age and their intention to quit.
Concluding the above discussion, the results emerging from the current study emphasise the need for a practical and advanced approach to examine the employee intention to quit level in different work and cultural settings. For example, the current study yields a three-factor solution model which could be used in other studies on intention to quit. The current study used a sample of frontline employees working in different sectors in Jordan; the psychometric properties of the model in future research with different samples may require revision to enhance the model’s value in various managerial contexts.

4.8 The Relationship between Human Resource Management Practices (HRMP) and Job Satisfaction (JS)

Confirmatory factor analysis was performed to test and investigate the distinctiveness and the relationship between the two constructs (HRM practices and job satisfaction) according to the data collected from the employees within Jordanian organisations. All the variables were processed and submitted to CFA using Maximum Likelihood estimation in LISREL 8.80. Traditionally, the Chi square statistic has been employed to evaluate the fit of the model. However, some other fit indices are also used. For example, Bentler (1990) proposed the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) which compares the model against a base line model. The Tucker-Lewis Fit Index (TLI) or Non-Normed-Fit-Index (NNFI) (Bentler & Bonnett 1980) has been found to be very robust and relatively sample size independent (Mulaik et al. 1989). Therefore, these three indices were employed and examined.

Marsh, Balla & McDonald (1988) stated that fit index ranging from 0.80 to 0.90 have traditionally been used as indicators of a good fit. Whereas, Hu and Bentler (1999) have argued recently that the fit indices should be 0.95 or higher to be considered as an
indicator of a good fit. Lack of fit indices constitutes a second set of fit indices. Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is used since it takes degrees of freedom into account and penalizes less parsimonious models. RMSEA less than 0.05 is perfect, values ranging between 0.06 and 0.1 are acceptable (Browne & Cudeck 1992). To test the proposed relationship between HRM practices and job satisfaction, Anderson and Gerbig’s (1988) two-step latent factor structural equation modelling approach was used. The first model (M1) consists of ten items were used to express the HRM practices. Four items measured recruitment and selection (RS1, RS2, RS3, RS4); two items reflected training and development (TD1, TD2); two items measured performance appraisal (PA2, PA3), and two items reflected rewards and benefits (RB1, RB2). On the other hand, nine items were employed to express the job satisfaction among frontline employees (JS1, JS4, JS11, JS14, JS25, JS28, JS29, JS32, and JS34). Absolute fit indices determine how well the model fits the sample data and which model represents the superior fit (Hooper, Coughian & Mullen, 2008). Based on the overall goodness of fit (GFI) statistics, the two-factor final model measuring the impact of HRM practices on job satisfaction yielded perfect fit statistics, after removing the items reflecting the lowest coefficient values. These constructs were allowed to freely correlate, so that model fit indices reflected the adequacy of the proposed relationships between the constructs and their indicators. The first model (M1) yielded an acceptable GFI and CFI. However, RMSEA was high representing a possibility of improvement to the measurement model (GFI = 0.85, CFI = 0.80, RMSEA = 0.2).

A re-specification was conducted in order to find a better fit model. Thus all non-significant paths such as two items belonging to performance appraisal (PA2, PA3), two items from rewards and benefits (RB1, RB2) and six items pertaining to job satisfaction (JS4, JS14, JS25, JS29, JS32, and JS34) were dropped from M1. The final model (M2)
consisted of six items measuring HRM practices; four items measured recruitment and selection (RS1, RS2, RS3, RS4); two items reflected training and development (TD1, TD2). Three items measured job satisfaction (JS1, JS11, and JS28). M2 was then developed and produced a better-fit model ($\chi^2 = 108.87$ $p < 0.10$, CFI = 0.97, GFI = 0.95, NFI = 0.96, RMR = 0.1, SRMR = 0.08, and RMSEA = 0.1). According to Hooper et al., (2008) and Browne and Cudeck (1992) RMSEA cut-off points below 0.05 represent a perfect-fit and in the range of 0.06 to 0.10 are considered as an indication of acceptable and fair fit.

The final model (M2) revealed an interesting finding showing that the HRM practices (recruitment and selection) including four items; (RS1: The recruitment and selection processes in this organisation are impartial $\Delta\chi^2 = 1.35; p < .005$) (RS2: Favouritism is not evident in any of the recruitment decisions made here $\Delta\chi^2 = 1.35; p < .005$) (RS3: Interview panels are used during the recruitment and selection process in this organisation $\Delta\chi^2 = 1.53; p < .005$) (RS4: This organisation does not need to pay more attention to the way it recruits people $\Delta\chi^2 = 1.41; p < .005$) and (training and development) consisting of (TD1: My employer encourages me to extend my abilities $\Delta\chi^2 = 0.90; p < .005$) (TD2: This organisation has provided me with training opportunities enabling me to extend my range of skills and abilities $\Delta\chi^2 = 0.70; p < .005$) has a positive impact on employees’ job satisfaction (JS1: I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do $\Delta\chi^2 = 1.50; p < .005$) (JS11: Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted $\Delta\chi^2 = 1.65; p < .005$) (JS28: I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases $\Delta\chi^2 = 1.50; p < .005$). Constraining the path from HRM practices to job satisfaction shows a positive and significant correlation ($\Delta\chi^2 = 0.52; p < .005$) and all path coefficients were significant. This indicates that the recruitment and selection and training and development practices positively affected job satisfaction.
which supported H1. The absolute fit indices for the two-factor solution model were excellent given the number of variables involved resulted in a significant improvement in model fit and all loadings of the measured variables on their respective constructs were statistically significant. As a result, both traditional (Marsh et al., 1988) and contemporary fit criteria (Hu & Bentler, 1999) were met. Therefore, the overall model was well supported and all proposed links were found positively correlated. Table 4.22 shows the iteration process to achieve the perfect fit model representing the relationship between HRM practices and job satisfaction. Table 4.23 shows the structural parameters estimates (β, Std Loadings, t values) for the models and figure 4.7 displays the path diagram for the final model (M2) which shows the relationship between recruitment and selection and training and development with job satisfaction among the frontline employees in Jordanian organisations.
### Table 4.22 Confirmatory factor analysis: Goodness-of-Fit indices for HRMP and JS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness-of-fit results</th>
<th>M₁</th>
<th>M₂</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Absolute predictive fit</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square $\chi^2$</td>
<td>4531.2 (p&lt;0.01)</td>
<td>108.87 (p&lt;0.01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees of freedom (df)</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected cross validation index (ECVI)</td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Comparative fit</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFI</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NNFI</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMR</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.23 Structural Parameters Estimates for the Three Models of HRMP and JS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural Path</th>
<th>M₁</th>
<th>M₂</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std Loadings</td>
<td>t values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM Practices</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP → RS1</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP → RS2</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP → RS3</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP → RS4</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP → TD1</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP → TD2</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP → PA2</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP → PA3</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP → RB1</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.0007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP → RB2</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS → JS1</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS → JS4</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS → JS11</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS → JS14</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS → JS25</td>
<td>-0.86</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS → JS28</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS → JS29</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS → JS32</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS → JS34</td>
<td>-0.91</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Items with lowest coefficient values * M₂: four lowest value items removed from HRMP (PA2, PA3, RB1, and RB2) six lowest items removed from JS (JS4, JS14, JS25, JS29, JS32, and JS34). Note: **p < 0.05, β denotes Standardized coefficient.
Note: All correlations are significant at (p<0.05). All factor loadings are significant at (p<0.05).

**Figure 4.7 Structural Model (M2) The Relationship between HRM Practice and JS**
4.8.1 Discussion of the Relationship between HRMP and JS

The current study adds to the rising body of literature on HRM by investigating and examining the relationship between HRM practices and job satisfaction. The current study clearly found that two practices of HRM practices (recruitment and selection, and training and development) have a positive and significant impact on the employees’ job satisfaction. The workforce tends to be satisfied when their organisations employ an effective recruitment and selection, and training and development practices (Mudor and Tooksoon, 2011; Petrescu and Simmons, 2008; Steijn, 2002).

The primary objective of the current study is to measure and examine the relationship between HRM practices and job satisfaction. Interestingly, recruitment and selection and training and development were found to be the most considerable variables affecting employees’ satisfaction with the significant correlation ($\Delta\chi^2 = 0.52; p < .005$) which accepted $H_1$. This result is consistent with consequences of (Carraher, 2011; Petrescu and Simmons, 2008; Bradley et al., 2004) results. Carraher, 2011 and Petrescu and Simmons, 2008 found that recruiting and training the employees provide various benefits to the organisations such as; increase job satisfaction, enhance the productivity and increase the level of employees’ intention to stay. In the current study, recruitment and selection practice was found to be the first crucial practice affecting job satisfaction. Recruitment and selection may also assist the organisation to develop an effective environment through recruiting and selecting the talented and high skilled people which may improve the innovation, the work cultures and values (Turkyilmaz, Akman, Ozkan, and Pastuszak, 2011). On the other hand, training and development was found to be the second most important factor has a positive impact on employees’ satisfaction. Job satisfaction can be influenced by the quality of training programmes offered by the organisation (Steijn, 2005). Training and development practice plays a crucial role in
the success of the organisation by identifying the missing skills and determining advance training programmes to ensure that the employees within the system are capable of carrying out their assigned tasks (Dabicˇ, 2011; Dessler, 2007). Implication of this finding is that practitioners, managers and executive leaders in Jordanian organisations should provide more substance to HRM practices such as; recruitment and selection and training and development as these practices contributes significantly in enhances motivation of the employees and job satisfaction.

4.9 The Relationship between Human Resource Management Practices (HRMP) and Organisational Commitment (OC)

Anderson and Gerbig (1988) two-step latent factor structural equation modelling approach was used to test the proposed relationship and the influence of HRM practices on organisational commitment. The first model (M₁) consists of ten items were used to express the HRM practices. Four items measured recruitment and selection (RS1, RS2, RS3, RS4); two items reflected training and development (TD1, TD2); two items measured performance appraisal (PA2, PA3), and two items reflected rewards and benefits (RB1, RB2). On the other hand, three subscales; affective commitment (AOC2, AOC6), continuance commitment (COC2, COC5) and normative commitment (NOC2, NOC6) expressed the organisational commitment among frontline employees. Based on the overall GFI statistics, the final two-factor solution model measuring the influence of HRM practices on organisational commitment yielded a good fit statistics, after removing the items representing the lowest coefficient path values. Both constructs (HRM practices and organisational commitment) were allowed to freely correlate, so that model fit indices reflected the adequacy of the proposed relationships between the constructs and their indicators (see Table 4.24). The first model (M₁) proposed an
acceptable GFI = 0.85, CFI = 0.89, NFI = 0.89, and RMSEA = 0.1 representing an
opportunity of improvement to the structural model.

Removing and deleting the low significant indicators is the preferred solution for poor
fitting models (Anderson & Gerbing 1988). On this basis, respecification process was
needed in order to find a better fit model. Accordingly all non-significant coefficients
paths such as two items were removed from performance appraisal (PA2, PA3), two
items were deleted from rewards and benefits (RB1, RB2), and one indicator (COC2)
were dropped from continuance commitment from M1. The modified final measurement
model (M2) composed of six items measuring HRM practices; four items measured
recruitment and selection (RS1, RS2, RS3, RS4); two items reflected training and
development (TD1, TD2). Five items measured organisational commitment (AOC2,
AOC6, COC5, NOC2, and NOC6). M2 was then proposed and produced a better-fit
model (χ² = 298.96 (P = 0.0), CFI = 0.96, GFI = 0.95, NFI = 0.96, RMR = 0.086,
SRMR = 0.034, and RMSEA = 0.09). According to Hooper et al., (2008) and Browne
and Cudeck (1992) RMSEA cut-off points below 0.05 represent a perfect-fit and in the
range of 0.06 to 0.10 are considered as an indication of acceptable and fair fit.

The final model (M2) yielded an interesting and remarkable results showing that the
HRM practices (recruitment and selection) including four items; (RS1: The recruitment
and selection processes in this organisation are impartial Δχ² = 1.35; p < .005) (RS2:
Favouritism is not evident in any of the recruitment decisions made here Δχ² = 1.35; p <
.005) (RS3: Interview panels are used during the recruitment and selection process in
this organisation Δχ² = 1.53; p < .005) (RS4: This organisation does not need to pay
more attention to the way it recruits people Δχ² = 1.41; p < .005) and (training and
development) consisting of (TD1: My employer encourages me to extend my abilities
Δχ² = 0.90; p < .005) (TD2: This organisation has provided me with training
opportunities enabling me to extend my range of skills and abilities $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.70; p < .005$) has a positive impact on organisational commitment (AOC2: I really feel as if this organisation’s problems are my own $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.85; p < .005$) (AOC6: This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.66; p < .005$) (COC5: If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.06; p < .005$) (NOC2: Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.84; p < .005$) (NOC6: I owe a great deal to my organisation $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.76; p < .005$). Confining the path from HRM practices to organisational commitment shows a positive and significant correlation ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.57; p < .005$) and all path coefficients were significant. This indicates that the three types of organisational commitment are positively affected by the recruitment and selection and training and development practices which supported H2. The absolute fit indices for the two-factor solution model were excellent given the number of variables involved resulted in a significant improvement in model fit and all loadings of the measured variables on their respective constructs were statistically significant. As a result, both traditional (Marsh et al., 1988) and contemporary fit criteria (Hu & Bentler, 1999) were met. Therefore, all proposed links were found positively correlated. Table 4.25 shows the structural parameters estimates ($\beta$, Std Loadings, t values) for the first and final models and figure 4.8 displays the path diagram for the final model (M2) which shows the relationship between recruitment and selection and training and development with organisational commitment among the frontline employees in Jordanian organisations.
### Table 4.24 Confirmatory factor analysis: Goodness-of-Fit indices for HRM and OC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness-of-fit results</th>
<th>M₁</th>
<th>M₂</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Absolute predictive fit</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square $\chi^2$</td>
<td>857.2 (P=0.00)</td>
<td>298.96 (P = 0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees of freedom (df)</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected cross validation index (ECVI)</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Comparative fit</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFI</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NNFI</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMR</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 4.25 Structural Parameters Estimates for the Models HRMP and OC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural Path</th>
<th>( \text{M}_1 )</th>
<th>( \text{M}_2 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( \beta )</td>
<td>Std Loadings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>HRM Practices</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP ( \rightarrow ) RS1</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP ( \rightarrow ) RS2</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP ( \rightarrow ) RS3</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP ( \rightarrow ) RS4</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP ( \rightarrow ) TD1</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP ( \rightarrow ) TD2</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP ( \rightarrow ) PA2</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP ( \rightarrow ) PA3</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP ( \rightarrow ) RB1</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.0003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP ( \rightarrow ) RB2</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organisational Commitment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC ( \rightarrow ) AOC2</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC ( \rightarrow ) AOC6</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC ( \rightarrow ) COC2</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC ( \rightarrow ) COC5</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC ( \rightarrow ) NOC2</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC ( \rightarrow ) NOC6</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Items with lowest coefficient values *\( M_2 \): four lowest value items removed from HRMP (PA2, PA3, RB1, and RB2) one lowest item removed from OC (COC2). **\( p < 0.05 \), \( \beta \) denotes Standardized coefficient.
Note: All correlations are significant at (p<0.05). All factor loadings are significant at (p<0.05).

