

The Role of Cultural Values on the Relationship between High-Performance Human Resource Practices and Work Effort

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Abstract

This study investigates the moderating role that cultural values have on the relationship between High-Performance Human Resource Practices and work effort. Even though the effect of these practices on employee work effort has been researched, little attention has been paid to the effect that individual cultural values held by employees have on the success or failure of the implementation of these HR practices in terms of individual performance. Using data collected from 25 European countries, this study focuses on three broad categories of values, namely openness to change, self-enhancement, and conservation, each inclusionary of a number of values. The results from the regression analyses indicate that only the value of conservation has a positive effect on the relationship between these HR practices and work effort. The effect that HR practices focusing on skills-enhancement have on work effort is moderated to a greater extent by values related to conservation in comparison to HR practices related to autonomy. The value of openness to change is found to have a negative effect on the relationship between these practices that are related to autonomy, while the value of self-enhancement affects negatively the relationship between practices related to skills-enhancement and work effort.

Keywords: Autonomy; cultural values; high-performance human resource practices; skills-enhancement; work effort

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Introduction

In the field of strategic human resource management (strategic HRM) a general consensus exists with regards to the positive results that various human resource practices bring to organizations. Studies have concluded that when organizations engage in HR practices they can enjoy improved effectiveness and performance (Apospori, Nikandrou, Brewster, Papalexandris, 2008; Becker & Gerhard, 1996), gain a competitive advantage over firms that do not use them (Barney & Wright, 1998), and achieve enhanced market performance (Harel & Tzafrir, 1999). Employees who work in organizations that have engaged in active strategic HRM tend to indicate higher levels of satisfaction (Kinnie, Hutchinson, Purcell, Rayton & Swart, 2005). Nevertheless, most of the studies that have identified the positive effects of HRM on organizational performance have assumed a top-down approach to their exploration of these effects; human resources are looked at as practices that are chosen by managers and are then applied to the body of employees at a given organization. Thus, employees have been regarded mostly as the receivers of these practices, and little attention has been paid to the effect that employee attitudes can have on the success or failure of the implementation of HR practices (Kinnie et al., 2005).

High-performance human resource practices, as a unique set of human resource practices, have received significant attention in the field. This is not surprising as these practices aim to enhance employees so as to achieve improved organizational performance (Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg, & Kalleberg, 2000). However, similarly to HR practices in general, high-performance practices have also been taken into consideration mainly with regards to their relationship with organizational performance. In this relationship, employees are accounted for the mediating role that employee outcomes have, such as satisfaction (Barling, Kelloway & Iverson (2003), commitment (Whitener, 2001), and empowerment (Bonias, Bartram, Leggat & Stanton, 2010). Studies that have linked high-performance practices and the work effort of employees have found both positive and negative effects that the former have on the latter. More specifically, while practices aiming at the enhancement of employee skills tend to increase the work effort an employee will indicate, practices that give more discretion do not (Koster, 2011).

Furthermore, the effect that employees' characteristics can have on the success or failure of high-performance practices has been actualized by a limited number of studies. There is evidence to assume that the values that employees have affect the relationship between high-

performance practices and work effort. Employee behavior is influenced by the values that employees have, since individuals try to calibrate their actions based on the values they have (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). Studies that have taken this influence into consideration have included national-level values as opposed to individual-level values (e.g. Choo & Yoon, 2009, using Hofstede's Individualism versus Collectivism; Kats, Emmerik, Blenkinsopp & Khapova, 2010; Sparrow & Wu, 1998). Consequently, the effect that values held by individuals can have on the relationship between high-performance practices and work effort remains widely unexplored.

The purpose of this study is two-fold. First, the effect that individual values have on the relationship between high-performance practices and work effort is examined. These practices are categorized as those related to autonomy and those related to the skills-enhancement of employees. Schwartz' theory of basic human values constitutes the framework of this study with regards to individual values that employees have. Using theoretical findings on creativity and processes of learning, the effect of the value *openness to change* is examined on the relationship between high-performance practices and work effort. Using the concept of procedural utility, the effect of *self-enhancement* on the relationship in question is tested. Using the input process-outcome model, the effect of the value of *conservation* is examined. The second aim of the study, although somewhat indirect, consists of the exploration of the relationship between high-performance practices and work effort. Given the limited research on this relationship, this study aims to enhance the understanding of this relationship in general.

Problem definition

A basic model of the moderation that cultural values have on the relationship between high-performance practices and work effort is depicted in figure 1. While the moderation in question has been unexplored, the relationship between high-performance practices and work effort has been tested. The findings with regards to this relationship have mainly identified a positive effect of high-performance practices on work effort. For example, Avgoustaki (2016) has argued that the implementation of such practices is associated with increased work effort on the part of employees. On the other hand, Koster (2011) reported that while human resource practices associated with the enhancement of the skills that employees have do exhibit a positive effect on work effort, practices related to discretion do not. Furthermore, assuming that this relationship can be moderated by individual values is justified based on findings that suggest as such. Frenkel, Lloyd D. Restubog & Bednall (2012) have found that higher levels

of justice, as perceived by employees in an organization and produced by HR practices, lead to increased work effort for employees. This is significant because it is evidence that when individuals hold high a certain value, their behavior is altered when they perceive this value to be satisfied in their environment.

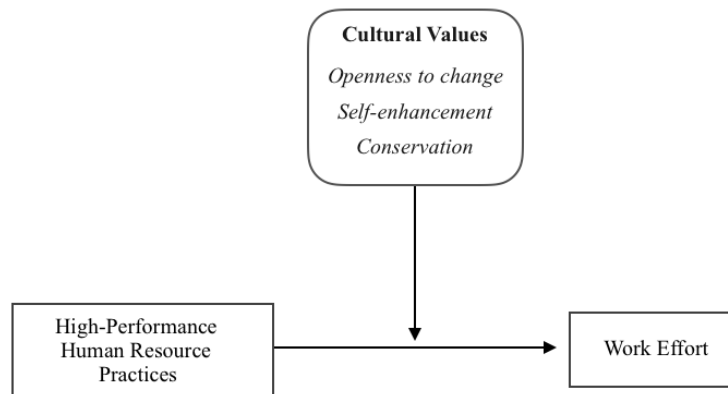


Figure 1: Model of the moderation of cultural values on the relationship between high-performance practices and work effort

Based on the observations mentioned above, the following research question is formed:

How do individual values influence the relationship between High-Performance Human Resource Practices and work effort? In addition, how can this influence be explained by taking cultural values (Schwartz's Human Values) into consideration?

Relevance of the topic

Finding answers to this question is relevant for two reasons. First, this study is one of the few that aims to explain the relationship that high-performance practices have with work effort, which has not yet been researched extensively. More importantly, it is the exploration of the effects that individual values have on the relationship is question - and even so by taking Schwartz' theory of human values into account - that make the topic of this study unique. To date, no other study was identified that has looked at this relationship from this perspective. Thus, this study aims to shed light on neglected factors that might influence high-performance practices and work effort. This is especially significant given the variation in findings with regards to the relationship between HR practices in general and work effort. As mentioned in the previous section, this relationship has been found to be both positive and negative. Consequently, this study offers an explanation of whether variables related to individual values

are responsible for this variation. Secondly, the findings of this study can be useful to the departments of organizations specialized in human resources management. When organizations opt for the implementation of high-performance practices, they can increase the chances of successful implementation by taking into consideration employee characteristics, such as the values that employees hold. For example, a certain high-performance practice might be perceived more positively by an employee when the aim of the practice is in line with a value that the employee holds high. In a similar manner, possible failure of practices can be justified on these grounds. This can provide a new tool for managers to implement practices in a targeted manner, and as a result, increase the chances of bringing successful results.

