Universidad de Oviedo
Universidá d'Uviéu
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Department of Sociology

Effects of job stability-fostering high-performance work practices on employee subjective well-being

Doctoral Programme in
Economics and Sociology of Globalization
(Mention of Quality)

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(2017)

Universidad de Oviedo
Universidá d'Uviéu
University of Oviedo

Departamento de Sociología

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Memoria que, para la obtención del grado de doctor, presenta

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Programa de Doctorado en
Economía y Sociología de la Globalización
(Mención de Calidad)

Ayudas predoctorales para la formación en investigación y docencia de la Universidad de Oviedo 2013

Bajo la dirección de las profesoras

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RESUMEN DEL CONTENIDO DE TESIS DOCTORAL

1.- Título de la Tesis	
Español: Prácticas de alto rendimiento de fomento de la estabilidad laboral: efectos en el bienestar subjetivo de los trabajadores.	Inglés: Effects of job stability-fostering high-performance work practices on employee subjective well-being.

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Órgano responsable: Centro Internacional de Postgrado	

RESUMEN (en español)

El objetivo central de esta tesis es estudiar el impacto de las prácticas de alto rendimiento (PAR) sobre las actitudes y el comportamiento de los asalariados del sector privado en España, prestando especial atención a la seguridad del empleo como una de las dimensiones centrales de la calidad del empleo. Se analiza el efecto directo de tales prácticas en la percepción que los trabajadores tienen respecto a la estabilidad de su puesto de trabajo, así como en la intención de abandono del mismo. Asimismo, se exploran los procesos y mecanismos subyacentes responsables del efecto de las PAR en el bienestar subjetivo de los trabajadores. Por tanto, el marco conceptual y analítico se diseña a partir de las interconexiones entre las literaturas sobre PAR, sobre calidad del empleo y sobre el intercambio social.

Tras identificar siete bloques de políticas de recursos humanos (RRHH) de gran importancia en la literatura sobre PAR (Kochan y Osterman, 1994; Pfeffer, 1998; Jiang et al., 2012; Posthuma et al., 2013; Guest, 2013), se realiza en primer lugar un estudio descriptivo para conocer la cobertura en términos de asalariados de una amplia variedad de PAR. Los resultados indican que las más extendidas son trabajo en equipo, provisión de seguridad y adecuación de habilidades al puesto de trabajo, mientras que las más escasas son el teletrabajo, la retribución variable, los beneficios sociales y la participación en beneficios. En segundo lugar, se estudia el grado de satisfacción medio con diversas características del puesto de trabajo. La evidencia muestra que la satisfacción es media-alta con el trabajo en sí mismo, la estabilidad del puesto

y el desarrollo personal, así como la satisfacción laboral en términos globales, mientras que es baja con los beneficios sociales y media con la formación y la remuneración.

La provisión de seguridad del trabajo – medida a través de la variable *contrato indefinido* – es la práctica individual de RRHH que tiene el mayor efecto (positivo) sobre la percepción de estabilidad laboral y (negativo) sobre la intención de abandonar el puesto de trabajo. Se identifican asimismo otro conjunto de variables que tienen efectos positivos directos, si bien de menor magnitud, en la estabilidad del puesto de trabajo: *formación en horario de trabajo*, *uso de habilidades*, *beneficios sociales*, *variedad de tareas*, *conocimiento de los objetivos de la organización*, *salario elevado*, *voz* y *formación útil*. Esto implica que existen una serie de prácticas individuales que, si bien no buscan directamente fomentar la seguridad del trabajo y hacer frente a la rotación de personal, producen éstos efectos en los trabajadores.

La debilidad teórica del paradigma de las PAR (Ramsay et al, 2000; Boxall et al, 2011) se aborda desde una perspectiva sociológica, tomando como base la Teoría del Intercambio Social propuesta por Blau (1964) para mejorar la comprensión de los mecanismos subyacentes mediante los cuales las prácticas de RRHH pueden configurar las actitudes y el comportamiento de los trabajadores. Así, se propone estudiar el papel moderador que el intercambio social en el centro de trabajo tiene en la relación entre la satisfacción laboral y aquellas prácticas de alto rendimiento que contribuyen a la estabilidad del trabajo.

Los resultados muestran que el 60% de los asalariados perciben una baja calidad del intercambio social en su centro de trabajo, mientras que tan sólo el 20% lo percibe de alta calidad. La evidencia empírica obtenida apoya el papel del intercambio social como facilitador de la relación positiva entre las PAR y la satisfacción laboral. Así, se concluye que la calidad del intercambio social es muy relevante en los efectos positivos de las PAR sobre las actitudes y el comportamiento de los empleados (Dirks y Ferrin, 2001; Innocenti et al, 2011; Alfes et al, 2012 y 2013; Guest, 2017).

Como conclusión global de esta investigación, los resultados sugieren que el potencial de las PAR para mejorar el bienestar de los trabajadores está infrautilizado en el sector privado en España. En primer lugar, como consecuencia de la débil cobertura en términos de trabajadores de la mayoría de las PAR que contribuyen de manera positiva a la estabilidad laboral. Y

segundo, debido a que la mayoría de los ocupados tienen una baja confianza en los superiores y perciben las relaciones entre éstos y sus subordinados en el centro de trabajo como malas, inhibiendo así el efecto moderador positivo que el intercambio social ejerce en la relación entre las PAR y el bienestar subjetivo de los trabajadores.

RESUMEN (en Inglés)

The main objective of this thesis is to study the impact of high-performance work (HPWPs) on the attitudes and behaviour of private sector wage earners in Spain, paying special attention to job security as one of the central dimensions of employment quality. This research analyses the direct effect of such practices in both employee perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions. Further, this study assessed the underlying processes and mechanisms responsible for the effects on worker well-being of HPWPs. Thus, the design of the conceptual and analytical framework is based on the interconnections between the literatures on HPWPs, job quality and social exchange.

After identifying seven broad areas of HRM policies that have great importance in the literature on HPWPs (Kochan and Osterman, 1994; Pfeffer, 1998; Jiang et al., 2012; Posthuma et al., 2013; Guest, 2013), a first descriptive study is performed to evaluate the coverage in terms of employees of a wide variety of individual HPWPs. Results show that teamwork, job security provision and person-job skills match are widely spread, whilst telework, performance-based pay, social benefits and share in profits are very scarce. Second, the degree of average satisfaction with various job characteristics is estimated. Evidence shows that satisfaction is medium-high with the work itself, job stability and personal development, as well as with respect to overall job satisfaction, while it is low with social benefits and medium with training and remuneration.

The provision of job security - measured via the variable *open-ended contract* - is the individual HR practice that has the greatest (positive) effect on *perceived job stability* and (negative) on *turnover intentions*. Another set of variables that have direct, albeit smaller, positive effects on job stability are identified: *training during working hours*, *skills utilisation*, *social benefits*,

task variety, *organisational objectives knowledge*, *high pay*, *voice* and *useful training*. This implies that there are a number of individual practices that, although they do not directly seek to promote job security and to address staff turnover, have these effects on workers.

The theoretical weakness of the HPWPs paradigm (Ramsay et al., 2000; Boxall et al., 2011) is addressed from a sociological perspective, based on Blau (1964)'s Social Interchange Theory. In this respect, this theoretical framework is used to explore the underlying processes and mechanisms through which work management practices may shape worker attitudes and behaviour. Thus, it is proposed to study the moderating role that social exchange in the workplace has in the relationship between job satisfaction and those HPWPs that contribute to job stability.

The results show that 60% of employees report social exchange in the workplace to be low quality, while only 20% state it to be of high quality. Empirical findings support the role of social exchange as a facilitator of the positive relationship between HPWPs and overall job satisfaction. Thus, it is concluded that the quality of social exchange is very relevant in the positive effects of HPWPs on employee attitudes and the behaviour (Dirks and Ferrin, 2001; Innocenti et al., 2011; Alfes et al., 2012 and 2013; Guest, 2017).

As a global conclusion of this research, findings suggest that the potential of HPWPs to improve worker well-being in the private sector in Spain is not fully taken advantage of. Firstly, as a result of the low coverage in terms of workers of the majority of HPWPs that were found to positively contribute to job stability. And second, because the majority of workers have low trust in their superiors and perceive the relationships between superiors and subordinates in the workplace as bad, thus inhibiting the positive moderating effect that social exchange exerts on the relationship between HPWPs and employee subjective well-being of the workers.

RESUMEN EN ESPAÑOL

Introducción

Esta tesis estudia los efectos de las prácticas de trabajo de alto rendimiento (PAR) en las actitudes y el comportamiento de los asalariados del sector privado en España. En particular, analiza la capacidad que las prácticas de gestión de recursos humanos (RRHH) tienen para contribuir a la percepción de estabilidad laboral de los trabajadores. Además, se exploran los procesos y mecanismos subyacentes que hacen que dichas prácticas afecten al bienestar de los individuos.

Las PAR han recibido gran atención de diversas áreas de conocimiento, tales como la administración de empresas, la psicología y la sociología, en particular en los EE.UU. y en el Reino Unido. La investigación en los EE.UU. ha adoptado principalmente una perspectiva organizacional, es decir, su interés primordial es explorar las ventajas que estas prácticas proporcionan a la empresa. La investigación que aquí se presenta adopta, en cambio, un enfoque centrado en los trabajadores, por lo que está más relacionada con la línea de investigación – más destacada en el Reino Unido – que se centra en analizar las consecuencias de las prácticas a nivel individual y, en particular, en los efectos en el bienestar de los trabajadores.

Las PAR se pueden definir como un conjunto de prácticas de gestión del trabajo que se utilizan para operacionalizar la modalidad de gestión de RRHH que tiene como objetivo mejorar el desempeño empresarial a través del fomento del compromiso de los trabajadores (Huselid, 1995; Boxall y Purcell; 2003). La gestión de RRHH en general tiene consecuencias sobre el personal, ya que implica que los trabajadores deben seguir las políticas de la organización y cumplir ciertas reglas y normas. Esto es válido tanto para una definición generalista de RRHH, que establece que "la gestión de RRHH incluye todo lo relacionado con la gestión de las relaciones laborales en la empresa" (Boxall y Purcell, 2000: 184), así como para una más específica donde "la función de la gestión de RRHH es regular y dirigir el trabajo de las personas empleadas en la organización, individual y colectivamente, para contribuir a la consecución de los objetivos de la organización de manera eficiente" (González Menéndez, 2011a: 52). Las PAR en particular pueden tener consecuencias más profundas sobre el bienestar de los individuos que la gestión de RRHH en general, dado que tales prácticas buscan específicamente influir en el grado de compromiso del trabajador.

Por consiguiente, las PAR son un campo de investigación importante por varias razones. En primer lugar, la gestión de RRHH basada en el compromiso puede ser beneficiosa para el bienestar de los empleados, ya que contribuye a mitigar el riesgo de alienación y deshumanización (Walton, 1972) que Marx (1999) y Weber (1978) identificaron en la organización del trabajo basada en el control estricto, como, por ejemplo, la que se observa bajo los regímenes de producción taylorista y fordista. En segundo lugar, se ha teorizado sobre la capacidad de las PAR de proporcionar a los trabajadores estabilidad en el empleo con el fin de fomentar mayores niveles de compromiso (Walton, 1985; Pfeffer, 1998) y de mejorar el bienestar del trabajador (Boxall y Purcell, 2003). En tercer lugar, para mantener una fuerza de trabajo comprometida, uno de los objetivos a nivel organizacional perseguidos por las PAR es la retención de personal (Huselid, 1995; Pfeffer, 1998; Appelbaum et al., 2000). En cuarto lugar, es poco probable que las empresas con fines de lucro implementen PAR si no está clara la mejora subsiguiente en los resultados de la organización, pero adoptar prácticas de gestión de RRHH que fomentan el bienestar de los empleados es beneficiosa para los, a menudo, poco cuidados intereses de los trabajadores (Guest, 2017).

Justificación

Esta investigación evalúa el impacto de las PAR en los trabajadores – percepción de estabilidad laboral, intención de abandono del puesto y satisfacción laboral – en el sector privado en España. Se presta especial atención a la seguridad en el empleo, una dimensión central de la calidad del empleo, y también se evalúa el papel moderador del intercambio social en la relación entre las PAR, que contribuyen a la percepción de estabilidad en el puesto de trabajo, y las actitudes y el comportamiento de los empleados.

La seguridad del empleo se ha erosionado como consecuencia de los cambios que se han venido produciendo durante las últimas décadas, tras la intensificación del proceso de globalización (Fukuda-Parr, 2003; Scheuer y Slaughter, 2004). El “trabajo para toda la vida", característico de regímenes de producción fordistas, es cada vez menos habitual, lo cual tiene importantes implicaciones para los individuos. Así, la creciente preocupación por la calidad del trabajo y el bienestar de los trabajadores queda patente en la incorporación de la promoción de la seguridad en el empleo, como una prioridad, en la agenda de diversos organismos e instituciones supranacionales (OCDE, 2014; ILO, 2015; Eurofound, 2017; ETUC, 2015).

En España, a partir de la aprobación del Estatuto de los Trabajadores en 1980, diseñado sobre la regla fordista de empleo, la regulación legal de la seguridad del empleo ha cambiado con frecuencia. La importante reforma del mercado de trabajo en 1984 facilitó – y

consecuentemente fomentó – la temporalidad, al romper el principio de causalidad para la contratación temporal, con el fin de hacer frente al alto nivel de desempleo mediante el incentivo de la flexibilidad externa en detrimento de la seguridad en el empleo. En el primer año con registros oficiales, 1987, la tasa de empleo temporal era del 22% en el sector privado. En 1995 era superior al 40%, según la Encuesta de Población Activa. Las sucesivas reformas han intentado reducirla, pero en el año 2015 dicha tasa aún era elevada, alcanzando la segunda posición tras Polonia (25,2% y 28% respectivamente), muy por encima de la media de la UE-28 del 14,1% (Eurostat, 2017). Las recientes reformas en 2010 y 2012 que facilitan el despido por razones objetivas y la reducción de la indemnización por despido también podrían estar afectando negativamente a la seguridad en el empleo.

Las PAR buscan fomentar la retención del personal en la empresa proporcionando seguridad en el empleo directamente (Pfeffer, 1998; Messersmith y Guthrie, 2010; Wu et al., 2014), pero también indirectamente a través de formación, oportunidades de promoción, salarios competitivos, participación en beneficios, beneficios sociales, intercambio de información, autonomía en el trabajo y participación de los trabajadores (Walton, 1985; Huselid, 1995; Appelbaum et al., 2000; Guest et al., 2003). En un contexto como el español, caracterizado por un mercado de trabajo dual en el que la población ocupada se divide en trabajadores altamente protegidos en términos de la seguridad de su puesto de trabajo y aquéllos que tienen un menor nivel de protección, reviste particular importancia estudiar cualquier instrumento discrecional que las organizaciones puedan implementar para fomentar la seguridad en el empleo.

Por último, este estudio también pretende contribuir a la exploración de la llamada *caja negra de RRHH* (Ramsay et al., 2000; Boselie et al., 2005; Boxall et al., 2011; Messersmith et al., 2011; Elorza et al., 2011) en cuanto a los efectos de las prácticas de gestión de personal en los trabajadores. En otras palabras, es necesario explorar los mecanismos y procesos subyacentes que intervienen en los efectos que las prácticas de gestión de RRHH tienen sobre las actitudes y el comportamiento de los trabajadores. En particular, se propone el intercambio social como moderador de la relación entre las prácticas que contribuyen a la percepción de estabilidad y el bienestar de los empleados en el sector privado en España.

Contribución al conocimiento, objetivos de investigación y preguntas de investigación

En primer lugar, este estudio contribuye al conocimiento existente sobre PAR en el sector privado en España, a partir de datos secundarios de una encuesta de ocupados representativa a nivel estatal. En segundo lugar, es la primera investigación para el sector privado en general en

España que examina la cobertura de PAR individuales en términos de asalariados mediante la consideración de un conjunto inclusivo de estas prácticas, adoptando un enfoque orientado al trabajador. En tercer lugar, se evalúa el impacto de las PAR sobre las actitudes y el comportamiento de los empleados, tales como la percepción de estabilidad en el puesto de trabajo, la intención de abandono del mismo y la satisfacción laboral. En cuarto lugar, se examina en qué medida el intercambio social en el centro de trabajo modera estas relaciones, arrojando luz sobre la caja negra de RRHH.

El objetivo central de esta investigación es analizar el impacto de las PAR sobre las actitudes y el comportamiento de los empleados. En concreto, se examina el efecto directo de tales prácticas en la percepción de los trabajadores sobre la estabilidad del empleo y la intención de abandono del puesto de trabajo, así como sobre el papel moderador del intercambio social en la relación entre dichas prácticas y la satisfacción en el trabajo. El análisis presta especial atención a la seguridad del empleo, una dimensión central de la calidad del empleo. El marco conceptual y analítico se diseña a partir de las interconexiones entre la literatura sobre PAR, sobre calidad del empleo y sobre el intercambio social.

Dado el objetivo general del estudio, se establecen los siguientes objetivos de investigación específicos:

a) Evaluar de manera crítica la literatura existente sobre PAR, centrándose en aquellos estudios que analizan sus efectos en los trabajadores.

b) Establecer conexiones entre las PAR y la calidad del empleo, así como entre las PAR y la Teoría del Intercambio Social (TIS).

c) Identificar las principales políticas de RRHH de cara a facilitar la evaluación de la asociación ente las PAR y las actitudes y el comportamiento de los trabajadores.

d) Operacionalizar las actitudes y el comportamiento de los individuos de modo que se puedan evaluar los efectos de las PAR en los trabajadores.

e) Operacionalizar el intercambio social en el centro de trabajo para examinar su papel en la relación entre las PAR y las actitudes y el comportamiento de los trabajadores.

f) Contrastar las hipótesis de investigación resultantes del marco desarrollado, con el fin de incrementar el conocimiento existente sobre la relación entre las PAR y el bienestar de los trabajadores del sector privado en España, prestando especial atención a la calidad del empleo y al papel que juega el intercambio social.

g) Abordar las implicaciones teóricas de los hallazgos de este estudio.

A partir de los objetivos del estudio, se proponen las siguientes preguntas de investigación:

a) ¿Cuál es la cobertura de las PAR en términos de empleados del sector privado en España?

b) ¿Cuál es el nivel de satisfacción medio de los trabajadores del sector privado en España con las características del puesto de trabajo que son representativas de las PAR?

c) ¿Cuáles son las PAR individuales que contribuyen positivamente a la percepción de estabilidad en el puesto de trabajo?

d) ¿En qué medida el intercambio social facilita la relación entre las PAR que contribuyen a la percepción de estabilidad en el puesto de trabajo y la satisfacción laboral?

Estructura de la tesis

El resto de la tesis está estructurada para, en primer lugar, caracterizar cuestiones esenciales sobre las PAR, en segundo lugar, señalar las conexiones entre la modalidad de RRHH basada en tales prácticas y la calidad del empleo, con especial énfasis en la seguridad del puesto de trabajo y, tercero, estudiar la idoneidad de usar la TIS para arrojar luz sobre los procesos y mecanismos que facilitan el efecto positivo de las PAR sobre las actitudes y el comportamiento de los trabajadores. Así, la revisión de la literatura se divide en tres capítulos. Tras la presentación de la metodología seleccionada para llevar a cabo los análisis estadísticos, se ofrecen los resultados obtenidos. A continuación se discuten los resultados empíricos, antes de terminar con las conclusiones. De manera más específica, el contenido de los capítulos es el siguiente.

El Capítulo 2 examina la literatura existente sobre las PAR, centrándose principalmente en la corriente de investigación que adopta un enfoque orientado a los trabajadores. Siguiendo la lógica de las PAR, se seleccionan siete políticas generales de RRHH que servirán de hilo conductor para la propuesta de preguntas e hipótesis de investigación a lo largo de este estudio. Dichas políticas son reclutamiento y selección; formación; provisión de seguridad del puesto de trabajo; remuneración (tanto contraprestaciones monetarias como no monetarias); intercambio de información; enriquecimiento del puesto de trabajo; y voz. Como resultado de la escasa evidencia sobre PAR en España, se propone elaborar un mapa de su cobertura en términos de asalariados del sector privado.

El Capítulo 3 se centra en la importancia de la calidad del empleo en general y de la seguridad del empleo en particular, en términos de desarrollo individual, organizativo y económico. Se argumenta que la calidad del empleo y la lógica tras las PAR comparten muchas similitudes, dotando así a la investigación sobre estas prácticas de una perspectiva de calidad del empleo. A

partir del hecho de que la retención de personal es uno de los objetivos perseguidos por las PAR, así como del consenso acerca de la seguridad del empleo como una dimensión central de la calidad del empleo, se propone una serie de hipótesis para comprobar si la función de las PAR como método para aumentar la percepción de estabilidad laboral se cumple en el sector privado en España. Además, dado que la satisfacción laboral es un indicador del bienestar subjetivo de los trabajadores, se propone elaborar un mapa de la satisfacción de los empleados con una serie de características del puesto de trabajo que son representativas de PAR, con el fin de evaluar cómo experimentan los individuos las PAR.

En el Capítulo 4 se explica la TIS como marco teórico para comprender los procesos y mecanismos que explican cómo se produce el efecto de las PAR en los trabajadores. Tras una revisión de la literatura sobre el intercambio social, tanto la confianza en los superiores como la calidad de las relaciones entre los mandos y los subordinados son seleccionadas para operacionalizar el intercambio social en el centro de trabajo. Esto permite proponer otro conjunto de hipótesis para explorar el papel moderador del intercambio social en la relación entre las PAR y las actitudes y el comportamiento de los trabajadores, con el objetivo de explorar la *caja negra de los RRHH*.

El Capítulo 5 está dedicado a la metodología aplicada para realizar los análisis estadísticos. Dividido en tres secciones, la primera presenta la fuente de datos utilizada y explica su idoneidad para analizar las PAR en España. Específicamente, se utiliza la Encuesta de Calidad de Vida en el Trabajo (ECVT) por su representatividad a nivel nacional, su enfoque orientado al trabajador y el gran número de ítems que miden las prácticas de RRHH y las actitudes y comportamiento de los trabajadores – en especial la satisfacción – que contiene. La segunda sección presenta las variables que se utilizarán en los análisis. Por último, la tercera sección expone los métodos estadísticos apropiados para responder a las preguntas de investigación y para comprobar las hipótesis.

En el Capítulo 6 se ofrecen los resultados descriptivos de la cobertura de PAR sobre los empleados del sector privado en España, así como los relativos a la satisfacción de los trabajadores con una variedad de características del puesto de trabajo que reflejan PAR. Los hallazgos obtenidos demuestran que, en términos generales, las PAR no están muy extendidas en España, con la excepción del trabajo en equipo, la provisión de seguridad del puesto de trabajo y la utilización de las habilidades. La satisfacción global de los empleados es media-alta en promedio y media para todas las características del puesto de trabajo consideradas, con la excepción de la remuneración (satisfacción baja) y de los beneficios sociales (insatisfacción).

En los Capítulos 7 y 8 se presentan los resultados estadísticos referidos a la capacidad de las PAR de contribuir a la percepción de estabilidad del trabajo, basándose en la estimación de los efectos directos de las PAR individuales en la percepción de los empleados sobre la estabilidad del empleo y la intención de abandono del trabajo. Los resultados indican que las PAR son beneficiosas en cuanto a sus efectos en los trabajadores o no son ni beneficiosas ni perjudiciales. Además, al menos una práctica de cada una de las siete políticas generales de RRHH consideradas tiene un efecto estadísticamente significativo en las actitudes y comportamiento considerados de los trabajadores. En el capítulo 8 se presentan también resultados con respecto al papel moderador del intercambio social en la relación entre las PAR que contribuyen a la percepción de estabilidad en el puesto de trabajo y la satisfacción laboral, mostrando los resultados un efecto claramente positivo.

En el Capítulo 9 se analizan los resultados estadísticos en relación con la literatura existente – tanto teórica como empírica – sobre PAR, calidad del empleo y TIS. A partir de dichos resultados, se da respuesta a las preguntas de investigación. Como se preveía en las hipótesis propuestas, la provisión de seguridad del puesto de trabajo es la práctica individual que tiene el efecto más fuerte tanto en el aumento de la percepción de los trabajadores de la estabilidad laboral como en la disminución de la intención de abandono del puesto de trabajo. Otras prácticas que contribuyen positivamente a la percepción de estabilidad son la utilización de las habilidades; la formación útil; la alta remuneración; los beneficios sociales; la información sobre los objetivos de la organización; la variedad de tareas; y la voz colectiva indirecta. Por lo tanto, se encuentra evidencia sobre los beneficios de las PAR en general, independientemente del objetivo principal que persiguen de manera específica. En cuanto al papel del intercambio social en la relación entre las PAR que contribuyen a la estabilidad del trabajo y el bienestar de los empleados, los resultados muestran que dicho papel es de moderación positiva.

El Capítulo 10 concluye esta investigación resumiendo los principales resultados en relación con las preguntas y las hipótesis de investigación propuestas, llevando a cabo una reflexión sobre la contribución al conocimiento del estudio. Finalmente, considera tanto las limitaciones de la investigación como las implicaciones de cara a futuras investigaciones.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AMO	Ability-Motivation-Opportunity model
ETUC	European Trade Union Confederation
Eurofound	European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions
HPWPs	High-performance work practices
HPWS	High-performance work systems
HRM	Human resource management
ILO	International Labour Organization
LFS	Labour Force Survey
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
SET	Social exchange theory
WLQS	Working Life Quality Survey

ÍNDICE DE SIGLAS

ECVT	Encuesta de Condiciones de Vida en el Trabajo
PAR	Prácticas de Alto Rendimiento
RRHH	Recursos Humanos
TIS	Teoría del Intercambio Social

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This thesis assesses the effects of high-performance work practices (HPWPs) on attitudes and behaviour of private sector employees in Spain. In particular, it analyses the capacity of individual practices to foster worker perception of job stability, and explores the underlying processes and mechanisms that intervene in the materialisation of stability-fostering HPWPs on employee well-being.

HPWPs have received great attention by varied fields of knowledge, such as management, psychology and sociology, particularly in the USA and the UK. Research in the USA has mainly addressed HPWPs from a managerial perspective, i.e. with a primary interest in the advantages of these practices at the organisational level. The research presented here adopts instead a worker-oriented approach, thus being better connected to the strand of research – more prominent in the UK – that focuses in analysing the consequences of the practices at the individual level, and particularly their effects on worker well-being.

HPWPs may be conceptualised as a set of work management practices that are used to operationalise a modality of human resource management (HRM) which is aimed at improving organisational performance via fostering worker commitment (Huselid, 1995; Appelbaum et al., 2000; Boxall and Purcell, 2003). HRM in general has consequences on labour since it implies that employees must adhere to organisational policies and follow certain rules and norms. This holds both under an inclusive definition of HRM stating that "HRM includes anything and everything associated with the management of employment relations in the firm" (Boxall and Purcell, 2000: 184), as well as under a more precise one where "the role of HRM is to regulate and direct the work of people employed in the organisation, individually and collectively, to contribute to the achievement of the objectives of the organisation in an efficient manner" (González Menéndez, 2011a: 52). Further, the consequences on the well-being of individuals may be greater when the modality of HRM in consideration is that operationalised by HPWPs, given that such practices specifically seek to influence worker commitment. Accordingly, HPWPs are an important area for research for several reasons. First, commitment-based HRM may be beneficial for employee well-being in that it contributes to alleviate the risk of alienation and dehumanisation (Walton, 1972) that Marx (1999) and Weber (1978) identified in tight control-based types of labour management such as the ones seen under Taylorist and Fordist production regimes. Second,

HPWPs are theorised to provide workers with job security to foster employee commitment (Walton, 1985; Pfeffer, 1998) and to improve worker well-being (Boxall and Purcell, 2003; Guest, 2017). Third, in order to maintain a committed workforce, one of the organisational objectives pursued by HPWPs is staff retention (Huselid, 1995; Pfeffer, 1998; Appelbaum et al., 2000). Fourth, profit-seeking firms may be unlikely to implement HPWPs if the subsequent improvement in organisational performance is unclear, yet adopting HRM practices that foster employee well-being is beneficial for the often neglected interests of workers (Guest, 2017).

1.2 Rationale

This research assesses the impact of HPWPs on employee outcomes – overall job satisfaction, perception of job stability, and voluntary turnover intentions – in the private sector in Spain. Paying special attention to job security, which is a central dimension of job quality, it also evaluates the moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between job stability-fostering HPWPs and employee attitudes and behaviour.

Job security is being eroded as a consequence of the changes that have been taking place in work and employment over the last decades, following the intensification of the globalising process (Fukuda-Parr, 2003; Scheve and Slaughter, 2004; Auer, 2005). “A job for life”, such as could be found under Fordism, may be becoming increasingly rare, which has important implications for individuals. Connectedly, a rising concern about job quality and worker well-being is noticeable in the incorporation of the promotion of job security to the agenda of many supranational agencies and institutions (OECD, 2014; ETUC, 2015; ILO, 2015; Eurofound, 2017) as a top priority.

In Spain, from the approval of the Workers’ Statute in 1980, built on the Fordist rule of employment, the legal regulation of job security has changed often. A major labour market reform in 1984 eased – and consequently fostered – fixed-term contracts by breaking the principle of causality for temporary hiring in order to tackle unemployment. This resulted in greater numerical flexibility in detriment of job security and in 1987, the first year with official records, the temporary employment rate was 22% in the private sector; by 1995 it was over 40% according to the Spanish Labour Force Survey (LFS). Successive reforms have tried to reduce it, yet by 2015 the temporary rate in Spain remained high and it was the second largest after that of Poland (25.2% and 28% respectively), well above the EU-28 average of 14.1% (Eurostat, 2017). Recent labour reforms in 2010 and 2012 easing the objective legal reasons for dismissal and lowering severance pay may also affect job security negatively.

HPWPs seek to foster staff retention by providing job security directly (Pfeffer, 1998; Messersmith and Guthrie, 2010; Wu et al., 2014), but also indirectly via training and promotion opportunities, competitive salaries, profit-sharing, social benefits, information sharing, job autonomy, and worker participation (Walton, 1985; Huselid, 1995; Appelbaum et al., 2000; Guest et al., 2003). In a national setting characterised by a dual labour market where the employed population is divided into highly protected workers and those who are unprotected, such as the Spanish, it is of particular relevance to study any discretionary instrument that organisations may implement to foster job security.

Last, this study also seeks to help uncover the so-called *black box* of HRM (Ramsay et al., 2000; Boselie et al., 2005; Boxall et al., 2011; Messersmith et al., 2011; Elorza et al., 2011) as to employee outcomes. In other words, it is deemed necessary to explore the underlying mechanisms and processes that intervene in the effects that HRM practices have on worker attitudes and behaviour. In particular, social exchange is proposed to moderate the relationship between individual stability-fostering HPWPs and employee well-being in the private sector in Spain.

1.3 Statement of the existing gap of knowledge

Academic research on HPWPs in Spain is rather scarce and mainly adopts an organisational approach (Gutiérrez, 1998; Ordiz-Fuertes and Fernández-Sánchez, 2003; Ordiz and Fernández, 2005), with only a handful of worker-oriented studies (Ollo-López et al., 2010; Elorza et al., 2011; Gutiérrez and González Menéndez, 2011). These are often restricted to specific settings in terms of activity sectors, occupational groups or firm size (Gutiérrez, 1998; Ordiz-Fuertes and Fernández Sánchez, 2003; Ordiz and Fernández, 2005; Camps Torres and Luna-Arocas, 2008; Sanchís Palacio and Campos Climent, 2010; Elorza et al., 2011). Results are inconclusive and not subject to generalisation. Therefore, three main gaps in the existing knowledge have been identified.

First, despite the high temporary employment rate that has been in Spain since the 1980s and that staff retention is one of the main objectives pursued by the high-performance paradigm (Huselid, 1995; Pfeffer, 1998; Appelbaum et al., 2000), the capacity of HPWPs to foster job stability in this context has not been investigated so far in a comprehensive manner for the Spanish private sector.

Second, the extent to which HPWPs fostering job stability translate into overall employee well-being in the Spanish context is unknown.

Third, should HPWPs impact well-being as theorised, it has not been explored for the Spanish case how that occurs. In other words, it is not known which are the underlying processes and mechanisms that intervene in such effects.

1.4 Contribution to knowledge, research objectives and research questions

First, this study increases the existing knowledge about HPWPs in the private sector in Spain, drawing on secondary data from a survey of employed workers that is representative at the national level. Second, it is the first research for the overall private sector in Spain that examines the coverage of individual HPWPs in terms of employees by considering a comprehensive set of such practices, whilst adopting a worker-oriented approach. Third, it assesses the impact of HPWPs on employee attitudes and behaviour, namely overall job satisfaction, perception of job stability and turnover intentions. Fourth, it examines to which extent social exchange in the workplace moderates these relationships, thus shedding light on the *black box* of HRM.

The central objective of the research is to assess the impact of HPWPs on employee attitudes and behaviour. Specifically, the direct effect of such practices on worker perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions is examined, as well as the moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between such practices and overall job satisfaction. The analysis pays especial attention to job security, a central dimension of job quality. The conceptual and analytical framework is based on the interconnections among the literatures on HPWPs, job quality and social exchange.

Given the general aim of the study, the following research objectives are established:

a) To critically evaluate the existing literature on HPWPs, focusing on those studies that analyse the effects on employee outcomes.

b) To draw connections between the high-performance paradigm and job quality, and between the high-performance paradigm and Social Exchange Theory (SET) in terms of employee outcomes.

c) To operationalise the main HRM policies in a manner that allows for the assessment of their association with worker attitudes and behaviour.

d) To operationalise employee outcomes so that the effects of HPWPs at the individual level can be assessed.

e) To operationalise social exchange in the workplace to examine its role in the relationship between HPWPs and employee outcomes.

f) To test the research hypotheses resulting from the framework developed, in order to increase the existing knowledge regarding the relationship between HPWPs and employee well-being of private sector employees in Spain, paying special attention to job quality and from a social exchange perspective.

g) To address the theoretical implications of the findings of this study.

Based on the general objectives of the study, the research questions that are proposed are:

a) What is the coverage of HPWPs in terms of private sector employees in Spain?

b) How satisfied are (private sector) workers with job features that are representative of HRM practices?

c) Which individual HPWPs positively contribute to the provision of job stability?

d) To which extent does social exchange facilitate the relationship between those HPWPs that foster job stability and overall job satisfaction?

1.5 Data and methodology

This study analyses the effects of HPWPs on employee attitudes and behaviour, focusing on job stability. Accordingly, the unit of analysis are workers themselves. The instrument used to carry out the empirical analysis is the Working Life Quality Survey (WLQS), a representative sample of the employed population in Spain. Thus, results may be generalised to the private sector, which is a key contribution of this study. Also, no previous research on HPWPs in Spain includes such a wide variety of individual practices categorised under as many different (seven) broad HRM policies, analysing at the same time the effects of practices on employee outcomes. Further, no previous research has investigated the *black box* of HRM (Ramsay et al., 2000; Boselie et al., 2005; Boxall et al., 2011; Messersmith et al., 2011; Elorza et al., 2011), i.e. the underlying processes and mechanisms by which HRM practices have an effect on employee outcomes, by assessing the moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and employee attitudes and behaviour.

In order to estimate both the direct effects of HPWPs on employee outcomes and the moderating effect of social exchange, logistic regression models are used, further complemented with post-estimation techniques that allow for quantifying the size of said effects.

1.6 Plan of the thesis

The rest of the thesis is structured to, first, provide some essential insights of HPWPs; second, signal the connections between the modality of HRM based on such practices with job quality, with a special focus on job security; and third, discuss the suitability of applying SET to shed light on the processes and mechanisms that facilitate the positive effect on employee attitudes and behaviour of HPWPs. Therefore, the literature review is divided in three chapters. Next, after the selection of the methodology to perform the analyses, empirical results are presented. A discussion of results follows, before ending with the conclusions chapter. The contents of each chapter are more specifically as follows.

Chapter 2 examines the existing knowledge on HPWPs, primarily focusing on the research stream of the literature that adopts a worker-oriented approach. Following the rationale of the high-performance paradigm, seven broad HRM policies are selected that will serve as the analytical thread for the proposition of research questions and hypotheses along this study. The policies are recruitment and selection; training; job security; rewards; information sharing; job enrichment; and employee voice. As a result of the scarce evidence on HPWPs in Spain, it is proposed to map the extent to which private sector employees in Spain are covered by HPWPs.

Chapter 3 draws on the relevance of job quality in general and job security in particular in terms of individual, organisational and economic development. It argues that job quality and the high-performance paradigm share many similarities, thus endowing HPWPs research with a job quality perspective. Based on staff retention being one of the objectives pursued by HPWPs and on the consensus that job security is a central dimension of job quality, a set of hypotheses is proposed in order to test if the theorised capacity of HPWPs as providers of job stability holds for private sector employees in Spain. Also, following that self-reported job satisfaction is an indicator of worker subjective well-being, it is proposed to map employee satisfaction with a set of job features that are representative of HPWPs, thus assessing the lived experience of HPWPs by individuals.

Chapter 4 argues that SET offers an appropriate theoretical framework for understanding the processes and mechanisms that explain how the effect of HPWPs on employee outcomes occurs. After reviewing the literature on SET, both trust in superiors and the quality of relationships between management and staff are selected to operationalise social exchange in the workplace. This allows for proposing another set of hypotheses to explore the moderating role of social

exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and employee attitudes and behaviour with the aim to explore the *black box* of HRM.

Chapter 5 is dedicated to the methodology applied to perform the empirical analyses. Divided into three sections, the first one introduces the dataset used and shows its suitability for investigating HPWPs in Spain. Specifically, the Working Life Quality Survey (WLQS) is chosen for its representativeness at the national level, its worker-oriented approach, and the large number of items measuring HRM practices and employee attitudes and behaviour – especially satisfaction – that it contains. The second section presents the variables to be used in the analyses. Last, the third section selects the appropriate statistical methods to answer the research questions and to test the hypotheses.

Chapter 6 presents the descriptive results on HPWPs coverage among private sector employees, as well as those on worker satisfaction with a variety of job features reflecting HPWPs. Findings show that individual HPWPs overall are not widely spread in Spain, with the exceptions of teamwork, job security provision, and skills utilisation. Employee average satisfaction is medium-high and medium for all the job features considered, the exception being pay (low satisfaction) and social benefits (dissatisfaction).

Chapters 7 and 8 present the statistical results referred to the capacity of HPWPs to foster job stability, based on the estimation of the direct effects of individual HPWPs on employee perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions. Findings indicate that HPWPs are either beneficial for employee outcomes or neither beneficial nor detrimental. Further, each one of the seven broad HRM policies considered include at least one practice that has a statistically significant effect on the employee outcomes considered. Results with respect to the moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between job stability-fostering HPWPs and overall job satisfaction are also presented in this chapter, with findings clearly showing a positive moderating role.

Chapter 9 discusses the statistical results in connection to the theoretical and empirical literatures on HPWPs, job quality and SET. Answers to the research questions are provided based on such results. As it is hypothesised, job security provision is the individual practice that has the strongest effect both on increasing worker perception of job stability and on diminishing voluntary turnover intentions. Other practices that are found to positively contribute to job stability are skills utilisation; useful training; high pay; social benefits; organisational objectives information; task variety; and indirect collective voice. Thus, support is found for the benefits of HPWPs in general, regardless of the main objective that they specifically pursue. As to the role

of social exchange in explaining the relationship between job stability-fostering HPWPs and employee well-being, findings support that it is one of positive moderation overall.

Chapter 10 concludes this research by summarising the main findings in connection to the research questions and hypotheses proposed, and reflects on the contribution to knowledge of the study. Finally, it considers both the limitations of the research and its implications for future investigations.

CHAPTER II

HIGH-PERFORMANCE WORK PRACTICES

2 HIGH-PERFORMANCE WORK PRACTICES

2.1 Introduction

Traditional control-based work organisation, such as *scientific management* (Taylor, 1919), is primarily concerned with achieving efficiency and considers labour a mere commodity in the production process, not very different from any other variable cost. Close control is exercised mainly due to the low expectations of management regarding the skills and motivation of employees, who are generally granted little voice. This form of work organisation is characterised by the division of labour into small, fixed jobs that consist of monotonous and repetitive tasks, facilitating control and minimising the need for human interaction. Employee well-being is thus neglected, increasing the risk of alienation (Marx, 1999; Weber, 1978).

Contemporary HRM is rooted in *The School of Human Relations*, which in turn builds upon the notion that it is crucial to focus on the relationships among the individuals that integrate a social system – such as work organisations –, for social patterns to be addressed effectively, as advocated by Durkheim. The most noteworthy representative of The School of Human Relations, Elton Mayo conducted in the late 1920s a study that empirically supports the need for taking human relationships into consideration when addressing social behaviour. Set in an industrial setting, Mayo and his colleagues found that worker productivity was boosted when participants were aware that management was interested in what they did and how they did it. Known as *the Hawthorne effect*, these researchers concluded that productivity increased as a result of worker behaviour being altered in order to satisfy the need that employees as a social group had to reward the organisation for the interactions and co-operation that occurred during the study.

The beginning of HRM as a discipline from a sociological perspective may be traced back to the proposition by Walton (1972) to redesign how work was organised by accounting for employee expectations. This author highlighted that modern systems of work organisation foster employee involvement in order to tackle alienation in the workplace. Under this modality of work organisation, organisational and individual goals are aligned and decision making is decentralised, granting workers with greater responsibility and more flexibility. In doing so, both the quality of working life and organisational performance are improved. At the individual level, alienation has negative effects on the well-being, i.e. mental and physical health, of employees and, consequently, on their families and communities. At the organisational level, alienation

generates social and psychological costs that result in adverse worker behaviour – such as staff turnover –, translating into lower organisational performance. Walton (1972) suggested that conflict, which poses a problem for organisations and staff alike, emerges as a consequence of the outdated notion of the division of labour that is found in traditional workplaces and of the failure to fully recognise the change in employee values and attitudes. There is a shift from granting importance to the virtues of hard work and competition towards valuing self-expression and self-actualisation.

Empirical findings by Walton (1972 and 1985) drawn from case studies in U.S. plants support that modern systems of work organisation both enhance the quality of working life of employees and improve performance via the competitive advantage provided by a committed workforce. His results show the superiority of the organisation of work based on eliciting employee commitment, compared to the organisation of work based on exercising close control, in terms of staff retention rates, productivity, quality goals, staff morale, and trust in management, among others. Although more work was required, employee involvement and job satisfaction were higher. Thus, Walton (1972 and 1985) supported the convenience to depart from traditional work organisations, reassuring "that other organisational modes […] [*are*] not only possible but also more viable in the current social context" (Walton, 1972: 74).

Many authors contributed since to the line of research which advocates that organisational performance is improved via a knowledgeable, committed, empowered workforce (Huselid, 1995; Pfeffer, 1998; Appelbaum et al., 2000; Boxall and Purcell, 2003). This type of HRM is usually referred to in the literature as the *high-performance paradigm*. Its characteristic components, termed *high-performance work practices* (HPWPs), are a set of work management practices considered complementary (Huselid, 1995; Appelbaum et al., 2000; Boxall and Purcell, 2003) in seeking to improve organisational performance via fostering employee commitment. By increasing business awareness, the high-performance paradigm draws upon capable, motivated and empowered workers whose objectives are aligned with those of the organisation. Ultimately, employee involvement results in higher quality jobs and more efficient organisations (Boxall and Purcell, 2003), thus enhancing firm performance (Pfeffer, 1998). This idea is also found in the seminal work by Kochan and Osterman (1994), who provide theoretical and empirical evidence to argue that new models of employment relations based on investing in human capital outperform traditional systems. In their comprehensive study for the USA, Kochan and Osterman (1994) extend the proposition by Walton (1972 and 1985) and posit that a *mutual gains* policy framework that proposes ways to move from the regulation of labour conflicts to policies that support policies which, if widely implemented, may benefit workers,

organisations and the national economy. Such policies, nationally endorsed and facilitated by the government, must foster innovation in employment relations so as to structure the relationships among workers, management and government. In this manner, the mutual gains framework allows for taking into consideration specific elements for national employment and HRM policy, as well as a new role for government.

Yet, after four decades of research on performance-enhancing organisations, the unquestionable positive effect of commitment-based HRM on performance cannot yet be asserted (Guest, 2011: 11), with Walton (1985) himself noting that it does not only entail benefits, but costs as well, also highlighting that some environments are better suited than others for the commitment model. Nevertheless, the use of work management practices that enhance employee commitment may be an end in itself, for it may be a legitimate means of providing justice and equality of opportunity (Wall and Wood, 2005) and promote the development of personal skills and individual self-esteem (Walton, 1985). It is thus deemed important to investigate further the theorised benefits of modern systems of work organisation for employees, and particularly if such benefits hold in 21st century Spain.

This chapter reviews and discusses existing research on high-performance work practices (HPWPs), focusing on those studies that include empirical evidence drawn from Spanish data. This modality of HRM practices is conceptualised in Sections 2.2 and 2.3 presents the foundations, according to the literature, for considering HPWPs as a set of work management practices that deserve special attention. After briefly identifying the main approaches to research on HPWPs, Section 2.4.2 discusses the most relevant pieces of research on the topic that contribute to the existing knowledge for the Spanish case, before stating the main objective and the two research questions that are proposed in order to increase the existing knowledge about the reality of HPWPs in Spain. Finally, seven core HRM areas that need considering when performing an inclusive study of HPWPs are selected and justified in the fourth section.

2.2 Conceptualisation of HPWPs

The rationale behind the high-performance paradigm is that organisational performance is improved by the design and implementation of strategic HRM systems aimed at fostering employee commitment. According to influential studies such as Appelbaum et al. (2000), Boxall and Purcell (2003), Jiang et al. (2012) and Posthuma et al. (2013), such systems must be instrumentalised via the adoption of work management practices seeking to (a) ensure that workers possess the knowledge, skills and qualifications required by the position, (b) motivate

employees to do the job, and (c) allow for discretionality to perform the job (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Boxall and Purcell, 2003; Jiang et al., 2012; Posthuma et al., 2013). As it will be discussed in more detail in Section 2.3, three subsets of HPWPs may be differentiated according to the main goal that they pursue. In this manner, HPWPs may be grouped into three distinct categories, namely *ability-enhancing* (recruitment, training, job rotation), *motivation-enhancing* (pay, job security, internal labour market), and *opportunity-enhancing* (voice, job control, task variety, access to organisational information). Nevertheless, whereas every individual work management practice is primarily aimed at fostering one of the three dimensions, it may also be the case that one single practice enhances all three dimensions simultaneously, e.g. training, job control, job rotation.

Under the scenario posed by HPWPs, where the means to obtain a competitive advantage are employees themselves, it is vital to, first, attract the best candidates through adequate selection and recruitment practices, also improving workforce skills and knowledge via the provision of training activities; second, to retain the best human capital via the provision of job security, competitive and fair reward packages, and promotion opportunities as a way to acknowledge the value of employees for the organisation; and third, to encourage a working environment where individuals enjoy high levels of job discretion – i.e. the degree of autonomy and participation in decision-making – that facilitate the opportunity to contribute, thus allowing for personal and professional development.

In sum, on the basis of the fundamental premise of the high-performance paradigm being that organisations operate at a higher level when they are able to benefit from the ideas, skills, and effort of their staff (Pfeffer, 1998), it may be agreed that the high-performance paradigm acknowledges the central role of workers in the pursuit for competitive advantage (Huselid, 1995; Pfeffer, 1998; Appelbaum et al., 2000), thus staff attraction and retention are among the sought objectives. In this respect, this approach to HRM posits that individual involvement with the organisation is increased via the adoption of a set of complementary work practices – HPWPs – that fosters employee ability, motivation and opportunity to contribute (Macky and Boxall, 2007; Wood et al., 2012). Thereby, individual and organisational goals are aligned, thus enhancing worker commitment with the organisation (Kocher and Osterman, 1994), and job quality is improved (Boxall and Purcell, 2003; Wood, 2013) by offering better working conditions.

Nevertheless, some authors advise that the assumption that “what is good for management is also assumed to be good for workers, and vice-versa” (Peccei, 2004: 15) may not be necessarily the case, since HRM practices that foster employee well-being might differ from those that are

characteristic of high-performance work systems (HPWS), thus causing important tensions when seeking to simultaneously maximise worker well-being and organisational performance (Peccei, 2004). In a similar vein, HPWPs have received strong criticisms with respect to the potential harm that this modality of HRM may have on worker wellbeing as a consequence of the greater levels of responsibility that are assumed by employees, thus implying greater levels of pressure and stress (White et al., 2003; Danford et al., 2004, 2008 and 2009; González, 2010; Merriman, 2017). In this respect, Chapter 3 discusses the connections between job quality and HPWPs, and the effects of these practices on employee attitudes and behaviour are empirically tested in Chapters 7 and 8, paying special attention to job security.

2.3 The rationale of the high-performance paradigm: HRM bundles and the AMO model

The central assumption by the high-performance paradigm posits that HRM practices need to be complementary in order to yield synergistic effects when they are combined (MacDuffie, 1995; Pfeffer, 1998; Shah and Ward, 2003; Marchington and Wilkinson, 2005; De Menezes et al., 2010), i.e. synergies between them emerge, thus achieving an effect that is superior than the sum of individual effects (Subramony, 2009). In other words, when coherent and harmonious practices are simultaneously used, they *work* together and their overall effect is enhanced.

Thus, it is useful to group HPWPs into separate *bundles*, based on the general objective that they pursue. A bundle is an aggregate of different practices that share a common goal. The logic behind doing these aggregations is that practices within the same bundle are complementary and reinforce the effect of each other, thus resulting in synergies that enhance their global effect on employee attitudes and behaviour.

A common approach to HRM bundles in the literature (MacDuffie, 1995; Appelbaum et al., 2000; De Menezes and Wood, 2006; Wood and De Menezes, 2008; Subramony, 2009; Kroon et al., 2013) implies considering that, in order to achieve higher levels of organisational performance via the discretionary effort of employees, HR systems must contain three complementary bundles of practices. Each bundle seeks to foster a different global dimension of high-performance work systems (HPWS). First, that employees possess and develop the necessary knowledge, skills and abilities to perform their job properly (ability bundle); second, that individuals are effectively incentivised to achieve organisational goals and their work is

adequately acknowledged (motivation bundle); and third, that the organisation provides the appropriate settings to facilitate worker discretion and participation (opportunity to contribute bundle). Thereby, complementarities among HRM bundles would yield synergistic effects and translate into enhanced worker commitment with the organisation. This approach has been labelled *AMO model*, derived from the names of the three dimensions, i.e. ability, motivation and opportunity to contribute.

Empirical research on the positive effects of HRM bundles on organisational performance include Subramony (2009), Boxall et al. (2011) and Patel et al. (2013). Subramony (2009) finds that HRM bundles are positively associated to business outcomes and have significantly larger effects than their constituent individual practices. De Menezes et al. (2010) conclude that the ability to achieve multiple goals by the integration of HRM practices results in superior firm performance. Patel et al. (2013) find that implementing a complementary set of HPWP positively contributes to develop the necessary flexibility to achieve firm growth, via efficiency and innovation.