Figure 4.8 Measurement Model (M_2) The Relationship between HRMP and OC
4.9.1 Discussion of the Relationship between HRMP and OC

The current study has empirically examined the impact of human resource management practices on the three component of organisational commitment (affective, continuance and normative commitment) among frontline employees in the Jordanian organisations. The findings revealed that only two HRM practices (recruitment and selection and training and development) have a significant impact on the employees’ commitment. Moreover, Smeenk, Eisinga, Teelken and Doorewaard (2006) came with supported results when they conducted a study to find out the effect of HRM practices on organisational commitment among Dutch university employees and found that training and development practice has a significant influence on organisational commitment. Whereas, Hemdi (2009) investigated the employees’ commitment level in the Malaysian hotels and reached to a conclusion showing that training and development has a mediate relationship with organisational commitment. Surprisingly, Chew and Chan (2008) came with a different result when they conducted a study to examine the impacts of key human resource (HR) practices on permanent employees’ organizational commitment and intention to stay and found that training and career development was not significantly related to organizational commitment.

Numerous researchers and studies have investigated and examined the relationships between human resource management practices and organizational commitment. For example, in an individual-level analysis, Paul and Anantharaman (2004) demonstrated that human resource management practices had a significant positive relationship with organizational commitment in a study of software professionals in India. Human resource management systems have also been found to influence the commitment level in samples of frontline employees from car rental, retail, and hospitality organisations in South America (Browning 2006). Payne and Huffman (2005) found in a longitudinal
study that organisational commitment mediated the relationship between mentoring, a human resource management practice in the organisation studied, and employee intention to quit over time. In a unit-level study, Wright, Gardner, and Moynihan (2003) found a positive relationship between human resource management practices and organisational commitment in a study of fifty business units from a large food service corporation. In a different cross cultural study, Luan and Wang (2008) conducted a study in China to distinguish the perceptions of Chinese employees on human resource management practices adopted by private-owned information technology enterprises and investigated the effect of these practices on organizational commitment employing a sample of 610 employees. Luan and Wang (2008) training and development, recruitment and selection, had positive effect on IT employees’ organizational commitment.

4.10 The Relationship between Human Resource Management Practices (HRMP) and Work Values (WV)

Anderson and Gerbig (1988) two-step latent factor structural equation modelling approach was used to test the proposed relationship and the influence of HRM practices on work values. The first model (M₁) consists of ten items were used to express the HRM practices. Four items measured recruitment and selection (RS1, RS2, RS3, RS4); two items reflected training and development (TD1, TD2); two items measured performance appraisal (PA2, PA3), and two items reflected rewards and benefits (RB1, RB2). On the other hand, seven items reflecting work values (WV1, WV2, WV4, WV5, WV6, WV7, and WV9) among frontline employees. Based on the overall GFI statistics, the final two-factor solution model measuring the relationship between HRM practices and work values yielded a perfect fit statistics, after removing the items representing the lowest coefficient path values. Both constructs (HRM practices and work values) were
allowed to freely correlate, so that model fit indices reflected the adequacy of the proposed relationships between the constructs and their indicators (see Table 4.26). The first model \( (M_1) \) proposed an acceptable GFI = 0.85, CFI = 0.87, NFI = 0.86, and RMSEA = 0.1 representing an opportunity of improvement to the measurement model. Accordingly, respecification process was needed in order to find a better fit model. Therefore, the lowest and non-significant coefficients paths such as two items were removed from performance appraisal (PA2, PA3), two items were deleted from rewards and benefits (RB1, RB2), and three indicators (WV6, WV7, and WV9) were dropped from work values in the first model \( (M_1) \). The modified and final structural model \( (M_2) \) composed of six items measuring HRM practices; four items measured recruitment and selection (RS1, RS2, RS3, RS4); two items reflected training and development (TD1, TD2); and four items measured work values (WV1, WV2, WV4, and WV5). Table 4.27 shows the structural parameters estimates (\( \beta \), Std Loadings, t values) for the first \( (M_1) \) and final model \( (M_2) \). The second model \( (M_2) \) proposed a perfect-fit model \( (\chi^2 = 35.97 (P = 0.011), CFI = 1.00, GFI = 0.98, NFI = 0.99, RMR = 0.021, SRMR = 0.026, \) and RMSEA = 0.04). The final model \( (M_2) \) yielded an interesting findings showing that the HRM practices (recruitment and selection) including four items; (RS1: The recruitment and selection processes in this organisation are impartial \( \Delta \chi^2 = 1.35; \) \( p < .005 \)) (RS2: Favouritism is not evident in any of the recruitment decisions made here \( \Delta \chi^2 = 1.34; \) \( p < .005 \)) (RS3: Interview panels are used during the recruitment and selection process in this organisation \( \Delta \chi^2 = 1.54; \) \( p < .005 \)) (RS4: This organisation does not need to pay more attention to the way it recruits people \( \Delta \chi^2 = 1.40; \) \( p < .005 \)) and (training and development) consisting of (TD1: My employer encourages me to extend my abilities \( \Delta \chi^2 = 0.92; \) \( p < .005 \)) (TD2: This organisation has provided me with training opportunities enabling me to extend my range of skills and abilities \( \Delta \chi^2 = 0.71; \) \( p <
.005) has a positive relationship with work values (WV1: Having interesting work to do, from which one can get a personal sense of accomplishment $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.52; p < .005$) (WV2: Knowing that one's job is secure $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.47; p < .005$) (WV4: Having little stress on the job $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.38; p < .005$) (WV5: Being free to implement one's own approach to the job $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.45; p < .005$) (table 4.27). The path from HRM practices to work values shows a non-significant correlation ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.07; p < .005$). This indicates that the two practices of HRM (recruitment and selection and training and development) have no significant and correlated relationship with the employees’ work values which reject H3. Therefore, both traditional (Marsh et al., 1988) and contemporary fit criteria (Hu & Bentler, 1999) were met. Figure 4.9 displays the path diagram and the correlation between the two constructs in the final model ($M_2$).
Table 4.26 Goodness-of-Fit Indices for HRMP and WV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness-of-fit results</th>
<th>Chi-square $\chi^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>NFI</th>
<th>NNFI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>GFI</th>
<th>SRMR</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M&lt;sub&gt;1&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>1047.2 (P=0.00)</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M&lt;sub&gt;2&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>35.97 (P=0.011)</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.026</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.27 Structural Parameters Estimates for the Models HRMP and WV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural Path</th>
<th>M₁</th>
<th>M₂</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>Std Loadings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>HRM Practices</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP → RS1</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP → RS2</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP → RS3</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP → RS4</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP → TD1</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP → TD2</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP → PA2</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.0089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP → PA3</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP → RB1</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.00033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP → RB2</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work Values</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → WV1</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → WV2</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → WV4</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → WV5</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → WV6</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → WV7</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → WV9</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Items with lowest coefficient values * M₂: four lowest value items removed from HRMP (PA2, PA3, RB1, and RB2) three lowest items removed from WV (WV6, WV7, and WV9). Note: **p < 0.05, \(\beta\) denotes Standardized coefficient
Note: All factor loadings are significant at (p<0.05).

**Figure 4.9 Structural Model (M2) The Relationship between HRMP and WV**
4.10.1 Discussion for the Relationship between HRMP and WV

The effort to obtain power and position in a group of employees represents the motive to get ahead in the organisation. Therefore, the common motive to get ahead is embodied in the work values of organisations, and the general motive to get along is represented in the work environment by the work values of colleagues, managerial and supervisory relationships. In this respect; Blickle et al., (2011) argues that, employees with a strong motivation for development and enhancement tend to act in ways that are socially visible because they desire to be perceived as important to the group and influential and powerful.

The current study revealed an interesting findings which demonstrated that the HRM practices has no significant relationship or impact on the employees’ with work values ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.07; p < .005$). This indicates that the two practices of HRM (recruitment and selection and training and development) have no significant and correlated relationship with the employees’ work values rejecting H$_3$. The findings from the current study are consistent with (Lu and Lin, 2002) when they found that the employees’ work values were correlated with job satisfaction but not correlated with the human resources practices. Whereas, Chandrakumara and Sparrow (2004) found a low correlation between employees’ work values and human resource practices such as; systematic recruitment system and performance management system concerned with both performance and qualifications based rewards with generic training preferences. In a another study, Khasawneh (2010) found that the human recourses possess significant and fundamental work values that will enable them to be successful in their future work but the study shows no significant impact and correlation between the HRM practices and work values. In a different cross cultural study in North-eastern Mexico, Arciniega
and González (2002) that work values occupy less important place on the development of organizational commitment and shows no correlation with human resource practices.

4.11 The Relationship between Human Resource Management Practices (HRMP) and Intention to Quit (IQ)

Anderson and Gerbig (1988) two-step latent factor structural equation modelling approach was used to test the proposed relationship and the influence of HRM practices on intention to quit. The first model (M₁) consists of ten items were used to express the HRM practices. Four items measured recruitment and selection (RS1, RS2, RS3, RS4); two items reflected training and development (TD1, TD2); two items measured performance appraisal (PA2, PA3), and two items reflected rewards and benefits (RB1, RB2). On the other hand, six items reflecting intention to quit (IQ1, IQ2, IQ3, IQ4, IQ10, and IQ11) among frontline employees. Based on the overall GFI statistics, the final two-factor solution model measuring the relationship between HRM practices and intention to quit yielded a perfect fit statistics, after removing the items representing the lowest coefficient path values. Both constructs (HRM practices and intention to quit) were allowed to freely correlate, so that model fit indices reflected the adequacy of the proposed relationships between the constructs and their indicators (see Table 4.28). The first model (M₁) proposed an acceptable GFI = 0.87, CFI = 0.87, NFI = 0.85, and RMSEA = 0.1 representing an opportunity of improvement to the measurement model. Accordingly, respecification process was needed in order to find a better fit model. Therefore, the lowest and non-significant coefficients paths such as two items were removed from performance appraisal (PA2, PA3); two items were deleted from rewards and benefits (RB1, RB2). The modified and final measurement model (M₂) composed of six items measuring HRM practices; four items measured recruitment and selection (RS1, RS2, RS3, RS4); two items reflected training and development (TD1, TD2); and
six items measured intention to quit among frontline employees. Table 4.29 shows the structural parameters estimates ($\beta$, Std Loadings, t values) for the first ($M_1$) and final model ($M_2$). The second model ($M_2$) proposed a perfect-fit model ($\chi^2 = 160.40$ ($P = 0.0$), $CFI = 0.97$, $GFI = 0.95$, $NFI = 0.96$, $RMR = 0.09$, $SRMR = 0.05$, and $RMSEA = 0.08$). The final model ($M_2$) yielded an interesting findings showing that there is no significant relationship between HRM practices (recruitment and selection) including four items; (RS1: The recruitment and selection processes in this organisation are impartial $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.35$; $p < .005$) (RS2: Favouritism is not evident in any of the recruitment decisions made here $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.34$; $p < .005$) (RS3: Interview panels are used during the recruitment and selection process in this organisation $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.54$; $p < .005$) (RS4: This organisation does not need to pay more attention to the way it recruits people $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.40$; $p < .005$) and (training and development) consisting of (TD1: My employer encourages me to extend my abilities $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.92$; $p < .005$) (TD2: This organisation has provided me with training opportunities enabling me to extend my range of skills and abilities $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.71$; $p < .005$) and intention to quit (IQ1: How often have you considered leaving your current job? $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.78$; $p < .005$) (IQ2: How frequently do you scan newspapers for job opportunities? $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.82$; $p < .005$) (IQ3: To what extent is your current job not addressing your important personal needs? $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.86$; $p < .005$) (IQ4: How often are opportunities to achieve your most important goals at work jeopardized? job $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.64$; $p < .005$) (IQ10: How often do only family responsibilities preventing you from quitting? $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.42$; $p < .005$) (IQ11: How often do only vested personal interest (pension fund, unemployment fund, etc.) prevent you from quitting? $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.55$; $p < .005$) (table 4.30). Confining the path from HRM practices to intention to quit shows a non-significant relationship between the two constructs ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.02$; $p < .005$). This indicates that the two practices of HRM (recruitment and selection and training and
development) have no significant and direct relationship with the employees’ intention to quit which rejected $H_4$. Therefore, both traditional (Marsh et al., 1988) and contemporary fit criteria (Hu & Bentler, 1999) were met. Figure 4.10 displays the path diagram and the correlation between the two constructs in the final model ($M_2$).
Table 4.28 Confirmatory factor analysis: Goodness-of-Fit indices for HRMP and IQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness-of-fit results</th>
<th>M₁</th>
<th>M₂</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absolute predictive fit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square $\chi^2$</td>
<td>857.2 (P=0.00)</td>
<td>160.40 (P = 0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees of freedom (df)</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected cross validation index (ECVI)</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative fit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFI</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NNFI</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMR</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.29 Structural Parameters Estimates for the Models of HRMP and IQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural Path</th>
<th>$M_1$</th>
<th>$M_2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\beta$</td>
<td>Std Loadings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM Practices</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP $\rightarrow$ RS1</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP $\rightarrow$ RS2</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP $\rightarrow$ RS3</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP $\rightarrow$ RS4</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP $\rightarrow$ TD1</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP $\rightarrow$ TD2</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP $\rightarrow$ PA2</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP $\rightarrow$ PA3</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP $\rightarrow$ RB1</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.0003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP $\rightarrow$ RB2</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to Quit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ $\rightarrow$ IQ1</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ $\rightarrow$ IQ2</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ $\rightarrow$ IQ3</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ $\rightarrow$ IQ4</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ $\rightarrow$ IQ10</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ $\rightarrow$ IQ11</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Items with lowest coefficient values * $M_2$: four lowest value items removed from HRMP (PA2, PA3, RB1, and RB2) **p < 0.05, $\beta$ denotes Standardized coefficient.
Figure 4.10 Structural Model (M₂) the Relationship between HRMP and IQ