Theoretical Framework

High-performance human resource practices

Even though high-performance practices have been explored to a great extent in academia, especially with regards to their impact on organizational effectiveness, it is unclear what the concept precisely entails. In addition, the term itself has been a matter of contestation. Chan & Mak (2012) argue that the terminology referring to a similar construct has expanded. Terms such as High-Performance Work Systems (HPWS), High-Commitment Work Systems (HCWS), and Human Resource Management Systems (HRMS) can all be regarded as synonyms to High-Performance Human Resource Practices (HPHRP). Combs, Liu, Hall & Ketchen (2006) argue that high-performance practices can simply be considered as these practices that aim to enhance the performance of employees within an organization. Examples of these practices touch upon incentive compensation, training, employee participation, and selectivity, to name but a few. Through the establishment of such practices, an organization can enjoy greater levels of job satisfaction among its employees, lower employee turnover, and higher productivity (Huselid, 1995). Furthermore, high-performance HR practices are differentiated from other HR practices due to the fact that they provide motivation to employees and foster high-involvement relationships between employees and employers (McClellan & Collins, 2011).

In this study, high-performance practices have been categorized based on the function to which they correspond. This categorization is feasible based on findings showing that high-performance practices are most successful when they are implemented as a bundle and not individually (Ramsay, Scholarios & Harely, 2000; Tamkin, 2004). Following the analysis by Combs et al. (2006), high-performance HR practices serve as a means to (a) empower

employees to act, and (b) increase employee's knowledge, skills, and abilities. The empowerment of employees is associated with the provision of certain degree of autonomy due to the fact that in order for these practices to be successful, employees need to be given the ability to engage in self-managing (Combs et al., 2006). The first bundle of practices that is investigated in this study includes practices related to participatory management (Young et al., 2008), supervision (Arthur, 1994), and job-related independence (Kehoe & Wright, 2013), which are referred to as practices related to *autonomy*. Under the bundle of *skills-enhancement* the high-performance practices that can be found are the ones concerned with training (Kehoe & Wright, 2013), and opportunities for advancement (McClellan et al., 2011).

High-performance HR practices & work effort

Work effort can be conceptualized as the overall effort that employees put in their job. It can be analyzed by taking into consideration three main dimensions, namely duration (hours worked), intensity (effort put in task) and direction (goal specificity) (Morris, 2009). Additionally, a further distinction includes extensive work effort, which relates to the number of hours that an employee works, and intensive work effort, which refers to the physical and mental effort that is invested by an employee. Connected to these categories but slightly different is the concept of discretionary work effort, which describes the effort put by an employee to go the "extra mile"; it refers to effort that exceeds the minimum requirements that an employee is required to fulfill in terms of work (Dubinsky & Skinner, 2002). In this study, no differentiation is made between the various types of work effort. Instead, work effort is seen as the general effort that an employee invests in their work.

In general, the implementation of various high-performance practices has shown both positive and negative results with regards to the work effort of an employee. White, Hill, McGovern, Mills & Smeaton (2003) argue that high-performance practices are found to be beneficial to employees in terms of higher wages and job satisfaction. Employees are also more likely to increase the hours that they spend at work when such practices are implemented (Avgoustaki, 2016). As Kooij, Jansen, Dijkers & De Lange (2010) argue, when high-performance practices are implemented, employees perceive them as "[...] a personalized commitment to them, an investment in them, and as recognition of their contribution, which they then reciprocate through correspondingly positive attitudes and behaviors toward the organization" (p. 1113). Nevertheless, Koster (2011) found that while HR practices related to the skills of employees affect work effort positively, practices related to discretion are

negatively associated with work effort. This means that the provision of higher levels of discretion through HR practices results in decreased work effort. Agency problems that arise due to the organization's limited possibility to exercise direct control over an employee, and the perception of reduced stress when employees are given more discretion can be held responsible for this decrease (Koster, 2011).

High-performance HR practices & work effort: cultural values as a moderator

While high-performance practices have been researched extensively, most research takes the level of the organization as its focal point in order to identify the effect of these practices on organizational performance (e.g. Delaney & Huselid, 1996; Wright, Gardner, & Moynihan, 2002). Fewer studies have looked at the relationship between high-performance practices from the level of the employee (e.g. Koster, 2011; Ogbonnaya & Valizade, 2016). Nevertheless, the effect that individual values can have on the relationship in question has been mainly neglected. When values are taken into consideration, they usually focus on national cultures and not on individual values (e.g. Schuler & Rogovsky, 1998). The importance of shedding light into the black box of the role of individual values within the context of the organization, and more specifically, on the relationship between high-performance practices and work effort, lies in the strong ability of values to influence behavior. Further, findings suggest that increased work effort does not merely rely on motivational boosts that employees experience (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). As Meglino & Ravlin (1998) argue, values are pertinent to work effort due to the fact that they guide action, as individuals strive to achieve the state or mode of behavior indicated by the value they possess.

Moreover, values held by individuals can have various meanings; they can refer to beliefs, desirable goals, and standards for action to name but a few. Schwarz identifies ten personal values which are to be found in every culture (Schwartz, 2012). These values can be applied to the organizational context due to the fact that they transcend all societies and individuals, and are, thus, omnipresent in organizational contexts. Each value falls under one category, which characterizes a specific set of values. As it is explained below, three out of the four categories are deemed relevant to this study, leading to the exclusion of one category.

The first category is *Openness to change*, under which the values of *self-direction* and *stimulation* can be found. Self-direction is used to measure the degree of independent thought and action that an individual has. It refers to aspects of creativity, freedom, the ability one has

to choose one's own goals, and the extent to which an individual is curious and independent. Stimulation indicates the stance that one has towards excitement and novelty in their life, and also how open they are to challenges. Autonomy and independence are requirements that are needed in order for self-direction and stimulation to be activated and enable high levels of the previously mentioned aspects.

The second category is called *Self-enhancement*. Three values compose this category, namely *hedonism*, *achievement*, and *power*. Hedonism refers to the degree to which an individual searches for personal gratification and pleasure. An individual scoring high on achievement has a desire to reach personal success. This success is actualized through the demonstration of competence according to social standards. Power can be seen as the extension or result of achievement. It refers to the social status and prestige that one enjoys, which is closely connected to the control or dominance one has over people and resources. The values of achievement and power focus on social esteem; achievement requires the active demonstration of successful interaction in a concrete interaction, and whereas power is focused on the preservation of a dominant position within a given system.

The third category is termed *Conservation*. The values of *security*, *conformity*, and *tradition* are to be found under this category. An individual who scores high on security seeks safety, harmony, and the stability of society, of one's personal relationships, and of one's own self. Somewhat necessary for this stability is conformity. Conformity refers to the degree to which an individual is prone to refrain from actions, inclinations, and impulses that are likely to upset or harm others. These actions are generally considered to be those that deviate from what social expectations and norms indicate as appropriate. Tradition shows the extent to which an individual is respectful, committed, and able to accept the customs and ideas that one's culture or religion provides. It is important to note that although the values falling under conservation appear to be concerned with an individual and the social environment surrounding them, according Schwartz (2012) they are also focused on the individual. For example, the value of security is vested with individual interests. When broader interests are taken into account, such as national security, they express a need for security for one's self or those with whom one identifies. Therefore, to some extent, egocentric sentiments need to be present in order for the individual to score high on these values.