Variations of the AMO model are found in the literature when approaching the link between HPWPs and organisational performance via bundles. For instance, Poutsma et al. (2013) identify three complementary HRM dimensions – which they refer to as HRM policies –, namely calculative policy (equivalent to the ability-enhancing dimension of the AMO model), collaborative policy (equivalent to the opportunity dimension of the AMO model), and collective sharing policy (comparable to the motivation dimension of the AMO model). They find positive effects on performance of these three policies.

In more general terms, there are different approaches that can be used to study HRM bundles as a means to provide competitive advantage to the organisation. In this respect, Wood and De Menezes (2008) differentiate three perspectives whilst adopting the AMO framework perspective. First, the *complementary perspective*, where HRM practices yield a superior result, having a positive association with labour productivity. Studies that embrace this perspective consider that implementing different HRM practices provides an additive rather than a synergistic advantage. Therefore, the approach to bundles differs from that already discussed (Patterson et al., 2010). Second, the *synergistic perspective*, which contemplates that effects on performance increase when practices are combined together. Specifically, it is emphasised how ability- and motivation-enhancing bundles of practices derive greater effects when the opportunity-enhancing bundle is implemented. Third, the *orientation perspective*, where all three sets of practices need to be implemented in order to attain higher performance. In line

with this perspective, MacDuffie (1995) highlights that, besides work management practices having greater effects when combined together as a result of the interactions that reinforce one another, practices should be linked to business functions and strategies.

Budhwar and Aryee (2008) discuss the three perspectives in Wood and De Menezes (2008), although from a more theoretical angle and the terms that they use are universalistic, contingency and configurational perspective. First, the universalistic perspective considers that there is a set of practices that always yields superior results, regardless of the organisational context. Second, the contingency perspective argues that the effectiveness of a set of HRM practices rests on its consistency with other organisational strategies. Third, the configurational perspective considers that the organisational context determines the best specific combination of HRM practices that needs implementing to maximise effectiveness.

However, instead of considering them perspectives as such, it may be best to think of them as different dimensions of HRM that are not mutually exclusive, but which may coexist within the organisation. Thus, some practices may be best practices that appear to have no rival practices (*universalistic dimension*), such as paying wages above average, training provision when necessary, and wide information sharing. In other cases certain practices will be determined by business strategy (*contingency dimension*), such as selective hiring or extensive training when the organisation must deliver specific outcomes in a relatively short period of time and this cannot be done on the basis of the knowledge, skills and abilities of the existing workforce. Finally, HRM practices can interact with business strategy in line with the external environment (*configurational dimension*). In this respect, if a company becomes aware of a new competitive advantage, the global strategy may be re-thought and the company may even shift the activity into a different sector, adopting different recruitment and selection practices, training programs, and pay schemes.

In sum, according to the AMO approach to the high-performance paradigm, the advantages provided by HPWPs largely depend on the entire set of such practices that are implemented in the organisation, as a result of their complementarities and interactions (MacDuffie, 1995; Shah and Ward, 2003; Wood and De Menezes, 2008; Subramony, 2009; De Menezes et al., 2010). In this respect, the AMO model has been used to identify three key components of HRM systems that enhance different dimensions, namely ability, motivation and opportunity to contribute. Testing the synergies derived from the interactions within and among the three bundles is not among the aims of this study, yet it must be noted that results in Chapter 6 will allow for identifying which practices are widespread in the private sector in Spain and which are not. Thus,

it will be possible to differentiate the extent to which each of said three components is developed in Spain.

Nevertheless, the high-performance paradigm in general and the AMO model in particular have received criticism for their weak theoretical foundations. In particular, the lack of knowledge about the processes and mechanisms that underlie the effects of work management practices on employees has raised concern about what has been labelled the *black box* of HRM (Ramsay et al., 2000; Boxall et al., 2011). In this respect, Chapter 4 discusses the suitability of SET to address this issue, whereas in Chapter 8 the explanatory power of SET in the relationship between HPWPs and employee outcomes is empirically tested.

2.4 HPWPs: statement of the gaps in knowledge

This section starts with a brief overview of the two main perspectives that are adopted when studying HPWPs, namely the organisational and the individual perspectives, to then differentiate three common streams within the research that takes an individual approach. The second sub-section focuses on the existing literature for the Spanish case, highlighting some major gaps in knowledge that encourage further research.

2.4.1 Dominant approaches to research on HPWPs

The majority of research on HPWPs adopts an organisational perspective, thus neglecting an individual approach oriented towards the relationship of such practices with employee well-being. In addition to studies on HPWPs that take a worker perspective being scarcer, some conclude that this modality of HRM has negative effects on individuals, such as work intensification, higher levels of stress and greater pressure as a result of the increase in worker responsibilities (Ramsay et al., 2000; Danford et al., 2008).

Initially, the majority of studies on HPWPs focused on testing the effects of such practices on firm performance, thus taking an organisational approach. Positive relationships between this modality of HRM and firm outcomes are usually found (Huselid, 1995; Macduffie, 1995; Ichniowski et al., 1997; Guerrero and Barraud-Didier, 2004; Combs et al., 2006), even though research is not categorically conclusive on the impact of HRM on organisational performance (Guest, 2011: 11). There is also research that approaches the study of HPWPs by jointly considering organisational and individual outcomes (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Wood et al., 2012).

At the same time, a growing body of literature adopts an individual-based perspective, focusing on the impact that this modality of HRM has on employee well-being and, more specifically, on worker health, perceptions, attitudes, and behaviour. However, results are inconclusive and three different streams within the worker-oriented HPWPs literature can be identified, as follows.

First, advocates of HPWPs highlight the benefits that these practices have for enhanced worker discretion, personal and professional development, and job satisfaction (Guest, 1999; Appelbaum et al., 2000; Macky and Boxall, 2007; Wood and De Menezes, 2011; Carr and Mellizo, 2013). Second, detractors note that HPWPs imply disadvantages such as greater levels of responsibility, pressure and stress, thus negatively affecting worker well-being (White et al., 2003; Danford et al., 2003, 2008 and 2009). A third stream points towards HPWPs having mixed and more complex results on individuals (Guest, 2002; Godard, 2004; González, 2010; Merriman, 2017), therefore neither exclusively involving the degradation of work, nor clearly benefitting the quality of working life (Ramsay et al., 2000; Wood et al., 2012). In this respect, Boxall and Macky (2014) find that HPWPs have a positive effect on job satisfaction and work-life balance, whilst being unrelated to stress and fatigue, identifying work intensification as the cause of higher levels of stress and fatigue and hence clarifying the findings of Ramsay et al. (2000).

Regardless of the inconclusiveness of the line of research that focuses on the effects of HPWPs on employee outcomes, the fact that justice and equality of opportunity may be facilitated by work management practices that foster employee involvement allows for considering the use of such practices as an end in itself (Wall and Wood, 2005: 458). Subsequently, further research is encouraged to investigate the extent to which workers in Spain are covered by HPWPs, to identify the practices that are most and least widely spread, and to assess how they are experienced by individuals.

2.4.2 Evidence from Spain

Academic research on HPWPs in Spain was practically non-existent until the 2000s. Studies that approach HPWPs specifically from the worker perspective are scarce and the approaches adopted are varied, making it difficult to draw overall conclusions for the Spanish case.

Some studies are of a descriptive nature and aim to evaluate the coverage of HPWPs (Jódar and Alós, 2008; Marín-García and Conci, 2009; Gutiérrez and González Menéndez, 2011; Eurofound, 2013; Gallie and Zhou, 2013; Pruneda, 2015), and others focus on the factors that determine the adoption of this modality of HRM (Gutiérrez, 1998; Ordiz-Fuertes and Fernández-Sánchez, 2003;

Camps Torres and Luna-Arocas, 2008; Sanchís Palacio and Campos Climent, 2010; Pruneda, 2015). Some analyse the effects of HPWPs on organisational outcomes (Ordiz and Fernández, 2005), on workers themselves (Ollo-López et al., 2010; Elorza et al., 2011) – with some complementarily looking at the mechanisms that mediate the relationship between HPWPs and their determinants (Camps Torres and Luna-Arocas, 2008) –, and on the employee effects of these work management practices (Elorza et al., 2011). All these pieces of research adopt a quantitative approach, with the exception of the qualitative perspective taken by Gutiérrez (1998).

In this respect, Jódar and Alós (2008) study the worker coverage of autonomy-related practices and find that approximately half of the employed population perceives to enjoy autonomy at work, yet the share of workers who report to actually have independence in the job falls to approximately one third. These authors highlight the prevalence of job control in certain occupations, primarily management, followed by professionals and technical positions, with the vast majority of manual workers reporting very little autonomy. This is consistent with job control being more common among workers with higher educational levels, those who participate in training activities and those with longer job tenure. Workers in education are found to display the greatest levels of autonomy, and public sector workers display greater levels of autonomy than private sector workers.

Autonomy at work is also assessed in Eurofound (2013), a report jointly authored by Duncan Gallie and Ying Zhou. Adopting a comparative approach at the EU-27 level, they assess staff involvement based on employee task discretion over immediate work tasks and individual decision making over work organisation. Task discretion in Spain is found to be below average and only above that of other five countries, being lowest among EU-15 countries. As for organisational decision making, Spain scores better in comparative terms, since it is slightly above EU-27 average and outperforms countries such as Germany, France, Italy, Portugal and Greece. Nonetheless, in a scale than ranges from 0 to 10, Spain is slightly below 5 and there are 12 countries which are above this value. Additionally, changes in task discretion over the period 2005-2010 are studied, finding a rise in most EU-27 countries with Spain ranking fourth, only below Finland, Estonia and Italy.

Complementing Eurofound (2013), Gallie and Zhou (2013) evaluate employee job control in nineteen European countries in the years 2004 and 2010, assessing also work intensity and work stress. In this study, Spain is the country that shows the second greatest increase regarding employee job control, both in absolute and relative terms, only behind Estonia. In fact,

employees in Spain enjoyed in 2004 greater levels of job control than only those in Ireland, Portugal and Greece, but in 2010 they come near those in Belgium, France, the UK and Germany, thus substantially improving their position. Yet, this improvement must be taken with caution, given that over 60% of the new unemployed in 2009 were in low discretion jobs a year earlier (Eurofound, 2013).

Adopting a dynamic and comparative approach, the study of job quality by Gutiérrez and González Menéndez (2011) provides a general overview of a number of HRM practices by addressing their trend from the economic growth that preceded the crisis up to two years into the economic downturn. Using a nationally representative survey data from 1998 to 2009, they show that income and temporary employment rate experience an improvement up to 2007. However, there is a reversal in trends from 2008. With respect to intrinsic aspects of work, Gutiérrez and González Menéndez (2011) note that training provided by the organisation displays especially poor outcomes in Spain when compared to either EU15 or EU27. Additionally, even though they show an improving trend over the period considered, the position of the Spanish workforce in relative terms with respect to the EU remains disadvantaged and it is actually worse for participation and direct control. Therefore, Gutiérrez and González Menéndez (2011) conclude that most job quality indicators display a positive trend in Spain along the employment growth period that preceded the economic retrenchment.

Marín-García and Conci (2009) also provide some interesting insights in terms of HPWPs coverage. These authors select communication, project teams, semi-autonomous groups, groups of suggestions, team-based pay, knowledge management, informal participation and training, identifying the latter two as the most frequent HPWPs in Spain, followed by groups of suggestions.

Finally, Pruneda (2015) chooses five HPWPs, namely selective hiring, job security, information sharing, extensive training and contingent remuneration, finding that the former two are widely spread among private sector employees in Spain according to their own perception, but the latter two show low coverage in terms of workers. In line with the findings by Jódar and Alós (2008) that job autonomy is more common in the education sector, the results by Pruneda (2015) show that workers in such sector are more likely to be covered by both selective hiring and extensive training. Also taking a long-term approach, in line with Gutiérrez and González Menéndez (2011), the study additionally shows that four of the five HPWPs considered experience an increase in 2010 with respect to 2006 in terms of the percentage of employed workers covered by this modality of HRM, the exception being contingent remuneration.

Following the findings in the six studies discussed, it may be derived that further research is necessary in order to clarify, first, whether HPWPs such as training are widely spread in Spain (Marín-García and Conci, 2009) or not (Pruneda, 2015); second, to obtain additional evidence on the level of coverage of this type of HRM among workers in Spain to complement Jódar and Alós (2008); and, third, to further explore their evolution after the economic crisis hit Spain, hence in line with Gutiérrez and González Menéndez (2011), Eurofound (2013), Gallie and Zhou (2013), and Pruneda (2015). In fact, one of the contributions of the present study is to actually map the usage of such work management practices in the private sector in Spain, as it will be stated in Section 2.5.

As it has been mentioned, a complementary line of research attempts to identify the determinants that contribute to the adoption of HPWPs. In this respect, Gutiérrez (1998) adopts a qualitative approach to address the commonly agreed assumption by the literature on modern HRM that organisational strategies based on competitiveness or individualistic management styles influence the adoption of HRM practices. Drawing on a case study that focuses on manufacturing firms, this author analyses recruitment, selection, training, compensation and promotion practices, finding size and life cycle stage to positively influence HRM style. However, after emphasising the extreme caution required when generalising results from case studies, Gutiérrez (1998) concludes that hybrid HRM systems are better understood if external institutional contexts are considered when attempting to explain their implementation and diffusion. Further, this author suggests that the firms studied are proof that industries and markets are not the main determinants of the implantation and variety of HRM practices, pointing instead towards other factors, such as recent changes in industrial relations institutions, particularities in the regional labour culture, and local vocational training institutions. However, Ordiz-Fuertes and Fernández-Sánchez (2003), who consider eight HPWPs, namely training, job security, promotion, teamwork, contingent pay, autonomy, information sharing, and reduction in status differences, suggest that the factors that foster the usage of this type of HRM are innovative culture, flexible leadership and highly competitive environments, but size, performance level, age, differentiation strategy and industry do not seem to determine HPWPs implementation. Therefore, the findings by Ordiz-Fuertes and Fernández-Sánchez (2003) contradict Gutiérrez (1998) in terms of size and age.

Camps Torres and Luna-Arocas (2008) find a direct and positive relationship between differentiation strategy and HPWPs (selection, pay, flexible job design, training), mediated through a strong organisational structure in terms of organisational control (centralisation, formalisation and socialisation). Specifically, these authors identify that centralisation is

negatively associated with both a differentiation strategy and HPWPs, that the level of formalisation in organisations that follow a differentiation strategy does not significantly affect the implementation of HPWPs, and that firm size displays a strong and positive relationship with centralisation, but strong and negative with socialisation. They conclude that, within the differentiation strategy context, strong organisational values and low centralisation make the implementation of HPWPs easier, thus complementing Ordiz-Fuertes and Fernández-Sánchez (2003) and Gutiérrez (1998).

Sanchís Palacio and Campos Climent (2010) focus on the banking industry in Spain and consider six HPWPs, namely internal labour market, performance-based pay, training, participation, job enrichment and teamwork, detecting organisational factors such as size, developed technology, people-oriented organisational culture, participative management style, and differentiation strategy as positively affecting the implementation of HPWPs. Consequently, their results partially support Ordiz-Fuertes and Fernández-Sánchez (2003) and Camps Torres and Luna-Arocas (2008), and partially refute those by Gutiérrez (1998). Finally, Pruneda (2015) finds that workers are more likely to be covered by HPWPs when they are highly skilled, when the size of the organisation that employs them is large and when it operates within the health and education industries. Hence, his results regarding size and industry contradict Ordiz-Fuertes and Fernández-Sánchez (2003), and partially support Sanchís Palacio and Campos Climent (2010) with respect to size.

Therefore, although results cannot be regarded as being completely conclusive given that there are some discrepancies, such as whether or not size, age or differentiation strategy determine the adoption of HPWPs, this modality of work management seems to be related both theoretically and in practice to dynamic organisations where employees play a relatively central role. This supports the need to learn how workers experience HPWPs by evaluating their self-reported experience of such practices.

As it has been mentioned, other authors have payed special attention to the effectiveness of HPWPs in terms of performance, be it at the organisational level (Ordiz and Fernández, 2005) or at the individual level (Ollo-López et al., 2010; Elorza et al., 2011). Ordiz and Fernández (2005) find that, HPWPs positively influence organisational performance overall and that the effect is intensified in service companies operating in highly competitive environments. Focusing on empowerment, self-managed teams, internal promotion and intensive training practices, these authors further suggest that each practice may have a positive effect on a different dimension of firm performance, further adding that the lack of results at first sight does not necessarily

imply the ineffectiveness of investment in HRM practices. Additionally, Ordiz and Fernández (2005) propose that empowerment may be a best practice, since all their results show a positive and significant impact on organisational performance, as opposed to the rest of HPWPs considered.

Ollo-López et al. (2010) select five HPWPs, namely job rotation, teamwork, autonomy, upward communication, and downward communication, revealing that in general they are associated to greater voluntary and involuntary mental effort, with a weaker link with involuntary physical effort. Consequently, these authors conclude that both advocates and detractors of HPWPs are right to some extent, thus supporting Ramsay et al. (2000) and Boxall and Macky (2014), given that these work management practices lead individuals to deliver more voluntary effort and also appear to have positive effects on worker demands through involuntary effort.

The approach adopted by Elorza et al. (2011) to tackle the effects of HPWPs integrates both the organisational and the worker dimensions, shedding light on the underlying processes attached to the configuration of these work management practices. Based on the AMO model, these authors select seven HPWPs, namely training (A); participation in strategic decisions, job security, information sharing, contingent remuneration (M); decision making, and customer focus (O). They propose that HRM systems based on this model foster employee commitment, which contributes to lower absenteeism and this, in turn, positively affects productivity. Further, their results also suggest the importance of the perception by individuals of the HRM system when attempting to understand the true effect of the actual system on organisational commitment.

The results by Ollo-López et al. (2010) and Elorza et al. (2011) encourage further research on employee perception of HPWPs in order to clarify how workers experience these practices, but also to analyse the relationship between employee perception of HRM practices and worker outcomes.

Finally, González Menéndez (2011b) offers a completely different approximation to HPWPs. In order to explore the determinants of direct participation among private sector workers in the Spanish region of Asturias, this author selects a varied range of variables, including HPWPs such as selection, training, flexitime, team incentives, information sharing, voice, and job rotation, finding that direct participation is associated to job standardisation. Thus, González Menéndez (2011b) suggests that direct participation is not mainly aimed at transforming the organisation of work, but at fostering worker motivation and maintaining the status quo in terms of workplace industrial relations. Further, partially in line with Gutiérrez (1998), she proposes that

workplace context variables outside HRM such as competitive strategy may be key explanatory factors for the adoption of direct participation practices. Subsequently, the findings of this author do not support the view that direct participation is necessarily a HPWP or restricted to highly skilled jobs, nor the notion that it is associated with organisational changes aimed at enhancing flexibility, thus questioning its categorisation as an unequivocally opportunity-enhancing practice, whilst further suggesting that direct participation is not necessarily a feature of new HRM systems in Spain. In fact, in her approach to HRM in Spain from the mid-1990s, González Menéndez (2015) observes that new work management practices are not the norm in this country, mainly affecting high qualified employees, and concludes that this modality of managing personnel is particularly limited in terms of participation and career advancement.

Last, it is deemed necessary to stress that, as noted by Wood and Wall (2007), even though job enrichment and employee voice are two HRM dimensions that have a prominent role in the theoretical framework used to approach HRM contribution to organisational performance, both aspects are somehow neglected by the empirical research, unlike skill and motivational practices that have received much greater attention. Following their concern, this section has tried to offset this limitation of the existing literature by specifically discussing a number of studies that address employee participation in Spain, namely Jódar and Alós (2008), González Menéndez (2011b), Eurofound (2013), and Gallie and Zhou (2013).

Summing up, there is a number of considerations to be made from the review of the literature on HPWPs in Spain carried out. First, the selection of specific practices varies by author, which calls for the need to perform a study of this form of HRM based on a comprehensive set of practices. This will be initially addressed in Section 2.6. Second, the number of workers covered by HPWPs is unclear, and so are the particular work management practices that are more widespread in terms of employees at the national level. This is partially due to some pieces of research being based on case studies or samples that are not representative of the Spanish employed population overall, such as those that are drawn from specific types of industries, firms or workers (Gutiérrez, 1998; Ordiz-Fuertes and Fernández Sánchez, 2003; Ordiz and Fernández, 2005; Camps Torres and Luna-Arocas, 2008; Marín-García and Conci, 2009; Sanchís Palacio and Campos Climent, 2010; Elorza et al., 2011). Third, a long-term approach would allow for exploring the evolution of HPWPs considering the strong economic crisis that hit Spain in 2008, as well as for complementing the results of those studies that consider a period of time. And fourth, worker self-assessment of HPWPs must be accounted for, as a result of the great

importance that individual perception of these work management practices has on employee attitudes and behaviour, thus refining the findings in those studies that assess work management practices based on interviews to general or HR managers, such as Ordiz-Fuertes and Fernández-Sánchez (2003), Ordiz and Fernández (2005), Camps Torres and Luna-Arocas (2008), Marín-García and Conci (2009), Sanchís Palacio and Campos Climent (2010) and González Menéndez (2011b).

2.5 Research objective and research questions

Given the little existing knowledge about HPWPs in Spain, the first research objective of this study is to describe HPWPs coverage in terms of private sector employees in this country. Complementarily, a long-term approach will be adopted in order to identify the changes that have been taken place in terms of employee coverage of HPWPs since the beginning of the economic crisis. Two connected research questions are subsequently proposed.

First, from (a) the suggestion that HPWPs may be seen as an end in themselves, ever since they facilitate justice and equality of opportunity by fostering individual involvement (Wall and Wood, 2005), (b) the still little knowledge on HPWPs in Spain, and (c) the fact that the scarce little evidence is contradictory, with some studies concluding that HPWPs present low coverage in Spain (Jódar and Alós, 2008), and others identifying some specific work management practices that are broadly widespread among employees (Marín-García and Conci, 2009; Pruneda, 2015), the first research question is proposed:

RQ1. *What is the coverage of HPWPs in terms of the number of employees in the private sector in Spain, as reported by employees themselves?*

Second, previous research suggesting changes on the coverage of HPWPs in terms of workers along the periods 2004-2010 (Gallie and Zhou, 2013), 2005-2010 (Eurofound, 2013), and 2006-2010 (Pruneda, 2015) as a consequence of the economic crisis that hit Spain in 2008 call for a long-term approach. Therefore, the second research question is suggested:

RQ2. *What are the main changes regarding HPWPs coverage at the employee level in the private sector in Spain from 2006 (the last year of the economic boom that the Spanish economy was experiencing before the crisis hit the country) to 2010 (three years into the economic downturn)?*

By addressing these two research questions, empirical evidence will allow for mapping the situation of HPWPs in Spain with respect to employee coverage. Further, by adopting a long-

term approach, it will be possible to identify the changes that may have taken place along a very specific period of time that includes a sharp economic downturn.

2.6 HRM areas of interest: selection and justification

The review of the literature on HPWPs in Sections 2.3 and 2.4 shows that authors most often consider different work management practices, which makes the study of HRM somehow inconclusive. Also, HPWPs may be grouped into different HRM policies, according to the aim that they pursue, and different policies are established by organisations to guide the implementation and development of HPWPs (Posthuma et al., 2013). Similarly, for performing a comprehensive study of HPWPs in Spain decisions must be taken as to the adequate set of core HRM areas in which to focus the research. That is the purpose this section reviewing the wider HRM literature. To guide such selection the three dimensions of the AMO model are used.

Lack of consensus among practitioners and academics as to which are the key HRM areas and practices has a long standing (Rynes et al., 2002a, 2002b and 2007). Nevertheless, a handful of HRM practices are commonly found in the empirical-based literature.

Pfeffer (1998) identified seven HRM practices as characteristic of HPWS: selective hiring (1), extensive training (2), wide information sharing on organisation performance (3), comparatively high contingent pay based on organisational performance (4), job security (5), self-managed teams and decentralization of decision making as the basic principles of organisational design (6), and reduction of status differences (7).

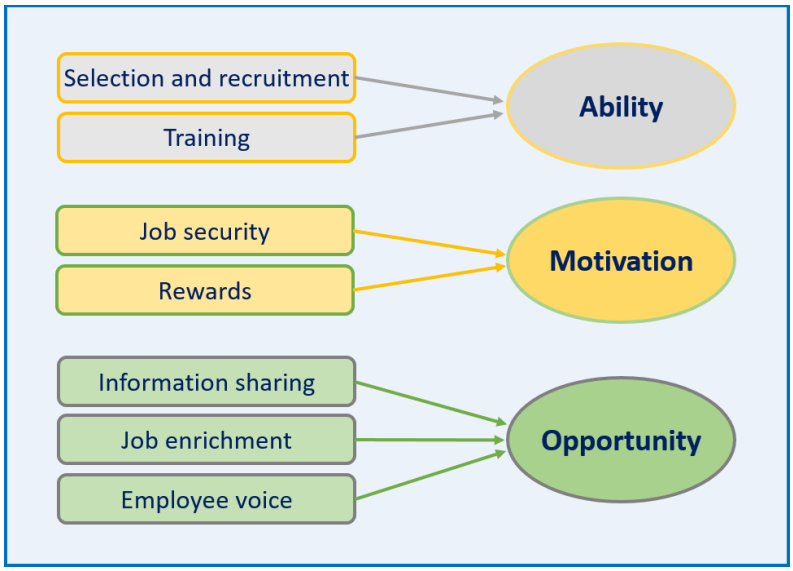
But for the last one, much less common in the literature, these work management practices are present in the proposed set of HRM practices designed to promote employee well-being by Guest (2017); in the principles that characterise the mutual gains approach – for employees and organisations – advocated by Kochan and Osterman (1994); in the fourteen core HPWPs identified by Posthuma et al. (2013) by meta-analysis of two decades of academic research on the HPWPs adopted by organisations in the world; and a similar analysis from an AMO model perspective by Jiang et al. (2012). In the case of decentralisation of decision making it has been considered since as subsumed in a different core practice: job enrichment (Jiang et al., 2012; Posthuma et al., 2013). Additionally, another HRM area, employee voice, is considered core in the HPWPs literature (Jiang et al 2012; Posthuma et al 2013) and is also listed by Kochan and Osterman (1994) as one of the principles guiding the mutual gains perspective. Still, as Wood

and Wall (2007) note, the empirical research on job enrichment and employee voice as HPWPs has been scarcer than that on other practices.

Focusing the study of HPWPs on these seven broad HRM areas – namely (1) selection and recruitment, (2) training, (3) job security, (4) rewards, (5) information sharing, (6) job enrichment, and (7) employee voice – can be further justified on the AMO model. The three HRM bundles that integrate the AMO model are represented by the seven HRM areas selected. This is depicted in Figure 1. First, (1) and (2) are classified as ability-enhancing policies. Second, (3) and (4) are categorised as motivation-enhancing policies. Third, (5), (6) and (7) are classed as opportunity-enhancing policies.

More specifically, the consideration of each of the HRM broad areas as focus of analysis in this thesis is justified as follows, on the basis of Pfeffer (1998).

Figure 1. HRM broad areas, by AMO dimension.



Selection and recruitment. Organisations that actually intend to enhance their performance through HRM must make the necessary efforts to ensure that they hire the right person. They need to be as specific as possible about the attributes and critical skills that they are seeking on candidates. These features must be consistent both with the requirements of the position and the market approach of the organisation. The selection process must guarantee a careful scrutiny of those who reach the final stage, thus ensuring commitment to the organisation. The benefits provided by this practice have been reported by authors such as Combs et al. (2006) and Camps and Luna-Arocas (2009).

Training. This is considered a key component of HPWS because it is a cornerstone for workers to acquire skills, show initiative in identifying and solving problems, introduce changes in work methods and take responsibility over quality. Investment in training is usually higher for greater levels of job security, since workers are supposed to stay at the organisation in the long-term. One of the consequences of training having the consideration of an investment is that it generates profits in the form of attitudes. On the contrary, when it is considered an expense, organisations are likely to develop a perverse pro-cyclical training schedule because training budgets fluctuate depending on performance. Extensive training is one of the more profusely studied HPWPs (Guerrero and Barraud-Didier, 2004; Ordiz and Fernández, 2005; Combs et al., 2006; Camps and Luna-Arocas, 2009; Scheel et al., 2013).

Rewards. This may consist on profit-sharing, stock ownership, pay by skills and either individual or team incentives. When employees become owners themselves, they think and act as such, so that conflicts between capital and labour decrease. However, ownership alone might not have any effects on results and other circumstances must take place at the same time, such as having the necessary skills, information, training and the power to take certain decisions. Profit sharing makes pay more variable and flexible, allowing adjustments in personnel costs without resorting to layoffs and thus not being necessary to compromise job security. Paying for enrolling in training activities encourages learning new skills, thus achieving greater flexibility. Contingent pay is based on both equality and justice, hence encouraging effort because individuals know that they will participate in benefits. Finally, it must not be forgotten that if organisations are aware of this and pay their workforce above average, it can lead to economic success, as found by Combs et al. (2006), Camps and Luna-Arocas (2009), Gkorezis and Petridou (2012), Linz and Semykina (2012) and Scheel et al. (2013).

Job security. Job security means that workers cannot be fired for reasons such as financial or strategic errors committed by management over which individuals have no control, which does not conflict with the dismissal due to underperformance. Conceiving the workforce as a strategic asset, as opposed to a necessary cost, provides a careful strategy that prevents its overgrowth and therefore layoffs in difficult times, and at the same time it hinders the snatching of these strategic assets by competitors. Similarly, job security policies entail more careful hiring processes due to the high difficulty of terminating employment contracts when labour demand has been previously overestimated. Additionally, job security policies are essential for the effective implementation of most HPWPs, with job security having the consideration of a cornerstone practice. This is reflected by the fact that it has been the focus of numerous investigations (Godard and Delaney, 2000; Rubinstein, 2001; Combs et al., 2006; Jones et al.,

2009; Liu et al., 2009; Messersmith and Guthrie, 2010; Thompson, 2011; De Waal and Meingast, 2011; Linz and Semykina, 2012; Wu et al., 2014).

Information sharing. The importance of this particular component of HPWS is twofold: it conveys to workers that they are trusted by the organisation and, at the same time, it is necessary for highly trained individuals so that they can make decisions in order to improve results. In this respect, McGuiness and Ortiz (2016) find that communication allows for detecting skill gaps among workers, which leads to the identification of training activities that may be required. Scholars such as Guest (2002), Combs et al. (2006) and Della Torre and Solari (2013) have contributed to the literature on information sharing.

Job enrichment. It is a HRM area that is concerned with the design of jobs, fostering task variety and conferring employees with high levels of discretion and decision making, hence with autonomy in the job, by delegating responsibility so that individuals or teams decide themselves on the best way to carry out their work (Wood and Wall, 2007; Wood et al., 2012). As Wood and Wall (2007) note, it is theorised to increase both work motivation and job satisfaction, in turn enhancing worker and organisation performance. As it has been already mentioned, the only component of job enrichment that Pfeffer (1998) discusses directly is decentralisation of decision making, highlighting a number of advantages that are drawn from an organisational design based on teams. First, greater levels of autonomy and discretion, which translate into intrinsic rewards and job satisfaction as a result of individuals feeling responsible for their work and highly involved in the organisation. Second, the hierarchical structure of the organisation flattens, thus contributing to release the workload at managerial level. Third, teams provide an appropriate means for individuals to express their creative ideas on how to solve problems. Ultimately, these teams outperform groups supervised in a traditional manner. Organising individuals in work teams is connected to decentralisation of decision-making, which constitutes the adequate setting for those who have the knowledge and ability to take effective action (Bansal et al., 2001; Gair and Hartery, 2001; Gupta et al., 2011; Hempel et al., 2012). Pfeffer (1998) virtually equals the decentralisation of decision making dimension of HRM to teamwork, but other authors elaborate the notion further and arrive to a more sophisticated concept that has been termed “job enrichment” (Herzberg, 1968).

Employee voice. Whereas job enrichment ultimately refers to job autonomy, discretion and control, thus entailing greater levels of responsibility at the job level, employee voice denotes the possibility of workers to officially express their views and opinions with regard to not only their jobs but to the organisation in a wide sense, hence exerting some degree of influence at

the organisational level. It transcends the specific job, it is a form of worker representation and participation in the organisation, allowing employees to make contributions and be cooperative with management either directly or through representation bodies. The suggested benefits of voice in the workplace are celebrated by many, yet the lack of consensus on the precise meaning of the term has been highlighted by some authors (Dundon et al., 2004; Carr and Mellizo, 2013). Other scholars who have addressed employee voice include Wood and Wall (2007), Bae et al. (2011) and González Menéndez (2011b), the latter focusing specifically in Spain.

2.7 Summary

This chapter has laid the foundations for the present study in terms of HPWPs. Firstly, the concept of this modality of HPWPs was clarified – a set of complementary work management practices that seek to foster staff commitment as a means to increase organisational performance –, based on influential research (Huselid, 1995; Appelbaum et al., 2000; Boxall and Purcell, 2003). Secondly, the rationale behind the high-performance paradigm was addressed via the AMO model. This approach posits that, in order to ensure the effectiveness of commitment-based HRM systems, these have to simultaneously facilitate the enhancement of worker ability, motivation and opportunity to contribute. In this manner, organisational performance will be attained by relying on skilled and motivated employees who are trusted to apply discretion at work (MacDuffie, 1995; Wood and De Menezes, 2008; Subramony, 2009; Kroon et al., 2013). Thirdly, a review of the literature on HPWPs was performed by paying special attention to the Spanish case, followed by the proposition of the first research objective of this study and two research questions. Finally, seven broad HRM areas that are highly relevant to study HPWPs were selected and justified (Kochan and Osterman, 1994; Pfeffer, 1998; Jiang et al., 2012; Posthuma et al., 2013; Guest, 2017).

CHAPTER III

HIGH-PERFORMANCE WORK PRACTICES: JOB SECURITY AND JOB SATISFACTION

3 HIGH-PERFORMANCE WORK PRACTICES: JOB SECURITY AND JOB SATISFACTION

3.1 Introduction

As it was noted in Chapter 2, the advantages of HPWPs are not only based on the benefits that they are expected to bring in terms of organisational performance (Subramony, 2009; Boxall et al., 2011; Patel et al., 2013). Whereas certain fields of knowledge – such as management – might be content with such benefits, the interest of other fields of knowledge – such as sociology and psychology – emerges as a consequence of the effect that HPWPs have on job quality and employee well-being (Wood and De Menezes, 2011; Carr and Mellizo, 2013; Gallie et al., 2014; Green et al., 2016), for this modality of personnel management seeks to influence individual attitudes and behaviour (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Boxall and Purcell, 2003; Macky and Boxall, 2007). In this respect, Guest (2017) proposes that greater priority be given to promote employee well-being, based on ethical grounds – it is the right thing to do because worker outcomes are usually viewed as a means to an end, as opposed to as an end in themselves, thus often neglecting worker interests –, and it is also good for the organisation. Specifically, this research is concerned with the effect of HPWPs on job security and job satisfaction.

First, the interest of studying job security is that it is a central dimension of the multidimensional concept that is job quality (Muñoz de Bustillo et al., 2011a; Eurofound, 2012a; OECD, 2014), having also the consideration of a cornerstone work practice as per the high-performance paradigm (Pfeffer, 1998). Further, temporary jobs do worse in terms of job quality and job insecurity is associated to poor health and well-being (Eurofound, 2012b). Thus, if HPWPs are effective providers of job security, they may be considered providers of job quality as well. Further, being staff retention one of the objectives pursued by HPWPs (Huselid, 1995; Pfeffer, 1998; Appelbaum et al., 2000), these will be contributing to the creation of secure employment that many international institutions and agencies that promote job quality include as a key point in their social agendas (OECD, 2014; ILO, 2015; Eurofound, 2017).

As for the interest of studying job satisfaction, the high-performance paradigm advocates that HPWPs have a positive effect on individuals (Guest, 1999; Appelbaum et al., 2000; Macky and Boxall, 2007), following that this modality of HRM practices foster employee skills, motivation and discretionality (Appelbaum et al., 2000; De Menezes and Wood, 2006; Wood and De

Menezes, 2008; Subramony, 2009; Kroon et al., 2013). Thus, job quality is improved and, in turn, worker well-being is enhanced.

Thus, following the connections discussed, HPWPs seem to be an instrument to improve job quality. In this manner, organisations that opt to build their HRM system based on HPWPs will contribute to the improvement of job quality, hence fostering employee well-being. This is in line with Guest (2017), who calls for the need of HRM research and policy to give greater priority to promoting employee well-being.

The rest of this chapter is divided into three main blocks. The first one introduces job quality, before exploring the link that it has with HPWPs, and it ends with a specific section that focuses in Spain. The second block is devoted to job security, following the high relevance that it has both from the job quality and the high-performance perspectives. The relationship between HPWPs and staff retention, as well as between the provision of job security and employee perceived job stability, is discussed. This block also includes a specific section focusing on job security in Spain, before deducting the first research objective of this chapter and proposing the corresponding hypotheses. The last block discusses job satisfaction in relation to HPWPs –including a special section on Spain –, and the adequacy of this indicator to study job quality and employee well-being, a review of empirical research on job satisfaction and HPWPs, paying special attention to the Spanish case, leading to the formulation of the second research objective of this chapter and the proposition of two research questions.

3.2 Job quality and HPWPs

Guaranteeing access to employment for everybody is of great relevance, yet it does not suffice: social, economic, and political agendas must safeguard that employment meets certain quality standards. In other words, the issue is not only about quantity, but also about quality. In this respect, Salais (2009) and Muñoz de Bustillo et al. (2011b) warn about the predominantly quantitative tone of the European employment guidelines, denouncing the marginal position of job quality with respect to job quantity. In a similar vein, the European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC, 2015) warns that "(g)etting Europe back to work is not the only challenge. Equally important is ensuring that new jobs are quality ones", with the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (Eurofound, 2014) stating that "high priority needs to be given to the issue of sustainable work and employment, as this is a precondition for meeting the objective of high participation in employment". On this matter, Muñoz de Bustillo et al. (2011b) emphasise that increasing job attractiveness has a positive effect on the labour

force via encouraging individuals to engage in employment, thus job quality should not be put in second place in times of unemployment, precisely due to its centrality for productivity and growth.

As it has been acknowledged by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2014), "job quality has attracted increased interest in the academic community and by international organisations in recent years", thus complementing the quantitative perspective that pursues an increase in the employment rate in order to reduce social exclusion (Dahl et al., 2009). Further, the need for monitoring and assessing job quality increasingly intensifies as a consequence of emerging new forms of employment, such as casual work, characterised by non-standard working arrangements (Eurofound, 2017), with Peña-Casas (2009) highlighting that it is in those countries that score best in terms of job and employment quality where better employment and productivity growths are observed.

There is not a standard definition of job quality, yet there is agreement on that it is a multidimensional concept that refers to many different attributes of jobs that have an impact on worker well-being (Muñoz de Bustillo et al., 2011a). Similarly, the OECD (2014) states that job quality refers to both economic and non-economic job characteristics that contribute to the well-being of workers. As for well-being, a diffuse concept that implies being healthy and happy, Diener et al. (2002: 63) define it as "a broad concept that includes experiencing pleasant emotions, low levels of negative moods, and high life satisfaction". Thus, worker well-being may be described as a broad concept that refers to deriving positive feelings from work and high job satisfaction.

Job quality has been more profusely researched upon in developed countries. In this respect, Kalleberg (2012) provides evidence of divergence in terms of polarisation and precarisation in the USA, with Kalleberg et al. (2010) finding that non-standard employment – including temporary arrangements – increases bad quality jobs in the same country. According to Eurofound (2013) – a report that Duncan Gallie co-authored with his colleague Ying Zhou –, slightly above one in four employees in Europe enjoy high task discretion and high organisational participation (both being components of intrinsic job quality), whereas 38% have low task discretion and low organisational participation. Also, Eurofound (2013) finds that employee involvement is beneficial in terms of work and employment conditions, such as flexitime, as well as for lower perception of health and safety risks, lower stress and higher levels of psychological well-being.

Adopting a comparative approach, Gallie (2003 and 2009) identifies a Nordic pattern that is characterised by advantageous working conditions, such as the quality of work tasks and involvement in decision making. This is supported by Eurofound (2013), where Nordic workplaces display the highest levels of employee involvement, but Southern countries (Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain) show particularly low levels. It is suggested in these three pieces of research that this finding is linked to the distinctive policy environment of the Nordic countries, where social partners – governments, employers and unions – have focused more closely in significantly improving the quality of working life (Gallie, 2003: 76) via specific employment policies. Complementarily, Gallie (2007) finds that employees in Nordic workplaces have a greater preference for intrinsic job characteristics, i.e. making use of abilities and initiative, working independently, compared to extrinsic ones, i.e. job security and high income. In sum, Gallie suggests that country variations with respect to employee preference for intrinsic job values may be explained by superior commitment to improve the quality of work via greater social investment, contributing to the development of a distinctive "employment regime" that emphasises the inclusiveness both at work and in the labour market (Gallie, 2012: 339). In other words, Gallie proposes that social actors are partially accountable for low quality jobs.

3.2.1 Connections between job quality dimensions and HRM policies

The relevance of jobs for individuals transcends their working lives, with the International Labour Organization (ILO) acknowledging decent work as a key element to achieve global fairness by attaining sustainable, inclusive, equitable development, and fighting against poverty. Hence, the promotion of job quality is also a growing concern for other international bodies, such as the OECD and Eurofound.

First, the ILO uses the term *decent work* to refer to a combination of access to productive employment with rights at work. According to the ILO, "[d]ecent work sums up the aspirations of people in their working lives" (ILO, 2015). Second, the OECD (2014) considers job quality to be a multi-dimensional concept that, including economic and non-economic aspects, "refers to those aspects of employment that contribute to the well-being of workers". Third, job quality is a concern shared by four of Eurofound's seven main themes, namely *industrial relations*, *labour market*, *quality of life* and, mostly, *working conditions*. Working conditions refer to the working environment, as well as to aspects of employees' terms and conditions of employment, particularly from the perspective of job quality (Eurofound, 2017).

In the workplace, the HRM function is responsible for designing and implementing the work practices aimed at managing employees, thus defining both the economic and non-economic job characteristics that may foster job quality. In particular, the key role granted to individuals by HPWPs implies that organisations aim to attract and retain the best candidates by offering high quality jobs that can deliver employee well-being, in line with Guest (2017).

As it has been mentioned, there is a wide variety of agencies and institutions that seek to promote job quality as a means to improve worker well-being. The conceptualisation of job quality by such bodies share many characteristics in common, regardless of some variations. For instance, the ILO refers to 'decent work' and the OECD uses the term 'good job'. In this manner, the main features of job quality can be discerned, whilst supporting its multidimensional nature (Muñoz de Bustillo et al., 2011a). Further, the seven broad HRM areas that were selected in Section 2.6 as characteristic of the high-performance paradigm are represented in the main dimensions of job quality.

The following correspondences between HRM policies and dimensions of job quality may be drawn: *selection and recruitment* is connected with developing a skilled workforce (Eurofound). *Training* is connected with development of skills and competences (Eurofound). *Job security provision* is connected with employment security (ILO, OECD, Eurofound). *Rewards* are connected with fair wages (ILO, Eurofound, OECD); access to social protection for families (ILO); career opportunities (Eurofound). No straight forward connections have been found between the HRM broad area *information sharing* and any specific dimension of job quality highlighted by the agencies and institutions considered. *Job enrichment* is connected to intrinsic job quality (Eurofound); the nature and content of work, working time arrangements (OECD). And *employee voice* is connected with social dialogue, freedom for people to express their concerns and organise and participate in decisions that affect their lives (ILO).

Some additional important dimensions of job quality are not easily connected to one of the seven broad HRM policies selected in that they refer to more general concepts and transcend the boundaries of employment. Yet HPWPs may also contribute to these job quality dimensions, such as well-being at the workplace (ILO, Eurofound); work-life balance, (Eurofound; OECD); procedural justice, strong workplace relationships, social capital (OCDE); personal development and social integration (ILO).

Following the connections between the different dimensions of job quality and the main broad HRM areas selected in Chapter 2, it may be thus suggested that HPWPs are an adequate

instrument to foster job quality, as proposed by authors like Boxall and Purcell (2003), Gallie (2003, 2009 and 2013) and Guest (2017).

Performing a detailed review of the literature on job quality is not among the objectives of this chapter, yet it must be pointed out that the interest on said research topic has resulted in an increasing body of research since the beginning of the 21st century. In this respect, 14% of jobs in Europe are high-quality jobs, 37% are well-balanced good jobs, 29% are poorly balanced jobs, and 20% are poor quality jobs, which are associated with the lowest levels of well-being and health and are particularly concentrated in the private sector, according to Eurofound (2012a). The dangers of a two-tier labour market in Europe are warned against by Peña-Casas (2009), who finds evidence of polarisation in terms of employment and job quality based on data from all UE-27 member states. Partial support for this is found by Fernández-Macías (2012), whose results detect a polarisation trend in Continental Europe. Also, Fernández-Macías (2012) finds that the Scandinavian countries follow an upgrading evolution and Southern Europe shows a middling centripetal development – the opposite to polarisation –, with Spain being characterised by poor quality employment (Gutiérrez and González Menéndez, 2011). As for the upgrading in the Scandinavian countries, it is fully supported by a substantial body of research on intrinsic job quality by the influential scholar Duncan Gallie (Gallie, 2003, 2007, 2009, and 2012; Eurofound, 2013).

3.2.2 Job quality, HPWPs, and job security

The great importance that work has for people from a sociological perspective has been reflected upon by many scholars (Agulló Tomás, 1998; Guest, 1999; Appelbaum et al., 2000; Macky and Boxall, 2007; Muñoz de Bustillo et al., 2011a; Wood and De Menezes, 2011; Wood et al., 2012; Carr and Mellizo, 2013), as well as by international and supranational institutions and agencies that are concerned with, monitor and propose policy recommendations regarding employment quality (OECD, 2014; ILO, 2015; Eurofound, 2017). Such reflections entail a subtext on the relevance of job security, since "in addition to providing income, work can pave the way for broader social and economic advancement, strengthening individuals, their families and communities" (ILO, 2015), all of them being features that may be enhanced via long-term employment relationships.

According to this sociological perspective, jobs have an additional meaning for workers, since employment plays a role that facilitates the integration and participation in society of individuals, thus providing them with personal and social identities (Agulló Tomás, 1998). In other words, the most straight-forward value of work is that it is the only means to earn a living

for most people, hence facilitating the necessary conditions for individuals to plan their lives, address, and develop their personal projects. But, ever since jobs take approximately a quarter of the week of those employed full-time, it is equally true that "work is an important element of social and personal life in itself, an activity that is important for self-realisation and social integration" (Muñoz de Bustillo et al., 2011a: 448). These authors emphasise that the working life of individuals is not simply one more aspect of their lives, but a central one which has ramifications that transcend work itself and interrelate with more personal and private aspects, thus job security becomes a central element for employee well-being. In this respect, intrinsic job quality is, together with job prospects (job security and career prospects), the dimension of job quality that has the greatest effect on well-being (Eurofound, 2012b).

Jobs help individuals being closer to enjoying a decent life by assisting them on issues as varied as having access to private housing, establishing solid relationships through socialisation with fellow workers or self-realisation through a sense of achievement at work (Guest, 1999; Appelbaum et al., 2000; Gallie, 2007; Macky and Boxall, 2007; Wood and De Menezes, 2011; Gallie et al., 2012; Wood et al., 2012; Carr and Mellizo, 2013; Eurofound, 2013), not to mention avoiding health problems and low well-being as a consequence of poor quality jobs (Eurofound, 2012b). Consequently, given that job security has the consideration of a vital instrument to ensure that individuals and their families can develop their life projects, ultimately allowing for healthier societies, it is promoted by institutions that specifically address employment-related topics, such as the ILO (2015), but also by different supranational bodies that are concerned with wider issues (OECD, 2014; Eurofound, 2017). Thus, job security is a central dimension of job quality, as well as a cornerstone HPWP.

Yet, an intermediate element is needed in order to facilitate that the recommendations by these bodies at the macro level on job quality in general and job security in particular materialise at the individual level. Such element is no other than organisations, which operate at the micro level, for they have the ultimate responsibility to provide workers with quality long-term employment relationships. In this respect, Kochan and Osterman (1994) show that it is by improving the performance of human resource systems how concerns over social welfare can be successfully addressed. It is precisely this link between the micro and the individual levels in terms of job quality in general and job security in particular what will be explored in this chapter.

The provision of long-term employment relationships might be viewed by some as detrimental for modern organisations, most of them being profit-seeking firms, given the increasing flexibility that they require in order to be competitive and successful. However, staff retention

may entail advantages for the organisation, since undesired costs attached to employee turnover are avoided, as may be the case of selection, training, and social capital costs. This debate is concisely summed up by Origo and Pagani (2009) in the following way:

> "Employment stability is desirable not only for workers, but also for firms, which dislike high turnover and prefer stable employment relationships in order to recoup human capital investment and selection costs. However, the intensification of competitive pressures in recent decades has required more flexibility for both firms and workers" (Origo and Pagani, 2009: 554).

Nevertheless, both objectives – job stability for employees and organisation flexibility – may be simultaneously achieved via the HRM function when it promotes long-term employment relationships and functional flexibility, as opposed to short-term employment relationships and numerical flexibility. In this manner, HPWPs are here suggested to be an instrument to attain both employee job security and staff functional flexibility.

Under the high-performance paradigm, organisations see staff turnover as a highly undesired outcome given the importance that they attach to human capital. Consequently, fostering staff retention becomes a central goal for organisations, which may be pursued by mainly, but not only, the provision of job security – a cornerstone HPWP and a central dimension of job quality – to employees. This, in turn, translates into job stability – the actual outcome pursued by the HPWP job security provision –, hence facilitating enjoying a decent life and self-realisation. In other words, the provision of job security stands as a prominent factor from an organisational viewpoint and a measure of organisational performance on its own right, for it plays a decisive role when it comes to staff retention. In parallel, the benefits of job security for individuals (Clark, 2005; Origo and Pagani, 2009; Gallie et al., 2014; Green et al., 2016) make the study of the HPWP job security provision become equally relevant from the worker perspective. These statements are supported by the literatures on job quality and HPWPs, as it will be further discussed in Section 3.4.