Note: All correlations are significant at (p<0.05). All factor loadings are significant at (p<0.05).
4.11.1 Discussion of the Relationship between HRMP and IQ

As hypothesized it was found in the current study that the human resource management practices (recruitment and selection, and training and development) have no significant impact on employees' intention to quit. The structural model examined the impact and the relationship between HRM practices and intention to quit resulting a non significant relationship between the two constructs ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.02; p < .005$). This indicates that the two practices of HRM have no significant and direct relationship with the employees’ intention to quit. The findings emerged from the current study were consistent with Abeysekera (2007) which investigated the impact of human resource management practices on marketing executive turnover of leasing organisations in Sri Lanka and found that the human resources practices (job analysis, career development, compensation, realistic job information variables) were negatively and non significant correlated with employees’ intention to quit.

At the same level, Tan (2008) reached to the same conclusion finding that different practices of human resources rewards including benefits and pay raise did not prove to be strong elements and have any impact on employees’ intention to quit. Whereas, Rhoades, Eisenberger and Armeli (2001) examined the impact and relationship between organisational rewards and intention to quit and found a full mediating effect between the two constructs among the Malaysian employees. In another study in Jordan, Altarawmneh and Al-Kilani (2010) found that just one HRM practices (job analysis) had a significant effect on employees’ intention to quit. Nevertheless, they did not find any statistical evidence regarding the impact of other HRM practices on employees’ turnover intentions.
4.12 The Relationship between Job Satisfaction (JS) and Organisational Commitment (OC)

Anderson and Gerbig (1988) two-step latent factor structural equation modelling approach was used to test the proposed relationship and the influence of job satisfaction on organisational commitment. The measurement model (figure 4.11) examined the relationship between employees’ satisfaction and organisational commitment consisting of three items measuring job satisfaction (JS1, JS11, and JS28) and five items measuring organisational commitment level among frontline employees (AOC2, AOC6, COC5, NOC2, and NOC6). Based on the overall GFI statistics, the two-factor solution model yielded a good fit statistics. Both constructs were allowed to freely correlate, so that model fit indices reflected the adequacy of the proposed relationships between the constructs and their indicators. The structural model (M1) proposed and produced an acceptable-fit model ($\chi^2 = 247.23 \text{ (P} = 0.0\text{), CFI} = 0.97, \text{GFI} = 0.95, \text{NFI} = 0.97, \text{RMR} = 0.09, \text{SRMR} = 0.07, \text{and RMSEA} = 0.07$) (table 4.30). According to Hooper et al., (2008) and Browne and Cudeck (1992) RMSEA cut-off points below 0.05 represent a perfect-fit and in the range of 0.06 to 0.10 are considered as an indication of acceptable and fair fit.

The measurement model accepted and supported H5 showing a high significant and positive relationship correlation ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.65; p < .005$) between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Job satisfaction items; (JS1: I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.50; p < .005$) (JS11: Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.65; p < .005$) (JS28: I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.50; p < .005$) and organisational commitment items; (AOC2: I really feel as if this organisation’s problems are my own $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.86; p < .005$) (AOC6: This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me $\Delta \chi^2 =
1.66; p < .005), continuance commitment (COC5: If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.07; p < .005$), normative commitment (NOC2: Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.83; p < .005$) (NOC6: I owe a great deal to my organisation $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.75; p < .005$) (table 4.31). This explains that job satisfaction has a positive and significant influence on the three types of organisational commitment (affective, continuance and normative commitment).
Table 4.30 Goodness-of-Fit Indices for JS and OC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness-of-fit results</th>
<th>Measurement Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Absolute predictive fit</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square $\chi^2$</td>
<td>247.23 ($P = 0.0$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees of freedom (df)</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected cross validation index (ECVI)</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Comparative fit</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFI</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NNFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMR</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.31 Structural Parameters Estimates for the structural Models of JS and OC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural Path</th>
<th>Measurement Model</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Std Loadings</th>
<th>t values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job Satisfaction</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS → JS1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>30.96**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS → JS11</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>29.10**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS → JS28</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>31.06**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organisational Commitment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → AOC2</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>87.90**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → AOC6</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>60.32**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → COC5</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>18.36**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → NOC2</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>86.70**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC → NOC6</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>62.02**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: **p < 0.05, β denotes Standardized coefficient
Note: All correlations are significant at (p<0.05). All factor loadings are significant at (p<0.05).

Figure 4.11 Measurement Model Showing Relationship between JS and OC
4.12.1 Discussion of the Relationship between JS and OC

Examining the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment in the current study yielded that job satisfaction has a positive and significant relationship with employees’ commitment. Low job satisfaction level was the most likely outcome for employees who were uncommitted to their organisations. This explains that job satisfaction plays a considerable role as a predictor for organisational commitment. In Greece, Markovits, Davis and Dick (2007) conducted a study to examine the relationships between job satisfaction and organizational commitment finding that organisational commitment and job satisfaction has a significant relationship. Whereas, a study conducted by Padala (2011) revealed that employees are found to have a positive preference in their concentration of commitment towards their organisations. Also found that employees having a very active contribution in trade union are found to be more satisfied and committed compared to other groups of employees. In another cross cultural study, Al-Aameri (2000) designed a study to examine the level of job satisfaction and organizational commitment for nurses in public hospitals in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. Al-Aameri (2000) found that the nurses in public hospitals are slightly satisfied and committed to their work. Besides, satisfied nurses tend to have a higher degree of commitment than less satisfied ones.

Furthermore, Yousef (2000) investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment and the role of these two constructs in predicting organisational change in United Arab Emirates. Yousef (2000) found that job satisfaction positively and significantly affecting organisational commitment among a sample of 474 employees. In another different study, Tella, Ayeni and Popoola (2007) measured the job satisfaction level and commitment among library staff in Nigeria and
found that a correlation exists between perceived motivation, job satisfaction, and commitment.

4.13 The Relationship between Job Satisfaction (JS) and Work Value (WV)

To test the proposed relationship between job satisfaction and work values, Anderson and Gerbig (1988) two-step latent factor structural equation modelling approach was employed. The structural model (figure 4.12) measured the relationship between job satisfaction and employees’ work values consisting of three items measuring job satisfaction level among frontline employees (JS1, JS11, and JS28), and four items reflecting work values (WV1, WV2, WV4, and WV5). Based on the overall GFI statistics, the two-factor solution model measuring the relationship between job satisfaction and work values yielded a good fit statistics. Both constructs were allowed to freely correlate, so that model fit indices reflected the adequacy of the proposed relationships between the constructs and their indicators. The structural model proposed and produced an acceptable-fit model ($\chi^2 = 269.36$ (P = 0.0), CFI = 0.95, GFI = 0.95, NFI = 0.95, RMR = 0.07, SRMR = 0.09, and RMSEA = 0.09) (see table 4.32). According to Hooper et al., (2008) and Browne and Cudeck (1992) RMSEA cut-off points below 0.05 represent a perfect-fit and in the range of 0.06 to 0.10 are considered as an indication of acceptable and fair fit.

The structural model accepted and supported H6 showing a significant and positive relationship correlation ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.49$; p < .005) between job satisfaction and work values. job satisfaction items; (JS1: I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.50$; p < .005) (JS11: Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.65$; p < .005) (JS28: I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.50$; p < .005), and work values (WV1: Having interesting work to do,
from which one can get a personal sense of accomplishment $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.58; p < .005$) (WV2: Knowing that one's job is secure $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.53; p < .005$) (WV4: Having little stress on the job $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.51; p < .005$) (WV5: Being free to implement one's own approach to the job $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.49; p < .005$) (table 4.33). This indicates that job satisfaction has a significant and direct relationship with employees’ work values in Jordanian organisations. Consequently, both traditional (Marsh et al., 1988) and contemporary fit criteria (Hu & Bentler, 1999) were met. Figure 4.12 displays the path diagram and the correlation between the two constructs in the final model.
Table 4.32 Confirmatory factor analysis: Goodness-of-Fit indices for JS and WV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness-of-fit results</th>
<th>Structural Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Absolute predictive fit</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square $\chi^2$</td>
<td>269.36 (P = 0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees of freedom (df)</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected cross validation index (ECVI)</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Comparative fit</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NNFI</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMR</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.33 Structural Parameters Estimates for the Models of JS and WV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural Path</th>
<th>Structural Model</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Std Loadings</th>
<th>t values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>JS → JS1</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>31.01**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS → JS11</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>29.17**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS → JS28</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>31.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Values</td>
<td>WV → WV1</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>36.20**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → WV2</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>35.29**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → WV4</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>23.11**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → WV5</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>28.85**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: **p < 0.05, β denotes Standardized coefficient
Note: All correlations are significant at (p<0.05). All factor loadings are significant at (p<0.05).

Figure 4.12 Structural Model of JS and WV
4.13.1 Discussion of the Relationship between JS and WV

The current study offers a significant theoretical implication in examining and investigating the relationship between employees’ job satisfaction and their work values. The study contributes to the Middle Eastern literature by emphasising and highlighting the work values’ importance in the work place and providing a guide for future empirical research. The findings from the current research showed that there is a positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and work values ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.49; p < .005$). Ferrell and Hartline (2011) argued that work values can have a long-lasting impact on the employee’s satisfaction, commitment and career development. Simultaneously, Hogarth (2001) undertook a comparative study of work values among teachers which focused on the teachers’ work values, effective methods of gauging them and the influence they had on the teacher’s job satisfaction and professional behaviour. The study concluded that there a direct relationship between the values of devotion and altruism, prestige, security and stability, and the degree of job satisfaction existed.

In China, Wang, Hyde and Hsieh (2010) conducted a study to ascertain the relationship between work values and job satisfaction and their impact on organizational commitment, and intention to quit. The Chinese employees showed that their work values are significantly related to job satisfaction and significantly affecting organisational commitment and intention to quit. In a different cross cultural study in India, Yenagi (2009) came up with same results finding a positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and employees’ work values. Also, Yenagi (2009) study showed that security, surroundings, associates, economic returns and way of life of women teachers had direct effect on their job satisfaction. Whereas, Lather and
Balian (2001) proposed a study to measure the relationship between job satisfaction and work values among managers working in India and found that managers with high job satisfaction gave more preference for the value of pleasure and salvation whereas those low on job satisfaction had greater preference for the values of an exciting life, equality, and social recognition.

### 4.14 The Relationship between Job Satisfaction (JS) and Intention to Quit (IQ)

To test the proposed relationship between job satisfaction and employees’ intention to quit, Anderson and Gerbig’s (1988) two-step latent factor structural equation modelling approach was used. The structural model ($M_1$) examined the relationship between employees’ satisfaction and intention to quit consisting of three items measuring job satisfaction (JS1, JS11, and JS28) and six items (IQ1, IQ2, IQ3, IQ4, IQ10, and IQ11) reflecting intention to quit among the frontline employees. Based on the overall GFI statistics, the two-factor solution model measuring the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit yielded a good fit statistics. Both constructs were allowed to freely correlate, so that model fit indices reflected the adequacy of the proposed relationships between the constructs and their indicators. The structural model ($M_1$) proposed and produced an acceptable-fit model ($\chi^2 = 203.51$ (P = 0.0), CFI = 0.95, GFI = 0.95, NFI = 0.95, RMR = 0.1, SRMR = 0.05, and RMSEA = 0.08) (see table 4.34). According to Hooper et al., (2008) and Browne and Cudeck (1992) RMSEA cut-off points below 0.05 represent a perfect-fit and in the range of 0.06 to 0.10 are considered as an indication of acceptable and fair fit.