Finally, Schwartz's theory includes a fourth category called *self-transcendence*. Under this category the values of *benevolence* and *universalism* can be found, which are concerned

with the preservation and enhancement of welfare, either directed towards one's personal circle, or towards the entire world and nature. Nevertheless, in this study this category is not taken into consideration. The reason for this is that while the categories of openness to change, self-enhancement, and conservation are indicative of one's personal interests and are related to one's self, self-transcendence is concerned with one's out-group, be it one's personal contacts or the entire world. Both high-performance practices related to autonomy and skills-enhancement and work effort are concerned with the individual employee and do not account for relations that the individual has with others. Consequently, locating self-transcendence within the organizational context can be of little or no relevance for this study.

Furthermore, these values are not merely held by individuals, but they are systematically linked to behavior and attitudes (Schwartz, 2003). For example, choosing a political party during elections is usually informed by the extent to which an individual wants to attain the values that they consider they have (Schwartz, 2012). In addition, work values are rather similar to the previously mentioned values. Even though work values tend to be more specific due to the fact that they are related to outcomes attributed only to work, they still constitute verbal representations of individual, group, and interaction requirements (Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss, 1999).

At the core of implementation of high-performance practices lies a will to increase employees' knowledge and skills, empower employees to act, and provide the necessary motivation in order to do so (Combs et al., 2006). These practices urge employees to be directed towards particular goals and through the boost of employee skills to achieve them in light of better organizational performance. In addition, the characteristics of individual employees have been found to be rather influential on the extent to which the practices in question will be successful (Saari & Judge, 2004). More specifically, aspects of creativity and the behavior associated with actions towards creative outlets do not only impact the implementation of high-performance practices, but can also lead to higher levels of innovation within an organization (Murphy & Southey, 2003). The significance of creativity, which falls under values related to an individual's *openness to change*, provides justification for the assumption that individual values can impact the relationship between high-performance practices and work effort.

Individuals who score high on the values falling under openness to change can be assumed to have a favorable stance towards autonomy because self-direction and stimulation require a certain degree of independence. Even though high-performance practices related to

autonomy have a negative effect on work effort, for individuals who value autonomy this relationship can be positive. Essentially, higher appraisal of openness to change can turn the relationship between practices related to autonomy and work effort from a negative to a positive one. Furthermore, closely connected to high-performance practices related to skills-enhancement are processes of learning. These processes can be seen as the underlying mechanism that influences the effect that *openness to change* has on the relationship between the practices in question and work effort. Learning in general and a strong learning orientation increases motivation to acquire knowledge and skills (Hirst, Van Knippenberg & Zhou, 2009). Practices that aim to alter the modus operandi of an employee and equip them with new skills might increase the perceived levels of uncertainty and the potential for failure. In this case, an employee's attitude towards these practices is affected by the extent to which they are willing to learn and engage in creative activities (Jeong & Shin, 2017). Based on these conclusions the following hypotheses are formed:

Hypothesis 1a: Openness to change strengthens the relationship between high-performance HR practices related to autonomy and work effort.

Hypothesis 1b: Openness to change strengthens the relationship between high-performance HR practices related to skills-enhancement and work effort.

According to social exchange theory, the behavior of employees can be divided in two types; economic and social exchange. The former refers to the formal transactions that an employee has with the employer, such as the provision of the conditions of employment. Social exchange relates to the future obligations that an employee has. These obligations are not based on formal conditions, but are rather dependent on the trust that exists between the related parties (McClellan & Collins, 2011). As Janssen (2000) argues, when efforts of employees “[...] are fairly rewarded in such a social exchange relationship, employees are willing to reciprocate by discretionary behaviors like innovative activities that go beyond contractually determined job achievements” (p. 290). Central to social exchange theory is the idea that employees are driven by their perceptions of effort-reward fairness. Values falling under self-enhancement, such as hedonism, achievement, and power, can be seen as directly related to these perceptions due to the fact that they can be derived and satisfied through employment. Additionally, one of the aims of high-performance practices is the increased efficiency of the work of employees, and consequently, higher levels of achievement when work goals are taken into account.

The concept of procedural utility can be seen as the mechanism that affects the above-mentioned relationship. As Bauer (2004) argues, procedural utility refers to the fact that individuals value the conditions and the processes that lead to outcomes, as well as the outcomes themselves. The values of hedonism, achievement, and power are mostly related to aspects of satisfaction and personal enhancement. According to the concept of procedural utility, individuals are not satisfied merely when they advance their skills and achieve higher or lower autonomy, but rather, when the processes leading up to these developments are appropriate. These aspects serve as main goals of high-performance practices since they aim to decrease hierarchical levels and increase the possibilities of self-determination (Bauer, 2004). Consequently, the more the emphasis that is placed by an employee on self-enhancement and satisfaction, the greater the work effort will be, as the processes leading to these outcomes (high-performance practices related to skills-enhancement) are appreciated. A similar effect can hold true for the relationship between high-performance practices related to autonomy and work effort. Despite the negative effect that higher levels of autonomy have on work effort, employees who value self-enhancement might indicate higher levels of work effort due to the fact that they appreciate the processes that lead to these outcomes (high-performance practices related to autonomy). This appreciation is derived from the fact that these practices result in the empowerment of the employee through their inclusion in organizational procedures such as decision-making.

Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 2a: Self-enhancement strengthens the relationship between high-performance HR practices related to autonomy and work effort.

Hypothesis 2b: Self-enhancement strengthens the relationship between high-performance HR practices related to skills-enhancement and work effort.

As opposed to the first two categories of values of *openness to change* and *self-enhancement* which are exclusively focused on the individual self, *conservation* (security, conformity, tradition) is also connected to the relation one has to others. Even though high-performance practices focus on individual employees and aim to improve their performance, they also operate through an organization's internal social structures. As such, these practices aim to increase an employee's knowledge, skills, and abilities in order to ultimately improve organizational performance, and at the same time they increase flexibility and efficiency in the internal network of an organization (Combs et al., 2006). Therefore, when examining the

relationship between cultural values, high-performance practices, and work effort, an employee cannot be isolated from the broader environment in which they are embedded.

Moreover, the input process-outcome (IPO) model, initially intended to measure team effectiveness, provides a framework so as to examine the individual values related to conservation. According to the model, individuals' interactions are enabled or constrained by individual characteristics, team-level factors, and organizational and contextual factors (Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, Gilson, 2008). Task accomplishment is the result of processes that describe how certain outcomes can be brought about. Values, as roadmaps that guide individual behaviors, can be seen as pertinent characteristics of the individual that influence the extent to which team effectiveness will be achieved. Further, high-performance practices are established so as to increase the performance of individual employees. Nevertheless, employees are part of organizations which to a lesser or greater extent are hubs for the generation of team work. In broad terms, values such as security and achievement can be seen as enablers of successful cooperation between an employee and other participants in their environment. As a result, it can be assumed that the higher the appreciation of these values by an individual, the more effective high-performance practices related to both autonomy and skills-enhancement will be on work effort. Values related to conservation influence the relationship in question by establishing a broader framework of how the implementation of these practices will take place.

The following hypotheses are formed:

Hypothesis 3a: Conservation strengthens the relationship between high-performance HR practices related to autonomy and work effort.