3.3 Job security

As it has been pointed out in Section 3.2.2, job security is one of the central dimensions of job quality. In order to avoid unnecessary confusion, it is deemed necessary to make a very important distinction between two similar yet different concepts that have been already mentioned and will be widely used along this chapter: job stability and job security. Job security is a job feature that organisations can choose whether or not to include in any given position. As it has been already noted, job security provision is one of the HPWPs that has attracted great attention in the literature. Job stability is the worker outcome that is directly pursued by job security provision, much like skills and qualifications are the employee outcome sought by

HPWPs oriented at providing training. Further, two types of job stability may be differentiated, namely job tenure stability and job status stability, following Gallie et al. (2014 and 2017) and Grenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984). In this manner, job tenure stability refers to the lack of fear of job loss, with job status stability meaning the lack of perceived threat to valued job features. As it has been stated before, the high-performance paradigm is posited as a provider of job stability for workers – mainly via the provision of job security – and staff retention for organisations.

Likewise, it is deemed worthwhile to clarify another concept that is crucial to better understand what it is meant by staff retention. Such concept, which has also been already mentioned and will be equally referred to in numerous occasions throughout this chapter, is employee turnover. In this respect, the classification offered by García Serrano (1998) is greatly helpful in order to explain what is actually meant by staff turnover in the literature. This author states that it consists of total hirings and separations. In turn, separations may take different forms: layoffs – either dismissals or redundancies –, retirements – early or not –, transfers to other workplaces within the organisation, terminations of fixed-term contracts, and voluntary quits. Voluntary quits is the type of employee turnover that is not sought by the organisation and upon which firms may have the possibility to exert some sort of impact via HRM in order to avoid the undesired costs that it entails. Then, by minimising voluntary quits and hence employee turnover, organisations will be attaining staff retention.

Following the rationale that posits the benefits of HPWPs for both workers – in terms of job stability – and organisations – in terms of performance in general and, more specifically, of staff retention –, the rest of this section is divided into three sub-sections. The first one addresses the literature that supports the relationship between HPWPs and staff retention, the second one showcases the differences between job security and job stability and stresses how for the latter worker perception is crucial, and the third one discusses existing empirical research on job security in Spain.

3.3.1 HPWPs and staff retention

The high-performance model suggests that staff retention is one of the pursued outcomes of most HPWPs, such as training and career opportunities, pay, profit-sharing, social benefits, information sharing, job control, task variety and discretion, and voice, among others (Walton, 1985; Huselid, 1995; Guest et al., 2003; Ramlall, 2004; Combs et al., 2006; Kuvaas, 2008; Origo and Pagani, 2009; Alfes et al., 2013). However, there is one such HPWP that directly pursues employee retention by specifically trying to minimise voluntary turnover, i.e. job security

provision (Kochan and Osterman, 1994; Pfeffer, 1998; Jones et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2009; Messersmith and Guthrie, 2010; Linz and Semykina, 2012; Wu et al., 2014). Mainly operationalised via permanent or open-ended contracts of employment (García Serrano, 1998; Amuedo Dorantes, 2000; Origo and Pagani, 2009; Pruneda, 2015), job security provision may be widely described as a formal compromise by the organisation to hold on to employees regardless of the economic and financial situation that it is going through, be it by a period of turbulent times or bad management, unless of course, this does not preclude (Kochan and Osterman, 1994; Pfeffer, 1998).

Given the significance that HPWPs attach to individuals and their human capital, voluntary employee turnover is identified as an undesired outcome that organisations need minimising. In consequence, the explicit provision of job security by HPWPs is complemented by simultaneously alleviating the sense of alienation via increasing worker involvement and commitment, thus reducing the risk of voluntary turnover. Organisations do not have absolute control over voluntary turnover, yet they may influence the decision of individuals in this respect via HRM, with HPWPs emerging as a promising option in this respect. As a result, there is a wide range of research that specifically addresses the advantages of HPWPs for employee retention or, conversely, their power to reduce voluntary turnover (Walton, 1985; Huselid, 1995; Guest et al., 2003; Combs et al., 2006; Kuvaas, 2008; Origo and Pagani, 2009; Alfes et al., 2013).

As it has been already mentioned in Section 2.1, the seminal work by Walton (1985) suggests that supportive work organisation helps decreasing absenteeism and turnover, whilst increasing safety and job satisfaction. As a result, commitment-based HRM based improves performance and enhances the quality of working life of employees, thus supporting the convenience of departing from traditional work organisations in the current social context (Walton, 1972: 74).

A decade later, Huselid (1995) also finds that higher levels of HPWPs have a negative impact on employee turnover, further suggesting that they may also lead to greater employment security. Guest et al. (2003) find evidence of a negative relationship between greater use of HPWPs and staff turnover in a sample of UK manufacturing and services organisations, and Combs et al. (2006) find a positive association between HPWPs and retention rates. Also, based on data from over 700 large workplaces – with at least 500 employees – in the private sector in Spain, García Serrano (1998) shows that overall separations are significantly higher among workers on a fixed-term contract than those on a permanent one.

Adopting an individual perspective and based on a case study of workers in a large UK support services firm, Alfes et al. (2013) find that turnover intentions decrease when HPWPs are

positively perceived by employees. It must be noted that, since the outcome variable is not objective but behavioural, these authors do not study the effect of the implementation of practices, but how these are perceived by workers, for they understand that it is employee perception what affects worker attitudes and behaviour, in line with Elorza et al. (2011) and Brewster et al. (2013).

In sum, HPWPs positively contribute to staff retention (Walton, 1985; Huselid, 1995; Combs et al., 2006; Alfes et al., 2013), with job security provision being a key HPWP in this respect (Kochan and Osterman, 1994; Pfeffer, 1998). Further, the approach to job security by the high-performance paradigm, considering workers much more than a plain production factor, fits the already mentioned recommendations in terms of employment quality made by different supranational bodies (OECD, 2014; ILO, 2015; Eurofound, 2017). Subsequently, HPWPs positively contribute to employment quality by mainly, but not exclusively, providing individuals with job security (Boxall and Purcell, 2003; Wood, 2013), as opposed to a scenario of job insecurity that may ultimate result in the lack of necessary conditions that individuals need to plan their lives, address and develop their personal projects (Agulló Tomás, 1998; Muñoz de Bustillo et al., 2011a). In other words, organisations are not the only ones to benefit from staff retention derived from HPWPs, given that the other side of the coin is employee job stability. As a result, it becomes necessary to simultaneously explore to which extent job stability and employee retention can be improved by organisations via the adoption of HPWPs.

3.3.2 Job security provision and perceived job stability

The provision of job security is one of the precepts of the high-performance paradigm, as a means to motivate workers and minimise staff turnover. In this manner, problematics associated to job insecurity, defined as the "perceived powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation" in the seminal work by Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984: 438), will be avoided or, at least, diminished. Of special interest to this research is the reduction of voluntary turnover, one of the specific outcomes pursued by the high-performance model. Further, following that HPWPs seek to improve organisational performance via influencing employee attitudes and behaviour, it is also deemed necessary to evaluate how these work management practices can impact worker perception of job stability.

Having the consideration of a cornerstone practice, i.e. crucial for the effectiveness of others (Pfeffer, 1998; Posthuma et al., 2013), job security provision is the one HPWP that is specifically aimed at staff retention, as it has been noted in Section 2.2. Also highlighted in Section 2.6, job

security provision is usually operationalised via the duration of the employment relationship, job security provision is usually measured in the literature by means of contractual status, i.e. permanent/open-ended versus temporary/fixed-term. Such is the case of Origo and Pagani (2009), Amuedo Dorantes (2000), García Serrano (1998) and also Pruneda (2015), who finds that job security – as measured via contractual status, i.e. open-ended versus temporary contract of employment – is the individual HPWP that covers the largest share of private sector employees in Spain, out of a total of six HPWPs assessed.

Thus, according to the relevance of worker perception (Elorza et al., 2011; Alfes et al., 2012 and 2013; Brewster et al., 2013), it seems sensible to consider that, besides contractual status, how employees perceive HPWPs is crucial for perceived job stability. In this respect, even though permanent contracts are the most noticeable signal of job security and that the preference for a permanent contract over a temporary one tends to be taken for granted, Origo and Pagani (2009) address these preconceptions. In fact, these authors conclude that it is the perception of job stability what drives job satisfaction, regardless of contractual status. The importance of employee perceptions is thus supported.

Origo and Pagani (2009) empirically test the joint effect that (objective) contractual status and (subjective) perceived job stability exert on job satisfaction, thus providing evidence on the relationship between job satisfaction and both job security provision and perceived job stability, and also linking the security dimension pursued by organisations that implement HPWPs and employee perception of job stability. First, these authors show that permanent workers are more satisfied than their temporary counterparts. However, by interacting contractual status and job stability perception, they find that job satisfaction of secure temporary workers is not statistically different from that of secure permanent workers, being much lower for both permanent and temporary insecure workers. That is, insecure workers feel equally unsatisfied, regardless of the nature of contractual status. In other words, the type of contract by itself is not fully able to explain the effect on job satisfaction, since it is similar for secure workers on the one hand and for insecure workers on the other. Consequently, Origo and Pagani (2009) conclude that job stability and job security provision are quite different things (providing support for the differentiation between these two concepts, one of the main pillars of this chapter). Also, these authors reflect on the lack of job security being a primary source of dissatisfaction, given that temporary secure jobs are preferred to permanent insecure jobs, thus proposing that the unemployment risk is more relevant than the duration of the employment relationship. It is the perceived risk of becoming unemployed what determines job satisfaction. Moreover, the main conclusions in Origo and Pagani (2009) generally hold within different welfare regimes in

Europe, namely those of Nordic countries, Continental countries, Southern or Mediterranean countries and English-speaking countries.

The study by Origo and Pagani (2009) on job satisfaction has implications for HPWPs theory since they propose that employers may balance out the lack of a secure position with other advantageous working conditions such as training, career prospects, and good working climate. Subsequently, these authors do not explicitly refer to the high-performance paradigm but they do so implicitly, following that they suggest that organisational performance will benefit from designing a strategic HRM system that is capable of influencing worker attitudes. As a result, organisations may want to enhance employee perception of job stability by adopting complementary HPWPs in addition to providing job security via permanent contracts of employment.

In short, although the nature of the employment contract in terms of duration is a good measure of objective job security, it is worker perception of job stability what really influences employee attitudes.

3.3.3 Job (in)security in Spain

Research covering job security in Spain does not abound, yet a number of studies have addressed it over the past years, mainly from the perspective of lack of job security, i.e. job insecurity. Some are interested in the antecedents (Erlinghagen, 2008; Clark and Postel-Vinay, 2009; Muñoz de Bustillo and De Pedraza, 2010) and others focus on the effects on individuals (Silla et al., 2005; Luna-Arocas and Camps, 2008; László et al., 2010; Silla et al., 2010). One advantage shared by all these pieces of research is their worker-oriented approach, with respondents being workers themselves as advised by Alfes et al. (2012 and 2013), Elorza et al. (2011) and Brewster et al. (2013). Complementarily, these studies may also be categorised based on whether job (in)security in Spain is the main research interest (Silla et al., 2005; Luna-Arocas and Camps, 2008; Silla et al., 2010) or, alternatively, if it is addressed in the context of a cross-national approach (Erlinghagen, 2008; Clark and Postel-Vinay, 2009; Muñoz de Bustillo and De Pedraza, 2010). This second classification will be used here.

The cross-country analysis for 17 EU countries – including Spain – by Erlinghagen (2008) identifies a positive association between job insecurity and fixed-term contract, as well as a negative relationship between job insecurity and public sector. Muñoz de Bustillo and De Pedraza (2010) evaluate the determinants of subjective job insecurity across five EU countries,

namely Belgium, Finland, Germany, Spain and The Netherlands, finding a positive impact of being on a temporary contract with a clear and strong explanatory power in all five countries.

Clark and Postel-Vinay (2009) evaluate perceived job security in 12 EU countries, including Spain. They find that job security is highest among public sector permanent workers and lowest among private sector temporary workers.

These three pieces of research by Erlinghagen (2008), Clark and Postel-Vinay (2009) and Muñoz de Bustillo and De Pedraza (2010) share one common finding: job (in)security is a phenomenon that transcends borders in terms of both antecedents and consequences, but country-specific differences are present as well. Studies that focus exclusively in Spain are discussed next.

Silla et al. (2005) provide evidence that temporary workers in Spain have higher levels of job security than their permanent counterparts. Also, these authors find that traditional temporary workers (those who have low skills and low preference for temporary employment) have significantly lower levels of life satisfaction and well-being. Luna-Arocas and Camps (2008) analyse the effects of three HPWPs, namely job security, pay, and job enrichment, on commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions in Spain. They find that pay negatively affects turnover intentions, both directly and indirectly via its positive influence on job satisfaction, which in turn positively impacts employee commitment and this negatively affects turnover intentions. Job security positively affects commitment, and job enrichment positively influences both job satisfaction and commitment. In sum, job satisfaction and employee commitment mediate the effects of the three HPWPs on turnover intentions, with pay also showing a direct influence.

Silla et al. (2010) examine the relationships between perceived job insecurity in Spain and employee attitudes and behaviour, namely job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover intentions. They find that job insecurity is negatively correlated to permanent contract and detrimental to all the three outcome variables considered.

Summing up, the literature addressing job (in)security in Spain provides evidence of its effects on turnover intentions in the context of the high-performance paradigm (Luna-Arocas and Camps, 2008; Silla et al., 2010), also showing that the type of employment contract influences worker perception of job security (Silla et al., 2005; Erlinghagen, 2008; Clark and Postel-Vinay, 2009; Muñoz de Bustillo and De Pedraza, 2010; Silla et al., 2010). In general, these pieces of research show the effects of job (in)security in Spain on individuals – it is detrimental for their health and their attitudes at work – and organisations – it positively affects turnover intentions

–. Findings also suggest that organisations have the capacity to influence employee perceived job insecurity via type of contract.

3.3.4 The Spanish labour market: some particularities in terms of job stability

Following the findings by Origo and Pagani (2009) of perceived job stability as a driver of job satisfaction, regardless of contractual status, and the identification by Pruneda (2015) of job security, measured through type of contract, ranking at the top of the five HPWPs considered by this author – namely selective hiring, job security, information sharing, extensive training and contingent remuneration – in terms of private sector employees in Spain, an in-depth study of job security in Spain that accounts for worker perception is necessary. The particularities of the Spanish labour market only add further interest to this analysis. In this respect, one must consider that Spain is characterised by its poor performance in terms of socioeconomic security (Gutiérrez and González Menéndez, 2011).

In order to attain a better understanding of the Spanish context, the work by García Serrano (1998), Amuedo-Dorantes (2000) and Ortiz (2010) provides some insightful views of the dual labour market in the country, where there is one segment of workers who are highly protected and another one that is integrated by unprotected temporary workers. Using the 1993-4 Survey of Economic Situation, García Serrano (1998) draws on 737 observations from establishments with more than 500 employees in the Spanish labour market to identify differences by type of contract. This author provides evidence of the segmentation of the Spanish labour market that derives from the short duration of a large and increasing number of employment matches. He observes that permanent contracts are mainly linked to creation and destruction of employment positions in Spain, with fixed-term contracts being mainly used for rotation purposes. With the latter accounting for the largest portion of the hiring and separation rates at the aggregate level, hence resulting in a net decline of permanent employment and an increase of temporary employment, García Serrano (1998) highlights that temporary work is a distinctive feature of the Spanish labour market, in line with dual labour market theory.

Supporting García Serrano (1998), Amuedo-Dorantes (2000) draws on results from 37,899 observations of the 1995-6 edition of the Spanish LFS, which allows for a longitudinal analysis as a result of its panel structure. She concludes that, also in line with dual labour market theory, temporary work in Spain is mostly involuntary and ineffective as a bridge to permanent employment, hence becoming a trap for employees instead.

Last, Ortiz (2010) adopts a comparative approach to analyse over-education by employment status in three countries with similar education systems, namely France, Italy and Spain. After highlighting that Spain has the largest rate of temporary employment and the lowest conversion rate of temporary into permanent contracts, he finds that the direct effect of holding a fixed-term contract over the likelihood of being over-educated is positive in France and in Italy, whereas the effect is negative in Spain. In other words, having a temporary contract in this country decreases the likelihood of being over-educated, relative to holding a permanent contract. Thus, this author suggests that fixed-term contracts in Spain are not a bridge into secure employment, in line with Amuedo-Dorantes (2000). Also, Ortiz (2010) finds that, relative to working in the private sector, working in the public sector – generally considered to be more secure – increases the likelihood of over-education in the three countries analysed. In this respect, Ortiz (2010) reflects that the benefit in terms of job security that is attached to the public sector may have extended to the private sector as well in the case of Spain.

Ortiz (2010) concludes that, given the size and importance of temporary employment in a dual labour market like the Spanish one, a permanent contract is a highly valuable asset as a result of the relative higher value of secure employment when compared to France and Italy. Thus, this author suggests that human capital in Spain could also be regarded as an investment in job security, i.e. human capital may be traded off for job security.

Consequently, following that the labour market in Spain is characterised by the duality based on employment security, job stability calls for a more in-depth analysis, given its great relevance at the individual, organisational and macro levels.

Summing up, specific evidence for the Spanish case regarding the influence of job security on turnover intentions in the context of the high-performance paradigm has been discussed (Luna-Arocas and Camps, 2008; Silla et al., 2010). HPWPs stand as a plausible and worthy alternative that organisations may offer to provide job security (Walton, 1985; Huselid, 1995; Guest et al., 2003; Combs et al., 2006; Kuvaas, 2008; Origo and Pagani, 2009; Alfes et al., 2013). In this respect, HRM would embody the link at the micro level that connects the macro and the individual levels in terms of stable employment relationships, following its capacity to influence perceived job stability via the decision of the type of employment contract (Silla et al., 2005; Erlinghagen, 2008; Clark and Postel-Vinay, 2009; Muñoz de Bustillo and De Pedraza, 2010; Silla et al., 2010). Further, job stability is a central dimension of job quality and hence one of the main

pillars upon which individuals may enjoy a fulfilling and decent life, as widely acknowledged by different supranational bodies (OECD, 2014; ILO, 2015; Eurofound, 2017).

The section that follows establishes the first objective of this chapter and presents the hypotheses that are proposed to attain such goal, following the main findings that are drawn from the literature on job security and HPWPs that has been reviewed.

3.3.5 Job stability in Spain: objective and hypotheses

Following the theorised benefits of HPWPs both at the organisational (Huselid, 1995; Appelbaum et al., 2000; Boxall and Purcell, 2003) and the individual (Guest, 1999; Macky and Boxall, 2007; Wood and De Menezes, 2011; Wood et al., 2012; Carr and Mellizo, 2013; Boxall and Macky, 2014) levels, organisations in Spain should seriously consider the potential of HPWPs as an instrument to contribute towards the improvement of employment quality in the country. By providing job security, organisations would be following the suggestions of different supranational organisations (OECD, 2014; ILO, 2015; Eurofound, 2017). For these reasons, the main objective of this chapter is to shed light on the job security dimension of HPWPs, by adopting an approach that focuses on the effects that these work management practices have on job stability and employee turnover within the Spanish context.

Therefore, the second research objective of this study is twofold. Firstly, to evaluate if HPWPs-based HRM has a positive effect on individuals in terms of job stability, following Alfes et al. (2013), Kuvaas (2008) and Pfeffer (1998). Secondly, to assess the relationship between turnover intentions and HPWPs so as to see if this form of managing personnel exerts a positive impact on organisational performance, in line with Walton (1985), Huselid (1995), Guest et al. (2003), Combs et al. (2006), Kuvaas (2008), Origo and Pagani (2009) and Alfes et al. (2013). Following the twofold objective, this research seeks to provide evidence on two different yet related issues, namely job stability and turnover intentions, in relation to HPWPs. Similarly, given that said twofold objective seeks to explore their link to HPWPs, the main explanatory variables will be a set of these work management practices. Both the main variables of interest – job stability and employee retention – and the main explanatory variables – indicative of HPWPs – will be discussed in detail in Chapter 5, devoted to the methodology of this study.

Drawing on the different yet complementary literature regarding the link between HPWPs and staff retention, as seen in Section 3.3.1, two pairs of hypotheses are proposed to address the objective of this chapter.

First, based on the literature that posits HPWPs as providers of job security (Wood, 2013; Boxall and Purcell, 2003), in turn one of the most valued job characteristics by employees (Clark, 2005); previous findings supporting the effect of HPWPs on employee attitudes (Alfes et al., 2013; Guest, 1999), including perception of job security (Luna-Arocas and Camps, 2008); and that of perceived job security on job satisfaction (Origo and Pagani, 2009), the first hypothesis is proposed:

H1. *Employee perception of job stability is positively associated to HPWPs.*

Second, following the great importance that employees attach to job security (Clark, 2005); the characteristics of the Spanish labour market evidenced by García Serrano (1998), Amuedo-Dorantes (2000) and Ortiz (2010); and the findings that link the type of contract with employee perception of job stability (Erlinghagen, 2008; Clark and Postel-Vinay, 2009; Muñoz de Bustillo and De Pedraza, 2010; Silla et al., 2010), the second hypothesis is proposed:

H2. *Job security provision is the individual HPWP that displays the largest positive effect on perceived job stability.*

Third, according to previous research finding a positive relationship between HPWPs usage and employee retention (Walton, 1985; Huselid, 1995; Guest et al., 2003; Combs et al., 2006; Luna-Arocas and Camps, 2008), as well as studies showing that perception of HPWPs positively influence staff retention (Alfes et al., 2013), the third hypothesis is suggested:

H3. *Employee voluntary turnover intentions is negatively associated to HPWPs.*

Finally, following research on HPWPs that advocates the key role of job security provision to minimise voluntary quits (Pfeffer, 1998; Godard and Delaney, 2000; Rubinstein, 2001; Combs et al., 2006; Jones et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2009; Messersmith and Guthrie, 2010; De Waal and Meingast, 2011; Thompson, 2011; Linz and Semykina, 2012; Wu et al., 2014), as well as the empirical evidence in this respect found for Spain by Silla et al. (2010), the fourth and last hypothesis is proposed:

H4. *Job security provision is the individual HPWP that displays the largest negative effect on employee voluntary turnover intentions.*

It must be stressed that hypotheses H1 and H3 are proposed to answer the third research question, which in turn has been proposed to identify those HPWPs that positively contribute to job stability. Given that this study takes an inclusive approach to HPWPs, i.e. it covers a wide

variety of practices that are representative of the seven broad HRM policies selected in Section 2.6 and, consequently, the three components of the AMO model – that have been referred to in Section 2.3 –, said hypotheses seek to test the effects on employee outcomes of HPWPs without listing any particular practices. Thus, prior to testing hypotheses H1 and H3, it is necessary to establish a rule of thumb for confirming or rejecting said hypotheses. This will be done in the methodology chapter.

Testing these four hypotheses will allow for evaluating to which extent HPWPs are providers of job security – a cornerstone HPWP and a central dimension of job quality – in the context of the private sector in Spain. Therefore, contextualising the results with respect to those obtained in order to answer the first research question proposed in Section 2.5 (to evaluate the coverage of HPWPs in terms of employees), will assist shedding light on how HPWPs may be used to improve job quality in terms of job security.

The remaining of the chapter is devoted to job satisfaction. First, its adequacy to study job quality will be discussed. A review of the literature that addresses the association between HPWPs and job satisfaction, with a special focus in Spain, follows. After that, the research objective will be presented and the corresponding research questions proposed.

3.4 Job satisfaction

This section discusses, first, the suitability of using job satisfaction to measure the lived experience of HPWPs by individuals, thus complementing the worker approach to HPWPs that has been proposed in Section 2.4.1. Second, it includes a review of the existing research on the effects on job satisfaction of HPWPs, paying special attention to Spain. Finally, the third research objective of this study is presented and two research questions are proposed.

3.4.1 Job quality and worker well-being

As a result of the enormously significant repercussions that job quality bears on the life of individuals, the debate transcends the academic arena and becomes a very important goal for many supranational institutions and agencies, as it was shown in Section 3.2. According to the OECD, “the jobs that people hold are one of the most powerful determinants of well-being, as most people spend a substantial part of their time at work and work for a significant part of their life” (OECD, 2014). Meanwhile, the ETUC sustains that we need to embrace the challenge of “ensuring that new jobs are quality ones which allow people to have a decent standard of living and contribute to their well-being and to a robust economy” (ETUC, 2015). As for the ILO (2015),

it refers to “the understanding that work is a source of personal dignity, family stability, peace in the community, democracies that deliver for people, and economic growth that expands opportunities for productive jobs and enterprise development”.

Subsequently, quality jobs are more than well-paid jobs that meet health and safety standards, whilst guaranteeing the protection of workers against abusive working conditions, such as an excessive working day or abusive treatment.

3.4.2 Is job satisfaction an adequate measure of job quality?

The distinction between two main streams of research on job quality is noted by Brown et al. (2012). The first one, adopting a subjective approach to job quality, focuses on self-reported job satisfaction following the assumption that job satisfaction is positively associated with job quality, i.e. that job satisfaction is indicative of job quality. The alternative stream defines job quality in terms of objective job characteristics that may or may not fulfil work-related needs such as autonomy, opportunity for skill development, and creative job content. This second approach dismisses job satisfaction as a useful indicator of job quality because, either as a result of low expectations or due to social conditioning, job satisfaction may be high even when job quality is poor.

In this respect, there is empirical evidence that supports the inadequacy of using job satisfaction indicators as a measure of job quality (Clark, 1997 and 2005; Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza, 2000; Muñoz de Bustillo Llorente and Fernández Macías, 2005; Muñoz de Bustillo et al., 2011a). Clark (2005) supports that job satisfaction, as a function of changes in job values and job outcomes, may reveal underlying labour market phenomena. Muñoz de Bustillo Llorente and Fernández Macías (2005) use 1997 data to examine the variability of job satisfaction in 24 countries and its relation to objective variables measuring job quality. They find that job satisfaction is not sensitive to job attributes that make a job good or bad and that it is subject to different processes of fit that cause the same job to be valued differently by different workers. Clark (1997) finds that job satisfaction is dependent on job expectations, thus warning against the direct translation from objective characteristics into subjective well-being. Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza (2000) posit that job satisfaction is primarily determined by self-perceptions, suggesting that it is the balance between self-perceived work-role inputs and work-role outputs what determines the different levels of job satisfaction. Muñoz de Bustillo Llorente and Fernández Macías (2005) suggest that job satisfaction is an indirect indicator of the well-being of workers and, even

though job quality plays a role in job satisfaction, there are plenty of other factors that need considering as well – such as the ability of individuals to cope and adapt to the environment –.

Thus, following the wide empirical evidence about the shortcomings of using job satisfaction to measure job quality, the study of job quality must be approached by analysing objective job characteristics – the second stream as in Brown et al. (2012) –. This is the approach adopted in this chapter. Yet, the unsuitability of job satisfaction to assess job quality does not imply in any way that job satisfaction has to be disregarded when researching on job-related features, such as HPWPs. In fact, Brown et al. (2012) posit that survey data on job satisfaction and subjective well-being at work are informative in terms of providing relevant information about the lived experience of work if interpreted carefully. Further, these authors add that it is actually in the understanding of why workers report feelings of (dis)satisfaction with their jobs that sociology can make a positive contribution.

For these reasons, the present study considers that analysing job satisfaction will be a perfect complement to enrich the worker-oriented approach to HPWPs, something that is supported by the same pieces of research that have been used to disregard job satisfaction as an adequate indicator of job quality (Clark, 1997 and 2005; Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza, 2000; Muñoz de Bustillo Llorente and Fernández Macías, 2005; Muñoz de Bustillo et al., 2011a).

3.4.3 Job satisfaction and subjective well-being

As it has just been discussed, job satisfaction is not an adequate indicator of job quality (Clark, 2005; Muñoz de Bustillo et al., 2011a), but it is a useful measure of the lived experience of work (Brown et al., 2012). Thus, this research considers job satisfaction a pertinent instrument to evaluate how individuals experience HRM practices, complementing the worker-oriented approach to HPWPs.

Job satisfaction is a subjective measure of worker well-being based on the perception of employees themselves. Self-reported levels of job satisfaction are conceptualised by Carr and Mellizo (2013) as a reflection of the attitude that workers have toward their job after having gained some experience with both their work and workplace. Self-perceived conditions have been attracting the interest of researchers for many decades, due to the fact that people demand the consideration of their own opinions and perceptions, such as well-being, and are not content to have experts, e.g. general or HR managers, evaluate their lives (Diener et al., 2002). As these authors point out, subjective well-being is a broad concept that includes

experiencing pleasant emotions, low levels of negative moods, and high life satisfaction (Diener et al., 2002: 63).

The connection between life satisfaction (a subjective measure of personal well-being) and job satisfaction (a subjective measure of worker well-being) is supported by empirical evidence (Tait et al., 1989; Judge and Watanabe, 1993; Judge et al., 2002). Following the widespread assumption that people consider work a significant and central aspect of their lives because of the amount of time devoted to work, as well as the emotional involvement that it implies, Tait et al. (1989) find a strong and positive association between life and job satisfaction, with Judge and Watanabe (1993) further adding that it is reciprocal. Based on data from the US workforce in the 1970s, Judge and Watanabe (1993) propose that job satisfaction is a function of the balance between work-role inputs and work-role outputs, thus supporting Adams (1965)' Equity Theory. Further, the work-role outputs analysed by Judge and Watanabe (1993) reflect some of the job quality dimensions discussed in Section 3.2, such as pay, career prospects, working conditions, and intrinsic factors. Last, drawing on a meta-analysis, Judge et al. (2002) investigate the relationship between the five-factor model of personality and both job and life satisfaction. Said model is widely used *neuroticism* – as opposed to emotional stability –, *conscientiousness*, *extraversion*, *agreeableness*, and *openness to experience*. These authors find neuroticism, conscientiousness and extraversion to be significant predictors of job satisfaction, thus supporting the stream of in psychology and it encompasses five big personality traits, namely research on job quality that critically questions job satisfaction as an adequate proxy of job quality. Additionally, Judge et al. (2002) find similar results when they test the effects of the five personality traits on life satisfaction, thus providing additional support for the connection between life and job satisfaction.

Therefore, it is not surprising that a wide variety of scholars from different fields, e.g. sociology, psychology, management, and economics, show great interest in job satisfaction, following that (a) it is associated to life satisfaction, thus reflecting the importance that work has in the life of individuals, (b) it is considered to be a subjective measure of worker well-being, (c) it provides information about how jobs are assessed by workers themselves, and (d) it was commonly used as a proxy of job quality, as it is noted by Brown et al. (2012). Further, even though employment quality has become a widespread concern in the social, political, and economic arenas, job satisfaction has not yet stopped being used as a proxy of job quality, possibly due to the added difficulty that designing objective indicators of job quality implies.

As a result, there is a large yet still growing body of research on job satisfaction. In fact, the number of academic contributions that focus on job satisfaction is significantly larger than that studying objective job characteristics to address job quality. The following section is devoted to reviewing the literature on job satisfaction, focusing on HPWPs and Spain.

3.4.4 Job satisfaction and HPWPs

Numerous studies find empirical evidence of a positive association between HPWPs and employee outcomes, such as Guest (1999), who finds that HPWPs have positive effects in workers' attitudes, by reducing pressure levels and increasing safety, work motivation, the level of commitment to the organisation, and job satisfaction. Three years later, this same author concludes that it is those HPWPs that are well received by workers which positively affect job satisfaction, such as those that make them participants in the running of the organisation (Guest, 2002). Ramsay et al. (2000) for the UK, and Macky and Boxall (2007) for New Zealand, prove the existence of a positive association between HPWPs and higher levels of job satisfaction. Meanwhile, Wood et al. (2012) find that job satisfaction is positively associated to enriched job design – measured through task variety, method control and timing control – and negatively to high involvement management (voice). Further, these authors provide evidence of job satisfaction mediating the positive relationship between enriched job design and three performance measures, namely financial performance, productivity, and quality, and the negative association between enriched job design and absenteeism. Carr and Mellizo (2013) find autonomy and voice to be positively correlated to satisfaction with the work itself and Boxall and Macky (2014) offer evidence of a positive effect of HPWPs on job satisfaction and work-life balance. Felstead et al. (2015) study the relationship between job satisfaction and the alignment of job requirements with employee needs in terms of learning, using 2012 data from employees in the UK. These authors find that job satisfaction is higher when learning opportunities are greater. Further, their results show that the negative effects on job satisfaction caused by skill mismatches may be diminished by having access to learning opportunities.

Unlike the relatively scarce amount of research on HPWPs (see Section 2.4.2), the interest on job satisfaction in Spain may be traced back to the 1980s, with work such as that of Martín (1981) and Meliá and Peiró (1988). Martín (1981) study satisfaction at work by adopting a sociological approach. This author analyses satisfaction with pay, with managers, with type of employment, and with the organisation, finding higher satisfaction is found in the services sector and that the size of the organisation and age are two strong predictors of work satisfaction. Meliá and Peiró (1988) design a brief questionnaire for effectively measuring job satisfaction, including measures

of satisfaction with supervisors, with the physical environment, and with compensation. However, it is not until the 2000s that in-depth and meticulous studies begin to regularly appear. Such is the case of Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza (2000), Muñoz de Bustillo Llorente and Fernández Macías (2005), Somarriva Arechavala et al. (2010), and Gutiérrez and González Menéndez (2011).

Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza (2000) analyse 1997 data from 21 countries and find that job satisfaction levels differ by country, yet they are remarkably high in all countries considered, ranging from 4.8 to 5.7 out of 7. Denmark (5.7) and Cyprus emerge at the top of the cross-national ranking of job satisfaction, followed by Switzerland, Israel, the Netherlands, and Spain (5.4). Slovenia, Japan, Russia and Hungary (4.8) display the lowest levels of job satisfaction.

In their aim to identify the determinants of job satisfaction in Spain using 2000 data, Muñoz de Bustillo Llorente and Fernández Macías (2005) find very low variability both in job satisfaction indicators – pay, teamwork, and type of job contract – and overall job satisfaction, suggesting that job satisfaction is not a good measure of job quality, thus supporting the results from their comparative analysis across countries that has been already referred to in Section 3.4.2. Subsequently, these authors decide to include the effects of objective quality of employment characteristics and worker expectations simultaneously – in other words, the degree of fit of both factors –, observing that the variable with greater explanatory power is level of income, followed by teamwork. Additionally, they find that higher levels of satisfaction are associated to holding better jobs. However, their results show low variability in job satisfaction once again. Therefore, based on the reflection that job satisfaction varies according to the fit between the objective characteristics of the job and worker expectations, these authors propose that such fit tends to occur over time as a result of either expectations adapting to objective conditions and/or objective conditions adapting to expectations. Consequently, based on their results, Muñoz de Bustillo Llorente and Fernández Macías (2005) suggest that the little variability implies a weak association to relevant social or economic variables, leading them to suggest that the dynamic mechanisms of fit that ultimately determine job satisfaction are psychological – endogenous – to a greater extent than they are sociological or economic – exogenous –.

In the context of a comparative analysis of job quality in Spain, Gutiérrez and González Menéndez (2011) note that the position of the Spanish workforce in relative terms with respect to the EU remains disadvantaged – they highlight that it is usually characterised as performing poorly in terms of socioeconomic security, training, working conditions and education – and it is actually worse for participation, direct control and, especially, job satisfaction, even though they

show an improving trend over the period 2000-2005. These authors find an increasing trend in terms of overall satisfaction from 2002 to 2009, yet again below UE average. Additionally, Gutiérrez and González Menéndez (2011) identify a growing trend in terms of satisfaction with intrinsic job aspects and a steady or even slightly decreasing satisfaction with extrinsic components of work, among employed individuals in Spain. The findings by these authors that workers in Spain perform poorly in terms of participation and direct control, and that satisfaction with intrinsic job characteristics increases, are counterintuitive – at least at first – and call for further research.

Along this section (3.4), job satisfaction has been discussed as a subjective measure of employee well-being, drawing connections to HPWPs whilst paying special attention to Spain. Having also identified some weaknesses in the literature that call for amplification, such as the evolution of job satisfaction along time – data in Muñoz de Bustillo Llorente and Fernández Macías (2005) refers to 2000 –, and worker satisfaction with different HRM practices, the next section presents the second objective that is drawn from this chapter, as well as the research questions proposed in order to shed light on the subject of job satisfaction in Spain.

3.4.5 Job satisfaction in Spain: objective and research questions

Drawing on the literature review on job satisfaction and the need to increase the little existing knowledge about how workers in Spain experience HPWPs, the third research objective of this study is derived. Such objective, of a descriptive nature, is to map the level of satisfaction of private sector employees in Spain, both in terms of overall job satisfaction and with a variety of job characteristics related to HPWPs. Complementarily, a long-term approach will be adopted in order to identify the changes that have been taken place in terms of worker satisfaction since the beginning of the economic crisis. This second objective complements the first one, which aimed to evaluate the coverage of HPWPs in terms of private sector employees in Spain (see Section 2.5).

Following the twofold objective that has just been stated, two research questions are proposed next. As a result of mixed and complex effects of HPWPs on individuals (Ramsay et al., 2000; Ollo-López et al., 2010; Boxall and Macky, 2014), it is of great interest to evaluate the self-reported work experience of this modality of HRM by employees in terms of job satisfaction, in order to increase the existing knowledge of worker perception of work management practices. At the same time, this will assist validating whether HPWPs may be considered as an end in themselves (Wall and Wood, 2005). Subsequently, the third research question is suggested:

RQ3. *What is the average overall job satisfaction and the degree of satisfaction with different job characteristics measuring HPWPs?*

The evolution of job satisfaction and job values in the 1990s (Clark, 2005); the reversal in trends displayed in 2008 by certain job aspects and the increase of overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with intrinsic job aspects (Gutiérrez and González Menéndez, 2011); as well as changes of some HPWPs in terms of workers along the periods 2004-2010 (Gallie and Zhou, 2013), 2005-2010 (Eurofound, 2013), and 2006-2010 (Pruneda, 2015) that have been suggested to be a consequence of the economic crisis that hit Spain in 2008, call for a long-term approach. Therefore, the fourth research question is proposed:

RQ4. *How has worker satisfaction with various job aspects evolved from 2006 (the last year of the economic boom that the Spanish economy was experiencing before the crisis hit the country) to 2010 (three years into the economic downturn)?*

By addressing these two research questions, it will be obtained empirical evidence that allows for learning how HPWPs are experienced by private sector workers in Spain. Also, by adopting a long-term approach, it will be possible to identify the changes that may have taken place along a very specific period of time that includes a sharp economic downturn. Further, jointly with the first and second research questions proposed in Section 2.5, it will be possible to perform a comprehensive descriptive study of HPWPs in Spain, identifying the coverage in terms of employees, as well as how these practices are received by individuals.

3.5 Summary

This chapter has established some important connections between job quality and HPWPs. First, after presenting the multidimensional nature of job quality following some conceptualisations by different international institutions and agencies, similarities have been drawn between such job quality dimensions and the broad HRM policies selected in Section 2.6 as representative of the high-performance paradigm. Also, since job security provision is a cornerstone HPWP and a central dimension of job quality, a further connection was suggested based on staff retention being one of the main objectives pursued by HPWPs. Further, a set of four hypotheses was proposed to test if such objectives hold in the Spanish case. Last, after discarding job satisfaction as an adequate indicator to indirectly evaluate job quality, it was selected as a measure of subjective worker well-being. Two research questions were proposed with respect to worker satisfaction with job characteristics related to HPWPs. In this manner, it will be possible to assess

the lived experience of HPWPs by employees in the private sector in Spain, thus complementing the results to be obtained from the research questions proposed in Section 2.5, as to the coverage of HPWPs.

CHAPTER IV

SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY AS AN ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK TO APPROACH THE EFFECTS OF HPWPs ON EMPLOYEE OUTCOMES

4 SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY AS AN ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK TO APPROACH THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HPWPS AND EMPLOYEE OUTCOMES

4.1 Introduction

Chapter 3 discussed the effects of HPWPs on employee perception of job stability (Guest, 1999; Boxall and Purcell, 2003; Luna-Arocas and Camps, 2008; Wood, 2013) and voluntary turnover intentions (Walton, 1985; Huselid, 1995; Guest et al., 2003; Combs et al., 2006; Alfes et al., 2013), and the connection between these practices and job quality. Special attention was paid to job stability, for two reasons. First, based on the importance that it has for worker well-being, job stability has the consideration of a central dimension of job quality. Second, following that staff retention is one of the objectives pursued by HPWPs, job stability is also regarded to be a cornerstone HPWP.

This chapter focuses on the role that workplace relationships play on the association between HPWPs that promote job stability and employee well-being. More specifically, it proposes that a better understanding of how HPWPs affect employee outcomes may be obtained from a social exchange perspective, thus contributing to the stream of research that studies the underlying processes and mechanisms that intervene in the materialisation of the effects of HRM – the so-called *black box* of HRM – at the individual level (Ramsay et al., 2000; Boselie et al., 2005; Boxall et al., 2011; Elorza et al., 2011; Messersmith et al., 2011). As it will be shown, such underlying processes may be assessed by taking a mediation or a moderation approach (Baron and Kenny, 1986). A mediating effect represents the generative mechanism of the mediator (a third variable) through which the predictor or independent variable is able to influence the criterion or dependent variable of interest. A moderating effect denotes the mechanism by which the moderator (a third variable) alters the direction or the strength of the relationship between the predictor and the criterion variables.

The predictor, criterion and moderator variables that will be here proposed measure, respectively, HPWPs, employee outcomes, and workplace relationships.

The rest of the chapter is structured as follows. Section 4.2 presents SET, argues that trust and quality of relationships are highly relevant components of social exchange that must be accounted for (Section 4.2.1) and discusses the connections between HPWPs and social

exchange (Section 4.2.2). Section 4.3 reviews the existing literature that considers the explanatory role of social exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and employee outcomes, paying special attention to those studies that analyse its moderating role (Section 4.3.3). Section 4.4 proposes a connected research objective and the corresponding hypotheses to be tested. The chapter ends with a brief summary.

4.2 Social Exchange Theory

SET (Homans, 1958; Blau, 1964) is one of the most influential conceptual paradigms in organisational behaviour theorising (Colquitt et al., 2014; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005).

Homans (1958) underlines a number of statements on social behaviour as exchange, following a review of theories on the subject. First, Homans (1958) highlights that social behaviour is an exchange of goods, either material (e.g. money) or non-material (e.g. support). Second, he notes that persons who give much to others try to get much from them, whilst those who get much from others are under pressure to give much to them in return. Third, this author posits that this process of influence tends to a balance in the exchanges. Fourth, Homans (1958) advances that, for individuals engaged in exchange, what they give may be a cost to them, just as what they get may be a reward, and their behaviour changes less as profit – i.e. reward less cost – tends to a maximum.

In his seminal work on exchange and social life, Blau (1964) considers social exchange as actions that are beneficial to others, taking place if rewarding reactions are expected but ceasing when such reactions are not anticipated. This author proposes that social exchange always implies elements of intrinsic significance for the exchange partners, whereas economic exchange does not. The concept of social exchange focuses on the nascent properties in interpersonal relations and social interaction (Blau, 1964). Blau posits that a person who has benefitted from the actions by another is expected to acknowledge this and, eventually, reciprocate. If that person does indeed show gratitude and reciprocates, they will receive further assistance as a result of the social reward received from the other person, hence creating a social bond between the two as a consequence of the mutual exchange of services. Otherwise, that is, in case of failure to acknowledge the benefit and lack of reciprocation, the person will be signalled as ungrateful and undeserving of further support, thus preventing social exchange from developing.

Blau (1964) also notes that the main difference between social and economic exchange is that the former implies a general expectation of some future return, which exact nature is not stipulated in advance, and the latter involves a future or immediate return which is previously

agreed and known by both partners. Hence, social exchange implies unspecified and diffuse future obligations, left to the discretion of that who is to reciprocate (Blau, 1964: 93). In connection to the differences and similarities between economic and social exchange, Emerson (1976) suggests that the exchange approach in Sociology might be described as the economic analysis of non-economic social situations, thus acknowledging the major relevance of SET and proposing that it is not to be understood as a theory, but as a frame of reference when approaching social relations.

According to Blau (1964), the person whose actions benefit another will trust this other person, i.e. the exchange partner, in that they will reciprocate so as to discharge their obligations and, when they do, trust is promoted and social exchange reinforced. This author suggests that the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) reinforces and stabilises the social rewards inherent to social exchange. Social exchange tends to foster feelings of personal obligation, gratitude and trust (Blau, 1964: 94), whereas strictly economic exchanges usually do not, since the obligation is discharged as soon as it is paid.

The efforts of exchange theorists to understand the social structures created by exchange relations, as well as the ways in which such structures constrain and enable actors to exercise power and influence in their daily lives, are acknowledged by Cook and Rice (2003). These authors state that, regardless of these interactions being viewed as reciprocal or negotiated exchanges, they are always present in social life and need studying. In fact, Cook and Rice (2003) manifest that one major characteristic feature of recent research on social exchange in the field of Sociology is its attention to the links between SET and theories of influence, fairness or trust, such as equity theory. Equity theory (Adams, 1965) proposes that individuals are motivated to develop fair and equal relationships, for which they make social comparisons based on perceived income/outcome ratios. They compare their ratio at present against either their own ratio at some point in the past or against the ratio of a third person (e.g. a peer, someone who shares their same job role or occupation in another organisation). If they perceive equity, they derive satisfaction, and if they experience inequity they will be motivated to act in order to reduce the perceived imbalance.

4.2.1 Social exchange: trust and quality of relationships

In his seminal work, Blau (1964) sustains that there are some basic characteristics that are inherent to social exchange relationships, such as trusting others and fostering elements of intrinsic significance. This author advocates that social exchange “involves unspecified

obligations, the fulfilment of which depends on trust because it cannot be enforced in the absence of a binding contract. But the trust required for social exchange is generated by its own gradual expansions in a self-adjusted manner" (Blau, 1964: 112-3). Implicit in these words is that a relational component is essential for social exchange to develop, given that "trust [is] required for social exchange" and that such trust gradually expands by self-adjusting.

In connection with the basic characteristics of social exchange, Colquitt et al. (2014) assess the frequency with which five commonly used operationalisation measures of social exchange relationships feature in top industrial and organisational journals along the period 2000-2010. Their ranking shows perceived support to come first, followed by exchange quality, affective commitment, trust, and psychological contract fulfilment. Yet, these authors criticise that some of these indicators do not necessarily evoke some of the basic features of social exchange emphasised by Blau (1964), such as trust or a relational component.

In other words, in order to correctly operationalise Blau (1964)'s SET, both trust (Cook and Rice, 2003; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005) and quality of relationships (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005; Mills et al., 2014) are basic features that must be accounted for (Colquitt et al., 2014).

Trust, an important factor influencing employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Cho and Poister, 2013), has been conceptualised in many ways. For Dirks and Ferrin (2001: 456), it "is a psychological state that provides a representation of how individuals understand their relationship with another party in situations that involve risk or vulnerability"; Peccei and Guest (2002: 7) define it as "the subjective belief of an actor in a social relationship in the benevolent intentions of other actors in the relationship"; and among the most widely used definitions stands that by Mayer et al. (1995: 712), who defined trust as "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party". Other than some connotations of the selected term "willingness" – "readiness" or "disposition" might present a higher level of precision –, this definition adequately fits the trust dimension of social exchange. When specifically referred to the organisational context, the definition proposed by Searle and Dietz (2012: 334) suggests that "organisational trust concerns the employees' perceptions, decisions and actions that arise from the positive expectations but also from the perceived vulnerability concerning the perceived intentions or behaviours of another party; in this context, the other party could be an individual (e.g. a co-worker, manager or leader) or a collective (e.g. the organisation itself)".

The relational component is evident within the context of social exchange relationships, but for a relationship to be labelled as one that encompasses social exchange it is necessary that it implies exchange quality, understood as the level of mutual respect, trust and obligation between the exchange partners (Gerstner and Day, 1997). In fact, Colbert et al. (2016) suggest that work relationships may be among the most significant for people overall, finding that they are likely to provide more than instrumental benefits, for they also support growth and development, positively affect meaningfulness, positive work emotions and job satisfaction, hence playing a key role in promoting employee flourishing.

Summing up, trust and quality of relationships are basic features of social exchange that must be explicitly accounted for when adopting SET as the framework of reference to address attitudinal and behavioural outcomes.

4.2.2 SET and the high-performance paradigm

Cropanzano et al. (2002) sustain that, according to SET, organisations are forums for transactions and individuals form perceptions as to the fairness of such transactions, distinguishing two basic exchange partners. First, the organisation itself, because formal procedures, such as HRM practices, are usually established by the organisation. Second, the members of the individual work team, especially supervisors, because most interactions take place with those work colleagues who are closest. Thus, Cropanzano et al. (2002) acknowledge the suitability of SET to address relationships in the workplace, whilst emphasising the central role that supervisors play in exchange relationships, something that Brewster et al. (2013) bring up when they propose that line managers must be considered key agents when analysing how the impact of HRM practices on employee outcomes happens.

SET is based on the idea that relationships have a reciprocal nature and perceptions of fairness greatly affect social behaviour, leading to individuals showing a tendency to act in a manner that benefits others when these others have previously acted in a manner that was beneficial to them (Mills et al., 2014). The theoretical and conceptual framework that SET provides is highly beneficial to address the *black box* of HRM, i.e. it fits very well into the line of research that seeks to explore how the impact of HRM practices on employee outcomes is shaped. Further, adopting a social exchange approach to address the relationship between HPWPs and employee attitudes and behaviour strengthens the job quality outline of this research, given that working environments featuring social exchange imply that the job quality dimension that refers to strong workplace relationships and social capital is present (OECD, 2014). At the same time, by considering the relationships among the individuals that integrate the social system that is the

workplace, the social patterns of employees can be addressed more effectively, as advocated by Durkheim and Mayo.

In this respect, a set of parallelisms may be traced between the four statements by Homans (1958) on social behaviour as exchange (see the beginning of this section) and the high-performance paradigm. First, high-performance HRM prides itself of looking after individuals by providing them with adequate jobs, training and development schemes, security, competitive pay packages, job autonomy and so on. However, as suggested by Guest (2017), organisations offer these job attributes in order to have involved, committed employees who are in disposition to positively contribute to organisational performance, not to improve worker well-being. In other words, *in exchange for* higher levels of employee commitment that will lead to increased organisational performance. Second, high-performance HRM assumes that an increase in any of the HRM policies mentioned will lead to an increase in worker performance. Third, high-performance HRM implies that both parties, i.e. both exchange partners, regularly assess each other with regard to their level of compliance, adjusting what is deemed necessary when needed. Fourth, connected to the third statement and somehow limiting the second one, high-performance HRM tends to offer the best version of policies in order to maximise worker performance, while individuals will try to maximise their earnings, either material or non-material.

Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) note that, although theorists diverge on specifics, they do agree on the central "essence" of SET being that social exchange comprises actions contingent on the rewarding reactions of others, deriving over time on mutually and rewarding transactions and relationships. In this respect, Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) stress that SET emphasises that interdependent transactions have the potential to generate high-quality relationships, with one of the basic beliefs of SET being that relationships evolve over time into trusting, loyal, and mutual commitments. To do so, however, exchange parties must abide by certain rules and norms of exchange, which may be understood as the guidelines of exchange processes. In the organisational context, HRM practices – pay, working days and hours – in general and HPWPs in particular – training programmes, performance appraisal, contingent pay, profit sharing, and so on – may be identified among such rules and norms of exchange. In this manner, employees form rewards expectations if they comply with certain rules and norms and, when their actions are reciprocated in accordance to HPWPs, perceptions of trust and fairness develop over time, resulting in employee commitment towards the organisation, which is the objective pursued by the commitment-based HRM.