The structural model ($M_1$) figure 4.13 accepted and supported $H_7$ showing a high significant and positive relationship correlation ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.65$; $p < .005$) between job satisfaction and intention to quit. Job satisfaction items; (JS1: I feel I am being paid a fair
amount for the work I do $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.50; p < .005$) (JS11: Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.65; p < .005$) (JS28: I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.50; p < .005$) and intention to quit (IQ1: How often have you considered leaving your current job? $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.74; p < .005$) (IQ2: How frequently do you scan newspapers for job opportunities? $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.79; p < .005$) (IQ3: To what extent is your current job not addressing your important personal needs? $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.90; p < .005$) (IQ4: How often are opportunities to achieve your most important goals at work jeopardized? $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.66; p < .005$) (IQ10: How often do only family responsibilities preventing you from quitting? $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.65; p < .005$) (IQ11: How often do only vested personal interest (pension fund, unemployment fund, etc.) prevent you from quitting? $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.73; p < .005$) (table 4.35). Confining the path between job satisfaction and intention to quit in figure 4.14 shows a significant and positive relationship between the two constructs ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.53; p < .005$). This indicates that job satisfaction has a significant and direct relationship with employees’ intention to quit in Jordanian organisations which accepted and supported H2. Consequently, both traditional (Marsh et al., 1988) and contemporary fit criteria (Hu & Bentler, 1999) were met. Figure 4.13 displays the path diagram and the correlation between the two constructs in the final model.
Table 4.34 Confirmatory factor analysis: Goodness-of-Fit indices for JS and IQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness-of-fit results</th>
<th>M₁</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Absolute predictive fit</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square $\chi^2$</td>
<td>203.51 (P = 0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees of freedom (df)</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected cross validation index (ECVI)</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Comparative fit</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NNFI</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMR</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.35 Structural Parameters Estimates for the Models of JS and IQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural Path</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
<th>Std Loadings</th>
<th>t values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job Satisfaction</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS $\rightarrow$ JS1</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>30.99**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS $\rightarrow$ JS11</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>29.13**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS $\rightarrow$ JS28</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>31.03**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intention to Quit</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ $\rightarrow$ IQ1</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>19.72**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ $\rightarrow$ IQ2</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>19.89**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ $\rightarrow$ IQ3</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>20.10**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ $\rightarrow$ IQ4</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>16.24**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ $\rightarrow$ IQ10</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>14.85**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ $\rightarrow$ IQ11</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>15.35**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: **p < 0.05, $\beta$ denotes Standardized coefficient
Note: All correlations are significant at \( p<0.05 \). All factor loadings are significant at \( p<0.05 \).

Figure 4.13 The Measurement Model (M\(_1\)) of JS and IQ
4.14.1 Discussion of the Relationship between JS and IQ

The current study was proposed to investigate the level of job satisfaction and its impact on intention to quit among Jordanian employees. Findings of this study showed a positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.65; p < .005$) explaining that when the employees are low satisfied they have a high intent to leave their work. Alam and Mohammad (2009) supported the current results when they conducted a study to examine the level of job satisfaction and intention to leave among Malaysian nurses and found that job satisfaction is positively and significantly affecting the intention to quit rate. Moreover, Alam and Mohammad (2009) found that the nurses are moderately satisfied with their compensation, co-workers and human resource management practices and as a result demonstrated a perceived low level of their intention to quit the work. A different range of reasons have been well recognized in contributing to the employees’ dissatisfaction in the literature of employees’ behavior and attitudes. For example, the most frequent reasons include poor relations with co-workers, poor benefits, inappropriate supervision, less of involvement in decision making, poor recognition, poor relationship with management, low salaries, lack of job security, and lack of flexibility in work day load (Albaugh, 2003).

Shields & Ward (2001) and Tzeng (2002) argued that job dissatisfaction represents a principal predictor of employees’ intention to quit the organisation. In the USA, Shields & Ward (2001) conducted a study to investigate the job satisfaction level and intention to quit among nurses and found evidences confirming that dissatisfied nurses were sixty five percent more likely to have intention to quit compared to the other satisfied counterparts. On the other hand, El-Jardali, Jamal, Abdallah and Kassak (2007) came with different results when they designed a study to investigate the impact of job
satisfaction on intention to quit among nurses in Lebanon and reached a conclusion showing that job satisfaction has a negative relationship with intention to quit. The findings of El-Jardali et al. (2007) study disclose that the major reason of the dissatisfaction and hence intention to quit was negatively associated with hospital’s compensation and incentives. Also, a number of other predictors of intention to quit vary from low salaries and fringe benefits, inflexible work schedule (Coomber & Barriball, 2007), career advancement prospects, and job stress (Rambur, Val Palumbo, McIntosh and Mongeon, 2003).

4.15 The Relationship between Organisational Commitment (OC) and Work Values (WV)

Anderson and Gerbig (1988) two-step latent factor structural equation modelling approach was used to test the proposed relationship and the influence of organisational commitment on work values. The structural model (M₁) measured the relationship between employees’ commitment and work values consisting of five items measuring the organisational commitment level among frontline employees (AOC2, AOC6, COC5, NOC2, and NOC6), and four items reflecting work values (WV1, WV2, WV4, and WV5). Based on the overall GFI statistics, the two-factor solution model measuring the relationship between organisational commitment and work values yielded a good fit statistics. Both constructs were allowed to freely correlate, so that model fit indices reflected the adequacy of the proposed relationships between the constructs and their indicators. The structural model (M₁) proposed and produced an acceptable-fit model ($\chi^2 = 384.29$ (P = 0.0), CFI = 0.95, GFI = 0.95, NFI = 0.95, RMR = 0.09, SRMR = 0.1, and RMSEA = 0.1) (see table 4.36).
According to Hooper et al., (2008) and Browne and Cudeck (1992) RMSEA cut-off points below 0.05 represent a perfect-fit and in the range of 0.06 to 0.10 are considered as an indication of acceptable and fair fit.

The structural model (M1) figure 4.14 accepted and supported H8 showing a significant and positive relationship correlation ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.47; p < 0.005$) between organisational commitment and work values. Affective commitment (AOC2: I really feel as if this organisation’s problems are my own $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.86; p < 0.005$) (AOC6: This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.66; p < 0.005$), continuance commitment (COC5: If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.07; p < 0.005$), normative commitment (NOC2: Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.83; p < 0.005$) (NOC6: I owe a great deal to my organisation $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.75; p < 0.005$), and work values (WV1: Having interesting work to do, from which one can get a personal sense of accomplishment $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.52; p < 0.005$) (WV2: Knowing that one's job is secure $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.47; p < 0.005$) (WV4: Having little stress on the job $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.39; p < 0.005$) (WV5: Being free to implement one's own approach to the job $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.45; p < 0.005$) (table 4.37). This explains that the three types of organisational commitment (affective, continuance and normative commitment) are having a positively significant relationship with work values.
Table 4.36 Confirmatory factor analysis: Goodness-of-Fit indices for OC and WV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness-of-fit results</th>
<th>M₁</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absolute predictive fit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square $\chi^2$</td>
<td>384.29(P=0.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees of freedom (df)</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected cross validation index (ECVI)</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative fit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NNFI</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMR</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.37 Structural Parameters Estimates for the Models of OC and WV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural Path</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
<th>Std Loadings</th>
<th>t values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organisational Commitment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC $\rightarrow$ AOC2</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>30.85**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC $\rightarrow$ AOC6</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>28.19**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC $\rightarrow$ COC5</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>15.90**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC $\rightarrow$ NOC2</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>29.98**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC $\rightarrow$ NOC6</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>28.42**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work Values</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV $\rightarrow$ WV1</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>35.22**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV $\rightarrow$ WV2</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>34.69**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV $\rightarrow$ WV4</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>21.41**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV $\rightarrow$ WV5</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>29.86**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: **p < 0.05, $\beta$ denotes Standardized coefficient
Note: All correlations are significant at (p<0.05). All factor loadings are significant at (p<0.05).

**Figure 4.14 The Measurement Model (M1) of OC and WV**
4.15.1 Discussion of the Relationship between OC and WV

Organisational commitment has an essential position in the field of employees’ attitudes and organisational behavior (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Koch and Steers, 1978; Angle and Perry, 1981). The current research examined the relationship between organisational commitment and work values. The finding showed that there is a positive and significant relationship ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.47; p < .005$) between the two constructs. In another study, Butler and Vodanovich (1992) found a positive relationship between work values and normative commitment. Sagie, Elizur and Koslowsky (1996) reported that the employees were highly committed to their work when their values were congruent with the supervisor’ or managers’ values. In a study conducted by Chen and Lu (1997), found that the more the employees are committed to their organisations the higher the work value rise. In Taiwan, Ho (2006) found that the work values among nurses were positively correlated to organisational commitment. Knoop (1994a, 1994b, 1994c) found a positive relationship between work values and employees attitudes (job satisfaction and organisational commitment). Moreover, Shore, Thomton and Shore (1990) found that the work values of the Protestant ethic have a positive relationship with organisational commitment.

In the Asian Context, Putti, Aryee and Liang (1989) conducted a study to examined the relationship between work values and organisational commitment and found that the employees’ work values are related closely to their organisational commitment. In a different study in Middle East, Cohen (2007) designed a study to examine the relationship between organizational commitment (occupational commitment, job involvement, work involvement, and group commitment) and work values (individualism collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity)
among five groups of Israeli teachers and found a substantial and positive relationship between the employees’ values and their commitment to the workplace.

4.16 The Relationship between Organisational Commitment (OC) and Intention to Quit (IQ)

To test the proposed relationship and the influence of organisational commitment on intention to quit, Anderson and Gerbig (1988) two-step latent factor structural equation modelling approach was used. In figure (4.15), the structural model measured the relationship between employees’ commitment and intention to quit consisting of five items measuring the organisational commitment level among frontline employees (AOC2, AOC6, COC5, NOC2, and NOC6), and six items reflecting intention to quit (IQ1, IQ2, IQ3, IQ4, IQ10, and IQ11). Based on the overall GFI statistics, the two-factor solution model measuring the relationship between organisational commitment and intention to quit yielded a good fit statistics. Both constructs were allowed to freely correlate, so that model fit indices reflected the adequacy of the proposed relationships between the constructs and their indicators.

The structural model (M1) proposed and produced an acceptable-fit model ($\chi^2 = 171.25$ (P = 0.0), CFI = 0.95, GFI = 0.95, NFI = 0.95, RMR = 0.09, SRMR = 0.07, and RMSEA = 0.05) (table 4.38). According to Hooper et al., (2008) and Browne and Cudeck (1992) RMSEA cut-off points below 0.05 represent a perfect-fit and in the range of 0.06 to 0.10 are considered as an indication of acceptable and fair fit.

The structural model accepted and supported H9 showing a significant and positive relationship correlation ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.52; p < .005$) between organisational commitment and intention to quit. Affective commitment (AOC2: I really feel as if this organisation’s problems are my own $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.86; p < .005$) (AOC6: This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.66; p < .005$), continuance commitment (COC5: If I
had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.07$; $p < .005$), normative commitment (NOC2: Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.83$; $p < .005$) (NOC6: I owe a great deal to my organisation $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.75$; $p < .005$), and intention to quit (IQ1: How often have you considered leaving your current job? $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.78$; $p < .005$) (IQ2: How frequently do you scan newspapers for job opportunities? $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.82$; $p < .005$) (IQ3: To what extent is your current job not addressing your important personal needs? $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.86$; $p < .005$) (IQ4: How often are opportunities to achieve your most important goals at work jeopardized? job $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.64$; $p < .005$) (IQ10: How often do only family responsibilities preventing you from quitting? $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.42$; $p < .005$) (IQ11: How often do only vested personal interest (pension fund, unemployment fund, etc.) prevent you from quitting? $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.55$; $p < .005$) (table 4.39). Confining the path from organisational commitment to intention to quit shows a significant relationship between the two constructs ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.52$; $p < .005$). This indicates that organisational commitment has a significant and direct relationship on employees’ intention to quit.

Therefore, both traditional (Marsh et al., 1988) and contemporary fit criteria (Hu & Bentler, 1999) were met.
Table 4.38 Confirmatory factor analysis: Goodness-of-Fit indices for OC and IQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness-of-fit results</th>
<th>Structural Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Absolute predictive fit</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square $\chi^2$</td>
<td>171.25 (P = 0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees of freedom (df)</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected cross validation index (ECVI)</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Comparative fit</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NNFI</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMR</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.39 Structural Parameters Estimates for the Models of OC and IQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural Path</th>
<th>Structural Model</th>
<th>(\beta)</th>
<th>Std Loadings</th>
<th>t values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organisational Commitment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC (\rightarrow) AOC2</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>31.52**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC (\rightarrow) AOC6</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>29.21**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC (\rightarrow) COC5</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>17.41**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC (\rightarrow) NOC2</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>30.49**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC (\rightarrow) NOC6</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>22.68**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intention to Quit</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ (\rightarrow) IQ1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>21.72**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ (\rightarrow) IQ2</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>21.89**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ (\rightarrow) IQ3</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>20.95**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ (\rightarrow) IQ4</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>18.29**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ (\rightarrow) IQ10</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>17.85**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ (\rightarrow) IQ11</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>15.95**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: **p < 0.05, \(\beta\) denotes Standardized coefficient*
Note: All correlations are significant at (p<0.05). All factor loadings are significant at (p<0.05).