Hypothesis 3b: Conservation strengthens the relationship between high-performance HR practices related to skills-enhancement and work effort.

Finally, it is important to note that even though each hypothesis is established by taking into account theoretical or practical evidence, it is not plausible that all three hypotheses can be corroborated due to the relationship that each category of values has to other categories. More specifically, *openness to change* is somewhat contradictory to *conservation* due to the fact that an individual cannot be at the same time both highly independent and obedient (Schwartz, 1992). Consequently, given the contradictory character of these values that is inherent to their conceptualization, the simultaneous existence of effects of all values on the

relationship between high performance practices and work effort would result in the nullification of these effects and would indicate distorted results.

Methods

Data

Data from the European Social Survey (ESS) are used in order to test the hypotheses. Various themes are covered by the questions of the survey, including politics, gender, citizen involvement, human values, and attitudes to name but a few. Every two years a new round of data collection takes place. The ESS is an appropriate source for the exploration of the previously stated hypotheses due to the fact that the data is focused on the level of the individual. The questions related to various HR practices and work effort can be found under the theme of “family work and well-being”. The ten Schwartz human values constitute a part of the core module of the questionnaire and are, thus, repeated every two years. Round 2 is used to test the hypotheses, which was collected in 2004. The dataset includes information about 18,774 employees across 25 countries. The average number of employees per country is 750, ranging from 294 in Iceland to 1139 in Czech Republic.

Measures

Dependent variable: work effort

As mentioned earlier, work effort can be conceptualized as extensive work effort, related to the number of hours that an employee works, and intensive work effort, which refers to the physical and mental effort that is invested by an employee. The variable of work effort is measured with the statement “*My job requires that I work very hard*”, in which participants can answer on a scale from 1 (“Agree strongly”) to 5 (“Disagree strongly”). The item was recoded in the opposite scale, so that higher scores indicate stronger agreement of the respondent. This statement asks participants to indicate how much effort is required in their current job, and consequently, it is indicative of the work effort that individuals put into their job. This item does not account for the distinction between extensive and intensive work effort, as it does not differentiate between the timely aspect and the physical and mental aspects of work effort.

Independent variable: High-performance HR practices

From the section “Family work and Well-being” of the ESS, the questions that relate to high-performance practices touch upon subjects such as the training that employees have,

the tasks that they perform, and the relationship they have with their colleagues. Provided with a scale from 1 (“I have/had no influence”) to 10 (“I have/had complete control”) individuals are asked to indicate the extent to which they *allowed to decide how daily work is organized*, to *influence policy decisions about activities of the organization*, and to *choose/change the pace of work*. The questions of whether respondents *can decide the time to start/finish work*, the degree to which *there is variety in their work*, whether their *job requires that they learn new things*, that their *job is secure*, and the extent to which they *can get support/help from co-workers when needed* are answered on a scale from 1 (“not at all true”) to 4 (“very true”). On a scale from 1 (“agree strongly”) to 5 (“disagree strongly”) the respondents are asked about *how closely their work is supervised*, and whether there are *good opportunities for advancement* in their current job (the items were reverse-coded). In order to explore the dimensionality of these items a factor analysis with varimax rotation was conducted, which indicated two dimensions, namely *Autonomy* and *Skills-Enhancement*. These dimensions can be seen in Table 1. The internal consistency of these dimension was found to be .748 for autonomy, and .623 for skills-enhancement.

Table 1. Factor structure of Human Resource Practices

<i>Item</i>	1	2
<i>Autonomy</i>		
Allowed to decide how daily work is organized	.823	.222
Allowed to influence policy decisions about activities of organization	.707	.246
Allowed to choose/change pace of work	.812	.155
Can decide time start/finish work	.586	.116
Work is closely supervised ^a	.532	-.056
<i>Skills-Enhancement</i>		
Variety in work	.252	.700
Job requires learning new things	.150	.735
Job is secure	.096	.510
Can get support/help from co-workers when needed	-.007	.603
Good opportunities for advancement ^a	.075	.508
Eigenvalue	3.239	1.388
Proportion of variance accounted for	32.386	13.877
Cronbach's Alpha	.748	.623

Note: Bold items indicate that the question loads at 0.30 or greater on a single factor.

^a Item was reverse coded.

Little variation is found in the application of autonomy and skills-enhancement across countries. Table 2 depicts the mean scores of HR practices and work effort per country. With regards to the scores of autonomy, employees in Norway and Finland are found to be most autonomous ($m=5.24$ and 5.02 respectively), with employees in Czech Republic ($m=2.96$) and Slovenia ($m=2.97$) scoring the lowest among the 25 countries. Employees in Sweden ($m=3.44$) and Luxembourg ($m=3.42$) score the highest in the HR practices related to skills-enhancement, with Turkey ($m=2.54$) and Greece ($m=2.57$) scoring the lowest. Overall, for autonomy, Northern and Western Europe scores higher in comparison with Eastern and Southern Europe. For skills-enhancement the findings do not provide a clear distinction between the scores of different regions.

Table 2. Means per country

	<i>Work Effort</i>	<i>Autonomy</i>	<i>Skills-Enhancement</i>
Austria	2.52	4.42	3.12
Belgium	2.61	4.39	3.35
Switzerland	2.52	4.68	3.37
Czech Republic	2.47	2.96	2.87
Germany	2.33	4.24	3.17
Denmark	2.57	5.19	3.41
Estonia	2.56	3.61	3.18
Spain	2.35	4.02	2.98
Finland	2.41	5.06	3.40
France	2.72	4.72	3.13
United Kingdom	2.00	4.42	3.35
Greece	2.49	3.86	2.57
Hungary	2.06	3.34	2.90
Ireland	2.09	3.86	3.18
Iceland	2.03	4.96	3.19
Luxembourg	3.06	3.78	3.42
Netherlands	2.49	4.75	3.38
Norway	2.50	5.24	3.48
Poland	2.25	3.78	2.83
Portugal	2.24	3.72	2.81
Sweden	2.40	5.02	3.44
Slovenia	2.13	2.97	3.34
Slovakia	2.00	3.51	2.85
Turkey	2.27	3.77	2.54
Ukraine	1.78	3.36	3.19
Total	2.35	4.14	3.13

Note: Employee, $n=18,773$; country, $n=25$.

Moderator variable: cultural values

The 'Human Values Scale' consists of 21 questions and is designed to classify respondents according to their basic value orientations. The questions are answered on a scale from 1 ("very much like me") to 6 ("not like me at all"). Even though the ESS database does not categorize each question in accordance to their corresponding Schwarz value, this categorization is needed in order to facilitate the testing of the hypotheses. This categorization was actualized using Schwartz's theory as guidance. For example, under *openness to change* the value of *self-direction* is to be found, and consequently, the questions about *creativity* and how much individuals value *doing things their own way* are assigned to these categories. In order to facilitate the testing of the hypotheses, as a first step, the questions that relate to each value were combined so as to create variables for each value (such as *self-direction*). As a next step, the values were combined (for example, under *openness to change*) to be able to test each hypothesis separately (see Appendix A for the complete list of the categorization of questions and values). Overall, 15 questions were used, while six were omitted as they are intended to measure the values of benevolence and universalism (self-transcendence), which were not included in this study.