Focusing specifically on the organisations arena, Flynn (2005) declares that SET examines the functions and consequences of different forms of exchange relations with differing motives and behaviour of the actors involved. This author expands the idea of rules and norms of exchange by identifying three different patterns of behaviour of the actors involved in the exchange process, namely negotiated, reciprocal or generalised. First, the negotiated pattern implies that social support is offered and obtained on a quid pro quo basis. Second, the reciprocal pattern entails that the terms of the exchange are not discussed because reciprocity is assumed to occur at some point in the future. Under a HPWPs scenario, this pattern would imply that the expected employee outcomes are facilitated because of the assumed reciprocity. Third, the generalised pattern denotes that a climate of support is developed by employees, who provide assistance unilaterally, without any concern about direct or immediate reciprocation. In this case, the positive workplace climate would enhance the effects that HPWPs are expected to have on employee attitudes and behaviour.

Peccei and Guest (2002) advocate that trust is a precondition for exchange-based cooperative relationships to develop in the workplace, meaning that employees behave cooperatively as a response to their perception of cooperativeness of management, and vice-versa. Further, these authors find that both trust in management and cooperative behaviour of employees are fostered by HRM practices, measured via a set of individual HPWPs covering six of the seven HRM broad policies identified in Section 2.6, the exception being selection and recruitment. Finally, Peccei and Guest (2002) also identify trust to positively affect cooperative worker behaviour, including a decline in turnover. Thus, these authors conclude that potentially self-reinforcing high-trust and high-performance partnership systems may be fostered by mutually beneficial forms of cooperative behaviour between workers and management, supporting the connection between HPWPs and social exchange in the workplace.

Relying on SET, Cropanzano et al. (2002) criticise conceptual ambiguities within the organisational justice literature, focusing on the structure of fairness perceptions. These authors state that workers seem to evaluate the fairness of three classes of events: the outcomes they receive from the organisation (distributive justice, much in connection with Adams (1965)'s equity theory); formal policies or processes by which outcomes are allocated (procedural justice); and the interpersonal treatment they receive at the hands of organisational decision making (interactional justice). These authors concentrate on theorised effects of procedural and interactional justice on employee attitudes and behaviour, relying on SET. Procedural justice refers to an exchange between the organisation and its employees. If formal organisational procedures are perceived as fair, employees develop more positive attitudes toward the

organisation overall. Interactional justice refers to the exchange between supervisors and their subordinates. If workers perceive they are treated with fairness by their supervisor, leader-member exchange relationships become high quality – supportive and informal –, with both supervisors and plain employees trusting each other and being more likely to help each other out.

Thus, a parallelism between procedural justice and the HRM high-performance paradigm emerges, since HRM practices are formal organisational procedures that will be positively perceived when they are seen as fair, hence resulting in positive employee attitudes and behaviour. Both concepts are concerned with which organisational procedures – HPWPs – positively impact employee outcomes, the *what*. As for interactional justice, it would support the idea that the quality of exchange relationships fosters that extra role behaviour that is implicit in the commitment component of the high-performance paradigm, that is, the *how*. In short, according to Cropanzano et al. (2002), the perception of HPWPs as fair will result in positive employee attitudes and behaviour, while these will be further enhanced if high quality management-staff relationships are present in the workplace.

In sum, according to SET, relationships have a reciprocal nature and perceptions of fairness greatly affect social behaviour, leading to individuals showing a tendency to act in a manner that benefits others when these others have previously acted in a manner that was beneficial to them (Mills et al., 2014), as posited by Gouldner (1960) when he proposed the *norm of reciprocity*. Based on this premise, implementation of HPWPs may be expected to lead to positive employee outcomes, as long as practices are perceived as positive. Further, under a context of social exchange, interdependent transactions have the potential to generate high-quality relationships, with one of the basic beliefs of SET being that relationships evolve over time into trusting, loyal, and mutual commitments (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). In consequence, adopting a social exchange perspective to approach the relationship between HPWPs and employee outcomes allows for a more comprehensive view of the effect of HRM practices on employee outcomes, i.e. *how* such effect occurs. Examples of studies that have adopted this perspective are discussed next.

4.3 HPWPs and employee outcomes: the explanatory power of social exchange

This section reviews previous studies that approach the association between HPWPs and employee outcomes from a social exchange perspective, providing empirical evidence on the

usefulness of considering trust and quality of relationships. In this respect, some research (Section 4.3.1) analyses HPWPs as antecedents of social exchange (Cho and Poister, 2013) and employee outcomes as a consequence of social exchange (Louis et al., 1983; Davis et al., 2000; Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza, 2000; Dirks and Ferrin, 2002; Chiaburu and Harrison, 2008). Other studies (Section 4.3.2) explicitly address the interconnections among HPWPs, social exchange and employee outcomes, yet they do not explore the moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and employee outcomes is not what it is explored (Dirks and Ferrin, 2001; Allen et al., 2003; De Cuyper and De Witte, 2005; Sias, 2005). Section 4.3.3 includes important research that specifically assesses the moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and employee attitudes and behaviour (Innocenti et al., 2011; Alfes et al., 2012 and 2013). Last, previous research on HPWPs and social exchange for the Spanish context is presented in Section 4.3.4.

4.3.1 Social exchange: antecedents and outcomes

Drawing in 2007 employee survey data from a public organisation in the USA, Cho and Poister (2013) find evidence on the association between worker perception of autonomy-, compensation-, communication- and career advancement-aimed HPWPs and trust in management, while results obtained by Davis et al. (2000) in the context of a chain of restaurants suggest that it negatively affects employee turnover. Based on their meta-analysis of previous studies on the consequences of trust along the last four decades of the 20th Century, Dirks and Ferrin (2002) provide evidence supporting the strong associations between trust and different attitudinal employee outcomes. These authors conclude that the largest association is found for job satisfaction, followed by organisational commitment, and they also show a substantial connection with behavioural outcomes, such as turnover intentions. In addition, Dirks and Ferrin (2002) find that immediate superiors are a particularly important referent of trust, showing equal or higher associations than organisational trust with intention to quit and job satisfaction, thus suggesting that organisations concerned with enhancing these outcomes should focus on trust in direct leader (p. 623). Similar outcomes are considered in another meta-analysis by Chiaburu and Harrison (2008), who assert that perceived organisational support – another of the five measures for social exchange evaluated by Colquitt et al. (2014) – predicts employee attitudes, such as job satisfaction, involvement and commitment, and behaviours, namely turnover intentions, actual turnover, absenteeism and effort.

The other central feature, jointly with trust, whose convenience to be incorporated onto an inclusive measure of social exchange was agreed in Section 4.2.1, is quality of relationships. In

the assessment based on 1997 data from 21 countries that Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza (2000) perform regarding the value that employees attach to work-role outputs, good relations with management rank second – after having an interesting job – and are found to positively influence job satisfaction. Similar results are reported by Louis et al. (1983), who study socialisation practices for recent graduates from two universities in the USA as new recruits, finding that relationships with more senior co-workers are positively associated to job satisfaction and commitment.

In sum, empirical evidence is found for social exchange showing positive associations with HPWPs (Cho and Poister, 2013) and employee attitudes – job satisfaction – and behaviour – turnover intentions, actual turnover – (Louis et al., 1983; Davis et al., 2000; Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza, 2000; Dirks and Ferrin, 2002; Chiaburu and Harrison, 2008). Moreover, these pieces of research use trust and relationships to measure social exchange.

4.3.2 Effects of HPWPs on employee outcomes: a social exchange approach

This section illustrates a variety of common approaches in the literature of incorporating social exchange into the study of HPWPs and employee outcomes.

Drawing on questionnaire responses from 195 employees in a large public university, Sias (2005) considers only one HPWP, namely information sharing, and finds that it is positively associated with the quality of relationships with immediate supervisors, while it positively affects job satisfaction. De Cuyper and De Witte (2005) consider only one HPWP as well, which in their case is job security and it is measured via contractual status. Drawing on 2004 survey data from 656 employees sampled in the industrial and the retail sectors, they explore the association between job security and job satisfaction, trust and turnover intentions, finding that perceived job stability moderates these relationships. However, these authors do not consider trust to explain the relationship between job security (antecedent) and employee outcomes, given that trust has the consideration of an outcome itself. De Cuyper and De Witte (2005) suggest that it is perceived job stability what moderates the connection between job security and job satisfaction, trust and turnover intentions.

Allen et al. (2003) propose and evaluate a rather complex set of relationships among, first, HPWPs, specifically three dimensions of the high-performance paradigm, namely decision making, fair rewards, and growth opportunities; second, employee attitudes, namely job satisfaction and organisational commitment; third, employee behaviour, namely turnover

intentions and actual turnover; and, fourth, perceived organisational support, one of the five commonly used measures of social exchange (Colquitt et al., 2014). Based on USA data from 215 salespeople employed by a department store and 197 individuals working as insurance agents in a large national insurance company, Allen et al. (2003) find that perceived organisational support mediates the relationship between HPWPs and employee attitudes. Moreover, employee attitudes display a negative effect on turnover intentions, which in turn positively influence actual turnover.

In the editorial of the especial issue that *Human Resource Management Journal* devoted to trust and HRM, following the large body of literature on the topic, Searle and Dietz (2012) posit that trust is a potential antecedent, outcome and intervening factor in the relationship between HRM and employee well-being. These authors advance that, since trust has profound consequences for both individuals and organisations, it will remain central to the effectiveness of HRM, further adding that its management is highly complex yet unavoidable and may even be decisive. They also manifest that studies aimed at orienting organisations how to restore or repair trust are highly helpful, especially in times of recession when downsizing negatively affects employment, since "in periods of uncertainty, or where there is ambiguity or contradiction between the prescribed HR policies and their actual implementation, issues of trust become far more significant" (Searle and Dietz, 2012: 340). Subsequently, they reflect on the need to offer further clarification regarding whether trust relationships have a main, mediating or moderating effect on the impact of HRM on employee outcomes.

Whereas the present study does not intend to question neither the direct nor the mediating effects of trust pointed out by Searle and Dietz (2012), it is its moderating power what is explored. Specifically, this chapter assesses the moderating role of social exchange – based on trust and quality relationships – in the association between HPWPs and employee outcomes. This research advocates that the complementarities of SET and the high-performance paradigm offer a highly suitable fit to study the impact of HRM on employee outcomes. On the one hand, HPWPs make the foundations for positive employee attitudes and behaviour, such as job satisfaction, perception of job stability and lower turnover intentions, via enhancing workforce abilities, motivation and opportunity to contribute. On the other hand, social exchange paves the way for said outcomes via trusting and high quality relationships between superiors and their subordinates. Subsequently, social exchange would foster the positive impact of HPWPs on employee outcomes, while said impact would be hindered in those workplaces where trust is low and the quality of relationships poor. Such approach is supported by Dirks and Ferrin (2001).

Dirks and Ferrin (2001) review the model that has dominated the literature, in which trust is suggested to result in direct (main) effects on a variety of employee attitudinal and cognitive/perceptual outcomes, such as commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, individual performance and, mostly, job satisfaction. These authors find fairly consistent significant effects of trust on employee outcomes, highlighting as many as 12 studies that support the positive relationship between trust and job satisfaction. Further, they also propose an alternative model where trust facilitates or hinders, i.e. moderates, the effects of other factors on attitudinal, perceptual, behavioural and performance outcomes. Dirks and Ferrin (2001) posit that trust does not result by itself in direct outcomes, but moderates the effect of other causal factors on outcomes by affecting how individuals assess the future behaviour or interprets the past actions of another party. In this manner, they advocate that trust may reduce uncertainty and ambiguity, providing the conditions under which favourable outcomes, such as perceptions, attitudes or behaviour, are likely to occur, whilst lower levels of trust will decrease this likelihood. In summary, these authors propose that trust will display a main effect in situations that are weak for the outcome in question, even having no effect in strong situations, while in midrange situations, it "will facilitate the effects of other factors by reducing the ambiguity associated with assessing others' potential future behaviour or the motives underlying others' past behaviour" (Dirks and Ferrin, 2001: 462). Applied to a HPWPs context, the proposition by these authors implies that trust moderates the impact of these personnel management practices on employee outcomes.

Summing up, this section has reviewed some studies that exemplify the variety of approaches to the connection among HPWPs, social exchange and employee outcomes. Some, like Allen et al. (2003), use social exchange to explain the effect of HPWPs on employee attitudes and behaviour. Yet, these authors do not test the moderating role of social exchange, whereas this is the approach adopted in this chapter, in line with the proposition by Dirks and Ferrin (2001). Thus, the following section discusses existing research that does test the moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and employee outcomes.

4.3.3 HPWPs and employee outcomes: the moderating role of social exchange

The majority of the empirical literature on HPWPs that adopts a worker-oriented approach aims to test the direct effect of these practices on employee outcomes. Yet, there is an increasing number of studies that go a step further and investigate the *black box* of HRM so as to better understand the processes and mechanisms that help such effects materialising, in line with

Searle and Dietz (2012). It is in this respect that the present research evaluates whether social exchange moderates, i.e. facilitates or hinders, the relationship between HPWPs and employee attitudes and behaviour, following the proposition by Dirks and Ferrin (2001). In this manner, empirical evidence by Alfes et al. (2012 and 2012) and Innocenti et al. (2011) assessing the moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and employee outcomes are presented.

Alfes et al. (2012) suggest that trust in the employer may strengthen the relationship between HRM practices and employee outcomes, because those employees who feel that they can trust their employer are more likely to interpret HPWPs as an investment in them. These authors refer to a stronger relationship and not to a direct effect because HRM practices alone may on their own have an effect on employee outcomes via their functional role. They measure HRM practices via a nine-item scale including worker perception on training and development, selection, security, performance-based rewards, career opportunities, and appraisal, while they use a seven-item scale for trust in the employer. Using a sample drawn from a UK services organisation, Alfes et al. (2012) obtain evidence about HPWPs perception being positively associated with employee well-being – measured by a scale index based on different items – and negatively with turnover intentions. Further, they find that trust in the employer moderates these relationships, being partial moderation in the case of turnover intentions because it only materialises when trust in the employer is high.

Already referred to in Chapter 3, Alfes et al. (2013) explore the mechanisms through which perceived HPWPs, measured via a nine-item scale, influence employee attitudes and behaviour, based on a case study of 328 individuals in a division of a large UK support services organisation. They find an association, mediated by employee engagement, between perceived HPWPs and turnover intentions. Moreover, these authors provide evidence on the link between employee engagement and turnover intentions being moderated by the quality of the relationship between employee and line manager – measured via perceived organisational support and leader-member exchange. Their results show that, when individuals perceive HPWPs positively, they are more likely to be engaged with their jobs and, the extent to which this engagement results in positive behaviour towards the organisation, such as lower turnover intentions, varies as a function of perceived organisational support and leader-member exchange.

Drawing on a sample of 9,166 employees from 46 Italian organisations, Innocenti et al. (2011) find empirical evidence of the moderating role that trust in management has in the relationship between employee attitudes towards the organisation and an index encompassing seven

HPWPs, namely job evaluation, information sharing, training, non-monetary rewards, economic rewards, employee survey, and job design. Next, these authors reflect on how researchers, when investigating individual or organisational outcomes of HRM, have mainly focused on the overall HPWS, thus neglecting individual practices. As Innocenti et al. (2011) note, practices may generate opposing results that nullify their influence, thus proposing to direct the analysis to specific groups of practices in order to evaluate if the results of the overall index are consistent across these groups. Subsequently, these authors adopt the AMO approach to assess the moderating role of trust in management in the relationship between employee attitudes towards the organisation and each one of the three bundles of HPWPs suggested by the AMO model: the ability-enhancing bundle, the motivation-enhancing bundle, and the opportunity-enhancing bundle. This time, they only find support for the moderating role of trust in management in the relationship between the motivation bundle and employee attitudes towards the organisation.

Yet, Innocenti et al. (2011) are still neglecting possible counteracting effects that may happen as a consequence of grouping two or more practices into the same bundle. In other words, if two practices are categorised under the same bundle, it is possible that they are inflicting opposed effects on employee outcomes. For instance, this could be the case of job security provision and performance-based pay, both motivation-enhancing practices, yet so different to each other. Thereby, by applying the same rationale that they used to consider three distinctive bundles of practices, i.e. a way to improve the quality of the analysis relative to considering the overall HPWS, it can be argued that it is necessary to assess the individual effects of work management practices. Further, the results by Innocenti et al. (2011) might also be compromised by the fact that these authors do not account for worker perception of HPWPs, since these are informed by HR departments.

In short, Alfes et al. (2012 and 2013) and Innocenti et al. (2011) provide empirical evidence that supports the positive moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and employee outcomes.

To sum up, the dawn of the 21st century has seen a significant increase in research that adopts a social exchange perspective to address the impact of HPWPs on employee outcomes, providing empirical evidence of the positive role played by social exchange in such effect (Allen et al., 2003; Sias, 2005; Innocenti et al., 2011; Alfes et al., 2012 and 2013). Specifically, job satisfaction is an employee outcome that attracts great attention and has been extensively

investigated upon (Guest, 1999; Appelbaum et al., 2000; Allen et al., 2003; Sias, 2005; Macky and Boxall, 2007; Boxall and Macky, 2014) by this body of literature, due to its importance as an indicator of subjective worker well-being. Likewise, turnover intentions have also been widely investigated (Allen et al., 2003; Alfes et al., 2012 and 2013), given that it is a behavioural outcome of special relevance from the individual and the organisational perspectives alike.

4.3.4 Evidence from Spain

No studies have been found for Spain that assess the moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and employee attitudes and behaviour. Uncommon examples of empirical evidence for the Spanish case where social exchange has been applied to understand the effects of HRM on employee outcomes are Camelo-Ordaz et al. (2011), Silla et al. (2010) and Requena (2003). Focusing on a 2005 sample of 87 companies employing at least 50 people in the chemical and manufacturing sectors, Camelo-Ordaz et al. (2011) find that affective commitment – one of the five measures of social exchange highlighted by Colquitt et al. (2014) – mediates the relationship between HPWPs and knowledge sharing with coworkers in different departments. However, respondents are R&D managers, thus preventing from the advantages of using responses by employees themselves, such as employee attitudes and behaviour being shaped by their perception of HRM or the reality-perception gap in HRM practices resulting in their deficient effectiveness, as already pointed out in Chapters 2 and 3 (Wright and Nishii, 2007; Boxall et al., 2011; Elorza et al., 2011; Brewster et al., 2013; Jiang et al., 2017).

Silla et al. (2010) find that organisational fairness moderates the association between perceived job insecurity and three different worker attitudes and behaviour – namely job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover intentions. Therefore, perceived job insecurity is considered by these authors to be an antecedent of the three employee outcomes, whereas the present research considers it to be an employee outcome itself and HPWPs the antecedents. As for Requena (2003), this author finds a positive relationship between trust and job satisfaction, based on survey data drawn from the responses by 6,020 employed individuals in Spain. However, as in the case of Silla et al. (2010), he does not look into the effects on employee outcomes of HRM.

Summing up, social exchange “refers to voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring” (Blau, 1964: 91), whilst SET might be described as the economic analysis of non-economic social situations for understanding workplace behaviour

(Emerson, 1976). As such, it is highly useful to address the process by which HPWPs influence employee attitudes and behaviour, by considering its moderating role in such relationship. Subsequently, this provides a unique opportunity to incorporate social exchange onto the analysis of individual HPWPs and employee attitudes and behaviour for the private sector in Spain. Further, studies that draw on social exchange to clarify the consequences of HRM for the case of Spain are rather scarce and, at least to the best of the researcher's knowledge, there are no studies to this date that address the influence of HRM practices on employee attitudes and behaviour by assessing the moderating role of social exchange within the Spanish context.

4.4 Objectives and hypotheses

Drawing on the connections among HPWPs, employee outcomes and social exchange that have been discussed in Section 4.3, the fourth research objective of this study is proposed here as a result of some gaps that have been identified in the literature. But prior to that, it is deemed necessary to emphasise six considerations following the ideas that have been put forward so far in this chapter with regards to HPWPs and social exchange in the workplace.

First, social exchange comprises reciprocal actions that go beyond the requirements (Gouldner, 1960) and derive over time from interdependent transactions and relationships that are mutually rewarding (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). Second, two central features of social exchange are quality relationships and trust, given the nature of these exchanges (Colquitt et al., 2014), for they are not based on formal procedures. Third, the key exchange partners are subordinates and their immediate superiors, as may be seen in Alfes et al. (2012), Innocenti et al. (2011), Sias (2005) and Dirks and Ferrin (2002). Fourth, individual perceptions play a prominent role in shaping an environment characterised by social exchange, since both exchange partners make social comparisons based on perceived income/outcome ratios and form perceptions regarding the fairness of transactions (Adams, 1965; Cropanzano et al., 2002). This has been carefully taken into consideration when selecting the empirical references on social exchange and worker outcomes reviewed in this section, where social exchange is measured from data drawn from employee responses. As it has been previously noted, the only exception to this is the study by Camelo-Ordaz et al. (2011), who surveyed R&D directors. Also, authors like Elorza et al. (2011) and Brewster et al. (2013) advise on considering worker perception when assessing employee attitudes and behaviour. Fifth, social exchange is expected to positively contribute to employee outcomes in the form of attitudes and behaviour (Louis et al., 1983; Davis et al., 2000; Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza, 2000; Dirks and Ferrin, 2001 and 2002; Allen et al., 2003; De Cuyper and De Witte, 2005; Sias, 2005; Chiaburu and Harrison, 2008;

Innocenti et al., 2011; Alfes et al., 2012 and 2013). And sixth, as a result of the two previous considerations it must be emphasised that, whereas two exchange partners are needed for social exchange to emerge, only the employee side is addressed in this chapter, given that the global aim of this study is to assess the influence on HPWPs on employee attitudes and behaviour.

These six considerations will be accounted for, either explicitly or implicitly, when expressing the objectives of this chapter and articulating the hypotheses that are proposed, which is done in the following section, as well as when selecting the variables to be used and the methodology to be applied, which is done in Chapter 5.

4.4.1 Objectives

Complementing the power of HPWPs as providers of job security – a central dimension of job quality – that has been discussed in Chapter 3, the main objective that emerges from this chapter is to assess the moderating role of social exchange in private sector workplaces in Spain in relation to the association between job-stability fostering HPWPs and employee outcomes. Primarily, this will be done for job satisfaction, a measure of employee subjective well-being. Thus, it will be possible to assess how worker perception of HPWPs varies contingent on the workplace climate with regard to social exchange. Additionally, it will be done for employee perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions, so as to further investigate from a social exchange perspective the direct associations proposed in Section 3.3.5. Thus, it will be possible to see the differences in the capacity of HPWPs to provide job security depending on the workplace environment.

4.4.2 Hypotheses

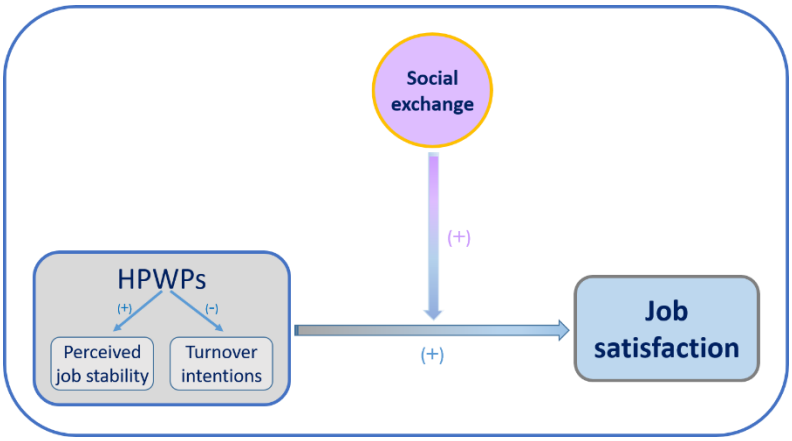
Based on the objectives that have just been presented, three hypotheses are suggested in order to test the moderating effect of social exchange in the association between HPWPs – which will be detailed in the methodology chapter – and the specific three employee outcomes mentioned.

First, based on evidence with regards to social exchange being positively associated with HPWPs (Cho and Poister, 2013) and job satisfaction (Louis et al., 1983; Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza, 2000; Dirks and Ferrin, 2002; Chiaburu and Harrison, 2008); findings on the positive role that it plays in the relationship between HPWPs and employee attitudes (Allen et al., 2003; Innocenti et al., 2011; Alfes et al., 2012) – with the latter specifically focusing on job satisfaction and the former two providing support for such role being one of moderation –; and the proposition by Dirks and Ferrin (2001) that social exchange moderates the relationship between HRM practices

and employee attitudes. Figure 2 includes a graphic representation of the model proposed, based on which the fifth hypothesis is suggested:

H5. *The association between employee overall job satisfaction and stability-fostering HPWPs is positively moderated by social exchange.*

Figure 2. Conceptual and analytical model.



Second, based on broad evidence regarding the positive effect of HRM practices on job stability (Guest, 1999; Boxall and Purcell, 2003; Luna-Arocas and Camps, 2008; Wood, 2013); that on the role of social exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and employee attitudes (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002; Allen et al., 2003; Innocenti et al., 2011; Alfes et al., 2012); that one of the main features of social exchange is that it has the potential to generate high-quality relationships that evolve over time (Homans, 1958; Blau, 1964) as noted by Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005); and the proposition by Dirks and Ferrin (2001) that social exchange moderates the relationship between HRM practices and employee attitudes, the sixth hypothesis is proposed:

H6. *The association between employee perception of job stability and stability-fostering HPWPs is positively moderated by social exchange.*

Third, following evidence showing that social exchange is positively associated with HPWPs (Cho and Poister, 2013) and negatively with employee turnover intentions (Davis et al., 2000; Dirks and Ferrin, 2002; Chiaburu and Harrison, 2008); findings regarding the positive role of social exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and turnover intentions (Allen et al., 2003; Innocenti et al., 2011; Alfes et al., 2012 and 2013) – with Alfes et al. (2012 and 2013) actually providing empirical support for its moderating role –; and the proposition by Dirks and Ferrin (2001) that social exchange moderates the relationship between HRM practices and employee behaviour, the seventh and last hypothesis is proposed:

H7. *The association between employee voluntary turnover intentions and stability-fostering HPWPs is positively moderated by social exchange.*

As it was discussed in Section 3.3.5 with respect to hypotheses H1 and H3, a rule of thumb needs establishing prior to testing hypotheses H5-H7, given that (a) it is unknown in advance how many variables will meet the criterion of positively contributing to job stability, and (b) which specific HPWPs will be measuring. This will be done in the methodology chapter.

Testing these three hypotheses will allow for increasing the existing knowledge on how HPWPs impact employee outcomes. Given that the power of HPWPs as providers of job security is accounted for, empirical evidence will be gathered as to the importance of social exchange on the effect that said job security (a central dimension of job quality) has on an indicator of subjective well-being such as job satisfaction. Complementarily, social exchange will be also used to further explain the association between job stability-fostering HPWPs and both employee perception of job stability and turnover intentions, following the special focus on job security as a central dimension of job quality that this research has.

In sum, results will shed light into the *black box* of HRM by utilising SET to test the impact of HPWPs on employee attitudes and behaviour, paying especial attention to job quality.

4.5 Summary

This chapter has developed a theoretical framework based on SET (Homans, 1958; Blau, 1964) to address the relationship between HPWPs and employee attitudes and behaviour, thus contributing to shed light on the *black box* of HRM (Ramsay et al., 2000; Boxall et al., 2011; Elorza et al., 2011).

Two particular features of social exchange, namely trust in superiors and the quality of relationships between management and staff, have been selected as archetypal of social exchange in the workplace, in line with Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005). This assisted in refining the selection of relevant studies to discuss the connections among HPWPs, social exchange and employee outcomes.

Wide evidence was found for the positive effect of social exchange on employee attitudes and behaviour, yet the number of studies that specifically assess the moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and employee outcomes is very little (Innocenti et al., 2011; Alfes et al., 2012 and 2013) and none used Spanish data, thus encouraging to carry out an investigation in this country.

In order to expand the existing knowledge about the impact of HPWPs on employee outcomes, this chapter has proposed to explore and assess the moderating role that social exchange has in the relationship between HPWPs and employee attitudes and behaviour, namely job satisfaction, perceived job stability and turnover intentions.

A salient role is granted to job quality, thus further expanding the approximation to HPWPs taken in Chapter 3. There are various reasons for this. First, social exchange relates to positive workplace climate, one of the dimensions of job quality. Second, job satisfaction is an indicator of employee subjective well-being. Third, the effect of HPWPs on perceived job stability is measuring the success of such practices to provide job security, a central dimension of job quality. Fourth, in stating the set of three hypotheses to be tested, only practices that prove to be beneficial for enhancing job stability are considered.

Last, by exploring the moderating role of social exchange in the impact of job stability-fostering HPWPs on turnover intentions, it will be possible to assess the power of social exchange to enhance staff retention, one of the objectives pursued by the high-performance paradigm.

CHAPTER V

METHODOLOGY

5 METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

Given the nature of the four research questions and of the seven hypotheses proposed in the previous three chapters, a quantitative approach based on statistical methods is necessary. Also, given that the data on private sector employees in Spain is to be drawn from a representative sample of the whole employed population in the country, the application of statistical methods will allow for obtaining results that can be generalised to the private sector. Therefore, this research differs from previous studies on HPWPs for the Spanish context in that findings will not be restricted to specific sectors, organisations, or occupations.

The following section presents the database that is used as the source of information. Next, variables are selected, with separate sub-sections for dependent, independent, moderating, and control variables, as well as other variables of interest. The last section describes the different analyses to be performed, distinguishing between descriptive and inferential analyses.

5.2 Database

Following the objectives of this study, a database that allows for a quantitative approach is required. As a result of the inclusion of a comprehensive set of individual HPWPs and satisfaction items with a wide variety of job features, the source of information requires to contain a large number of questions that cover many job-related aspects on HRM practices, working conditions, labour relations, workplace environment, as well as employee attitudes, behaviour and opinions. Also, based on the general approach to HPWPs in this study, where the focus is on the perception of employees of such practices and worker well-being, the dataset needs to be worker oriented. Furthermore, the database to be used must be a representative sample of employed individuals at the national level in Spain, for the results to be obtained have to be subject to generalisation for the private sector.

The database selected is the *Working Life Quality Survey* (WLQS), commissioned by the Spanish Ministry of Work and Social Security from 1999 to 2010, with the exception of 2005. These databases are available at no cost for research purposes and the questionnaires can be downloaded from the website of the Ministry. The secondary data in this survey fulfils all the requirements that have been mentioned. First, it allows for a quantitate approach, given the large number of observations. Second, it extensively covers a wide range of evidence with

respect to HPWPs and worker satisfaction, as well as employee opinions, attitudes and behaviour. Third, respondents are workers themselves, hence the survey is individual-based and worker-oriented. Fourth, it is a representative sample of the overall employed population in Spain, thus allowing for the generalisation of results at the national level.

The geographical scope of the WLQS is the entire country, with the exception of Ceuta and Melilla, two autonomous cities located in the North of Morocco. The WLQS covers persons aged 16 and older living in family households. The questionnaire is divided in 15 different sections, namely sociodemographic data (1); occupation (2); overall job satisfaction (3); organisation of work (4); work environment (5); labour relations (6); working time (7); safety at work (8); vocational and academic training (9); compensation (10); work-family balance (11); attitudes and opinions (12); collective agreement (13); labour unions (14); and work and geographical mobility (15). Thus, the WLQS is a source of information that covers a wide variety of job-related topics, including those that are necessary for this research. First, the seven core HRM areas selected in Section 2.6. Second, information about employee satisfaction with different job features, as per the second research question (Section 2.5). Third, questions that enable to measure job stability (crucial to address the objectives in Section 3.3.5). And, fourth, questionnaire items that allow for evaluating the relationships in the workplace (necessary to achieve the objectives in Section 4.4.1).

The WLQS provides solutions to various methodological criticisms concerning the study of HPWPs and employee outcomes. Firstly, it is worth mentioning the work by Wall and Wood (2005), further endorsed by Peccei et al. (2013). Wall and Wood (2005) argue that the findings in this field of HRM are inconclusive, partly due to the limitations of small-scale funding inherent to social science research, which means that results are restricted to certain types of companies or industries. Therefore, they suggest that it is necessary the collaboration of different stakeholders, such as academics, governments, business, workers and professional associations, so that their union allows for a quantitative approach by using a large sample. In this regard, the WLQS warrants adopting a quantitative approach as a result of being a representative sample of the employed population in Spain.

Secondly, given that the unit of analysis are workers themselves, employee perceptions of their working lives – a key aspect in shaping worker behaviour – will be accounted for (Wright and Nishii, 2007; Alfes et al., 2013; Brewster et al., 2013; Kehoe and Wright, 2013; Jiang et al., 2017). Thereby, common biases inherent to research on HPWPs dissipate, such as those derived from management evaluating the effects of HPWPs on worker behaviour (Dundon et al., 2004); from

the intention-reality gap, as a result of the incorrect implementation of these work management practices; and from the reality-perception gap, understood as the deficient effectiveness of HRM practices as a consequence of the faulty perception by employees (Wright and Nishii, 2007; Boxall et al., 2011).

Thirdly, since respondents are workers themselves and the WLQS includes both objective and subjective variables – an advantage highlighted in previous studies (Origo and Pagani, 2009) – it allows for assessing the accounts by individuals of their experience of HRM practices. In other words, it is an appropriate instrument to evaluate the *worker's verdict* (Guest, 1999; Glover et al., 2014).

The variety of advantages that the WLQS offers is manifest by its use in previous research on HPWPs and job quality, such as Muñoz de Bustillo Llorente and Fernández Macías (2005), Jódar and Alós (2008), Ollo-López et al. (2010) and Gutiérrez and González Menéndez (2011).

Nevertheless, whereas using a single data source to estimate the effects of individual HPWPs on employee outcomes – as it will be done to test the hypotheses proposed in Sections 3.3.5 and 3.4.5 – allows for dissipating the reality-perception gap (Wright and Nishii, 2007; Boxall et al., 2011), the relationships between the variables may be inflated as a result of the risk of social desirability bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003), i.e. the tendency of respondents to give socially acceptable answers.

As it has been mentioned, the WLQS is a representative sample of the whole working population in Spain. Self-employed workers are disregarded due to the objective of this research, and so are public sector employees, given that the majority of them enjoy the particular status of lifelong civil servants in Spain. Consequently, maintaining the public sector in the sample would invalidate evaluating the effects of HRM on employee outcomes whilst adopting a job security perspective. In consideration of their specificities and small size in terms of employment the agricultural sector and the Armed Forces are removed. Last, individuals above 64 years of age are also removed, given that the legal age of retirement in Spain is 65.

With respect to the specific editions of the WLQS, the 2006-2010 waves are considered in this study. While the research objectives stated in Chapters 3 and 4 will use data from the 2010 edition (the latest available), the years 2006-2009 will be also used to map the coverage of HPWPs in terms of private sector employees, as well as to assess worker satisfaction with different HRM-related job features. By including data collected both before and after the beginning of the crisis, the WLQS offers an appropriate framework to monitor changes in HPWPs

coverage and worker satisfaction in the context of the Spanish economic retrenchment. Thus, a long-term outlook will be incorporated to these two descriptive analysis, focusing on the years 2006 and 2010.

The 2006 edition of the WLQS contains 7,667 observations, representing 19,701,225 employed individuals after weights are applied. The 2010 wave of the survey contains 8,061 observations, which represent 18,409,625 workers. Once the public, agricultural (141 observations in 2006; 221 in 2010) and Armed Forces (no observations in 2006; 1 in 2010) sectors, the self-employed, and respondents who are above 64 years of age (9 observations in 2006; 16 observations in 2010) are removed, the final size of the samples that were used for each year amounts to 4,423 observations in 2006 and 4,663 in 2010, which stand for 11,810,516 and 10,738,095 private sector workers in Spain, respectively. A brief description of the 2006 and 2010 samples follows.

The final sample for 2006 includes 58.7% of respondents who are men; average age is 37; 90.7% were born in Spain; 19.8% are university graduates and 44.1% have less than secondary education; 57.7% are married or cohabiting with their partner and 53.1% have no children; 94.7% are not members of any professional association; 84.3% are not unionised; average organisational tenure is 7.4 years; 84.3% do not supervise others; 36.1% never do overtime and 32.7% do it at least half of the days; 80.8% are employees who report to their superior but have no subordinates; 11.3% hold high-skilled positions and 25.1% hold medium- to high-skilled positions, while 62.6% hold medium- to low-skilled positions; 24.8% are employed by organisations that operate in the manufacturing sector, 13.3% in the construction and building industry, 16.8% in the trade industry, and 12.4% in health or education; 52.4% work for an organisation with no more than 50 employees and 65.7% are based in a workplace with no more than 50 employees; 50.3% work for an organisation that offers training activities; and 66.1% report not to have taken part in such activities.

Four years later, the 2010 wave of the WLQS exhibits some changes with regard to some of the characteristics of employees in the Spanish private sector. Men decrease to 56.2%; average age rises to 39.2; individuals originally born in Spain decrease to 87.1%; university graduates reach 22.5%, while those who have not even finished secondary education fall to 37.2%; workers who are married or living with their partner experience an increase of 10 percentage points, reaching 67.9%, while those who have no children fall to 46.2%; average length of service within the organisation increases to 8.8 years; employees who do not supervise others decrease to 82.0%; those who never do overtime fall to 31.3% and those who do it at least half of the days drop to 9.0%; individuals holding high-skilled positions increase to 14.3% and those who have medium-

to high-skilled jobs fall to 15.2%; employees in the manufacturing industry decrease to 21.3%, those in the construction and building industry to 10.0% and those in health or education to 10.8%; employees based in a workplace with no more than 50 workers rise to 74.2%; individuals who work for an organisation that offers training activities increase to 51.5%, while those who do not take part in such activities fall to 59.0%.

5.3 Variables

This section is devoted to the selection and operationalisation of variables that will be used in the statistical analyses to address the research questions and to test the hypotheses proposed in this study. The section is divided into five subsections, one for each type of variables that are selected from the WLQS: dependent or main variables of interest (Section 5.3.1); independent or main explanatory variables (Section 5.3.2); moderating variables (Section 5.3.3); control variables (Section 5.3.4); and other variables of interest (Section 5.3.5). Some of the variables need operationalising in order to perform the analysis in Chapters 7 and 8. Transformations will be discussed in detail.

5.3.1 Dependent variables

The ultimate objective of this research is to assess the impact of job stability-fostering HPWPs on overall job satisfaction, from a social exchange perspective (hypothesis H5). Consequently, the main variable of interest or dependent variable must measure job satisfaction (see Section 5.3.1.1), and the explanatory or independent variables must measure HPWPs that contribute to job stability. Thus, such HPWPs need to be identified beforehand. In order to do this, it will be tested which are the variables measuring HPWPs (see Section 5.3.2) that have significant direct effects on two indicators of job stability (see 5.3.1.2), namely employee perception of job stability (hypotheses H1 and H2) and voluntary turnover intentions (hypotheses H3 and H4). Thus, this subsection is broken down into two differentiated blocks. The first one is dedicated to overall job satisfaction; the second one, to both perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions.

5.3.1.1 *Job satisfaction*

In order to measure employee overall job satisfaction for testing hypothesis H5, the questionnaire item selected is (Q. 20). It reads “State your degree of satisfaction with your current job”. Possible answers follow a Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (null satisfaction) to 10 (very high satisfaction). Therefore, the variable *job satisfaction* informs about the way that employees live the experience of work, hence being an indicator of overall worker subjective

well-being. This very variable has been previously used by Gutiérrez and González Menéndez (2011) and Somarriva Arechavala et al. (2010). Also, Muñoz de Bustillo Llorente and Fernández Macías (2005), as well as Requena (2003), used a former version of the variable, included in the 2000 and 2001 editions of the WLQS, respectively. In addition, other measures of overall job satisfaction have been included in some of the previous research discussed in Section 3.4, such as Clark (1997 and 2005), Cabral Vieira (2005), and Böckerman et al. (2011). In fact, overall job satisfaction is one of the most widely studied employee outcomes across different academic fields, such as Psychology, Sociology, Economics and Management.

Although the suitability of using single-item measures to assess psychological constructs may be questioned, it is not the case when the specific concept – such as job satisfaction – is unambiguous for the respondent. There is sound evidence of the validity and reliability of unambiguous single-item measures – including job satisfaction – that concludes that these single-item measures are as acceptable as scale measures integrated by multiple items (Wanous et al., 1997; Fisher et al., 2016).

The basic descriptive statistics of *job satisfaction* are included in Table A. 1. For analysis purposes and based on the median value and the quantiles, the variable is transformed into a four-category variable, as it can be seen in Table A. 2.

5.3.1.2 *Perceived job stability* and *turnover intentions*

Employee perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions are used as proxies of job stability, in order to test hypotheses H1-H4 (Section 3.3.5) and H6 and H7 (Section 4.4.2).

The variable *perceived job stability* is based on (Q. 77) of the questionnaire, which is specific to the 2010 wave of the WLQS and reads “Do you consider it likely to keep your current job in the next six months?”. Four answers are possible, namely *not likely at all* (2.8%), *unlikely* (8.1%), rather likely (26.3%) and very likely (62.8%). This can be seen in Table 4 (Chapter 6).

Being a subjective variable, it has the advantage of informing on the actual perception of job stability by individuals, a key factor in ultimately determining employee attitudes, and an indicator of worker subjective well-being.

The variable *turnover intentions* measures worker voluntary turnover intentions, for it informs on whether or not respondents are looking for a new job. The exact wording in the WLQS questionnaire is “Are you looking for another job?” (Q. 87) and respondents can either answer yes or no.

The two dependent variables that are used as proxies for job stability are valuable indicators of employee attitudes and behaviour that complement each other. Further, *turnover intentions* has the additional advantage of being a proxy for the risk that organisations face in terms of staff turnover. In other words, whilst both variables are measuring employee outcomes, *turnover intentions* is also indicative of performance at the organisational level, i.e. it is a proxy for staff voluntary turnover. Giving a variable that is measuring an outcome at the individual level (turnover intentions) the consideration of a proxy for an outcome at the organisational level (staff retention) is not very usual in the HRM literature. Yet, a precedent can be found in Valizade et al. (2016) use of employee commitment to measure the benefit accruable to the organisation from workplace partnership.

It is deemed necessary to note that *turnover intentions* is measuring one of the worst job outcomes for individuals, i.e. not wanting to do the job anymore, as well as one of the worst risks that organisations endure in terms of staff performance, i.e. their workforce voluntarily choosing to leave the job.

Finally, attention must be paid to the fact that dependent variables are measuring employee attitudes and behaviour, two highly relevant types of outcomes both from the individual and the organisational perspective. Both overall job satisfaction and perception of job stability may be categorised as attitudinal outcomes, whereas turnover intentions is proposed to be a behavioural outcome because it measures whether or not workers are actually looking for a new job.

In short, the three dependent variables to be included in the empirical analysis are (1) *job satisfaction* (null/poor - acceptable - high - very high), (2) *perceived job stability* (null - low - high - very high) and (3) *turnover intentions* (no-yes). It must be noted that the transformed variable *job satisfaction* matches the dependent variable measuring perception of job stability in terms of number of categories. This allows for identical analysis being performed on both of them, hence facilitating the comparison of results, as it will be discussed in Section 5.4.2.

5.3.2 Independent variables: individual HPWPs

Drawing on the WLQS, a selection of questionnaire items to measure the seven broad HRM concepts identified as representative of HPWPs in Section 2.6 was carried out, in order to answer the two research questions in connection to work practices and the hypotheses proposed. Variables were obtained by operationalising such items. Appendix 1 depicts the original phrasing

of the questions and the possible answers, just as they read in the questionnaire, as well as the transformation of such items in order to generate variables measuring individual HPWPs.

Two subsections follow. The first one offers a detailed description of the questionnaire items selected, by broad HRM area. Whenever one of these items needed to be operationalised in order to be a better measure of the corresponding individual HPWP, a reference to Appendix 1 is included. The second section is dedicated to explain the further transformation of some of the variables. Specifically, such transformation meant the dichotomisation of variables, which is required to perform the analysis for Chapter 8.

5.3.2.1 Selection of questionnaire items

Prior to discussing the questionnaire items that are selected in order to measure individual HPWPs, it is convenient to recall that the seven broad HRM areas considered in this study are (1) recruitment and selection, (2) training, (3) job security provision, (4) rewards, (5) information sharing, (6) job enrichment, and (7) employee voice.

1. Selection and recruitment: *person-job skills match* and *useful education*. In order to guarantee an adequate person-job fit, the skills and abilities that the prospective employee brings onto the organisation need to match those required to perform the job. It is in this sense that a question on whether the training is in line with the job has been selected (V1), similarly to Cabral Vieira (2005). This variable is dichotomised, as it may be seen in Appendix 1. Complementarily, a second question regarding the degree of usefulness of the academic education for the job has also been included (V2), given that this type of education is usually a requirement that needs to be satisfied at recruitment and that overqualification is not an uncommon phenomenon in Spain (Ortiz, 2010; cf Congregado et al., 2016). In both cases, the information provided by these two variables allows for knowing to which extent training and academic education are used by respondents in their jobs, thus posing as an approximation to the extent that organisations take into account the suitability of skills and qualifications for the position.

2. Training: *training hours*, *training during working hours* and *useful training*. Three questionnaire items have been considered. First, following Huselid (1995) and Beltrán-Martín et al. (2008), the number of hours in training activities provided by the organisation over the last twelve months (V3). Second, whether such activities have taken place during working hours (V4), something that Sieben (2007) refers to as “timing”. Third, the degree of usefulness for the job that respondents attach to such training (V5), similarly to Boxall and Macky (2014).

Consequently, these three variables are measuring whether individuals are being provided with training by their employer, the duration of the training activities, and if these take place within the working day, hence enabling to know if they do not require individuals to book some extra time to acquire additional skills, and if they report them as useful for their job.

3. Job security: *open-ended contract*. An item informing on whether the employment relationship is based on an open-ended or temporary contract, i.e. contractual status, has been included (V6). Origo and Pagani (2009) and Batt (2002) use type of contract to measure job security too, and also consider whether employment is full- or part-time. As a result of the Spanish dual labour market (see García Serrano, 1998; Amuedo-Dorantes, 2000; Ortiz, 2010), differentiating jobs by contractual status is an appropriate indicator of job security.

4. Rewards: *pay*, *performance-based pay*, *share in profits* and *social benefits*. Both monetary and non-monetary work management practices are considered, covering both quantitative and qualitative dimensions of job remuneration. Four variables have been obtained from five questions. First, net monthly job income (V7) signposts the level of earnings derived from the job. Authors such as Kehoe and Wright (2013), Audea et al. (2005), Batt (2002) and Chuang and Liao (2010) use pay in their analyses, considering it to be indicative of a HPWP when it is comparatively higher in comparison to some reference. Such comparisons cannot be done in this piece of research, given that the variable is not continuous. Second, performance-based pay (V8) informs on whether pay is based or includes a component on the level of production and/or sales, following Huselid (1995), Guest et al. (2003), Guest (2002), Hoque (2000) and Hoque et al. (2017). Third, share in profits (V9) indicates whether employees are entitled to a share in the profit that the organisation makes (Huselid, 1995; Ichniowski et al., 1997; Guest et al., 2003). Fourth, social benefits (V10) is a dichotomised variable (see Appendix 1) that tells whether or not workers are entitled to at least one social benefit from a total of nine. Specific benefits are listed in Table A. 3, which also includes individual frequencies and standard deviations for the period 2006-2010. While specifically considering social benefits is uncommon in the HPWPs literature, there are some examples in this respect (cf Chuang and Liao, 2010; Lepak and Snell, 2002).

5. Information sharing: *organisational structure knowledge*, *organisational objectives knowledge*, *risk information*. The aim is to have knowledgeable employees so they can make informed decisions in their position. It is in this respect that, although evidence on whether the organisation communicates information to its staff, either formally or informally, would be ideal, variables measuring the degree of knowledge that respondents possess in terms of both the

organisation objectives (V11) and the hierarchical structure of the organisation (V12) are considered as proxies of information sharing, as in Ollo-López et al. (2010). Additionally, in order to detect if the organisation actively informs workers, a third item containing whether the organisation advises respondents on the risks at work has been selected (V13). Although no antecedents have been found in the literature where exactly the same variable has been used, it is included here in order to account for a formal organisational procedure to communicate with the staff.

6. Job enrichment: *task variety*, *teamwork*, *telework*, *random flexitime*, *residence* and *trips*.

An item addressing the level of monotony or routine at work has been reversed to account for task variety (V14), following Lepak and Snell (2002) and Hoque (2000). Although other key dimensions of job enrichment include control over the pace and timing of tasks performed, unfortunately no items are included in the questionnaire that may be used to measure such concepts. Five items have been used in order to measure decentralisation of decision making, the second component used to address job enrichment in this study. First, whether individuals ever work as part of a team (V15), since teamworking necessarily involves a certain extent of decision making, even if very low, as would be the case of highly bureaucratised workplaces. Ollo-López et al. (2010) use this very variable from previous editions of the same dataset, and other authors also use teamwork (Ichniowski et al., 1997; Hoque et al., 2017). Second, if workers have done most of their job from home at least one day over the last four weeks (V16), thus capturing the existence of control over how work is organised, similarly to what is found in Messersmith and Guthrie (2010) and also in Guest et al. (2003) and Boxall and Macky (2014). Third, how difficult it is for employees to leave work to solve sporadic personal problems (V17), also measuring a dimension of control over how work is organised and, specifically, random flexible hours, again similarly to Messersmith and Guthrie (2010) and Guest et al. (2003). Fourth, if respondents have a say on their change of residence for work reasons (V18), implying that individuals may contribute to organisational decisions that affect both their working and private lives. Fifth, if they have a say on job trips (V19), thus measuring if employee wills and preferences are taken into consideration. Even though each one of the last four variables (V15-V18) measures different aspects of work organisation, all are indicative of different dimensions of worker control over the job.

Regarding the usage of the two latter variables (V18 and V19), no antecedents have been found in previous research. This should not be viewed as a downside of the research design in the present study but as a novel contribution in terms of capturing job control. In this respect, the information provided by these two variables is viewed as a sharp measure of worker job control,

since employees who have a say in connection to whether or not they relocate or whether or not they take a job trip are unequivocally empowered. In fact, V18 and V19 are informative of individual job control that goes beyond that measured by scholars like Boxall and Macky (2014) through the items "*I am encouraged to participate in decisions that affect me*" and "*for the most part, I am encouraged to participate in and make decisions that affect my day-to-day activities*".