Figure 4.15 The Structural Model of OC and IQ
4.16.1 Discussion of the Relationship between OC and IQ

Many researches and studies have been designed to investigate the major reasons for employees’ intention to quit all over the world. Whereas, this field of employees’ attitudes and behavior still under research in the Middle East and particularly in Jordan. Therefore, the current research was proposed to investigate and examine the relationship between organisational commitment and employees’ intention to quit. The findings emerged from the current research showed a significant and positive relationship correlation ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.52; p < .005$) between the two constructs. Which could be explained as, the high the employees are committed to their work or organisation the less they have intent to quit their job. Employees’ intentions to quit their job have been studied in Jordan in order to determine causes of these intentions. Salary, working environment, management assistance and cooperation, relationships with organisation environment, as well as incentives were analyzed. Findings of the study indicated that the chief cause of employees’ intentions to quit a job in industrial cities is the salary while those situated outside industrial cities is working conditions and organisation environment (Abu Jadayil, 2011). Senter and Martin (2007) conducted a study to find out the factors that influencing the intention to quit level among different groups of part-time workers and found that organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and perceived employment alternatives differentially predict turnover for these part-time groups. In United Arab Emirates, Suliman and Al-Junaibi (2010), designed a study to explore the relationship between the organisational commitment and employees’ intention to quit among employees working in the oil industry. Suliman and Al-Junaibi (2010) reported in the findings that organisational commitment is correlated significantly and negatively with intention to quit. In another cross cultural study, Calisir, Gumussoy and Iskin (2011) explored the relationship between employees’ satisfaction, commitment and intention to
quit and the findings revealed that intention to quit one’s job is explained by job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

4.17 The Relationship between Work Values (WV) and Intention to Quit (IQ)

Anderson and Gerbig (1988) two-step latent factor structural equation modelling approach was used to test the proposed relationship and the influence of employees’ work values on intention to quit. The structural model (figure 4.16) measured the relationship between employees’ work values and intention to quit consisting of four items reflecting work values (WV1, WV2, WV4, and WV5), and six items reflecting intention to quit (IQ1, IQ2, IQ3, IQ4, IQ10, and IQ11). Based on the overall GFI statistics, the two-factor solution model measuring the relationship between employees’ work values and intention to quit yielded a good fit statistics. Both constructs were allowed to freely correlate, so that model fit indices reflected the adequacy of the proposed relationships between the constructs and their indicators. The structural model proposed an acceptable-fit model ($\chi^2 = 181.22$ (P = 0.0), CFI = 0.96, GFI = 0.95, NFI = 0.96, RMR = 0.1, SRMR = 0.04, and RMSEA = 0.06) (see table 4.40). According to Hooper et al., (2008) and Browne and Cudeck (1992) RMSEA cut-off points below 0.05 represent a perfect-fit and in the range of 0.06 to 0.10 are considered as an indication of acceptable and fair fit. The structural model accepted and supported $H_{10}$ showing a significant and positive relationship correlation ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.62$; $p < .005$) between employees’ work values and intention to quit. Work values items; (WV1: Having interesting work to do, from which one can get a personal sense of accomplishment $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.52$; $p < .005$) (WV2: Knowing that one's job is secure $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.46$; $p < .005$) (WV4: Having little stress on the job $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.38$; $p < .005$) (WV5: Being free to implement one's own approach to the job $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.45$; $p < .005$) and intention to
quit (IQ1: How often have you considered leaving your current job? $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.67; p < .005$) (IQ2: How frequently do you scan newspapers for job opportunities? $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.73; p < .005$) (IQ3: To what extent is your current job not addressing your important personal needs? $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.95; p < .005$) (IQ4: How often are opportunities to achieve your most important goals at work jeopardized? $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.68; p < .005$) (IQ10: How often do only family responsibilities preventing you from quitting? $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.53; p < .005$) (IQ11: How often do only vested personal interest (pension fund, unemployment fund, etc.) prevent you from quitting? $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.58; p < .005$) (table 4.41). Confining the path from work values to intention to quit shows high significant relationship between the two constructs ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.62; p < .005$). This indicates that employees’ work values have a significant and direct relationship with employees’ intention to quit. Therefore, both traditional (Marsh et al., 1988) and contemporary fit criteria (Hu & Bentler, 1999) were met.
Table 4.40 Confirmatory factor analysis: Goodness-of-Fit indices for WV and IQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness-of-fit results</th>
<th>Structural Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absolute predictive fit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square $\chi^2$</td>
<td>181.22 (P = 0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees of freedom (df)</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected cross validation index (ECVI)</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative fit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFI</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NNFI</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMR</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.41 Structural Parameters Estimates for the Structural Model of WV and IQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural Path</th>
<th>Structural Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std Loadings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work Values</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → WV1</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → WV2</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → WV4</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV → WV5</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intention to Quit</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ → IQ1</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ → IQ2</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ → IQ3</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ → IQ4</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ → IQ10</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQ → IQ11</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: **p < 0.05, β denotes Standardized coefficient*
Note: All correlations are significant at (p<0.05). All factor loadings are significant at (p<0.05).

Figure 4.16 The Structural Model of WV and IQ
4.17.1 Discussion of the Relationship between WV and IQ

In an organisation, the turnover of staff is expensive (Trevor at. al. 2009). Therefore, job quits and the replacement of those staff with fresh workers leads to huge expenses to the organisation. The huge extra costs result from searching for likely replacements, choosing the recruits and training them either formally or informally to an extent of being in the calibre of the employees who quit the job. Therefore, the aim from the current research was to investigate and examine the relationship between work values and employees’ intention to quit. The findings emerged from the current research showed a significant and positive relationship correlation ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.62; p < .005$) between the two constructs.

In addition, Bishay (1996) argues that whenever there is greater work value, there is high employee satisfaction, greater commitment and less quit rate. Workers who are dissatisfied are filled with negative attitudes and leave the organisations due to poor working conditions, lack of resources and support, limited decision making and restricted opportunities (Carnegie, 1986). In Ting’s (1997) view, those employees with greater variety of skills find their work interesting and thus feel satisfied with what they do. They are more committed to the organisation and positively affect productivity. To other employees, high work values are indicated by high wages and salaries along with rewards and reinforcement strategies (Voidanoff, 1980).

Robbins (1998) adds that opportunities for promotion describes job value to other employees and determines entirely whether they will quit or remain loyal to the company. Other workers measure the job value through the organisation’s future prospects (Drafke & Kossen, 2002). This factor determines if employees will seek alternative employment opportunities or remain loyal to the organisation. In USA, Burd (2003) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between work values and
intention to quit among librarians and found a positive and significant relationship between the librarians’ work values and their intention to leave. Moreover, Burd (200) found that the librarians in these organisations are less satisfied, less committed, and more likely to leave the organisation, perhaps even the profession.

4.18 The Final Model Showing the Relationship between the Five Constructs (HRMP, JS, OC, WV, and IQ)

The aim of the current study was to test and investigate the structural model that explains the relationship between the five constructs (human resource management practices, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, work values, and intention to quit). The statistical outputs for the structural model are represented in figure 4.17. The final structural model (see figure 4.17) demonstrates that the path estimates between human resource management practices and job satisfaction were significant ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.52; p < .005$) accepting $H_1$. Moreover, the path estimates between human resource management practices and organisational commitment shows a significant relationship at the level ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.57; p < .005$) accepting $H_2$. Whereas, the path estimates between human resource management practices and work values shows a non-significant relationship at the level ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.7; p < .005$) indicating that $H_3$ was rejected. At the same level, the path estimates between human resource management and intention to quit shows another non-significant relationship at the level ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.02; p < .005$) rejecting $H_4$. The fifth path estimates shows a significant relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment at the level ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.56; p < .005$) accepting $H_5$. The path estimates between job satisfaction and work values shows a significant relationship at the level ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.49; p < .005$) accepting $H_6$. Increasingly, the path estimates between job satisfaction and intention to quit shows a significant relationship at the level ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.65; p < .005$) indicating that $H_7$ was accepted. The final model also
shows that the path estimates between organisational commitment and work values indicates a significant relationship ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.47; p < .005$) accepting $H_8$. At the same level, a significant relationship appears between organisational commitment and intention to quit at the level ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.52; p < .005$) accepting $H_9$. The final path estimates in the final structural model indicates an interesting finding showing a significant relationship between work values and intention to quit ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.62; p < .005$) which supported $H_{10}$. The skewness and kurtosis values for all the indicators were also less than 3.0 and 7.0 respectively, indicating that the data did not demonstrate significant departure from normality. In sum, the final structural model demonstrated acceptable model fit to the collected data and none of the indicators cross-loaded on other factors and all the factors loaded significantly ($p<0.001$) onto their respective latent factors. As a result, the concern of common method variance was minimized. Thus, the five factors structural and measurement model is confirmed and the examination of the structural model is valid and justified (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

The final structural model (figure 4.17) indicates that human resource management practices had a significant impact on the job satisfaction level and organisational commitment level. Interestingly, the final model indicates no significant direct impact of human resource management practices on work values and intention to quit but there is an indirect impact or relationship through job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Finally, the final structural model indicates clearly that the two human resource management practices (recruitment and selection and training and development) play a significant role, contributed significantly and represents the actual reason behind the high dissatisfaction level and low commitment level among frontline employees working in the Jordanian organisations, which contributes in return in high rate of intention to quit the work and search for other appropriate opportunities.
Note: All correlations are significant at (p<0.05). All factor loadings are significant at (p<0.05).

Figure 4.17 The Final Structural Model for the Five Constructs (HRMP, JS, OC, WV, and IQ)
Supporting the findings emerged from the current study, Al Fayyad (2005) stated that the employees’ recruitment and selection process in Jordanian organisations is largely inadequate and needs effective attention if it is to enhance and support the competitive advantage of the business it represents. Equally, in many Arab; and more specifically Jordanian organisations, the literature demonstrates that the recruitment and selection process is fraught with problems. These can be explained as; (i) rarely based on merit and ability; and (ii) hardly systematic or objective. Vacant positions are usually filled through ‘connections’; and these are normally offered to friends, relatives and family members with no consideration given to the person’s proficiency and achievements (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2006; Melham, 2004). Furthermore, tribalism and nepotism are frequently used. The recruitment and selection process in Jordan is also heavily influenced by personal and intermediary relationships in a form usually called, or referred to as ‘wasta’. The concept of ‘wasta’ in many Arab countries is the only; and indeed best way, for most people seeking a job to become employed. For example, when a person hears about a job, their first action will be to contact a relative or friend who knows the HR manager in the organisation where the vacant job is available (EL-Said and McDonald, 2001).

On the other hand, in regard to the second practice (training and development) of human resource management, Altarawneh (2009) also argues that training and development is the most significant indicator or subsystem of human resource development as it potentially enhances, increases and modifies the capabilities, skills and knowledge of employees’ and managers’ in order to perform their job in more creative and effective ways. Such issues can also assist in the achievement of increases in individual and organisational performance and productivity.
As training and development plays a crucial and dynamic role in developing job and organisational performance; Altarawneh (2009) and Mann (1996) have asked whether; given the continuous investment in training and development programmes, training programmes and strategies in Jordan are sufficiently effective in order to positively impact organisational competitiveness. This question has been raised in the light that, in many Arab and more specifically Jordanian organisations, expenditure and time spent on training and development is considered un-useful and unnecessary function (Redshaw, 2000). Al-Athari and Zairi, (2002) confirm this view; arguing that some Jordanian organisations regard training and development as a waste of time and money, and a function which does not contribute to improving employees’ commitment, or overall organisational performance.

In addition, to what has been highlighted, a review of the literature in Arab countries; including Jordan, shows that training and development is still not regarded as a significant function that contributes to organisational success. Instead, this function is considered as a vacation, or leisure time activity which is normally given to the managers’ friends or relatives. Furthermore, the literature also demonstrates that the training evaluation process in some Jordanian and Arab organisations more generally is an infrequent and uncommon practice (Altarawneh, 2009).

This study supported a best fitting structural model which included the interrelationships between five constructs, namely human resource management practices (recruitment and selection, and training and development), job satisfaction, organisational commitment, work values, and intention to quit. In terms of contribution to the human resource management and employees’ attitudes literature, this study enhanced the limited existing body of knowledge by providing empirical evidences and
investigating the impact of human resource management practices on the employees’ attitudes in the Middle East, and particularly in Jordan.

The current study was proposed and designed to examine and investigate the impact of human resource management practices (recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and rewards and benefits) on the employees’ attitudes (job satisfaction, commitment, and values) and their intention to quit or stay at the work as an outcome. First, this study employed exploratory factor analysis to examine the factorial structure of the human resource management practices and to verify any variables with increased correlation as a result of overlapping variation between them. In order to determine the underlying dimension and structures the multidimensional scale (PROXSCAL) method was employed to obtain a micro view of the latent factor structures of the four HRM practices. Having found the valid factor structure for the human resource management practices, confirmatory factor analysis was also employed in this study to further investigate the latent structure of the factors. The results and findings yielded from the exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis showed an interesting finding, the multidimensional scale (PROXSCAL) method demonstrated that the two practices of human resource management (recruitment and selection, and training and development) have been rarely employed or used within the Jordanian organisations. On the other hand, the findings emerged from the confirmatory factor analysis supported the results of the exploratory factor analysis by showing that these two practices of human resource management (recruitment and selection, and training and development) have a significant impact on the employees’ attitudes (job satisfaction, and organisational commitment) which explain that the two practices contributed significantly to the dissatisfaction, low level of commitment, and high intention to quit rate among frontline employees in Jordanian organisations.
Consistent with Al Fayyad (2005), the employee recruitment and selection process in Jordanian organisations is inadequate and needs more constructive attention if it is to enhance and support competitive advantage. Furthermore, Altarawneh (2009) reached to a supportive conclusion showing that training and development in Jordanian organisations is still not regarded as a significant function that contributes to organisational success. Instead, training and development is considered as an infrequent and uncommon practice vacation or leisure time activity, which is normally given to managers’ friends or relatives.