Control variables

Several variables have been used in order to examine the effect they might have on the effect that cultural values have on the relationship between HR practices and work effort. All these variables focus on the level of the individual since this study is concern with identifying the effects that might exist on the level of the individual as opposed to the national level. The variables are either focused on individual characteristics or they are related to the individual's work. For individual characteristics *age* (in years), *gender* (0=female, 1=male), and *education* (number of years completed in education) were included. Seven work-related control variables were taken into consideration including the *hours worked* (number of hours at work), *training* (whether the knowledge and skills of the employee have improved through training, with 1=yes, 2=no), family *distracting from work* (the extent to which family distracts the individual from work measured from 1=never to 5=always), *replaceability* (the feasibility of the individual being replaced in their job, to be indicated from 1=extremely difficult to 10=extremely easy), the *dependence of salary on work effort* (1=not at all true to 4=very true), *responsibility over other employees* (1=yes, 2=no), and the *employment relation* that the employee has (1=employee, 2=self-employed, 3=working for own family business).

In addition, dummy variables were created for each of the 25 countries. These variables were used as control variables in order to account for the fact that respondents are nested in different countries.

Data analysis

For the testing of the hypotheses, *moderated multiple regression (MMR) analyses* is conducted. The nature of the data and the aim of this study is taken into account while choosing this type of analysis. The data used in this study are focused on the level of the individual. Since national-level factors are not taken into consideration, an MMR is deemed as a sufficient analytical tool. In addition, the aim of an MMR is to extend a regression analysis by incorporating a predictor carrying information about the moderating effect (Aguinis, 2004). The exploration of this moderating effect constitutes the central aim of this study. In order to account for issues of multicollinearity, all variables are mean-centered (Jaccard & Turrisi, 2003).

The analyses result in four models for each category of values (openness to change, self-enhancement, conservation). The same control variables are used throughout all models and cultural values. The first model in each analysis includes only the control variables. Model 2 is inclusionary of high-performance practices related to autonomy and skills-enhancement, in order to examine the effect of these practices on work effort without taking into consideration any effect of moderation. Models 1 and 2 indicate almost identical results across all three analyses as they are essentially the same models. In model 3, only one cultural value is added in order to examine the direct effect that it has on work effort. Finally, in model 4, the moderation variables (cultural value \times autonomy; cultural value \times skills-enhancement) are included.

Results

Descriptive results

Table 2 depicts the mean scores of *work effort* for all 25 countries. Employees in Luxembourg and France perceive their work to require the highest effort among the 25 countries ($m=3.06$ and 2.72 respectively). Employees in Ukraine indicate the lowest scores for work effort ($m=1.78$) followed by the United Kingdom and Slovakia ($m=2.00$ for both). The average mean for all countries is 2.35 .

Results of Regression Analyses

Three different regression analyses were executed, each corresponding to one category of cultural values. Table 3a shows the results of the analysis for *openness to change*, 3b for *self-enhancement*, and 3c for *conservation*. With regards to the individual characteristics, for all three analyses age and education are found to be non-significant. Gender scores high on significance ($p < .01$), with a negative value throughout, meaning that work effort is higher among females. With regards to the work-related variables, all variables are found significant, with the exception of employment relation. More specifically, work effort is higher for those who work more hours, whose family distracts them from work, and whose salary depends on their work effort. On the other hand, supervisors, employees who have training, and those who can be easily replaced from their jobs indicate lower work effort.

The addition of the HR practices (autonomy and skills-enhancement) to the model results in a slight improvement in the variance of the model ($r^2=.109$ for model 1, and $.124$ for model 2). Even though both autonomy and skills-enhancement are found to be significant ($p<.01$), the value of autonomy is negative. This indicates that the high-performance practices aiming to enhance autonomy for employees result in employees exhibiting lower work effort. On the contrary, practices that focus on skills-enhancement increase work effort. Overall, models 1 and 2 show almost identical results among all three regression analyses, with very little change.

The results for the regression related to the value of *openness to change* are shown in table 3a. The introduction of openness to change into the model does not alter the explained variance of the model and the significance of the previously mentioned variables. Openness to change itself has low significance ($p < .10$) which hints towards a weak effect. In model 4, the moderation variables are included in the regression. The results show that openness to change affects only the relationship between practices related to autonomy and work effort ($p<.01$), and is non-significant for the relationship between skills-enhancement and work effort. Nevertheless, the value of the moderation of openness to change between autonomy and work effort is negative. This means that for employees who value openness to change (self-direction and stimulation), lower levels of autonomy will result in higher levels of work effort. The same conclusion is reached when examining the interaction effects (see Appendix B, Figure 1). Overall, work effort is higher when the levels of autonomy are low. Nevertheless, the degree to which an individual values openness to change does have an effect; high levels of openness

to change combined with low levels of autonomy increase work effort. Even though this effect is found to be significant for autonomy, it contradicts the initial hypothesis that openness to change strengthens the relationship between high-performance practices related to autonomy and work effort. Thus, hypotheses 1a and 1b are refuted.

Table 3a. Regression analysis - Openness to Change

<i>Variables</i>	<i>(1)</i>		<i>(2)</i>		<i>(3)</i>		<i>(4)</i>	
	β	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
<i>HR Practices</i>								
Autonomy (AU)			-.009***	.001	-.009***	.001	-.009***	.001
Skills-Enhancement (SK)			.038***	.003	.038***	.003	.039***	.003
<i>Cultural Values</i>								
Openness to change					.012*	.007	.009	.007
Openness to change X AU							-.003***	.001
Openness to change X SK							.000	.002
<i>Individual</i>								
Age	.000	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001
Gender ^a	-.118***	.018	-.120***	.018	-.119***	.018	-.118***	.018
Education	.002	.003	.003	.003	.003	.003	-.003	.003
<i>Work</i>								
Hours worked	.014***	.001	.014***	.001	.014***	.001	.013***	.001
Training	-.071***	.019	-.043**	.019	-.045**	.019	-.045**	.019
Family distracting from work	.089***	.010	.091***	.010	.091***	.010	.091***	.010
Replaceability	-.007***	.002	-.007***	.002	-.007***	.002	-.007***	.002
Dependence of salary on work effort	.112***	.009	.102***	.009	.102***	.009	.102***	.009
Responsibility for other employees	-.116***	.020	-.121***	.020	-.121***	.020	-.138***	.020
Employment relation	-.104	.263	0.49	.261	.051	.261	.058	.261
R square	.109		.124		.124		.125	
R square change	.109		.015		.000		.001	

Notes: ^a Gender has been coded as follows: male=1, female=0. *p<.10; **p<.05; ***p<.01. Dummy variables have been used for all countries: AT, BE, CH, CZ, DE, DK, EE, ES, FI, FR, GB, GR, HU, IE, IS, IT, LU, NL, NO, PL, SE, SI, SK, TR, UA.

Table 3b shows the results for the regressions for the value of *self-enhancement*. Similar to the value of openness to change, the introduction of self-enhancement does not alter the variance that the model explains. Self-enhancement is found to be non-significant when it is introduced into the model. Model 4 shows the inclusion of the effect of moderation that self-enhancement has between autonomy and skills-enhancement. The results indicate that the moderation is significant ($p < .01$) only for skills-enhancement, with the value being negative. This means that self-enhancement weakens the relationship between practices related to skills-enhancement and work effort. In other words, employees who do not value self-enhancement (hedonism, achievement, and power) will exhibit higher work effort, when practices related to skills-enhancement are present. Autonomy is found to be non-significant. The interaction effects for these variables (see Appendix B, Figure 2) also show that practices related to skills-enhancement are most effective in increasing work effort only when they are combined with low levels of self-enhancement. Employees who value self-enhancement will indicate higher levels of work effort only when the levels of practices related to skills-enhancement are low. Consequently, hypotheses 2a and 2b suggesting that self-enhancement strengthens the relationship between high-performance practices related to autonomy/skills-enhancement and work effort are refuted.