7. Employee voice: *representation body*. Finally, whether or not there is a representation body of employees in the organisation is measured via the response to whether or not there is a staff delegate, works council or staff board that facilitates collective bargaining (V20), in line with Delery and Doty (1996) and, to a lesser extent, with Batt et al. (2002). Even though this variable does not account for other forms of employee voice besides through a representation body and does not inform on whether respondents actually manifest their views or opinions to the organisation, it does reflect the existence of a channel for them should they wish to do so. In other words, it measures indirect collective voice.

Having introduced the questionnaire items on which HPWPs will be based, it must be pointed out that it might so happen that one specific variable simultaneously measures more than one of the seven HRM broad concepts considered, given the complementarities and synergies among different variables and the overlap and interconnections across some of such HRM concepts. For instance, the possibility to work from home implies that one can decide where to do the work, whilst it might also be considered a measure of employee voice in the sense that it entails the participation of employees in how work is organised. In fact, decentralisation of decision making and employee voice are narrowly interrelated and may even be considered to be comprised within the wider concept of *participation*. In this research, however, the former is considered to operate at the individual level, with the latter doing it at the collective level. In other words, one might assume decision making to be a form of individual voice, just as voice might be considered as the capacity of employees to participate in the decision making processes of the organisation.

Following these considerations, Table 1 depicts a synthesis of the 20 variables that will be used in the analysis, also informing on the broad HRM area that they relate to. As it has been mentioned in numerous occasions along this section, Table A. 4 provides information at a much greater level of detail.

Table 1. Variables selected to measure HPWPs, by broad HRM concepts.

Broad HRM area	Sub-dimension	Variable
Selection and recruitment		Person-job skills match [V1] Useful education [V2]
Training		Training hours [V3] Training within working hours [V4] Useful training [V5]
Job security		Open-ended contract [V6]
Rewards	Monetary	Pay [V7] Performance-based pay [V8] Share in profits [V9]
	Non-monetary	Social benefits [V10]
Information sharing		Organisational objectives knowledge [V11] Organisational structure knowledge [V12] Information on risks at work [V13]
Job enrichment	Job design	Task variety [V14] Teamwork [V15]
	Job flexibility	Telework [V16] Random flexitime [V17]
	Decision making	Relocation [V18] Trips [V19]
Employee voice	Collective indirect voice	Representation body [V20]

Source: own elaboration from the literature on HPWPs.

Additionally, some of the variables are dichotomised for analysis purposes in order to test hypotheses H5-H7. This is discussed in the following section.

Last, it is deemed necessary to acknowledge the additional contribution to the existing literature on HPWPs that this piece of research entails by including variables that explicitly measure job enrichment and employee voice. In this respect, Wood and Wall (2007) note that, even though these two HRM dimensions have a prominent role in the theoretical framework used to approach HPWPs, both aspects are somehow neglected by the empirical research, whereas skill-enhancing and motivational practices have received much greater attention. An exception to the little attention given to voice in Spanish workplaces by the literature is González (2010) and González Menéndez (2011b).

5.3.2.2 Additional variable transformation

This subsection discusses the specific operationalisation of some variables that is necessary to test hypotheses H5-H7 (Chapter 8). In this respect, seven non-binary independent variables were dichotomised for analytical purposes, as it can be seen in Appendix 1 . This has two advantages. First, it allows for using the statistical method selected (to be discussed in Section 5.4.2.2) to test the moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between job stability-fostering individual HPWPs and overall job satisfaction. Second, it facilitates the interpretation and comparison of results.

Such operationalisation applies to the variables *training during working hours*, *useful training*, *pay*, *social benefits*, *organisational objectives knowledge*, *task variety*, and *representation body*. Unless otherwise stated, cut-off points are based on median values where possible, so dichotomised variables do not measure the presence or absence of a particular practice, but its intensity (Boselie et al., 2005). Details are offered next.

Training during working hours. An ordered variable that takes the values 1 "never", 2 "sometimes" and 3 "always", it was already operationalised to avoid reducing the sample size by adding the value 0 "non-attendance" when respondents had not taken part in training activities provided by the organisation (see Appendix 1). This change is undone at this stage and the new variable takes value 1 when employees report to participate in training activities always within working hours, i.e. high intensity, and 0 otherwise, i.e. absence or low intensity.

Useful training. A Likert-type variable ranging from 0 (null usefulness) to 10 (very high usefulness). Since it had been operationalised to allocate the value 0 to those respondents who did not participate in any kind of training activities provided by the organisation in the previous 12 months (see Appendix 1), 0 actually displays a frequency of 63% and, in consequence, the median value is 0. Therefore, the median value of the original variable (8) has now been used to establish the cut-off point. In this manner, the newly dichotomised variable takes the value 1 when the old variable takes values 9 or 10, being 0 otherwise.

Pay. An ordered variable that was already operationalised (see Appendix 1), possible responses range from 1 (less than 600€) to 5 (more than 3,000€). It is dichotomised by taking its median value (2: from 600€ to 1,200€) as the cut-off point, hence generating a binary variable that takes value 1 if pay exceeds 1,200€ and 0 otherwise.

Social benefits. An additive index ranging from 0 (no entitlement to any social benefit) to 10 (entitled to 10 different social benefits), it was built by computing the sum of individual social benefits that respondents are entitled to, out of a total number of 10 that are asked about in the questionnaire (see Table A. 3). With a median value of 0 (as many as 54% of private sector employees in Spain are not entitled to any social benefits at all), while being the individual HPWP that displays the lowest average level of satisfaction, 2.9 out of 10 in 2010, as it will be seen in Chapter 6. This variable is dichotomised by allocating the value 0 when the old variable takes value 0, and value 1 otherwise. In this manner, it does not inform on the intensity of this particular work management practice but on its presence or absence.

Organisational objectives knowledge. A Likert-type variable ranging from 0 (none) to 10 (plenty), its median value of 8 has been used to establish the cut-off point. In this manner, the newly generated binary variable takes the value 1 when the old variable takes values 9 or 10, being 0 otherwise.

Task variety. A Likert-type variable ranging from 0 (null) to 10 (very high), its median value of 4 has been used to establish the cut-off point. In this manner, the newly generated binary variable takes the value 1 when the old variable takes values 5 to 10, being 0 otherwise.

Representation body. A categorical variable that respondents may answer by choosing among "yes", "no" and "does not know", the latter value is dropped given that there is no theoretical support to argue the collapse of two of the three original values. Thus, similarly to what has been discussed with regards to social benefits, this particular variable is not measuring the intensity of the HPWP but its presence or absence. In addition, there is a downside attached to removing the third value, which is a drop in sample size from 4,663 to 3,806 for the dependent variable *perceived job stability* and 3,929 for both *job satisfaction* and turnover *intentions*.

5.3.3 Moderating variables

Drawing from the review of the literature and given that the dependent variables measure employee outcomes in terms of attitudes and behaviour, the moderator needs to echo two characteristic features of work environments where social exchange is present, as advanced in Section 4.2.1: the quality of relationships between management and subordinates, as perceived by these, and worker trust in superiors.

Two questionnaire items have been selected to measure employee perception of social exchange in the workplace. The first one (Q.35.a) focuses on the quality of relationships and it is phrased "Generally speaking, how would you describe the relationships between management and staff in your work environment?", with possible answers ranging from 0 (very bad) to 10 (very good). The phrasing of the questionnaire item (Q.21.a from the 1997 International Social Survey Program) used by Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza (2000) to measure relations with management in 21 countries – including Spain – is virtually identical to the one in this study, yet responses are measured by a five-point scale ranging from 1 "very good" to 5 "very bad". Alfes et al. (2013) rely on perceived organisational support and leader-member exchange, using a seven-item seven-point measure for the latter, with one of the items being "My working relationship with my leader is effective". Valizade et al. (2016) use two items on employee self-reports about the quality of workplace relationships to measure employment

relations climate. One of the items reads “How would you describe the workplace relationship between staff and management?”, with a response scale ranging from 1 “very bad” to 5 “very good”.

The second questionnaire item that has been selected to measure social exchange in the workplace (Q.36.a) focuses on trust and it reads “In the frame of you work environment, what is your degree of trust in your superiors?”, with answers ranging from 0 (null) to 10 (plenty). The validity of directly asking employees if they trust their supervisor to assess overall trust is supported by the findings in the meta-analysis on a wide range of measures of trust performed by Dirks and Ferrin (2002). Requena (2003) measures trust via an older version of the same variable that is used in this study, but from the 2001 edition of the WLQS. The question is identical to the one in the present study, yet it is measured differently (possible answers include “much”, “some”, “little”, “almost none”, and “none”). Alfes et al. (2012) use a seven-item scale to measure trust in the employer, an example item being “I fully trust my employer”, and Cho and Poister (2013) use the item “I trust my supervisor”, coded as a binary variable that takes value 1 when respondents report to strongly agree or agree.

Table A. 5 includes the basic descriptive statistics of the two questionnaire items used to measure social exchange in the workplace. In order to discern work environments with poor relationships from those with good ones, as well as work environments where employees confer high levels of trust to their superiors from those where said trust is somehow deficient, both variables are dichotomised using their median values as cut-off points, similarly to what was done with seven independent variables in the previous section. The transformed variables take value 1 when the original variables take values 9 and 10, otherwise they are 0. Details on the new variables are included in Table A. 6.

Next, these two dichotomised variables are interacted in order to obtain one single variable measuring the intensity of social exchange. In this manner, three typologies of work environment according to the level of social exchange are differentiated. First, work environments where the quality of relationships between management and staff are poor whilst trust in superiors is low (poor social exchange). Second, those where only one of these two characteristics of employment relations is deficient whilst the other one is not (midrange social exchange). Third, work environments where employees report good relationships with management and, simultaneously, high levels of trust in their superiors (rich social exchange). In her attempt to measure workplace relationship quality in Spain, Sias (2005) also considers simultaneously trust and quality of relationships, building a seven-item scale including a

question on employee perception of the extent to which they trust their managers and another one on how workers feel they have an effective relationship with their immediate supervisor. The basic descriptive statistics for the moderator variable, including the distribution of private sector employees across these three types of work environment, are depicted in Table 5 (Chapter 6).

5.3.4 Control variables

In addition to the 20 independent variables measuring HPWPs presented in Section 5.3.2, other type of factors are taken into consideration. In this respect, the effects of variables measuring socio-economic, job and organisational characteristics are controlled for in the inferential analyses that are discussed in Section 5.4.2.

First, socio-economic variables such as sex, age, nationality and educational level will be considered, in line with Origo and Pagani (2009), Jones et al. (2009), Linz and Semykina (2012), Alfes et al. (2013), Amuedo Dorantes (2000) and Kuvaas (2008).

Second, variables measuring job characteristics such as job tenure, supervision, job role and occupation will also be included, following Jones et al. (2009), Linz and Semykina (2012), Origo and Pagani (2009), Kuvaas (2008), Amuedo Dorantes (2000) and Alfes et al. (2013).

Third, variables assessing organisational characteristics such as activity sector, size of the workplace and size of the organisation will too be considered, in line with Jones et al. (2009), Liu et al. (2009), Messersmith and Guthrie (2010), Origo and Pagani (2009), Kuvaas (2008) and Amuedo Dorantes (2000).

Further, union membership will also be taken into consideration, in line with Origo and Pagani (2009) and Jones et al. (2009), while professional association membership will also be controlled for, similarly to what Origo and Pagani (2009) did with membership of clubs, associations or political parties.

5.3.5 Other variables of interest: worker satisfaction

This section includes an additional set of variables that, according to the main role that such variables have in the analyses, does not fit into any of the categories that have been already discussed.

The second research question of this study (Section 3.4.5) poses to evaluate the average level of satisfaction with job features that are connected to HPWPs of private sector workers in Spain overall. Thus, in order to draw a map of worker satisfaction, a wide range of job-related satisfaction items need selecting.

The WLQS includes a total of 26 questionnaire items to measure worker satisfaction, phrased "Please state your degree of satisfaction with [S1-S26]". Responses follow an 11-point Likert scale, where 0 stands for null satisfaction and 10 for very high satisfaction.

Following the selection of variables measuring HPWPs in Section 5.3.2, 12 satisfaction indicators [S1-S12] (see Appendix 2) are chosen: satisfaction with (S1) personal development (realisation); (S2) training; (S3) job stability; (S4) job income; (S5) how work is valued by line manager; (S6) social benefits; (S7) the work itself; (S8) the organisation of work; (S9) random flexible hours; (S10) the level of autonomy/independence; (S11) the level of participation regarding tasks performed; and (S12) overall job satisfaction.

A brief explanation of the 12 specific dimensions of worker satisfaction that have been selected follows. It will be explicitly signalled to which individual HPWP each satisfaction measure is paired with, which is also displayed in Table 2. Depending on how straight-forward is the fit between HPWPs and the satisfaction items, these are grouped in three categories.

First, there is a set of five satisfaction items that are highly straight forward in terms of the HPWP that they relate to. Satisfaction with training (S2), with job stability (S3), with job income (S4), with social benefits (S6), and with random flexitime (S9) all fall into this group. As it can be seen in Table 2, they are measuring the level of satisfaction that individuals report regarding, respectively, (V3-V5), V6, V7, V10, and V17.

Second, there is another set of five satisfaction variables that are not that straight forward. Included here are satisfaction with personal development (realisation) (S1), with how work is valued by line manager (S5), with the work itself (S7), with the organisation of work (S8), and with the level of autonomy/independence (S10). Satisfaction with personal development (realisation) is conceived here to be associated to the fit between job skills requirements and training (V1) and education (V2), following the assumption that, when that happens, employees will be more likely to achieve personal development through work. Satisfaction with how work is valued by the line manager is considered to be associated to performance-based pay (V8), since this type of compensation will likely be dependent on the approval of the line manager. Satisfaction with the work itself is conceived to be connected to task variety (V14), following the

rationale of routinised jobs being less attractive to employees. Satisfaction with the organisation of work is assumed to be linked to teamworking (V15) and to working from home (V16), given that teamworking is precisely a way in which work can be organised, and working from home necessarily entails the possibility to organise work so it can be done from home. Last, satisfaction with the level of autonomy/independence is hypothesised to be related to having a say on residence geographic relocation (V18) and on job trips (V19), because having the possibility to influence any of these two decisions involves a significant degree of autonomy or independence at work.

Table 2. Correspondence between variables measuring HPWPs and satisfaction variables.

HPWPs variables	Satisfaction with job-related features
Person-job skills match [V1] Useful education [V2]	Personal development (realisation) [S1]
Hours of training [V3] Training within working hours [V4] Useful training [V5]	Training [S2]
Open-ended contract (reversed) [V6]	Job stability [S3]
Pay [V7]	Job income [S4]
Performance-based pay [V8]	How work is valued by line manager [S5]
Social benefits [V10]	Social benefits [S6]
Task variety (reversed) [V14]	Work itself [S7]
Teamwork (reversed) [V15] Telework (reversed) [V16]	Organisation of work [S8]
Random flexitime [V17]	Random flexible hours [S9]
Residence (reversed) [V18] Trips (reversed) [V19]	Level of autonomy/independence [S10]

Note: as a result of the lack of evident direct correspondence of some specific HPWPs with worker satisfaction measures, and vice versa, the following variables have not been included in this table: *share in profits* [V9], *organisational objectives knowledge* [V11], *organisation structure knowledge* [V12], *risk information* [V13], *representation body* [V20], satisfaction with the level of participation in decision making regarding tasks performed [S11], and overall job satisfaction [S12].

Source: own elaboration from the WLQS.

Third, two additional satisfaction variables are considered as connected to the high-performance paradigm overall rather than to a particular HPWP: satisfaction with the level of participation in decision making regarding tasks performed (S11), and overall job satisfaction (S12). Satisfaction with the level of participation in decision making regarding tasks performed may not be matched with any specific variable of those selected in the present study to measure HPWPs, yet it is narrowly connected to HPWPs in general in the sense that they are a modality of HRM that values the idiosyncrasy of individuals and aim to provide workers with the opportunity to contribute to the organisation, for which having a say in the tasks performed is basic. At the same time, it is also connected to job control and to the level of autonomy/independence, which may be assumed to imply a certain level of autonomy regarding tasks performed. As for overall job satisfaction, it is partly nourished by every single HPWP

considered here, but also by any other job-related aspect, as derived from the diverse research work aiming at shedding light on the assorted factors that contribute to and the consequences of job satisfaction (Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza, 2000; Clark, 2005; Muñoz de Bustillo Llorente and Fernández Macías, 2005; Muñoz de Bustillo et al., 2011a; Brown et al., 2012; Carr and Mellizo, 2013; Felstead et al., 2015).

Having discussed each of all 12 satisfaction indicators to be examined, it is necessary to recall that a number of them have been previously studied, as it has been seen in Section 3.4. In this respect, Clark (1997 and 2005), Cabral Vieira (2005) and Dawson et al. (2017) consider both satisfaction with pay and satisfaction with job security, the latter also being addressed by Böckerman et al. (2011). Clark (1997 and 2005) and Dawson et al. (2017) study satisfaction with the actual work itself, with Cabral Vieira (2005) studying satisfaction with the type of work. Clark (2005) also examines satisfaction with independence. Additionally, numerous studies identify many of the job-related features selected here (S1-S11 in Table 2) to positively contribute to overall job satisfaction. Among others, high income and interesting job are found to be important determinants of job satisfaction by Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza (2000), level of income and teamwork by Muñoz de Bustillo Llorente and Fernández Macías (2005), and learning opportunities by Felstead et al. (2015). Finally, overall job satisfaction is addressed in a large body of literature, as it is manifest in all the studies referenced in Section 3.4, such as Clark (1997 and 2005), Cabral Vieira (2005), Böckerman et al. (2011), and Gutiérrez and González Menéndez (2011).

Next, three limitations are pointed out. First, no satisfaction measures are considered that may be directly paired with three of the variables that were selected in Section 5.3.2 to measure HPWPs, namely *profit sharing*, *information sharing* and *voice*. The reason for this is that the WLQS does not include any related explicit items.

Second, some of the job-related satisfaction measures overlap, in the same way that some variables indicative of HPWPs are interrelated, as it is discussed in Section 5.3.2. In this respect, *telework*, *relocation* and *trips* serve as examples. Besides *telework* affecting the satisfaction that individuals report regarding the organisation of work, it may also contribute to their satisfaction with the level of autonomy/independence. As for *relocation* and *trips*, the possibility to participate in the decision making regarding these two matters may influence the satisfaction with the level of autonomy/independence, as well as that derived from the level of personal development (realisation).

Third, some satisfaction variables are measuring additional job dimensions besides those considered here. In this respect, satisfaction with the work itself is not only measuring satisfaction with task discretion, but also with the very nature of the work, among other things. Also, satisfaction with how work is valued by the line manager does not only measure satisfaction with performance-based pay, but also the satisfaction derived from non-monetary rewards that may be dependent on the assessment of the line manager. Satisfaction with personal development (realisation) may serve as another example, since it is not only measuring the match between the training and education of individuals with those required by the job, but also to which extent the job may contribute to more general life expectations, as well as the opportunity that it entails in terms of providing employees the opportunity to contribute to the organisation.

Despite these limitations of the research design when it comes to measuring satisfaction with diverse job features that are connected to HPWPs, the importance of the present study cannot be denied. In this respect, it must be stressed the fact that this research represents a valuable attempt to shed light on worker perception of HPWPs (Elorza et al., 2011; Brewster et al., 2013; Jiang et al., 2017) or on the "workers' verdict", following the terminology used by Guest (1999) and Glover et al. (2014). And not only because the data used to map a large number of this type of HRM practices relies on worker responses, but also as a consequence of these employees reporting their level of satisfaction with as many as 11 different job features, in addition to expressing their own overall job satisfaction.

5.4 Type of analysis

Two main types of statistical analyses, namely descriptive and inferential, will be performed in order to accomplish the different objectives that have been proposed in this research. The objectives stated in Section 2.5 propose (1) to assess the coverage in terms of private sector employees in Spain of individual HPWPs, (2) to evaluate worker satisfaction with a wide range of job features in relation to HRM practices and (3) to describe the evolution on both HPWPs coverage and worker satisfaction along the period 2006-2010. Descriptive analyses will be used to answer the research questions that were formulated to address these objectives. They are presented in Chapter 6.

The objectives stated in Sections 3.3.5 and 4.4 propose, respectively, (1) to assess the direct effects of individual HPWPs on job stability and (2) to evaluate the moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between job stability-fostering HPWPs and overall job satisfaction.

Inferential analyses will be used to test the hypotheses proposed to address these objectives. They are presented in Chapters 7 and 8.

5.4.1 Descriptive analysis

First, frequencies will be calculated for the 20 variables selected in Section 5.3.2 that measure HPWPs, drawing on the seven broad HRM areas mentioned in Section 2.6 – namely selection and recruitment; training; job security provision; rewards; information sharing; job enrichment; and employee voice. Second, average values will be estimated for the 12 variables measuring worker satisfaction, including overall job satisfaction, selected in Section 5.3.1.1. Thus, results will show both the coverage of individual HPWPs at the employee level and worker satisfaction in the private sector in Spain. Also, a complementary approach will be adopted to see the evolution of HPWPs and satisfaction among employees in the Spanish private sector. Descriptive analyses will be performed separately for every yearly wave of the WLQS in the five-year period considered (2006-2010).

To identify trends in HPWPs coverage and worker satisfaction, given that the comparison between results from two consecutive years does not allow for identifying trends, only those for the first (2006) and the last (2010) years considered will be explicitly discussed and compared. Results for the three years in between (2007-2009) will be used to support the existence of trends and, therefore, included in the output tables. The year 2006 will be taken as the year of reference, meaning that it will be used to map the coverage of HPWPs and the satisfaction of individuals with a wide range of job features. By doing this, results will not be blurred by the effects of the crisis, for 2006 is the last year before the economic retrenchment in Spain.

5.4.2 Inferential analysis

The analyses to test the hypotheses proposed in this research will rely on multivariate regression techniques. Different procedures will be followed to identify which are the individual HPWPs that positively contribute to job stability and to assess the role that social exchange plays in the relationship between HPWPs and overall job satisfaction. Based on the inherent particularities of each one of the two analysis, these are discussed separately in the two subsections that follow.

5.4.2.1 Direct effects on job stability

In order to estimate the direct effects of individual HPWPs on employee perception of job stability (hypotheses H1 and H2) and turnover intentions (hypotheses H3 and H4), a six-step analysis will be carried out.

First, Pearson´s chi-square (Fienberg, 1980) statistics will be estimated in order to test the level of significance of the associations between each dependent variable, namely *perceived job stability* and *turnover intentions*, and the 20 variables measuring HPWPs that were selected in Section 5.3.2.

Second, the strength of the associations that are determined to be statistically significant will be complementarily measured via the estimation of Goodman and Kruskal's gamma (Agresti, 2010) and Cramér's V (Fienberg, 1980) coefficients. If both variables are ordinal, Goodman and Kruskal's gamma coefficient is used. It ranges from -1 to 1, measuring both the strength and the sign of the relationship. If at least one of the two variables is categorical, Cramér's V is used. It usually ranges from 0 (null association) to 1 (full association), thus informing about the strength of the relationship but not about its sign. When the association is being examined for two binary variables, it ranges from -1 (full negative association) to 1 (full positive association); in this particular case it is thus possible to determine the sign of the association between the binary dependent variable *turnover intentions* and those explanatory variables that are dichotomous, namely *person-job skills match*, *open-ended contract*, *performance-based pay*, *share in profits*, *teamwork*, *relocation*, and *trips*. Given that the variable *open-ended contract* is used here to measure the HPWP job security provision, the Cramér's V coefficient for *turnover intentions* and *open-ended contract* will allow for knowing both the strength and the sign of the association.

Third, multivariate analysis techniques will be performed by means of logistic regressions (Greene, 2012), in order to identify the determinants of employee perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions. Being *turnover intentions* a binary variable, a logit model will be used to estimate the direct effects of the main variables of interest, i.e. the 20 variables measuring HPWPS, on the intention to leave the job. As it was seen in Section 5.3.1.2, *perceived job stability* is an ordinal variable comprising four categories. Thereby, an ordered logit model will be used in this case to estimate the associations between the same 20 variables and the category of the dependent variable that designates the greatest degree of self-perceived job stability (very high). Both types of regression models – logit and ordered logit – are estimated with standard errors clustered by activity sector, in order to account for intra-group correlations, similar to Dawson et al. (2017).

Fourth, post-estimation techniques will be employed in order to estimate the magnitude of the effects. Marginal effects (Greene, 2012) will be computed for the ordered dependent variable, i.e. *perceived job stability*, and odds ratios (Greene, 2012) will be estimated for the binary dependent variable, i.e. *turnover intentions*. Both coefficients measure the change – increase or

decrease – in the probability of the event happening (the intention to leave the job or the perception or job stability being very high) for any given category of the dependent variable, with respect to the category of reference of such variable.

Consequently, results will assist in (1) evaluating which independent variables are significantly associated to the two dependent variables, (2) knowing whether the association is positive or negative, and (3) quantifying the relevance of the association from an HRM perspective. In other words, by performing these analyses, it will be possible to assess to which extent HPWPs – particularly job security provision – have a positive effect on employee perception of job stability and a negative impact on voluntary turnover intentions – and thus a positive one on staff retention –, therefore allowing to test the hypotheses proposed in Section 3.3.5.

Fifth, sequential specifications of the model will be estimated so as to clearly detach which part of the effect on both dependent variables is attributable to HPWPs and which is attributable to other factors, these being measured via the control variables. In this manner, four differentiated sets of control variables will be gradually included in the model, before finally incorporating the main variables of interest that measure HPWPs. Exclusively socio-economic variables are considered in the first specification of the model (control 1). In the second one, membership of professional associations and unionisation are accounted for (control 2). In the third, job characteristics are added (control 3). The fourth specification includes organisational characteristics (control 4). The fifth and last specification of the model incorporates the selected variables measuring HPWPs.

Sixth, a sensitivity analysis will be carried out in order to evaluate to which extent the duration of the employment relationship throws substantial differences in terms of the associations between HPWPs and both dependent variables. Therefore, separate analyses will be performed for workers who are on an open-ended contract and those who are on a temporary contract, since job security provision, the main HPWP of interest, is measured via the variable *open-ended contract*.

Also, as it was advanced in Section 3.3.5, it is required to establish a rule of thumb that allows for determining if the statistical results support or reject hypotheses H1 and H3. Given that twenty variables from the WLQS questionnaire have been selected to measure HPWPs that are representative of the seven broad HRM areas that are considered in this study, which in turn cover the three components that integrate the AMO model, it is decided that hypotheses are subject to be supported even if not all twenty variables show significant effects. Yet, it is resolved that two conditions must be necessarily met to conclude that HPWPs positively contribute to

job stability: first, that the three components of the AMO model are present in the set of variables that result to have significant effects and, second, that a clear majority of the seven broad HRM policies selected are signified by said set of variables. In this respect, a minimum of five policies is set as the threshold that must be reached in order to interpret that such majority is reached, thus allowing for not rejecting the hypotheses. This effectively implies that, at least, two thirds of the total number of HRM policies considered must be covered by the variables measuring HPWPs that result to have significant direct effects on the two dependent variables.

Finally, it must be noted that, whereas the cross-sectional data and the statistical methods to be used do not allow for establishing causality from a statistical viewpoint, the nature of the dependent variables (*perceived job stability* and *turnover intentions*) do encourage to infer the direction of the relationship. In this respect, should statistically significant relationships be identified, it will be assumed that employee perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions are affected by the presence of HPWPs. Complementarily, whether or not employees are covered by HPWPs does not depend on whether or not individuals perceive the highest degree of job stability or report to be looking for another job.

5.4.2.2 Moderation test

Most quantitative research addressing the moderating role of some factor in the relationship between HRM practices and employee outcomes focuses on testing the statistical significance of the effect that the interaction between the variables measuring HRM and the moderator has on the employee outcome. This means that results are limited to the identification of whether or not there is a moderating effect, as well as the sign of such effect. However, neither the magnitude of the effect is quantified, nor the variances in such magnitude for different values of the moderating variable. This study means to make a contribution in this respect.

Similar to the type of analysis just proposed to test the direct effects of variables measuring HPWPs on *perceived job stability* and *turnover intentions*, the moderating effect of social exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and overall job satisfaction (hypothesis H5) will be assessed based on logit regression models. Given that *job satisfaction* is an ordered variable, ordered logit models will be used. In addition, equivalent analyses where the dependent variables are *perceived job stability* and *turnover intentions* will be performed, in order to test hypotheses H6 and H7, respectively. Again, given that sectors of activity are not homogeneous, both logit and ordered logit regressions are estimated with standard errors clustered by activity sector to account for intra-group correlations (Dawson et al., 2017).

Also, post-estimation techniques will be carried out. Marginal effects will be computed in the cases of *job satisfaction* and *perceived job stability* – ordered variables –, and odds ratios will be estimated in the case of *turnover intentions* – binary variable.

In order to analyse to which extent the effect of individual HPWPs on the three employee outcomes considered is moderated by social exchange, each one of the nine dichotomous variables measuring HPWPs is interacted with the moderator.

By interacting the moderating variable – accounting for three different settings in terms of the quality of management-staff relationships and the level of trust in superiors – with each one of the eight dichotomous main variables of interest, i.e. HPWPs, six possible scenarios are discerned. First, absence or low presence of the particular HPWP and poor social exchange, which will be used as the category of reference when estimating the marginal effects and odds ratios; second, absence or low presence of the particular HPWP and midrange social exchange; third, absence or low presence of the particular HPWP and rich social exchange; fourth, (high) presence of the particular HPWP and poor social exchange; fifth, (high) presence of the particular HPWP and midrange social exchange; and sixth, (high) presence of the particular HPWP and rich social exchange.

Given that the objective of this set of analyses is to assess the moderating role of social exchange in the association between those particular practices that positively contribute to job stability and overall job satisfaction, the analyses will focus on the last three scenarios. Results will show the differences in the explanatory power of each and every one of the nine job stability-fostering HPWPs on the three employee outcomes when social exchange is poor, midrange and rich, always with respect to the category of reference, i.e. the one which denotes absence/low intensity of the HPWP and poor social exchange. In other words, results will show the changes in the probability of employees reporting positive attitudes and behaviour when they are covered by any given HPWP of those included in the analysis, with respect to the mentioned category of reference, and also taking into consideration the level of social exchange in the workplace, i.e. accounting for its moderating role. Subsequently, results will go beyond those in Alfes et al. (2012) and Innocenti et al. (2011), where it is tested whether or not social exchange exerts a moderating effect, as well as the sign, without quantifying such effect.

In order to test the hypotheses, each one of the three dependent variables – *job satisfaction*, *perceived job stability*, and *turnover intentions* – will be regressed on each and every one of the variables generated via the interaction of each individual dichotomous HPWP and the intensity of social exchange, in addition to the control variables. As it has been mentioned, regressions

will be approached by using logistic models and, given that there are three dependent variables and 10 variables measuring individual HPWPs, 30 logistic regression models will be estimated.

As it has been already mentioned, the category of reference is the value of the interaction term that indicates the absence or low presence of the specific HPWP and poor social exchange, i.e. perception of both poor management-staff relationships and low trust in superiors. Consequently, the estimated marginal effects and odds ratios inform on the increase or decrease in the probability of perceiving very high job stability, reporting very high levels of job satisfaction, or being looking for another job, with respect to the category of reference (absence or low intensity of HPWP and poor social exchange, in turn meaning poor relationships and low trust). Given that all interaction terms between dichotomous independent variables and the three-value moderator have the same six categories, this will make the interpretation of results simpler and, to a certain extent, comparable.

As it was discussed in the previous section, odds ratios will be calculated for the intention to leave the job in the case of the binary dependent variable measuring voluntary turnover intentions. Thus, ratios lower than 1 are desired, for it means that there is a decrease in the probability of intending to leave the job. The marginal effects of the ordered dependent variables containing four categories will be estimated for the fourth category, i.e. perception of very high job stability and very high job satisfaction, for they represent the best possible outcomes regarding these two worker attitudes.

Also, a rule of thumb that allows for verifying if the statistical results support or reject hypotheses H5-H7 must be established, as it was stated in Section 4.4.2. Unlike the analyses proposed to test hypotheses H1-H4, it is unknown in advance how many *and* which of the twenty original variables measuring HPWPs will be considered in this set of analyses, given that only those that show significant positive effects on *perceived job stability* (H1) and *turnover intentions* (H3) are to be included in the models. Consequently, the rule of thumb to be adopted cannot be based on whether or not the set of variables that show significant effects meets some criteria with regard to the seven broad HRM policies and the three components of the AMO model. Thus, it is decided that a clear majority of the variables must have significant effects on the dependent variables. In particular, it is set a threshold of 75% of the total number of variables measuring job stability-fostering HPWPs, i.e. three fourths, for considering that results support hypotheses H5-H7. This effectively means that if the number of variables that are found to foster job stability is below 4, the hypotheses will only be supported as long as all of them have significant effects.

Finally, it must be stressed that results will be representative of the overall private sector in Spain, given that the data used is drawn from a representative sample of the whole employed population. Thus, since the majority of studies on HPWPs in Spain are restricted to specific industries or types of organisations in terms of characteristics such as size, strategy or technology, it constitutes an important contribution of this piece of research.

CHAPTER VI

DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS

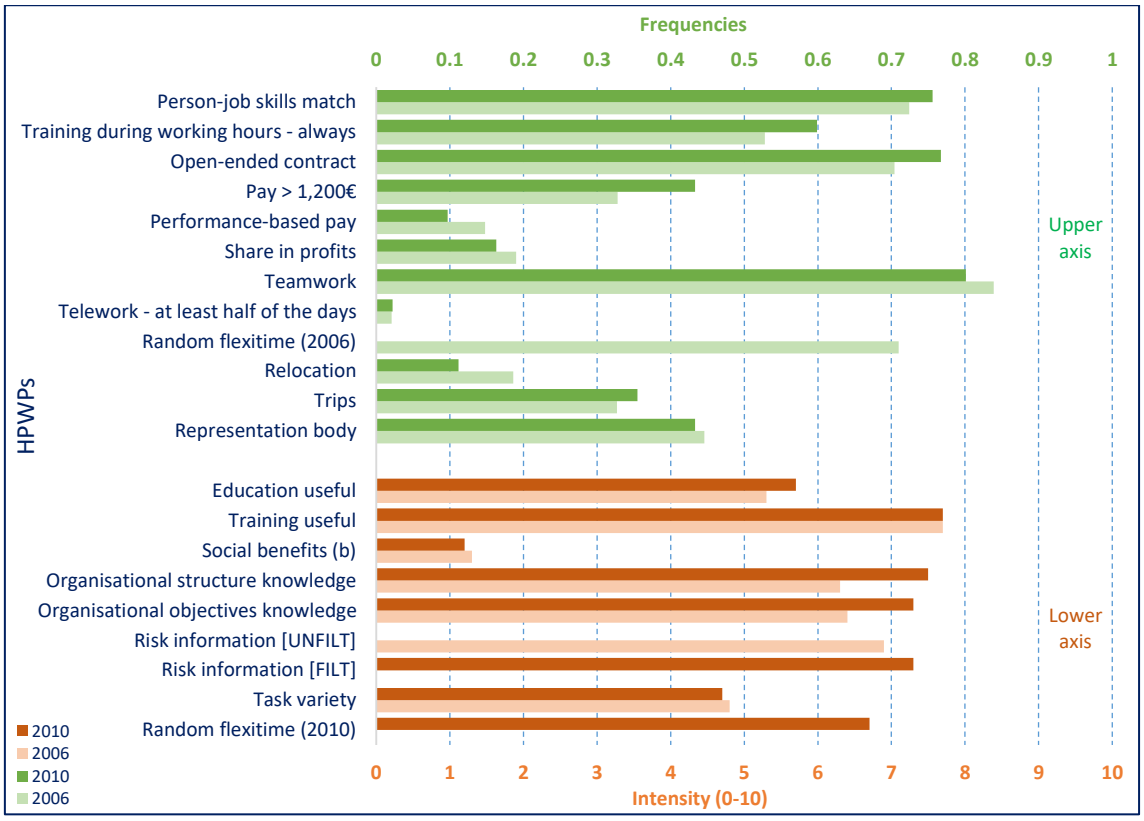
6 DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS

This chapter presents the descriptive results in relation to the coverage of HPWPs in terms of private sector employees in Spain, the average satisfaction with several job features, employee perception of job stability, voluntary turnover intentions and social exchange in the workplace.

6.1 HPWPs

As it can be seen in Graph 1, the picture for 2006 of HPWPs in the private sector in Spain shows that a large share of employees (72%) report a good fit between the skills they possess and those required by the job. However, they do not assess their academic education to be highly useful for the job, reaching only 5.3 out of 10 on average. Subsequently, selection and recruitment practices might be improved by trying to get a better fit between the academic education and the requirements of the job, something that would assist tackling the underemployment problematic in Spain.

Graph 1. HPWPs: frequencies / intensity (2006, 2010) [(a)].



[(a)] For more information on the variables – median, standard deviation, mode, years 2007-2009 – see Table A. 4.
[(b)] For a more detailed description of this variable, see Table A. 3.
Source: own elaboration from WLQS.

With regards to training provided by the organisation, individuals report to have participated in such activities 13 hours on average during the last 12 months. Of those who have actually participated in training activities, the assessment of such actions is positive, reaching an average of 7.7 out of 10, and slightly above half of them indicate to have done so during working hours.

As for job security provision, 70% of employees are on an open-ended contract of employment. However, compensation practices display some deficiencies, starting from net monthly pay being in the low range, with the vast majority of workers (67%) earning below 1,200€, including performance based pay and share in profits (15% and 19%, respectively). Additionally, the average amount of social benefits that individuals report being entitled to, out of a total of 10, is 1.3. Data included in Table A. 3 shows that transport assistance is the only social benefit that is fairly widespread among private sector employees in Spain (29%) and kindergarten assistance is the one which is most uncommon (5%). Further, results regarding housing assistance (6.3%) are significantly different to those found by Cabral Vieira (2005) for Portugal (3.2%).

With respect to information sharing, workers report fairly high degrees of knowledge regarding the objectives of the organisation (6.4 out of 10) and its hierarchical structure (6.3 out of 10). Further, when it comes specifically to the frequency with which organisations provide information to prevent risks at work, hence constituting a practice to enhance the opportunity to contribute in a healthy and safe manner, it practically reaches 7 out of 10.

Focusing now on the level of participation in decision making, results show that teamwork is widely widespread (83.9% of employees), but as many as 93.4% of respondents never work from home. However, high as this figure is, it must be noted that there are many occupations that must necessarily be done in a location other than the personal home. May shop assistants, factory workers, drivers, or school teachers serve as examples. Meanwhile, as many as 71% of employees report to be able to leave or stay away from work to attend personal sporadic issues. While this high figure might seem to contradict Jódar and Alós (2008), who find that only slightly above 10% employees enjoy flexible hours drawing on older waves of the same dataset, the reason for this huge difference is that these authors are measuring flexible hours, as opposed to assessing a very specific type of flexibility in terms of leaving the job *to attend personal sporadic issuses*, as it is done in the present study. Next, 19% of respondents may influence the decision of relocating their personal residence for work reasons and 33% have a say with regard to taking job trips. It must be taken into account that, even though these last two percentages are not especially high in quantitative terms, they are rather illustrative from the perspective of the capability of individuals to influence important decisions in terms of their job, as it was already

highlighted in Section 5.3.2.1. Last, if results obtained from the five indicators of decentralisation of decision making are considered globally, the findings here partially support that private sector employees in Spain enjoy a certain degree of independence in the job, yet somehow low, thus complementing Jódar and Alós (2008) and in line with both Eurofound (2013) and Gallie and Zhou (2013).

As for collective voice in the workplace, 45% of individuals report being aware of the existence of staff delegates, works councils or similar representation bodies. Finally, the degree of variety on the tasks performed is fairly low, reaching on average only 4.8 out of ten. This result is lower than the value of nearly 6 – also on a scale ranging from 0 to 10 – shown in Eurofound (2013).

Therefore, and according to the results, the answer to the first research question is that teamwork, skills utilisation, flexitime and job security provision are the individual HPWPs that cover largest shares of employees in the private sector in Spain, all of them reaching over 70% of individuals. Conversely, telework, high pay, performance-based pay, residence relocation and share in profits are the HPWPs that affect Spanish private sector workers to a lesser extent. These results are mostly in line with Pruneda (2015) and, to a certain extent, with Jódar and Alós (2008) regarding the limited degree of autonomy, and with Gutiérrez and González Menéndez (2011) in terms of poor pay. As for training, given that the average of 13.1 hours per year is significantly below the length of two full-time working days, it might be agreed that it is not really a highly widespread HPWP, again supporting Pruneda (2015) and Gutiérrez and González Menéndez (2011), and contradicting Marín-García and Conci (2009), who identify training as the second most frequent HPWP – out of a total of seven – in Spain. However, it needs to be noted that not only the study by Marín-García and Conci (2009) centres exclusively in the Valencian Community, but they also distributed their questionnaire to sheltered employment centres alone, which are very specific workplaces. Nevertheless, it must be highlighted that those who have participated in these kind of activities provided by the organisation report their training to be useful.

6.1.1 Evolution of HPWPs: 2006-2010

Results for the years 2007-2010 do not differ greatly from those already seen for 2006, as it can be seen in Table 3. Nevertheless, by comparing 2010 against 2006, it is possible to identify some changes that may be clearly considered as indicative of variations in the way that workers are being managed after the beginning of the economic downturn. Over the period 2006-2010, 1.87 million jobs were destroyed in Spain and the unemployment rate rose from 8.5% to 19.8%, according to the Spanish LFS. The negative impact of the economic retrenchment affected

primarily private sector employees, especially those low skilled individuals that held poor quality jobs.

Table 3. HPWPs: frequencies, by year [(a)].

Variable	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Person-job skills match	.724	.755	.743	.751	.756
Useful education	5.3	5.5	5.3	5.7	5.7
Hours of training, last 12 months	13.1	13.0	13.6	16.2	15.8
Training during working hours - never, last 12 months	.262	.240	.216	.194	.201
Training during working hours - sometimes, last 12 months	.210	.174	.187	.230	.200
Training during working hours - always, last 12 months	.528	.586	.597	.576	.599
Useful training	7.7	7.6	7.7	7.8	7.7
Open-ended contract	.704	.704	.765	.777	.767
Pay - <600€	.125	.092	.075	.086	.091
Pay - 600-1,200€	.548	.561	.517	.513	.476
Pay - 1,201-2,100€	.267	.276	.338	.327	.361
Pay - 2,101-3,000€	.046	.052	.051	.053	.052
Pay - >3,000 €	.015	.019	.019	.021	.020
Performance-based pay	.148	.131	.107	.074	.097
Share in profits	.190	.167	.199	.174	.163
Social benefits [(b)]	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.2
Organisational structure knowledge	6.3	6.5	7.3	7.4	7.5
Organisational objectives knowledge	6.4	6.6	7.2	7.4	7.3
Risk information (2006-2007) [UNFILTERED]	6.9	7.3	-	-	-
Risk information (2008-2010) [FILTERED]	-	-	7.5	7.8	7.3
Task variety	4.8	5.1	5.1	4.8	4.7
Teamwork	.839	.834	.816	.852	.801
Telework, last 12 weeks - never	.934	.941	.925	.929	.928
Telework, last 12 weeks - occasionally	.044	.043	.051	.053	.049
Telework, last 12 weeks - at least half of the days	.008	.007	.010	.013	.015
Telework, last 12 weeks - always	.013	.010	.013	.006	.007
Random flexitime (2006) - no	.119	-	-	-	-
Random flexitime (2006) - sometimes	.100	-	-	-	-
Random flexitime (2006) - yes	.710	-	-	-	-
Random flexitime (2006) - unknown	.072	-	-	-	-
Random flexitime (2007-2010)	-	7.0	7.5	7.0	6.7
Relocation	.186	.122	.095	.161	.112
Trips	.327	.277	.282	.321	.355
Representation body: no	.408	.369	.406	.431	.413
Representation body: yes	.446	.463	.452	.481	.433
Representation body: unknown	.146	.168	.142	.088	.155

[(a)] For more information on the variables – median, standard deviation, mode – see Table A. 4.

[(b)] For a more detailed description of this variable, see Table A. 3.

Source: own elaboration from WLQS.

These particularities of the Spanish labour market need considering when interpreting the evolution of HPWPs in the private sector at the employee level along the period 2006-2010. First, results from the 2010 wave of the WLQS show that workers report an improvement in terms of the usefulness of the academic education for the job, as well as skills utilisation. Second, the average hours of training increases, and so do both the usefulness of training and the share of individuals who indicate that training always takes place within working hours, and that of those who report that it never does so decreases. Third, the ratio of open-ended contracts of employment grows. Fourth, the proportion of workers who are paid higher salaries rises, thus decreasing those whose pay is in the low range. Meanwhile, the percentages of employees who receive a share of the profit of the organisation and those whose pay has a performance-based component decline, with the average number of social benefits that workers are entitled to

reducing, too. The decreases of these three HPWPs may be assumed to be a consequence of firm performance deteriorating, in turn a result of the economic retrenchment. Fifth, workers report to have a better knowledge of organisational objectives and the hierarchical structure of the organisation. Sixth, the proportion of individuals who work in teams reduces, as does that of those who report to always work from home and who indicate to find it fairly easy to stay away from work to attend sporadic personal issues. Seventh, the percentage of employees who report to have certain capacity to influence decisions on business trips increases, but the share of workers who have a say on having to relocate decreases.

Summing up, results indicate an increase in the share of private sector workers in Spain who are affected by HPWPs, hence supporting Pruneda (2015), as derives from a better person-job fit (selection and recruitment practices in a wide sense), a rise in the quantity and quality of training, a greater proportion of individuals who enjoy job security, of those who enjoy higher economic compensation and those who are more knowledgeable about organisational issues. However, while these changes seem to depict a positive pattern in terms of the level of implementation of HPWPs, a rather different outlook emerges after considering the massive job destruction endured by the Spanish labour market throughout the period studied, as it has been mentioned. In this manner, the improvement displayed by most of the indicators analysed is symptomatic of the greater chances of survival of jobs with certain characteristics. In other words, and answering the second research question regarding the evolution of HPWPs over the period 2006-2010, results do not show the widespread of HPWPs among Spanish employees. Instead, they point towards a greater share of workers being affected by such work management practices as a result of the employment destruction that affected primarily low-quality jobs that were not being managed under the high-performance paradigm, due to the economic crisis. Thus, the present results may be reflecting the ambiguous impact of the crisis on employment, as highlighted by Muñoz de Bustillo et al. (2011b). According to these authors, that worse jobs tend to be destroyed first leads to an apparent improvement of overall working conditions, as a consequence of a composition effect. At the same time, rising unemployment figures might possibly be contributing to weaken the relative position of employees towards employers, thus compelling them to accept worse working and employment conditions.

Additionally, it must be pointed out that decentralisation of decision making seems to diminish among private sector employees in Spain. Subsequently, even though a number of HPWPs, namely skills utilisation, training, job security provision, monetary rewards and information sharing stand out to a greater extent in 2010 when compared to 2006 as a result of the destruction of jobs characterised by the lack of such work management practices, the level of

autonomy that individuals enjoy regarding certain job aspects three years into the economic downturn is lower when compared to 2006. This extent contradicts Eurofound (2013) and Gallie and Zhou (2013), who show changes in organisational participation in the opposite direction, yet it may be a consequence of the different variables used in each study. In this respect, the possibility to work from home and to leave/stay away from work to attend sporadic personal issues have been chosen to measure job flexibility in the present study, and the capacity to influence decisions regarding residence relocation and job trips are the indicators that have been selected here to measure decision making in this research – see Section 5.3.2.1. However, Eurofound (2013) measures worker participation over work organisation through an index built from the frequency of involvement in improving the work organisation or work process of the organisation and the frequency regarding the capability to influence decisions that are important for one's own work. As for Gallie and Zhou (2013), they address job control by building an index integrated by the extent to which employees are allowed by managers to decide how their daily work is organised, to influence policy decisions about the activities of the organisation, and to choose or change their pace of work. In sum, all three studies are ultimately addressing and trying to measure employee involvement in organisational decision making, their participation over work organisation, yet different variables are used in each of them, which has to do with different datasets being employed as the source of information: the present research uses the WLQS, while Eurofound (2013) uses the European Working Conditions Survey and Gallie and Zhou (2013) use the European Social Survey.

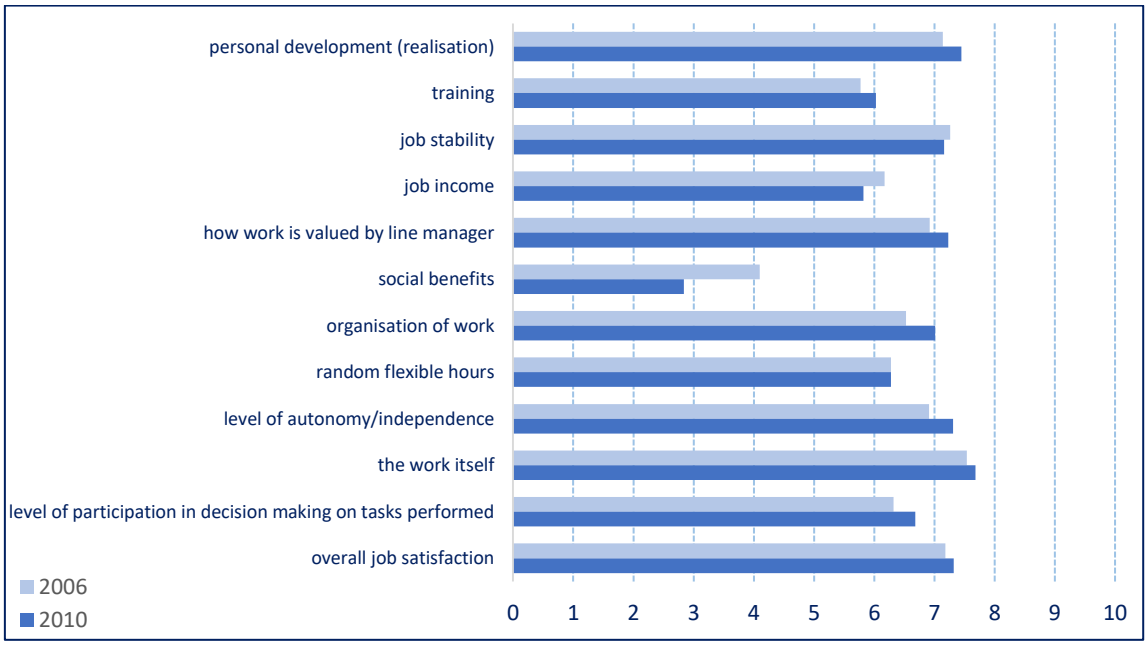
6.2 Worker satisfaction

In addition to mapping the usage of HPWPs among private sector employees in Spain, worker satisfaction levels with different job features are also examined in this study, in accordance to the third research question. Therefore, the main results in terms of worker satisfaction are stated below and, similarly to what has been done with respect to HPWPs, 2006 will be taken again as the year of reference so as to avoid potential contamination as a consequence of the possible impact of the crisis, as well as in order to enable for a comparative analysis. It must be recalled that all satisfaction questions are answered based on an 11-point Likert scale, ranging from 0 (null satisfaction) to 10 (very high satisfaction).