This study has contributed significantly to management research and practice by linking the human resource management and employees’ attitudes and behaviour literature and provides guidance on how organisations can foster high level of employees’ satisfaction and commitment via the implementation of appropriate HRM practices. In particular, the current study has contributed to the gap in the human resource management practices (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2006; Melham, 2004), and employees’ attitudes as mentioned by (Mudor and Tooksoon, 2011; Brian and Christopher, 2011) who have linked the study of employees’ attitudes to a ‘black box’ in which various individual and organisational factors determine the satisfaction and commitment levels and in turn affect certain behaviors with scant attention to what happens ‘in between’. Furthermore, the current study contributed significantly to the existing gap in the work values literature (Trevor at. al. 2009; Drafke & Kossen, 2002), and intention to quit (Burd, 2003) in the Middle East and Jordanian context. The following table 4.42 provides a brief of the accepted and rejected hypotheses emerged from the current research.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Accepted/Rejected</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>H₀</strong> “The human resource management practices factors are optimal and</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interrelated multi-dimensional construct”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H₁</strong> “The pay, promotion, benefits, reward and co-workers factors are</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>optimal extrapolative predictors of job satisfaction”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H₂</strong> “The affective, continuance and normative factors are interrelated,</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multi-dimensional and optimal predictors of organisational commitment”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H₃</strong> “Job accomplishment, nature of the work, and job advancement will</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>positively contribute to employees’ work values”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H₄</strong> “The work opportunities, personal needs and personal</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>responsibilities are optimal predictors of work values and interrelated</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multi-dimensional construct”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H₅</strong> “The human resource management practices have a positive and</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>significant impact on job satisfaction”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H₆</strong> “The human resource management practices have a positive and</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>significant impact on organisational commitment”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H₇</strong> “There is a significant and positive relationship between HRM</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>practices and employees’ work values”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H₈</strong> “There is a positive and significant relationship between HRM</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>practices and intention to quit among frontline employees in the</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordanian organisations”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H₉</strong> “There is a positive and significant relationship between job</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>satisfaction and organisational commitment”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H₁₀</strong> “There is a significant and positive relationship between job</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>satisfaction and employees’ work values”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H₁₁</strong> “There is a positive and significant relationship between job</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>satisfaction and intention to quit among frontline employees in the</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordanian organisations”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H₁₂</strong> “There is a positive and significant relationship between</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>organisational commitment and work values among frontline employees”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H₁₃</strong> “There is a significant and positive relationship between</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>organisational commitment and employees’ intention to quit”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H₁₄</strong> “There is a significant and positive relationship between work</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>values and employees’ intention to quit”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.42 Accepted and Rejected Hypotheses
4.19 Conclusion

This chapter provided an examination of the statistical techniques used in analysing the data. First, the chapter established the reliability, validity, analysis and discussion of each construct separately. Second, after determining the reliability and validity of each measure, the chapter then the analysis and presented the results of hypotheses testing. Finally, the full model was assessed employing structural equation modelling to determine the standardised coefficients, the variance captured by the measures and the model’s fit indices as a whole. The following chapter will discuss the theoretical implications, limitations, directions for future research and conclusion.
Chapter Five

Theoretical Implications, Limitations, Directions for Future Research

and Conclusion

5.1 Chapter Overview

In the previous chapter, the data were analysed and presented followed by a full discussion for the results emerged from the current research. The purpose of the current chapter is to identify the study’s theoretical contribution for the five constructs (human resource management practices, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, work values, and intention to quit); also the chapter presents the limitations of the study and direction for future research. Finally, the chapter provides a full conclusion for the current research.

5.2 Theoretical Contribution

5.2.1 Theoretical Contribution for Human Resource Management Practices

The findings of the study highlight the importance of the composite views of the HRM practices scale as a multi-dimensional construct. The study illustrates the parameter estimates representing relationships between the constructs under investigation (RS, TD, PA and RB). Although the composite view proposed in this study fits the conceptualisation of multi-dimensional constructs, the results of some recent studies emphasise this composite model (Moideenkutty et al., 2011; Mellahi & Wood, 2004; Budhwar & Mellahi, 2007). Unfortunately most of the empirical studies reported in the literature operationalised these constructs as a separate uni-dimensional construct. However, while giving importance to the implications of the issues associated with
using these constructs separately, for technical convenience the constructs should be combined as one multi-dimensional construct. Therefore, the multi-dimensional construct of HRM practices was subject to model testing using structural equation modelling analysis among front-line employees in cross-cultural settings to test their interrelated and extrapolative nature.

The constrained model and testing of path coefficients using the structural equation model indicated that there were a number of causal indicators which are theoretically acceptable. It is important to note that the number of parameters to be estimated between the latent factors and the observed variables emit path to increase linear effects as a large sample was used which ensured stable and unbiased estimates can be obtained in the structural equation modelling. Highly correlated causal indicators are very common when a number of scales are combined. With very highly correlated causal indicators a large proportion of the variance of the composite factors can be explained by a few causal indicators being insignificant (Ali & Al-Kazemi, 2007; MacCallum & Browne, 1993). The variable path relationships between the latent and observed variables were examined as hypothesised. The model path relationships indicated that the HRM practices scale is fully operationisable for examining the HRM practices in organisations. To restate, the empirical results and the overall hypothesised model appears to be quite congruent with the data. The structural model indices demonstrated an acceptable level of compatibility thereby reflecting the interrelationships between the variables. Although the confirmatory factor analysis using structural equation modelling reduces doubts in the findings which may arise due to conceptual weaknesses, there is a strong framework for a composite HRM practices scale as the results from this study demonstrated a robust relationship between the latent and the observed variables.
Furthermore, the results revealed some interesting conclusions regarding the contextual organisational variables—business sector, type of business and numbers of employees—that are more closely linked with the HRM practices. It is posited that the general effects of the organisational and demographic variables were predicted to affect HRM practices. However, a number of findings were contrary to the hypotheses; sector, type of business, and number of employees did not have any direct relationship with HRM practices. These results are consistent with previous researchers (Al Lakami & Murthy, 2011; Ali & Al-Kazemi, 2007). Taken together, these findings improved the theoretical understanding of the predictors’ variables mediating the HRM practices construct. Prior work has mainly considered measuring HRM practices individually. However, the overlooked causal relationships between the factors were uncovered by this study. The HRM practices scale has more empirical credibility to theoretically address the challenges faced by HRM practitioners and scholars who previously had a narrow insight in HRM practices. This study enriched the understanding of HRM practices, drawing a sample of participants from different sectors (insurance, finance, services, accounting and industry) and suggests that these variables are as equally prominent as others in explaining employees’ attitudes toward HRM practices. This measure therefore offers the potential to better understand important HR practices, such as recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal and rewards and benefits, in conjunction with organisational variables.

5.2.1.1 Managerial Implications for Human Resource Management Practices (HRMP)

5.2.1.1.1 Managerial Implications for International Business Organisations

In managing and designing an international business, a variety of issues should be given more attention. For example, the subsidiary multinational companies have two options
when selecting HRM practices—adopting locally designed practices, or using practices that originate in the parent organisation. That is, in a cross-cultural context, there is a huge probability that the multinational companies will be challenged by new or different HRM practices and approaches. Explaining the above, Arabic countries and the Jordanian community share the same social values, religion, culture and language. These factors have a great impact on managerial functions. Hence, the result of the current study will assist HR managers in multinational companies to better understand the nature of the four HRM practices used frequently among front-line employees in Jordan. Basically, Arabic cultural factors come from religion, history, traditions, and the economic and political environment. The Jordanian and Arabic culture has a huge and significant impact on individual behaviours and managerial practices (Altarawneh, 2005; Ali, 1995; Al-Faleh, 1987). Altarawneh (2005) stated that the variant management practices and functions are influenced by employee understanding and culture, which are obtained from social beliefs, norms and values.

The transferring of Western HRM practices to developing countries has encouraged management in many organisations to change many aspects of HRM in order to develop and enhance existing practices, to improve productivity and quality, and to change employees’ attitudes. As in the case of Jordan, many attempts were made to transfer to a more flexible, adaptable and sympathetic culture through using decentralisation and delegation of power (Al-Husan, Brennan & James, 2009; Al-Faleh, 1987). A significant contribution of the current study is that it has provided sufficient information for managers in multinational companies about how to deal with local employees while employing HRM practices; as Hakooz (1997) stated, many line managers in multinational companies in Jordan find it difficult to be fully responsible, because they are still in need of high skills and confidence in handling these tasks. For example, full
accountability and responsibility was given to line managers to handle the day to day work, and to employ effectively the HRM practices such as recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal and rewards and benefits (Al-Husan et al., 2009).

From a cultural approach, multinational companies have experienced difficulties in importing Western HRM practices successfully to the developing countries, because of many cultural obstacles (Edwards & Rees, 2006; Cooke, 2004). For example, a study conducted by Al-Husan et al., (2009) about transferring Western HRM practices to Jordan, found that many employees were dissatisfied with their job security, less fair treatment, and that the organisation did not value and pay attention to employee suggestions. Accordingly, the current study represents pioneering research and offers significant implications for multinational and cross-border business through providing managers and practitioners with a four-factor model for HRM practices among frontline employees within Jordanian organisations. Moreover, the Jordanian region still needs more research on the cultural issues that arise between multinational companies and local organisations.

5.2.1.1.2 Managerial Implications for Human Resource Managers

Testing predictions about the association between HRM practices and theoretically related constructs to help place HRM in the broader theoretical context of organisational development and employees’ attitude should assist in efforts to develop more comprehensive theoretical models of those practices. Several practical implications for HR managers have emerged from this study. First, organisations should have a pragmatic outlook about the outcomes associated with HRM practices. Whilst these practices may bring about several affirmative outcomes, unconstructive results may
occur if they are not well implemented. The findings of the study also suggest that employees observe problems with their HR managers, ranging from inappropriate recruitment and selection to the meagre disbursement of meagre employee benefits. Thus, the organisations should not impose HRM policies on individual employees. Rather, individuals should be provided with a framework of policies which include internally driven factors. It also seems important that HR managers be trained in terms of their job responsibilities to help ensure that they have, or can learn, appropriate HRM skill sets.

5.2.2 Theoretical Contribution for Job Satisfaction (JS)

This study contributes to the job satisfaction literature by providing insight and highlighting the level of job satisfaction among front-line employees. The findings of this study provide both scholars and practitioners with crucial knowledge about the mechanisms through which the job satisfaction construct can be shown to be relevant and employed within a different cultural context; to wit, the Jordanian context. Arguably the most significant contribution of the study is that it builds on the findings of recent studies in JSS (Spector, 2007; Yelboga, 2009; Mosadeghrad & De Moraes, 2009; Lee & Chang, 2008; Schmidt, 2007; Watson, et al., 2007). It should be noted that the four important domains of JSS—pay and promotion, benefits, rewards, and co-workers—derived from structural equation modelling are important exploratory variables of job satisfaction, and have different implications for theory and practices. The effects of latent factors on job satisfaction reflect their importance on practices, such as how these factors contribute to the measurement of job satisfaction among front-line employees. The main source of job satisfaction appeared to be associated with co-workers. Other aspects also came to the fore; one being the relationship between demographic and organisational variables with job satisfaction. The implications of
these findings are significant because they support suggestions made by Spector (2007) about the positive contribution pay and promotion, benefits, rewards, and co-workers make in increasing job satisfaction. Thus a significant contribution has been made to the application and understanding of job satisfaction in an important non-Western context. The findings presented here provide good preliminary evidence regarding the relationships between demographic and organisational variables and job satisfaction within a non-Western organisational context.

Employees represent the most significant asset in an organisation. Nevertheless, managers and supervisors do not spend sufficient time understanding the indicators and consequences of job satisfaction, or learning more about employees’ behaviour and how attitudes potentially influence job and organisation performance. Also, managers need to create a work climate for employees to motivate themselves. Equally, if employees are satisfied with their pay and promotion, benefits and rewards, co-workers, supervision, communication, nature of work and operating procedures, then they are more likely to perform well and feel highly committed to their work and organisation. Treating individuals with more respect, valuing their ideas and rewarding them in an appropriate way are likely to impact individual’s satisfaction positively. Whilst little theoretical or empirical attention has been concerned with job satisfaction issues across different cultural contexts, the findings from this study, with its coverage of different and broad sectors, will assist Jordanian managers understand motivational factors at work. In general, this study also contributes to the knowledge and literature within the area of job satisfaction as the findings of the study could be applied to other countries in the Middle East with similar economic and political settings.
5.2.3 Theoretical Contribution for Organisational Commitment (OC)

The findings of the current study have important theoretical implications for managing human resources in Jordanian organisations. The present study contributed to the organisational commitment literature by highlighting and providing insight into the level of organisational commitment among frontline employees. The results of the current study provide scholars with significant understanding about the employees’ commitment level through three different types of commitment (affective, continuance and normative) which derived from structural equation modelling, and have crucial implications for theory and practices. In addition, the findings reported here exposed some interesting conclusions regarding the related organisational variables (business sector, type of business and numbers of employees) that are more closely linked with the organisational commitment. It is posited that the general effects of the organisational and demographic variables were predicted to influence the employees’ commitment level. Arguably the most crucial contribution of the current study is that it builds on the findings of the latest studies in organisational commitment (Cohen and Golan, 2007; Addae et al., 2006; Awamleh, 1996). The three significant domains of organisational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) derived from the exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis, represent crucial exploratory variables of organisational commitment, and have variant contributions to the theoretical base.

The current study also contributes to theory with respect to organisational commitment and employee attitudes. The findings encourage Jordanian organisations to focus more on employee perceptions and commitment, by providing a better understanding of the motivational factors at work. Thus Jordanian organisations can more effectively motivate their employees by creating a suitable work climate. Whilst little theoretical or empirical attention is concerned with organisational commitment issues across different
cultural settings, this study covered wide and different sectors (insurance, finance, services, accounting and industry) in Jordan. In general, this study also contributed to the knowledge and literature within the area of organisational commitment as the findings of the study could be applied to other countries in the Middle East with similar work and cultural settings.

Most Middle Eastern countries share the same religion, language, traditions, culture, economic and political environments. These cultural factors have a huge influence on employee behaviours and managerial functions within the organisations (Altarawneh, 2005; Ali, 1995). The findings of this study will assist managers and practitioners in Jordanian organisations to better understand the nature of organisational commitment and whether or not employees are likely to be committed to their work or not.

Altarawneh (2005) stated that variant managerial functions and practices are influenced by employee commitment, satisfaction and understanding, which are obtained to a higher degree from their norms, beliefs and values. Increasingly, Hakooz (1997) stated that many managers found it difficult to be fully responsible in their duties, as they were still in need of high skills and knowledge in dealing with individuals. Thus an important contribution of this study is that it has provided adequate information for managers and practitioners in different organisations and sectors in Jordan about the organisational commitment level among frontline employees.