Table 3b. Regression analysis – Self-Enhancement

<i>Variables</i>	<i>(1)</i>		<i>(2)</i>		<i>(3)</i>		<i>(4)</i>	
	β	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>SE</i>
<i>HR Practices</i>								
Autonomy (AU)			-.009***	.001	-.009***	.001	-.010***	.001
Skills-Enhancement (SK)			.038***	.003	.038***	.003	.039***	.003
<i>Cultural Values</i>								
Self-Enhancement					.006	.006	.009	.006
Self-Enhancement X AU							.000	.001
Self-Enhancement X SK							-.005***	.002
<i>Individual</i>								
Age	.000	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001
Gender ^a	-.118***	.018	-.120***	.018	-.118***	.018	-.118***	.018
Education	.002	.003	.003	.003	.003	.003	.003	.003
<i>Work</i>								
Hours worked	.014***	.001	.014***	.001	.014***	.001	.014***	.001
Training	-.071***	.019	-.043***	.019	-.043***	.019	-.044***	.019

Family distracting from work	.090***	.010	.091***	.010	.091***	.010	.091***	.010
Replaceability	-.007***	.002	-.007***	.002	-.007***	.002	-.007***	.002
Dependence of salary on work effort	.111***	.009	.102***	.009	.102***	.009	.102***	.009
Responsibility for other employees	-.116***	.019	-.121***	.020	-.121***	.020	-.121***	.020
Employment relation	-.104	.263	.049	.261	.050	.261	.060	.261
R square		.109		.124		.124		.124
R square change		.109		.015		.000		.000

Notes: ^a Gender has been coded as follows: male=1, female=0. *p<.10; **p<.05; ***p<.01. Dummy variables have been used for all counties: AT, BE, CH, CZ, DE, DK, EE, ES, FI, FR, GB, GR, HU, IE, IS, IT, LU, NL, NO, PL, SE, SI, SK, TR, UA.

Table 3c shows the results for the regression analysis related to the value of *conservation*. The introduction of this value into the analysis does not produce significant results. The variance that the model explains remains the same. Nevertheless, when the moderation variables are incorporated conservation indicates a weak significance ($p<.10$). The moderation of conservation between autonomy and work effort also indicates a weak significance ($p<.10$), which means that for employees who value conservation, higher levels of autonomy result in higher levels of work effort. In addition, as can be seen from the interaction effects (see Appendix B, Figure 3), work effort can also be higher for employees who do not value conservation, but only when practices related to autonomy are low as well. The effect of the moderation on the relationship between skills-enhancement and work effort is also significant ($p<.01$) and is positive. As a result, for employees who value conservation, the effect of practices related to skills-enhancement and work effort will be stronger. Similar to the interactions effects between autonomy and conservation, the interaction effects for skills-enhancement and conservation also show that work effort can be higher for employees who do not value conservation only when the practices related to skills-enhancement are also low (see Appendix B, Figure 4). Hypotheses 3a and 3b suggested that conservation (security, conformity, tradition) strengthens the relationship between high-performance practices related to autonomy/skills-enhancement and work effort and are, thus, confirmed.

Table 3c. Regression analysis – Conservation

Variables	(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)	
	β	SE	β	SE	β	SE	β	SE
<i>HR Practices</i>								
Autonomy (AU)			-.009***	.001	-.009***	.001	-.009***	.001
Skills-Enhancement (SK)			.038***	.003	.038***	.003	.039***	.003
<i>Cultural Values</i>								
Conservation					-.008	.005	-.010*	.005
Conservation X AU							.001*	.001
Conservation X SK							.004***	.001
<i>Individual</i>								
Age	.000	.001	.000	.001	.001	.001	.001	.001
Gender ^a	-.118***	.018	-.117***	.018	-.119***	.018	-.117***	.018
Education	.002	.003	.003	.003	.003	.003	.003	.003
<i>Work</i>								
Hours worked	.014***	.001	.014***	.001	.014***	.001	.014***	.001
Training	-.071***	.019	-.074**	.019	-.045**	.019	-.046**	.019
Family distracting from work	.089***	.010	.089***	.010	.091***	.010	.091***	.010
Replaceability	-.007***	.002	-.007***	.002	-.007***	.002	-.007***	.002
Dependence of salary on work effort	.112***	.009	.112***	.009	.102***	.009	.101***	.009
Responsibility for other employees	-.116***	.020	-.118***	.020	-.121***	.020	-.119***	.020
Employment relation	-.104	.263	-.098	.263	-.052	.263	-.058	.263
R square	.109		.124		.124		.125	
R square change	.109		.015		.000		.001	

Notes: ^a Gender has been coded as follows: male=1, female=0. *p<.10; **p<.05; ***p<.01. Dummy variables have been used for all counties: AT, BE, CH, CZ, DE, DK, EE, ES, FI, FR, GB, GR, HU, IE, IS, IT, LU, NL, NO, PL, SE, SI, SK, TR, UA.

Conclusion & Discussion

The aim of this study is to investigate the role of cultural values in the relationship between High-Performance HR practices and work effort using the ESS database. Three broader categories of Schwartz' cultural values have been examined, namely openness to change, self-enhancement, and conservation. The results of the analyses indicate that only with regards to conservation do cultural values strengthen the relationship between high-performance practices

related both to autonomy or skills-enhancement and work effort. The effect is greater for the relationship between practices focused on skills-enhancement and work effort over these practices that are related to autonomy. Contrary to the hypothesized relationship, a negative effect of moderation is found for openness to change on the relationship between practices related to autonomy and work effort. Similarly, self-enhancement is found to have a negative effect on the relationship between practices related to skills-enhancement and work effort. The outcomes raise questions that need to be explored by future research.

The rejection of hypotheses 1a and 1b (openness to change) and the simultaneous corroboration of hypotheses 3a and 3b (conservation) was expected due to the diametrically opposed character of these values. Openness to change is a value that focuses on creativity and a sense of self-direction, which requires a certain degree of autonomy. On the other hand, conservation entails the avoidance of breaking the rules and also respecting traditions, which requires the individual to be obedient. Essentially, the results suggest that high-performance practices are more successful in increasing an employee's work effort when an employee is more obedient than autonomous. Further, the negative effect that self-enhancement has on practices related to skills-enhancement was unexpected. In general, practices related to skills-enhancement have been found to have a positive effect on work effort, and in tandem with theoretical grounds, the effect of self-enhancement on the relationship in question was hypothesized as positive. Nevertheless, a possible explanation for finding a negative effect might be found in the perceptions that employees have of these practices. The case might be that employees who value hedonism, achievement, and power, do not associate high-performance practices as means through which these values can be satisfied. Even though the findings of this study cannot indicate whether this is true, employees might lower their work effort because they perceive these practices as barriers to achievement and power.

An interesting observation about the results of the regression analysis on the value of conservation can be found when taking a closer look at the interaction effects of conservation and practices related to autonomy (Appendix figure 3). It appears that the synergetic effect of these two variables results in increased work effort when low levels of conservation and autonomy are combined. This means that employees who do not value conservation will indicate higher work effort, but only they do not become more autonomous. When employees value conservation and they do not become more autonomous they indicate less work effort. Consequently, in the absence of practices related to autonomy, conservation has a negative

effect on work effort. This effect is seen as somewhat paradoxical only when assuming that values such as the one of security is influential on the performance of employees in a positive manner. While some studies have shown this assumption to be true, others have argued that this is not always the case (Sverke, Hellgren & Näswall, 2002). As a result, it is possible that an employee will indicate higher work effort, even though they do not feel secure. Further research on this subject is needed in order to draw more solid conclusions.