As Graph 2 shows, the job-related aspect that individuals report the highest level of satisfaction with in 2006 is the work itself (7.54), followed by job stability, overall job satisfaction and personal development (7.14). These results are in line with both Clark (2005), who identifies job security and job interest to be the top two most important job aspects, and Sousa-Poza and

Souza-Poza (2000), who identify having an interesting job to be the most significant determinant of job satisfaction. While the average reported level of overall job satisfaction (7.18) may be regarded as a positive result, it must be recalled that, as discussed in Section 3.4.4, Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza (2000) find this indicator to be remarkably high in their study of 21 countries from four different continents, where Spain ranks fifth, and Muñoz de Bustillo Llorente and Fernández Macías (2005) conclude that there are no major significant differences in the variability of job satisfaction across the 24 countries that they examine. Meanwhile, private sector employees in Spain report to be most dissatisfied with social benefits (4.10) and training (5.77). Subsequently, these results provide an answer to the third research question, as to which are the job-related aspects that private sector employees in Spain report the highest and lowest levels of satisfaction with.

Graph 2. Average degree of satisfaction (0-10) with diverse job-related features (2006-2010) [(a)].



[(a)] For more information on the variables – median, standard deviation, mode – see Table A. 7.

Source: own elaboration from WLQS.

For the remaining job aspects considered, satisfaction levels do not differ greatly, ranging between 6 and 7. These results may be interpreted as individuals being fairly satisfied in their jobs or, at least, rather content. However, considering previous evidence on the usually relatively high levels of self-reported job satisfaction (Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza, 2000), the findings presented here may be interpreted as to being the consequence of employees having levelled their expectations to their actual working conditions, as suggested by Judge and Watanabe (1993). Essentially, what these authors propose is that job satisfaction is a function of the balance between work-role inputs and work-role outputs.

The high level of satisfaction with the work itself, in line with Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza (2000), might somehow be seen as a success of recruitment and selection practices from the employee viewpoint, while satisfaction with job stability may be connected to the significantly higher rate of individuals who are on an open-ended contract of employment (7 out of 10), when compared to those who are on a temporary contract.

6.2.1 Evolution of worker satisfaction: 2006-2010

Based on data included in Graph 2, it can be derived that there are no huge differences among satisfaction levels with different job-related aspects – with the exception of social benefits, as it will be discussed below –, the range being between 5 and 8, roughly. Subsequently, a possible starting point might be to differentiate between those work aspects that display levels of satisfaction above 7 throughout the 5-year period from those that show satisfaction levels below 6 (for more details, see Table A. 7). The former are the work itself (7.54 – 7.68), personal development, overall job satisfaction and job stability (7.12 – 7.26), while the latter are social benefits (2.51 – 4.10) and training (5.19 – 6.03). Even though the average level of satisfaction with training marginally exceeds 6 in 2010, this may be a consequence of the composition effect pointed out by Muñoz de Bustillo et al. (2011a) that was referred to in 6.1.1. In other words, by considering that the rise in average hours of training over the period considered may be a result of the greater destruction of jobs associated to lower training time, the increase in the satisfaction with training (16.2%) may be construed as a sign of a positive association between the duration of training and the level of satisfaction attached to it, as found by Felstead et al. (2015) for the UK. Nonetheless, it is only sensible to keep in mind that, after all, it is still the job aspect – out of the 12 considered – that respondents report the second to last average level of satisfaction with.

Additionally, Graph 2 also informs about the trends followed by satisfaction levels with job-related aspects. One can observe that the number of satisfaction indicators that display a score above 7 raises from five in 2006 to seven in 2010, out of a total of 12. In this sense, most trends show either slight or moderate increases. Among these, the degree of satisfaction with the organisation of work may be particularly highlighted since it rises to 7.01 in 2010 from 6.53 in 2006, especially if it is taken into account that job autonomy displayed a decrease over the same period, as seen in the section devoted to the evolution of HPWPs. On the contrary, only three job-related aspects display a decreasing trend in terms of satisfaction, namely social benefits, job income and stability. Furthermore, not only social benefits bears the lowest level of satisfaction, but this is precisely the aspect of work that displays the greatest fall in employee

self-reported satisfaction over the 5-year period, dropping 1.26 points from 4.10 in 2006 to 2.84 in 2010, thus representing a staggering 30.6%. The decline in the degree of satisfaction with social benefits is followed by that with job income, which saw a steady decrease from 2006 (6.17) through to 2010 (5.82).

Therefore, it may be worthwhile highlighting that, while private sector employees in Spain report being highly satisfied with the work itself, as well as high overall job satisfaction, they are clearly dissatisfied with social benefits and somehow dissatisfied with job income. Additionally, not only social benefits is the job-related aspect with which employees report the lowest level of satisfaction with, but such dissatisfaction displays the greatest decline both in absolute and relative terms over the five-year period. In connection to this, although Graph 1 informs that the average amount of social benefits that workers are entitled to, out of a total of 10 considered, declines only marginally from 1.3 in 2006 to 1.2 in 2010, more detailed data in Table A. 3 indicates that the significant fall in terms of satisfaction might be a consequence of an increase in the share of individuals who are not entitled to social benefits at all whatsoever. In connection to this, Table A. 3 shows that the greatest absolute increases in the period considered are those relating to all 10 categories representative of the absence of each social benefit, while the greatest relative decreases are those related to all 10 categories representing that it is unknown whether or not the individual is entitled to the specific social benefit.

Following these results, an answer can be offered to the fourth research question with regard to the evolution of worker satisfaction over the period 2006-2010. In this respect, only three of the 12 satisfaction indicators examined, namely those on job stability, job income and social benefits display a declining trend. The increase in average satisfaction with most job-related aspects may also be construed as a consequence of the composition effect mentioned.

6.3 Perception of job stability, voluntary turnover intentions and social exchange

This section discusses the descriptive results of the two dependent variables that are used to identify the individual HPWPs that foster job stability, namely *perceived job stability* and *turnover intentions*. Also, it includes the basic descriptive statistics for the moderating variable, i.e. *social exchange*.

6.3.1 Employee perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions

As it can be seen in Table 4, those who report to be looking for a new job represent 15.5% in 2006, 14.6% in 2007, 16.2% in 2008, 15.1% in 2009, and 12.6% in 2010. The decline in the last two years might be attributable to the massive job destruction in the economic crisis hindering the possibility of finding a new job. Given that it especially affected low quality jobs, individuals who remained employed then would have had less reasons to be searching for a new job. As for *perceived job stability*, Table 4 shows that 10.9% of private sector workers in Spain report to have low or no job stability in 2010, with 8.1% declaring to have low stability and 2.8% null stability. The frequencies for the different categories of *perceived job stability* change radically if only those who report to be looking for a job, thus indicating the intention to leave the organisation, are considered, as it may be expected. In this respect, employees who believe that keeping their job for six more months is not likely at all increase to 15.0%; those who think it unlikely increase to 21.3%; the proportion of those who perceive it rather likely (25.0%) does not change much; and the ones who report it very likely drop to 38.6%. The pattern that these results show is one of a larger share of workers looking for a job the greater their perception of job instability.

Table 4. Employee perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions (frequencies).

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Perceived job stability: null					.028
Perceived job stability: low					.081
Perceived job stability: high					.263
Perceived job stability: very high					.628
Turnover intentions (TI)	.155	.146	.162	.151	.126
TI if Perceived job stability: null					.150
TI if Perceived job stability: low					.213
TI if Perceived job stability: high					.250
TI if Perceived job stability: very high					.386

Source: own elaboration from WLQS.

The rate of private sector employees in Spain who perceive to have low or no job stability (10.9%) is very similar to that reported by Erlinghagen (2007) of 11.3%. Yet, it can be argued that the prevalence of job insecurity in Spain differs across the pieces of research reviewed in Section 3.3.3, ranging from 11.3% (Erlinghagen, 2007) to 46% (Muñoz de Bustillo and De Pedraza, 2010), with László et al. (2010) and Clark and Postel-Vinay (2009) reporting it to be 14.2% and 16%, respectively. Two main reasons may explain these differences: measurement and sample selection.

First, in terms of measurement, a variety of indicators based on questions that approach the phenomenon of job (in)security from different perspectives are used, with some of the authors adopting a more conservative approach than others when choosing what to consider to be job (in)security. As pointed out by Muñoz de Bustillo and De Pedraza (2010:6), "small differences in the presentation of questions can lead to significant changes in outcome". In this respect, Silla et al. (2005) use a scale comprising four items (e.g. 'I feel insecure with the future of my job'). From the four possible options to the statement 'My job is secure', Eirlenhagen (2007) chooses the response 'not at all true'. Luna Arocas and Camps (2008), who study job stability, use a five-point Likert-type scale composed of two items ('If I do a good job the company won't fire me' and 'Compared with my company other companies fire workers more readily in times of difficulty'). Clark and Postel-Vinay (2009) approach job security through a six-point Likert type question regarding the satisfaction with job security ('How satisfied are you with your present job or business in terms of job security?'). From the four-point Likert scale statement 'My job security is poor', László et al. (2010) regard the responses 'strongly agree' and 'agree' as indicative of job insecurity. Muñoz de Bustillo and De Pedraza (2010) build a subjective job insecurity index consisting on the share of individuals who either agree or fully agree with the statement 'I worry about my job security'. Last, Silla et al. (2010) use a five-point Likert-scale made of four items (e.g. 'I think I might lose my job in the near future', 'I am sure I can keep my job').

Second, with respect to sample selection, different profiles of workers in terms of age, gender, occupational group and industry are focused on. Silla et al. (2005) base their study on a sample of 383 workers, mainly composed of doctors, nurses, assistant nurses, sales persons, secretaries, and accountants. This restriction in terms of occupations may be the reason why the sample is gender-biased, with 73% of women accounting for 72% of permanent employees. Using data from Round 2 of the European Social Survey, Erlinghagen (2008) restricts his dataset to dependent workers aged 20-67 years who did answer the question regarding self-perceived job insecurity. Luna Arocas and Camps (2008) use a sample of 198 employees who work in the Spanish province of Valencia. Clark and Postel-Vinay (2009) focus exclusively on men aged 20-55 years. The sample used by László et al. (2010) considers workers aged 45-70 years. In the case of Muñoz de Bustillo and De Pedraza (2010), the authors themselves warn about how the survey they use – WageIndicator, voluntary and web-based – is systematically biased for various reasons, such as self-interest and Internet access. Finally, Silla et al. (2010) use a sample of 697 employees from a single organisation pertaining to the public sector.

In sum, following the peculiarities of every study that has just been discussed, it can be concluded that samples are not representative of the employed population at the national level, thus not allowing for the generalisation of results regarding job (in)security in Spain. Consequently, due to the great importance that job stability has for worker well-being, it is deemed essential to further analyse this phenomenon guaranteeing representativeness at the national level, which is done in Chapter 7 using data from the QLWS.

6.3.2 Social exchange in the workplace

Finally, some striking results have been found with respect to the variable measuring social exchange in the workplace in the private sector in Spain (see Table 5). First, only 20% of employees report their workplace to be characterised by a rich social exchange environment. Second, as many as 58% claim to find themselves in the opposite situation, i.e. working in an organisation where relationships between management and staff are either bad or poor and professing either null or low trust in their immediate superiors. This means that the quality of employment relations in the workplace is poor for most private sector ermployees in Spain.

Table 5. Level of social exchange (moderator): basic descriptive statistics.

				Quantiles				
	Freq.	Percent	Cum.	Min	0.25	Mdn	0.75	Max
Poor	2,705	58.01	58.01	1	1	1	2	3
Midrange	1,042	22.35	80.36					
Rich	916	19.64	100.00					
Total	4,663	100.00						

Source: own elaboration from WLQS 2010.

6.4 Summary of results

This chapter was dedicated to present the descriptive results in relation to HPWPs coverage, worker satisfaction, employee perception of job stability, voluntary turnover intentions, and social exchange in the workplace.

Drawing on the 2006 and 2010 waves of the WLQS, the individual HPWPs that have been identified to cover a larger share of individuals are: teamwork (80%-84%); skills utilisation (72%-76%); and job security provision (70%-78%); with information sharing displaying significant levels of usage as well (6.3-7.5 out of 10, on average). On the contrary, the practices that cover the smallest proportion of employees are: telework (as few as 2% enjoy flexible working arrangements in terms of working from home at least half of the days); high pay (only 6%-7% earn more than 2,100€ per month); performance-based pay (7%-15%); residence relocation

(10%-19%); and profit sharing (16%-20%); with the average number of social benefits that individuals are entitled to being slightly above one (from a maximum of ten).

The descriptive results also show that average levels of satisfaction (0-10 range) of private sector workers in Spain along the period 2006-2010 are medium-high for the work itself (7.5-7.7); personal development (7.1-7.5), job stability (7.3-7.2); and the job overall (7.2-7.3 out of ten). Satisfaction with job income is in the low range (5.8-6.2) and employees are dissatisfied with social benefits, a dissatisfaction that deepens in the period considered (4.1 in 2006 and 2.5 in 2010).

The share of workers who are looking for a new job are 15.5% in 2006, 14.6% in 2007, 16.2% in 2008, 15.1% in 2009, and 12.6% in 2010. Perception of job stability in 2010 is null for 2.8% of private sector workers in Spain, low for 8.1%, high for 26.3% and very high for 62.8%.

Last, 20% of private sector employees in Spain report their workplace to be characterised by a rich social exchange environment, 22% report midrange social exchange and as many as 58% claim to work in an organisation where social exchange is poor, i.e. relationships between management and staff are either bad or poor, and workers profess either null or low trust in their immediate superiors.

CHAPTER VII

EFFECTS OF HPWPs ON JOB STABILITY

7 EFFECTS OF HPWPS ON JOB STABILITY

This chapter is divided in six sections. The first one includes the associations between dependent (*perceived job stability* and *turnover intentions*) and independent variables (measuring HPWPs). In the second, the associations between each dependent variable and the control variables that derive from the sequential specifications of the model are presented. Third and fourth show the determinants of employee perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions, respectively. The fifth section includes the results from the sensitivity analysis. The sixth and last section ends the chapter by offering a summary of the main results.

7.1 Test of statistical associations

Based on Pearson's chi-square statistic, the relationships between each one of the two dependent variables and every single one of those measuring HPWPs are estimated. Results are included in Table 6, showing that job security provision, measured via *open-ended contract*, is the individual HPWP that displays the strongest association with both *perceived job stability* (V=.282) and *turnover intentions* (V=-.269), thus supporting that it is the main explanatory factor in both cases, being positively linked to the former and negatively to the latter. Further, results show that as many as 19 out of the 20 main explanatory variables are significantly associated to *perceived job stability* and 15 are to *turnover intentions*. In this sense, *telework* is not associated to either one of the dependent variables, while *hours of training*, *performance-based pay*, *teamwork* and *relocation* display no significant relationship with *turnover intentions*. Nevertheless, Table 6 shows significant relationships between both dependent variables and the great majority of main explanatory variables.

In connection to *perceived job stability*, the association of *open-ended contract* is followed in terms of strength by *training during working hours* (G=.265), *hours of training* (G=.260), *social benefits* (G=.258), *training useful* (G=.257), *organisational objectives knowledge* (G=.228), *pay* (G=.212), and *organisational structure knowledge* (G=.204). Further, all associations between *perceived job stability* and HPWPs display the expected sign, with the exception of that of *risk information*.

Table 6. Associations between dependent variables and HPWPs.

	perceived job stability					turnover intentions		
	Pearson's χ^2	p-value	Goodman & Kruskal's gamma	ASE	Cramér's V	Pearson's χ^2	p-value	Cramér's V
person-job skills match	56.1839 ***	.000			.1118	126.5032 ***	.000	-.1647
useful education	103.3876 ***	.000	.1017	.018		59.5010 ***	.000	.1130
hours of training, last 12 months	254.0779 **	.028	.2601	.024		79.9806	.218	
training during working hours	124.1395 ***	.000	.2652	.026		47.0377 ***	.000	.1004
useful training	122.8013 ***	.000	.2573	.025		51.4747 ***	.000	.1051
open-ended contract	357.5259 ***	.000			.2820	337.5935 ***	.000	-.2691
pay	104.1691 ***	.000	.2116	.023		233.1482 ***	.000	.2236
performance-based pay	14.2703 ***	.003			.0563	0.3766	.539	
share in profits	46.5826 ***	.000			.1018	17.5444 ***	.000	-.0613
social benefits	145.1710 ***	.000	.2576	.022		52.1998 ***	.000	.1058
organisational structure knowledge	159.8834 ***	.000	.2043	.018		73.6954 ***	.000	.1257
organisational objectives knowledge	215.2737 ***	.000	.2282	.018		60.5551 ***	.000	.1140
risk information	143.4847 ***	.000	-.0518	.021		18.8210 **	.043	.0635
task variety	117.2825 ***	.000	.1056	.018		35.6195 ***	.000	.0874
teamwork	27.0509 ***	.000			.0776	2.4825	.115	
telework	7.6936	.565				5.9265	.115	
random flexitime	200.0424 ***	.000	.1736	.019		29.1518 ***	.001	.0820
relocation	7.4194 *	.060			.0406	0.0316	.859	
trips	22.8395 ***	.000			.0713	17.7272 ***	.000	-.0617
representation body	115.2660 ***	.000			.1132	56.3437 ***	.000	.1099

Significance levels: *p < 0.10, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01.

Source: own elaboration from WLQS.

As for *turnover intentions*, the strongest associations after *open-ended contract* are found for *pay* (V=.224), *job-person skills match* (V=-.165), *organisational structure knowledge* (V=.126), *organisational objectives knowledge* (V=.114), and *useful education* (V=.113). As noted in Section 5.4.2, when Cramér's V statistic is estimated for two binary variables, it does not only inform about the strength of the association, but about its sign as well. Consequently, in this particular case, it can be determined that there are seven relationships between the one dependent variable of a dichotomous nature – *turnover intentions* – and those binary explanatory variables assessing HPWPs, namely *person-job skills match*, *open-ended contract*, *performance-based pay*, *share in profits*, *teamwork*, *relocation* and *trips*, whose sign might be established. However, Pearson's chi-square informs about non-significant relationships between the dependent variable and *performance-based pay*, *teamwork* and *relocation*. Thereby, the sign of the association is only determined for the remaining four, being, as hypothesised, negative as Table 6 shows.

In sum, following that the great majority of main explanatory variables are significantly associated to both dependent variables, the four hypotheses proposed in Section 3.3.5 (H1: e*mployee perception of job stability is positively associated to HPWPs*; H2: *job security provision is the individual HPWP that displays the largest positive effect on perceived job stability*; H3: *employee voluntary turnover intentions is negatively associated to HPWPs*; H4: *job security provision is the individual HPWP that displays the largest negative effect on employee voluntary turnover intentions*) are supported by the results obtained in this exploratory analysis.

Consequently, it encourages to further study to which extent HPWPs are significant determinants of worker *perceived job stability* and *turnover intentions*, which is analysed in the following section.

7.2 Sequential specifications of the model

This section briefly highlights those control variables measuring demographic, job and organisation characteristics that display the most interesting results in terms of their association with both *perceived job stability* and *turnover intentions*.

Table 7 includes the marginal effects and odds ratios of such variables on, respectively, *perceived job stability* and *turnover intentions* as additional sets of said variables are gradually incorporated into the progressive specification of the model. The majority of effects do not differ greatly from what might be expected, both in terms of their sign and in their decreasing explanatory power, as it can be seen with regards to age, nationality, education, unionisation, job tenure, and size of the workplace. Yet, there are also some control variables that display counterintuitive effects. In this respect, it is worthwhile to explicitly draw attention to sex, for its effects are highly surprising, but also to age and job rank.

First, not only gender increases its explanatory power of *perceived job stability* on the last specification when compared to the first and second ones, but the effect is negative for men. Further, gender is not statistically significant before HPWPs are incorporated into the model for *turnover intentions*, but becomes greatly significant when they are, displaying a positive association. This result may be indicative of marked differences between men and women when it comes to HPWPs perception. Similar effects are obtained for age and job rank with regard to *turnover intentions*, although the magnitude of the effects is smaller in both cases and the sign of the odds ratio relative to job rank is negative.

Table 7. Effects of control variables on *perceived job stability* and *turnover intentions*.

VARIABLE [ǂ]	Category of reference (CR)	Perceived job stability (marginal effects)					Turnover intentions (odds ratios)				
		control 1	control 2	control 3	control 4	HPWPs	control 1	control 2	control 3	control 4	HPWPs
men	women	-.028**	-.032**	-.049***	-.034	-.039**	.920	.912	1.104	1.177	1.650***
age		.011***	.011***	.001	.002	.005	.974	.977	1.017	1.022	1.066*
Spanish	non-Spanish	.126***	.121***	.077**	.069**	.041**	.691*	.684*	.915	.974	1.109
less than secondary education	university graduate	-.119***	-.100***	-.056*	-.032	-.016	1.248	1.383	1.017	1.015	1.120
vocational training		-.076**	-.062*	-.042	-.032	-.029	.790	.860	.778	.776	.809
secondary education		-.103***	-.088***	-.063**	-.049*	-.010	1.000	1.092	.932	.943	.769
professional association - yes	no		.118***	.087**	.085**	.090**		1.673**	2.061***	2.011***	2.172***
unionised - yes	no		.050***	.038***	.015	-.003		.948	1.177	1.225	1.215
job tenure				.021***	.021***	.010**			.840***	.840***	.927***
supervises - yes	no			.005	.003	-.014			.563	.584	.676
employee, no subordinates	top management			-.211***	-.223***	-.118			.447	.487	.165**
middle management				-.112***	-.115***	-.048			.564	.624	.270**
directors	support technicians and professionals			-.043	-.051	-.048			.567	.606	.523
technicians and scientific professionals				.011	-.013	-.033*			.591***	.524***	.612***
admin staff				-.026	-.032	-.007			.998	1.019	.851
hospitality staff				.004	-.013	.029			.933	.885	.649*
craftsmen				-.022	-.001	.031			.757**	.871	.779
assemblers				-.019	-.006	.033			1.003	1.200	.946
non-qualified workers				-.062*	-.059**	.006			1.652***	1.633***	.948
manufacturing	trade				-.030**	-.039***				.756***	.782***
construction					-.068***	-.070***				.929**	.878
transport					-.018	-.030*				.915	1.016
hospitality					-.013	-.025**				1.281***	1.125**
health and education					.119***	.114***				1.450***	1.373***
other services					-.018	-.018***				1.304***	1.172**
1 - 10 workers	size of the workplace > 250 workers				-.057**	-.041				1.524***	1.152
11 - 50 workers					-.102***	-.072**				1.295	1.377
51 - 250 workers					-.027	-.017				1.061	1.244
1 - 10 workers	size of the organisation > 250 workers				-.036	-.017				.751	.687
11 - 50 workers					-.027	-.013				.841	.648
51 - 250 workers					-.088*	-.073				.946	.848
Significance levels:	HPWPs included	no	no	no	no	yes	no	no	no	no	yes
*p < 0.10, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01	Observations	4,497	4,497	4,497	4,497	4,201	4,663	4,663	4,663	4,663	4,332

[ǂ] Other variables that are also controlled for are, age^2, marital status, children, region, job tenure^2, and overtime frequency.

Standard errors are clustered using the variable *activity sector*.

Source: own elaboration from WLQS 2010.

7.3 Perceived job stability

As it was mentioned in Section 5.4.2, using logistic regressions to estimate the determinants of self-perceived job stability allows for quantifying such determinants through the complementary estimation of the corresponding marginal effects. Consequently, not only results will identify the factors that are statistically significant and the sign of the association, but they will additionally allow for evaluating their social and economic relevance. It must be noted that, here, marginal effects are measuring the increase or decrease on the probability of individuals, in percentage points, to report the highest level of perceived job stability, with respect to the probability associated to the value that has been previously taken as the category of reference, which is then not included in the regression. In this sense, results will quantify the extent to which each variable contributes to perceiving very high job stability, corresponding to responses reporting that it is very likely to maintain the job for at least six months.

After controlling for socio-economic, job-related and company characteristics, Table 8 shows statistically significant positive associations between perceived high job stability and a substantial number of the HPWPs considered. In addition, these work management practices are rather varied in nature, encompassing areas such as recruitment and selection, training, job security, rewards, information sharing, job control and task variety. Thus, H1, which suggested that employee perception of job stability is positively associated to HPWPs, is supported. Specifically, the probability of perceiving the highest degree of stability in the job experiences the greatest increase for workers who are on an open-ended contract of employment – as it would be expected –, a substantial 16.6% and the only marginal effect that exceeds 10%, when compared to those who are on a temporary contract. Therefore, hypothesis H2 (*job security provision is the individual HPWP that displays the largest positive effect on perceived job stability*) is also supported by the results obtained. The probability increases 9.5% for employees who declare to participate sometimes in training activities during working hours with respect to those whose training always takes place outside their working day, 2.5% for employees whose skills are in line with their job and 2.2% for those who are entitled to social benefits. Moreover, being aware of the objectives of the organisation, task variety and being able to leave work to attend sporadic personal issues are also HPWPs that positively contribute to worker perception of very high job stability, although the magnitude of their marginal effects is below 1.5%.

Table 8. Effects of individual HPWPs on *perceived job stability* (marginal effects) and *turnover intentions* (odds ratios).

variable	category of reference (CR)	perceived job stability	turnover intentions
person-job skills match – yes	no	.025***	.478***
useful education		-.001	.976
hours of training, last 12 months		.000	1.002
training during working hours - N/A	never	.017	.244***
training during working hours - sometimes		.095***	.724***
training during working hours - always		-.009	.559**
useful training		.009	.846***
open-ended contract	temporary	.166***	.383***
pay - <600€	600-1,200€	.026**	2.508***
pay - 1,201-2,100€		.015	.535***
pay - 2,101-3,000€		.031	.622
pay - >3,000 €		-.045	.741
performance-based pay - yes	no	-.056	1.231
share in profits – yes	no	.042	1.103
social benefits		.022**	.908***
organisational structure knowledge		.002	.970
organisational objectives knowledge		.014**	.984
risk information		.002	.972
task variety		.011***	.944***
teamwork – yes	no	.000	1.318
telework - occasionally	never	-.033	.654
telework - at least half of the days		.040	.980
telework - always		-.038	.538
random flexitime		.005***	.999
relocation - yes	no	.006	1.761***
trips – yes	no	.015	1.021
representation body – yes	no	.001	.625**
representation body – unknown		-.057***	.610***
Observations		4,201	4,332
Significance levels: *p < 0.10, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01			

[i]All variables included in Table 7 are controlled for.
Standard errors are clustered using the variable *activity sector*.
Source: own elaboration from WLQS 2010.

On the contrary, results also signal two HPWPs that have the opposite effect. In this respect, the probability to report the highest degree of job stability increases 2.6% for individuals whose pay is below 600€, compared to the category of reference (600-1,200€). Finally, one more surprising result needs highlighting. The probability of reporting the highest degree of job stability decreases 5.7% for individuals who answer that they do not know whether there is a staff delegate in the organisation, compared to those who reply that there is not one. This might be interpreted as a negative effect on *perceived job stability* derived from poor information sharing

practices, given that the marginal effects for those who reply that there is a staff delegate and those who answer that there is not are virtually identical.

In short, recruitment and selection, training, job security, non-monetary rewards, information sharing, decision making and task variety are HPWPs found to be positively associated to self-perceived job stability. Subsequently, since HPWPs that display a negative effect on self-perceived job stability are, after all, fewer in number and their marginal effects lower in magnitude, results suggest that HPWPs positively influence the perception of employees of having high job stability overall – with minor exceptions –, thus leading to hypothesis H1 (*employee perception of job stability is positively associated to HPWPs*) being supported.

Further, having found that job security provision is the individual work management practice that displays the largest effect on perception of job stability, hypothesis H2 (*job security provision is the individual HPWP that displays the largest positive effect on perceived job stability*) is equally supported. Additionally, this interesting finding adds extra value to previous studies that focus on this particular outcome of HPWPs (Clark, 2005; Erlinghagen, 2008; Clark and Postel-Vinay, 2009; Muñoz de Bustillo and De Pedraza, 2010; Silla et al., 2010).

7.4 Turnover intentions

Before commenting the results, it is deemed necessary to make one relevant consideration, this being that HPWPs negatively affecting employee voluntary turnover intentions are the ones that positively impact organisational performance. Additionally, it is necessary to recall that, due to voluntary turnover intentions being measured via a dichotomous variable, odds ratios will be estimated in this case. Odds ratios here measure the increase or decrease on the probability of reporting turnover intentions with respect to the category of reference of any given variable included in the regression.

Results included in Table 8 show that most HPWPs that display statistically significant odds ratios are negatively associated to employee *turnover intentions*, thus supporting their validity in terms of staff retention and, subsequently, H2 (*turnover intentions is negatively associated to HPWPs*) being supported. The strongest effects in terms of decreasing the probability on *turnover intentions* are found for the variables *open-ended contract*, *person-job skills match*, *pay*, *training during working hours*, *representation body*, *useful training*, *social benefits*, and *task variety*. Given that job security provision is identified as the individual HPWP with the greatest association to *turnover intentions* – the probability to look for another job decreases above 1.5 times for employees on an open-ended contract when compared to those on a temporary

contract –, hypothesis H4 (*job security provision is the individual HPWP that displays the largest negative effect on turnover intentions*) is also supported. *Person-job kills match* follows, with the probability of reporting *turnover intentions* being more than double for those whose skills are in line with their job.

Similarly to what has been pointed out for *perceived job stability*, there are also variables measuring HPWPs that display a positive association with *turnover intentions*. Such is the case of *relocation*, for results show that it increases the probability of having the intention to quit 76.1%. One plausible explanation to this may be that these are individuals who have substantial power within the organisation. These workers usually hold top positions in the organisation and are relatively scarce in Spain, hence they may be more likely to job search at any given time.

As for *training during working hours*, it deserves a special mention, given that those who do not participate in training activities provided by their organisation whatsoever see their probability of looking for another job decrease more than three times with respect to those who take part in training outside working hours. This result may be indicating that individuals who do not train may try to hold on to their jobs because they know their lower human capital hinders their chances to find a better position.

Summing up, skills utilisation, training, job security provision, high pay, social benefits, indirect collective voice and task variety all are HPWPs that inflict a negative effect on employee turnover intentions, thus creating a positive environment for staff retention. On the contrary, results show that decision making at the organisational level (*relocation*) has a positive impact on *turnover intentions*.

Again, similarly to what has been said regarding *perceived job stability*, given that the majority of HPWPs considered display negative effects on *turnover intentions* and only a minority show a positive association, results suggest that, overall, this modality of HRM practices have a positive effect in terms of turnover intentions. Hence, H2 (*turnover intentions is negatively associated to HPWPs*) is supported.

Further, being job security provision the individual work management practice that displays the greatest influence on voluntary turnover intentions, H2a (*job security provision is the individual HPWP that displays the greatest predictive power of turnover intentions*) is supported, hence providing additional endorsement to the existing literature addressing the effects of HPWPs on staff retention.

In short, the present results are indicative of HPWPs being positively associated to employee perception of job stability and negatively to voluntary turnover intentions, thus supporting their positive role both at the individual at the organisational levels.

7.5 Sensitivity analysis

Finally, a sensitivity analysis is performed to evaluate to which extent the duration of the employment contract – open-ended versus temporary – leads to differing results. In this respect, separate analyses have been done for these two groups of workers, since job security provision – the individual HPWP of special relevance in this chapter – is measured via contractual status. Table 9 includes the results from the sensitivity analysis performed to check to which extent the duration of the employment relationship, as measured by type of contract, throws substantial differences in terms of the associations between HPWPs and both *perceived job stability* and *turnover intentions*. First, it must be highlighted that the results from the sub-sample of permanent workers are similar to those from the overall sample included in Table 8. Second, the number of HPWPs that are statistically significant is greater for the mentioned sub-sample, i.e. employees who are on an open-ended contract. In short, the effects of HPWPs on the two dependent variables considered are different for permanent and temporary workers, thus supporting the discriminatory power of the main independent variable of interest, i.e. contractual status. The following two paragraphs include some remarks regarding HPWPs that show different relationships with the dependent variables, subject on whether the analysis is performed for the temporary or the permanent subsample.

With regard to *perceived job stability*, results show that there are marked differences between employees on temporary and those on open-ended contracts in terms of the explanatory power of HPWPs, with such differences being of a diverse nature. *Training during working hours* has a greater explanatory power for temporary workers (12.7%) than for those on an open-ended contract (8.5%). *Relocation* displays a greater discriminatory power among temporary workers, decreasing the probability of reporting the highest level of *perceived job stability* 14.7%, whereas in the case of permanent workers it increases 3.6%. It must be noted that, perhaps more important than the magnitude of the effect, it is the change in the sign of the association. *Social benefits*, *organisational objectives knowledge* and *task variety* increase the probability of perceiving the job as very stable for workers on an open-ended contract 2.1%, 1.4% and 1.5%, respectively, but these variables are not significant in the case of temporary workers. The opposite is observed regarding *share in profits*, since it increases the probability of reporting the

highest level of perceived job stability 17.3% for temporary workers and has no significant effect in the case of those on an open-ended contract.

Table 9. Sensitivity analysis.

		perceived job stability (marginal effect)s		turnover intentions (odds ratios)	
	category of reference (CR)	temporary	open-ended	temporary	open-ended
person-job skills match – yes	no	.049	.025	**.422** ***	**.478**
useful education		-.003	-.002	1.010	**.954** **
hours of training, last 12 months		.000	.000	1.000	1.003
training during working hours - N/A	never	.186	-.031	**.581** **	**.198** ***
training during working hours - sometimes		**.127** *	**.085** ***	.785	**.576** *
training during working hours - always		.069	-.026	.822	**.386** ***
useful training		.030	.004	.935	**.855** ***
pay - <600€	600-1,200€	**.080** ***	**-.058** *	**1.608** ***	**5.763** ***
pay - 1,201-2,100€		**.117** **	-.003	**.371**	.636
pay - 2,101-3,000€		**.160** **	.009	.590	.540
pay - >3,000 €		**-.793** ***	-.032	**45.992** ***	.581
performance-based pay - yes	no	-.077	-.044	1.021	**1.526** ***
share in profits – yes	no	**.173** ***	.016	1.080	1.063
social benefits		.026	**.021** ***	**.856** *	**.925** ***
organisational structure knowledge		.000	.003	.952	.961
organisational objectives knowledge		.009	**.014** **	1.019	**.976** *
risk information		.003	.003	.958	.962
task variety		.002	**.015** ***	**.918** **	**.945** **
teamwork – yes	no	-.018	.023	**2.942** ***	**.750** **
telework - occasionally	never	-.070	-.021	.589	.832
telework - at least half of the days		-.103	.061	8.033	.835
telework - always		.088	-.082	.889	.591
random flexitime		.002	**.007** **	1.025	.982
relocation - yes	no	**-.147** *	**.036** *	1.426	**1.948** ***
trips – yes	no	.007	.020	1.109	.890
representation body – yes	no	.110	-.016	**.564** ***	**.698** *
representation body – unknown		.037	**-.082** ***	.668	**.551**
Observations		793	3,408	873	3,459
Significance levels: *p < 0.10, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01					

[i]All variables included in Table 7 are controlled for.
Standard errors are clustered using the variable *activity sector*.
Source: own elaboration from WLQS 2010.

Something similar is found after performing the sensitivity analysis for *turnover intentions*. In this respect, Table 9 also shows that there are marked differences in terms of HPWPs as determinants of employee voluntary turnover intentions, with such differences being different in nature as well. First, the sign of the association between *turnover intentions* and *teamwork* is negative for permanent workers and positive for their temporary counterparts. Second,

organisational objectives knowledge, *useful training* and *useful education* are negatively associated to *turnover intentions* for the permanent sub-sample and show no statistical significance for the temporary one. Third, *relocation* and *performance-based pay* are non-significantly associated for temporary workers and have significant and positive associations in the case of employees on an open-ended contract. A fourth set of HPWPs have significant associations in both sub-samples, but the magnitude is different. This is the case of *pay*, *training during working hours* and *social benefits*.

7.6 Summary of results

The four hypotheses that were stated in Section 3.3.5 have been tested in this chapter. In particular, it sought to evaluate the link between HPWPs and both employee perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions among private sector workers in Spain. After testing that the great majority of variables measuring HPWPs display significant associations – and in the hypothesised direction – with both dependent variables, a more in-depth analysis was thus encouraged. All four hypotheses are supported by the results, thus placing HPWPs as enhancers of job stability, as well as a useful instrument for organisations that are interested in retaining their staff. Further, among the 20 explanatory variables of interest measuring HPWPs, *open-ended contract* – specifically measuring job security provision – has been identified as the individual practice that has the largest effect on *perceived job stability* (positive) and *turnover intentions* (negative).

Results support that the implementation of HPWPs facilitates complying with the recommendations of varied supranational bodies – such as the ILO, the OCDE and Eurofound, among others – on the provision of job security.

First, HPWPs contribute to private sector employees in Spain experiencing greater levels of job stability, thus supporting Luna-Arocas and Camps (2008). In turn, job stability implies further benefits, since it is beneficial for self-realisation and social integration (Muñoz de Bustillo et al., 2011: 448), such as paving the way for a decent life and broader social and economic advancement, strengthening individuals and their families (ILO, 2015), and facilitating the integration and participation in society of individuals, thus providing them with personal and social identities (Agulló Tomás, 1998). In sum, stable jobs contribute to attaining a decent life by assisting workers on issues as varied as having access to private housing, establishing solid relationships through socialisation with fellow workers or facilitating self-realisation through a

sense of achievement at work (Guest, 1999; Appelbaum et al., 2000; Macky and Boxall, 2007; Wood and De Menezes, 2011; Wood et al., 2012; Carr and Mellizo, 2013).

Second, HPWPs are negatively associated to voluntary turnover intentions, thus supporting Walton (1985), Huselid (1995), Guest et al. (2003), Combs et al. (2006), and Luna-Arocas and Camps (2008) in terms of the positive impact of HPWPs in staff retention. Consequently, the implications of this result for HRM would be that organisations that adopt HPWPs may benefit from higher levels of staff retention, thus implying advantages at the organisational level in terms of improved performance.

Third, of all the HPWPs assessed, it is job security provision the individual practice that has the largest effects on both voluntary turnover intentions – in line with Silla et al. (2010) – and perception of job stability – in line with Silla et al. (2005), Erlinghagen (2007), Clark and Postel-Vinay (2009), Muñoz de Bustillo and De Pedraza (2010), and Silla et al. (2010). Thus, by providing staff with job security, organisations will benefit from both staff retention and employee perception of job stability. In fact, given that the present findings may be generalised for the Spanish private sector overall as a consequence of the representativeness of the dataset used, this result is of great relevance for a country with a distinct dual labour market, where the type of employment contract is a reliable signal to differentiate between high and low quality jobs, as posed by García Serrano (1998) and Amuedo-Dorantes (2000).

Also, being workers themselves the respondents and being their perception of HPWPs that is being measured, the results support that this is precisely what contributes to self-reported job stability, in line with Alfes et al. (2013), Brewster et al. (2013) and Elorza et al. (2011).

Finally, it is important to recall which the nine variables that have been found to foster job stability are, given that they will be the independent variables in the analyses to be performed in the next chapter. The seven broad HRM policies are represented by the nine variables: selection and recruitment (*person-job skills match*); training (*training during working hours*, *useful training*); job security (*open-ended contract*); rewards (*pay*, *social benefits*); information sharing (*organisational objectives knowledge*); job enrichment (*task variety*); and voice (*representation body*).

There are three reasons for excluding the remaining eleven variables from the analyses in the next chapter: (1) nine variables (*useful education*, *training hours*, *performance-based pay*, *share in profits*, *organisational structure knowledge*, *risk information*, *teamwork*, *telework*, and *trips*) are not significantly associated to neither *perceived job stability* nor to *turnover intentions*; (2)

one variable, *random flexitime*, displays a very small marginal effect at 0.5% with respect to *perceived job stability* and is not significantly associated to *turnover intentions*; and (3) *residence* is not significantly associated with *perceived job stability* and displays a positive direct effect on *turnover intentions*, thus it cannot be categorised as a job stability-fostering HPWP.

CHAPTER VIII

THE MODERATING ROLE OF SOCIAL EXCHANGE IN THE EFFECTS OF JOB STABILITY-FOSTERING HPWPs AND EMPLOYEE ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOUR

8 THE MODERATING ROLE OF SOCIAL EXCHANGE IN THE EFFECTS OF JOB STABILITY-FOSTERING HPWPS ON EMPLOYEE ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOUR

8.1 Preliminary considerations

This chapter presents the results obtained to answer the fourth research question proposed in the Introduction of this study (Section 1.4), i.e. to which extent does social exchange facilitate the relationship between overall job satisfaction and job stability-fostering individual HPWPs.

In order to address such question, three hypotheses were proposed in Section 4.4.2. The main hypothesis (H5) proposed to test if the association between overall job satisfaction and job stability-fostering HPWPs is positively moderated by social exchange. Complementarily, hypotheses H6 and H7 posed to test if the associations between, respectively, employee perception of job stability (H6) and turnover intentions (H7), and job stability-fostering HPWPs are positively moderated by social exchange in the workplace. In this manner, it is evaluated the role played by social exchange in the relationship between job stability-fostering HPWPs and the two employee outcomes used as proxies of job stability. Thus, the findings in Chapter 7 are taken a step further by adopting a social exchange perspective.

Given that the main objective of this chapter is to test the moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between overall job satisfaction and those HPWPs that positively contribute to job stability, Chapter 7 was devoted to identifying such practices. Of the 20 independent variables analysed, nine were found to fit this requirement, i.e. nine variables were found to be statistically significant in predicting employee perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions, and their effects were substantial in terms of magnitude. Such variables are *person-job skills match*, *training during working hours*, *useful training*, *open-ended contract*, *pay*, *social benefits*, *organisational objectives knowledge*, *task variety*, and *representation body*. Thus, these are the independent variables that are considered in this chapter. Consequently, the representativeness of all the seven broad areas of HRM discussed in Section 2.6 that are characteristic of the high-performance paradigm is not compromised, since the nine variables measuring HPWPs imply that such HRM areas are signified in the analysis.

Let us recall which the specific seven HRM broad areas are, indicating at the same time the independent variables to be used in the set of analysis in this chapter that are related to them:

selection and recruitment (*person-job skills match*), training (*training during working hours*, *useful training*), job security (*open-ended contract*), rewards (*pay*, *social benefits*), information sharing (*organisational objectives knowledge*), job enrichment (*task variety*), and voice (*representation body*).

As it was noted in the methodology chapter (Sections 5.3.2.1 and 5.4), all nine main explanatory variables in this chapter are dichotomous. Two of them – *person-job skills match* and *open-ended contract* – are "no-yes" variables throughout this research. The remaining seven variables were expressly dichotomised for the set of analysis in this chapter, as it was noted in Section 5.3.2.2.

The nine independent variables may be grouped into two different categories. The first one includes four variables that inform on whether the individual HPWP is present or absent. These are *person-job skills match*, *open-ended contract*, *social benefits*, and *representation body*. The second category includes five variables that measure the intensity of the practice. This is the case of the variables *training during working hours*, *useful training*, *pay*, *organisational objectives knowledge*, and *task variety*.

Finally, as it was discussed in Section 5.4.2.2, the variable that measures social exchange in the workplace is interacted with each one of the nine dichotomous variables measuring those individual HPWPs that foster job stability. Table 10 below shows the distribution of private sector employees in Spain according to these categorisations.

Table 10. Distribution of private sector employees in Spain, by HPWP and social exchange intensity (2010).

HPWP	social exchange	person-job skills match	training during working hours	training useful	open-ended contract	pay	social benefits	organisational objectives knowledge	task variety	representation body
		Frequencies								
absence/low	poor	688	417	2,466	559	1,438	1,441	1,999	1,438	935
	midrange	231	158	868	274	614	580	563	510	468
	rich	136	131	721	197	557	495	352	388	453
presence/high	poor	2,017	574	239	2,146	1,267	1,264	706	1,267	1,349
	midrange	811	244	174	768	428	462	479	532	418
	rich	780	214	195	719	359	421	564	528	306
	Total	4,663	1,738	4,663	4,663	4,663	4,663	4,663	4,663	3,929
		Percentages								
absence/low	poor	0.148	0.240	0.529	0.120	0.308	0.309	0.429	0.308	0.238
	midrange	0.050	0.091	0.186	0.059	0.132	0.124	0.121	0.109	0.119
	rich	0.029	0.075	0.155	0.042	0.120	0.106	0.076	0.083	0.115
presence/high	poor	0.433	0.330	0.051	0.460	0.272	0.271	0.151	0.272	0.343
	midrange	0.174	0.140	0.037	0.165	0.092	0.099	0.103	0.114	0.106
	rich	0.167	0.123	0.042	0.154	0.077	0.090	0.121	0.113	0.078

Source: own elaboration from WLQS 2010.

8.2 Results

This section is divided in five blocks. After emphasising some general remarks that apply to all three employee outcomes analysed – job satisfaction, perceived job stability and turnover intentions –, three differentiated sub-sections for every specific dependent variable follow, allowing to highlight the particularities found for each of them. The last sub-section comprises a summary of results.

8.2.1 General remarks

As it can be observed in Table 11, Table 12 and Table 13, the majority of marginal effects and odds ratios are statistically significant at the 0.1% level, especially in Table 11. Further, all effects are positive in the cases of both overall job satisfaction and perception of job stability, while all odds ratios are below one in the case of turnover intentions, meaning that effects are negative.

In line with the findings discussed in the previous chapter, the presence of each and every HPWP here considered is beneficial for employees in terms of both their perception of job stability and their intention to remain in the organisation. In addition, positive effects in terms of job satisfaction are found as well.

The general pattern that can be observed is that, the better the work environment in terms of social exchange, the greater the magnitude of the increase in the probability of reporting the greatest overall job satisfaction and the highest perception of job stability when HPWPs are present or display high intensity, when compared to their absence or low intensity. As for voluntary turnover intentions, the opposite effect is found, i.e. the better the work environment in terms of social exchange, the greater the magnitude of the decrease in the probability of reporting turnover intentions for those employees that are affected by HPWPs in comparison to those who are not.

Consequently, under the scenario of HPWPs and rich work environment being simultaneously present, the probability of both very high job satisfaction and very high perception of job stability increases, and that of voluntary turnover intentions diminishes. In terms of the ordering, the general pattern is that HPWPs display a positive effect on both overall job satisfaction and perception of job stability, and a negative one on turnover intentions, with said effect being enhanced when social exchange is richer. Thus, a positive moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and overall job satisfaction, employee perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions is found.

In particular, findings support that it is job security provision – as measured by contractual status – the individual practice that has the greatest explanatory power when it comes to predicting overall job satisfaction, perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions, with social exchange enhancing such effects. In sum, not only individuals are more likely to report highest job satisfaction, highest job stability and lowest voluntary turnover intentions if the organisation provides them with job security but, in addition, the higher the quality of the work environment in terms of social exchange, the greater the probability of overall job satisfaction and job stability perception, and the smallest the probability of intending to leave the job.

8.2.2 Overall job satisfaction

The results for job satisfaction, i.e. marginal effects – variation in the probability of reporting very high job satisfaction – are included in Table 11, being the category of reference the combination of poor social exchange and either absence or low intensity of the relevant HPWP.

Table 11. *Job satisfaction*: marginal effects.

	Social exchange	m.e.	s.e.	z	P>z	[95% conf.	interval]
Person-job skills match	poor	.133 ***	.011	11.9	.000	.111	.155
	midrange	.296 ***	.014	21.59	.000	.269	.323
	rich	.471 ***	.015	32.34	.000	.442	.499
Training during	poor	.030	.036	.84	.403	-.040	.100
working hours (n = 1,738)	midrange	.216 ***	.032	6.72	.000	.153	.279
	rich	.419 ***	.027	15.52	.000	.366	.472
Training useful	poor	.093 ***	.012	7.96	.000	.070	.116
	midrange	.292 ***	.024	12.13	.000	.245	.339
	rich	.453 ***	.014	31.7	.000	.425	.481
Open-ended contract	poor	.062 **	.021	2.97	.003	.021	.103
	midrange	.240 ***	.023	1.65	.000	.196	.284
	rich	.404 ***	.020	2.37	.000	.365	.443
Pay	poor	.068 **	.023	2.99	.003	.023	.113
	midrange	.265 ***	.017	15.2	.000	.230	.299
	rich	.386 ***	.015	25.06	.000	.356	.417
Social benefits	poor	.074 ***	.009	7.92	.000	.056	.093
	midrange	.260 ***	.018	14.65	.000	.225	.295
	rich	.407 ***	.008	51.31	.000	.392	.423
Organisational objectives	poor	.096 ***	.007	14.33	.000	.083	.109
knowledge	midrange	.260 ***	.018	14.63	.000	.225	.295
	rich	.420 ***	.012	35.28	.000	.397	.443
Task variety	poor	.034 **	.013	2.65	.008	.009	.060
	midrange	.225 ***	.020	11.39	.000	.186	.264
	rich	.410 ***	.010	42.09	.000	.391	.429
Representation body (n = 3,929)	poor	.028	.021	1.33	.185	-.013	.068
	midrange	.234 ***	.027	8.78	.000	.182	.286
	rich	.349 ***	.025	13.96	.000	.300	.398

Categories of reference: absence/low presence of HPWP and poor social exchange.
S. e. clustered using the variable activity sector.
n = 4,663, unless stated otherwise.
Significance levels: *p < 0.10, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01

Source: own elaboration from WLQS 2010.

Before proceeding to comment in detail the most relevant findings, it is considered helpful to read some of them as an example. For instance, the marginal effects of the first variable in Table 11, *person-job skills match*, must be interpreted bearing in mind that the category of reference is not having the training that is required by the job and, in addition, reporting to work in an environment where social exchange is perceived as poor, i.e. low trust in superiors and poor quality relationships between management and employees. Consequently, given that the three marginal effects attached to the mentioned variable refer to the HPWP being present, i.e. employees report their training being in line with their job, they should be read in the following manner. The probability of reporting very high overall job satisfaction by private sector employees in Spain who declare to possess the training required by the job increases 13.3% / 29.6% / 47.1% when social exchange is poor / midrange / rich, respectively, with respect to the category of reference.