Further, Al-Husan, Brennan & James (2009) conducted a study to examine the effectiveness of transferring western human resource management practices into Jordanian organisations. Al-Husan et al., (2009) found that many employees were dissatisfied with and not committed to their organisations. The results of this study represent pioneering research and offers significant managerial implications through
providing managers and practitioners with a three factors model for organisational commitment among frontline employees within Jordanian organisations. Testing predictions about the association between organisational commitment and theoretically-related variables (demographic and organisational) to enhance the managerial functions in the broader theoretical context of employees’ attitude should support any efforts to develop more comprehensive theoretical models for the three commitments factors (affective, continuance, and normative). Organisations should have a pragmatic outlook about the outcomes associated with employees’ commitment. Although the current study has provided several managerial implications for Jordanian organisations, the Jordanian literature is still in need of more practical and empirical research on organisational commitment in different sectors and among different group of participants.

5.2.4 Theoretical Contribution for Work Values (WV)

The current study provides significant theoretical implications for managing employees in Jordanian organisations with regard to their values, satisfaction, commitment, and intention to leave. The study adds to Middle Eastern work-values literature by emphasising its importance and providing a guide for future empirical research on work values. The findings of the current study provide practitioners and scholars with considerable understanding about employees’ work values through three factors (job accomplishment, work nature, and job advancement) which are derived from structural equation modelling, and have crucial implications for theory and practices. The results from this study expose interesting findings about the related organisational variables (sector and type of business) and in regard to the demographic variables (educational background and work experience) that had significant positive and negative
relationships to work values. Thus, the current study contributes to the application and understanding of employees’ work values in a significant non-western context. The findings presented here provide good preliminary evidence regarding the relationships between demographic and organisational variables and work values within a non-western organisational context.

The most essential contribution of this study is that it builds on the findings of the latest studies in work-values literature (McDonald and Wilson, 2011; Ferrell and Hartline, 2011). The three important factors of work values derived from the EFA and CFA represent crucial knowledge and have variant contributions to the theoretical base. Whilst little theoretical or empirical attention is concerned with employees’ work-values issues across different cultural settings, the current study covers broad and variant sectors (insurance, finance, services, accounting industry and Agriculture) in Jordan. The study findings have a degree of concurrence with previous research findings (Ho 2006), while some interesting findings are different to other studies (Askun et al. 2010). Moreover, this study contributes to the theory and literature with respect to employees’ values, satisfaction, and commitment. The results offer supportive information to enable Jordanian organisations to focus more on employee values and culture by providing empirical research and information about frontline employees and other variant levels of employees and managers in Jordan. As a consequence, organisations seeking development can motivate their employees by creating an appropriate and effective work climate. Generally, this study also contributes to the knowledge and literature within the area of management and employees’ behaviour and attitudes as the findings of the study could be applied to other countries in the Middle East with similar work and cultural settings.
5.2.5 Theoretical Contribution for Intention to Quit (IQ)

The current study has several significant implications for employees, human resource managers and other managerial practitioners in Jordanian organisations. In spite of the important findings emerged from the current study, the literature shows that intention to quit research is rarely conducted within Jordanian organisations, and Altarawmneh and Al-Kilani (2010) emphasise the need to broaden the focus of intention to quit research. The present study was thus proposed to provide a stronger focus on employees’ intention to quit, and to investigate the factors affecting intention to quit among frontline employees.

The results from the current study contribute significantly at both the theoretical and practical level. Academically the current study aids understanding of HRM and employees’ attitudes in developing countries. The structural model measuring employees’ intention to quit is an original contribution to HRM knowledge in Jordan. Building on the perspective of previous studies in Jordan (Altarawmneh and Al-Kilani, 2010; Altarawmneh, 2009), the current findings should assist the understanding of employees’ attitudes and the development of a set of HRM practices to enhance employee satisfaction and commitment, and thus reduce the intention to quit.

On a practical level, this study provides a clear understanding of the significance of organisational support to the retention of a competent workforce. Organisations should consider the variant factors of work opportunities, personal needs, and personal responsibilities, and will improve retention if they offer more incentives and promotions, and by designing a comfortable work environment.
5.3 Limitations and Direction for Future Research

Limitations of any study must be recognised to ‘establish the boundaries, exceptions, and reservations inherent in every study’ (Creswell, 2003, p. 147). The results and contributions from this study need to be taken with a number of caveats. First, the sample participants in this study represented the same group of employees (front-line employees who are qualified in English) from one place (Amman the capital of Jordan). Given that this group of participants shared the same work conditions and may be from a similar work culture, the results might be affected and skewed in one direction. Hence, it will be critical for future research to be conducted on a wide range of participants and places. Second, common method variance (CMV) may be a concern as this study used a self-report questionnaire to collect data from the same group at the same time. Furthermore, this concern becomes strongest when both the dependent and focal explanatory variables are perceptual measures derived from the same group (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff, 2003). Another important technical issue is that structural equation modelling, which is a powerful statistical modelling technique, requires certain conditions to exist within the data set—including variable independence and normality of distribution. Therefore the results and the model generated should be applied with caution to relate to a specific group of participants or cultural settings.

A number of limitations caution against the uncritical acceptance of the findings reported in this article. First, the limited amount of research available on HRM practices has limited the opportunity to gather content-rich information from previous studies. Second, this study used three different scales to measure the four HRM practices as there was no one composite scale. One limitation concerns the control variables of economic conditions, government policies and the political system that were not be able to included, yet that have been demonstrated as important predictors of HRM practices.
To support the theoretical distinctiveness of the HRM practices in the Middle Eastern context and also mitigate the concerns about the generalisability of the findings of the study, content analysis is also proposed. In this study, through a cross-sectional survey, a number of models were tested. However, a longitudinal study is required to further explore the temporal dynamics of the HRM practices models. Future work on HRM practices should include validating HRM practices with other individual HR practices constructs such as human resource planning, job analysis and job evaluation. Future researchers should consider the use of the composite scale of HRM practices in the Middle Eastern context. In addition, using the HRM model offers researchers the opportunity to clarify measured constructs as some have context specific effects. Further research in a range of settings in the Middle East is, thus, needed to examine the differential impact of the HRM practices model on employee attitudes and organisational outcomes. Future studies should examine the HRM practices scale by using multivariate procedures such as cluster analysis, which may identify consistent patterns of identities that can be used in applied work settings.

This study also has other limitations, as with all research. The limited amount of research available on job satisfaction in the Middle East and particularly in the Jordanian context, has limited the opportunity to gather content-rich information from previous research. Despite this limitation, the results from this study are a significant addition to the scant literature on job satisfaction among front-line employees in a cross-cultural setting. The study empirically delineates the factors that are extrapolative of job satisfaction. However, employing structural equation modelling techniques to examine job satisfaction among front-line employees could also be explored in terms of additional demographic factors such as race and ethnicity, religion, marital or family status, and geographic region. Ultimately, by understanding the distinctive variables that
contribute to job satisfaction across front-line employees, the results from this study could be used to help human resource managers make more well-informed decisions regarding staffing and development. Content analysis is also proposed to support the theoretical distinctiveness of job satisfaction in the cross-cultural context. Furthermore, a longitudinal study is required to further explore the temporal dynamics of the job satisfaction models and the validity of the nomological network of the latent variables. Collectively, this study was intended to stimulate the need for research in job satisfaction, and to draw scholarly attention and demonstrate empirically the nature of job satisfaction among front-line employees in the Middle East, particularly in Jordanian organisations. Also, the results of this study identify opportunities for more comprehensive future research in light of the new models tested in this study, which will facilitate the implication of job satisfaction within organisations and paves the way for additional support validity and construct stability over time.

Although the current study has made a substantial contribution to the organisational commitment in a cross cultural setting, particularly in Jordan, a number of limitations should be taken into consideration, which suggests opportunities for future research. The inadequate research available on organisational commitment, limited the opportunity to gather content-rich information from previous research conducted in the Middle East and in the Jordanian context. Regardless of this limitation, the findings and contribution from the current study represent an important addition to the limited literature on organisational commitment among frontline employees in a cross cultural setting. The present study empirically delineates the factors that are extrapolative of organisational commitment. However, employing exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis to examine the organisational commitment level among
frontline employees could also be explored in terms of supplementary demographic variables such as family status, race and ethnicity, geographic region, and religion.

Even though the current study provides significant explanation and contribution to employees’ work values in Jordanian organisations, a number of limitations should be taken into consideration. Cross-cultural research classifies many differences between cultures in employees’ behaviour and attitude, such as organisational commitment (Davenport 2010), job satisfaction (Back, Lee and Abbott 2011) and work values (Khasawneh, 2010). Moreover, the limited amount of research available on work values in general and particularly in the Jordanian context limited the opportunity to gather content-rich information from previous research. Regardless of these limitations, the findings from the current study contribute significantly to the inadequate literature on employees’ work values in Jordanian organisations.

Future research could concentrate on the limitations of this current study. First, the current study selected a group of frontline employees within insurance, finance, services, industry, accounting and Agriculture sectors in Jordanian organisations working in Amman. Future studies may extend the investigation to different sectors in different places and countries to obtain generality of the study findings. Second, the new models tested in this study identify significant opportunities for more empirical and comprehensive future research, which will enhance employees’ work values within Jordanian organisations. Furthermore, more empirical studies are required to further investigate the temporal dynamics of the work-values models and strengthen the nomological network of the latent variables. Third, the effect of work values on different employees needs to be examined. Work value dissimilarities are significant in an organisation’s environment. Managers and practitioners need to respond to
employees’ changing values as these are influenced by generational differences, which in turn affect human resource schemes and the organisation’s programs and plans.

The current study substantially contributes to the intention to quit research in a cross cultural setting in Jordan, however, a number of limitations should be taken into consideration, suggesting opportunities for future research. The inadequate research on intention to quit limited the opportunity to gather content-rich information from previous research in the Middle East and in the Jordanian context. Regardless of this limitation, the findings from the current study represent an important contribution on intention to quit among frontline employees in a cross cultural setting. The present study empirically delineates the factors that are extrapolative of intention to quit. However, employing EFA and CFA to examine the intention to quit level among frontline employees could be further explored in terms of supplementary demographic variables such as family status, race and ethnicity, geographic region, and religion.

5.4 Conclusion

The current study showed that in Jordan, HRM practices has not yet received due attention (Menafn, 2008; Ameinfo, 2006; Weir & Abu-Doleh, 1997). Reports and anecdotal evidence from the Ministry of Industry and Trade indicate that HRM departments in a number of Jordanian organisations seem to lack initiative and are neglecting their duties and activities (Ameinfo, 2006). As a result, they are facing major problems surrounding the development of human capital, including high turnover rates and a lack of skilled employees. Insufficient spending on research, training and development has fuelled these problems (Menafn, 2008). For example, recruiting practices based on effective and reliable selection processes will equip the organisation with qualified candidates and have a significant impact on the type and quality of the
skills and knowledge they possess (Katou, 2008; Paul & Anantharaman, 2003). The provision of different levels of training and development experiences, such as basic training, on-the-job training, formal and informal training and management development can also influence employees’ commitment and values (Tzafrir, 2006; McGunnigle & Jameson, 2000). Furthermore, the current study found that training and development practice being rarely and non-effectively used within the organisations.

The effectiveness of even skilled and qualified employees will be limited if they are not encouraged and motivated to work, but through HRM practices they can be encouraged to work harder and smarter. Examples of organisational efforts to motivate are the use of performance appraisal systems that are closely linked with incentive and compensation plans (Yeganeh & Su, 2008). Conversely, HRM literature (Afana, 2004; Melham, 2004) shows that many Arab organisations, including those in both the public and private sectors in Jordan need to devote more attention to their HRM practices.

Initial evidence supports the premise that the HRM practices are a psychometrically strong measure of the four-factor HRM practices model. Although the present evidence is positive, the HRM practices as a new composite instrument remains moderately experimental. Further examination of the HRM practice’s psychometric properties is necessary to warrant its use in the Jordanian context and in the Middle East settings.

In summary, this research synthesised theoretical and empirical literature on general HRM practices and assessed psychometrically the four measures of HRM practices for their suitability to be subsumed into a single measure. In doing so, this study empirically examined the items in each measure through a confirmatory factor analysis adopting a structural equation modelling technique to develop a parsimonious model for HRM practices through the data collected from the frontline employees in Jordanian organisations. However, this research presents a pioneering effort towards using a
composite scale to measure HRM practices, in general, which is a constructive starting point for examining the implementation of HRM practices in different cultural contexts. Although the findings of the study are specific to front-line employees working in Jordanian organisations, the findings could be generalised to other countries in the Middle East that have similar economic and political milieu. This study is an essential foundation for future research and theory-building on the HRM practices in the Middle East and particularly in Jordanian organisations. Given the pervasiveness of problems that can arise from reprehensible HRM practices, it is hoped that future research continues to explore this important topic in order to develop suggestions for organisations in managing these important HR practices.

Across the disciplines, employee job satisfaction attracts crucial attention from practitioners and researchers alike. Searching Western literature shows many studies of job satisfaction or work satisfaction, whereas non-Western literature shows few job satisfaction studies. The findings of this study indicate that the causal model of job satisfaction is consistent with the data and contributes to a fuller understanding of the attitude of the front-line employees associated with job satisfaction in a cross-cultural environment. M3 supported a conceptual framework that is inclusive of four domains: pay and promotion, benefits, rewards and co-workers. Summing up, the results of the current study contribute significantly to the literature and tend to be different from the previous studies, as the model focuses more on the nature and level of satisfaction within variant aspects (pay and promotion, benefits, rewards and co-workers). Also, this model could be employed for further research in the job satisfaction field in different sectors and different countries that share the same culture and work settings. The findings of the study offer new perspectives on job satisfaction. The results demonstrate that the four-factor solution is appropriate to test the job
satisfaction phenomenon in organisations. It is hoped that the present investigation will initiate studies of similar nature in the field of job satisfaction.