The results of this study indicate that different cultural values have an effect on the relationship that different bundles of high-performance practices have with work effort. These findings are valuable in that they provide evidence that individual-level cultural values have an effect on how effective high-performance practices are on work effort. Thus, researchers should taken such cultural values into consideration when examining this relationship. On the societal level, the results of this study can be useful to those implementing high-performance practices in an organization. Irrespective of the negative or positive effect of each value on these practices and work effort, the findings suggest that cultural values do have an effect. A useful application of these findings could be realized if these effects are taken into account. For example, targeted implementation of practices related to skills-enhancement to employees who value conservation can result in greater work effort.

This study has some limitations which should be taken into consideration for future research endeavors. Through the analysis it became evident that cross-national differences might exist with regards to the effect that cultural values as moderators have on the relationship between high-performance practices and work effort (see Appendix C). For example, the effect of conservation on the aforementioned relationship was found to be significant only for countries located in western/central Europe (Austria, Czech Republic, the Netherlands, Germany) and northern Europe (Denmark, Norway), with the exception of Ukraine. This effect held true also for the other cultural values, with little variation. Nevertheless, even within these clusters of countries, variation was found with regards to the effect that conservation has on practices related to autonomy and skills-enhancement. This might indicate that cultural values are influenced by national factors, and thus, the relationship between different high-performance practices and work effort is also affected. However, this study focused on the level of the individual and cross-national differences were not taken into consideration. Furthermore, another limitation comes from the data that was used. For the conduction of the analyses only employed respondents were taken into consideration, with no categorization of

the type of job that they have. As a result, individuals active in different positions might indicate a divergence in their perceptions of their work effort. The findings suggested that work effort is higher for individuals who do not have responsibility for other employees, and this effect was present and significant for all cultural values. This might indicate that supervisors and subordinates have different perceptions about their work effort, and should thus be taken into account in future research.

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Appendix

Appendix A. Categorization of Schwartz's values and ESS questions

Openness to change

Self-Direction

Thinking up new ideas and being creative is important to her/him. She/he likes to do things in her/his own original way.

Stimulation

She/he likes surprises and is always looking for new things to do. She/he thinks it is important to do lots of different things in life.

She/he looks for adventures and likes to take risks. She/he wants to have an exciting life.

Self-Enhancement

Hedonism

Having a good time is important to her/him. She/he likes to 'spoil' herself/himself.

She/he seeks every chance she/he can to have fun. It is important to her/him to do things that give her/him pleasure.

Achievement

It's important to her/him to show her/his abilities. She/he wants people to admire what she/he does.

Being very successful is important to her/him. She/he hopes people will recognize her/his achievements.

Power

It is important to her/him to be rich. She/he wants to have a lot of money and expensive things.

It is important to her/him to get respect from others. She/he wants people to do what she/he says.

It is important to her/him to make her/his own decisions about what she/he does. She/he likes to be free and not depend on others.

Conservation

Security

It is important to her/him to live in secure surroundings. She/avoids anything that might endanger her/his safety.

It is important to her/him that the government ensures her/his safety against all threats. She/he wants the state to be strong so it can defend its citizens.

Conformity

She//he believes that people should do what they're told. She/he thinks people should follow rules at all times, even when no-one is watching.

It is important to her/him always to behave properly. She/he wants to avoid anything people would say is wrong.

Tradition

Tradition is important to her/him. She/he tries to follow the customs handed down by her/his religion or her/his family.