Results included in Table 11 show that the probability of reporting very high job satisfaction increases under the presence or high intensity of the variables measuring HPWPs considered – in line with the findings in Chapter 6 –, regardless of the intensity of social exchange. The only exceptions to this are *training within working hours* and *representation body*, since their marginal effects when social exchange is described as poor are not statistically significant at the .05 level, thus suggesting partial moderation of social exchange with respect to these two variables. In addition, it can be explicitly conveyed that the increase in the probability of reporting very high job satisfaction is heightened by social exchange, ever since greatest marginal effects are found for rich social exchange, while smallest ones are obtained for poor social exchange, with those for midrange social exchange being somewhere in between. In other words, the greater the level of social exchange, the greater the probability of employees reporting very high job satisfaction, thus social exchange positively moderates the effect on *job satisfaction* of every single variable measuring HPWPs considered here, in line with Alfes et al. (2012) and Innocenti et al. (2011). Thus, hypothesis H5, which suggested that social exchange positively moderates the association between HPWPs and overall job satisfaction, is supported by the data.

When social exchange is reported to be rich, marginal effects reach values as high as .47 in the case of *person-job skills match*, followed by *useful training* (.45), *organisational objectives knowledge* and *training within working hours* (.42), and *task variety* (.41). On the other hand, the smallest marginal effect for the category denoting rich social exchange is that obtained for *representation body* (35%).

As for the variation in the magnitude of marginal effects by intensity of social exchange, the greatest increases are observed for *task variety*, rising from .03 when social exchange is poor to .41 when it is rich, followed by *open-ended contract* (from .06 to .40). The smallest increases are found for *person-job skills match* (from .13 to .47), *organisational objectives knowledge* (from .10 to .42) and *training useful* (from .09 to .45).

In sum, social exchange positively moderates the relationship between HPWPs and overall job satisfaction and its moderating role is highly powerful, especially in the case of task variety and job security provision.

8.2.3 Self-perceived job stability

The results for employee perception of very high job stability are included in Table 12. These results are shown in the form of marginal effects, thus informing on the variation in the probability of reporting very high perceived job stability with respect to that of the category of reference, which is set to be the combination of poor social exchange and absence or low intensity of the relevant HPWP.

Results show that, when every single one of the ten HPWPs considered is present or displays high intensity, the greater levels of social exchange reported by employees, the greater the probability of perceiving very high job stability. Thus, H4, which suggested that the association between employee perception of job stability and HPWPs is positively moderated by social exchange, is supported.

Results pertaining to the category that denotes social exchange to be poor are not statistically significant at the .05 level for two variables, namely *training within working hours* and *representation body*. However, marginal effects become significant when social exchange is midrange and rise when it is rich, thus suggesting a partial moderating effect. In addition, it must be pointed out that the effect of *training during working hours* on *perceived job stability* is negative when social exchange is midrange. They are for the remaining seven variables, thus signifying that, in line with the findings discussed in Chapter 7 for these very work practices, the mere presence/high intensity of these HPWPs increases the probability of perceiving very high job stability and, additionally, marginal effects are larger the greater levels of social exchange.

Individuals in working environments where social exchange can be categorised as being rich show increases in the probability of reporting very high levels of *perceived job stability* that reach values as high as .37 in the case of being on an open-ended employment relationship – as opposed to being on a fixed-term contract –, followed by being entitled to social benefits (.26)

– with respect to not being so – and having a good knowledge about organisational objectives (.25). On the other hand, the smallest marginal effect under working environments characterised by rich social exchange is found for *representation body* (.19).

Table 12. *Perceived job stability*: marginal effects.

	Social exchange	m.e.	s.e.	z	P>z	[95% conf.	interval]
Person-job skills match	poor	.074 ***	.020	3.70	.000	.035	.114
	midrange	.145 ***	.023	6.40	.000	.101	.190
	rich	.245 ***	.018	13.77	.000	.210	.280
Training during working hours (n = 1,699)	poor	-.040	.022	-1.88	.060	-.083	.002
	midrange	-.069 ***	.015	-4.74	.000	-.098	-.040
	rich	.201 ***	.034	5.97	.000	.135	.267
Training useful	poor	.081 *	.038	2.16	.031	.008	.155
	midrange	.106 *	.042	2.54	.011	.024	.188
	rich	.222 ***	.031	7.17	.000	.161	.283
Open-ended contract	poor	.203 ***	.034	6.00	.000	.137	.269
	midrange	.316 ***	.022	14.52	.000	.273	.359
	rich	.373 ***	.019	19.13	.000	.335	.411
Pay	poor	.063 ***	.018	3.52	.000	.028	.099
	midrange	.128 ***	.030	4.24	.000	.069	.187
	rich	.237 ***	.063	3.76	.000	.113	.360
Social benefits	poor	.098 ***	.015	6.71	.000	.069	.126
	midrange	.206 ***	.020	10.25	.000	.166	.245
	rich	.259 ***	.025	10.35	.000	.210	.309
Organisational objectives knowledge	poor	.090 ***	.019	4.82	.000	.054	.127
	midrange	.208 ***	.022	9.56	.000	.165	.250
	rich	.247 ***	.022	11.39	.000	.205	.290
Task variety	poor	.066 *	.028	2.35	.019	.011	.121
	midrange	.133 ***	.025	5.36	.000	.084	.182
	rich	.220 ***	.012	18.28	.000	.197	.244
Representation body (n = 3,806)	poor	.036	.034	1.06	.289	-.031	.104
	midrange	.103 **	.038	2.71	.007	.028	.177
	rich	.193 ***	.045	4.28	.000	.105	.281

Categories of reference: absence/low presence of HPWP and poor social exchange.
S. e. clustered using the variable activity sector.
n = 4,497, unless stated otherwise.
Significance levels: *p < 0.10, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01

Source: own elaboration from WLQS 2010.

Nevertheless, given that marginal effects encompass the joint effect of the HPWP being present or displaying high intensity and social exchange, it is the increase in the magnitude of said marginal effects what needs to be observed if one is interested in evaluating the scope of the moderating role of social exchange. In this respect, it is particularly strong in the case of *pay*, since the marginal effect rises from .06 – poor social exchange – to .24 – rich social exchange –, followed by *task variety* (from .07 to .22) and *person-job skills match* (.07-.25). On the contrary, it is smallest in the case of *open-ended contract* (.20-.37). This is because being on an open-ended contract has a large positive direct effect on perceived job stability, as seen in Chapter 7. In fact, it was the variable that displayed the greatest effect on employee perception of very high job stability.

In sum, based on the data analysed, it can be stated that the increase in the probability of perceiving very high job stability is enhanced by social exchange, ever since greatest marginal effects are found for rich social exchange, while smallest marginal effects are obtained for poor social exchange, with marginal effects for midrange social exchange being somewhere in between. In other words, social exchange positively moderates the effect on employee perception of very high job stability of the vast majority of HPWPs considered here (with the exception of that measured via the variable *training during working hours*), thus hypothesis H6 is supported by the data. In other words, results suggest that social exchange facilitates the effect that HPWPs have on perception of job stability, supporting the stabilising power of the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960).

8.2.4 Employee voluntary turnover intentions

The results for *turnover intentions* are included in Table 13. Specifically, odds ratios are displayed, thus informing on the variation in the probability of intending to leave the job, compared to that of the category of reference, i.e. the combination of poor social exchange and absence or low intensity of the relevant HPWP.

Results show that, out of the nine variables considered, social exchange is found to display full moderation in the association between four of them and *turnover intentions*. These four variables are *person-job skills match*, *open-ended contract*, *pay* and *representation body*. Their mere presence or high intensity diminishes the probability of looking for another job, in line with the findings discussed in Chapter 7, and, additionally, odds ratios decrease following greater levels of social exchange, thus denoting full moderation of social exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and voluntary turnover intentions, supporting Alfes et al. (2013). Thus, hypothesis H7, which suggested the positive moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and voluntary turnover intentions, is fully supported for four of the nine variables analysed.

Of the remaining five variables, partial positive moderation is found in the case of four of them, namely *training within working hours*, *training useful*, *organisational objectives knowledge* and *task variety*. In these cases, the category that denotes poor social exchange is not statistically significant at the .05 level, but odds ratios become significant when social exchange is midrange and their magnitude declines when it is rich, thus suggesting partial moderation, in line with Alfes et al. (2012) and similarly to what has been discussed in Section 8.2.2.

As for the remaining variable, *social benefits*, no positive moderation has been found. This variable displays a non-statistically significant odds ratio for poor social exchange, while those for midrange and rich social exchange are statistically significant. However, results show that the odds ratio is smaller when social exchange is midrange than when it is rich, which might indicate a negative moderating effect. Consequently, the suggested positive moderating role of social exchange does not apply for *social benefits*, while four additional variables – *training within working hours*, *training useful*, *organisational objectives knowledge* and *task variety* – show no statistically significant odds ratios when social exchange is poor, i.e social exchange is found to exert partial moderation. Thus, results support hypothesis H7, which suggested the positive moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and voluntary turnover intentions, given that positive moderation – either full or partial – is found for eight out of the nine variables measuring HPWPS.

Table 13. *Turnover intentions*: odds ratios.

	Social exchange	o.r.	s.e.	z	P>z	[95% conf.	interval]
Person-job skills match	poor	.368 ***	.057	-6.48	.000	.272	.498
	midrange	.257 ***	.067	-5.25	.000	.155	.427
	rich	.194 ***	.044	-7.16	.000	.124	.304
Training during working hours (n = 1,738)	poor	.854	.259	-.52	.602	.471	1.548
	midrange	.367 ***	.118	-3.13	.002	.196	.688
	rich	.147 ***	.090	-3.14	.002	.044	.486
Training useful	poor	.907	.146	-.60	.547	.662	1.245
	midrange	.437 ***	.098	-3.68	.000	.282	.679
	rich	.333 ***	.064	-5.71	.000	.228	.486
Open-ended contract	poor	.401 ***	.099	-3.71	.000	.247	.650
	midrange	.199 ***	.050	-6.37	.000	.121	.327
	rich	.119 ***	.036	-7.06	.000	.066	.215
Pay	poor	.475 **	.120	-2.94	.003	.290	.780
	midrange	.255 ***	.072	-4.82	.000	.146	.444
	rich	.172 ***	.070	-4.34	.000	.078	.381
Social benefits	poor	.937	.112	-.55	.583	.741	1.184
	midrange	.309 ***	.082	-4.41	.000	.183	.521
	rich	.433 **	.136	-2.67	.008	.235	.800
Organisational objectives knowledge	poor	.790	.178	-1.05	.295	.508	1.228
	midrange	.581 *	.126	-2.51	.012	.380	.887
	rich	.388 ***	.102	-3.61	.000	.232	.649
Task variety	poor	.769	.120	-1.69	.091	.567	1.043
	midrange	.535 ***	.082	-4.07	.000	.397	.723
	rich	.308 ***	.063	-5.73	.000	.206	.461
Representation body (n = 3,929)	poor	.564 ***	.079	-4.07	.000	.428	.743
	midrange	.389 **	.131	-2.81	.005	.201	.751
	rich	.352 **	.116	-3.17	.002	.184	.671

Categories of reference: absence/low presence of HPWP and poor social exchange.
S. e. clustered using the variable activity sector.
n = 4,663, unless stated otherwise.
Significance levels: *p < 0.10, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01

Source: own elaboration from WLQS 2010.

In short, results show that social exchange is found to fully and positively moderate the relationship between four HPWPs and voluntary turnover intentions, and partial positive moderation is found for a set of four additional HPWPs, making a total of eight out of nine individual practices for which either full or partial moderation is found. Subsequently, hypothesis H7, which suggested that social exchange positively moderates the association between HPWPs and voluntary turnover intentions, is supported by the results.

Overall, lowest odds ratios are obtained for the category where rich social exchange is reported, reaching values as low as .12 in the case of *open-ended contract*, followed by *training within working hour*s (.15), *pay* (.17) and *person-job skills match* (.19). This can be interpreted as the probability of leaving the job under rich social exchange environments being over nine times lower for those on an open-ended contract; nearly seven times lower for those on a competitive salary; and over six times lower for those whose training matches the skills required by their job, these figures resulting from dividing 1 by the odds ratio. On the other hand, the biggest odds ratios for rich social exchange are found for *social benefits* (.43), followed by *organisational objectives knowledge* (.39) and *representation body* (.35), indicating that the probability of reporting voluntary turnover intentions is over three times lower when employees are entitled to social benefits or have a fairly good knowledge of the organisational objectives, and nearly four times lower when there is a staff delegate or works council in the organisation.

As for the variation of the size of the odds ratios following the extent of social exchange, indicative of the strength of its moderating role, it is greatest for *open-ended contract*, since it falls from .40 – poor social exchange – to .12 – rich social exchange –, followed by *pay* (.48-.17) and *person-job skills match* (.37-.19). These results may be interpreted as social exchange having the greatest power at decreasing voluntary turnover intentions when combined with job security provision, followed by high pay and skills utilisation. Interestingly, while social exchange moderates the association between job security provision and both perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions, results suggest that its moderating power is significantly more decisive for the latter. As for the smallest change in the magnitude of odds ratios, this is found for *representation body*, since it decreases from .56 – poor social exchange – to .35 – rich social exchange.

In sum, the data analysed provides support for hypothesis H7, which proposed that social exchange positively moderates the association between HPWPs and employee voluntary turnover intentions. Yet, it must be noted that no positive moderation has been found for one of the nine variables considered, namely *social benefits*, whereas four additional variables

(*training during working hours*, *training useful*, *organisational objectives knowledge* and *task variety*) showed no statistically significant odds ratios for the category denoting poor social exchange, thus implying partial moderation of social exchange in the relationship between said four variables and *turnover intentions*.

However, full positive moderation is found with respect to another set of four variables, namely *person-job skills match*, *open-ended contract*, *pay* and *representation body*. In these four cases, the decrease in the probability of reporting turnover intentions is fully fostered by social exchange, ever since smallest odds ratios are found for rich social exchange and the biggest ones are obtained for poor social exchange, with odds ratios for midrange social exchange being somewhere in between. In short, social exchange positively moderates – either partially or fully – the relationship between eight of the nine variables measuring HPWPs and voluntary turnover intentions, thus providing empirical evidence to support hypothesis H7.

8.2.5 Summary of results

HPWPs have positive associations with both overall job satisfaction and employee perception of job stability, and negative associations with voluntary turnover intentions, following the results that show that marginal effects and odds ratios, respectively, are statistically significant in the vast majority of cases, regardless of the intensity of social exchange (poor, midrange or rich). Thus, these results support the findings in Chapter 7.

The analyses performed provide empirical evidence regarding the moderating role of social exchange in the relationships between HPWPs and all three employee outcomes studied, namely overall job satisfaction, perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions in the private sector in Spain. In other words, results identify social exchange as an enhancer of the relationships between HPWPs and the three employee outcomes analysed.

Specifically, support is found for hypotheses H5 (*job satisfaction*), given that full moderating effects are found for seven out of the nine variables considered, with partial moderation being identified for two variables – *training during working hours* and *representation body*; for hypothesis H6 (*perceived job stability*), since full moderating effects are found for seven out of the nine variables considered, partial moderation is found for one variable – namely *representation body* – and no positive moderation is found for *training during working hours*; and for hypothesis H7 (*turnover intentions*), given that full support is found for four of the variables, partial moderation is identified with respect to four variables (namely *training during*

working hours, *training useful*, *organisational objectives knowledge*, and *task variety*), and no positive moderation, be it full or partial, for one of them, namely *social benefits*.

In short, according to the results obtained, social exchange positively moderates the relationship between all nine HPWPs considered and overall job satisfaction; between eight of the nine practices considered and perception of job stability, the exception being training during working hours; and between eight of the nine practices and voluntary turnover intentions, the exception being social benefits.

As it has been mentioned in the three previous sub-sections, the larger the increase in the magnitude of the marginal effect for the category accounting for rich social exchange when compared to that accounting for poor social exchange, the greater the moderating power. Thus, results displayed in Table 11 and Table 12 suggest that social exchange exerts greater moderating power in the relationships between HPWPs and overall job satisfaction than in those between HPWPs and employee perception of job stability. This point cannot be determined for training within working hours and collective indirect voice, due to non-statistically significant marginal effects of categories reflecting poor social exchange.

It must be recalled that, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, no previous research has attempted to assess the moderating role of social exchange in the distinct effects of nine individual job stability-fostering HPWPs – which mirror the seven HRM broad areas discussed in Section 2.6 – in employee attitudes and behaviour, and no former studies have tried to discern the different strength of social exchange as a moderator in such effects.

CHAPTER IX

DISCUSSION OF STATISTICAL RESULTS

9 DISCUSSION OF STATISTICAL RESULTS

9.1 Introduction

The empirical results obtained in Chapters 6, 7 and 8 are here discussed in relation to the four research questions proposed in Section 1.4. The discussion is organised as follows. Section 9.2 summarises the conceptual and analytical framework used. Section 9.3 addresses the first research question, regarding the coverage of HPWPs in terms of private sector employees in Spain. Large differences are found with respect to the coverage of individual practices. Only three of them, namely teamwork, job security provision – measured via *open-ended contract* – and skills utilisation are widespread, whereas high pay, social benefits and task variety are very uncommon. Section 9.3 discusses the second research question, which proposed to build a map of worker satisfaction with certain HRM-related job features. Results detect higher levels of satisfaction with the work itself, with job security and with the job overall, whereas satisfaction with pay is much lower and employees are unsatisfied with social benefits. Section 9.5 addresses in detail the third research question, i.e. which individual HPWPs positively contribute to job stability. As hypothesised, findings identify the practice job security provision – measured via *open-ended contract* – to have the largest effect on both *perceived job stability* (H2) and *turnover intentions* (H4). Other practices that are found to be beneficial are those measured by the variables *training during working hours*, *person-job skills match*, *social benefits* and *task variety*. Section 9.6 discusses the fourth research question, which proposed to evaluate the moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between overall job satisfaction and those practices that foster job stability. Results support such moderating role and important implications are discussed, namely the connection between the HPWPs and the job quality literatures and the identification of workplace relationships as a component of job quality, as advocated by the literature. Last, Section 9.7 includes some final remarks.

9.2 Conceptual and analytical framework

Three main analytical decisions are taken in this study. First, core HRM areas are selected in accordance to the literature on HPWPs, allowing for the selection of the variables of interest. Second, this selection is further refined by considering only those variables that fulfil the criterion of positively contributing to employee perception of job stability. This is based on the premise of the high-performance paradigm that job security provision is a key work management practice and, according to the job quality literature, that job security is a central

component of job quality. Third, SET is selected as the analytical framework to investigate the *black box* of HRM as to the underlying processes and mechanisms that intervene in work management practices having an effect on employee outcomes.

Regarding the first step, from existing theoretical and empirical research on HPWPs, a conceptual framework was derived in Chapter 2. Seven core HRM areas that are commonly agreed upon to be key features of the high-performance paradigm by the literature (Pfeffer, 1998; Jiang et al., 2012; Posthuma et al., 2013; Guest, 2017) were selected. These are: (1) recruitment and selection, (2) training, (3) job security, (4) rewards, (5) information sharing, (6) job enrichment, and (7) voice. These seven HRM areas fulfil two further criteria for selection. Firstly, they cover the three distinct components (ability, motivation, opportunity) of the AMO model (Jiang et al., 2012; Bos-Nehles et al., 2013; Kroon et al., 2013). Secondly, they include different policies that affect job quality (Dahl et al., 2009; Muñoz de Bustillo et al., 2009; Peña-Casas, 2009; OECD, 2014).

The seven HRM broad areas were operationalised in twenty variables measuring HPWPs. Subsequently, a descriptive study was performed to map the coverage in terms of workers of individual HPWPs in the private sector in Spain. Next, a second descriptive study is carried out to evaluate worker satisfaction with twelve job aspects in connection to HPWPs. This second descriptive study provides a primary approach to the linkage between HPWPs and job quality, given that (a) the seven core broad HRM areas selected are central dimensions of both the high-performance paradigm and job quality, (b) self-reported satisfaction has the consideration of a measure of worker subjective well-being and (c) worker well-being is an indirect indicator of job quality.

Regarding the second step, following the status of job security as a basic feature of both the high-performance paradigm and job quality, this study focuses on those individual practices that positively contribute towards job stability. Subsequently, statistical analyses were performed in order empirically test which individual practices foster job stability. This was done by regressing the variables measuring HPWPs on *perceived job stability* and *turnover intentions*, both indicative of job security provision. The seven core HRM areas considered are signified by the variables that show significant and substantial direct effects on at least one of the two dependent variables, suggesting that each of these areas contributes separately towards the provision of job security.

As for the third step, SET (Homans, 1958; Blau, 1964) was used as the analytical framework to investigate the *black box* of HRM with respect to the underlying mechanisms that facilitate

practices shaping employee attitudes and behaviour. It was tested to which extent social exchange moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and those HPWPs that were identified to foster job stability, following the suggestion by Dirks and Ferrin (2001). In other words, the moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between job satisfaction and individual practices was assessed, adopting a job security perspective. This was done by regressing each and every one of the individual variables that were found to foster job stability on *job satisfaction*, and simultaneously considering the moderating role of social exchange. The concept of social exchange was operationalised by considering two central features, namely trust in superiors and the quality of relationships between superiors and subordinates (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005; Colquitt et al., 2014).

All the analyses were performed on a representative sample of the private sector in Spain, thus allowing for the generalisation of results. Results are discussed in detail next, starting with those of the descriptive studies.

9.3 Coverage of HPWPs in the private sector in Spain

The first research question stated in the introduction of this study (Section 1.4) proposed to explore the coverage of HPWPs in terms of private sector employees in Spain (Section 2.5). The seven core HRM areas selected were operationalised in twenty variables (see Appendix 2) to observe the share of employees that effectively report to be covered by HPWPs. Two main findings are highlighted.

Empirical results showed that practices measured via the variables *teamwork* (job enrichment), *open-ended contract* (job security provision) and *person-job skills match* (selection and recruitment) are widely spread among private sector workers in Spain. In this respect, the first finding is that each one of these three variables is measuring a HPWP that is classed under a different component of the AMO model. Thus, each one of the three components that integrate the AMO model is present.

Telework, high pay, performance-based pay, share in profits, social benefits and task variety are HPWPs that were found to be very scarce. The former and the latter of these practices are classed under the job enrichment HRM area, thus they are included in the opportunity component of the AMO model. The other four are included in the rewards HRM area, hence classed under the motivation component of the AMO model. Thus, following the low coverage of telework, the low level of task variety and the low level of both monetary and non-monetary

rewards, the second finding is that the opportunity to contribute and motivation components of the AMO model endure a shortfall in the private sector in Spain.

In sum, only one of the seven core HRM areas considered in this study has a medium-high level of coverage in terms of workers: job security (measured via *open-ended contract*). The other six areas comprise HPWPs that have low coverage, with two broad HRM areas containing the least extended individual practices. These areas are job enrichment (telework, task variety) and rewards (high pay, performance-based pay, profit sharing, social benefits). Subsequently, this means that both the motivation and opportunity to contribute components of the AMO model are the weakest in the private sector in Spain. Further, two of the dimensions of job quality (enriched jobs and rewards) have been identified to be little extended.

Results support Gutiérrez and González Menéndez (2011) with respect to poor pay. The scarce presence of telework is in line with the low levels of decentralisation of decision making reported by Jódar and Alós (2008), contradicting the results by Gallie and Zhou (2013) of high job autonomy in Spain and those in Eurofound (2013) of medium-high task discretion. Also, findings that (a) skills utilisation and job security provision are widespread practices in the private sector in Spain and that (b) performance-based pay and share in profits present a low coverage in terms of workers are in line with Pruneda (2015).

9.4 Worker satisfaction in the private sector in Spain

The second research question stated in the Introduction of this study (Section 1.4) and developed in Chapter 3, proposed to explore worker satisfaction with job features that are connected to HPWPs. Twelve items were selected to measure said satisfaction (see Appendix 2). Results show that employees are most satisfied with the work itself, personal development (realisation), job security, and the job overall. The level of satisfaction with these four job aspects falls in the medium-high range. The lowest levels of satisfaction were found for pay and social benefits, both falling in the low range. These outcomes are discussed next in connection to the main findings in Section 9.3.

The medium-high satisfaction with the work itself and with personal development (realisation) may be interpreted as a consequence of skills utilisation (*person-job skills match*) covering a large share of individuals. In a similar vein, that job security provision (*open-ended contract*) is one of the most widespread practices explains the medium-high level of satisfaction with job security. The medium-high level of overall job satisfaction may be interpreted as employees

positively assessing their experience of work. Thus, subjective well-being at work in general in the private sector in Spain is medium-high.

As for the low satisfaction levels that private sector employees in Spain report with rewards, both monetary and non-monetary, it is in line with the low coverage of those HPWPs measured via the variables *pay*, *performance-based pa*y, *share in profits* and *social benefits*. This connection is particularly relevant for non-monetary rewards, since social benefits is the individual HPWP that is least widespread and the level of satisfaction with social benefits is the lowest of those considered. Also, given the importance of pay, it is suggested that the absence of high pay among the set of practices with greater coverage is another key explanatory factor for the low satisfaction with pay.

Summing up, higher average satisfaction levels have been found for job features that reflect individual HRM practices that are widespread in the private sector in Spain (Section 9.3), thus suggesting that workers are more satisfied the greater the coverage of HPWPs. Results suggest that the view that private sector workers in Spain have of HPWPs based on experiencing these practices, i.e. the accounts by employees who are covered by HPWPs of the presence of said practices, is favourable. Therefore, following the terminology used by scholars like Guest (1999) and Glover et al. (2014), the "worker's verdict" is positive. Yet, employees report low satisfaction with the rewards HRM area, which has implications with respect to the motivation component of the AMO model. Also, since rewards was identified in Section 9.3 as one of the dimensions of job quality that was little extended among private sector employees in Spain, their low satisfaction with pay supports that job quality affects worker well-being.

9.5 HPWPs as providers of job stability

The third research question stated in the Introduction of this study (Section 1.4) and developed in Chapter 3, proposed to identify the individual HPWPs that are beneficial for employee job stability. It was hypothesised that individual HPWPs in general – and not only those explicitly aimed at providing job security – contribute positively to employee perception of job stability (H1) and negatively to voluntary turnover intentions (H3). It was also hypothesised that individual practices explicitly aimed at providing job security (*open-ended contract*) in particular have the largest direct effects (H2 and H4). To test these hypotheses, fundamental to address the fourth and last research objective (stated in Section 4.4.1), it was proposed to perform an intermediary analysis by means of logistic regressions and post-estimation techniques to quantify the size of effects. Independent variables were those measuring individual HPWPs,

which were regressed on both *perceived job stability* and *turnover intentions*. Two main findings are emphasised.

Of the original twenty variables measuring HPWPs, nine were found in Chapter 7 to have significant direct effects on *perceived job stability* and *turnover intentions*, namely (1) *person-job skills match*; (2) *training during working hours*; (3) *useful training*; (4) *open-ended contract*; (5) *pay*; (6) *social benefits*; (7) *organisational objectives knowledge*; (8) *task variety*; and (9) *representation body*. The seven core HRM areas and the three components of the AMO model are all present. These findings support hypotheses H1 and H3 that HPWPs in general are beneficial for job stability. Results also support the widespread assumption that staff retention is one of the expected outcomes of HPWPs.

Findings also support the hypotheses H2 and H4 that job security provision – measured via the variable *open-ended contract* – is the individual HPWP that has the largest effect on both *perceived job stability* and *turnover intentions*, thus allowing for ranking this HPWP as the top provider of job stability. In other words, *open-ended contract* has the greatest effect at increasing employee perception of job stability and at diminishing the intention to leave the job. Thus, establishing open-ended employment relationships has, first, a clear positive impact on employee perception of job stability, which is in turn beneficial in terms of worker well-being, and, secondly, a hindering effect on turnover intentions, favourable at both the individual and the organisational levels.

The existence of association and the sign of the association are in line with the expectations as to the aim of job stability-fostering practices and supports previous similar empirical evidence (Godard and Delaney, 2000; Combs et al., 2006; Erlinghagen, 2008; Clark and Postel-Vinay, 2009; Liu et al., 2009; Messersmith and Guthrie, 2010; Muñoz de Bustillo and De Pedraza, 2010; Silla et al., 2010; Linz and Semykina, 2012). Therefore, the main contribution in this respect derives from the quantification of the effects that individual HPWPs have on job stability, following that the magnitude of effects has been little studied in previous research. The first finding is that *open-ended contract* has the largest effect on both *perceived job stability* and *turnover intentions*.

In sum, hypotheses H2 and H4 are supported by the results. Establishing open-ended employment relationships has a positive impact on the perception of job stability, in turn beneficial for worker well-being, while such effect is larger than any of those by other practices. In addition, turnover intentions are diminished, which is simultaneously positive for the individual and beneficial at the organisational level, for it positively contributes to staff

retention. The effect of *open-ended contract* on *turnover intentions* is also greater than any of those for other practices.

This study contributes to the debate on HPWPs as providers of job security, which in turn is a central dimension of job quality. Given that effects are quantified, it shows that a practice specifically oriented at fostering job security – *open-ended contract* – has the greatest desired impact on both perceived job stability and *turnover intentions*, while other practices have smaller effects. In other words, being on an open-ended contract of employment increases the likelihood of perceiving very high job stability and decreases the intention to leave the job to a greater extent than any other of the practices considered. This is the case of training during working hours and useful training (training); skills utilisation (recruitment and selection); pay and social benefits (rewards, both monetary and non-monetary); organisational objectives knowledge (information sharing); task variety (job enrichment); and indirect collective voice (employee voice).

Additionally, whereas both monetary and non-monetary rewards – *pay* and *social benefits*, respectively –, are usually classed as motivation-enhancing practices and therefore oriented towards staff retention, the other practices mentioned are categorised as either ability- or opportunity-enhancing. This means that there are HPWPs that have positive effects in terms of job security provision, even though they are originally aimed at increasing employee skills and qualification – selection and recruitment, training –, or at fostering the opportunity to contribute in the organisation – information sharing, task variety, employee voice. Still, this study provides empirical evidence about the positive effect of ability- and opportunity-enhancing individual practices on employee perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions, which is the second finding. Subsequently, one contribution of this study is that it offers additional support for the high-performance paradigm and the consideration of HPWPs as an end in themselves, for they enhance employee involvement and may also be an important means of providing justice and equality of opportunity (Wall and Wood, 2005:458). Also, this has implications for job quality in that HRM areas that are considered to integrate the multidimensional nature of job quality, such as skills and qualification, training, rewards, and job enrichment, are fostering job stability at the same time.

Summing up, individual HPWPs pertaining to the seven core HRM areas considered have been found to contribute positively to employee perception of job stability and negatively to voluntary turnover intentions. Further, job security provision – measured via the variable *open-ended contract* – is the individual HPWP of those analysed that has the greatest explanatory

power. Findings in the present study suggest that different individual HPWPs do positively influence worker well-being via perception of job stability and that variables categorised under the other six core HRM areas considered also have a positive, yet smaller, effect. Similarly, the negative impact on turnover intentions signifies positive outcomes at both the individual and organisational levels. Therefore, these findings strengthen the connection between the HPWPs and the job quality literatures.

Last, it is worth mentioning that no significant effect was found for two variables in particular, namely *performance-bay pay* and *profit sharing*, on either *employee perception of job stability* or *turnover intentions*. Being both included under the rewards HRM area and measuring practices classed as motivation-enhancing by the AMO model, according to the high-performance paradigm they were expected to foster staff retention. However, this research does not provide empirical evidence to sustain such assumption.

9.6 Job stability-fostering HPWPs and overall job satisfaction: the moderating role of social exchange

The fourth research question proposed in the Introduction of this study (Section 1.4) and further developed in Chapter 4 posed to assess the role of social exchange in the relationship between job stability-fostering HPWPs and overall job satisfaction. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, no previous studies have focused on the association between this specific type of HPWPs, i.e. those which foster job stability, and job satisfaction.

The individual practices that were considered in this last set of analyses were those found to positively contribute to job stability. These practices were measured via the nine variables listed in Section 9.5, thus the seven core HRM areas considered in this study and the three components of the AMO model are represented.

The measurement of social exchange focused on two basic dimensions, namely trust in superiors and the quality of relationships between superiors and subordinates. Three possible scenarios of social exchange were considered. First, *poor social exchange*, characterised by low trust and poor relationships quality. Second, *midrange social exchange*, encompassing a) low trust and good quality of relationships or b) high trust and poor quality of relationships. Third, *rich social exchange*, defined by high trust and good quality of relationships. This operationalisation of social exchange lead to the first main finding, throwing a striking descriptive result as to the

most and least prevalent types of social exchange among private sector employees in Spain: more than half of these report social exchange in the workplace to be poor and those who perceive it as rich represent the smallest share.

On the basis of the fourth research question, it was hypothesised in Section 4.4.2 that social exchange positively moderates the relationship between individual stability-fostering HPWPs and job satisfaction. Findings in Chapter 8 support hypotheses H5-H7. The second main finding is underlined next.

Results show that the association between each and every one of the nine variables measuring HPWPs and *job satisfaction* is positive and statistically significant. Further, social exchange positively moderates the association between job stability-fostering practices and overall job satisfaction. In other words, social exchange facilitates the positive relationship between every individual HPWP – regardless of the broad HRM area that it is classed under – considered and overall job satisfaction. The present findings are in line with those by Alfes et al. (2012) for the UK, whilst supporting the proposition by Dirks and Ferrin (2001) that social exchange moderates the relationship between factors and attitudinal employee outcomes. Nevertheless, these results contradict those for Italy of Innocenti et al. (2011) that social exchange only moderates the relationship between the motivation-enhancing dimension of the AMO model and employee attitudes (with job satisfaction being one of its components).

In short, the second main finding suggests that those individual HPWPs that positively contribute to job stability are also beneficial for overall job satisfaction and that social exchange amplifies the relationship. This has important implications for the literature on job quality and research on worker well-being, given that (a) the quality of workplace relationships is one of the dimensions of job quality, (b) worker well-being is an expected outcome of job quality, and (c) job satisfaction is an indicator of worker subjective well-being. Further, findings in the present study support the connection between HRM and job quality.

Following the distinction of three scenarios of social exchange – poor, midrange, rich –, it is possible to observe differences in the impact of HRM practices on job satisfaction depending on the quality of relationships in the workplace. When social exchange is absent or poor, *person-job skills match*, *organisational objectives knowledg*e and *useful training* are the variables that display higher positive effects on job satisfaction. Under a rich social exchange scenario, the greatest effects on job satisfaction are found for *person-job skills match*, *useful training*, *organisational objectives knowledge* and *training during working hours*.

This study also quantified the moderating effect of social exchange in the association between individual job stability-fostering practices and overall job satisfaction. Results indicate that social exchange exerts a highly powerful positive moderating effect in the relationship between individual job stability-fostering HPWPs and overall job satisfaction. The moderating effect of social exchange on job satisfaction is strongest for *task variety*, followed by *open-ended contract*, *pay* and *social benefits*. Therefore, social exchange plays a key role in enhancing the positive effect on job satisfaction of individual practices that are classed under three of the seven broad HRM areas: job enrichment (*task variety*), job security (*open-ended contract*) and rewards (both monetary, *high pay*, and non-monetary, *social benefits*). In turn, social exchange is more effective in facilitating overall job satisfaction via the motivation (job security and rewards) and opportunity (job enrichment) components of the AMO model.

As for the type of moderation, it is found to be full moderation in the majority of cases. This means that individual HPWPs have a positive effect on overall job satisfaction, regardless of the level of social exchange, i.e. poor, midrange or rich, but such effect is larger for richer social exchange scenarios. Only the relationship of two of the nine variables – *training during working hours* and *representation body* – with *job satisfaction* is found to be partially moderated by social exchange. Although not very common in the empirical literature, Alfes et al. (2012) also report finding partial moderation of social exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and employee outcomes. The present results mean that these two variables (*training during working hours* and *representation body*) are positively associated to *job satisfaction* when social exchange is midrange or rich – the size of the effect being larger for rich social exchange –, but there is no statistical association when social exchange is poor. This lack of statistical association of *training during working hours* and *representation body* with *job satisfaction* under poor social exchange has important implications, which are discussed next.

Partial moderation implies that, under a poor social exchange scenario, individuals may not have very high overall job satisfaction even when fair HPWPs are implemented, well communicated by the organisation and positively perceived by employees. In other words, investing in HPWPs may not result in higher employee satisfaction when relationships in the workplace are characterised by low trust and poor quality. Subsequently, there is a cost in terms of employee job satisfaction that the organisation must endure, thus supporting the postulate by Emerson (1976) that the social exchange approach in Sociology may be assumed to be the economic analysis of a non-economic situation.

Summing up, results show that the positive effects of job stability-fostering HPWPs on overall job satisfaction are enhanced by the quality of social exchange in the workplace. The identification of the quality of workplace relationships as an important dimension of job quality in the literature is thus supported by the results in this study. Also, in practical terms, the social exchange approach should be of much interest for organisations in that it facilitates the positive relationship between HPWPs and overall job satisfaction without direct monetary cost. Organisations in general and HRM departments in particular should then consider ensuring trusting and high quality relationships in the workplace among their priorities. This is not being accomplished in the private sector in Spain, following that this study has found that poor social exchange, i.e. low trust in superiors and poor quality of management-staff relationships, is reported by more than half of employees.

9.7 Summary and main implications

This research provides empirical evidence of the positive direct impact of individual HPWPs on employee perception of job stability, as well as of the negative direct impact of practices on voluntary turnover intentions. Results show that, when private sector employees in Spain are affected by HPWPs, they are more likely to report very high perceived job stability and less so to intend leaving the job. It must be stressed that individual practices from any of the seven core HRM areas considered have such effects, i.e. these effects were not exclusively found for practices that are explicitly aimed at providing job security, as it was highlighted in Section 9.5. With respect to social exchange – a concept operationalised via trust in superiors and the quality of relationships between superiors and subordinates –, findings indicate that it facilitates the positive relationship between job stability-fostering HPWPs and overall job satisfaction. In sum, this study provides empirical evidence that supports the appropriateness of SET as an effective analytical framework to study the effect of HRM practices on worker well-being. In other words, SET is found to be highly useful to investigate the *black box* of HRM. Thus, being HPWPs a central aspect in shaping positive employee attitudes and behaviour, organisations should not ignore the importance that the quality of workplace relationships has for worker satisfaction.

Nevertheless, the potential of HPWPs in the private sector in Spain is far from being fully utilised. First, as a consequence of the low coverage of some individual practices, such as high pay, social benefits and task variety. This has important costs in terms of employee well-being, given that these practices have been found to increase both employee perception of job stability and overall job satisfaction, as well as to diminish voluntary turnover intentions. Second, more than half of private sector employees report working in a workplace characterised by poor quality

relationships and low trust in superiors. This means that organisations are not taking full advantage of the enhancing power that richer social exchange has in the positive impact of HPWPs on overall job satisfaction. Subsequently, fostering high pay, social benefits, task variety, and high-quality and trusting workplace relationships would substantially improve worker well-being by increasing overall job satisfaction and employee perception of job stability, as well as by decreasing voluntary turnover intentions.

In short, HPWPs and social exchange have been found to have positive effects on worker well-being – greater overall job satisfaction, higher employee perception of job stability, and lower voluntary turnover intentions. Yet, the fact that some such practices only cover a small share of individuals and that the majority of employees report poor workplace relationships implies that there is still much room for improvement when it comes to improve worker well-being via HPWPs in the private sector in Spain.

As it was discussed in Section 9.3, some HRM practices have been found to cover a large share of private sector employees in Spain, such as skills utilisation, job security provision and teamwork. First, results show that skills utilisation increases employee perception of job stability and diminishes voluntary turnover intentions, thus fostering job stability. Further, it is with respect to the positive impact of skills utilisation on overall job satisfaction that social exchange has the greatest enhancing power. Second, job security provision (*open-ended contract*) has been found to (1) have the largest impact on both employee perception of job stability (*perceived job stability*) and voluntary turnover intentions (*turnover intentions*) and (2) greatly increase its positive effect on overall job satisfaction if social exchange is rich. Thus, average worker well-being might be higher if the share of open-ended over fixed-term contracts was larger. And third, no significant effects have been found for *teamwork* – the individual HPWP that covers the largest number of private sector employees in Spain – with respect to *perceived job stability* and *turnover intentions*. However, it must be stressed that teamwork (1) has not been found to be detrimental either and (2) may well be beneficial if different employee outcomes are considered.

In short, high pay, social benefits and task variety have been found to have positive direct effects on employee perception of job stability, as well as negative direct effects on voluntary turnover intentions. Also, the positive impact that these three individual HPWPs have on overall job satisfaction is enhanced by social exchange. Therefore, findings support the connection between the HRM and the job quality literatures. However, the coverage of these three work management practices has been found to be low in terms of private sector employees in Spain.

This means that their full potential on worker attitudes and behaviour is not being seized. Thus, this study offers evidence to back the promotion of open-ended employment relationships, greater monetary (high pay) and non-monetary (social benefits) rewards, and task variety in the job design, as a consequence of their significant and substantial positive impact on employee attitudes and behaviour. Finally, by simultaneously fostering trusting and high-quality relationships between management and subordinates, the impact of stability-fostering HPWPs on overall job satisfaction may be enhanced greatly, hence improving worker well-being. Therefore, findings in this study encourage to consider the moderating role of social exchange to address the relationship between HRM practices and employee outcomes. In this manner, SET is found to be an appropriate analytical framework to investigate the *black box* of HRM.

In conclusion, implementing job stability-fostering HPWPs and nurturing the quality of relationships that develop in the workplace is beneficial at both the individual and the organisational levels. Also, differences have been identified according to the empirical evidence found for private sector employees in Spain with respect to overall job satisfaction, perception of job stability and turnover intentions.

CHAPTER X

CONCLUSIONS

10 CONCLUSIONS

10.1 Introduction

The global objective of this study was to shed light on the effects of HPWPs on employee well-being, paying special attention to job security, as well as to investigate how the relationships occur. Specifically, the direct effects of individual HRM practices on attitudinal and behavioural dimensions of job security – employee perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions, respectively – were examined. In this manner, practices that positively contribute to job stability were identified. Next, the moderating role of social exchange was examined with respect to the relationship between job stability-fostering practices and employee subjective well-being, measured via overall job satisfaction. A review of previous theoretical and empirical literature on three main subjects, namely the high-performance paradigm, job quality and SET, led to the proposition of a set of research questions and hypotheses. These were tested using a representative sample of private sector employees in Spain, drawing on data from the WLQS.

To allow for a comprehensive approach to HPWPs, seven broad HRM areas that represent key components of the high-performance paradigm were selected, based on influential studies by Kochan and Osterman (1994), Pfeffer (1998), Jiang et al. (2012), Posthuma et al. (2013) and Guest (2017). Said areas are (1) selection and recruitment; (2) training; (3) job security; (4) rewards; (5) information sharing; (6) job enrichment; and (7) employee voice. These seven areas are central dimensions of job quality, too, thus granting an added scope to the research. Further, both the high-performance and job quality literatures highlight the crucial relevance of job security.

This study contributes to the existing knowledge on HRM by evaluating the coverage of an inclusive set of individual management practices, assessing the effects of such practices on job stability, and investigating the moderating role of workplace employment relations in the relationship between HPWPs and employee well-being. The impact of HPWPs on employee subjective well-being and the underlying processes and mechanisms by which effects on workers are produced have not been explored previously for the overall private sector in Spain.

Prior to testing the hypotheses, both the coverage of HPWPs and worker satisfaction with diverse HRM-related job features were explored for the private sector in Spain in what is, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, the most inclusive study of these characteristics for the country. Such mapping contextualises the subsequent findings regarding the power of HPWPs

as providers of job stability, and of social exchange as a key mechanism explaining the effects of HRM on employee well-being.

In respect to the research objectives of this study, the first one, to critically review the existing literature on HPWPs, job quality and social exchange, is addressed in Chapters 2, 3 and 4, respectively. The second, to draw connections between the high-performance paradigm and both employment quality and SET, is the focus of Chapters 3 and 4. The third (to operationalise HPWPs), fourth (to operationalise employee attitudes and behaviour) and fifth (to operationalise workplace social exchange) research objectives are approached theoretically in Chapters 2, 3 and 4, respectively, and methodologically in Chapter 5. The sixth, to increase the knowledge on the relationships between HPWPs and employee well-being, is addressed in Chapters 6, 7 and 8. And the seventh, to address the implications of results, in Chapter 9.

The rest of this chapter is structured as follows. Next, the theoretical framework in which this research is embedded is reviewed and the main empirical findings contextualised. After that, the contribution to knowledge is summarised and the limitations of the analysis are pointed out. Last, some avenues for future research are proposed.

10.2 Theoretical framework and empirical evidence

In order to perform an in-depth study of the impact of HPWPs on worker well-being, a set of seven core HRM areas was identified in Chapter 2 on the basis of the high-performance paradigm (Guest, 1999; Appelbaum et al., 2000; Macky and Boxall, 2007; Wood et al., 2012) and the job quality (Dahl et al., 2009; Muñoz de Bustillo et al., 2009; Peña-Casas, 2009; OECD, 2014) literatures reviewed in Chapters 2 and 3. Said HRM areas are (1) *selection and recruitment*; (2) *training*; (3) *job security*; (4) *rewards*; (5) *information sharing*; (6) *job enrichment*; and (7) *employee voice*. Also, the three components of the AMO model (Jiang et al., 2012; Kroon et al., 2013; Bos-Nehles et al., 2013), namely (a) *ability*, (b) *motivation* and (c) *opportunity to contribute*, are all covered by such HRM areas (1 and 2; 3 and 4; and 5 to 7, respectively). Further, the seven broad HRM areas were expected to positively contribute to employee well-being, given that they are all identified as important dimensions of job quality by the literature on this subject. Thus, it was possible to do a comprehensive selection of individual work management practices that are understood to be beneficial from both the HPWPs and the quality of employment perspectives. In Chapter 5, HPWPs were operationalised in twenty variables to allow for the statistical analyses required to test the research questions and hypotheses

proposed in the previous three chapters, and twelve satisfaction items were selected to assess worker satisfaction.

This allowed for evaluating the coverage of HPWPs in the private sector in Spain. Empirical results based on frequencies estimates show that individual HPWPs differ greatly in terms of employee coverage (Chapter 6). Teamwork, job security provision – measured via *open-ended contract* – and skills utilisation are widely spread among private sector workers in Spain. Practices found to be very scarce are telework, high pay, performance-based pay, social benefits and task variety. As for worker self-assessment of job features, results on average satisfaction levels show that employees have medium-high levels of satisfaction with the work itself, personal development, job security and the job overall, rather low satisfaction with pay and dissatisfaction with social benefits. Consequently, the motivational component of the high-performance paradigm is particularly deficient among private sector employees in Spain in terms of rewards, both monetary and non-monetary, provided by the organisation. In sum, HPWPs overall are not widely spread among private sector employees in Spain, whose satisfaction is medium-high with most job features, except for rewards.

Next, based on the notion that job security is both a cornerstone HPWP (Walton, 1985; Pfeffer, 1998; Posthuma et al., 2013) and a central dimension of job quality (ETUC, 2015; ILO, 2015; OECD, 2014; Eurofound, 2017), the study identified the individual practices that are beneficial for job stability. Relationships between HPWPs and both employee perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions were tested by means of multivariate statistical analyses, further complemented with post-estimation techniques for quantifying the magnitude of the effects. This allowed for discerning those effects that are substantial from those that are not so much. Results are presented in Chapter 7, where nine out of the original twenty independent variables measuring HPWPs show substantial statistical associations with *perceived job stability* and *turnover intentions*. The nine variables, ordered by the magnitude of effect, are: *open-ended contract*; *pay*; *training during working hours*; *person-job skills match*; *social benefits*; *organisational objectives knowledge*; *representation body*; *useful training*; and *task variety*. The relevance of the seven broad HRM areas initially selected and of the three dimensions of the AMO model was confirmed.

Job security provision – measured via *open-ended contract* – is the individual HRM practice that has the largest effect on employee perception of job stability (positive) and voluntary turnover intentions (negative), as expected. This supports hypotheses H2 and H4. *Training during working hours*, *person-job skills match*, *social benefits*, and *task variety* have smaller positive direct

effects of the expected sign on both dependent variables. O*rganisational objectives knowledge* has a positive effect on *perceived job stability* solely. *Pay*, *representation body* and *useful training* negatively affect *turnover intentions* solely, showing no direct effects on *perceived job stability*. In short, whereas job security provision (measured via *open-ended contract*) is the individual HPWP that ranks first according to the size of its positive effect on *perceived job stability* and of its negative effect on *turnover intentions*, empirical results show that many other practices which do not explicitly aim at fostering staff retention by providing job security also have positive if smaller effects than *open-ended contract*. This is the case of some personnel management practices that are not commonly considered motivation-enhancers: training and skills utilisation (ability-enhancers) and task variety, information sharing, and employee voice (opportunity-enhancers). These findings show that valued job features positively contribute to the perception of job stability, thus supporting that HPWPs may reduce both job tenure and job status stability (Gallie et al, 2017).

The theoretical deficit of the high-performance paradigm in terms of its explanatory power of worker outcomes (Ramsay et al., 2000; Boxall et al., 2011) was approached from a sociological perspective. Specifically, SET (Homans, 1958; Blau, 1964) was used as the theoretical framework to improve the understanding about the underlying mechanisms by which HRM may shape employee attitudes and behaviour. The adequacy of SET to study how HRM impacts workers is addressed in Chapter 4, with Section 4.3 offering support for the consideration of social exchange as a moderator.

The operationalisation of social exchange was carried out adopting an inclusive approach that simultaneously considers two of its core dimensions, namely trust in superiors and quality of management-staff relationships. Descriptive results in Chapter 6 show that as many as 60% of private sector employees in Spain assess social exchange in the workplace to be poor, i.e. they report low-trusting and poor-quality relationships. As few as 20% of workers perceive social exchange in the workplace to be rich, i.e. a working environment characterised by high-trusting and good-quality relationships.

Results derived from the final set of analyses, where the moderating role that social exchange plays in the association between individual job stability-fostering HPWPs and employee well-being is assessed via logistic regressions, are presented in Chapter 8. Findings support hypotheses H5-H7 that social exchange facilitates the relationship between HPWPs and both overall job satisfaction and perception of job stability, and that it hinders voluntary turnover intentions. Therefore, it is concluded that trusting and good-quality relationships are highly

relevant for the positive effects of individual new HRM practices on employee attitudes and behaviour (Dirks and Ferrin, 2001; Innocenti et al., 2011; Alfes et al., 2012 and 2013; Guest, 2017).

Results show that the moderating effect is greater for *job satisfaction* than for *perceived job stability* and *turnover intentions*. Further, social exchange is found to fully moderate the effect on overall job satisfaction of all but one of the nine independent variables measuring job stability-fostering HPWPs. The exception is *representation body* (measuring indirect collective voice) for which partial moderation is found instead. This implies that the existence of such a body has no positive effect on overall job satisfaction if trust in superiors is low and the quality of management-staff relationships is poor.