This research constituted a unique contribution to the organisational commitment construct in relation to the demographic and organisational variables within a cross-cultural setting. The current study investigated the organisational commitment level among the frontline employees. Interestingly, searching the western literature shows that the construct, organisational commitment, attracts vital consideration from researchers and scholars alike. The literature shows few organisational commitment studies available within the Jordanian and Middle East context. Results obtained from the study demonstrated a three factors solution model that is consistent with the data and contributes to a fuller understanding of the frontline employees’ commitment level in a cross-cultural environment. The final model generated from this study supports the conceptual framework which consists of three factors: affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

Overall, the findings of the present study contribute considerably to the literature and tend to be different from the previous studies (see e.g. Addae et al., 2006; Awamleh, 1996), as both the conceptual and structural model focused more on the commitment level among the frontline employees. The final model could be employed and examined in further future research in organisational commitment field. This study should initiate studies of a similar nature in the field of organisational commitment in variant sectors and different countries that share the same or similar culture and work settings.

The current study investigated the nature of work values among frontline employees. Employees’ work values are a little-researched yet essential area and more focus is
required on employees’ attitudes and behaviours. Generally, this study was intended to stimulate the need for research on work values, and to draw scholarly attention and demonstrate empirically the nature of work values among frontline employees in Middle Eastern, and particularly Jordanian, organisations. The findings yielded indicate that the causal model of work values is consistent with the data and contributes to a fuller understanding of how attitudes of frontline employees are associated with commitment and satisfaction in a cross-cultural environment.

To conclude, the results of the current study contribute significantly to the literature and tend to be different from previous studies, as the model focused more on the employees’ work values within three factors (job accomplishment, work nature, and job advancement). Also, this model could be employed for further research in work-values fields in different sectors and different countries that share the same culture and work settings. The findings of this study offer new perspectives on work values. The result establishes a three-factor solution model which is appropriate to test employees’ work values in Jordan.

Moreover, the current research investigates the level of employees’ intention to quit in different sectors in Jordanian organisations by considering the effect of three factors: work opportunities, personal needs, and personal responsibilities. The first factor (work opportunities) is most likely to affect the level of intention to quit among frontline employees. The third factor (personal responsibilities) has the lowest impact on employees’ intention to quit. Furthermore, demographic variables such as; gender, age and educational background show a significant role, having a positive and significant relationship with employees’ intention to quit.

Finally, while the current study contributes to the understanding of the intention to quit in Jordan, further research is required to build on the measurement model that emerged.
from the current study in order to find if other factors might affect employees’ intention to quit. The current study offers new support to previous research about the importance of employees’ intention to quit in a non-western cultural context. Future studies are encouraged to replicate the findings using a different research sample, particularly for populations from different places, backgrounds, cultural settings, and education levels.
References


342


Appendix A

Questionnaire
Questionnaire

INFORMATION LETTER FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

(Frontline Employee)

Dear Sir/Madam

This letter is an invitation to consider participating in a study which I conduct as a requirement for the PhD program at the School of Business in Charles Sturt University, Australia. I would like to provide you with more information about this study and what your involvement would entail if you decide to take part. The topic of the research is:

The Impact of Human Resource Management Practices on Employees’ Attitude in Jordanian Organisations

The aim of this study is to examine the impact of human resource management practices on employees’ attitude (job satisfaction, organisational commitment, work value) and intention to quit in the Jordanian organisations. The findings would benefit both the organisations and employees in the area of HRM. Therefore, I would like to include your organisation as one of several organisations to be involved in my study. I believe that because you are actively involved in the management and operation of your organisation, you are best suited to speak to the various issues, such as HRM practices and employees’ attitude and performance.

Participation in this study is voluntary. Participants should be able to understand and speak English fluently as a condition to participate in this research. It will involve filling out a thirteen page questionnaire and would take 20 minutes to complete it. You may decline to answer any of the questions if you so wish. Further, you may decide to withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences by advising the researcher. All information you provide is considered completely confidential. Your name will not appear in any report resulting from this study. Data collected during this study will be retained for five years in a locked office. Only researchers associated with this project will have access.

There are no known or anticipated risks to you as a participant in this study.
If you have any questions regarding this study, or would like additional information to assist you in reaching a decision about participation, please contact me at (+61 406 718 670), (+962 7777 26 300) or by email at kaladwan@csu.edu.au

Charles Sturt University's SB Ethics in Human Research Committee has approved this project (Protocol # 209/2010/03). If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this project, you may contact the Committee through the Executive Officer

Ethics in Human Research Committee
Academic Secretariat
Charles Sturt University
Private Mail Bag 29
Bathurst NSW 2795
Australia
Phone: (02) 6338 4628 Fax:(02) 6338 4194
Email: ethics@csu.edu.au

Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully and you will be informed of the outcome. I hope that the results of my study will be of benefit to those organisations directly involved in the study, as well as to the broader research community.

Thank you in advance for your assistance in this project.

Yours Sincerely

Khaled Aladwan
PARTICIPANT’S CONSENT FORM

I have read the information presented in the information letter about a study being conducted by the School of Business at the Charles Sturt University, Australia.

I understand that I am free to withdraw my participation in the research at any time, and that if I do I will not be subjected to any penalty or discriminatory treatment.

The purpose of the research has been explained to me and I have read and understood the information sheet given to me and I have been given the opportunity to ask questions about the research and received satisfactory answers.

I understand that any information or personal details gathered in the course of this research about me are confidential and that neither my name nor any other identifying information will be used or published without my written permission.

Charles Sturt University’s SB Ethics in Human Research Committee has approved this study (Protocol # 209/2010/03). I understand that if I have any complaints or concerns about this research I can contact:

Executive Officer

Ethics in Human Research Committee

Academic Secretariat

Charles Sturt University

Private Mail Bag 29

Bathurst NSW 2795

Phone: (02) 6338 4628
Fax: (02) 6338 4194
Email: ethics@csu.edu.au

With full knowledge of all foregoing, I agree, of my own free will, to participate in this study. □ YES □ NO
This part of the survey looks at the respondents’ biographical and organisational characteristics.

**First Section: Demographic Variables**

Please tick the right block to answer following questions according to your actual situations.

1) **Gender**
   
   Male □           Female □

2) **Age**
   
   20--30 □         31--40 □         41--50 □         >51 □

3) **Educational Background** (please indicate your final education level)
   
   Secondary School □     Technical College □     University diploma □
   Bachelor’s degree □    Master’s degree □     Doctorate/PhD □
   Other (please specify) ______________

4) **How many years have you been working in this organisation?**
   
   <1 □         1--3 □         3--5 □         5--7 □         7--9 □
   9--11 □     >11 □

**Second Section: Organisational Characteristics**

Please answer following questions or tick the right block according to the actual situations.

1) **Position?**
   
   Local □         Expatriates □

2) **How many employees are working in your organisation?**
   
   <20 □         20--50 □         51--80 □         81--100 □         >101 □
3) Which sector does your organisation belong to?

Financial Sector ☐  Accounting Sector ☐  Insurance Sector ☐
Service Sector ☐  Industrial Sector ☐  Agricultural Sector ☐
Other (please specify) ________________

4) Which type of business does your organisation belong to?

☐ Local Organisation ☐ Multinational Organisation
### Section Three – Recruitment & Selection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How accurately do the following statements describe your organisation’s recruitment and selection practice?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. The recruitment and selection processes in this organisation are impartial. 1 2 3 4 5
2. Favouritism is not evident in any of the recruitment decisions made here. 1 2 3 4 5
3. Interview panels are used during the recruitment and selection process in this organisation. 1 2 3 4 5
4. This organisation does not need to pay more attention to the way it recruits people. 1 2 3 4 5
5. All appointments in this organisation are based on merit (i.e. the best person for the job is selected regardless of their personal characteristics). 1 2 3 4 5

### Section Four – Training & Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To what extent do you disagree/agree with the following statements about training programs in your organisation?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. My employer encourages me to extend my abilities. 1 2 3 4 5
7. This organisation has provided me with training opportunities enabling me to extend my range of skills and abilities. 1 2 3 4 5
8. I get the opportunity to discuss my training and development requirements with my employer. 1 2 3 4 5
9. My work pays for any work-related training and/or development I want to undertake. 1 2 3 4 5
10. This organisation is committed to the training and development of its employees. 1 2 3 4 5
### Section Five – Performance Appraisal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>13</th>
<th>14</th>
<th>15</th>
<th>16</th>
<th>17</th>
<th>18</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Totally Disagree</strong></td>
<td><strong>2</strong></td>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
<td><strong>4</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td><strong>Totally Agree</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- *How accurately do the following statements describe your organisation’s performance appraisal practice?*

11. My current performance appraisal system is useful........ 1 2 3 4 5
12. My current performance appraisal system is fair.......... 1 2 3 4 5
13. I am satisfied with my current performance appraisal system.......................................................... 1 2 3 4 5

### Section Six – Reward & Benefit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>13</th>
<th>14</th>
<th>15</th>
<th>16</th>
<th>17</th>
<th>18</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strongly Disagree</strong></td>
<td><strong>2</strong></td>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
<td><strong>4</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
<td><strong>Strongly Agree</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- *To what extent do you disagree/agree with the following statements about reward practice in your organisation?*

14. Employees are given positive recognition when they produce high quality work............................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15. This organization pays well........................................ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. This organization offers a good benefits package compared to other organizations......................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. This organization values individual excellence over teamwork......................................................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18. This organization offers good opportunities for promotion................................................................. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Disagree Very much</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree very much</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- *To what extent do you dissatisfied/satisfied with the following statements about job satisfaction?*

19. I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.

20. There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.

21. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.

22. I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.

23. When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.

24. Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.

25. I like the people I work with.

26. I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.

27. Communications seem good within this organization.

28. Raises are too few and far between.

29. Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.

30. My supervisor is unfair to me.

31. The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.

32. I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.

33. My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.

34. I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.

35. I like doing the things I do at work.
36. The goals of this organization are not clear to me........................................... 1 2 3 4 5 6

37. I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me......................... 1 2 3 4 5 6

38. People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places................................................................. 1 2 3 4 5 6

39. My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates........................................... 1 2 3 4 5 6

40. The benefit package we have is equitable............ 1 2 3 4 5 6

41. There are few rewards for those who work here................................................................................ 1 2 3 4 5 6

42. I have too much to do at work.......................... 1 2 3 4 5 6

43. I enjoy my co-workers........................................... 1 2 3 4 5 6

44. I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization........................................... 1 2 3 4 5 6

45. I feel a sense of pride in doing my job................ 1 2 3 4 5 6

46. I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases................................................................. 1 2 3 4 5 6

47. There are benefits we do not have which we should have................................................................. 1 2 3 4 5 6

48. I like my supervisor........................................... 1 2 3 4 5 6

49. I have too much paperwork........................................... 1 2 3 4 5 6

50. I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be................................................................. 1 2 3 4 5 6

51. I am satisfied with my chances for promotion........... 1 2 3 4 5 6

52. There is too much bickering and fighting at work................................................................. 1 2 3 4 5 6

53. My job is enjoyable........................................... 1 2 3 4 5 6
Section Eight – Organisational Commitment

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I do not agree at all I completely agree

- How accurately do the following statements describe your affective organisational commitment?

55. I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.
56. I really feel as if this organisation’s problems are my own.
57. I do not feel a strong sense of “belonging” to my organisation.
58. I do not feel “emotionally attached” to this organisation.
59. I do not feel like “part of the family” at my organisation.
60. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

- How accurately do the following statements describe your continuance organisational commitment?

61. Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
62. It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.
63. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation now.
64. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation.
65. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere.
66. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
• How accurately do the following statements describe your normative organisational commitment?

67. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer ......................................................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
68. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now ........................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
69. I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now .................. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
70. This organisation deserves my loyalty ........................................ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
71. I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it .......................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
72. I owe a great deal to my organisation ................................................ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Section Nine – Work Value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not Important</td>
<td></td>
<td>Very Important</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

• To what extent do you disagree/agree with the following statements about work value?

73. Having interesting work to do, from which one can get a personal sense of accomplishment ......................................................... 1 2 3
74. Knowing that one’s job is secure .................................................... 1 2 3
75. Having an opportunity to earn a lot of money .................................. 1 2 3
76. Having little stress on the job .......................................................... 1 2 3
77. Being free to implement one’s own approach to the job .................. 1 2 3
78. Working with people that cooperate well with each other .................. 1 2 3
79. Being included in the company’s decision-making .......................... 1 2 3
80. Having an opportunity for advancement to higher level jobs .................. 1 2 3
81. Working for a company which cares about its employees .................. 1 2 3
82. Having a good working relationship with your manager .................. 1 2 3
### Section Ten – Intention to Quit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Always</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- How accurately do the following statements describe the level of your intention to quit?

83. How often have you considered leaving your current job?

84. How frequently do you scan newspapers for job opportunities?

85. To what extent is your current job not addressing your important personal needs?

86. How often are opportunities to achieve your most important goals at work jeopardised?

87. How often are your most important personal values at work compromised?

88. How frequently are you day-dreaming about a different job that will suit your personal needs?

89. What is the probability that you will leave your job, if you get another suitable offer?

90. How frequently do you look forward to another day at work?

91. How often do you think about starting your own business?

92. How often do only family responsibilities preventing you from quitting?
93. How often do only vested personal interest (pension fund, unemployment fund, etc.) prevent you from quitting?

94. How frequently are you emotionally agitated when arriving home after work?

95. How often is your current job affecting on your personal wellbeing?

96. How often do the troubles associated with relocating prevent you from quitting?

Thank you for your Cooperation and Participation