Appendix B. Figures of interaction effects per moderator and value

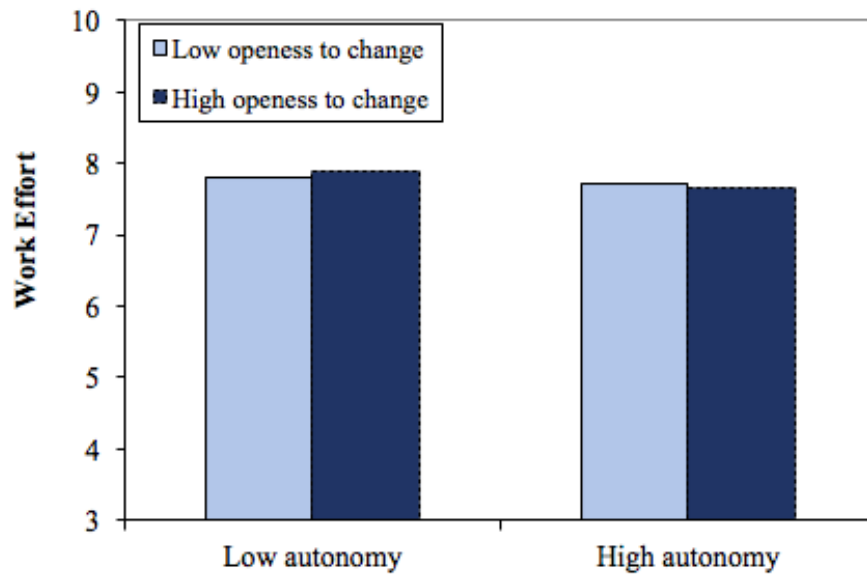


Figure 1. Interaction effects – openness to change & autonomy

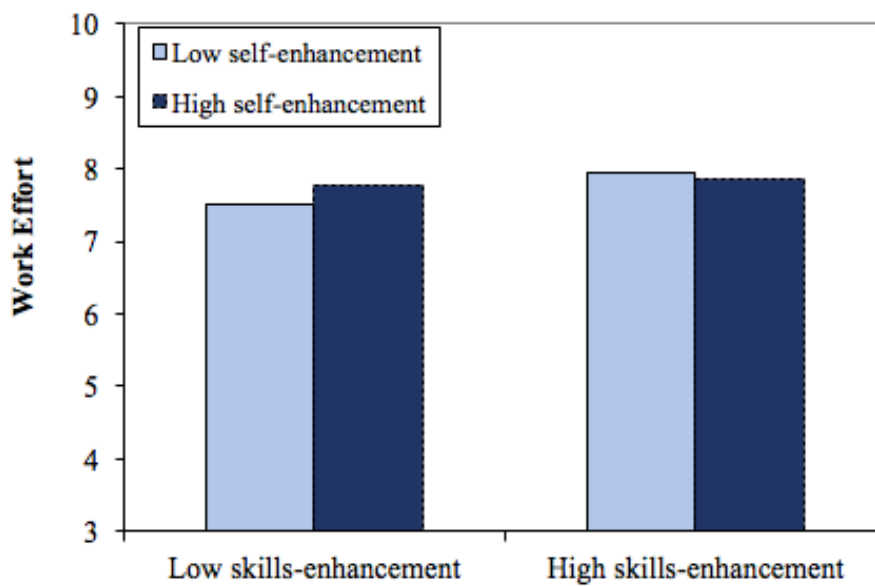


Figure 2. Interaction effects – self-enhancement & skills-enhancement

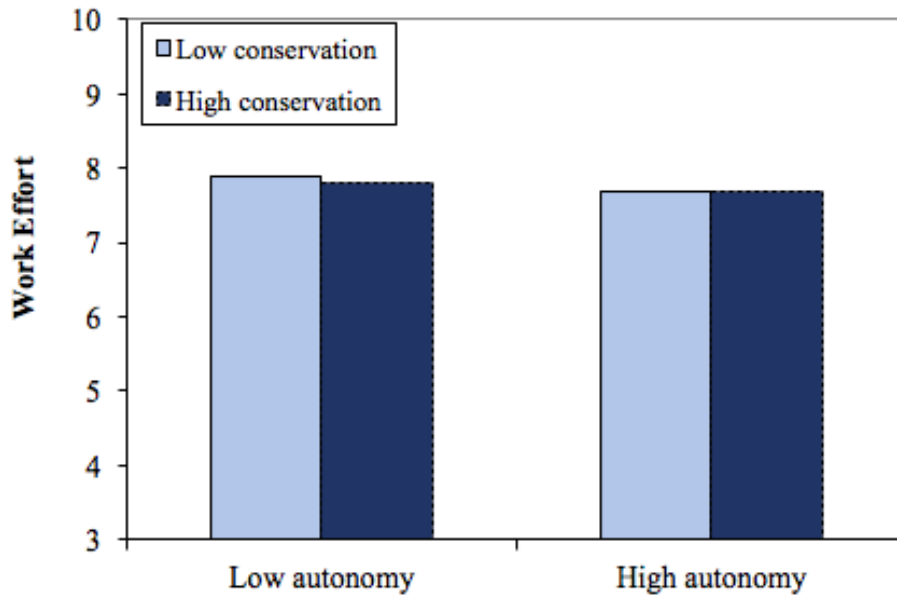


Figure 3. Interaction effects – conservation & autonomy

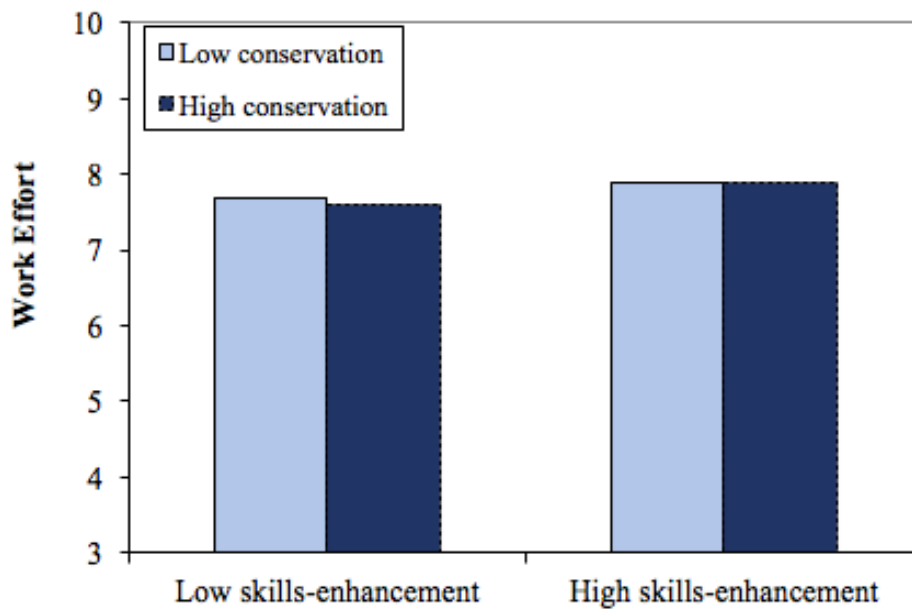


Figure 4. Interaction effects – conservation & skills-enhancement

Appendix C. Moderations per country (model 4)

<i>Countries</i>	<i>Openness to Change</i>		<i>Self-Enhancement</i>		<i>Conservation</i>	
	β	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>SE</i>
Austria						
Cultural value X AU	-.002	.004	.004	.004	-.001	.003
Cultural value X SK	-.020*	.011	-.003	.009	.022***	.008
Belgium						
Cultural value X AU	.001	.004	.000	.004	.000	.003
Cultural value X SK	-.005	.011	-.003	.009	-.001	.008
Switzerland						
Cultural value X AU	-.005	.003	.003	.003	-.001	.002
Cultural value X SK	-.004	.009	-.011	.008	.009	.006
Czech Republic						
Cultural value X AU	-.013***	.004	.000	.003	.006*	.003
Cultural value X SK	-.007	.013	.010	.008	-.001	.009
Germany						
Cultural value X AU	-.008***	.003	-.005**	.002	.005***	.002
Cultural value X SK	.005	.008	.001	.007	-.005	.006
Denmark						
Cultural value X AU	-.003	.004	-.009**	.004	.006**	.003
Cultural value X SK	.015	.010	-.017*	.009	.003	.007
Estonia						
Cultural value X AU	-.002	.004	.001	.003	-.001	.003
Cultural value X SK	.000	.009	.003	.006	-.002	.006
Spain						
Cultural value X AU	-.001	.003	.000	.002	-.001	.002
Cultural value X SK	-.010	.008	-.005	.006	.007	.006
Finland						
Cultural value X AU	-.005	.004	.001	.003	.001	.003
Cultural value X SK	-.004	.011	-.018**	.008	.012	.008
United Kingdom						
Cultural value X AU	.000	.003	.001	.002	.000	.002
Cultural value X SK	.012*	.007	.000	.005	-.008	.005
Greece						
Cultural value X AU	-.004	.005	.005	.003	-.005	.004
Cultural value X SK	-.017	.014	.001	.009	.012	.011
Ireland						
Cultural value X AU	-.001	.005	-.005	.004	.003	.004
Cultural value X SK	.002	.013	-.003	.012	.005	.010
Iceland						

Cultural value X AU	-.006	.006	-.006	.005	.005	.004
Cultural value X SK	.001	.012	-.008	.010	.008	.008
Luxembourg						
Cultural value X AU	-.004	.004	.003	.003	.004	.003
Cultural value X SK	.020**	.010	.000	.009	-.012	.009
Netherlands						
Cultural value X AU	-.001	.005	.005	.004	-.002	.004
Cultural value X SK	-.008	.012	-.006	.010	.018**	.009
Norway						
Cultural value X AU	-.002	.004	-.002	.003	-.002	.003
Cultural value X SK	-.003	.008	-.004	.007	.015**	.006
Poland						
Cultural value X AU	-.005	.004	-.004	.003	.005	.003
Cultural value X SK	-.002	.011	-.008	.008	.007	.008
Portugal						
Cultural value X AU	.003	.004	-.002	.004	.002	.003
Cultural value X SK	.015	.011	-.007	.010	.003	.008
Sweden						
Cultural value X AU	.001	.003	.003	.003	-.002	.002
Cultural value X SK	.000	.008	-.012*	.006	.000	.006
Slovenia						
Cultural value X AU	-.001	.004	.003	.004	-.002	.003
Cultural value X SK	.001	.011	-.022	.014	.003	.011
Slovakia						
Cultural value X AU	.007*	.004	.000	.003	-.003	.003
Cultural value X SK	-.005	.011	.007	.006	-.008	.008
Turkey						
Cultural value X AU	-.007	.006	-.009	.005	.010	.013
Cultural value X SK	-.021	.014	-.013	.014	.017	.013
Ukraine						
Cultural value X AU	.001	.004	.003	.003	-.005	.003
Cultural value X SK	-.006	.010	-.010	.007	.017**	.008