A global conclusion from the joint findings of this research is that the full potential of HPWPs as providers of employee well-being is underused in the private sector in Spain. First, as a consequence of the weak coverage in terms of workers of most of the HRM practices considered that are found to positively contribute to job stability, and especially in the case of high pay, social benefits, and task variety. And second, due to most individuals experiencing both low trust in superiors and poor relationships with management in the workplace, thus missing out on the positive moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and employee attitudes and behaviour.

10.3 Contribution to knowledge

This study contributes to the existing knowledge on HRM and employee outcomes at the empirical, analytical, methodological, practical, and theoretical levels.

On an empirical level, it is the first in-depth study of HPWPs and employee well-being in Spain that may be generalised for the private sector overall, to the best of the researcher's knowledge. In comparison with previous studies, it is also distinctively comprehensive in the range of individual HRM practices and satisfaction items, covering seven broad HRM areas commonly considered to be crucial components of the high-performance paradigm, and representing central dimensions of job quality. Also, this research explicitly considers job enrichment and employee voice, two HRM areas that are key for employee involvement and that have been somehow neglected by the empirical literature (Wood and Wall, 2007). Effects on employee well-being of HPWPs are quantified, as opposed to the majority of previous research on the impact of HRM on employee outcomes. Besides establishing the statistical significance and the

sign of effects, their magnitude is also estimated, making possible to identify the individual HPWPs that contribute the most to employee well-being.

At the analytical level, an inclusive model of HPWPs encompassing seven broad HRM areas is drawn from a comprehensive review of the literatures on HPWPs and job quality. The model serves as a general analytical framework to evaluate the effect of such type of practices on employee outcomes and it is subject to be tested under different national contexts. This study is also the first of its characteristics to jointly evaluate trust in superiors and quality of management-staff relationships in private sector workplaces in Spain. Also, the research adopts the worker perspective approach (Elorza et al 2011; Brewster et al 2013; Jiang et al 2017): HPWPs coverage is reported by employees themselves, hence providing information on how private sector workers in Spain evaluate HPWPs. i.e. the "worker's verdict" (Guest 1999; Glover et al 2014). Finally, this study strengthens the view of overall job satisfaction as a useful indicator of worker subjective well-being (Muñoz de Bustillo et al., 2011b) and of the lived experience of work (Brown et al., 2012).

At the methodological level, the measurement of social exchange is, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, an original contribution of this research. Following a review of the literature, social exchange is operationalised taking into account its multidimensional nature. Thus, said measure is built upon two core components of social exchange, namely trust and relationships quality. The manner in which the measure of social exchange is built allows for differentiating three distinct scenarios – poor, midrange, and rich – in order to assess the moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and employee well-being. This is a novel approach with respect to the one that is generally adopted when investigating moderating effects. As opposed to merely looking for statistically significant associations to test moderation – and establish the sign of such associations –, this study quantifies the magnitude of the moderating effect for each category of the measure of social exchange.

At the practical level, this study has implications for policy-design and organisations. The low coverage of some of the individual practices that were found to be beneficial at the individual level in terms of overall job satisfaction, perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions – which is also beneficial at the organisational level in terms of staff retention –, means that positive effects of HPWPs on employee well-being are being missed out. The facilitating role of social exchange in said relationships is similarly missed, with the majority of private sector employees in Spain reporting poor social exchange in the workplace. Empirical

findings also encourage the consideration of HPWPs to foster the quality of employment advised by different supranational organisations. Further, the negative impact on voluntary turnover intentions found for the eight practices listed in the previous section has implications at the organisational level, ever since turnover intentions have the consideration of a proxy for staff turnover and one of the objectives pursued by HPWPs is precisely preventing that employees leave the organisation. In sum, greater worker coverage of job stability-fostering HPWPs would improve employee well-being significantly in the private sector in Spain. Said improvement would be further enhanced should organisations grant greater importance to the quality of relationships in the workplace, in line with the recommendation by Kochan and Osterman (1994) of broadly adopting HPWPs to attain and sustain mutual gains for organisations and employees, and ultimately for the overall society.

At the theoretical level, findings in this research provide empirical evidence of the connection between the HRM and the job quality literatures. Further, social exchange is a measure of workplace climate, one of the components of job quality, and it has been found to enhance the positive effects of HPWPs on worker well-being, an indirect measure of job quality.

10.4 Limitations of the study

In this section, some limitations of the research are pointed out. First, causality cannot be inferred from the analyses from a statistically point of view, given the cross-sectional nature of the research design. At the same time, considering the nature of the three dependent variables in the inferential analyses for measuring employee attitudes and behaviour, and that of the main independent variables for measuring individual HPWPs, the direction of the relationships is clear. In other words, the statistical analyses performed allow for identifying those HPWPs that have a strong explanatory power in terms of overall job satisfaction, employee perception of job stability, and turnover intentions.

Second, with respect to measurement, results may be affected by single-respondent – also known as common-rater – and social desirability biases (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Single-respondent bias means that relationships among variables may be somehow biased, given that the analyses performed rely on a single data source, i.e. both outcome and independent variables are rated by the same informant in the WLQS. Social desirability bias refers to the risk of providing an answer that is affected by what the respondent believes to be socially acceptable and thus not completely true. Regarding the effects of HPWPs that have been tested, this study exclusively focuses on the individual effects of each practice considered, meaning that the

effects that may emerge as a consequence of the synergies produced via the combination of different HPWPs are not investigated here – this is the approach taken by a different line of research that analyses the effects of bundles of HRM practices (MacDuffie, 1995; Subramony, 2009; Kroon et al., 2013).

Third, whereas results may be generalised for the overall private sector in Spain, findings may not be applicable to other countries and labour market contexts. At the same time, results may be subject to comparison against those of similar studies for other countries.

Two additional limitations of the research are connected to the interruption of the WLQS from 2010. The predictive power of HPWPs in general and job security provision in particular – as measured via *open-ended contract* – might have since varied with regard to employee perception of job stability and voluntary turnover intentions on account of the two successive labour reforms. Also, given that 1.87 million jobs were destroyed by the end of 2010 as a consequence of the 2008 economic downturn, the strength of the moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between HPWPs and the three employee outcomes analysed may be in part mirroring its special relevance in times of uncertainty or economic crisis, as pointed out by Searle and Dietz (2012).

10.5 Avenues for future research

Some avenues for future research are here proposed to further the knowledge on HPWPs and employee well-being, including overcoming the limitations brought up in the previous section.

First, similar analyses might be performed using longitudinal data, thus allowing for inferring causal relationships from a statistical point of view.

Second, management responses may be incorporated following the propositions by authors like Brewster et al. (2013), who suggest that line managers must be considered key agents when assessing how HRM practices impact employee outcomes. This would enable to adopt a complementary perspective where the unit of analysis are workers with a managerial role, hence capturing their perception of social exchange to evaluate to which extent that moderates the relationship between HPWPs and employee outcomes.

Third, the approximation to HPWPs that is adopted in this study, i.e. via individual practices, might be changed so as to consider bundles of practices. This approach would allow for assessing

the combined effects that may result from the synergies derived from different individual practices that are simultaneously in place.

Additionally, two more avenues for future research may be proposed to expand the analysis in terms of its geographical scope and the time period it covers. Fifth, to expand the analysis to EU countries would allow to establish the level of country-specificity of the results.

Sixth, it is also proposed to draw on more recent data to assess the job security dimension of HPWPs, and to evaluate the moderating role of social exchange in the relationship between individual HPWPs and employee well-being. Besides extending the analysis for the years 2011-2014, it would be of particular interest to consider a period of employment creation – 2015 and 2016 so far – to analyse if job stability and the strength of the moderating role of workplace social exchange is affected by the economic cycle.

Nonetheless, adopting a worker perspective approach, this piece of research provides wide evidence about the benefits of HPWPs on employee subjective well-being, measured indirectly via overall job satisfaction but also in terms of perceived job stability and voluntary turnover intentions. In addition, the latter employee outcome may also be considered to provide useful information from an organisational perspective as a proxy for staff turnover. Moreover, social exchange has been found to facilitate the positive relationship between individual practices and each of the three employee outcomes considered, thus being identified as important to understand how the two are associated. Further, the findings in this research may encourage a wide range of complementary studies, following the avenues for future research that have been suggested.

CONCLUSIONES EN ESPAÑOL

Introducción

El objetivo global de este estudio ha sido aportar evidencia sobre los efectos de las PAR en el bienestar de los trabajadores, prestando especial atención a la seguridad en el empleo, así como investigar cómo se producen tales efectos. En concreto, se examinaron los efectos directos de las PAR en la percepción de estabilidad y en la intención de abandono del puesto de trabajo, identificando de esta manera las prácticas individuales que contribuyen positivamente a la percepción de estabilidad del trabajo. A continuación, se examinó el rol moderador del intercambio social en la relación entre las prácticas que contribuyen a la estabilidad laboral y el bienestar subjetivo de los trabajadores, medido a través de la satisfacción laboral global. Una revisión de la literatura teórica y empírica previa sobre tres temas principales (PAR, calidad del empleo y TIS) derivó en la propuesta de una serie de preguntas e hipótesis de investigación. Éstas se contrastaron utilizando una muestra de ocupados del sector privado en España representativa a nivel estatal, basándose en datos de la ECVT.

Con el fin de posibilitar la adopción de un enfoque integral de las PAR, se seleccionaron siete grandes políticas de RRHH que representan componentes clave de la lógica tras dichas prácticas, a partir de los influyentes estudios de Pfeffer (1998), Jiang et al. (2012), Posthuma et al. (2013) y Guest (2017). Tales áreas son selección y reclutamiento; formación; provisión de seguridad del empleo; remuneración; información; enriquecimiento del puesto de trabajo; y voz. Estas siete áreas son también dimensiones centrales de la calidad del trabajo, lo que confiere un doble alcance a la investigación. Además, tanto la literatura sobre PAR como la de calidad del empleo destacan la importancia crucial de la seguridad del empleo.

Este estudio contribuye al conocimiento existente sobre gestión de RRHH mediante la evaluación de la cobertura de un conjunto inclusivo de prácticas de gestión de mano de obra individuales, la evaluación de los efectos de tales prácticas sobre la estabilidad laboral y la valoración del papel moderador del intercambio social en el centro de trabajo en la relación entre PAR y bienestar de los trabajadores. El impacto de las PAR sobre el bienestar subjetivo de los trabajadores, y los procesos y mecanismos subyacentes por los que se produce dicho efecto, no han sido explorados con anterioridad para el conjunto del sector privado en España.

Antes de comprobar las hipótesis, se exploró tanto la cobertura de las PAR entre los ocupados por cuenta ajena en el sector privado en España como su satisfacción con diversas características del puesto de trabajo relacionadas con las PAR, en lo que es, en la medida del conocimiento del

investigador, el estudio más inclusivo de estas características para el país. El mapa de cobertura de las PAR permitió contextualizar los resultados con respecto a la capacidad de las mismas como proveedoras de estabilidad laboral, y al papel del intercambio social como mecanismo clave que explica los efectos de la gestión de RRHH en el bienestar de los trabajadores.

En cuanto a los objetivos de investigación de este estudio, el primero, revisar críticamente la literatura existente sobre PAR, calidad del empleo e intercambio social, se aborda en los Capítulos 2, 3 y 4, respectivamente. El segundo, establecer conexiones entre las PAR y la calidad del empleo y entre las PAR y la TIS, se trata en los Capítulos 3 y 4. Los objetivos de investigación tercero (operacionalizar las PAR), cuarto (operacionalizar las actitudes y comportamiento de los trabajadores) y quinto (operacionalizar el intercambio social en el centro de trabajo) se abordan teóricamente en los Capítulos 2, 3 y 4, respectivamente, y metodológicamente en el Capítulo 5. El sexto objetivo, aumentar el conocimiento sobre las relaciones entre las PAR y el bienestar de los empleados, se aborda en los Capítulos 6, 7 y 8. Y el séptimo, abordar las implicaciones de los resultados, en el Capítulo 9.

El resto de este capítulo está estructurado como sigue. A continuación, se repasa el marco teórico en el que se encuadra esta investigación y se contextualizan los principales resultados empíricos. Después, se resumen las aportaciones de este estudio y se señalan las limitaciones del análisis. Por último, se proponen algunas vías para futuras investigaciones.

Marco teórico y evidencia empírica

Con el fin de realizar un estudio en profundidad del impacto de las PAR sobre el bienestar de los trabajadores, en el Capítulo 2 se identificaron siete grandes áreas de gestión de RRHH a partir del paradigma de las PAR (Guest, 1999; Appelbaum et al., 2000; Macky y Boxall, 2007; Wood et al., 2012) y de la literatura sobre la calidad del empleo (Dahl et al., 2009; Muñoz de Bustillo et al., 2009; Peña-Casas, 2009; OCDE, 2014), revisados en los Capítulos 2 y 3, respectivamente. Dichas áreas de RRHH son (1) selección y reclutamiento; (2) formación; (3) provisión de seguridad laboral; (4) remuneración; (5) información; (6) enriquecimiento del puesto de trabajo; y (7) voz. Además, los tres componentes del modelo AMO – según sus siglas en inglés, *ability*, *motivation*, *opportunity to contribute* –, a) habilidades, b) motivación y c) oportunidad de contribuir (Jiang et al., 2012; Bos-Nehles et al., 2013; Kroon et al., 2013;), están representados por dichas áreas de RRHH (1 y 2; 3 y 4; y 5 a 7, respectivamente). Además, se esperaba que las siete grandes áreas de RRHH contribuyeran positivamente al bienestar de los empleados, ya que todas ellas fueron identificadas como dimensiones importantes de la calidad del empleo por la literatura sobre este tema. Por lo tanto, fue posible hacer una selección exhaustiva de las

prácticas individuales de gestión del trabajo que se consideran beneficiosas tanto desde la perspectiva de las PAR como desde la de la calidad del empleo. En el Capítulo 5, se seleccionan veinte variables para medir las PAR, así como doce ítems de satisfacción para poder llevar a cabo los análisis estadísticos requeridos para responder a las preguntas e hipótesis de investigación propuestas en los tres capítulos anteriores.

Los resultados empíricos sobre la cobertura de las PAR en el sector privado en España muestran que las prácticas individuales difieren mucho en términos de cobertura de empleados (Capítulo 4). El trabajo en equipo, la provisión de seguridad laboral – medida a través de la variable *contrato indefinido* – y la utilización de habilidades están ampliamente extendidas entre los trabajadores del sector privado en España. Las prácticas que más escasean son el teletrabajo, el salario elevado, el salario en función de resultados, los beneficios sociales y la variedad de tareas. En cuanto a la autoevaluación de las características de los puestos de trabajo, los resultados relativos a los niveles de satisfacción media muestran que los empleados tienen niveles medios y altos de satisfacción con el trabajo en sí mismo, el desarrollo personal, la seguridad del empleo y la satisfacción laboral en general, mientras que el nivel de satisfacción medio con el salario es bastante bajo y con los beneficios sociales existe insatisfacción. En consecuencia, el componente motivacional del modelo AMO es particularmente escaso entre los empleados del sector privado en España en términos de las recompensas, tanto monetarias como no monetarias, proporcionadas por la organización. En resumen, las PAR en general no están muy extendidas entre los empleados del sector privado en España, cuya satisfacción es media-alta con la mayoría de las características del trabajo, excepto con la remuneración.

A continuación, a partir de la noción de que la seguridad del empleo es tanto una piedra angular del paradigma de las PAR (Walton, 1985; Pfeffer, 1998; Posthuma et al., 2013) como una dimensión central de la calidad del empleo (OCDE, 2014; ETUC, 2015; OIT, 2015; Eurofound, 2017), se identificaron las prácticas individuales que contribuyen a la estabilidad laboral. Los efectos de las PAR y, tanto la percepción de estabilidad del puesto de trabajo como la intención de abandono del mismo, se analizaron mediante análisis estadísticos multivariantes, complementados con técnicas de post-estimación para cuantificar la magnitud de los efectos. Esto permitió diferenciar los efectos sustanciales de aquéllos que no lo son. Los resultados se presentan en el Capítulo 7, en el que nueve de las veinte variables independientes originales que miden las PAR muestran asociaciones estadísticas significativas con la percepción de estabilidad y con la intención de abandono. Las nueve variables, ordenadas en función del tamaño de su efecto, son: *contrato indefinido*; *sueldo elevado*; *formación en horario de trabajo*; *uso de habilidades*; *beneficios sociales*; *conocimiento de los objetivos de la organización*; *voz*;

formación útil; y *variedad de tareas*. Así, fue posible confirmar la relevancia de las siete grandes áreas de RRHH seleccionadas inicialmente y de las tres dimensiones del modelo AMO.

La provisión de seguridad del trabajo – medida a través de la variable *contrato indefinido* – es la práctica individual de RRHH que tiene el mayor efecto sobre la percepción de estabilidad laboral (positivo) y sobre la intención de abandonar el puesto de trabajo (negativo), tal y como se esperaba. Esto apoya las hipótesis H1a y H2a, respectivamente. *Formación en horario de trabajo*, *uso de habilidades*, *beneficios sociales* y *variedad de tareas* también tienen efectos directos del signo esperado en ambas variables dependientes. *Conocimiento de los objetivos de la organización* solo tiene efecto directo (positivo) en la percepción de estabilidad. *Salario elevado*, *voz* y *formación útil* solo tienen efecto directo (negativo) en la intención de abandonar el trabajo. En resumen, mientras que la provisión de seguridad del trabajo es la PAR individual que ocupa el primer lugar en función del tamaño de su efecto positivo sobre la percepción de la estabilidad laboral y su efecto negativo sobre la intención de abandonar el puesto de trabajo, también otras PAR que no buscan la retención de personal de manera explícita tienen efectos positivos. Éste es el caso de ciertas prácticas de gestión de personal que no están dirigidas a potenciar la motivación de los individuos, sino que se engloban dentro de las áreas de RRHH que buscan potenciar las habilidades de los trabajadores (formación, selección y reclutamiento) o la oportunidad de contribuir a la organización (enriquecimiento del puesto de trabajo, voz).

El déficit teórico del paradigma de las PAR a la hora de explicar sus efectos en los trabajadores (Ramsay et al., 2000; Boxall et al., 2011) se abordó desde una perspectiva sociológica. En concreto, la TIS (Homans, 1958; Blau, 1964) se utilizó como marco teórico para mejorar la comprensión de los mecanismos subyacentes mediante los cuales los RRHH pueden configurar las actitudes y el comportamiento de los empleados. La adecuación de la TIS para estudiar cómo las PAR afectan a los trabajadores se aborda en el Capítulo 4, argumentando en la Sección 4.3 el papel moderador que el intercambio social tiene en dicha relación. La operacionalización del intercambio social se llevó a cabo adoptando un enfoque inclusivo que considera simultáneamente dos aspectos fundamentales, la confianza en los superiores y la calidad de las relaciones entre superiores y subordinados. Los resultados descriptivos del Capítulo 6 muestran que hasta el 60% de los empleados del sector privado en España evalúan el intercambio social en su lugar de trabajo como pobre, es decir, confían poco en sus superiores y perciben las relaciones de mala calidad. Tan sólo el 20% de los trabajadores valora el intercambio social en su lugar de trabajo como rico, es decir, caracterizado por alta confianza en los superiores y relaciones de buena calidad.

Los resultados derivados de los últimos análisis se presentan en el Capítulo 8, donde se analiza, mediante regresiones logísticas, el rol moderador que el intercambio social juega en la relación entre las PAR que contribuyen a la estabilidad del trabajo y el bienestar de los trabajadores. Se obtiene evidencia que apoya las hipótesis H3, H4 y H5, que proponen que el intercambio social facilita la relación positiva entre las PAR y tanto la satisfacción laboral global (H3) como la percepción de estabilidad (H4), y obstaculiza la relación negativa entre las PAR y la intención de abandonar el trabajo (H5). Así, se concluye que las relaciones de confianza y de buena calidad son muy relevantes para los efectos positivos de las PAR individuales sobre las actitudes y el comportamiento de los empleados (Dirks y Ferrin, 2001; Innocenti et al., 2011; Alfes et al., 2012 y 2013; Guest, 2017).

Los resultados muestran que el efecto moderador es mayor para la satisfacción laboral que para la percepción de estabilidad del trabajo y la intención de abandonar el puesto. Además, se observa que el intercambio social tiene un efecto moderador total en el caso de la satisfacción laboral de ocho de las nueve variables que miden PAR y contribuyen a la estabilidad del trabajo. La excepción es *representación colectiva*, que mide la voz indirecta de los empleados en la organización, cuyo efecto sobre la satisfacción laboral es moderado parcialmente por el intercambio social. Esto implica que la existencia de un órgano que dota de voz a los trabajadores no tiene efecto positivo en la satisfacción laboral si la confianza en los superiores es baja y la calidad de las relaciones entre superiores y subordinados es pobre.

Como conclusión global de esta investigación, los resultados sugieren que el potencial de las PAR para mejorar el bienestar de los trabajadores está infrautilizado en el sector privado en España. En primer lugar, como consecuencia de la débil cobertura en términos de trabajadores de la mayoría de las PAR que contribuyen de manera positiva a la estabilidad laboral, especialmente en el caso de salarios elevados, beneficios sociales y variedad de tareas. Y segundo, debido a que la mayoría de los ocupados tienen una baja confianza en los superiores y perciben las relaciones entre éstos y sus subordinados en el centro de trabajo como malas, se dificulta así el papel moderador positivo del intercambio social en la relación entre las PAR y las actitudes y el comportamiento de los trabajadores.

Contribución al conocimiento

Este estudio contribuye al conocimiento existente sobre los efectos de las prácticas de RRHH y los trabajadores a nivel empírico, analítico, metodológico, práctico y teórico.

A nivel empírico, es el primer estudio en profundidad de PAR y bienestar de los individuos en España que puede ser generalizado para el sector privado. En comparación con investigaciones previas, es un estudio más inclusivo en términos del número y tipo de prácticas individuales y de satisfacción con diferentes características del puesto de trabajo consideradas. Abarca siete grandes bloques de RRHH considerados como componentes cruciales del paradigma de alto rendimiento, así como representantes de las dimensiones centrales de la calidad del empleo. Además, este estudio tiene en cuenta de forma explícita el enriquecimiento del puesto de trabajo y la voz de los empleados, dos áreas de RRHH que son clave para la participación de los trabajadores y que han sido de alguna manera descuidados por la literatura empírica (Wood y Wall, 2007). Por otro lado, además de establecer la significación estadística y el signo de los efectos, también se estima su magnitud, posibilitando así la identificación de las PAR individuales que contribuyen al bienestar de los empleados en mayor medida, a diferencia de la mayoría de estudios previos.

A nivel analítico, se diseña un modelo inclusivo de PAR que abarca siete grandes áreas de RRHH a partir de la revisión de la literatura sobre PAR y de la referida a la calidad del empleo. El modelo sirve como marco analítico general para evaluar el efecto de este tipo de prácticas en los trabajadores, siendo además susceptible de ser usado en diferentes contextos nacionales. Este estudio es también el primero de sus características que evalúa conjuntamente la confianza en los superiores y la calidad de las relaciones entre superiores y subordinados en los centros de trabajo del sector privado en España. Además, la investigación adopta la perspectiva del trabajador (Elorza et al 2011; Brewster et al 2013; Jiang et al 2017), de manera que son los propios empleados quienes informan sobre las PAR, proporcionando información sobre cómo los trabajadores del sector privado en España consideran las prácticas, contribuyendo así a arrojar luz sobre cuál es el "veredicto del trabajador" (Guest, 1999; Glover et al., 2014). Finalmente, este estudio refuerza la visión de la satisfacción laboral como un indicador del bienestar subjetivo del trabajador (Muñoz de Bustillo et al., 2011b) y de la experiencia vivida del trabajo (Brown et al., 2012).

A nivel metodológico, la medición del intercambio social es una contribución original de esta investigación. Tras una revisión de la literatura en la que se constata su naturaleza multidimensional, es operacionalizado teniendo en cuenta dos componentes básicos: la confianza y la calidad de las relaciones. La manera en que se construye la medida permite diferenciar tres escenarios: intercambio social pobre, medio y rico. Así, es posible evaluar el papel moderador del intercambio social en la relación entre las PAR y el bienestar de los empleados. Éste es un enfoque novedoso en comparación con el que generalmente se adopta

cuando se analiza la moderación. A diferencia de la simple búsqueda de asociaciones estadísticamente significativas para probar la moderación – y establecer el signo de tales asociaciones –, este estudio cuantifica la magnitud del efecto moderador para cada uno de los tres escenarios de intercambio social.

A nivel práctico, este estudio tiene implicaciones para las organizaciones y el diseño de políticas. La baja cobertura de algunas de las prácticas individuales que tienen efectos positivos en la satisfacción laboral, la percepción de estabilidad y la intención de abandono del puesto de trabajo, significa que no se está aprovechando la capacidad de las PAR de contribuir al bienestar de los trabajadores. Asimismo, no se está sacando provecho del papel facilitador del intercambio social en dichas relaciones, ya que la mayoría de los empleados del sector privado en España califican como pobre el intercambio social en su centro de trabajo. Los resultados empíricos también apoyan la consideración de las PAR como un instrumento útil a la hora de fomentar la calidad del empleo aconsejada por diferentes organismos supranacionales. Además, el impacto negativo en la intención de abandono del puesto de trabajo encontrado para las ocho prácticas enumeradas en la sección anterior tiene implicaciones a nivel organizativo, ya que la intención de abandono es considerada un proxy de la rotación del personal y uno de los objetivos perseguidos por las PAR es minimizar tal rotación. En resumen, una mayor cobertura de las PAR que contribuyen a la estabilidad del trabajo mejoraría significativamente el bienestar de los empleados en el sector privado en España. Dicha mejora sería aún mayor si las organizaciones otorgaran una mayor importancia a la calidad de las relaciones en el lugar de trabajo. Igualmente, esto también sería beneficioso para las organizaciones en términos de retención del personal.

A nivel teórico, los resultados de este estudio proporcionan evidencia empírica de la conexión entre la literatura de RRHH y la de calidad del empleo. Además, el intercambio social es una medida del clima en el lugar de trabajo, a la par que uno de los componentes de la calidad del empleo, y se ha comprobado que potencia los efectos positivos de las PAR sobre el bienestar de los trabajadores, una medida subjetiva de la calidad del empleo.

Limitaciones del estudio

En esta sección se señalan algunas limitaciones de la investigación llevada a cabo. En primer lugar, el tipo de análisis utilizado para los datos de corte transversal de la ECVT no permiten establecer causalidad estadística. A pesar de ello, la dirección de las relaciones es clara, dada la naturaleza de las tres variables dependientes en los análisis inferenciales para medir las actitudes y el comportamiento de los trabajadores, así como la de las principales variables

independientes que miden PAR individuales. En otras palabras, los análisis estadísticos realizados permiten identificar aquellas PAR que tienen un fuerte poder explicativo en términos de satisfacción laboral, de percepción de estabilidad del trabajo e intención de abandonar el puesto.

En segundo lugar, con respecto a la medición, los resultados pueden verse afectados por los sesgos del encuestado único y de las respuestas socialmente deseables (Podsakoff et al., 2003). El sesgo del encuestado único significa que las relaciones entre las variables pueden estar de algún modo sesgadas, dado que los análisis realizados se basan en una única fuente de datos, es decir, tanto las preguntas relativas a las variables dependientes como a las independientes son respondidas por el mismo informante en la ECVT. El sesgo de las respuestas socialmente deseables se refiere al riesgo de proporcionar una respuesta que se ve afectada por lo que el entrevistado cree que es socialmente aceptable y, por lo tanto, no es completamente cierto. En cuanto a los efectos de las PAR que se han demostrado, este estudio se centra exclusivamente en los efectos individuales de cada práctica considerada, lo que significa que los efectos que pueden surgir como consecuencia de las sinergias producidas por la combinación de diferentes PAR no se analizan en esta investigación, a diferencia de lo que hace el enfoque adoptado por una línea de investigación diferente que analiza los efectos de los *bundles* de prácticas de RRHH (MacDuffie, 1995; Subramony, 2009; Kroon et al., 2013).

En tercer lugar, si bien los resultados pueden generalizarse para la totalidad del sector privado en España, no son aplicables a otros países con diferentes contextos de relaciones laborales mercado de trabajo. Sí son, sin embargo, susceptibles de ser comparados con los resultados de estudios similares para otros países.

Dos limitaciones adicionales de la investigación están relacionadas con la interrupción de la ECVT a partir de 2010. El poder predictivo de las PAR en general, y de la provisión de seguridad del trabajo en particular, podría haber variado desde entonces con respecto a la percepción de estabilidad del puesto de trabajo y a las intenciones de abandonar el trabajo a causa de las dos reformas laborales de 2010 y 2012. Además, dado que 1,87 millones de puestos de trabajo resultaron destruidos al cabo de dos años como consecuencia de la recesión económica que comenzó en 2008, la fuerza del papel moderador del intercambio social en la relación entre las PAR y las actitudes y comportamiento de los trabajadores analizados podría estar reflejando en parte su especial relevancia en tiempos de incertidumbre o crisis económica, como señalan Searle y Dietz (2012).

Futuras líneas de investigación

Esta sección sugiere algunas vías para futuras investigaciones de cara a mejorar el conocimiento sobre PAR y bienestar de los trabajadores, incluyendo soluciones a las limitaciones señaladas en la sección anterior.

En primer lugar, se propone realizar análisis similares basados en datos longitudinales, lo que permitiría inferir relaciones causales desde un punto de vista estadístico.

En segundo lugar, se sugiere tener en cuenta las respuestas de los mandos directivos, siguiendo la propuesta de autores como Brewster et al. (2013), quienes sostienen que los mandos intermedios deben ser considerados agentes clave a la hora de analizar cómo las prácticas de RRHH afectan a los trabajadores. Esto permitiría adoptar una perspectiva complementaria donde la unidad de análisis serían los individuos con personal a cargo, incorporando así su percepción del intercambio social para evaluar en qué medida modera el efecto de las PAR en los trabajadores.

En tercer lugar, se sugiere adoptar un enfoque que considere las PAR de forma conjunta. De este modo, sería posible evaluar los efectos de las prácticas pero no de manera individualizada sino como consecuencia de las sinergias entre ellas.

Además, se proponen dos vías más para la investigación futura con el fin de ampliar el análisis en términos de su alcance geográfico y temporal. Así, en quinto lugar, se sugiere ampliar el análisis a otros países de la UE, lo que permitiría establecer el nivel de especificidad de los resultados obtenidos para España.

En sexto lugar, se propone usar datos más recientes para evaluar la capacidad de las PAR de proporcionar estabilidad en el trabajo, así como el papel moderador del intercambio social en la relación entre las PAR individuales y el bienestar de los trabajadores. Además de ampliar el análisis para los años 2011-2014, sería de particular interés considerar un período de creación de empleo – 2015 y 2016, de momento – para analizar si la estabilidad laboral y el papel moderador del intercambio social en el lugar de trabajo se ven afectados por el ciclo económico.

No obstante, al adoptar un enfoque centrado en la perspectiva de los trabajadores, este estudio proporciona evidencia empírica respecto a los beneficios de las PAR sobre el bienestar subjetivo de los empleados en cuanto a la satisfacción laboral, la estabilidad del trabajo y la intención de abandono del puesto. Esta intención de abandono es un resultado que proporciona información útil también desde una perspectiva organizacional, pues es un proxy de la rotación de personal.

Además, los resultados muestran que el intercambio social facilita el efecto de las prácticas individuales en las actitudes y comportamiento de los trabajadores, por lo que se identifica como una pieza importante para entender cómo se producen tales efectos. Por último, los resultados de esta investigación animan a llevar a cabo estudios adicionales que permitan complementarlos, siguiendo las vías de investigación futuras que se han sugerido.

APPENDICES

APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Original questionnaire items and operationalised variables, by broad HRM concept.

Broad HRM area	Dimension	Phrasing in the questionnaire	Original categories	New categories [original categories in square brackets]	Dichotomised variables - Chapter 8 [original categories in square brackets]	Operationalised variable
Selection and recruitment		(Q49) Do you consider that your current position is right according to your training?	1 = it is correct; 2 = it is lower than my training; 3 = it is above my training; 4 = I would need different training	0 [2,3,4] = no; 1 [1] = yes		Person-job skills match [V1]
		(Q50) What is the degree of usefulness of your academic education for your current job?	0-10 Likert scale, where 0: null; 10: high	0-10 Likert scale, where 0: null; 10: high		Useful education [V2]
Training		(Q54) Along the past twelve months, for how many hours, approximately, have you participated in training activities organised and funded by your firm or organisation?	Number of hours	Number of hours		Training hours [V3]
		(Q55) Have such activities taken place within working hours?	1 = never; 2 = sometimes; 3 = always	1 = never; 2 = sometimes; 3 = always	0 [1,2] = null/low intensity; 1 [3] = high intensity	Training within working hours [V4]
		(Q56) How useful is it for you the training that you have received by your organisation with respect to the job you do?	0-10 Likert scale, where 0: null; 10: high	0-10 Likert scale, where 0: null; 10: high	0 [0-8] = null/low intensity; 1 [9,10] = high intensity	Useful training [V5]
Job security		(Q15) How is your contractual relationship?	1 = indefinite duration; 2 = temporary/eventual	0 [2] = temporary; 1 [1] = open-ended		Open-ended contract (recoded) [V6]
Rewards	Monetary	(Q59) Tell me, please, under which of the following ranges is the net monthly income that you receive from your main job.	1 = up to 600€; 2 = from 600 to 1,000€; 3 = from 1,001 to 1,200€; 4 = from 1,201 to 1,600€; 5 = from 1,601 to 2,100€; 6 = from 2,101 to 3,000€; 7 = from 3,001 to 4,500€; 8 = from 4,501 to 6,000€; 9 = more than 6,000€	1 = up to 600€; 2 [2,3] = from 600 to 1,200€; 3 [4,5] = from 1,201 to 2,100€; 4 [6] = from 2,101 to 3,000€; 5 [7,8,9] = more than 3,000€	0 [1-3] = low pay; 1 [4-9] = high pay	Pay (recoded) [V7]
		(Q57a) Is the pay that you currently receive from your job fixed?	1 = yes; 2 = no	0 [2] = no; 1 [1] = yes		Performance-based pay (recoded) [V8]
		(Q57b) Is the variable component of your pay based on …?	1 = number of hours worked; 2 = volume of production/sales; 3 = both (hours and production level)	0 [1] = no; 1 [2,3] = yes		
		(Q58) In addition to your usual remuneration, do you receive some sort of participation in the profits of the firm?	1 = yes; 2 = no	0 [2] = no; 1 [1] = yes		Share in profits (recoded) [V9]

	Non-monetary	(Q60a-Q60j) Does your firm or organisation provide workers with some of the following social benefits?	1 = housing benefit/assistance; 2 = pension benefit/assistance; 3 = training benefit/assistance; 4 = canteen for employees or food benefits/assistance; 5 = transport benefits/assistance; 6 = health benefits/assistance; 7 = assistance for education of children or relatives; 8 = kindergarten or kindergarten assistance; 9 = leisure offers; 10 = some other social benefit. Which?	Additive index, 0-10 scale, where 0: none; 10: all nine social benefits mentioned plus at least one another are present	0 = no; 1 = yes	Social benefits [V10]
Information sharing		(Q21b) What is your knowledge regarding the objectives of your organisation?	0-10 Likert scale, where 0: none; 10: plenty	0-10 Likert scale, where 0: none; 10: plenty	0 [0-8] = null/low intensity; 1 [9,10] = high intensity	Organisational objectives knowledge [V11]
		(Q21a) What is your knowledge regarding the hierarchical structure of your organisation?	0-10 Likert scale, where 0: none; 10: plenty	0-10 Likert scale, where 0: none; 10: plenty		Organisational structure knowledge [V12]
		(Q47b) Does your firm inform you adequately over the risks at work of your job?	0-10 Likert scale, where 0: never; 10: always	0-10 Likert scale, where 0: never; 10: always		Risk information [V13]
Job enrichment	Job design	(Q27.2) State your perceived level of monotony-routine in your job.	0-10 Likert scale, where 0: null; 10: very high	0-10 Likert scale, where 0: null; 10: very high	0 [0-4] = null/low intensity; 1 [5-10] = high intensity	Task variety (reversed) [V14]
		(Q24) Do you work in a team, even though only sometimes? (Note: teamworking refers to working in coordination with other people with a common goal).	1 = yes; 2 = no	0 [2] = no; 1 [1] = yes		Teamwork (recoded) [V15]
	Job flexibility	(Q28) Over the past four weeks, was there any day when you did most of your work from home?	1 = always; 2 = at least half of the days; 3 = occasionally; 4 = never	1 [4] = never; 2 [3] = occasionally; 3 [2] = at least half of the days; 4 [1] = always		Telework (reversed) [V16]
		(Q71d) State the degree of difficulty that you experience to leave work in order to solve sporadic personal matters.	0-10 Likert scale, where 0: null difficulty; 10: great difficulty	0-10 Likert scale, where 0: null easiness; 10: great easiness		Random flexitime (reversed) [V17]
	Decision making	(Q25a) Indicate whether your company or organisation decides on your change of residence (note: the company or organisation decides on the change of residence of the employee when, if the job requires it, the employee had to temporarily move to a different locality).	1 = yes; 2 = no	0 [2] = no; 1 [1] = yes		Relocation (recoded) [V18]
		(Q25b) Indicate whether your company or organisation decides on your job trips.	1 = yes; 2 = no	0 [2] = no; 1 [1] = yes		Trips (recoded) [V19]
Voice	**Indirect collective voice**	(Q78) Please tell me if, in the firm or organisation you work for, there is a structure that facilitates collective bargaining, i.e. if there is a staff delegate, works council, or staff board.	1 = yes; 2 = no; 3 = unknown	1 = yes; 2 = no; 3 = unknown	0 [2] = no; 1 [1] = yes	Representation body [V20]

Source: own elaboration from WLQS questionnaire.

Appendix 2. Phrasing of satisfaction items.

Please state your degree of satisfaction with the following aspects of your current job
- personal development (realisation)
- training provided by your firm or organisation
- stability
- salary/job income
- the assessment by your line managers of your work
- social benefits provided by your firm or organisation
- the organisation of work in your firm or organisation
- flexible hours
- the level of autonomy/independence
- the activity performed
- the level of participation in decision making regarding tasks performed

Please state your degree of satisfaction in your current job.

Use scale from 0 to 10, where 0: null satisfaction-10 very high satisfaction.

Source: WLQS questionnaire.

Table A. 1. *Job satisfaction* (original): basic descriptive statistics.

							Quantiles			
Values	Freq.	Percent	Cum.	Mean	s.d.	Min	.25	Mdn	.75	Max
0	21	.45	.45	7.36	1.77	0	6	8	8	10
1	26	.56	1.01							
2	53	1.14	2.14							
3	58	1.24	3.39							
4	89	1.91	5.30							
5	382	8.19	13.49							
6	541	11.6	25.09							
7	1,024	21.96	47.05							
8	1,390	29.81	76.86							
9	593	12.72	89.58							
10	486	10.42	100.00							
Total	4,663	100.00								

Source: own elaboration from WLQS 2010.

Table A. 2. *Job satisfaction* (new): basic descriptive statistics.

					Quantiles			
Values	Freq.	Percent	Cum.	Min	.25	Mdn	.75	Max
Null/poor	1,170	25.09	25.09	1	1	3	3	4
Acceptable	1,024	21.96	47.05					
High	1,390	29.81	76.86					
Very high	1,079	23.14	100.00					
Total	4,663	100.00						

Source: own elaboration from WLQS 2010.

Table A. 3. Social benefits: descriptive statistics, by year.

	2006		2007		2008		2009		2010	
	mean	s.d.	mean	s.d.	mean	s.d.	mean	s.d.	mean	s.d.
housing - yes	**.063**	**.243**	**.045**	**.207**	**.049**	**.217**	**.048**	**.213**	**.050**	**.219**
housing - no	.813	.390	.866	.341	.874	.332	.924	.266	.879	.326
housing - unknown	.124	.330	.090	.286	.076	.266	.029	.167	.070	.256
pension - yes	**.101**	**.301**	**.078**	**.269**	**.086**	**.281**	**.085**	**.280**	**.094**	.292
pension - no	.776	.417	.829	.376	.832	.174	.882	.323	.835	.371
pension - unknown	.123	.329	.092	.289	.082	.274	.033	.178	.071	.257
training - yes	**.230**	**.421**	**.201**	**.401**	**.205**	**.404**	**.247**	**.432**	**.225**	.417
training - no	.666	.472	.718	.450	.728	.445	.729	.445	.718	.450
training - unknown	.104	.306	.080	.272	.067	.250	.024	.153	.057	.233
canteen - yes	**.258**	**.438**	**.204**	**.403**	**.211**	**.408**	**.237**	**.425**	**.225**	.417
canteen - no	.683	.465	.743	.437	.750	.433	.751	.432	.745	.436
canteen - unknown	.059	.235	.054	.226	.039	.195	.012	.108	.030	.172
transport - yes	**.288**	**.453**	**.221**	**.415**	**.225**	**.418**	**.256**	**.436**	**.214**	.410
transport - no	.653	.476	.719	.450	.729	.444	.730	.444	.757	.429
transport - unknown	.059	.236	.060	.237	.046	.209	.014	.118	.029	.167
health - yes	**.141**	**.348**	**.129**	**.335**	**.123**	**.328**	**.141**	**.349**	**.126**	.332
health - no	.756	.430	.798	.402	.814	.389	.835	.371	.821	.384
health - unknown	.103	.305	.074	.261	.063	.243	.023	.151	.053	.225
relatives - yes	**.108**	**.311**	**.091**	**.287**	**.097**	**.297**	**.103**	**.304**	**.107**	.310
relatives - no	.786	.410	.827	.378	.827	.379	.865	.341	.833	.373
relatives - unknown	.106	.308	.082	.275	.076	.265	.032	.175	.060	.237
kinder - yes	**.045**	**.208**	**.048**	**.215**	**.051**	**.221**	**.052**	**.222**	**.058**	.233
kinder - no	.847	.360	.870	.336	.880	.325	.913	.283	.877	.329
kinder - unknown	.107	.610	.081	.273	.069	.254	.036	.186	.065	.247
leisure - yes	**.077**	**.267**	**.066**	**.248**	**.070**	**.256**	**.097**	**.296**	**.088**	.284
leisure - no	.836	.371	.865	.342	.872	.334	.882	.323	.869	.338
leisure - unknown	.087	.282	.069	.254	.058	.233	.021	.144	.043	.203
other social - yes	**.005**	**.068**	**.019**	**.137**	**.019**	**.137**	**.025**	**.156**	**.014**	.119
other social - no	.861	.346	.880	.325	.739	.439	.948	.221	.906	.292
other social - unknown	.135	.341	.101	.301	.242	.428	.027	.162	.079	.270

Source: own elaboration from WLQS.

Table A. 4. HPWPs: descriptive statistics, by year.

	2006				2007				2008				2009				2010			
Variable	**mean**	**s.d.**	**median**	**mode**	**mean**	**s.d.**	**median**	**mode**	**mean**	**s.d.**	**median**	**mode**	**mean**	**s.d.**	**median**	**mode**	**mean**	**s.d.**	**median**	**mode**
Person-job skills match	.724	.447			.755	.430			.743	.437			.751	.432			.756	.429		
Useful education	5.3	3.406	6	0	5.5	3.228	6	5	5.3	3.459	6	0	5.7	3.363	6	0	5.7	3.229	6	5
Hours of training, last 12 months	13.1	4.353	0	0	13	34.804	0	0	13.6	35.652	0	0	16.2	5.525	0	0	15.8	38.896	0	0
Training during working day - never, last 12 months	.262	.440			.24	.427			.216	.411			.194	.396			.201	.401		
Training during working day - sometimes, last 12 months	.21	.408			.174	.379			.187	.390			.23	.421			.2	.400		
Training during working day - always, last 12 months	.528	.499			.586	.493			.597	.490			.576	.494			.599	.490		
Useful training	7.7	2.172	8	8	7.6	2.2723	8		7.7	2.069	8	8	7.8	2.061	8	10	7.7	2.070	8	8
Open-ended contract	.704	.457			.704	.456			.765	.424			.777	.416			.767	.423		
Pay - <600€	.125	.330			.092	.288			.075	.264			.086	.280			.091	.287		
Pay - 600-1,200€	.548	.498			.561	.496			.517	.500			.513	.500			.476	.499		
Pay - 1,201-2,100€	.267	.442			.276	.447			.338	.473			.327	.469			.361	.480		
Pay - 2,101-3,000€	.046	.209			.052	.223			.051	.220			.053	.225			.052	.222		
Pay - >3,000 €	.015	.121			.019	.136			.019	.137			.021	.142			.02	.139		
Performance-based pay	.148	.355			.131	.337			.107	.309			.074	.262			.097	.297		
Share in profits	.19	.393			.167	.373			.199	.399			.174	.379			.163	.369		
Social benefits [(a)]	1.3	1.735	1	0	1.1	1.707	0	0	1.1	1.712	0	0	1.3	1.778	1	0	1.2	1.804	0	0
Organisational structure knowledge	6.3	3.057	7	8	6.5	3.199	7	10	7.3	2.631	8	10	7.4	2.464	8	10	7.5	2.443	8	10
Organisational objectives knowledge	6.4	3.122	7	8	6.6	3.193	7	10	7.2	2.682	8	10	7.4	2.478	8	10	7.3	2.600	8	10
Risk information (2006-2007) [UNFILTERED]	6.9	3.201	8	10	7.3	3.164	8	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Risk information (2008-2010) [FILTERED]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.5	2.627	8	10	7.8	2.580	8	10	7.3	2.674	8	10
Task variety	4.8	3.088	5	5	5.1	3.222	5	10	5.1	3.152	5	10	4.8	2.949	5	5	4.7	3.047	4	5
Teamwork	.839	.368			.834	.372			.816	.387			.852	.355			.801	.400		
Telework, last 12 weeks - never	.934	.248			.941	.236			.925	.264			.929	.258			.928	.258		
Telework, last 12 weeks - occasionally	.044	.205			.043	.202			.051	.221			.053	.224			.049	.217		
Telework, last 12 weeks - at least half of the days	.008	.091			.007	.082			.01	.102			.013	.111			.015	.122		
Telework, last 12 weeks - always	.013	.115			.01	.098			.013	.115			.006	.076			.007	.086		
Random flexitime (2006) - no	.119	.324			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Random flexitime (2006) - sometimes	.1	.300			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Random flexitime (2006) - yes	.71	.454			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Random flexitime (2006) - unknown	.072	.258			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Random flexitime (2007-2010)	-	-	-	-	7	3.509	9	10	7.5	3.385	10	10	7	3.294	8	10	6.7	3.661	8	10
Relocation	.186	.389			.122	.327			.095	.293			.161	.367			.112	.315		
Trips	.327	.469			.277	.448			.282	.450			.321	.467			.355	.478		
Representation body: no	.408	.491			.369	.483			.406	.491			.431	.495			.413	.492		
Representation body: yes	.446	.497			.463	.499			.452	.498			.481	.500			.433	.495		
Representation body: unknown	.146	.353			.168	.374			.142	.349			.088	.283			.155	.362		

[(a)] For a more detailed description of this variable, see Table A. 3.

Table A. 5. Relationships between management and staff and trust in superiors (original): basic descriptive statistics.

	Relationships			Trust		
Values	Freq.	Percent	Cum.	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
0	94	2.12	2.12	131	2.96	2.96
1	32	.72	2.85	35	.79	3.75
2	72	1.63	4.47	56	1.26	5.01
3	99	2.24	6.71	81	1.83	6.84
4	111	2.51	9.22	103	2.32	9.16
5	459	10.37	19.59	404	9.12	18.28
6	492	11.12	30.7	481	10.85	29.13
7	772	17.44	48.15	710	16.02	45.15
8	1,030	23.27	71.42	1,077	24.3	69.45
9	588	13.29	84.7	644	14.53	83.98
10	677	15.3	100.00	710	16.02	100.00
Total	4,426	100.00		4,432	100.00	
Mean		7.20			7.26	
s.d.		2.22			2.28	
Min		0			0	
.25		6			6	
Mdn		8			8	
.75		9			9	
Max		10			10	

Source: own elaboration from WLQS 2010.

Table A. 6. Relations and trust (new): basic descriptive statistics.

	Relations				Trust		
	Freq.	Percent	Cum.		Freq.	Percent	Cum.
Bad/poor	3,161	71.42	71.42	Null/low	3,078	69.45	69.45
(Very) good	1,265	28.58	100.00	(Very) high	1,354	30.55	100.00
Total	4,426	100.00		Total	4,432	100.00	
Min		0				0	
.25		0				0	
Mdn		0				0	
.75		1				1	
Max		1				1	

Source: own elaboration from WLQS 2010.

Table A. 7. Satisfaction with job-related features: descriptive statistics, by year.

	2006				2007				2008				2009				2010			
Variable	**mean**	**s.d.**	**median**	**mode**	**mean**	**s.d.**	**median**	**mode**	**mean**	**s.d.**	**median**	**mode**	**mean**	**s.d.**	**median**	**mode**	**mean**	**s.d.**	**median**	**mode**
personal development (realisation)	7.14	2.272	8	8	7.16	2.230	8	8	7.47	2.000	8	8	7.36	1.995	8	8	7.45	1.992	8	8
training	5.77	3.221	7	8	5.66	3.251	6	8	5.19	3.366	6	0	5.85	3.026	7	8	6.03	2.991	7	8
job stability	7.26	2.477	8	8	7.25	2.460	8	8	7.12	2.670	8	8	7.14	2.547	8	8	7.16	2.583	8	8
job income	6.17	2.163	6	7	6.12	2.150	6	7	5.91	2.382	6	7	5.89	2.258	6	7	5.82	2.383	6	7
how work is valued by line manager	6.92	2.411	7	8	6.93	2.376	7	8	7.15	2.232	8	8	7.03	2.211	7	8	7.23	2.205	8	8
social benefits	4.10	3.395	5	0	4.09	3.466	5	0	2.51	3.011	1	0	2.79	3.022	2	0	2.84	3.121	2	0
organisation of work	6.53	2.480	7	7	6.52	2.483	7	8	7.02	2.088	7	8	7.02	2.114	7	8	7.01	2.169	7	8
random flexible hours	6.28	2.894	7	8	6.44	2.774	7	8	6.18	3.224	7	8	6.16	3.087	7	8	6.28	3.088	7	8
level of autonomy/independence	6.91	2.426	7	8	7.01	2.426	8	8	7.36	2.247	8	8	7.25	2.174	8	8	7.31	2.205	8	8
work itself	7.54	1.917	8	8	7.57	1.917	8	8	7.66	1.784	8	8	7.55	1.755	8	8	7.68	1.777	8	8
level of participation in decision making re tasks performed	6.32	2.875	7	8	6.36	2.863	7	8	6.65	2.669	7	8	6.58	2.634	7	8	6.68	2.595	7	8
overall job satisfaction	7.18	1.958	7	8	7.12	1.709	7	8	7.18	1.642	7	8	7.29	1.847	8	8	7.32	1.795	8	8

Source: WLQS.

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